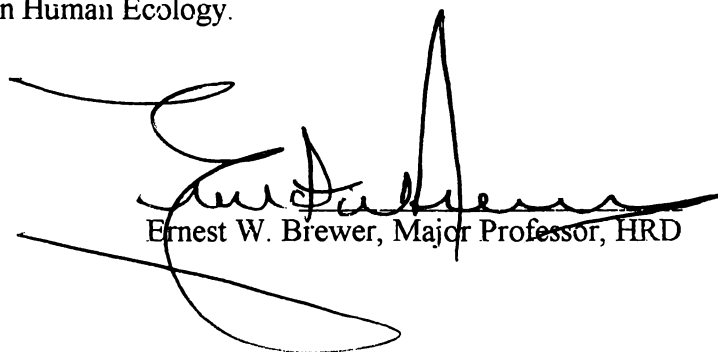


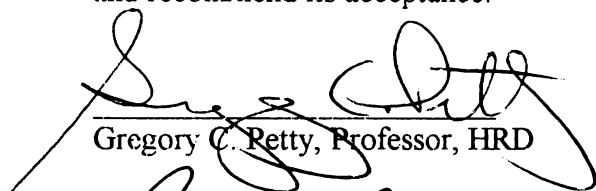
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Janis Brickey entitled "Flexible Work Arrangements in the United States: A Historical Analysis Applying a Systems Model." I have examined the final paper copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Human Ecology.



Ernest W. Brewer, Major Professor, HRD

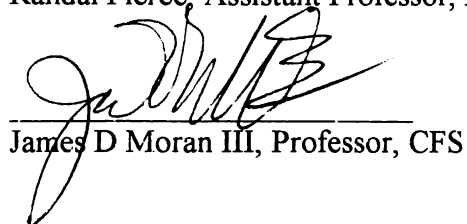
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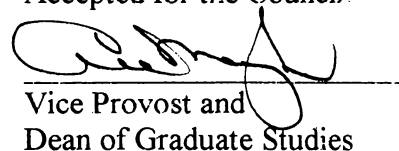


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FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES:
A HISTORICAL ANALYSIS APPLYING A SYSTEMS MODEL

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Janis Brickey
August 2002

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to two women who impacted my life in significant ways. Anna Ruth Gillenwater Brickey, my mother, passed away October 7, 1998. One of her last comprehensible statements to me was to ask about my graduate work. She was a remarkable elementary teacher and she believed in her students. Charlotte Jones Moore died suddenly September 17, 2001. Charlotte was fondly called my second mom. In 1985, Charlotte and I visited New York City together and toasted the future at the former *Windows of the World*.

Both encouraged me (and others) to pursue goals with grace and dignity.

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understanding of Kathie Dobbins, and the constant belief of Stephanie Cowherd were all important.

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ABSTRACT

The emergence of flexible work arrangements, flextime, was investigated applying historical research methods. A systems approach integrated elements of Schuler and Jackson's (1996) Human Resource Management (HRM) model and Bronfenbrenner's (1979) human development model. The literature on the models provided guidance to the development of the research variables: national systems, work systems, family systems, and individual systems. The time frame, between 1970 and 1999, was determined by the initial review as to the start of flextime in the United States.

Literature analysis focused on HRM journals and *Monthly Labor Review* published during the time frame. Flextime title counts (frequency counts) were conducted for each of the decades from the literature reviews. Other secondary data included Consumer Price Index, Current Population Survey data and Census Bureau data on population age distribution, employment data, household composition and income, educational levels, and life expectancy. Primary data were collected from individuals who were the median age of working Americans in 1975, 1985, and 1995. Each decade, 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s, was analyzed through the primary and secondary data and the information was collapsed into a final model.

Findings indicated that the use of flextime may not be as prevalent as the literature suggested. Many of the reports were by human resources and managers on the availability of flextime with other options. The role of management or supervisors in the discretion was discussed throughout the literature. Overall the impact of the economy, legislation, educational levels, the development of the field of HRM, demographic

changes, and the conflicts of work and family interacted in the emergence and availability of flextime. The analysis of the flextime journal counts indicated that publication of articles paralleled legislative developments.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

During the 20th century, the United States created and defined a modern lifestyle. Lifestyles radically changed due to societal trends, demographics, and technology that defined and shaped perceptions about family, work, and society. Changes within families and workplaces were significant and interrelated. The allocation of time for family, work, and personal pursuits was a facet of the impact of the changes throughout the century. Time became an issue for individuals, work groups, families, and work.

During the time frame of 1970 to 1999, the trend of flexible work hours emerged as a mechanism to balance the time demands on many individuals as workers and family members. To understand and appreciate the impact of flexible work hours, a historical, multi-disciplinary study investigated the contextual factors and impacts supporting the emergence of the work trend. Researchers documented perspectives on flexible work concepts across many disciplines during this period. Various perspectives and applications of flexible work arrangements reflected the experiences, time, place, and disciplines of the authors. This dissertation applied systems models to organize and create boundaries for the investigation and analysis of secondary and primary data sources. The impact of variables on work and family systems tracked and measured the emergence of American flextime during the last 30 years of the 20th century.

Overview of Study

The underlying goal of this study was to conduct a historical analysis in the field of human resource management (HRM) through research on a work trend impacting

work systems. Flextime emerged as the primary topic during the development of the project. Flextime changed the daily regulation of work hours and represented a theoretical return of control of work time to the employees within given limits. Control over *time at work* as a historical theme included issues such as wages, the impact on families, employees' activities outside of work, supervisors' perceptions about work control, and productivity. During this time frame, a number of alternative work options accommodated worker and employer expectations. However, the concepts and philosophies of flextime and flexible hours were critical to the emergence of other alternative arrangements. Flextime theoretically released workers from the perception that work had to be measured as time in one location during repeated and standardized timing of work hours.

Since flextime first occurred in the United States in the early 1970s, a time frame from 1970 to 1999 became the reference time period. The analysis of various sources of data, organized within a systems model framework, tracked changes and impacts for the three decades: 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s, and throughout the time frame.

The format for this study presentation included an introductory chapter with information on 20th century developments considered a critical foundation for the analysis of the study time frame. The changes in work and family interface of the earlier 20th century established the cultural perceptions of family and work. As these cultures changed, and remained constant in some aspects, flextime options were a mechanism to ease the cultural tensions. Three themes, work, technology, and family highlights, provided the background to the interdisciplinary approach outlined in the latter part of the

introduction. The methodology chapter included an overview of historical analysis, model development, and the research questions. The research questions for the model variables converted in to the headings and subheadings of chapters for each of the decades covered in the research, 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s. At the end of each chapter, a representative model illustrated the findings for the decade. The cumulative findings included an analysis of the impacts and interactions for each of the model variables across the time frame, answers to the final research questions, and the cumulative graphic model. The final chapter or conclusions included limitations, future research ideas, and recommendations for applications of the findings.

The definitions and acronyms in this study included information from multidisciplinary sources changed during the time frame. The multi-disciplinary and historical context of this study included the use of numerous acronyms and multi-faceted definitions. A list of acronyms was included in Appendix A. As a result of the historical and multidiscipline format of this study, the meaning and usage of definitions changed over the time frame. The list of definitions included in Appendix B included these changes.

During the study time frame, other alternative work arrangements became popular with human resources, management, and workers. Flextime, flexitime, or flexible hours supported and promoted perceptions and opportunities for other arrangements. Flextime freed the worker from the regulations of daily work defined by the standards of the workday. Without the emergence of flextime, more resistance to other alternatives to the traditional workday would have occurred.

Flexitime Origins and Applications

Flexible work hours started in Germany in 1967 at the firm of Messerschmidt Bolkow Blohm (Bernard, 1979; Elbing, Gadon, & Gordon, 1974). Several researchers noted that two-lane road to the plant in a busy industrial area was heavily traveled. Tardiness caused personnel issues and production problems. The *gliding time* or *flexitime* theory supported the establishment of core hours of operation but allowed worker discretion within limits for arrival and departure. European companies quickly adopted the concept of gliding time. The process evolved into a practice of employee choice as to when individual workers started and ended each workday. The flexitime movement was instrumental in developing work hours practices outside of the standard hours of operation. Large numbers of European workers had flexitime options within a few years.

Control Data Systems offered flexitime in early 1972 (Bohen & Vivieros-Long, 1984; Gomez-Meija, Hopp, & Sommerstad, 1978; Newstrom & Pierce, 1979). However, many researchers credit Hewlett Packard (HP) with the establishment of flexible work hours in the United States in 1972 (Bernard, 1979; "Flexible working hours and the honor system," 1979). European companies with American and Canadian operations offered flexitime during the early 1970s. Bohen and Vivieros-Long (1984) stated that the federal government started flexitime in 1972. Owen (1977) stated that most of the installations of flexitime arrangements occurred after 1973.

Early conflicts emerged between management and employees about flexitime practices and adjustment to the break from the traditional workday. One of the occupations that made extensive use of flexitime hours was clerical or clerk typing

positions in the 1970s. Hilgert and Hundley (1975) reported on flextime arrangements in an insurance firm and a bank. Although the workers were positive, supervisors reported a loss of control. K. Rutherford (personal communication, December 11, 2001) worked as a clerk typist in the late 1970s. She recalled that most staff loved the hours and scheduled for early arrival and departure. However, most managers arrived and stayed later. She reported that managers in this particular insurance company expressed that they did not like the option because they felt understaffed at the later hours of the day.

One of the ongoing applications of flextime addressed the work and family balance issue exacerbated by the increased number of women in the workforce. Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981) researched family and work balance support from The Family Impact Seminar created in 1976. The group assessed the impact of government policies on family and produce research volumes on specific topics. Bohen and Viveros-Long's volume addressed the question of how federal employees balanced their jobs and family responsibilities. Potential topics included childcare, quality of work life, transfer policies, and hours of work. After preliminary research on the topics, hours of work as in flextime became the focus of their study. Over 141,000 federal employees had flextime options in fall 1977. By fall 1978, 10% of all federal employees had flextime options. They used two Likert type scales (Family Management Scale, Role Strain Scale) to assess flextime impact on a stratified sample. The results indicated that flextime provided a better feeling about work and family management for employed parents. They reported a reduction in stress for married employees without children but not participants with children.

Although the study was limited in scope, the findings supported the mixed acceptance of

flexible options. Even with daily flextime, schedules for daycare or school for children were not flexible.

Barling (1997) considered research in family balance issues one of the key challenges facing human resource professionals. Cohn (1996) stressed the importance of flextime and other family friendly benefits since increased numbers of women were in the workforce and were trying to balance work and family. He applied human capital theory and demonstrated that women as an employment risk needed additional supports.

A wide range of companies offered flextime options to employees in various occupations. Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, and Weitzman (2001) reported a study conducted in the late 1990s at IBM on the work and family spillover (balance). One of the interesting findings of their work was the importance of perceived flexibility. The perception that management understood employee (work and life) stress and promoted flexible options was significant.

By the end of the 20th century, tight labor market labor strategies included flextime as a retention and recruitment tool. The cost of replacing employees rose considerably with the escalating cost of benefits and potential relocation packages during the 1980s and 1990s (Arthur, 2001; Fitz-enz, 2000; Guinn, 1989).

Cultural perceptions reflect the experiences of groups or cohorts subject to time and place within a cultural environment. The experiences of the clerical workers were different from the experiences of the professional workers. A number of changes in the American workplace and family occurred since the early applications of flextime work arrangements. Perceptions about flextime evolved. Many companies included flextime as

one of the methods for human resource managers to provide for the workers of the future (Avery & Zabel, 2001). Flextime applications and perceptions of widespread flexibility dominated the literature. During the same period, many different opinions about flexible options and the extensiveness the use of flextime existed in the literature.

Understanding the flextime trend in cultural context required a historical framework. Kantrow (1986) summarized a Harvard Business School roundtable on the importance of history in management development. The typical manager cannot understand or predict the cycles and trends of business without the context of history and the various factors impacting a given context. The knowledge of history helped to define distance and perspective and to formulate strategies for future applications and approaches.

Flextime as a business and management innovation was formulated over time through various changes in work and family systems. Therefore, to understand the parameters of the perceptions about flextime, it was important to define the culture and context that supported the development of flextime options.

Research Questions Guiding the Historical Research Process

In the context of the last 30 years of the 20th century, the emergence of flextime influenced work cultures and family systems. The context of work and family balance, human resource policies such as absenteeism and tardiness, and productivity influenced the emergence of flexible work options and flextime. The following questions guided the early contextual development of the project.

1. What are the factors that supported the use of flextime work arrangements?
2. What are the factors that supported the development and continuance of flextime arrangements in the United States?
3. What type of model can be used to visualize the interrelationships?

Answers to these questions required an understanding of multiple disciplines and the respective meanings and orientations to historical context of the systems that supported the development of flextime.

Bateson (1972) wrote that context was critical for meaning. He considered the “qualitative structure of contexts” and not the intensity of the interactions as important to determine meaning. Contextual meaning required an understanding of the foundation of factors that supported the development of the flextime options.

The preliminary historical investigation determined context and relevance of events and processes from the earlier 20th century that influenced the events and systems during time span of the study. A true evaluation required more than an overview of numbers. Sicilia (1997) called for the deeper interpretation of American business history since World War II. He felt that although a number of quality longitudinal studies existed, the contextual meanings were shallow. Establishment of the context leading to the time frame of this study was critical. The context of the American work environment, the influences of technology, and the changing demographics and family composition during the 20th century were important foundation themes. The following section provided the earlier historical context and defined the interdisciplinary approach for this study.

Twentieth Century America: Work, Technology, and Family Evolutions

The practice of flextime was a departure from the traditional work relationship between employees and management. Impacts on work and family and changes in technology were important to the emergence of flextime.

A number of general perceptions exist about work and family during the 20th century. Over the course of the century, the concepts of the workplace, the worker, the job, and the family changed. During the early part of the 20th century, people were encouraged to work in the newly automated factories. During World War II, women performed many of the work responsibilities. During the 1950s, the American dream included the traditional family with two children and mother at home. By the 1960s, when women started to enter the workforce, the increased availability of jobs in the services industries prompted many women to work. By the end of the century, Wohl (1997) wrote that many considered their work as the means to plan and develop their lives outside of work. The relationship between employees and employers changed with the downsizing trends of the latter 1980s and the 1990s. Workers worked on careers and employment independent of guarantees of employment for life.

Work Evolutions in 20th Century America

Historically, the availability or principles of supply and demand determined labor activities. Morris (1976) wrote that industries developed in regions specific to the immigration activities of the time. The historical relationship of labor and management affected other systems such as wages, management, and legislation.

The activities preceding the development of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) in 1885 included input from labor and social reformers who went to Congress and demanded investigation of working conditions (Grossman & Maclaury, 1975). Congress listened because of local constituent fears about the escalating number of strikes (726 equaled the total of previous years of tracking combined). Labor unions significantly increased in number until the Great Depression. During the 1950 and 1960s, jobs in manufacturing and unionization of government increased union membership. One of the measures created to help track this trend was the Consumer Price Index (CPI). Unions, government, economists, and businesses, used this measurement, published monthly by the BLS, to track the changes in the price for consumer goods and regulate wages.

Greenebaum (1971) wrote an editorial on the impact of unions in the public sector during the 1960s. The government union worker was younger and supported the role of unions in politico-social causes. Communities across the country felt the effects of the general strikes that paralyzed transportation and utilities. Throughout the 20th century, union numbers reflected the changing distribution of jobs in manufacturing. As the number of service positions increased during the latter part of the 20th century, the influence of unions diminished. The number of service type positions increased the demand for workers outside of the traditional work periods as well. Service support needs required managers to rethink work hours and distribution of work.

The impact of business decisions and changes influenced the development of the environmental context for flextime. The contextual role of American business and economic growth was critical to this project. Chandler (1977) explained that the rise of

the modern business enterprise was not an isolated event. Mass production, distribution innovations, and new technology in power industry such as electricity facilitated the emergence of American business success. Prior to the availability of electricity, most work occurred within daylight hours. In turn, business acknowledged and applied new ideas and processes to work and industry. Electricity provided for expanded work hours outside of traditional daylight hours. Automation processes became more common with electrical power. The timely interaction of systems promoted the development of American businesses.

Stucki (1993) developed a table of the factors of the history of U.S. economic periods. He considered location, time period, the height of the time frame, the source of energy, the dominant raw material, transportation types, manufacturing technologies, and management style. Key managers and the working conditions they promoted were critical components to the implementation of innovative work practices. Management controlled the development of modern business practices.

The impact of management on the economic growth was one of the principles developed by Alfred Chandler, business historian. His work, *The Visible Hand* (1977), was a critical milestone in the development of business history (John, 1997). Chandler theorized that the success of the American economy was due to the impact of middle managers that interpreted and enforced policy and goals within the organizations.

Kantrow (1986) wrote that Chandler cautioned that business history was only one small part of economic history and stressed that historians should consider the wider

range of contextual issues as well for exploration. Chandler repeatedly acknowledged the impact of systems on real world business operations.

According to John (1997), Chandler considered the sociologist Talcott Parsons as the scholar more influential to his intellectual assumptions than any of the historians of his graduate studies. Parsons developed the structuralist-functionalist approach to institutional change studies whereby carefully framed comparisons were comparable to controlled experiments in the physical and social sciences. In many respects, Chandler's ability to conceptualize and frame comparisons utilized basic tenets of systems theory.

Chandler considered knowledge of the context as critical to understanding history. As illustrated through his theory of the importance of middle management in the formulation of American economic growth, he isolated the fact that communication and control at this level influenced workers, the implementation of policy, and ultimately productivity. Business changed dramatically during the 20th century, and the government's intervention in developing standards and regulations for workers was an important external factor. Regulation of the work and pay was an outcome of legislation and standardization of work time. Evidence of the standard 40-hour workweek appeared in 1920 ("Wages and hours of labor," 1920).

The Fair Labor Standards Act (1938) established the workweek guidelines including exempt and nonexempt classifications and standardized minimum wages. However, the impact was not felt uniformly until many years later (Grossman, 1978). By the 1950s, the ideas of a changing workplace emerged. Zelomek (1959) wrote his visiting perspective of the changing American workplace and defined the differences between

what contemporary Americans wanted from life and work as compared with their predecessors. The concept of employee's time usage outside of work was one of the factors presented in *Work in America* (Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1973). The phrase "quality of work life" first appeared in this report.

Sicilia (1997) described The New Deal Legislation of the 1930s as targeted for economic growth in specific industries. The New Social Regulation of the late 1960s and early 1970s addressed issues across the industrial landscape. Ten regulatory agencies emerged during this time including the National Transportation Safety Board, the Council on Environmental Quality, the Environmental Protection Agency, the Occupational Safety and Health Administration, and the Consumer Product Safety Commission. Sicilla summarized that the regulatory revolution agenda included "environmental protection, consumer rights, and workplace safety (p. 277)". The roles of consumer groups and unions in the development of legislation illustrated the multiple system level developments impacting workers.

The primary factor in the discussions of conflicts between work, time, and home responsibilities was the number of women who entered the labor market during the last 40 years of the 20th century. As the American economy changed from manufacturing to service based industries, work opportunities for women expanded. Perceptions about marriage, sex, and children changed during the 20th century. Axelrod and Phillips (1998) described the formation of Planned Parenthood in 1942 and its impact on family planning and birth control. The birth control pill introduced in 1960 "divorced sex and

reproduction” for millions of women (p. 216). The sexual revolution of the 1960s influenced changing perceptions about women in other life activities.

The passage of the Civil Rights Act (1964) with Title IV guaranteed employment rights for women. Later amendments specifically enforced issues of equality in the workplace. The perceptions of society about family size and housework expectations changed during this time frame. Women, married or not, gained some control over their lives as individuals, as members of families, and employees in the American workplace. Economists and business leaders viewed the employment of women as an essential factor in continued economic growth and global competition.

Goodman (1994) stated that women in the workforce changed the post recession recovery activities following business slumps from 1975 to 1993. In post recession periods during the 20th century prior to 1970, the employment of men in new jobs was common. The dominance of Women in the post recession job market started in 1973 and continued until the post recession period of 1990-1991. The impact of women in the workforce gained a new level of significance between 1970 and 1999. In the US, women filled most of the new jobs created following periods of recession. However, women’s wages were lower than their male counterparts in the same types of positions.

In summary, the historic understanding of economics and business growth was contextually salient. Unions, management, legislation for the workplace, and women were important themes. An appreciation of the factors over time that influenced the economy, supported the development of the interrelationships between the workers and family issues. Developments in technology created new opportunities in America and

influenced work (Chandler, 1977; Morris, 1976) and systems (Axelrod & Phillips, 1998). Understanding the impact of the changes and perceptions of technology in the 20th century leading to flextime was important for this study.

Technology Evolutions in 20th Century America

The impact of technology during the 20th century on individuals as workers and family members was immense. Electricity powered manufacturing plants and service operations expanded beyond daytime hours. Service industries evolved over the course of the century with expanded hours to accommodate changing job requirements and product demands. For example, the emergence of call centers during the 1980s depended on computers, communication network services, and the need for 24-hour operations by companies to support a global customer base. At the end of the century, technological developments dramatically increased the number of items available to Americans. Television, air travel, computer internet services, mobile phones, quick delivery services, fast food, were products of technology and cultural development during the 20th century. Technology changed and defined American life.

Time and culture determined the perceptions of society regarding technology. As briefly discussed earlier, technology changed business and work operations. Americans assimilated many facets of technology in their everyday lives. The household technology and cultural changes of early 20th century developed the cultural expectations of the family at the end of the century. The advancement and assimilation of technology were time and context dependent. Coopersmith (1994) elaborated on the early failure of the fax machine. Patented in 1843, the fax machine technology was not as popular as the

telegraph. During the 1980s, fax machines became part of the modern office environment. Timing was important to acceptance and assimilation of technology.

Early in the 20th century, most of the advances in household technology were limited to areas with more concentrated populations. Access to electricity and plumbing were key advantages to urban living. The amount of time and energy for household tasks changed tremendously as family size diminished and new products relieved some of the drudgery of housework.

During the period between 1920 and 1950, expectations for the American female changed dramatically. Cowan (1976) evaluated the media exposure of 1920s women to the new technologies and applications in household goods, products, and services. Advertisers promoted the culture of the modern, efficient housewife and changed cultural norms for household work (and child rearing). Cowan speculated this shift in responsibilities altered the emotional bond of women to their homes and therefore, the educated, middle-class woman of the 1960s and 1970s externalized her emotions through social reform and external advancement. Modern cultural expectations for women were not limited to home and family.

Vanek (1978) evaluated Cowan's (1976) work as a significant artifact in the historical analysis of expectations of the 20th century woman. The widespread availability of basic utilities, mass-produced appliances and goods, the transition of families from farms to suburban and urban areas, and education for women leveled the perceptions of the social and economic classes. Vanek speculated that the "rising standard of living fueled the transmission of common values and standards to

housewives” (p. 366). Basic cultural values and expectations were changed for women, families, and their respective exchanges in the social and environmental contexts of their lives. History afforded the opportunity to explore and to evaluate the changes in culture and perceptions that developed into tacit meaning and, therefore, were taken for granted in everyday contemporary life.

Family Evolutions in 20th Century America

The structure of the American family changed during the 20th century. Changes in the broader society reverberated reciprocally with changes in the structuring of individual lives and families. As technology altered individual and systems perception about women and work, the impact of work on family emerged in the literature.

In 1966, Rapaport and Rapaport (1965) published a groundbreaking article entitled *Work and Family in Contemporary Society*. They evaluated husband and wife roles in household task accomplishment. In addition, they outlined the changes in the American family and the demands of society on family culture and perceptions. Their work was a pivotal piece in the emergence of family and work research. The impact of this article included research in both work and family systems.

Wetzel (1990) evaluated changes in American families as part of a retrospective edition of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics’ *Monthly Labor Review* to celebrate 75 years of publication. Staff and contributors tracked and reported a number of changes in the American family. By the late 1980s, fewer people were living in family households defined by the traditional nuclear family. Women had fewer children, and the average family size evolved to the smallest on record. The nation’s total fertility rate, defining the

number of children the average woman would be expected to bear in her lifetime, remained below the replacement level after 1972. Family households were less stable, and more heterogeneous. Life expectancy rose tremendously. Economic roles in the family shifted significantly. During the 1980s, employed women with children under six years of age rose in number and the number of working mothers with infants dramatically increased. Families maintained by never married women increased tenfold from 1970 (248,000) to 1988 (2.7 million). Non-family households rose from 1940 (2.7 million) to 1989 (27 million)

Wetzel (1990) summarized that changes in family living arrangements and preferences were particularly pronounced from the early 1960s to the late 1970s. At this time, the Baby Boom generation transitioned from adolescent to adulthood. The impact of the Baby Boomer generation continued as a popular scholarly and literature topic. As a cohort, the immense size of the generation increased demands for services, education, and jobs during the time frame of this study. The 1970s were a period of significant systems changes after the extremes of the 1960s cultural evolution.

One of the most important studies illustrating the differences between the Baby Boomer generation and their parents developed as part of Elder's (1974) longitudinal research on children from the Great Depression. The Baby Boomer participant perceptions differed radically from their parents (and grandparents). Clausen (1993) evaluated the Baby Boomer's developmental phases. Two aspects, cohort strength and impact of environmental context on development, were important findings. Cohorts displayed many of the same cultural attributes and measures. Environmental context,

time and place, predicted many of the specific cohort attributes. Therefore, different age groups have specific, localized reactions to events in the context of time.

By the 1980s, the last of the Baby Boomers were entering adulthood. Wetzel (1990) reported that during the 1980s, the average family size and living arrangements for the Baby Boomers stabilized. Fertility rates stabilized just below the replacement rate, and the divorce rate leveled off just below the 1979 peak (p. 10). The 1980s were a period of stabilization and cultural recovery.

During the 1970-1999 time frame, an awareness of life stage impacts on individual decision-making emerged. The sequence and timing through life cycle stages influenced labor force participation, work attachment, occupational achievement, and meaning attached to work Peterson (1979). This awareness prompted many to label the Baby Boomers the “me generation”. Different perspectives of life cycles were common. The concepts of the family as a cultural unit changed. Individuals responded to life stage changes but respective of cohort expectations.

Summary of the Impacts of Work, Technology, and Family Changes

During the earlier portion of 20th century, a variety of factors influenced the stages for later developments in work, technology use, family, and individuals and thus, the emergence of flexible work hours. The growth and expansion of business, the interface of business and government, the development of unions, the impact of technology on families, work, and society, changing cultural values, and the evolving demographic composition of the workforce factored into and determined the context for the latter 20th century. These issues continued interacting during the study time frame.

Chakavarty (1998) reviewed Chandler's perspectives on business cycles and the importance of history. Chandler discussed acquisition failures of larger corporations during the 1980s and 1990s. Businesses evaluated company successes by the profit margins and did not understand the context of the business operations. Consequently, newly merged companies embattled by the lack of shared, historical knowledge and contextual meaning failed. The lack of respect for contextual knowledge and organizational history were typically overlooked in the pace of contemporary society and business acquisitions.

Historical knowledge provided the context for reasoning and distance for understanding the impact of recessions on banking. Mayhew (1988) compared the 1987 stock market drop to the crash of the Great Depression. She provided contextual facts including an analysis of government and banking regulations to illustrate the vast differences in the time frames and situations. The U.S. government and banking industry implemented regulations to circumvent the mistakes of the 1920s and 1930s. Many of these historical changes became part of the tacit or expected standard of operations. Historical comparison provided the appropriate context to expand meaning.

This study applied an interdisciplinary approach to history early in the inception. The challenge was to research, evaluate, and place events over time in context to the emergence of flexible work arrangements. Kuhn (1996) wrote about how scientists developed and evolved relative to their education, training, and professional milieu. The interdisciplinary approach developed from foundation studies in two disciplines that

applied systems approaches to the research and analysis of human interactions. History, economics, demography, and statistics were sub-disciplines of the two foundation areas.

Human Resource Management (HRM) and Human Ecology (HE) provided the interdisciplinary foundations for framing the historical context. The following section defined the topology of the interdisciplinary framework for the research.

Human Resource Management and Human Ecology

To develop the contextual format for defining the emergence of flexible work hours, the following framework outlined below illustrated study foundations within the disciplines of human resource management and family and human development systems in human ecology. The integration of the secondary sources from the two areas of study was an important step of the research process. The combination of perspectives created the opportunity to track developments and to understand the complexities of the issues of work and time. The objective of this section was to define shared and contrasting meanings for the development of the study.

Human Resource Management

Environmental conditions provided the framework for family development and interaction over the 20th century and within the American cultural context. Cultural, social environment, and cohort determinants influenced meaning and the degree of impact. Work and the income provided by wages were central to the interface of the family with economic and social systems. In modern American corporate society, human resources (HR) strategically regulated the workplace interface, corporate expectations, work rules, and government policies on work. In addition, HR monitored and controlled

an individual's entrance and departure from the company. Policy, a function of HR, enforced at the supervisory or middle management level created the perceptual relationship for the employee with the company. In reality, the role of the supervisor influenced the daily or operational intersection between the worker, his or her family, and other activities outside work. By the end of the 20th century, HR typically handled only the difficult employee decisions.

Peterson (1988) described the early days of human resource management. During the early 20th century as factories grew in size and complexity with automation, management needed liaisons to communicate with labor. The National Civic Federation promoted the humanistic treatment of employees and originated the term "welfare" to describe the work of liaisons or personnel.

One of the pioneers of human resource management (HRM) was Elizabeth F. Briscoe (Peterson, 1988). During her tenure at the Joseph Bancroft and Sons Co. from 1902-1919, she transformed the theory and practice of "welfare" work, the historic title for human resources. Welfare secretaries or social secretaries eventually started many of the functions of the personnel or human resource management team. Peterson (1988) wrote that many of the principles of Briscoe's work influenced by her faith, teaching and work with women, focused on the role of women in the policy of work.

The American Society for Personnel Administration (ASPA) chartered in 1948 (Thaler, 1988). The discipline changed its image from the Personnel and Industrial Relations' (PAIR) title to human resources during the early 1980s. Prewitt (1982) wrote that the foundations came from personnel administration, industrial relations, and

organizational behavior. The professional had the task of the design, implementation, and evaluation of all programs dealing with managing people at work.

Ross (1981) wrote that Peter Drucker used the phrase *human resources* to describe employees on numerous occasions. The 1970s atmosphere increased awareness for various social, technical, and environmental forces impacting organizations and personnel. Technology, changing attributes and values toward work, and changing workforce demographics changed the role of the personnel manager. Many of the personnel directors assumed workforces were homogeneous and they developed policies for organizational convenience. During the latter 1970s, the American Management Association's management conference for personnel entitled the human resource management conference occurred and highlighted new roles and expectations for personnel as HRM (Nadler & Nadler, 1989).

Bass (1994) outlined a framework of the evolution of work and the role of human resources (HR) from antiquity to present times. French (1998) summarized the various influences on the development of HR during the 20th century. A representative time line of influential factors included labor, state and federal laws, scientific management, industrial psychology, industrial welfare and management, human relations movement, systems theory, and globalization of management practices. Carroll and Schuler (1983) constructed a decade positioned time line illustrating the changing concerns of HR managers. Their divisions are presented in Table 1.1.

The practice of human resources (HR) provided services for people as employees and cannot be considered an exact science. Flynn (1997) wrote that HR was based upon

Table 1.1***Carroll and Schuler's Changing HR Manager Concerns***

Time Frame	Manager Concerns	Manager Perceptions of Employees
Before 1890	Production Technologies	Indifference
1890 to 1910	Employee Welfare	Need Safe Conditions and Economic Opportunity
1910 to 1920	Task Efficiency	Need High Earnings Made Possible Through Increased Productivity
1920 to 1930	Individual Differences	Individual Differences Considered
1930 to 1940	Unionization	Employees as Management Adversaries
1940 to 1950	Economic Security	Employees Need Economic Protection
1950 to 1960	Human Relations	Employees Need Considerate Supervision
1960 to 1970	Participation	Employees Need Involvement in Task Decisions
1970 to 1980	Task Challenge	Employees Need Challenging Work Congruent with Abilities
1980 to 1990	Employee Displacement	Employees Need Jobs to Replace Lost in Economic Downturns, International Competition, and Technology Changes
1990 to 2000	Workforce Changes and Shortages	Employees Need More Flexibility in Work Schedules, Benefits, and Policies

Source: R. Schuler and S. E. Jackson. (1996). *Human Resource Management: Positioning for the 21st century*. New York: West, p. 20. Adapted from S. J. Carroll and R. S. Schuler (1983). Professional HRM: Changing functions and problems. *Human resources management in the 1980s*. (ed.) S. J. Carroll and R. S. Schuler. Washington DC: Bureau of National Affairs. pp. 8-10. Used with permission.

an open systems perspective and was customized to address issues for staff, the company, organizational philosophies, industry demographics, and the market. Human resource management (HRM) addressed operational needs for employees. In some organizations, HRM conducted training. In larger organizations, development of the human resource development (HRD) or a training department was responsible for workforce development.

Human Resource Development

Nadler and Nadler (, 1989) introduced the name human resources development (HRD) in the first edition of *Developing Human Resources*. During the 1970s, the position applied to the training functions of human resources. Technology advances, the impact of Japanese management methods, and the loss of jobs due to the ramifications of the 1973 oil crisis impacted the direction of HRD. Carnevale (1991) explained that significant decreases in manufacturing, substantial increases in service jobs, changes in knowledge and information processing, and the widespread use of computers necessitated “retraining” of employees and thus, management coped with the support of HRD. The role of HRD was a necessity for many but a luxury for many smaller organizations.

Jacobs (1990) identified five bodies of knowledge important for professional HRD practice: education, systems theory, economics, psychology, and organizational behavior. The improvement of organizational performance through the development of employee capabilities was the role of HRD. Applebaum (1979) wrote on the need for HRD’s role in the development and evolution of organizational leaders (1979). Blake (1995) provided an overview of the numerous roles of the HRD professional

organizations. Human resource development functions focused on the development and potential of the employee. Human resource management functions followed the employee from recruitment to departure addressing issues of scheduling, benefits, and work and family interactions.

In 1982, *Personnel Journal* convened a roundtable of HR professionals (Debats, 1982). Major issues discussed included (a) basic securities and employment rights of the lower status workers, (b) awareness of turnover costs, (c) better educated workforce, (d) support to help employees beat inflation, (e) benefits cafeteria plans, (f) participant management techniques, (g) concern over government changes, and (h) impact of flexible work arrangements.

The field of human resources historically assumed the role of liaison for workers in the organizational structure. Nadler and Nadler (1989) identified four areas of concentrations in Human Resources. These included HR development, HR management, HR environment, and HR other. This study concentrated in the area of HR management. Human resource management (HRM) included recruitment, selection, placement, compensation, appraisal, information systems, and benefits. The evolution of flextime was concentrated in interactions with these HRM functions in organizations.

Human resource management continued throughout the time frame as the area of the discipline that interpreted the work policies and procedures for the worker in organizations. Human resource development provided support for continued employment and growth, but it was the role of the HRM staff to support and connect the worker with

the company. The approach for this research was the interrelationships across time between the workers, HRM, and time expectations.

The focus of this research was the interface between HRM and families across a time frame to determine the impacts from various contextually defined perspectives. The interrelationships of work and family were a literature topic throughout the latter part of the 20th century from both the family and work systems perspectives. Family systems research on the impact of work typically applied in a systems approach. In the land grant university milieu, the field of family systems and lifespan research emerged from child development through human ecology or home economics (Bengtson & Allen, 1993).

Human Ecology

Bubloz and Sontag (1993) described human ecology as a framework for addressing the interactions of people and their supportive surroundings in context. The ecological perspective considered the health of the family, and the environmental systems were interdependent and mutually responsive. Like HRM, the early development of human ecology emerged from within in the social and political forces of the early 20th century.

Ellen Richards coined the term “oekology” as “a means for applying principles, methods, and results of science to the improvement of people’s lives and their environment” (Bubloz & Sontag, 1993). She believed that the home and family were the primary sources of building a foundation of support. In the early twentieth century, Richards and other social reformers gathered at Lake Placid, New York. These meetings established the discipline and study of home economics. The approach, holistic and

interdisciplinary, employed scientific principles with an emphasis on the application of science to everyday life. The founders, as a group of women, embraced the social concerns for their gender in context and time of the early 20th century (Bubloz & Sontag, 1993,). The field emerged to study the immediate environment, the person as a social being in this context, and the interactions of the person and the context.

The 1920s and the 1930s were a period of rapid progress for women with increased opportunities for professional development and work positions. According to Blitz's research, women occupied half of the professional category positions recognized by the U.S. Department of Labor (1974). The role of the home economist was important to the expansion of technology into American households during the 1920s, 1930s, and 1940s. Media changed the perception of the expectations of the housewife and technology. Utility companies throughout the U.S. hired professional home economists to promote and demonstrate electrical appliances for homes. Some of the promotions were very elaborate, and appliance manufacturers promoted competitions for attendance at large demonstrations that would promote purchases (Brickey, 1994). Home economists translated technology into homes in the same genre as human resources provide technology training for companies.

In the emergence of child development, significant developments occurred at universities during the 1920s that included the parameters of family interactions. One of the studies that emerged from this period was Elder's (1974) work with children of the Great Depression. The study spanned five decades and three generations (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). The study reported the context of significant changes in socio-economic

systems. Developments in scientific tools and funding support during the period made the study possible. Elder and later Clausen illustrated a basic tenet of this study. Systemic interactions defined and illustrated the relationships between individuals, families, cohorts, and other systems such as work, politics, and the economy.

The University of Chicago designed child development programs to reflect human development immersed in the context of cultural, historical, and social structures. A parallel was life course research with the theme of ontogenetic development as a life long interaction with family, social, and cultural domains. In the emergence of family systems and human development theory, there was an acknowledgement that events influenced development, families, and communities over time. Ontogenetic, generational, and historical indices were frames for events at different levels of social interaction (Bengtson & Allen, 1993). The *Journal of Home Economics* became the *Journal of Family and Consumer Sciences* in 1994. In many institutions family systems and child development emerged as the fields of study addressing these issues.

Bronfenbrenner's social ecology of development model (1979; 1986) defined social interaction and applied across various research agendas addressing individual development. He felt understanding human development required the environmental context of the actual setting. Bubloz (1993) compared the similarities of social ecology theory and human ecology relating to family systems using Bronfenbrenner's social ecology of development. Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981) applied Bronfenbrenner's model to an investigation of flexible work arrangements on the conflicts of family and work in the federal government.

Bronfenbrenner (1977) believed that family structures, influenced through culturally determined social system and by the greater societal structure, reflected timing and sequencing of life events. The meaning of events and the mutually interactive cultural development were contextually salient. At the family level, the micro, cultural cohort, and greater societal context explain the mutually interactive domains of life span, generational, and historical events (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1995). The systems were interactive and interdependent.

Summary of Introduction

In summary, philosophies and research agenda for the study applied a multidisciplinary approach. Both of these core discipline approaches applied systems theory and multidisciplinary philosophies toward research. These approaches guided the disciplinary context for a historical analysis of the contextual emergence of flexible work arrangements. The shared and contrasting meanings of human ecology and human resource management during the 20th century focused on the evolution of the American worker and his or her family in the context of cultural changes

The early 20th century influences of business, technology, and family systems created and supported opportunities for later developments. The flexible work hours trend evolved from the various interactions of individuals, families, work environments, industries, and societal norms over the twentieth century. Recurrent themes of family, work, and the interactions of systems galvanized the direction of this study. As populations changed in cultural expectations, demographic composition, and economic needs, the context for the emergence of alternatives to the traditional workweek

established by business and industry was challenged. The key for trend and societal impact was the determination of the context specifically as the trend emerged.

Delimitations of Study

In the course of conducting a historical analysis, the scope of the study has to complement the time frame of the question, the time constraints of the researcher, and the availability of the sources. Each level of the analysis can frame subsequent investigations and applications. The scale of this study was controlled through the development of the model and the decision to concentrate the literature review on specific journals. Extensive reviews of major HRM journals and *Monthly Labor Review* between 1970 and 1999 defined the literature contextual direction of the study. Finally, as discussed in the methodology, primary data were collected from participants whose ages were within a range reflecting the average American worker during each decade of the study time frame. Due to their time constraints, the original research plan of the interviews was curtailed to facilitate data collection and access to participants.

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY OF STUDY

Throughout recorded time, the discipline of history provided the framework for the definition and evolution of societies, cultures, countries, regions, organizations, cohorts, communities, families, and individuals across time. The process of historical analysis is a framework for interpreting and understanding the impact of time and evolution on human systems. The segment of time can be short, as in micro-historical analysis used in political science, or lengthy, as in genealogy such as Alex Haley's *Roots* (1976). The timeframe determined context and culture determined meaning.

The determination of the contextual variables affecting the emergence of flexible work arrangements guided the methodology. The evolution of the parameters of time and context was the challenge. The issues of time were addressed with the application of a historical methodology. Context defined the disciplinary approach and the data collection tools. Bronfenbrenner's (1977; 1979) social development model and Schuler and Jackson's (1996) human resource management (HRM) systems model influenced the boundaries of context and research model development.

The first section of this chapter provided a foundation of historical research methods, general systems theory, final research questions, and the model development. The second section outlined the expanded model variable questions and the research process.

Historic Research Methods in Contemporary Scholarship

Historical analysis as a dissertation methodology was not a typical application in human resource management research. A portion of this study focused on the exploration

of contemporary scholarly historical analysis. Experts in social science research supported the development of historical research on pertinent topics. Kerlinger (1987), Gay (1992), Gay and Airasian (2000), and Babbie (1998) wrote about the importance of historical thinking and methods in the study and scholarly development of the social sciences. Under the framework of the importance of the human resource management field in the theory of this investigation, the opportunity emerged to further foster the positioning of human resource management in the social sciences.

Interrelationships of the variables on historical study reflected the historian's ability to understand and apply the contextual meaning (Standford, 1998). The historical approach afforded the researcher the opportunity to investigate various relationships that might not seem related in the context and time of occurrence. The lenses of history provided the vision to view relationships.

Stearns (1999) wrote that the study of history helped people to understand the interrelationships of their respective lifetime and interactions across venues. Bartel (1985) interviewed the former Chairman of U.S. Federal Reserve, Arthur F. Burns, to gain his perspective on the field of economics over his 60-year career. Burns influenced the establishment of the National Bureau of Economic Research that tracks economic development and evaluates the state of the American economy. Bartel stated that Burns felt that the study of history in the greater context was critical preparation for economic scholarship (and citizenship). His early career introduction to the impact of the underlying economic, political, and cultural developments in history was invaluable in his understanding of the impact of various systems on economic trends.

Marwick (1989) cautioned that history was the intersection of perceptions and truth and that the historian evaluated and discerned the truth. “History is, after all, a reconstruction by an individual of things past” (Startt & Sloan, 1989, p. 47). Fischer’s (1970) work on the fallacies of historical thought illustrated some of the misrepresentations of history in creating cultural perceptions across disciplines.

Beringer (1978) described Colburn’s analysis of Thomas Jefferson’s application of history and knowledge of available books during his education to define the ideologies of the American Revolution. According to Colburn’s research, the popular notions of Whig political history were a misrepresentation of Saxony democracy. Although the Whig political interpretation dominated the popular historical texts of the 1700s, it was inaccurate. This situation illustrated one of the hazards in interpreting the *history of ideas*. Beringer considered the *history of ideas* philosophies one of the fundamental challenges for the historian. The pervasiveness and extensiveness of the literature did not always mean it was truthful. In summary, historic researchers needed to evaluate popular literature and accounts in context (Beringer).

Schorske (1979) investigated various aspects of cultural and social development in early 20th century Vienna, Austria. Ritter (1993) considered Schorske’s 1981 Pulitzer Prize winning work one of the best examples of an interdisciplinary historic approach to a context of time and place. He investigated the relationships between the high culture in Vienna and the tremendous sociopolitical changes of the time period. Schorske (1998) presented essays of applying historical thought and cultural knowledge to the interpretation of current and ongoing social structures. A study of history was the method of de-

termining the interrelationships of time and culture and their impact on society. Mulherin (1979) researched the sociology of work and organizations using a historical context to identify patterns of events over time in his dissertation. Schorske (1979) and Mulerin were used as philosophical guides in this research. Both applied historical lenses across disciplines to illustrate the impact and interrelationships of their respective studies.

Historical interpretation required distance and vision (Tuchman, 1994). Events that appeared unrelated could have common influences or be correlated. Some relationships require the perspective of history for determination. Burke's work (1978; 1985) illustrated the interrelated development of technology and culture employing mini-segments of information related across time and cultures. Gladwell (2000) wrote about the importance of 'tipping points' in the course of society and cultural development. The evolution of points in context evolve into the trends defining cultural development. Philosophically, the lenses of history defined and provided context for trends. James, Hater, Gent, and Bruni (1978) defined *trend* as "a direction or flow" that can be categorized as a pattern, a style, a line of development, or related process (p. 453). In the study of a trend, evaluation and application of context determine the appropriate cultural lenses to recognize the points of relation.

Historical Research Methods

In research, the procedures were determined by the method of research (Gay, 1992; Tuchman, 1994). Historic research, as applied in this study, was the systematic collection and objective evaluation of data related to past occurrences in order to test hypotheses concerning causes, effects, or trends (Gay). The process of historical analysis

was qualitative; it was developed throughout the investigation as the initial evaluation of the data refines the research parameters. A framework for this study applied Wiersma's (2000) steps and integrated qualitative methods from Miles and Huberman (1994).

In any historical analysis, the period of time or scale of the study was a critical decision. Levi (1991) considered scale an essential factor in understanding the interrelationships in social exchanges and history. The scale framework included the limitations of the study to flexible hour arrangements or flextime and the time frame of 1970-1999. Therefore, the study was a micro-historical analysis of the evolution of the trend of flexible work. Two factors determined the 1970-1999 time frame. First, early research for this study indicated that the first flexible work arrangements were applied in American companies with traditional work schedules in the early 1970s. Secondly, the 1999 cutoff accommodated the context of the timing of the research and available resources.

In the course of history, this period occurred at the end of the 20th century and the second millennium. Work as a critical illustration of cultural, social, economic, political, and technological evolution was a reflection of development nationally and internationally. In the context of the second millennium and the 20th century, work conditions changed dramatically. Many historians noted that in previous time frames, individuals and families self-regulated timing and sequencing of daily work. For example, farmers planned activities around the seasons and daily events. The Industrial Revolution promoted the initial control of work hours and later the advent of wage standards promoted work shifts. Flextime in many respects reflected a full cycle in the metamorphosis of the independence of working hours. In the 1970-1999 time frame and culture, flextime op-

tions promoted independence or individual control over the timing of work and sequencing of the day.

Wiersma (2000) wrote that the historical research “process is one of critical inquiry” and the “product is a narration or description of past events and facts” (p. 219). He presented four distinct steps to the process. The development of the process for the historical study was as critical as the development of the research instrument in the traditional descriptive study. The application of Wiersma’s process guided the development of this project. As shown in Figure 2.1, the process of defining the research questions continued throughout the early stages of the study. To visualize and finalize the questions of this historical, contextually grounded study, the application of a model was one of the research steps.

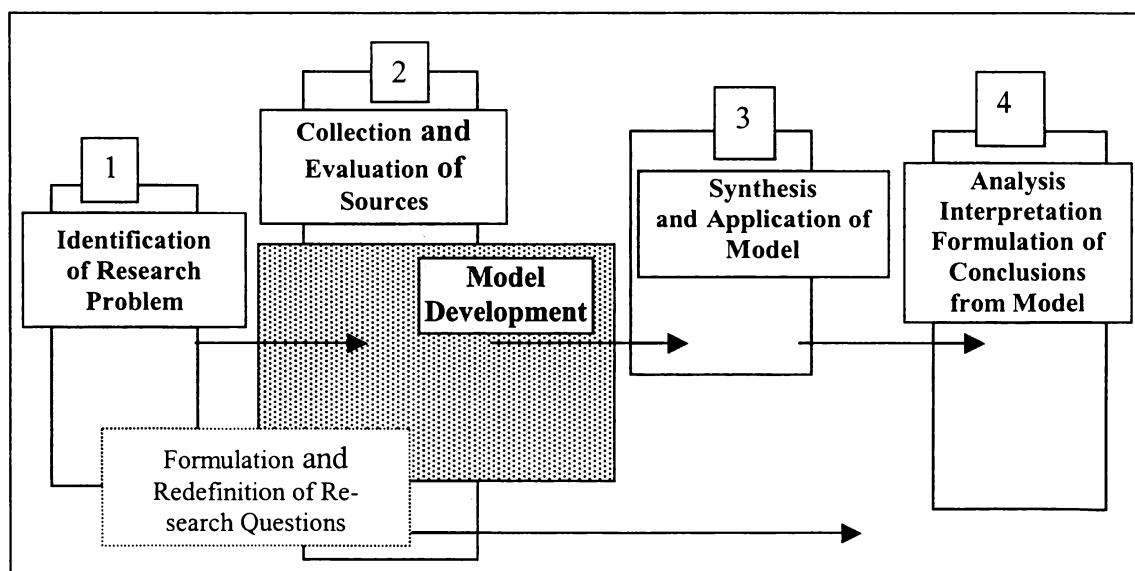


Figure 2.1. Adaptation of Wiersma’s (2000) model for historical research.

Source: Wiersma (2000). *Research methods in education: An introduction* (7th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon. Used with permission for dissertation only.

The development of a model fostered the visualization of the interactions of the numerous variables considered for the project. Research revealed that Miles and Huberman (1994) recommended models to conceptualize qualitative studies. In research textbooks, historical research typically is a category in qualitative methods.

Wiersma (2000) stated that research questions typically were not written in a statistical format. The historical research project included statistical data from the past tested with the appropriate applications. However, he stated that the research questions presented “conjectures about the characteristics, causes, or effects of the situation, issue or phenomenon under investigation” (p. 222). In this study, the development of questions was difficult to finalize without a model. The model framed the guidelines for questions of external and internal validity.

The typical research plan included the formulation of the questions in full prior to the collection of data following the literature review. Figure 2.2 illustrated the application of Wiersma’s (2000) model to the research process for this study. During the development of this historical model, the sequence of the steps provided a framework for tracking the progress of the study. The model contributed to the organization of the research model development. Figure 2.2 illustrated the research steps provided below.

1. Develop general research questions.
2. Research historical research methods and literature on systems and models.
3. Draft initial research questions.
4. Develop model to frame data and historical context.
5. Develop representative chapter to test research model.
6. Refine model to contextual objectives.
7. Conduct extensive and ongoing literature review.
8. Refine model and finalize research questions.
9. Finalize and collect secondary data from literature and data sets.
10. Develop research instrumentation for primary data collection.

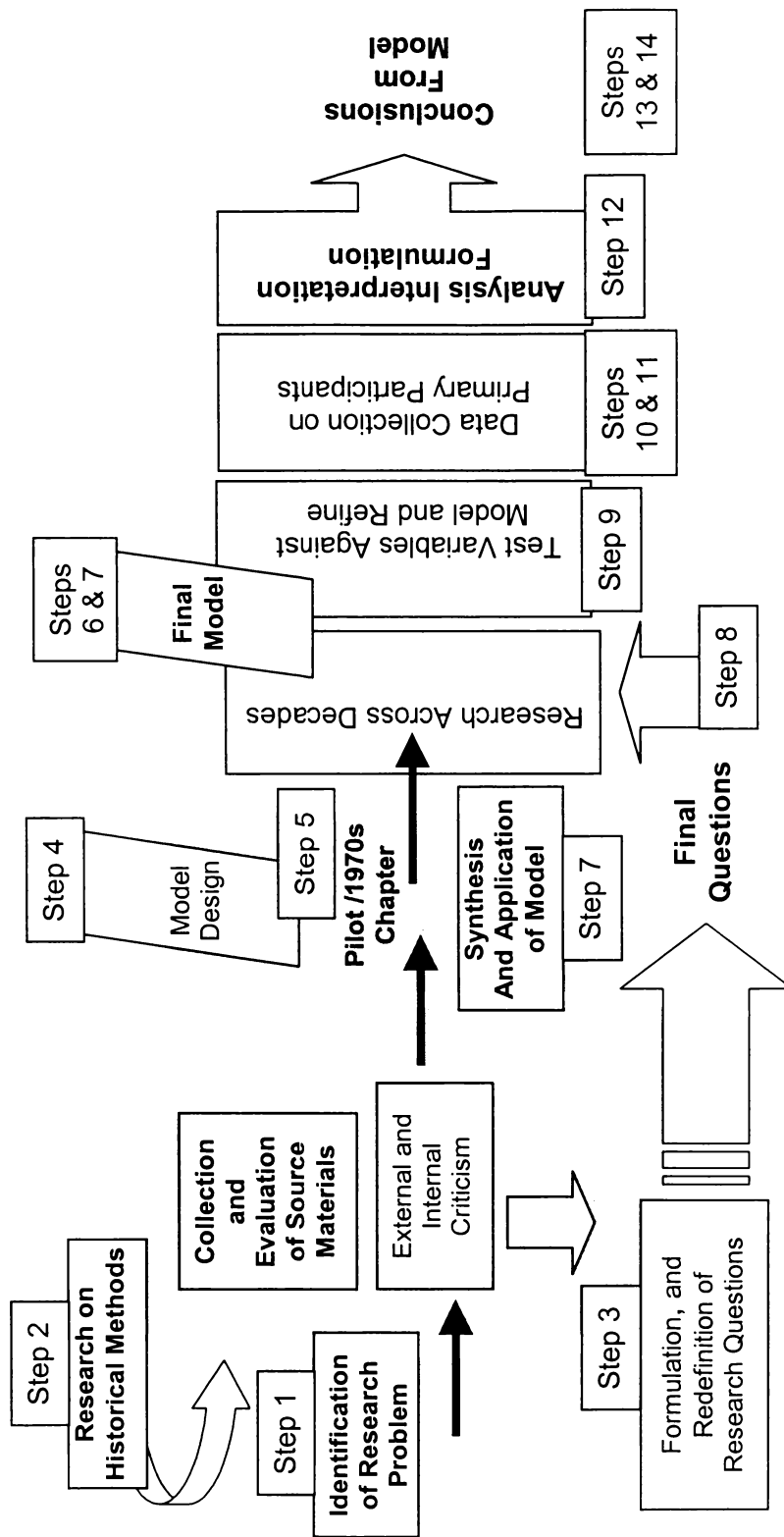


Figure 2.2. Expanded adaptation of Wiersma's model on historical research expanded

From *Research Methods in Education: An Introduction* by W. Wiersma, 2000, 7th ed. Allyn & Bacon: Boston p. 221.
Used with permission for dissertation only.

11. Collect primary data from research participants.
12. Analyze data from primary and secondary sources.
13. Determine themes and findings from analysis.
14. Present written findings.

General Systems Theory and Applications: Model Foundations

One early question of the research process was the appropriateness of a systems model in the framework of a historical analysis. An overview of general systems theory principles was conducted to investigate the use of systems thinking in historical contexts. Bertalanffy (1968) presented his conceptualization of systems theory in his classic book *General Systems Theory*. Various ways existed to conceptualize a systems approach and the most popular was to quantify the representations into a mathematical structure. Mathematical modeling supported a basic tenet of general systems theory (GST) whereby the mathematical laws that depict systems stabilized across venues. Numerical relationships tracked systems interactions. Bertalanffy summarized the aims of GST:

1. There is a general tendency towards integration in the various sciences, natural and social.
2. Such integration seems to be centered in a general theory of systems.
3. Such theory may be an important means for aiming at exact theory in the nonphysical fields of science
4. Developing unifying principles running vertically through the universe of the individual sciences, this theory brings us nearer to the goal of the unity of science.
5. This can lead to a much-needed integration in scientific education.
6. Systems theories are holistic, organismic, and gestalt in theory and application (p. 38).

Many theories have applied GST to provide a holistic framework to methods and thinking. The use of systems thinking was not received well by historians in general.

Bertalanffy (1968) explained that:

social sciences are concerned with socio-cultural systems. People at all levels are part of the social forces of the greater system context, but they are part of the human based concept of culture. Social science has to do with human beings in their self-created universe of culture, which is symbolic. Meaning is derived and evolved in context. History is important to understand the cultural context. (p. 197)

He speculated that systems theory could help define a theoretical base for history. By establishing the units of historical research as systems of interaction, he believed that systems applications grounded research of human groups, societies, cultures, civilizations, or whatever was feasible.

Many disciplines apply systems theory as a theoretical construct. Contractor (1994) evaluated the use of systems theory on organizational communication in the area of self-organizing systems of interaction. He found that applications limited due to the lack of the proper statistical tools to evaluate the data generated. Engineers coined the phrase “industrial ecology” to describe their systems approach in the late 1980s to research and visualize more effective ways to approach the challenge of minimizing the harmful environmental impacts of industrial waste (Rosen, 1997).

Stucki (1993) encouraged community and business leaders to apply a systems approach to preparation for the 21st century to circumvent potential technology and community systems breakdowns. Strategic planners applied theoretical systems theoretical applications to guide many organizations through planning and organizational changes. Moore (1993) applied a systems framework to the company development and life cycle.

He elaborated on the interactions and impact of business cycles and people as workers and consumers. His premise was that business cycles were analogous with ecological life cycles and that they were inevitable.

Whitchurch and Constantine (1993) distinguished between open and closed systems applications. Open systems were characterized by the concept of “equifinality” according to Bertalanffy (1968, p. 46). “Equifinality” was the ability to achieve the same results from an alternative route. Whitchurch and Constantine (1993) cautioned researchers in defining and protecting the boundaries of systems theory. The observer had to be careful not to impose cultural and previous personal baggage on his or her conclusions of the systems operations.

Systems Theory in Family and Human Development Theory

Researchers in family studies applied concepts of systems theories in various research agendas. Historical context was an important factor in the development of several frames of reference for investigating family and life developmental issues. Bubloz and Sontag (1993) compared human ecology and GST concepts to illustrate that family ecological studies were systems based. Ceci and Hembrooke (1995) explained that their biological model considered the historic epoch of an individual as a critical factor of intellectual development. The availability of resources and economic conditions influenced family systems and supports for development.

Bengston and Allen (1993) stated that history was the macrosocial dimension of time in the investigation of family life course perspectives. Transitions for families could be embedded in history. They explained how the broader social structure influenced fam-

ily events over time, and that time provided the contextual meaning and sequencing for events. Culture as a factor of shared meaning over time was the contextual boundary. Development and change in families required examination of micro- and macro-level factors and their interactions that influenced the family life span, generational issues, and historic elements. Magnusson (1993) summarized that developmental models applied history, the present, and included elements to predict the future (contextually). Human development involved multiple levels and reciprocal processes.

Alwin (1995) wrote on the impact of time on social change, social structure, and individuals as an investigation of the interaction of biography and history. He defined biographical stages across the life span to define the types and impacts for cohort analysis. The use of the cohort for analysis defined the sample context and structure for his theory. Cohort groupings were stable data sources. Part of his findings was that people stabilized their occupational choices over time unless there was a life-altering event that impacted direction. He used Clausen's (1993) work with the second generation of Elder's study on *Children of the Great Depression* (Elder, 1974) to illustrate his points.

Foundations of the Study Model

Bronfenbrenner's Model

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) model of social development theory emerged as basic source of the model design. Bretherton (1993) described the evolution of Bronfenbrenner's model and summarized the merits of its use in other studies. He wrote that many data groups could be analyzed under the model's framework. Belsky (1995) supported the expansion of Bronfenbrenner's model to include a broader historical impact. Bron-

Bronfenbrenner's model illustrated that interpersonal relationships did not exist in social isolation but were integrated across time in larger social structures of community, society, economics, and politics.

Jablin and Sias (2001) used Bronfenbrenner's (1979) model to explain the role and complexity of communication in organizations. Parke and Kellam (1994), Parke (1994) and Crouter (1994) used Bronfenbrenner's model to explain work and family balance in the 20th century. They overviewed various models and recommended Bronfenbrenner's for a contextual approach. Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981) applied Bronfenbrenner's model to an earlier quantitative investigation of flexible work arrangements and the conflicts of family and work. Their work researched a limited application of flextime in the federal government in the late 1970s. This study extended the model as a framework to develop and expand the contextual meanings of factors that impacted family and work spillover within a historical time frame.

Bronfenbrenner's model (1979) included four levels of development based upon the ecological model. See Figure 2.3 for the model representation. Bronfenbrenner and Crouter (1983) stated that the terms applied in his model were terms used by Brim (1975). Brim used the terms to illustrate the levels of influence on emerging childcare issues in the 1970s.

In Bronfenbrenner's (1979) model, the microsystem was the immediate setting as actively determined through the experience and extent of the individual's involvement. Bronfenbrenner extended this approach to the adult to define the individual's involvement with his or her personal setting of home, work, and immediate society. The next

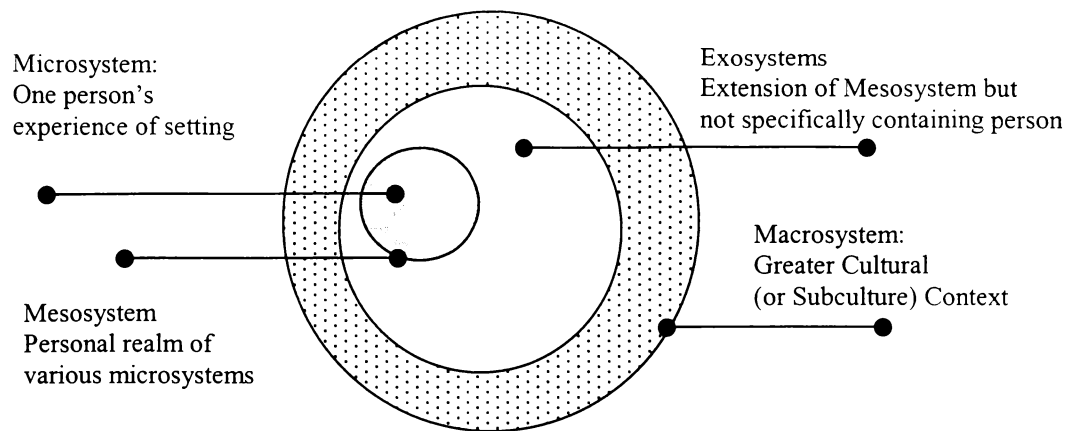


Figure 2.3. Conceptualization of Bronfenbrenner's (1979) model.

level, the mesosystem, represented the relations between the microsystems of the individual. The interactive, synergistic operation of the mesosystems defined parameters of the microsystem settings in which the individual functioned. For the individual, this system represented connections between the contexts. The relationship of the worker's home life to work life represented the mesosystem level of the ecological model. The exosystem level consisted of social settings in which the individual did not have an active role, but those could determine the experiences of the individual. Exosystem examples included the effects of media on the individual, the ramifications of government agencies, and policy decisions within a company. The individual was not directly part of the system, but the effects of the system operations impacted the individual's mesosystem and microsystem levels. The macrosystem included the overlapping interactions of the micro, meso, and macro systems of a social structure regardless of size. Culture referred to the behavior patterns, beliefs, and all of the products shared by members of a group.

The collective product of investigating the factors defined under each of these systems was a macrosystem historical perspective on the emergence of flexible arrangements as the result of exosystem level systems effects. This study applied secondary resources to test contributing factors to the emergence of a cultural change. The qualitative method of triangulation provided a framework to evaluate the exosystems of work and family influencing American workers as assessed through literature review and secondary data sets. In addition, individual perceptions from a cohort group provided a microlevel perspective to the research model. Participants representing each decade (1970s, 1980s, and 1990s) contributed perceptions, individually and collectively, about work, family, and flexible arrangements of their respective decades.

Schuler and Jackson's Model

The determination of the external sources impacting work and family were addressed through the application of an open systems model from human resource management (HRM). A model from HRM was integrated with Bronfenbrenner's (1979) model to define the parameters of the research. In the context of managing human resources, Schuler and Jackson (1996, p. 27) explained that successful companies valued the external and internal system effects on the organization. Organizations were open systems. The impact of the environment and the interrelationships between the parts of the organizational system and the environment were critical. The external contextual issues influenced the organization at the local, national, and multinational systems levels.

Figure 2.4 reproduced the graphic model used by Schuler and Jackson (1996).

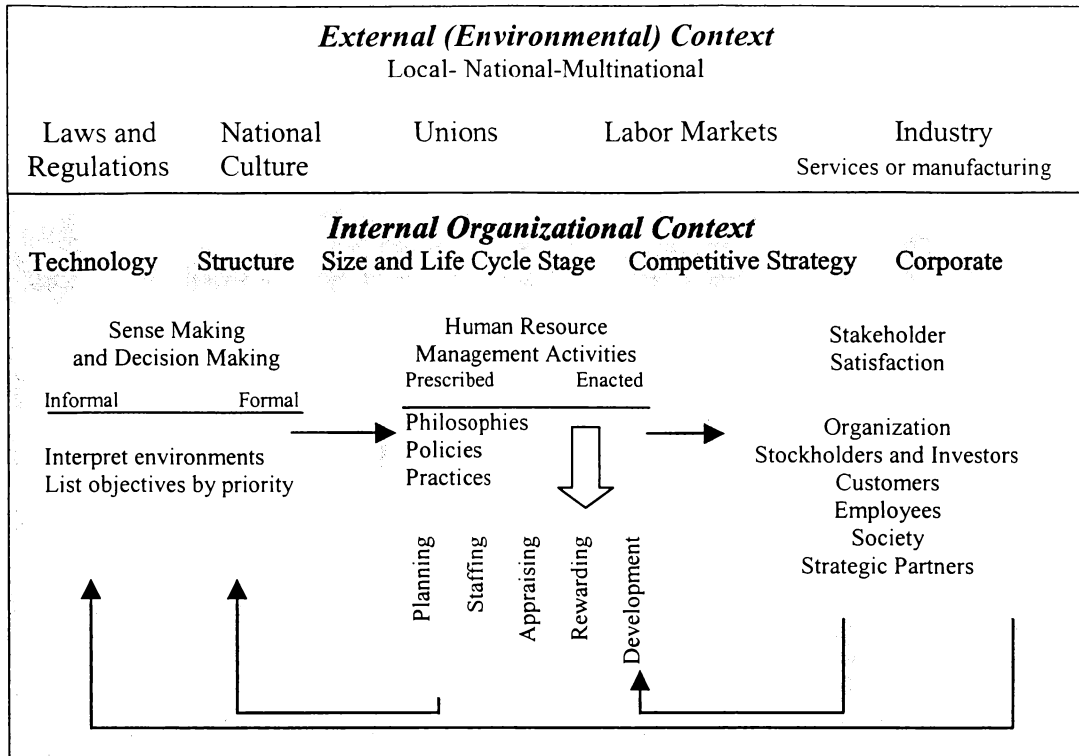


Figure 2.4. Schuler and Jackson's human resource management in context model.
Source: Schuler, R. S. and S. Jackson. (1996). *Human resource management: Positioning for the 21st century*. New York: West Publishing. Used with permission.

Issues affecting the organization included (a) laws and regulations, (b) national culture, (c) unions, (d) labor markets, and (e) industry type (services or manufacturing). The impact of the first four items on the organization at the national level should be a function of the type of industry. Internal issues under Schuler and Jackson's model included (a) technology, (b) structure, (c) size and life cycle, (d) competitive strategy, and (e) corporate culture. Technology in human resource management included work systems and best practices. The external issues were the accessible and most objective measures to investigate the model.

Jackson and Schuler (1995) proposed the framework for their model in an earlier work. In that piece, they encouraged researchers to consider HRM practices evolving in the context of organizations and external forces. Context driven approaches enabled human resources staff to accurately and effectively provide employee services.

There were elements of both models integrated to develop the framework to investigate the historical variables of the study. To simplify the design, the macrosystem elements of Bronfenbrenner's model and the external contexts were researched under national systems impact headings. The exosystems frameworks for work and family were simplified to work systems impacts and family systems impacts. The mesolevel and microlevel perspectives were organized under individual systems impacts. The mesolevel impact was represented in the literature under research and writings on the work and family interface. These secondary sources were integrated under the family or work systems. In this study, the pure mesosystem level of data was the responses of the participants or the primary data collected to investigate the family and work systems interactions.

Miles and Haberman (1994) wrote that historical and qualitative research applied inductive reasoning for basic design decisions regarding the applicability of available variables to the research questions. They recommended the generation of an illustrative model for testing variables and decision-making. They suggested the use of arrows to illustrate the interrelationships between variables.

Like Wiersma (2000), Miles and Haberman (1994) cautioned that the process of data selection and the course of the investigation contributed to the refinement of qualitative research questions. After the development of a model, the definition of boundaries

for the setting, concepts, and parameters of the project occurred. The model allowed for graphic representation of the interactions from the analysis of the variables after each decade chapter. Interaction arrows illustrated findings for each decade and cumulative interactions as suggested by Miles and Haberman.

Each level of the model included secondary data. The individual systems level included both primary and secondary data. Evaluations of each variable occurred within each decade chapter and the cumulative analysis in the 1970-199 findings. Each decade findings on the individual variables and the model formed chapters three (1970s), four (1980s), and five (1990s). Cumulative findings covering 1970-1998 summarized in chapter 6 answered the variable research questions in the next section of this chapter. Final research questions answered in review of the cumulative variable research questions and the model analysis were located in the overview chapter on the cumulative findings for 1970-1999. Figure 2.5 illustrated the basic model design.

Potential applications of the finished model included illustration of the importance of history in HRM and human ecology, of the interrelated aspects of history during the development of trends in society, and of the multiple factors determining changes in work and family systems. In addition, this study was an endeavor to conduct a thorough and appropriate historical analysis in the graduate program of the Human Resource Development. The development and outcomes of this study illustrated historical analysis as an appropriate research methodology.

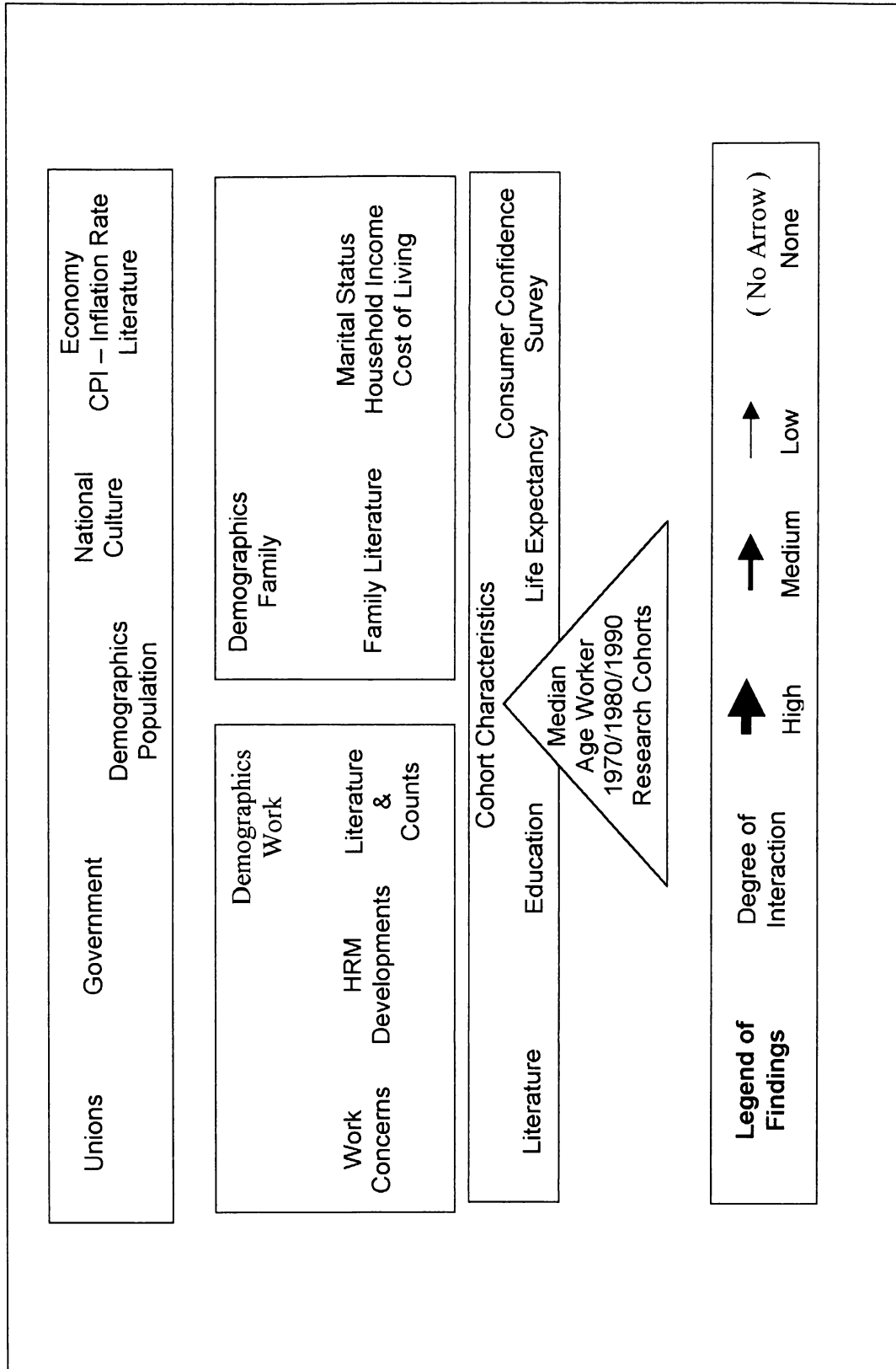


Figure 2. 5. Research model on the emergence of flextime.

Final Research Questions

The selection of final research questions evolved from the development of the model. Final questions focused on the model as a tool to organize and track changes from throughout the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s, individually and collectively. The next section of this chapter expanded the individual secondary and primary variables through questions from the model to answer the final research questions. The following questions from the model guided the determination of the individual measures for each level.

1. What were the trends of the national systems, work systems, family systems, and individual systems levels that influenced and provided contextual impact on the emergence of flexible work hours or flextime?
2. What were the interactions between the national systems, work systems, family systems, and individual systems levels that influenced and provided contextual impact on the emergence of flexible work hours or flextime?
3. Can the model illustrate visually the emergence of a HRM trend to be used in various contexts to demonstrate historical meanings of variables in context?
4. What were the most significant individual variable impacts from primary, and secondary data that demonstrate the model?

The model development paralleled the final research questions' evolution. The following section detailed the secondary and primary data sources for the study and listed each of the model variable research questions by order of the model configuration.

Historical Data Collection Overview

Most historic data are secondary. The use of secondary data hindered the acceptance of historical studies in many contemporary scholarly circles. Startt and Sloan (1989) commented the historical scholar must ground the study in primary sources. They continued that secondary sources required research on the source of the information re-

gardless of the format. The relationship of the data to the context of the model and questions in accurate historical studies were the responsibility of the researcher. Secondary resources used in this study included literature sources such as journals, books, reports, and newspapers and nationally representative data sets.

Primary data typically included interviews, diaries, letters, and journals. In this study, individuals recorded their responses to a questionnaire on flexible work and their work and life balance. A cohort group defined by the median working age for each decade represented the microlevel perspective on the project (presented later in this chapter). The evaluation of both primary and secondary data involved research on appropriate methods.

Gay (1996) suggested consulting Beringer (1978) for historical research tools and processes. Beringer defined the types of historical method tools and data collection. Research tools applied included: (a) literary analysis, (b) image, metaphor, and symbol, (c) history of ideas, (d) status and reference group, (e) class and mobility, (f) content analysis, and (g) cliometrics.

Beringer (1978) described *literary analysis* as an in-depth review of available literature to find additional sources. Careful attention to the context of sources such the type or journal, time frame, and consideration of the appropriateness of the content to the project contributed to the study validity. For this study, literature analysis on flexible work options included numerous types of sources such as journals, books, reports, and other important literary sources. *Image*, *metaphor*, and *symbol* tools applied to aspects of culture and language analysis to understand the contextual meanings for each decade. The

history of ideas as a historical tool framed the concept of popular literature bias towards trends representations. *Status and reference group* tools or filters contributed to the understanding of family and cohort meanings. Principles of *class and mobility* applied to the context of corporate culture as an intangible influence on workers individually and as members of particular cohort groupings. *Content analysis* tools included frequency counts and analysis, implications of changing uses and titles for flextime, and evaluation of flextime studies for research design and findings. *Cliometrics* principles utilized included determination of the reliable sets of secondary data, trend analysis and relationships, and basic historical economic analysis.

The acceptance of the use of cliometrics in historic research was mixed. Beringer (1978) considered cliometrics a tool used by economic historians to identify missing data points in historical data sets. Tuchman (1994) wrote that cliometrics were appropriate to study a problem with any reliable set of data. The experiences and historical methods training influenced perceptions about cliometrics. In addition to research tools promoted by Beringer, Stewart and Kamins (1993) as a reference on secondary research procedures and tools guided selection of data sources. Hudson (2000) wrote about the treatment and evaluation of numerical data in history. She presented an overview of statistical reasoning specific to examples of historical research. This book was an important reference tool in the study.

Secondary Data Sets of the Study

The understanding of interdisciplinary meanings was an important consideration for this study. Four types of journals were utilized for the foundation of the literature re-

view and content analysis in order to track the trend of flextime in work and family systems. Journals from human resource management (HRM), business and management fields, family systems, and the *Monthly Labor Review* were used. The sources, data descriptions, contextual value, and outcome descriptions for the journal types, secondary data sets, and primary data are summarized in Table 2.1.

During the literature search, articles and sources on other model variables from the HRM literature were collected. This analysis provided the perspective of how the variables such as legislation were presented and the language of how these interacted with the HRM practitioners in the context of the time. Database searches, reference searches, and books provided the sources for business and management articles on flextime. Family systems research included annotated biographies, database searches, books, book chapters, and library searches. Endnotes 5.01 (Researchsoft, 2001) software was used to create separate libraries for the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s that included: *Monthly Labor Review*, family literature, HRM literature, history books, court cases, and legislation.

Identification of key journals in human resource management (HRM) included intensive library research on the publishers, dates of publication, and availability. Table 2.2 included journal title, publication dates, and a general information about the publishers. One of the early findings of this research was that several human resource journals changed their name and image during the 1970s and 1980s. The tables for the counts in each decade chapter included the changes.

Table 2.1

Summary Table of Sources and Applications in Study

Source	Data Types From Sources	Context From Data
HR Journals and Books	1. Flextime Titles - Frequency Counts - Analysis of Case Studies - General Content Status and Numbers 2. Alternative Work Arrangements - Definitions and Uses 3. Human Resource/ HRM issues 4. HR Literature on other variables	Frequency in journals Rigor of research on topic Perceptions positive and negative on option Comparison of work types Status of HRM profession Issues of HRM Other model variables
Business and Management Journals and Books	1. Flextime Titles - Frequency Counts - Analysis of Case Studies - General Content - Articles on Status/Numbers 2. Alternative Work Arrangements - Definitions and Uses 3. Business Literature on other variables	Frequency of information in journals Rigor of research on topic Perceptions positive and negative on topic Comparison of work types Information about model variables
<i>Monthly Labor Review</i>	Information on the economy, unions, and the application of secondary data sets in trend analysis.	Literature source on economy, unions, legislation, and other model topics
Secondary Data Sets	1. U.S. Current Population Survey Data 2. U.S. Census Data 3. Consumer Confidence Survey 4. U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics - Consumer Price Index	Trend analysis on the changes or shifts in data from consistent and nationally representative data
Primary Data Sets	Individuals from the cohort age ranges for each decade perceptions as part of the model	Cohort perceptions on work, family, and changes

Stewart and Kamins (1993) identified the U.S. Department of Labor (DOL) activities as important sources of information for secondary data. The Labor Department conducted ongoing studies to regularly update the Consumer Price Index (CPI) used to determine wage structures. The media quoted CPI changes as the measure of inflation. Weinburg (1984) detailed the history of the Bureau of Labor Statistics activities. The interrelationships between the various labor and economic systems were featured.

The Monthly Labor Review was first published in 1915 to provide statistics and articles on employment, labor turnover, wages, hours worked, occupational information, various indexes used in economic tracking, and other current labor information (Stewart & Kamins, 1993, p. 65). A review of *Monthly Labor Review* published between 1970 and 2000 integrated into the research structure helped to develop an understanding and awareness of the contextual variables from government, unions, and economic perspectives. Several articles on flexible and other alternative work arrangements were found in this procedure.

Literature and data set organization was a critical feature of this study. The organizational system included various stages. For example, all of the *Monthly Labor Review* articles were originally organized by month and year to check for complete retrieval of the articles. Later, as the individual article information was entered into *Endnotes*, author and decade determined the filing location as a means to check data entry. Finally, articles were organized by topics and decade by internal content. Individual sheets were printed for each reference before the libraries were merged for the final report. A notebook system was designed to track references used in each section for future use. A filing

Table 2.2

Human Resource Management (HRM) Journals for Literature Counts

Journal Title	Publication	Description
<i>HR Focus</i>	1991-2001+	Continued <i>Personnel</i>
<i>HR Magazine</i>	1990-2001+	Continued <i>Personnel Administrator</i>
<i>Human Relations</i>	1947-2001+	Tavistock Institute of Human Relations and University of Michigan Research Center for Group Dynamics
<i>Human Resource Management</i>	1961-2001+	Graduate School of Business Administration, University of Michigan Personnel and Industrial Management
<i>Journal of Human Resources</i>	1966-2001+	Published under the auspices of the Industrial Relations Institute with similar sites and centers of the University of Wisconsin, Madison
<i>Personnel</i>	1919-1991	American Management Association Human Resources Publication
<i>Personnel Administrator</i>	1955-1989	Official Publication of the American Society for Personnel Administrators Became SHRM Society for Human Resource Management
<i>Personnel Journal</i>	1926-1996	Personnel Research Foundation
<i>Personnel Psychology</i>	1948-2001+	Personnel Management A Journal of Applied Research
<i>Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management</i>	1983-2001+	Research Annual in Personnel and Human Resources Management. Edited by Kendrith M. Rowland and Gerald R. Ferris
<i>Workforce</i>	1997-2001+	Continued <i>Personnel Journal</i>

system was created using the original libraries for organization. Over 1,800 references were collected and organized covering the 30-year period.

Secondary Data Sets for Trend Analysis

Data sets from the 1999 Statistical Abstract of the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999) and The Conference Board Consumer Confidence Survey were used. Research on the development and use of these data sets was conducted. Startt and Sloan (1989) recommended understanding of the data sets as part of the preliminary research to understand what types of questions could be answered. Information included the history, the data collection process, and the application of the data sets from the literature review. This step facilitated the development of the understanding of the interactions of the data. Understanding the history and use of the data fostered development of contextual knowledge and applied in the study.

Several of the tables used to generate figures on census information were from the U.S. Current Population Survey (CPS). The U.S. General Census occurred every ten years. Information on changes in marital status was pulled from Census charts. The CPS was a method to collect ongoing data between census collections (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999). The Consumer Price Index (CPI) is a product of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) used to gauge price changes as described in a later section.

Current Population Survey Data

The Current Population Survey data sets provided critical demographic information on population groups for the literature review. A technical report described the CPS

with the following passage (U.S. Census Bureau, Economics and Statistics Administration, & Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2000).

The CPS is a nationwide monthly sample survey of United States civilian non-institutional population, 15 years or over, to obtain data on employment, unemployment, and a number of other characteristics. Data collection consists of a multistage probability sample of around 50,000 households. A continual sample rotation is used with a household participation of four months, out for eight months, and continued for four more months. The Census estimated that month-to-month overlap is 75% and year-to-year overlap is 50%. A combination of personal interviews and telephone sampling is used during the course of each household's participation period. Sampling error is low for all data sets. (pp. 1 1-2)

Stewart and Kamins (1993) described the CPS reports as the latest information on U.S. data on populations. The data were used to reflect the yearly impact of variables within the framework of each decade. Economists, researchers, and businesses applied data information in decisions and forecasting. Bowie, Cahoon, and Martin (1993) considered the CPS the "cornerstone of the U.S. labor market information system (1993, p 25). Changes over time were implemented as needed to reflect demographic swings and to provide a constant data set reading for various applications across systems.

The CPS data is historically valid data for trend analysis. Jacobs and Gerson (1998) wrote that the CPS data have been the most stable set of data on America since the 1960s. Bregger (1984) described the CPS as the oldest continuous monthly sample survey in the world. He reported the history of the CPS as measure for government to readily know a cross sample of the population's issues on a regular basis as opposed to the Census. The Census Bureau originally conducted the survey but the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics took over the survey in 1958. He reported that the success of the survey was dependent on the strong ongoing working relationship between the two departments.

The CPS and other government data sets provided critical information for trend analysis in this study. In the next section of this chapter, the introduction of the model variable research questions included identification of specific data sets. Six CPS charts used data sets on age distribution, employment, life expectancy, household income, household composition, and educational levels.

Consumer Price Index (CPI)

The CPI was described as a measure of the average change in a typical market basket of consumer purchases of goods and services (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2000). The Statistical Abstract supplemental documents described the CPI with the following passages.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics publishes CPIs for two populations groups: (a) a CPI for All Urban Consumers (CPI-U) which covered approximately 87% of the total population and (b) a CPI for Urban Wage Earners and clerical workers (CPI-W) which covers 32% of the total population. The CPI-U includes, in addition to wage earners and clerical workers, groups such as professional, managerial, and technical workers, the self-employed, short-term workers, the unemployed, and retirees and others not in the labor force.

Prices are collected in 87 urban areas across the country from about 50,000 housing units and approximately 23,000 retail establishments such as department stores, supermarkets, hospitals, filling stations, and other types of stores and service establishments. All taxes directly associated with the purchase and uses of items are included in the index. Prices of fuels and a few other items are obtained every month in all 87 locations.

In calculating the index, price changes for the various items in each location are averages together with weights representing levels of importance in the appropriate population groups' purchases. Local data are combined to produce the U.S. city average. Area indexes do not measure between cities price differences. The averages track the average price changes for each area from the base period.

The index measures price change from a designed reference data (1982-1984) that equals 100.0. An increase of 16.5% for a year was shown as 116.5 in CPI data. The same figure was expressed in dollars as the price change of a base period market basket of goods and services in the CPI rose from \$10 in 1982-1984 to \$11.65 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2000).

The history of the CPI reflected the interactions between government, economic shifts, and individual buying power. Lowenstein (1974) described the history of the CPI. Economists used CPI rates to evaluate and adjust wages to living costs. The Taylor Society supported the start of the CPI in 1919. Union leaders considered the CPI rate changes an important in collective bargaining.

Marcoot and Bahr (1986) explained the changes in the CPI during the 1980s. The 1980 Census figures indicated that demographic groups were different from the previous Census. The CPI market basket was changed to reflect changes in consumer behavior (p.15). Triplett (1981) reported that government indicators were not in agreement with their respective economic readings. The CPI was changed to reflect a better snapshot of the population consumer behavior. Changes in the Census included new measurements on immigrants and methods to reduce undercounts.

The CPI rate changes were tracked over the 1970-1999 time frame. Marcoot (1985) reported on the updates that were under study for changes in January 1987. Marcoot stated that regular updates to the market basket were necessary to reflect current purchases and market behavior. Triplett (1981) compared the CPI to the Department of Commerce PCE Deflator that considered rural populations as well as urban areas for their market basket mix. There were conceivable advantages to using the other measure for economic readings, however, the CPI has been a traditional measure reported in the media.

The application of CPI data in this study was specific to consist trend analysis during the time frame. Although there were other variations to the CPI available, there

were limitations to the data adjustments. In addition, the CPI data figures used in this study were the same publicized by the media and applied in calculations and statistics in the literature analyzed for this study.

Consumer Confidence Survey

National Family Opinion (NFO) of Greenwich, Connecticut conducts The Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) for The Conference Board. Questions asked of participants remained constant throughout the history of the series that started in 1967. Data from 1967 to 1977 were bi-monthly and monthly collection started in June 1977 (The Conference Board, 2000). Data collection occurs monthly as described in the following passage.

The questionnaires are mailed to nationwide representative sample of 5,000 households resulting in a typical response total of roughly 3,500 responses. A different panel of households is surveyed each month. Respondents are asked: (a) their appraisal of current business conditions, (b) their expectations regarding business conditions six months hence, (c) their appraisal of the current employment conditions, (d) their expectations regarding employment six months hence, and (e) their expectations regarding their total family income six months hence. For each of the five questions, there are three response options: positive, negative, and neutral (The Conference Board, 2000).

The response proportions to each question are seasonally adjusted. For each of the five questions, the positive figure is divided by the sum of the positive and negative to yield a proportion, that is called the relative value. For each question, the average relative value for the calendar year 1985 is used as a benchmark. The application of the benchmark is used to yield the index value for that question. The indexes are averaged together as follows: Consumer Confidence Index represents the average of all 5 indexes; the Present Situation Index represents the average of indexes for questions 1 and 3, and the Expectations Index represents the average of the indexes for questions 2, 4, and 5 (The Conference Board, 2000).

Several changes evolved in the study as a result of literature review process covering the 30 years researched for this project. The variables of the model interrelated at various levels and contributed to the understanding of the meaning of the time and context of the emergence of flexible work arrangements. For example, during the process of establishing the data sets, literature reviews from *Monthly Labor Review* and business sources yielded collaborative references for triangulation.

The task of establishing the historical context was subjective in the process but developed objectivity during the data collection and analysis. Careful, exhaustive reviews of the sources, HRM journals, *Monthly Labor Review*, and business sources were conducted and the analysis was conducted with the model as the objective guidelines. The variables defined as the contextual framework developed from the model. In the development and testing of the model, it was necessary to develop research questions for each of the variables within the parameters of the model.

The remainder of the methodology chapter summarized the final research model. Each section of the model was validated through the process of the research and evaluated as to the relevance of the analysis of the historical context for the emergence of flexible work arrangements.

Model Application and Secondary Data Collection

The individual decade chapters (1970s, 1980s, and 1990s findings) followed the format and order of the research questions presented in the next section. Cumulative answers to the research questions for the 1970 to 1999 time frame are in chapter six.

The following questions address each of the variables of the model design.

National Systems Levels

The sources for the national or macrosystem level of the project included U.S. Census data, history books published with the end of the twentieth century on events and facts, U.S. Congressional and Supreme Court activities, information on unions from the overall literature review, and the Consumer Price Index (CPI). These sources of data provided contextual information for the time frame as found in the models used for the development of the research model. Each source of information corresponded to a research question translated from the levels of the model. The model and questions collectively provided context to answer the final research questions.

General Population Age Distribution

Age percentage distributions of the general population provided an overview of the general population. The impact of the various age cohorts was important to understanding the context of work and family interfaces. Statistical Abstract Chart No. 1413 was used for this variable (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999). The percentages of the total population in each age group contributed to the understanding of the ramifications of demographics.

Research Question 1. What were the trends in the general population age distribution data and how did these changes relate to the model during the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively between 1970 and 1999?

National Culture

The context of the national culture was investigated through history books reviewing the century and millennium that were readily available during the time frame. Information on books consulted was organized in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3***History Books for National Culture Analysis***

Title	Author	Date	Content Type
<i>What Everyone Should Know About the 20th Century</i>	Axelrod, A. Phillips, C.	1998	Articles on Major Events
<i>The Complete Idiot's Guide to 20th-Century History</i>	Axelrod, A.	1999	Quick Reference to Major Events
<i>20th Century Day by Day</i>	Daniels, C.	1999	Time Line
<i>The American Century</i>	Evans, H.	2000	Narrative and Short Articles
<i>The 20th Century: An Illustrated History of Our Lives and Times</i>	Glennon, L.	2000	Illustrated History
<i>The Timetables of History</i>	Grun, B.	1991	Encyclopedia History
<i>A History of the American People</i>	Johnson, P.	1997	Narrative
<i>Millennium: Year by Year</i>	Mercer, D.	1999	Millennium Time Line
<i>The New York Times: Century of Business</i>	Norris, F.	2000	Articles Reprinted with Expert Commentary
<i>The People Almanac Presents the Twentieth Century</i>	Wallenchinsky, D.	1999	Milestones of Seemingly Inconsequential Facts

The review of these texts during the literature review phase was invaluable in determining the meaning of contextual changes during the decades included in the study. Information on social events, historic events, people in the news whose stories impacted others, medical developments, and the general events that contributed to the cultural atmosphere defined each decade. Summary tables for each decade were included in Appendix C (1970s), Appendix D (1980s), Appendix E (1990s). In addition, a summary sheet for each decade was included with research instruments for primary research participants. When asked about the sheets as part of the questionnaire, 86% responded that it

helped them to recall the particular time period. Due to the extensiveness of the material, the Appendix tables were the format of the presentation of the material in this study.

Research Question 2. What were the significant events that reflected national culture and expectations that impacted the model in the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively from 1970 to 1999?

Executive Government Context

The political venue was one of the national system variables that influenced the work and family systems levels of the model. An overview was derived from the history books (Table 2.3) used for the Research Question 2 or the National Culture context.

Research Question 3. What were the events at the executive government level that impacted culture and the expectations in the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively from 1970 to 1999?

Federal Legislation Context

The Committee on Techniques for the Enhancement of Work Performance summarized the problems for human resources at the end of the 20th century (1999, pp. 17-18). Many of the basic laws and regulations reflected influences from the New Deal legislation for organizations and work structures of a different time frame. Regulations expanded in number, scope, range, range of issues addressed, and complexity since that period. A 1976 estimate reported that the number of regulatory programs administered by the U.S. Department of Labor (DOL) expanded from 43 in 1960 to 134 by 1974 and continued to increase in number.

The legislation included laws affecting work, HRM, and family interface. Intensive investigation of these laws was beyond the limitations of this study. Each decade chapter included a summary table of the pertinent laws passed during the respective time

frame. Literature from the various literature review sources addressed HRM issues with specific legislation was reviewed in each chapter.

Sources for the legislative information included *United States Code Service* (1999) and internet sources. The sources were derived through searches on databases and search engines. The most consistently used source was Cornell's Legal Information Institute (2001) and Lexus-Nexus (2002).

The date of publication determined the location of the reference. For instance, the Occupational Health and Safety Act (1970) created the Occupational Health and Safety Administration (OSHA). Although it became law in 1970, numerous articles throughout the time frame addressed OSHA concerns. Therefore, changes in the laws or changing perceptions about laws was incorporated into the research findings for each decade.

Research Question 4. What was the significant legislation at the federal level that influenced the model in the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively from 1970 to 1999?

Research Question 5. What were the perceptions on legislation and influences on the model from the literature review on legislation and human resources?

The U.S. Supreme Court Decisions Context

The Supreme Court decisions interpret the intent of the federal legislation system. Each chapter included a table of the significant court decisions. The discussions on individual cases were limited due to the scale of this study. Although HRM journals covered some reactions to decisions, this information was not included in this study. Individual state laws and lower court decisions influenced operations in the context of legislation. The inclusion of the history of some of these decisions was beyond the scope of this pro-

ject. The Cornell University Legal Information Institute website on Supreme Court decisions and *Find Law for Legal Professionals* (2002) provided information for cases.

Research Question 6. Which Supreme Court decisions impacted the model during the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively from 1970 to 1999?

Union Activities from Literature Review

Union activities included information on strikes from history books, information on collective bargaining and labor organizations from the review of *Monthly Labor Review*, and articles from the human resource journals on the impact of labor on work operations.

Research Question. 7. What significant union activities investigated in the literature review of the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively that influenced the model?

Economic Context

Economic components included information on recessions and general economic activity from the National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER), Consumer Price Index (CPI) activity, and narrative summaries in each decade chapter from the literature review. The National Bureau of Economic Research [NBER] (2001) started in 1920 as a private, nonprofit, nonpartisan research organization dedicated to promoting a greater understanding of how the U.S. economy operated. Although media and economists follow the CPI and other indexes, it is the NBER that evaluates the contextual meanings of various operators and determined the state of the economy. The NBER stated that two consecutive quarters of decline in Gross National Product (GNP) did not translate as a recession. There were contextual issues that required consensus through evaluation. The NBER defined a recession as a period of significant decline in total output, income, employment,

and trade typically over a time frame of six months to a year with widespread contractions over economy sectors. *Monthly Labor Review*, business journals, and HRM journals addressed economic issues relative to respective perspectives and meanings. This information was collected and analyzed during the ongoing literature reviews from these sources and included in this section to provide contextual meaning to the economic events.

Research Question 8. What were the significant economic changes and events influencing the model during 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively as determined by NBEA and literature reviews?

Consumer Price Index (CPI)

Statistical Abstract Chart No. 1435 was used for the CPI data (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999). Media reported the changes in the CPI on a monthly basis. The data points were plotted for individual decades and cumulatively for the 1970 to 1999 time frame. In addition, CPI information from the cumulative literature review was included as appropriate within the decade chapter framework.

Research Question 9. What were the changes in the CPI that impacted the model in the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively from 1970 to 1999?

Work Systems Level

Standard work practices changed during the 1970 to 1999 timeframe as a result of technology, changes in HRM, economics, and changing workforce demographics. Groups of people who traditionally did not participate in the workforce such as women with small children and people with disabilities became part of and contributed to the workplace culture. The role of human resource management (HRM) in the interface be-

tween work and home policies was an important contextual element. The employment rates supported the understanding economically on how U.S. measured employment.

Employment Information

The unemployment rate was an important statistic during the 1970-1999 time frame. Changes in the unemployment rate impacted the job market, the types of perks or benefits such as flextime available to employees, and the expectations of employees to find a suitable work environment. Each decade chapter included a plot of employment data and a cumulative plot summarized the changes across the 1970 to 1999 time frame. Godbout (1993) reported that U.S. employment growth was the highest of any of the industrial nations during the 1970 to 1999 time period. This growth was a factor of demographics and changes in legislation, technology, and types of available work. Statistical Abstract Chart No. 1430 was used for this variable (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999).

Research Question 10. What were the employment percentage rates for 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively and how did the data influence model interactions?

Human Resource Management (HRM) Literature Review

The overview of the human resource management literature focused on professional journals as per Table 2.2 but also included other human resources and professional business journals. The HRM literature review included topics related to flextime and HRM issues. Themes of trends were followed and linked to aspects of the other model levels as possible.

Research Question 11. What were the significant issues from the HRM literature review that influenced the model during the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively from 1970 to 1999?

Narrative on Alternative Work Arrangements

Throughout the literature review process, a number of articles appeared to focus on flexible work but were other variations of work practices changing traditional work practices. Several work arrangements were considered flexible in practice but were not flextime as defined for this study. Some sources considered these options alternative work arrangements (AWA) or flexible work options. Often flextime was a category of AWA in publications. The change from traditional hours, timing, and place of work was one of the developments during this time frame. Examples included part-time work, compressed workweek, job sharing, and contingent or temporary work positions. Therefore, each chapter included literature descriptions on other alternative work practices to provide context for the various changes in work arrangements during the time frame.

Research Question 12. What information from the literature review on alternative work arrangements (AWA) of the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively influenced the model?

Narrative on Flexible Work Literature

All of the articles gathered for Research Questions 12 (AWA), 14 (HRM Flextime Title Counts), and 15 (Management and Business Flextime Title Counts) were collected and reviewed for this section of the study. Other sources reviewed and summarized included books, book chapters, reports, and events. The process for this section tracked the development of the language and context for flextime independently and as part of AWA. The historical method of content analysis (Beringer, 1978) applied to data collection on the incidences and content of articles on flextime or flexible work arrangements.

Research included data base searches physical review of the journal table of contents as recommended by Beringer (1978) and Stewart and Kamins (1993). The physical review method provided the opportunity to review content and references for additional sources. Bibliographical research of articles conducted during this period determined key researchers and their principle works that supported analysis of literature trends. During these searches, evaluation of articles on pertinent variables such as legislation and human resources trends transpired.

Research Question 13. What aspects of the evolution of flextime researched through the analysis of the flextime literature reviews from the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulative literature influenced the model?

Flextime Title Count From Human Resource Management (HRM) Journals

After careful analysis of the flextime articles used to answer Question 13, the articles deemed flextime were included as references and counted to answer Questions 14 and 15. The determination of the count of each article was made if the title and content were flextime. Each decade chapter included a table on title counts and a summary of the data. In the cumulative findings chapter for 1970 to 1999, a table of the counts for the time period presented a visual for ascertaining any relationships between the literature counts and the other model data variables.

Research Question 14. What were the counts of articles in major HRM journals specifically entitled or subtitled flextime or flexible working hours for 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively during the 1970 to 1999 time frame? Where there any trends from the review (and graphic plot) of the counts that reflected the trends identified in the model variables?

Flextime Title Count From Management and Business Journals

From the flextime literature review, there were a number of articles written in other types of journals such as *Monthly Labor Review*, *Academy of Management*, *Harvard Business Review*, and several psychological journals on flextime. From article reviews for the pilot chapter on the 1970s, there was some evidence of a trend in the timing of the publication of articles. The flexible work schedule articles counted in this section were analyzed for the flextime narrative. Each decade chapter contained a table with frequency counts on the journal titles. Cumulative numbers were tabulated for comparison in the 1970 to 1999 chapter.

Research Question 15. What types of journals other than HRM published flextime articles and were there any trends from count of flextime titles from the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s and cumulatively that reflected the trends identified in the model variables?

Family Systems Level

Family systems changed dramatically during the 1970-1999 time frame. During the initial stages of this project, research on various types of data determined the variables potentially illustrating interrelationships, family impacts, and the research model. Data collection included information from (a) the Cost of Living Index from CPS on household income, (b) household composition from CPS, (c) marital status by decade from the General Census, and (d) literature review on the family.

Household Incomes Shifts

Family income determined the goods and services available for purchases at the family level. The perception of the amount of income and the actual income purchasing power influenced household financial decisions. Since the CPS is self-reported, the per-

ceptions about income reported were important. Literature and common sense dictated that the needs for income influenced the work participation decisions of families. *Money Income of Families in Current and Constant (1998) Dollars* from *Statistical Abstract* Chart No. 1427 was used for this variable (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999). Summaries and data plots included both current and constant dollar amounts for each decade. Cumulative data in the conclusions demonstrated the overall changes in the real (adjusted or constant) and perceived (current) income data.

Research Question 16. What were the changes in current and constant incomes for households in 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively that influencing model variable interactions?

Household Composition Shifts

The composition of households changed during the 1970 to 1999 time frame. The percentage of homes with children changed. Information from the literature review supported some of the ramifications of the changes. *Statistical Abstract* Chart No. 1419 was summarized in each decade chapter of findings (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999).

Research Question 17. What were the changes in household composition in the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s and cumulatively that supported model interactions?

Marital Status Shifts

The published marital status and divorce reflected American perceptions about families. Marriage and divorce counts from *Statistical Abstract* Chart No. 1418 were used for this variable (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999). Summary information included in each decade chapter of findings was supported through the literature review on work and family.

Research Question 18. What were the shifts in marital status in the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s and how did it impact the model?

Narrative on Family Literature

Extensive literature on work and family interactions included information specifically on flextime, time conflicts, and the impact of dual-career life styles. The systems interface with flexible work arrangements and family impact from family studies literature was extensive. Data base searches performed using Boolean search tools limited the literature to family and work interface. Issues such as family care and housework were identified. Each decade was a separate section and the date of the publication determined the location within the research model. The family changed during the time frame and the family literature supported the shifts.

Research Question 19. What were the trends from the literature review on family (and work) 1970s, 1980s, 1990s and cumulatively that influenced the model?

Individual Systems Levels

There were a number of approaches considered to represent the micro-system issues for the study. The data variables included for the three decades included educational levels, life expectancy, Consumer Confidence Survey data, literature on topics summarizing issues for working adults, and a research project that collected data from individuals representing the median working age for each decade.

Under Bronfenbrenner's (1979) model, some of the information in this section was exosystem level interface such as educational levels and life expectancy calculations. For the convenience of organizing this section of the research, both exosystems and

microsystems were organized under individual systems. The Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) would be a collection of mesosystem perspectives from individuals reflecting microsystem combinations of interactions to the economic impacts on responding individuals. The individual participant responses reflected microlevel (individual data) and mesosystem levels of life, work, and family in historical context.

Educational Level Shifts

The average educational level of individuals shifted significantly during the time frame. Education as an individual and cohort determinant influenced opportunities for work and social class advancement. Figures of the data charts were included in each decade chapter. Statistical Abstract Chart No. 1426 was used for this variable (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999).

Research Question 20. What were the changes in educational levels and what information from the literature related the changes to the model for the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively?

Life Expectancy Shifts

The media and medical cultures promoted that the life expectancies for Americans were rising throughout the time period. There were published expectations impacting work and retirement projections and the family obligations of parents and others that related to this information. Additional information from literature review as was included with the summary of the data in each chapter. Figures with the plot of this data were included in each of the decade chapters and the summary chapter analyzed the trends in context to other model variables. Statistical Abstract Chart No. 1421 was used for this variable (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999).

Research Question 21. What were the changes in life expectancy during the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, and cumulatively?

Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS)

National Family Opinion (NFO) collected and tabulated monthly figures for The Conference Board Consumer Confidence Survey. Each decade chapter included a chart with the data collected during the time frame. For example, during most of the 1970s, data were collected bi-monthly and monthly for the remainder of the time period. A yearly summary table for the cumulative years (1970-1997) graphically summarized in the cumulative findings section to illustrate the data over the time period.

Research Question 22. What were the changes in the Consumer Confidence Survey during 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s and what were the interrelations with the model?

Literature Review on Individual Level Context

During the course of the literature analysis on family and work, sources collected included on the issues facing individuals regarding retirement (related to life expectancy), educational changes (related to cohort trends), and general cohort information on the Baby Boomers. The Baby Boomers generation impact created tremendous shifts in other systems of the model throughout this time frame. Due to the size of this project, work and family sections incorporated literature found for this section. The information was summarized in the 1970 to 1999 cumulative chapter.

Research Question 23. What information from the general literature review of the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s was associated with changes in cohorts that impacted the model?

The research questions presented to this point were based upon secondary data sources. From the information in Table 2.1, the primary data provided the individual perspective on work, work and life balance, and the changes in work from different groups. The purpose of this data was to provide the link to the interrelationships as recalled by people representing the median age at the middle of each decade.

Primary Data From Individual Perceptions and Model Application

Credible and informed primary data sources enhance the validity of historical research. The scope of this study did not support the use of extensive interviews however, the key questions provided perspective and definition to the information from the secondary data. In other respects, this study provided a framework of trends impacting a number of HRM variables during the time frame for building upon the model. The opportunity to present reflections on the topic from the individual perspective was a critical component of the model validity. The contextual meaning recall and mesosystem perspective of the individual were important.

In defining the group for individual analysis, it was determined that the median ages workers for the midpoint years of each decade (1975, 1985, and 1995) were the target participants. Using the range of plus or minus three years from the median age provided flexibility in data collection. This process defined the cohort or group for analysis as described earlier. The goal was 10 participants per age group.

Research Question 24. What were individual worker perceptions (recall) about flexibility, work, and family in each decade?

Philosophical Direction for Primary Data Collection

The philosophies of Terkel (1972;1997) provided a philosophical direction. Participants talking about their everyday experiences provided “rich data” on perception and context. Terkel (1972) maintained that people’s perceptions about their work, how they worked, and how their work influenced personal lives were real and viable. Extensive interviews across a defined cohort were considered. However, in the scope of this study, Terkel’s philosophies were used to formulate the question about how people perceived the changes in their work (and flextime) across time.

This study was a demonstration of how contextual variables influenced the development of a historic trend. The overall picture was the goal. Therefore, a process to gather information from individuals was developed and administered as described below. A qualitative research approach as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) defined the process of development and implementation of the investigation of individual perceptions about flexible work arrangements and their contextual variables for each of the three decades. Various examples and influences from readings guided the development of the research instrument. Miles and Huberman suggested a checklist for the formation of a qualitative study. Major points included:

(a) the relevancy to the conceptual framework, (b) can the phenomena appear in process, (c) can the data enhance the other aspects of the study, (d) are participant explanations viable, (e) is the sampling plan feasible (money, time, access to subjects, research work style), and (f) are the sampling procedures ethical (p. 34).

Miles and Huberman (1994) suggested that the researcher develop his or her custom instrumentation from the conceptual framework and background investigation.

Instrumentation was developed reflecting the model and questions perceived to relate to the emergence of flextime after collection and initial review of secondary sources.

Human Subjects Procedures

Human Subjects Form A was used as part of the requirements for dissertation work at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Forms were completed and approved through proper channels. Each participant received a letter of request explaining the project, consent forms, a history sheet on significant events for respective decade, participant forms to complete for demographic information, and a questionnaire. Copies of the research instruments were included in Appendix F

Data Set Calculations and Definition

Staff at the Census Bureau calculated the median ages for the civilian workforce in 1975, 1985, and 1995 as the result of personal communication with A. Mosisa and H. Fullerton (personnel communication, June 8, 2001). The median age was 35.8 years in 1975, 35.2 in 1985, and 37.9 in 1995. An overview of the cohort information was presented in Table 2.4

The overall study was a demonstration of the process of historical methods in the field of HRM. This section of the study applied qualitative techniques and asked participants to recall information about their respective work and life situations at a particular data. A sample of convenience was used to facilitate the process. More than 200 people were contacted and 50 responded. Several agreed to participate in the study and declined to continue after receiving the research instruments. Reasons included time limitations and family obligations. Various types of workers from across the country were contacted

Table 2.4***Participant Demographic Synopsis***

Cohort	Decade	Number of Participants	Median Age	Median Age Range	2001 Age Range
One	1970s	11	35.8 or 36	33-39	59-65
Two	1980s	11	35.2 or 35	32-38	48-54
Three	1990s	14	37.9 or 38	35-41	41-47

through friends, family, work associates, and professional organizations. Beringer (1978,) stated that “historic research is a forum or opportunity to ideas in context and large numbers are not important” (p. 198). A total of 35 responses comprised the final data set.

The traditional research approach to the family and work interface focused the selection of a work community such as an organization or a professional group and administer a questionnaire on perceptions. Although several companies were potential data collections sites, the process described above and expanded below was used to access participates from various locations and work situations. Headd (2000) wrote that more than half of American workers worked for smaller organizations. If a single site had been used, the data would have reflected fewer types of experiences. Participants responded from larger and smaller organizations and shared their perceptions to the questions contextually. Occupations for participants included human resource management, professionals such as architecture, engineering, and geology, clerical, banking, non-profit management, higher education, sales, self-employment, and medical services.

Cohort Data Collection

Distribution of instruments included regular mail, personal delivery, and email. Participants who did not have computer access or who indicated that they felt uncomfort-

able with electronic transmittal received paper copies. Participant request determined the type of file. Several of the participants indicated that they would participate only if they could use email for their responses and communication. Email responses were received from 53% of the total participants.

Data collection occurred over the summer months of 2001. The research design called for a multi-step process to gather data from participants. Individual interviews were planned. During the course of asking participants, many indicated that they did not feel that they had time to sit down for an interview. To secure participants for the data collection, participants filled out the participant form, consent form, and interview questions at their own (time) convenience. Deadlines for return were based upon individual schedules but supported a September closure to data collection. The response rate increased considerably with this approach. Many of the completed responses included notes to call them if the process necessitated additional information.

Participants from the Nashville area, the Knoxville region, Chattanooga, Alabama, Texas, and Oklahoma agreed to participate as professional favors. Family contacts collected data from Michigan, northern Virginia, Tri-Cities region in Tennessee, southwest Virginia, Chicago, and St. Louis. Personal friends from New York City, St. Louis, Knoxville, and Seattle participated in the data collection and others accessed participants from Pennsylvania and Knoxville. A total of 35 responses were received in a six-week period. One response was dropped due to sampling errors. Two responses were returned in late September due to schedule conflicts. The late returns were included because both

of them were from Cohort One and their responses were needed for the required number in each group as per the design.

Responses received through email were saved to two secure locations. Printouts were made for record keeping. Hardcopy responses were transcribed for the summation and kept with the other responses. All responses and consent forms were filed by research participant number and pseudo name in locked files kept at the researcher's home as per Human Subjects.

Analysis of Primary Data

Each participant's participation sheet was entered into a table for analysis on demographics. Column designations included participant number, state of residence at designated time frame, current age, designated time age, sex, education level at designated time frame, education level currently, children, marital status, occupation at designated time frame, and when appropriate occupation information at later time designation.

About half way through the data collection, a participant asked about the time frame for education. The timing of education was not incorporated into the participant response sheet. However, most of the respondents included that information in their answers and a column was added to the analysis tables. The cohort demographic summary information was included in each decade chapter. Information from the individual responses incorporated into chapters provided the individual perspective on the data issues.

CHAPTER 3

THE 1970s: THE DECADE OF CHANGE

During the 1970s, many social, political, and economic changes challenged America, American workplaces, American families, and Americans as individuals. The influences of the various systems interactions caused multiple changes. When one considered the ramifications of the Baby Boomer generation, the oil crisis, the proliferation of service based positions, and changes in family systems, the message was clear. A number of events took place that changed the face of America and started the movement towards the 21st century.

National Systems Variables Influencing the 1970s

The national context during the 1970s shifted tremendously. All of the research model variables under this section changed from previous levels of perceived stability of the 1950s and 1960s. Events and situations altered the work systems and family systems during the 1970s time frame. However, the macrolevel or national systems impacts were more catastrophic in short term and long term affects.

General Population Age Distribution Shifts Between 1970 and 1979

During the 1970s, the age distributions for the general population shifted as the last of the baby boom generation went through adolescence as illustrated in Figure 3.1. The birth rate fell during the 1970s and the percentage of children under the age of five diminished over the course of the decade. Baby Boomer impacts illustrated by the significant dip of the 5-14 age group percentages, the gradual increase in the 15-24 age group percentages, and the sharp increase in the 25-34 age group percentages over the

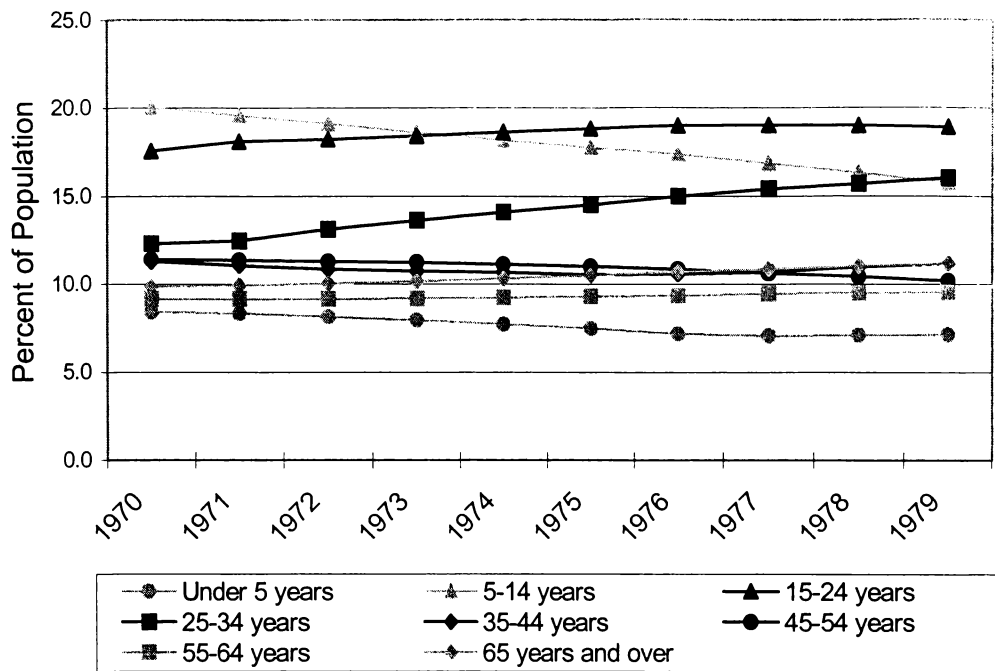


Figure 3.1. General population age distribution between 1970 and 1979.

decade were significant. The population percentages for 35-44 group dipped slightly but recovered over the decade. A small decrease was seen in the 45-54 age group percentages. Slight increases in the over 55 age groups indicate gradual increases in life expectancy and medical advancements.

National Culture Context Between 1970 and 1979

Significant events reflecting political, economical, social, and recreational aspects of the American culture during the 1970s are shown in Table C.1 in Appendix C. The events of the next section on executive government were derived from Table C.1 and the other historical references listed in Table 2.3.

Federal Executive Government Context Between 1970 and 1979

President Richard Milhouse Nixon, the 37th President of the U.S., served from 1969- 1974. His Vice-President was Spiro Agnew who after their reelection in 1972 resigned in early 1973 for income tax evasion. During the 1972 campaign, the Watergate Scandal started with the capture of five men at the Democratic Headquarters. Johnson (1997) wrote that the liberal media had been pursuing Nixon since the 1950s.

Nixon's administration contained many significant accomplishments such as the reestablishment of diplomatic relations with China, the Paris Peace Talks, and strategic summits with Moscow. However, Nixon's knowledge of Watergate and his resignation in 1974 to avoid impeachment shadowed him for the rest of his life.

Gerald Ford became Vice-President with Agnew's resignation. When Nixon resigned, he became the 38th President in 1974. Ford pardoned Nixon and tried to fight the mounting inflation. The national unemployment rate caused him to loose the 1976 Presidential election.

James (Jimmy) Carter was the last president of the 1970s. He was the first Democrat to be elected from the Deep South since before the Civil War. Carter was a peanut farmer and the Governor of Georgia. The legacy of his office was the Camp David Agreements leading to peace between Egypt and Israel. The economic conditions of the economy impacted Carter's office tenure. When the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) raised oil prices in 1979, he called the action the "moral equivalent of war" (Johnson, 1997). In November 1979, Iranian student militants attacked the U.S. embassy in Tehran, Iran and took American citizens as hostages. The events leading to

their freedom in 1980 did not help the public perceptions about Carter. In addition, in protest to Russia's invasion of Afghanistan, he imposed a grain embargo and boycotted the 1980 summer Olympic Games in Moscow.

The Presidential leaders of the 1970s influenced and reacted to greater events of a complex and changing country and world. Each made mistakes and encountered external events beyond his scope.

Federal Legislation Context Between 1970 and 1979

There were numerous bills passed in the 1970s influencing work and family. This section includes a review of literature. A comprehensive table of legislation was included in Table 3.1.

One of the legislative battles of the 1970s was the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA). In March of 1972, the Senate passed the ERA (Daniels, 1999, p. 1044). In July of 1978, more than 100,000 marched in Washington for an extension on state ratification (Daniels, 1999, p. 1141). In October 1978, the Senate extended the deadline for passage by the states from March 22, 1979 until June 30, 1982 (Grun, 1991, p. 591). Fineshriber (1979), in writing about the inequalities of unemployment insurance provisions for women, discussed the legal implications of the anticipated passage of the ERA. By the end of the century few people discussed the ratification of ERA.

The Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 passed to protect American workers and create standards for improvement working environments. The act created safer working conditions and continued through the Occupational Safety and Health

Table 3.1***Significant Legislation in the 1970s***

Title and Year	Code	Summary
Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970	5 USCS §§ 5108	Enacted to ensure so far as possible every working man and woman in the nation safe and healthful working conditions. Established the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA)
Holiday Pay Act of 1971	5 USCS 6103 a	Designated three-day holiday weekends for Federal employees. Many private groups followed with closings.
Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972	5 USCS §§ 5108	Amendments to Title VII Civil Rights Act of 1964 Amendment gave the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission the right to sue employers for discrimination.
Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973	29 USCS §§ 710-709	Law provided increased opportunities for employment and supports for people with disabilities.
The Privacy Act of 1974	5 USCS § 552a	Provide certain safeguards for an individual against the invasion of personal privacy. The act was limited to the federal government and only applied to private industry under contract with a federal government department.
ERISA Employee Retirement Income Security Act of 1974	29 § 1001 nt.	Created guarantees for vested pension holders with companies. Created IRA accounts for employees without pension plans.
1978 (ADEA) Amendments to Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967	29 USCS §§ 621 nt.	Eliminated, over time, mandatory retirement at age 65. Mandatory retirement in the private sector was prohibited before age 70 and at any age for most Federal employees.
Federal Employees Flexible and Compressed Work Schedules Act of 1978	USCS §§ 6101 et seq.	Federal Agencies were instructed to investigate and try alternative work arrangements for a three-year trial period.
Federal Employees Part-Time Career Employment Act of 1978	Public Law 95-437	Acknowledged permanent part-time as means for certain groups to find employment/to provide increased career opportunities for part-time. Opportunities to transition to retirement, people with disabilities and those needing shorter employment time like students.
Labor Management Cooperation Act of 1978	29 USCS §§ 173	Authorized labor-management committees to improve cooperation through government assistance.
Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1979	42 USCS § 2000e.	Amendment to the Civil Rights Act (1964). Question if definition of short disability for pregnancy as compared to longer-term for accidents was discrimination.

Administration (OSHA) to change working environments throughout the remainder of the 20th century.

Reynolds (1978) called the Occupational Safety and Health Act (1970) one of the most widely applied federal laws impacting business covering over six million employers and over 60 million employees. The act affected nearly every business in the country with 2,200 agency inspectors. Concerns about inspected included possible violation of Fourth Amendment rights.

Ashford (1975) evaluated worker and safety conflicts. Four areas of concern existed: (a) management's desire to minimize costs and maintain control and worker desire for wages, benefits, and job security, (b) insufficient data base on the nature and extent of health hazards in the workplace, (c) differences between perceptions of fairness in public policy and appropriate limits, and (d) disconnect between various organizations with information and resources. The differences between safety hazards with immediate impact and health hazards with long-term ramifications caused confusion. Occupational illnesses such as cancer did not affect the workforce consistently. The National Safety Council estimated the total cost of occupational hazards at \$15 billion in 1974 (p. 8).

Occupational hazard awareness changed in the 1970s with OSHA (1970) The case of Karen Silkwood drew national attention and her estate received \$10.5 million for her disclosure of low radiation exposure to nuclear plant workers (Daniels, 1999, p. 1155; Grun, 1991, p. 592). Increased numbers of people developed awareness of the impacts of hazardous working (and living) conditions during the time frame of this study. Residents

of Love Canal in New Jersey living in a subdivision constructed over a former toxic waste dump suffered long term impacts from insufficient regulations on companies.

Reis (1975) described the first three years of OSHA as developmental with many problems. Those years made significant progress toward assuring safe and healthy workplaces for Americans. The development of the employer self-inspection was an important goal of the program and on-site citations were used only to ensure compliance. Seymour (1973) examined the role of state development of programs under OSHA with the intention that state approved programs phased out federal inspections. Namee (1978) wrote the chapter for the *ASPS Handbook of Personnel and Industrial Relations* on occupational safety and health.

The passage of Employment Retirement Income Security Act (ERISA) of 1974 supported pension planning for American workers. Frumkin and Schmitt (1979) discussed the annual review of 131 pension plans by the BLS. When they compared the number of plans meeting ERISA age and service requirements, all but one of the plans in 1978 met the criteria compared with 50% in 1974. The changes in the benefits formulas increased the average projected typical retirement benefit 20.6%. However, the Consumer Price Index (CPI) rose 23% between 1974 and 1978 and the projected retirements gains were less than inflation.

Stott (1971) described the process of the early hearings for the development of a pension plan. Legislators promoting ERISA (1974) heard numerous accounts of retirement disasters impacting workers throughout the country. Stott considered the wording as an important testimonial of the intent of the act. "Protect allowed the

legislation to surround the participants with legal defenses for the protection of *vested rights*” (p. 300). The act recognized employees as pension plan participants with two sources of income. During working years the employee received wages and upon retirement, pension income. The worker gained a legal right as a vested member not to lose vested interests regardless of continued employment. Finally, ERISA legislation acknowledged many employees did not have pensions and created the Individual Retirement Account (IRA) with tax benefits.

Buppert (1979) considered ERISA (1974) compliance as an automatic bridge in the employee communications gap (p. 179). Everyone covered under either a pension or benefits plan had a right to full understanding of the language and provisions of his or her plan. Advice to HRM included complete record keeping and not to panic since most of ERISA consisted of restatements of common law and earlier legislation.

Sullivan (1978) described the Amendments in the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) of 1967 passed by Congress in 1974. The intent was to create a federal standard for mandatory retirement to eliminate some of the confusion created by state laws following the 1967 law. Predictions on the ramifications were included impacts on retirement funds, Social Security, and employee insurance coverage after age 65.

Linenberger and Keaveny (1979) described the ADEA (1974) prohibitions as being nearly verbatim from Title VII except for the substitution of the word “age” (p. 87). The act did not restrain any hiring practices on applicants under the age of 40 or over the age of 70. Job descriptions for advertisements could not include any specific age-related language. This act impacted the typical hiring process.

The Privacy Act of 1974 covered federal departments and private industries under contract to federal departments. The Privacy Act applied to federal agencies that maintained records on individuals. Records included any information or items about individuals including education, finances, medical history, criminal history, and employment history. The purpose was to control dissemination of information between agencies. Benson (1978) outlined how the act would change HRM and the necessary records that must be kept to provide goods and services for workers.

Koch (1998) reported that Congress enacted the Federal Employees Flexible and Compressed Work Schedules Act (1978). Reportedly to cut down on traffic congestion, part of the intent was to reduce overall consumption with the energy crisis. As a trial program, the intent was to allow for additional family or personal time. Overtime pay options included cash or paid time off. Reduced absenteeism and increased productivity results encouraged Congress to reauthorize it in 1982. In 1985, the act was made permanent and it was extended to state and local workers officially.

The passage of the 1978 Federal Employees Flexible and Compressed Work Schedules was significant. By promoting flextime options, the support of the government influenced private sector employers. President Carter supported the act to conserve energy and to encourage long-term employment options for women in government. Opportunities for research on flextime increased with the number of public sector trials and standardizations in operations helped the reliability of studies.

Greenlaw and Foderaro (1979) provided the history of the evolution of the Pregnancy Discrimination Act (PDA) of 1979. The passage provided clarification of the

Civil Rights Act of 1964. Typical pregnancy leaves were six weeks and temporary disability leaves were 26 weeks. Several attempts to address the differences through the court system prompted the U.S. Supreme Court to invite Congress to define through legislation the clear intent of the law. The PDA financially affected industries with higher concentrations of women and penalized those who had hired more women due to affirmative action. Employee impacts included rising health care costs, burden of contributory plans on income, and the possibility of temporary disability leave changes. Lines (1979) explained three limitations to the law. First, pregnancy benefits competed with other benefits for employees in order to cover costs. Secondly, by limiting the PDA to Title VII, companies covered under Title VII had previously adopted a comprehensive disability plan and this diminished the intent. And lastly, the author contended the PDA promoted economic benefits for having children in an already overcrowded world. Adjustments to pregnancy in the workplace required time and successful exposures. Anderson (1979) provided advice to HRM in prevention of health problems in pregnant workers.

Beller (1977) conducted a study on the impact of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (1964) on women's earnings. They projected that women's wages were 4.7% higher than they otherwise would have been without the legislation enacted between 1967 and 1974. Increases were more significant after the passage of 1972 Amendments to Title VII that allowed the Equal Employment Opportunities Commission (EEOC) to sue employers for discrimination.

Finally, there were approximately 18 acts passed by Congress during the 1970s pertaining to energy and energy conservation. The impact of the energy crisis created new legislation to address alternative sources and savings of current resources.

The U.S. Supreme Court Decisions Context Between 1970 and 1979

The single most important United States Supreme Court decision during the 1970s was the ruling on abortion in *Roe v. Wade* 410 U.S. 113 (1973). The ramifications of the emotional impact of this case on the American public continued throughout the remainder of the 20th century. Abortion doctors were murdered, abortion clinics were bombed, and women seeking abortions were harassed by angry pro-life supporters. Each appointment to the Supreme Court prompted legal discussions across media formats on the future of the historic 1973 ruling. According to Axelrod and Phillips (1998), significant court decisions addressed rising concerns about equality and fairness. Table 3.2 summarized important Supreme Court decisions specific to HRM and family concerns.

Union Activities Shifts From 1970s Literature Review

Various types of media publicized union activity during the 1970s. Human

Table 3.2

1970s Supreme Court Decisions

Year	Title	Listing	Summary
1971	Griggs v. Duke Power	401 U.S. 424	Unlawful discrimination against blacks in hiring
1973	Roe v. Wade	410 U.S. 113	Established the right for women to have a first trimester abortion
1979	Steelworkers v. Weber	443 U.S. 193	Adoption of quotas to eliminate racial imbalance in the workplace

resource literature on unions included issues such as the role of women, the impact of inflation, and the emergence of the Baby Boomers into the workplace.

Many government employees joined unions during the 1960s (Cohany & Dewey, 1970). The work stoppages caused by strikes altered nonunion perceptions. Public worker strikes started with the emergence of the general strike ("Flexible personnel," 1970). The media provided national attention to teachers, sanitation and transportation workers, and numerous other strikers affecting the daily lives of the American public. Two strikes during the 1970s gained national attention: the 1970 U.S. Postal Service Workers strike and the Lordstown, Ohio General Motors (GM) strike in 1972.

Shannon (1978) detailed the evolution of the postal workers strike. Many New York City postal service workers' households were dependent on moonlighting or dual-incomes in order to sustain living standards. The strike interrupted mail service to most of America because of support from other postal workers throughout the nation. Prior to 1960, many postal contracts included no-strike clauses, and there was an informal pride in the service orientation of most workers. The irony of the strike was that President Nixon called up army reserves to deliver the mail. Several of the reservists were postal workers who had to work against their union.

The Lordstown GM strike received national attention. Norris and Bockelmann (2000, pp. 219-221) considered this strike one of the most significant labor events of the 20th century. Many people paralleled the younger strikers in a critical General Motors plant to the youth rebellions at universities during the 1960s and 1970s. Perceptual differences included: (a) reduced work staff due to previous plant consolidations, (b)

increased assembly line pace, (c) previous other plant closings impacting other union members who were family and friends, (d) perception that increased pace was not feasible for long term employment, and (e) younger, better educated worker concern over boredom with repetitive tasks. After several days' negotiation, the workers went on strike and received some concessions. Norris and Bockelman stated "this strike became the symbol of worker unrest in the 1970s" (p. 219).

Winpisinger (1973) commented on the events at Lordstown. Although the popular press had made comparisons between the young workers and the rebellious youth of the 1960s and 1970s, Winpisinger contended they ignored the true nature of the complaints. These young workers were striking for the same reasons as many strikers from previous generations: decent wages, safety violations, increased speed of work, and poor working conditions (p. 54). The media and management stereotyped the youthful strikers.

National events such as the oil crisis influenced union activities. Kassalow (1979) detailed the impact of the oil crisis on coal miners. As the need for domestic sources of energy increased, the United Mine Workers (UMW) unions included younger, better-educated workers who demanded health and safety compliance from management. The Baby Boomer generation strikes changed perceptions about the rights of workers in the coal mines. There were numerous strikes and federal intervention.

Sloan (1973) challenged unions to promote the historic role of unions in wages and working conditions. Most media exposure was negative. Kovach (1979) compared unions to the military. He stated, "What they (unions) cause to happen may not be as important as what they cause not to happen" (p. 850). Kovach continued that unions

caused labor market competition by increasing area wages to keep unions out of companies.

Kochan (1979) reported the results about union perceptions among American workers from the 1977 Quality of Employment Survey. Most respondents believed that unions were powerful, highly effective, and large. One-third of the nonunion respondents stated that they would join unions if they could. Union members responded they were satisfied with unions but wanted internal administration improvements.

Several authors questioned the need for unions in contemporary workplaces. Some perceived that unions were archaic. Schrank (1979) summarized issues such as the nature of management practices, the speed of technology, and the occupational shift to more service based companies that impacted unions. In addition, Schrank questioned if unions had accomplished their intended mission over time and if unions needed to strategize for a different role in the future. Kovach (1979) summarized his opinion on the current and future role of unions.

It is not as necessary for them (unions) to be as strong as they once were, for the problems they are trying to correct are not as severe, and the government has taken over part of their original role through various pieces of legislation. (p. 850)

One of the issues surrounding the perceived need for unions was whether or not unions were meeting the needs of the new workforce. Pestillo (1979) summarized the changing demographics, life styles, and backgrounds of the Baby Boomer worker. The context for unions changed as the demographics of the workforce changed with the shift in the age distribution of the workforce.

White (1975) explained the cautious union reaction to the HRM trend for the humanization of the work. For unions, the two tenets of humanization, (a) work dissatisfaction with limited job design and nature of work and (b) need for innovations in job and work, threatened the decentralization of work created to control the labor management relationship in the past. Some feared that humanization would break down the layers of support for individual workers by providing fewer barriers with management. The dichotomy was that humanization promoted more participation and democracy. At issue was the determination of worker needs and perceptions.

Gluskinos and Kestelman (1971) reported a study conducted to determine the perceptions of worker needs comparing union, nonunion, office, and supervisory workers responses in clothing manufacturing plant. Plant workers and office staff reported the importance of informal work relationships. Neither management nor union leaders perceived that workers would list relationships as important needs. Most respondents wanted job security. However, tenured union workers wanted more interesting work and managers perceived that wages were more important to the workers than job security. Management did not understand worker's actual and perceived needs.

Cangemi, Clark, and Harryman (1976) reported an impromptu study on the differences in personalities of pro-company and pro-union workers in a plant. Data analysis supported three separate needs. Pro-company workers were concentrated on achievement and endurance (two of the three needs). Pro-union workers were concerned with succorance or the need for support, familial-type understanding in the workplace. The authors stated that unions could gain entrance into companies by playing on the

discontent of workers who felt that the organization did not reward or support them. There were several problems with the study, including the absence of demographic information on the workers tested.

The fear of unionization created many types of responses among HR professionals. Kilgour (1978a; 1978b) provided suggestions for pre-union and union campaign movements for readers of *HR Magazine*. Kilgour (1978b) stated there were about 200 national and international unions and associations with a combined membership of over 20 million workers. Flager and Schroeder (1976) outlined the relationship between HR and unions as part of the *ASPA Handbook of Personnel and Industrial Relations*. Dyer and Schwab (1982) provided a review of the relationship during the 1970s and the impact on research agendas. Brett (1979) outlined three factors to deter unionization: (a) senior management support for workers with action, (b) line management informed by management and involved with workers, and (c) support staff support, especially personnel.

Kheel (1973) wrote that the question facing unions was not whether or not striking was outmoded but rather how could collective bargaining processes be improved. Pollard (1973) reported on mediation arbitration as a positive improvement to reduce collective bargaining tensions. The use of the mediator promoted more objective data for analysis and created more open discussions.

One of the continued debates throughout the century was the difference between union and nonunion wages. Ryscavage (1974) reported that the May 1973 CPS data indicated that union workers made 20 to 25% more than nonunion workers from similar

backgrounds in equal jobs. The higher end of the wage spectrum for union membership was particularly salient for blue-collar male workers. The wage increases guaranteed by contracts between 1968 and 1974 did not equal the increased in the CPI (Sheifer, 1979).

Secondary labor market pools caused tensions between unions and companies (Piore, 1973). Unions shifted the cost of stabilizing the private sector labor market to employers. As a means of survival, companies used subcontracting, temporary workers, and “in-house” union probationary period to control labor cost flows. Piore described union emphasis on wage guarantees and not employment security as dangerous practice. The process created seniority practices and increased the use of temporary and other secondary labor pools. He cautioned that women were more likely to work in secondary labor market positions and that their needs were different.

For women, union membership and the women’s movement of the 1960s and 1970s often were in opposition to one another. Women’s movement participates typically were from middle-income families with more choices economically and socially than most blue collar and lower wage households. Raphael (1974) explained this group of women was more interested in careers than in actual work issues. Blue-collar women were more likely to be from working-class backgrounds and interested in quality of work life rather than long term career issues. The wage differences between men and women in unions was less than in nonunion positions with similar tasks. However, Raphael cautioned that union industries were male-dominated and that the traditionally female industries had fewer unions and lower wages overall.

In many respects, unions were more paternalistic than participatory towards women. LeGrande (1978) reported women accounted for more than one half of union membership increases from 1956 to 1976. However, they did not hold leadership positions in unions. There were cultural issues for women in the workplace. In some the positions, older male workers did not accept the role of women in the workplace or in leadership positions.

Baron (1991) summarized the impact of women on labor history. Before the 1930s, women participated in grass roots organizing activities. As union practices formalized and became more linear, their support was not needed. The male dominated culture supported traditional households. As women entered the labor force, the role of women in the workplace received mixed receptions. The key was the supervisor or manager of the female employee, union or nonunion.

Most union contracts included an anti-discrimination clause and pregnancy safety was a concern in labor agreements (LeGrande, 1978). Dunlop (1978) described how President Kennedy enlisted organized labor's support to lobby for the employment rights or Title VII in the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Hammerman and Rogoff (1976) described the current labor stance as anomalous to the earlier support of the concepts. The problem was the interpretation of liability in employment discrimination. A company hiring minority workers could incur back pay losses but could avoid discrimination fines.

Bergquist (1974) stated women comprised one-fifth of union memberships. However, in five of the nine industries where women constitute 40% of the workforce, less than 25% of the females were union members. Large unions organized in late 1960s

with membership drives in communication, garment industry, retail (sales clerks), and education (teachers). Woman faced barriers in joining unions such as: (a) personal problems such home responsibilities and a lack of confidence, (b) job related discrimination against union members, and (c) unfamiliarity with the language and culture of unions (p. 5).

Union mergers accelerated in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Janus (1978) stated 21 mergers involving 42 unions and employee associations occurred between July 1971 and August 1978. The historic merger of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL-CIO) occurred in 1955. There were 36 mergers involving 77 unions between the AFL-CIO merger and 1971. Dewey (1971) stated that one-third of mergers occurred between 1968 and 1971.

Janus (1978) reported the 1974-1975 recession prompted mergers as unions tried to survive during harder economic times. Unions merged for pragmatic reasons such as consolidation of resources, stronger bargaining positions, and legislation lobbying presence with numbers. For smaller unions, successful mergers with a larger union reduced the risks created by external forces such as business cycles, technology, industrial sector declines, financial strains, unemployment, and regional shifts in industrial development (Dewey, 1971; Janus, 1978). The trend to consolidate unions reversed the early 1900's movement for specialization in unions by craft definition (Janus, pp.17-18). Dewey described the merger process as lengthy, delicate, and more difficult when strong presidents and leaders participated. As technology changed and businesses reorganized, the complexity of union issues required stronger office and

political support. For unions, the issue was how they changed in response to evolving worker and management relationships.

White (1975) summarized that many nonunion companies tried innovative work practices. Union companies trying a pilot humanization reported the cost of arbitration and contract changes probably would prohibit further development. Unions traditionally worked to improve the human conditions of work; yet unions were cautious of new HRM or management practices. Blum, Moore, and Fairey (1973) criticized unions for not understanding the influence of management and organizational advancements such as job enrichment and human resource development.

Despite these issues, unions continued to increase membership during the 1970s at a slower pace than previously. Chamot (1987) described the union activities of professional workers. Many people were shocked by the New York City doctor's strike in 1975 (p. 19). The professional worker believed by virtue of education and training that he or she should have increased autonomy and decision control over work. By working for larger companies, many professionals were creating a new class of employees. With exempt status, overtime was free for employers. As a new cost-cutting gimmick, service providers with deadlines and professionals such as engineers were forced to work more than 40 hours per week in order to keep their jobs. Chamot continued this was not the intention of the Fair Labor Standards Act (1938). The culture emerged as more service industry positions were created.

The influence of unions was changing during the 1970s. Public worker strikes, the impact of member of the Baby Boomer generation, and economic conditions influenced

union membership and perceptions during the 1970s. Perceptions about union members changed to a degree. Chamot (1987) reviewed the history of professional union support. Union members included John Dewey, Walter Cronkite, and Ed Sullivan. Albert Einstein was reported to have supported unions for intellectual workers.

Economic Context Between 1970 and 1979

The U. S. economy changed radically during the 1970s. There were political reasons, demographic changes, global market impacts, and unforeseeable systems interactions that reached every aspect of the economic strengths of America. Table A.2 in Appendix C was developed as a quick reference for economic, political, and cultural events.

General Economic Context Between 1970 and 1979

The Vietnam War increased defense manufacturing and created jobs for the early portion of the Baby Boom generation. Oliver (1971) explained as America reduced its involvement in Vietnam, defense spending dropped. The defense industry lost over one million jobs in the early 1970s, mostly in aircraft divisions. As the recession of 1970-1971 hit (NBER, 2001), there was more competition for jobs and increased demand for jobs with the veterans' return and the ongoing entrance of the Baby Boomers into the job market.

President Nixon ordered a 90-day freeze on wages and salaries to curb domestic inflation (Grun, 1991). In late 1971, Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) raised prices without consulting buyers (Daniels, 1999). In the same year, the government dropped the gold standard for the dollar and its value decreased in foreign

markets and increased trade. (Glennon, 2000; Norris & Bockelmann, 2000). Glennon described the OPEC as a ten year old group that became a major world power during the 1970s. In 1973, OPEC raised oil prices by 70% and later by 130% after a few months. The cartel group imposed an embargo against any nation allied with Israel (p. 508).

In 1972, the Dow Jones passed 1,000 for the first time in history (Grun, 1991) (Norris & Bockelmann, 2000). The U.S. dollar devalued against world currencies for the second time in two years (Daniels, 1999; Grun, 1991). In 1974, worldwide inflation slowed all economic growth. Grun (1991) wrote the Dow Jones stock exchange fell to 663, the lowest level since the 1970 recession (Grun). According to the Chase Manhattan Bank, the profits of the 30 biggest oil companies increased by 93% in the first six months of 1974.

Alterman (1973) wrote during the early 1970s, the government predicted an economic slowdown for 1978 through the 1980s due to the projected increases in the workforce from the Baby Boom generation. Terry (1982) stated that the unemployment rate in 1975 hit 20.2%, the highest since The Great Depression.

Douty (1977) explained how real wages had declined since World War II. After adjustments for inflation, the average rates of pay of American workers increased only half as fast since 1962 as in 1947 (p. 7). The difference was that the level of consumer prices or CPI started to edge up in the 1960s and continued through the 1970s. The unexpected recession of 1974-1975 caused in part by the energy crisis changed many projections.

The oil crisis altered individuals, families, companies, and communities. During this time of extreme inflation, consumer spending dropped and unemployment increased. The manufacturing industry never recovered from the earlier recession and continued to suffer dramatically throughout the 1970s and 1980s. In 1979, Congress approved a 1.5 billion dollar loan for Chrysler Automobiles to keep it afloat (Daniels, 1999). The loan was guaranteed with Chrysler stock and produced a profit for the government.

In 1979, OPEC ended a 18-month freeze on oil prices (Daniels, 1999; Glennon, 2000). Later prices increased 13.2 %, the largest increase since 14% in 1950 (Glennon). President Carter was extremely upset with OPEC's move that came without warning.

Norris and Blackman (2000) reported the events of October 1979 changed the real impact of the U.S. Federal Reserve. Recently appointed chair, Paul Volcker, announced that the Federal Reserve would "target the money supply numbers and raise or lower the interest rates to meet those targets" (p. 241). The move produced rising interest rates and increased inflation. Two recessions occurred in the 1980s, but the tactic worked and continued to work to offset inflation during the rest of the century.

The Consumer Price Index (CPI) Impacts on Context Between 1970 and 1979

During economic crisis, Americans noted changes in measurements such as the CPI to gauge their status in the larger context of the economy. Figure 3.2 graphically illustrated the CPI changes for the typical urban market basket and energy prices. As noted earlier, the impact of the oil price increases was significant and changed American expectations.

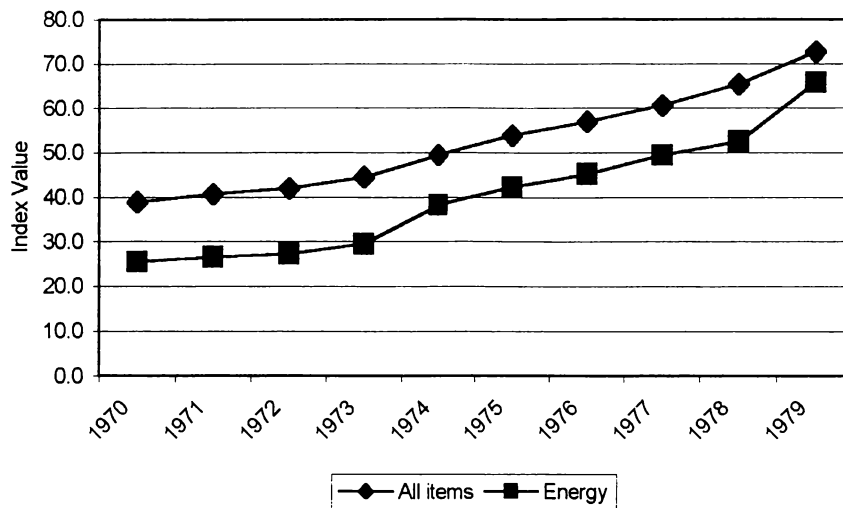


Figure 3.2. Consumer Price Index (CPI) between 1970 and 1979.

During the 1970-1979 time frame, CPI index value rose steadily as Figure 3.2. The increases for CPI and Energy were minimal until the 1973 oil embargo. Energy costs accelerated and spiked upwards during the last two years of the decade. The increase in the standard CPI was more gradual across the decade.

Work System Variables Influencing the 1970s

The meaning and promise of work changed during the 1970s. Perceptions about the structure, hours, type, and duration of work evolved in the context of the decade. The field of human resources management (HRM) evolved to lead corporations through the chaos of legislation, changing demographics, and economic slowdowns causing million of lost jobs. The literature on alternative and flexible work options illustrated the struggle of management, workers, researchers, and human resources to determine the working conditions to meet respective needs and goals.

Employment Trends Between 1970 and 1979

Employment trends changed during the 1970s. Figure 3.3 illustrated the percentages of the population employed, out of the labor force, and unemployed. During the 1970s, a number of people who had previously stayed out of the workforce entered the workforce such as mothers of small children. Legislation supported increased opportunities for many groups such as veterans and people with disabilities.

Unemployment rates fairly low in the early 1970s, spiked upwards in 1975. The rate leveled off during the rest of the decade. Employment decreased in correlation with the increase in unemployment. However, as the percentage of employed people continued to climb, the rates of the other two measures decreased as well. Some of trends reflected the changing age distributions. For example, the Baby Boomers as a cohort included

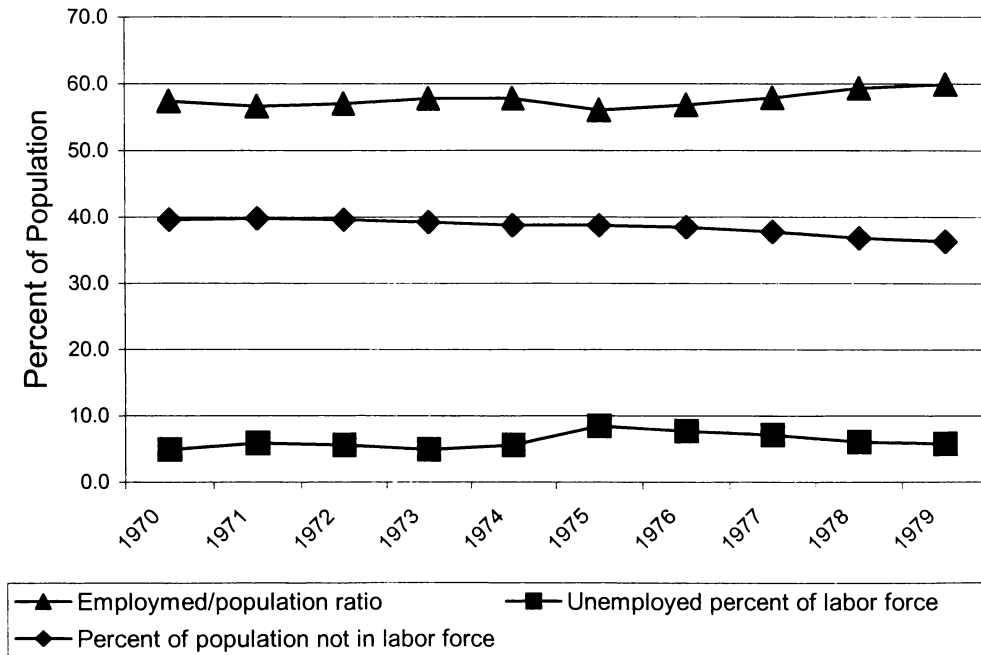


Figure 3.3. Employment data between 1970 and 1979.

more potential workers and influenced data and perceptions about employment opportunities.

Early (1974) described the levels of the impact of the oil crisis on employment. Direct effects impacts on commerce included lost revenue for gas station owners or suppliers for products made from oil. Effects such as lack of gas for work transportation, investment in other energy sources, and ramifications on the whole economy indicated the catastrophic impact of the oil crisis on America. More people lost jobs than in the 1960s but more of the 1970s unemployed were from more recently employed from diverse labor pools.

Human Resource Management (HRM) Literature Review Between 1970 and 1979

One of the challenges of this literature review was the quality of the articles and the content. There were extreme differences in the quality of journal content during the 1970s. During the early portion of the time frame, the language and content reflected the technology and dominance of the old guard or male dominated personnel.

One of the significant concerns for human resource management (HRM) or personnel during the 1970s was the impact of technology on traditional occupations. Robinson (1971) predicted that the clerical positions would continue to evolve and change around economic growth and technology. Strong demand for clerical support would be needed as computer operations evolved in organizations.

The secretarial role evolved as workforce demographics and cultural expectations changed for women and men in the workplace. Benet (1973) reported on the issues of the secretarial ghetto where organizational culture limited female worker options. There were

complex political and social ramifications that included sexual issues. Bloomfield (1973) described the changing role of secretaries and their opportunities for growth in organizations. As more women assimilated into the workplace, there were advancements for secretaries with cultural and operational knowledge of companies. Ramsey (1972) detailed how the role and image of the secretary in corporate American was changing. Because of these changes, supervisors and managers needed training on developing appropriate opportunities for secretaries.

Technology changed dramatically during the 1970s. Paretta (1978) described how vendors sold computers to offices based upon commission levels rather than end user needs. Computer acquisitions required needs based, educational assessments of market availability, trends, and office needs. Other technological advancements included the use of television video recorders for training priced from \$1,000 to \$10,000 (Brophy, 1971).

Unlike any other of the decades under investigation, two critical publications defined HRM in the 1970s. The *Work in America* (Task Force to the Secretary of H.E.W., 1973) report caused discussions and evaluations of the workforce. The book contained the phrase “quality of worklife” and questioned if workers needed more than wages and decent working conditions.

O’Toole (1973) wrote that the intention of *Work in America* was to find a way to improve jobs and refrain from pushing intelligent people into dull jobs. Kaplan (1973) stressed that many of the assumptions of the study reflected the perspectives of the researchers. From his experience, there were a number of people who treated work and life as separate areas. The job was just a way for securing money.

Wool (1973) evaluated the findings of *Work in America* against available data on job satisfaction and HRM concerns such as absenteeism and turnover. He questioned the social-political backgrounds of the participants and whether or not the study had missed some of the real issues for American workers.

The American Society of Personnel Staff (ASPS) and The U.S. Bureau of National Affairs collaborated on the other publication. They produced a series of eight editions on issues and trends in human resource management over the cross of the decade. The intent of the books was to provide standards and guidelines for professional human resource practices. Each volume was edited by a subject matter expert and contained reviewed chapters by experts on subtopics.

Volume One addressed staffing policies and strategies (Albright, 1974). Volume Two concentrated on public pay controls (Caples & Mitchell, 1975). Volume Three addressed unions and worker participation in PAIR management (Flager & Schroeder 1976). Volume Four was on PAIR research (Meyer, 1976). Volume Five looked at human resources planning and PAIR policy (Milkovich & Mahoney, 1976). Volume Six focused on quality of work life (Morton, 1977). Volume Seven looked at occupational safety and health (Namee, 1978). Volume eight was published in 1983 on HRM policy and program management (Carroll & Schuler, 1983). These volumes were designed as textbooks and ongoing support for professional HR practitioners.

During the 1970s, the HRM field publications changed and reflected then current HRM trends. As the 1980s started, *Personal Administrator* became *HR Magazine*. Other journals changed to reflect the emergence of human resource management as the focus

identity of the field. Each level of change encouraged more professionalism and attention to the real issues of HRM.

Narrative on Alternative Work Arrangements (AWA) Between 1970 and 1979

During the 1970s, the literature on alternative work arrangements (AWA) concentrated in four areas: (a) compressed workweek or four-day workweek, (b) part-time work, (c) job sharing, or (d) temporary positions. The terminology on alternative workweeks evolved during the decade. The List of Definitions in the Appendix B of this study illustrated work option terms changes.

The most popular alternative arrangement was the four-day, or compressed, workweek. There was a perception that this option would become the primary alternative work option. One of the research participants for the primary data collection felt that the Holiday Act of the early 1970s promoted the compressed workweek schedule. In time, manufacturing plants were the primary users of this option.

Davis, Blalock, and Weaver (1976) reported a study with more than 400 firms, representative of the general population. The findings suggested turnover and absenteeism were reduced with Four-day workweek. Hartman, and Weaver (1977) looked at factors for conversion to compressed workweek schedules from traditional workweek hours. The key was company specific flexibility based upon product and employees.

Hedges (1971) listed the advantages of Four-day workweeks as increased productivity and lowered unit costs. Disadvantages included health of workers and speculation that productivity gains could not be sustained over the long run. Older

workers had difficulty with the extended hours. Balch (1974) cautioned HRM to consider the age of workers on 10-hour shifts. Hedges (1975a) stated Four-day workweek schedules received national attention as a method to reduce commuter traffic, increase productivity, reduce turnover, and save energy.

Macut (1974) studied productivity with Four-day workweek schedules and found no impact. His work was preliminary and many considered the employee satisfaction as one of the key variables in making decisions to convert. Allen and Hawes (1979) surveyed married couples and found increased leisure as one of the main reasons for wanting the schedule. Maklan (1977) found initially when changing to four-day option that male blue collar workers initially participated in more activities but, in time, they started overtime on the fifth day in many cases. This was more likely to happen as economic conditions promoted layoffs. Workers were less likely to refuse overtime.

Job sharing was discussed as an option to create more work opportunities for women. Since the potential workforce was better educated, the option worked for those who did not want a fulltime job but wanted a more challenging position than standard part-time options (Frease & Zawacki, 1979; Levitan & Belous, 1977; Olmstead, 1977). Gannon (1974) profiled the temporary industry representing about 2% of the workforce in 1970.

Hedges (1977) defined the differences part-time workers according to the U.S. Department of Labor as people working less than 35 hours per week. Miller and Terborg (1979) looked at job attitudes of fulltime and part-time workers. They found part-time workers were influenced more by external events and fulltime workers were influenced

more by internal events. Leon and Bednarzik (1978) evaluated the reasons that one in five women worked part-time by choice. The typical part-timer by choice was married and had a median age of 40 as compared to 35 for fulltime workers. Deutermann (1978) studied voluntary part-timers and found they worked more likely in services, were very diverse demographically, and were predominately women.

Narrative on Flextime Literature Between 1970 and 1979

During the 1970s, many changes occurred in the field of human resources. Many of the journals changed titles to reflect the consolidated name of human resources management. In the following section, the maintenance of the language and context of the 1970s was goal to support the contextual premise of this study. Many of the articles featured lengthy discussions defining the structure of flextime or flexitime. This information was secondary to the project and generally was omitted from text.

As the promotion of the Four-day workweek waned in American workplaces, the literature reflected the promotion of flexible or variable daily work arrangements (Elbing, Gadon, & Gordon, 1974). Some of the themes used to support flexible work arrangements included increased employee individuality, quality of work life issues, work and family balance, work and leisure balance, and positive work improvements. Attempts were made to determine the first application. Hewlett Packard supported several studies highlighting their U.S. companies adoption of flextime. Most of the credible sources of the period endorsed Control Data Systems as the first U.S. flextime demonstration.

The first application of the flexible or guiding time approach was in 1967 at the German firm of Messerschmidt Bolkow Blohm (Bernard, 1979; Elbing et al., 1974). The HR director introduced the concept of “*fletizert*” or *guiding time*. By 1979, nearly 5,000 European companies and about 100 American companies used the option. Newstrom and Pierce (1979) credited Control Data Corporation with the earliest flextime arrangements in the United States.

Newstrom and Pierce (1979) developed a typology of alternative arrangements to illustrate the various options for HRM professionals. They compared different work options and reported the historical background of various models. The flexible hour system was devised in Germany during the mid-1960s to increase employment of mothers and reduce the labor shortages. The flextime system to relieve congestion at Messerschmidt-Boklow-Blohm was a natural expansion of the philosophy of flexibility.

Evans (1975) reported a longitudinal study comparing London clerical workers on flexible work arrangements with another group on standard hours. The flexible participants included 150 clerical workers. The experimental group reported increased job satisfaction, overall quality of work, and leisure activities. The control group did not have any improvements. Supervisors did not support the use of flextime. Partridge (1973) summarized the supervisor and management reactions to Evan’s study. Supervisors as workers liked the system. However, even with positive impacts on issues such as tardiness, supervisors did not like the loss of control. Supervisors felt there were problems with discipline.

Early reports of American flextime options included Hecon Corporation of Eatontown New Jersey in 1969 ("Flexible working hours," 1970), Mutual of New York Insurance (Fields, 1974), John Hancock Mutual Life-Insurance ("Motivating with flextime," 1974), and Control Data Corporation in 1972 (Gomez-Meija, Hopp, & Sommerstad, 1978; Hopp & Sommerstad, 1977; Newstrom & Pierce, 1979). The report on Hecon ("Flexible working hours," 1970) was the only mention of this demonstration found in the literature analysis.

Flextime arrangements reportedly occurred at Hewlett Packard (HP) firms in several locations (Bernard, 1979; "Flexible working hours," 1979). Bernard reported on a study at HP to investigate the effectiveness of the option. There were positive effects for tardiness, morale, and traffic congestion.

Zawacki and Johnson (1976) reported on the emergence of flextime within the Hewlett Packard American operations. The first application was in June 1972 and management and employees reported positive impacts. A company wide survey of flextime operations was conducted in 1974 (p. 16). The survey was repeated in 1975 at the Colorado Springs site. Results indicated a 99% approval rate for flextime and subsequent reduced absenteeism and improved safety.

Elbing, Gadon, and Gordon (1974) compared the adoption of alternative work practices in North America and in Europe. They contended the Four-day workweek (or compressed week) was popular in the U.S. earlier but flextime hours were increasingly more popular. They reported the increased number of time keeping clock orders as a sign of the popularity of flextime. Issues such as the types of work applications, the feelings of

management, and startup difficulties were discussed. Each company situation was unique. However the end result of employee responsibility was universal. They contended that more companies would apply flexible systems and that in turn, more opportunities for employees would be available in leisure hours.

Morgan (1977) compared American and European companies in their implementation of alternative work schedules, especially flextime.

Societal pressures for more flexibility are increasing due to the variety of lifestyles, changing nature of the work force, government concern with traffic congestion and clean air, a projected manpower shortage, and the basic competitive pressures of productivity. (p. 82)

Future staffing needs concerned Morgan. The next group he promoted to enter the workforce in mass were women at home with families.

During the 1970s, several authors promoted the concept of flextime to key American audiences. Within this framework, company decision makers, HRM, supervision, and the general public were exposed to the concepts, benefits, and applications of flextime. Articles in journals and magazines read by diverse audiences were particularly important avenues for the promotion.

In 1976, *Psychology Today* published a thought-provoking piece by Stein, Cohen, and Gadon (1976) on the merits, development, and applications of flextime. They featured First National Bank of Boston's program and reported increased productivity with reduced absenteeism and overtime. They felt flextime was good for clerical workers. "Flextime was spreading faster than any other management innovation in history" (p. 40). Flextime provided important quality of work life supports for general workers. As a result, clerical and blue-collar workers were able to enjoy some of the time freedoms

limited to managers and professional workers in traditional environments. The authors speculated that a factor contributing to the rapid application of flextime was the marketing work of Willi Haller. Haller was the German entrepreneur responsible for developing and manufacturing the time keeping devices used in many of the flextime applications.

The time clock was the symbolic bridge to monitor and control workers through wages. Professional workers who had less restrictive arrangements previously did not like the time keeping devices. During the 1970s, advertisements for record keeping pieces appeared throughout the literature. A few of the articles included photographs of workers using time keeping devices.

Stein, Cohen, and Gadon (1976) suggested flextime could improve the well-publicized productivity problems in New York City government. They stated that a researcher assessing government flextime perceived it as a perk for workers in mundane but necessary positions. They suggested that New York City apply flextime options to address personnel issues.

As for the real impact of flextime, Stein, Cohen, and Gadon (1976) questioned whether or not workers gained any real control over their lives. However, they felt that it did provide meaningful or symbolic control for workers over “one of the company’s most valuable resources—worker time and skills” (p. 44). In summary, they felt flextime was a major work intervention and unlike other alternative work arrangements, that the effects of flextime were felt immediately.

One of the early advocates of flextime was Janice Hedges, a labor economist with the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). Hedges reported on new work time trends in the United States and Europe. Her early 1970s evaluations of the United States trends were limited to four-day workweeks. In her estimation, flexible arrangements were a European trend. In 1973, Hedges attended the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) conference ("Blessing or headache?," 1974). She later promoted U.S. flextime applications.

Allenspatch (1972) was one of the speakers at this conference. He illustrated the impact of flexibility on the European workday and credited the approach with improving the quality of life. Rehn (1973) summarized 10 reports given at the conference and provided a philosophical context to flexibility in work and life.

The key to promotion of flextime was exposure to decision makers. Hedges (1974) promoted flextime in a *Supervisory Management article* and applied a simple question and answer format. Hedges used management language to communicate the basic definitions and parameters, legal issues, benefits for employees and managers, union perceptions, and general observations on how the work culture could be enhanced by flextime for both blue and white collar workers. She stressed that flextime programs were unique in each situation.

Hedges (1977) compiled a special report on flexible arrangements for *Monthly Labor Review*. She reported there were a number of variations in types of arrangements, flexible procedures, and data collected by organizations and researchers. European models reported increased productivity with flexibility, but Hedges cautioned that they

had less restrictive overtime pay provisions than U.S. firms. The increased building usage due to extended work hours was offset by reduced overtime and better utilization of resources. Hedges questioned whether or not flexible scheduling provided more moonlighting opportunities and therefore impacted the labor supply. Other researchers reported that new time allocations would support family and leisure time. In an earlier article, Hedges (1975b) reported on flexible scheduling as a means to reduce rush hour problems for communities and cities

Congress passed the Federal Employees Flextime and Compressed Work Schedule Act (1978) authorizing federal agencies to experiment with flexible and compressed work schedules over a three- year period. The experiment was announced in *Employee Benefit Plan Review* to the general personnel public ("Federal agencies," 1978). Two different types of time were described under flextime including core hours and the flexible periods preceding and following the core time. Bunger (1979) reported that a recent survey of civil service employees and managers supported flextime. Both managers and employees reported increased productivity and job attitude. The ability to control work hours positively influenced attitude.

Public exposure to the merits of flextime continued in key publications. Louviere (1976) reported on the national trend of flextime among American companies in *Nations' Business*. He reported application was universal across industries and featured a successful pilot at the Federal Social Security Administration. Flexibility was a credible method to reduce lost revenue from employee downtime. Instead of taking a day off for the dentist, employees are allowed the flexibility to compensate for time lost over the

course of a day or week. Companies used either the honor system or time clocks to track employee hours at work. Many companies felt that the system promoted an improved, more mature relationship with employees.

Zauner (1976) described the general philosophies of flextime in a 1976 article for *Supervision*. Although the information included only general, nonspecific descriptions of flextime, there were some significant points made: (a) time keeping should be cumulative and not tied to set segments, (b) flextime appealed to the human spirit limited in the traditional “8-5” genre, and (c) employees work together to provide appropriate coverage. Bernard (1979) stated that flextime was reported to affect productivity in one or more of three directions: improvement of morale, reduction in stress, or reduction of turnover and or absenteeism.

Hammer and Schmidt (1974) listed the negatives to flextime in *Problems in Personnel: Readings for the Seventies*. They presented arguments that flextime was not a solution but a reactive program ignoring deeper issues. High turnover and scheduling problems were the result of inadequate feedback systems. In contrast, they reported positive findings from several studies including provisions for the worker and family interactions.

Kanter (1978) provided a historic context for flextime and 20th century working conditions. Women were working more and harder with many holding second jobs. The workforce was younger and better educated than in any point in history. Impacts such as OSHA (1970) and different union models promoting professional unions were discussed. She compared publications from Institute for Social Research with *Work in America*

(1973) findings. Kanter wrote that the issue was not the quality of work life but the expectations of workers. From Institute for Social Research findings, she proposed that as women worked more hours then there were more opportunities for work and family conflicts. She argued that concepts of work had to change for future balance.

Studies on Flextime

Foegen (1977) looked at flextime as one of the employee friendly options that HRM could promote. Gordon and Elbing (1971) reported on flextime practices in Europe and encouraged North American applications. Glueck (1979) reported that less research was available on flexible arrangements as a whole from the U.S. since fewer people used the option and available research was not empirical as a rule. He reported that the current trend was away from compressed workweek and toward flexibility.

Cooperman (1979) reported on a study conducted in spring 1979 that was mailed to 5500 private U.S. firms employing 20 or more workers. A response rate of 30% was reported or 1,636 firms. A randomly selected telephone survey was conducted with larger firms employing 250 or more employees. The mail survey questioned the company's position on alternative work arrangements by indicating different degrees of usage. Of the respondents, 14% used flextime and an additional 3% started the option. An additional 17% indicated that they were considering flextime and 66% indicated that their respective companies were not considering flextime. Many believed that larger firms adopted more flextime arrangements. However, the telephone survey results did not support this hypothesis. Larger and smaller firms adopted flextime at the same pace. The

highest percentage of adoption was found in firm sizes of 50 to 99 employees and 100 to 249 employees.

A medium sized airline was the setting for a study within an accounting department (Holley, Armenakis, & Feild, 1976). Implementation factors included (a) reduce employee commute time, (b) provide more employee personal time, and (c) take advantage of daylight savings time. Post-implementation data were collected for 69 employees over six-month and one-year intervals. The employees preferred flextime and reported better work time allocations.

Golembiewski's (1977; 1974; 1978; 1975) research was an important part of the literature during the 1970s and 1980s. He promoted solid research and attempted to encourage more stringent designs for studies. Golembiewski's work, extensively quoted, provided a baseline for the situation in research and application of flextime.

Golembiewski, Hilles, and Kagno (1974) reported positive findings for employees and employers from a longitudinal study on the application of flextime. Their study used control groups. The flextime participant responses supported the arrangement. Major findings included (a) a consistent pattern of arrival within the range of set hours, (b) decreased absenteeism, (c) no increase in support services costs, and (d) no increase in overtime charges. However, they cautioned that some of the results could have been influenced by parallel organizational development interventions.

Golembiewski, Yeager, and Hilles (1975) later applied factor analysis to the same employee data on individual questionnaire items to discern differences between the control and experimental groups were statistically significant. There were four different

test periods, a pretest, a test at installation, a short post-test, and a long (375 day) post test. Fifty sets of responses were analyzed comprised of two experimental and one control equally sized work groups in daily proximity to one another. The questionnaire assessed the degree of flextime advantages and disadvantages. The control group data sets showed little variance and the answers across the period were not statistically significant on any of the 21 possible differences. The experimental groups data answers over the period were statistically significant on five of the six measures where differences were visually apparent. Although the authors stated that the paper was limited to the larger employee data sets, they included tables and discussions on the smaller manager data sets.

Golembiewski and Proehl (1978) surveyed the empirical literature on flexible working hours. Although there were limited studies available, they found that both behavioral and attitudinal data encouraged more flexible applications and research. Some of the studies cited were from Canadian or European locations. Golembiewski and Hilles (1977) reported on multiple perceptions (workers and supervisors) on flexible work implementations at a drug company. They encouraged the use of flextime contending that major and favorable shifts occurred among both employees and managers.

Harvey and Luthens (1979) questioned that reported flextime applications were sometimes staggered work hours and that the impact of staggered hours was different from flextime. They used a job description index (JDI), a brief questionnaire on perceived performance, and personnel records on absenteeism and turnover. An evaluation of personnel data occurred at for seven months prior and during the four

months of the study. Participants completed the JDI instrument and questionnaire before and after the intervention. The flextime results indicated a reduction in absenteeism and turnover, increased satisfaction, and performance. The control group experienced increased satisfaction with supervisor, decreased job satisfaction, and no changes in numbers. The staggered group with moderate control experienced no increases or decreases in any of the measurements. They recommended that no control (traditional hours allocated) for workers was better than some control (limited flextime) for workers.

The role of the supervisor in the success of flextime programs received attention in the literature. Hilgert and Hundley (1975) reported that although their studies of two St. Louis firms revealed positive employee effects, they also found problems with supervisors. The supervisors at an insurance company and a bank felt that flexible arrangements caused a loss of control, lost productivity due to absence of supervision, stress for supervisors in scheduling, and potential negative impact on employees who selected more flexible work options.

Schein, Maurer, and Novak (1977) evaluated a flextime program for clerical workers using five production groups for a four-month feasibility study. They compared productivity measures with the previous year numbers and found that one group increased numbers. Another group's positive findings may have been consequential to other organizational changes. Three groups had numbers that neither supported nor denied the impact of flextime on production.

Hartley (1976) summarized a report by the Business and Professional Women's Foundation (Hartley, 1975) on the positive impacts of flexible work including improved

commuting and increased morale. The foundation sampled 500 personnel administrators and 366 executives of companies using flexible work hours from both public and private ranks.

Olson and Brief (1978) compared four-day workweeks and flextime. The four-day workweek was an American invention. He outlined current concerns questioning the impact of flextime on federal and state wage and hour laws. He presented a chart of selected readings for practitioners and managers on alternative work arrangements.

Owen (1977) presented his analysis on problems and solutions of flextime. Most of the installations of flextime systems had occurred since 1973. Werther (1973) wrote an informative piece on the basic merits and problems associated with flexible hours.

McCarthy (1979) stated that many organizations investigating alternative work arrangements considered flextime as the less controversial and most accepted change in traditional work hours. Since the early 1970s, flextime was accepted due to published reports on increased employee morale and job satisfaction, as a means to reduce turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness, and as a recruitment tool.

McCarthy (1979) expanded the philosophy of flextime hours to address macrosystem concerns. Improved use of public transportation, relieve of traffic congestion, and a means to conserve energy were all important benefits of flextime. Boston and San Francisco developed teams to help companies implement flextime arrangements. In addition, McCarthy promoted flextime as a means to transition workers into retirement. Due to the economic conditions, many companies were reporting delayed

retirement of workers. She suggested future baby boomers could use flextime as a gradual retirement process.

Flextime options were successful at First National Bank of Boston (Bernard, 1979; Louviere, 1976; "People at work," 1977), State Street in Boston (Magoon & Schnicker, 1976), Berol Corporation (Morgan, 1977), and U.S. Geological Survey group (Mueller & Cole, 1977). Miller (1979) reported that Atlantic Richfield Company (ARCO) started flextime at one site in January 1976. Management were very satisfied with the results after ten weeks and promoted it within the organization. Leaders at ARCO believed that flextime helped to alleviate some of the issues with computer usage. Since this period was prior to the age of the personal computer, strategies to distribute demand were important.

Early Flextime Books

Swart (1978) reported that firms experienced problems with the mechanics of flextime under the current laws on overtime pay such as the Walsh-Healy Act, the Contract Work Hours and Safety Act, and the Fair Labor Standards Act. The book also introduced flextime as a work family support. Buam and Young (1974) wrote one of the early guides to flexible arrangements for organizations.

Early books on flexible options in Europe included Bolton (1971) and Wade (1974). Cohen and Gadon (1978) illustrated how flextime could address the emerging concerns over family and work balance. Fleuter (1975) presented options for workweek scheduling including four-day work week and flextime. They provided a glossary of flextime terms and discussed other alternative work arrangements.

During the 1980s and 1990s, researchers writing about flextime cited Owen's work (1979). He promoted the use of alternative arrangements and flextime as an economic decision. Strauss (1974) discussed flextime, future work trends, and union membership declines. Sawhill (1974) addressed the issues of women in employment for the project. She evaluated women and manufacturing, women and work participation, balance of work and family, flextime, demographics, and future trends.

Reports on Flextime

Davis and Trist (1974), Rainwater (1974), and Furstenburg (1974) wrote resource papers for the *Work in America* (1973) report for the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare on the merits of flextime and the quality of work life. They looked at demographics, women in the workforce, future trends, and the socio-technical systems impact on work.

The Upjohn Institute for Employment Research published their report supporting flextime and changing work schedules to positively impact quality of life issues (Glickman & Brown, 1974). The Communication Workers of America published a report on flextime, union involvement, and quality of work life for the United States trade seminar on work patterns in Europe (Miller, 1978).

Nollen (1979) summarized the new work patterns including flextime for a report on new work patterns for *Work in America Institute* productivity studies. Rosenberg, Long, and Post (1978) edited the *Alternative Work Schedule First Edition* published by the National Council for Alternative Work Patterns. This group was researched extensively and there was little information found beyond this early work.

The series of *ASPS Handbooks of Personnel and Industrial Relations* included a chapter on quality of work life that included flextime options. Morton (1977) outlined the principles of alternative work arrangements and the application of flextime as a trend for human resource professionals. Miller (1979) reported on the 1977 American Management Association (AMA) Report on flextime citing many positive results. The results included reduced absenteeism and tardiness, reduced turnover, and increased productivity.

Nelson Rockefeller chaired the Committee on Alternative Work Patterns. The report assessed the status of flexible and other alternative work arrangements and their impact on the quality of work life (Committee on Alternative Work Patterns, 1976). In 1979, President Carter signed legislation to provide a three-year program for federal agencies to try out alternative workday and workweek schedules ("Flexitime update," 1979).

Unions and Flexitime

Unions objected to the debit and credit options of the flexible work schedules ("Flexitime update," 1979). There were reports that several communications companies had negotiated for flextime arrangements in their new contracts. Unions originally opposed to flextime were beginning to reconsider with a positive but cautious approach. McCarthy (1979) reported on union activities. In 1977, the AFL-CIO adopted a national policy for Bell Systems to promote flextime where it was feasible and desirable. The American Federation of Government Employees Local 916 picketed to keep a flexible system.

Owen (1977) reported that unions were more skeptical of flextime. The concept was a novel approach to work hours and supported basic union distrust of company programs. Research from Europe suggested that union involvement in the planning stages was important. Union concerns about flexibility included the potential for increased work hours, reduction of wages for hourly output, and the possibility that management could increase profits without rewarding the worker for increased productivity.

Bernstein (1977) presented a paper on the history of work and time. His argument was that time oriented work had to be redefined under options such as flexible work hours to accommodate the combination of healthy life and work. The concept of flexible life arrangements was promoted during the 1970s ("Flexible working time," 1973). Teriet (1977) questioned the possible use of flex-year schedules. He encouraged the philosophy of work periods throughout life to accommodate life stage needs and responsibilities. Most of the discussions of life long flexibility were focused in Europe.

***Flextime Title Counts From Human Resource Management
(HRM) Journals Between 1970 and 1979***

Counts of flextime titles included articles on studies and information on flextime. Frequency counts on the incidents of flexible or flextime in the title or topic from HRM journals were conducted. The frequency count illustrated the potential exposure of readers to flextime issues as illustrated in Table 3.3.

Flextime Title Counts From Management and Business Journals Between 1970 and 1979

The frequency of the number of flextime titles increased over the decade. The influence of the subject matter was felt in other professional journals potentially read by supervisors, HR, or management as illustrated in Table 3.4.

Family Systems Variables Influencing the 1970s

The image and role of the family changed during the 1970s. The interaction of work and family galvanized with the rise in the number of younger children with working mothers. The spillover from work to family changed lives and more meals were prepared

Table 3.3

1970s Flextime Title Counts From Human Resource Management (HRM) Journals

Journal	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79
<i>HR Focus</i>	<i>Personnel</i>									
<i>HR Magazine</i>	<i>Personnel Administrator</i>									
<i>Human Relations</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Human Resource Management</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
<i>Journal of Human Resources</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Personnel</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	2
<i>Personnel Administrator</i>	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	2	4
<i>Personnel Journal</i>	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0
<i>Personnel Psychology</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management</i>	Not Published									
<i>Workforce</i>	<i>Personnel Journal</i>									
1970s Total	1	0	0	1	3	1	2	3	3	6

Table 3.4

1970s Flextime Counts From Management and Business Journals

Journal	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79
<i>Academy of Management Journal</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
<i>Monthly Labor Review</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	6	0	0
<i>Supervisory Management</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Other Titles</i>	0	1	0	3	3	1	3	2	2	3
1970s Total	0	1	0	3	4	3	5	8	3	3

outside of the home. The economic ramifications of work and family supported the growing services industries. For example, more people were eating away from home due to the increase in the number of working mothers.

In 1977, the Quality of Employment survey was conducted with 1,515 workers from a nationally representative sample (Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980; Staines & O'Connor, 1980). One-third of those surveyed responded that work and family interfaced significantly. Workers in managerial or administrative positions were more likely to report excessive hours impacts on family than nonexempt or line employees. As more women entered the labor market, the desire to work in management service positions influenced their personal and family lives. The most significant conflicts occurred in mothers with children under the age of six. As more women developed and maintained careers, the family and work interface stress levels accelerated.

Household Income Shifts Between 1970 and 1979

Although the time requirements of dual career, both husband and wife employed, was significant, the positive impact of the added income was evident. Many women felt the pressure to help offset the impact of inflation on family purchasing power. Still, there were significant numbers of married men who moonlighted to supplement the family income. During this period, the number of people moonlighting increased.

The household income data included two types of measures. The constant dollars plots illustrated the adjusted income in 1998 constant dollars. The current dollars plot illustrated the wage amount known to the worker in his or her context. These two types of plots illustrate the impact of inflation on income. When inflation was lower in the earlier

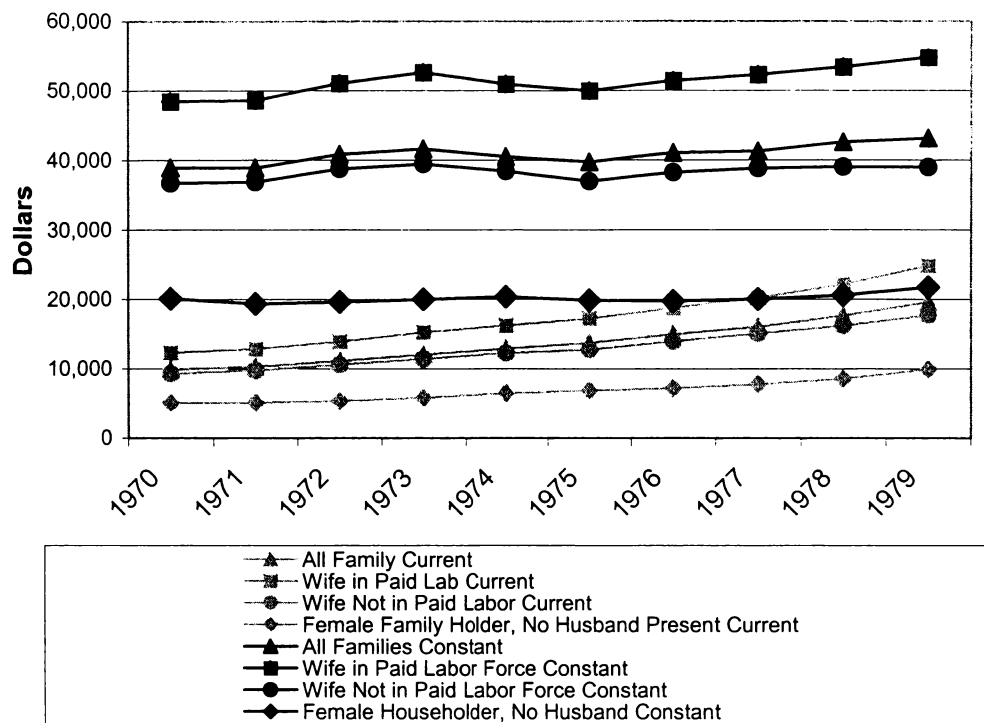


Figure 3.4. Household income shifts between 1970 and 1979.

1970s, consumers purchased items more cheaply. By adjusting the plot to constant dollars adjusted to dollars, the constant plot adjusted the median income to higher levels. The current plot projected the context for people over time. As a whole, people identify with salary and wage values based upon their respective experiences.

Household income plots for all family, wife not in the paid labor force, wife in the paid labor force, and female head of household with not husband present illustrated the income differences in Figure 3.4. The latter plot reflected the economic status of the number of women supporting children without a male present in the home. The upward movement of the current dollars plot illustrated the implied economic status for families reflecting the wage increases of the 1970s. The constant dollars plot is the more accurate

assessment of buying power and it illustrated the wage and salary freezes of Nixon's economic plans in the early 1970s.

During the 1970s, the rising number of multi-earner families was one of the most important socioeconomic developments of the decade. According to Johnson (1980), a record three out of every five married couples reported having at least two family member who were income earners in 1977. The labor force participation rate of married women increased to 49.4% by March 1979 and this figure represented an increase of nearly 9% since 1970. In 1978, working women contributed about 26% of family income. Married couples with children under 18 years of age were more likely to have two earners or more than households with no children, 63% compared with 51% in 1979.

Johnson (1980) stated that the labor force commitment of all mothers was a shift in families during the 1970s. By March 1979, 16.6 million or 54% of women with children under the age of 18 were working or looking for employment as compared with 12 million or 43% in 1970 and 8 million or 30 % in 1960. The sharp increase in the number of women heading households in the labor force was disturbing for some family advocates. The incidence of marital breakups (divorce or separation) increased during the 1970s and by the end of the decade, one of seven families was maintained primarily by the female head of household. The average income in 1978 of single-parent families with working mothers at \$8,900 was only 40% of that of two-parent families with working mothers and 54% that of one-parent families maintained by working fathers.

Household Composition Shifts Between 1970 and 1979

During the 1970s, the average family size decreased from 3.14 members in 1970 to 2.78 members in 1979. The percentage of traditional households, *married couple with family*, declined between 1970 and 1979 from 70.5% to 61.6%. Trends such as an increased percentage of *unmarried households* and delayed marriage marked the Baby Boomer generation family demographics. In addition, the divorce rate rose to a 20th century high in 1979 (Wetzel, 1990). There were slight and gradual increases in the number of *households without families* between 1970 and 1979 headed by both males (6.4% to 10.4%) and females (12.4% to 15.2%). Male *head of household* with family remained low and constant with a .2% increase. Female *head of household* with family increased 1.9% over the decade.

Marital Status Shifts Between 1970 and 1979

Annual Census Bureau percentage distributions for 1970 and 1980 on marital status were important trend indicators reflecting other demographic shifts. The same trend directions evidenced in the Household Composition shifts in the 1970s were illustrated by the changes in the marital status for the U.S. population. During the 1970s, the percentage of the adult *married* population for both males and females married dropped about five percent. The percentage of the population both male and female who were *divorced* increased gradually across the 1970s. The percentage of the male population *divorced* increased from 2.8% to 4.0 % and the female *divorced* rate increased from 4.0% to 7.2% of the population. Another more pronounced increase in the 1970s was the percentages of both males and females who had *never been married*. The

percentage of females *never married* increased from 20.6% to 23% and the percentage of males *never married* increased from 26.4% to 30% of the population.

Narrative on Work and Family Literature Between 1970 and 1979

Rapoport, Rapoport, and Willmott (1971) reported on the XIth Seminar of the International Seminars on Family Research that took place September 1970 at the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations. The Committee on Family Research of the International Sociological Association organized the seminars on two to three year intervals. In this report, the authors summarized a joint statement made by Rapoport and Rapoport during the conference.

The inter-relationship between family and work life has seldom been studied explicitly, for specialists in family sociology, kinship, industrial sociology, and occupational sociology have tended to treat each of those areas as a relatively closed subsystem. It is as though family structure, organization, and functioning depended entirely on factors associated with the family and the individual personalities within it, while organization and functioning of work groups could be explained exclusively in terms of the work situation. (p. 451)

Other researchers such as Kanter (1977) addressed the complexities of family work interface. Her work impacted a number of corporations, researchers, and family practitioners on the interrelationships between the changing structures of family and work. She identified significant issues including management roles and corporate culture. Staines, Pleck, Shepard, and O'Conner (1978) reported the differences in work and family boundaries between men and women. Culturally, women disrupted work to attend to family demands. For men work came first and they were not challenged about disrupting family.

As more women entered the workforce, married, had children, and returned to work, the issues of America's children received attention in research and media. Grossman (1977) reported that since 1970 the number of young children declined but the number of young children with working mothers increased. Bane, Lein, O'Donnell, Stueve, and Wells (1979) evaluated childcare and employment for *Monthly Labor Review*'s special topic segment on women. Although many assumed the role of daycare was pivotal for working mothers, they found greater support from extended family and community specific to individual needs. By 1977, almost half of the nation's children under age 18 had a working mother (Grossman, 1977). At issue was the cost and availability of quality care for children of working mothers.

Work and family relations were important components of quality of work life principles promoted with *Work in America* (Report of a Special Task Force to the Secretary of H. E.W., 1973). Furstenburg (1974) wrote one of the resource papers for *Work in America* and detailed the relationships between work, workers, and families. Work and family interface influenced systems beyond the individual milieu.

The workplace culture and time expectations limited choices for women. Schonberger (1971) proposed that inflexible workplaces and cultures kept women unliberated. Despite the efforts to bring more highly educated women into the workforce, most of the entrants were high school graduates with growing children. Schonberger (1975) found when corporations provided supports for professionals and families, the company developed and retained a capable workforce.

The presence of women at various levels in the workforce was at issue. Waldman (1970) explained that the promotion of women into the labor during the 1960s was in response to a labor shortage projection. Demand for technology and service type workers changes the dynamics of the workplace. The success of work for married women depended on their relationships and duties at home (Hedges & Barnett, 1972) as well as on their husband's perceptions about their work (Bailyn, 1970). Allen and Keaveny (1979) addressed the impact of multiple responsibilities on women's health.

Individual Systems Influencing the 1970s

People associate with their personal expectations for life processes. The perception that medical science and better nutrition could alter the expected life span for an individual or group related to the perceptions of work, family, and retirement issues. Legislation such as ERISA created vested funds for retirement planning. The impact of education was equally related to the work and family context. As the overall educational levels increased, more opportunities for individuals occurred. The literature on quality of work life and management practices such as Total Quality Management (TQM) included references to the better-educated workforce of the 1970s.

Educational Level Shifts Between 1970 and 1979

The percentage of the population with fewer than five years of elementary school declined steadily in the 1970s as illustrated in Figure 3.5. Older Americans, who did not have educational opportunities in youth, was a smaller percentage of the population. College educational opportunities increased for both males and females with the demand

for higher education from employers, the number of Baby Boomers, and the push of parents from The Great Depression and World War II.

Life Expectancy Shifts Between 1970 and 1979

The plots for life expectancy found in Figure 3.6 indicated the impact of the quality of living for the older Americans as a whole. The plots for both male and female and divided increased about two years each over the 1970s.

Consumer Confidence Survey Between 1970 and 1979

The Consumer Confidence Survey plot for 1970-79 is shown in Figure 3.7. The declines in 1971, 1973, 1975, and 1979 reflected changing economic conditions. The sharp decrease between June and October 1974 reflected the nation's confidence with Nixon's resignation in August 1974 and the fall of the Stock Market in October. The other noticeable changes mirrored inflation concerns from the continued oil crisis.

Data Collected From Cohort One

The participants representing the median age in 1975 included workers from a wide range but fairly representative of the different types of workers discussed in the literature on employment, family, and HR. Table 3.5 illustrated that all of the participants had children. The sample included two blue-collar male workers with one working a second part-time job and whose wife worked, One nonprofit male worker who was recently divorced in 1975, and one strongly traditional male in professional capacity with a stay-at-home wife. The female participants represented a wide range of situations. There was one older worker with teenage children whose husband had conflicts with her career. Two women worked in banking, one assistant manager and one part-time teller.

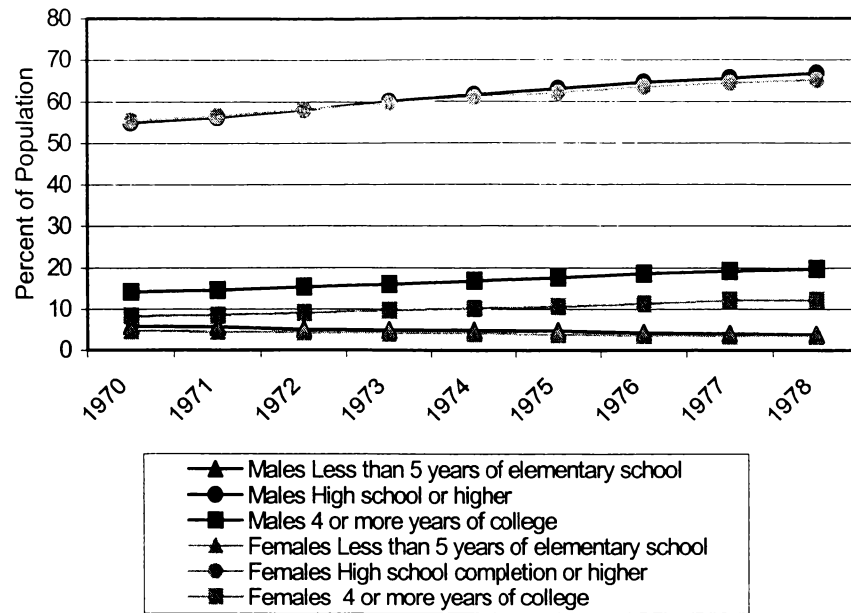


Figure 3.5. Educational levels between 1970 and 1979.

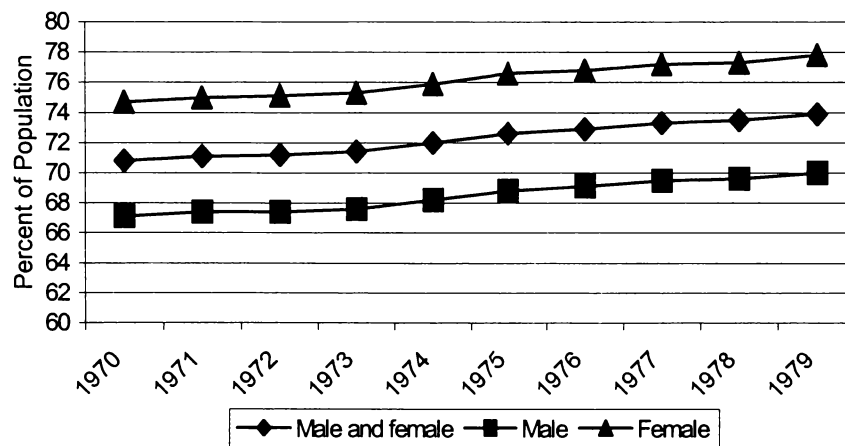


Figure 3.6. Life expectancy rates between 1970 and 1979.

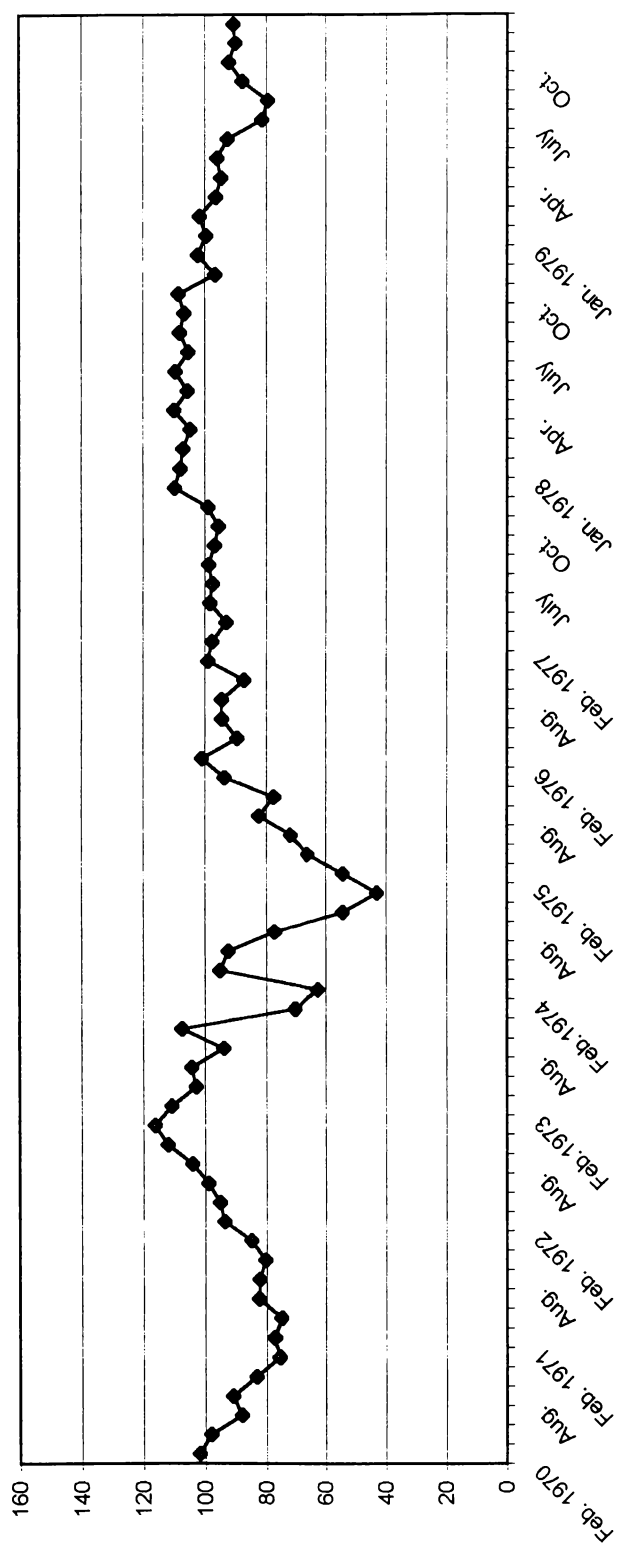


Figure 3.7. Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) between 1970 and 1979.

Table 3.5

Cohort One Demographics

P.N.	State	2001 Age	1975 Age	Sex	Educ 1975	Later Educ	Children 1975	Marital Status 1975	Occupation 1975	Occupation 1985	Occupation 1995
1	PA	59	33	M	HS	None	2	M	2 Jobs - Pressman (Manuf) and PT Bus Driver		
2	VA	59	33	F	College	Graduate School	2	M	At Home with Small Children	Clerical (Govern)	HR Director
3	VA	59	33	M	HS	None	2	M	Supervisor Highway State	Hwy (Retired), went to Manufacturing	Retired - Disability
4	TN	59	33	F	HS+	Training	2	M	Real Estate Broker, Family Business		
5	TN	64	38	F	HS+	Training	2	M	Apartment Manager	President of Management Company	
6	MI	64	38	F	College		0	M	Banking - Teller	Bookkeeper	PT Bookkeeper
7	TN	60	34	M	College		2	M	Engineer Early Retirement 1996		
8	TN	59	33	F	College		3	M	Teacher	Bookkeeping Mary Kay Sales	Adm. Asst. Bank
9	TN	61	35	F	College		3	Widow	Assistant to Bank Manager	Banking Sales	Supervisor of Collections
10	AL	60	34	F	College	Graduate School	2	M	Child Care Director	Education Director Local School	Professor
11	TN	59	33	M	College	Graduate School	1	M	TN Rehab		Director

Note: P.N. Participant Number

Two stay-at-home moms with young children participated. Commonly, working women departed the workforce while children were young and returned when they entered school. One returned part-time to work with the government and the other had to wait until her infant was old enough to place in daycare. One of the women worked in the family real estate business and had extended family support to balance children and work

The questionnaire analysis for Cohort One indicated differences by gender for flexible arrangements and work family conflict. Differences noted by occupation were influenced by the responses of nonworking mothers. However, by considering differences with occupational changes, most of the women commented that as their children grew up or they stayed in their jobs, their occupational status improved. None of the men significantly changed his occupational status. This trend reflected the literature content regarding the number of women who entered careers at the lower end of the professions and worked up to management positions in time.

Summary on the 1970s

During the 1970s, there were a number of changes in across life, family, and work venues. The decade was one of considerable change and conflict. As the 1980s started, America was in a recession. During the year 1980, more people entered the labor market in one year than at any other point in history (Devens, Leon, & Sprinkle, 1985).

National systems issues interacted with nearly all of the variables. The economic changes during the 1970s had a resonating impact on the economic conditions for the remainder of the 20th century. Workers and families felt the impact of legislation as well. As the changes filtered through the other systems, many types of impact occurred.

The early flextime articles detailed the parameters of the system. The flextime title counts illustrated the growing interest in the concepts of flextime. Issues such as women in the workplace and their rights and needs were important in the work and family literature. Figure 3.8 illustrated the interactions of the variables as recommended for qualitative research.

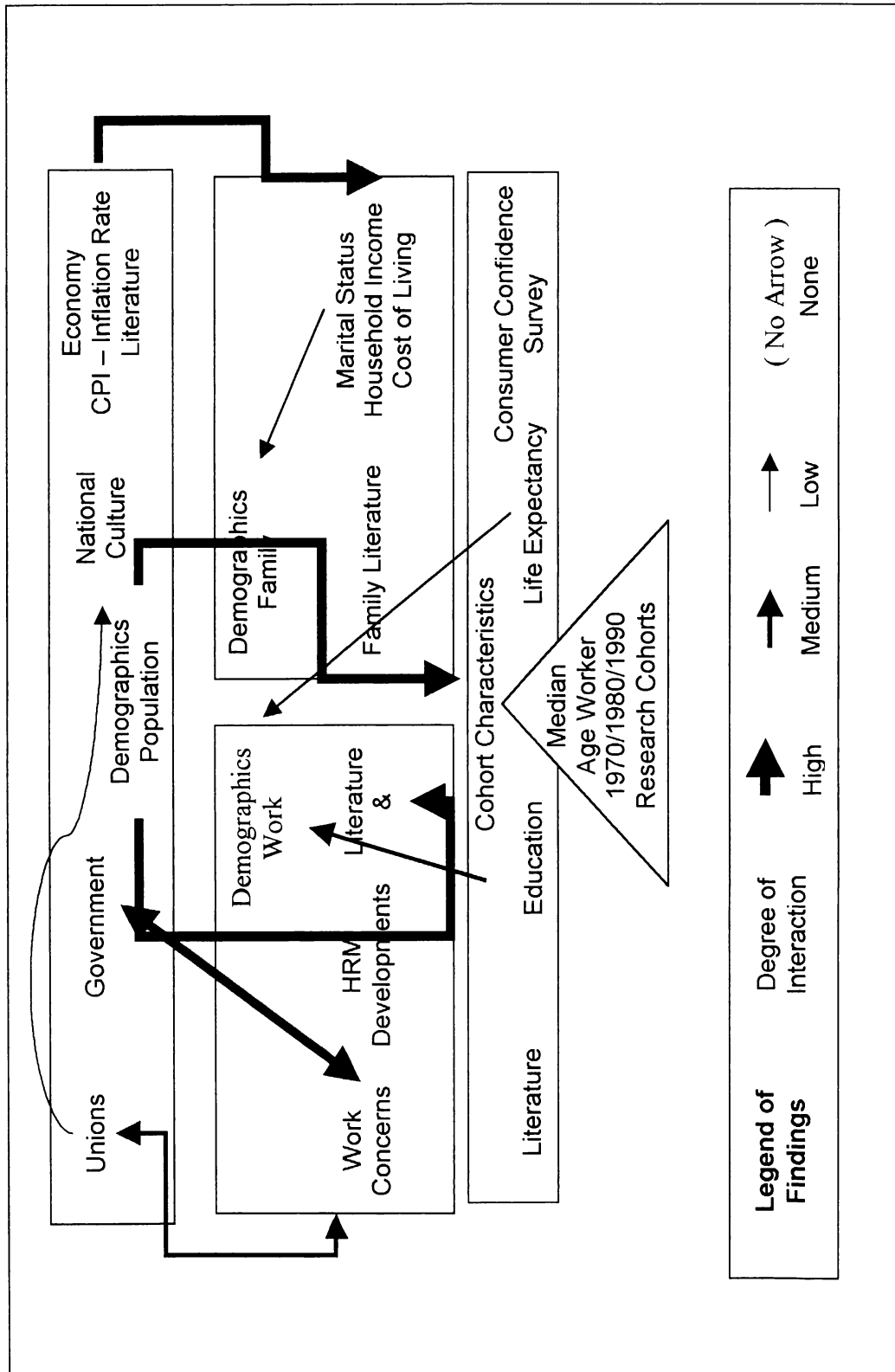


Figure 3.8 1970s model on the emergence of flexitime.

CHAPTER 4

The 1980s: THE DECADE OF PERCEIVED RECOVERY

During the 1980s, America witnessed the largest peacetime expansion of the post World War II era (Polivka & Nardone, 1989). Employment increased by 20 million and unemployment hit the lowest rate in 15 years. The Reagan years were relatively calm as compared to the turbulent 1970s. Influential aspects included politics, maturation of the Baby Boomer generation, and the stabilization of the economy.

The role of flextime stabilized during the decade. During the 1980s, new applications with work and family began to emerge as workers in the more mentally demanding positions in services needed support to balance family and career. Human resources continued to refine practices and an overall more professional appearance was apparent in the literature. As American manufacturing companies coped with the challenges of competition, the impact of the increased presence of the service industries change people's perceptions about working.

National Systems Variables Influencing the 1980s

General Population Age Distribution Shifts: 1980 to 1989

During the 1980s, the age distributions for the general population changed with the concentration of the Baby Boomers in the workforce as illustrated in Figure 4.1. The children under 5 years of age population distribution recovered from a dip in the late 1970s and leveled off during the 1980s reflecting a cautious approach to childbearing from the Baby Boomer age groups. The 5-14 age group percentage continued to decrease as witnessed in the 1970s and stabilized in the latter portion of the decade. Percentages of

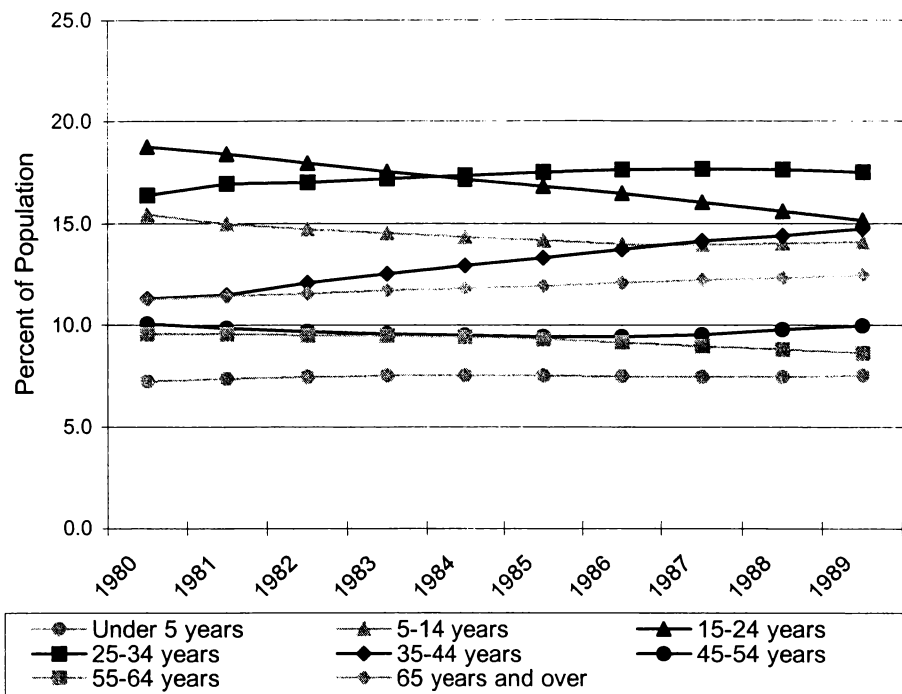


Figure 4.1. General population age distribution between 1980 and 1989.

the 15-24 age group decreased steadily over the decade. Slight increases occurred in the 25-34 and the over 65 years populations. The 45-54 age range distribution declined slightly but increased with the latter years of the decade. The sharpest increase was in the percentage of people in the 35-44 years of age range. The surprising trend was the gradual decrease of the percentage of people in the 55-64 years of age range. Baby Boomers increased in numbers in the workforce and were reaching the life stage of promotions and management opportunities. The dominance of the Baby Boomer generation working through the various systems continued throughout the time frame.

National Culture Context Between 1980 and 1989

Significant events from history impacting political, economical, social, and recreational aspects of the American culture during the 1980s were presented in the data of Table D.1 in Appendix D. The 1980s were a period of perceived calm as compared to the turbulent events of the 1970s.

Federal Executive Government Context Between 1980 and 1989

During 1980, Carter lost the bid for the presidency by landslide to Ronald Reagan, the former republican governor of California and former actor. The release of Americans held as Iranian hostages coincided with his inauguration. Reagan worked with a bipartisan Congress to create tax breaks to stimulate the economy.

There was an assassination attempt in 1981 but President Reagan was not seriously wounded. He sent troops to help with peacekeeping efforts in Lebanon. Terrorist attacks killed U.S. troops while on this mission. After two Marxist coups in Grenada, he sent troops to the tiny island. Worldwide criticism did not deter his efforts to reestablish the no nonsense image of American military. When it was revealed in 1986 that he knew about arms sales in Iran in exchange for U.S. hostages in Lebanon, he continued his popularity. Several White House staff lost their jobs with the disclosure.

Vice-President George Bush defeated Democratic candidate Michael Dukakis in 1988. Bush supported the developments that would bring democracy to Russia. He worked to promote more conservative family values but refused to sign the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA). In 1990, he sent troops in response to Iraq's invasion of Kuwait. A month long air strike attack was followed on cable television in America.

Federal Legislation Context Between 1980 and 1989

The legislative agenda during the 1980s was not as active as it was during the 1970s. The information presented below highlights articles on the continued impact of the legislations from the 1970s. Table 4.1 summarized important 1980s legislation for this study.

The early 1980s marked ten years of OSHA (the administration's) work to improve the working conditions of American companies. MacLaury (1981) detailed the history of the passage of OSHA. The movement for worker safety started in the 1800s and through persistence and careful documentation, the law was designed during the late

Table 4.1

Significant Legislation of the 1980s

Title and Year	Code	Summary
Federal Employees Flexible and Compressed Work Schedules Act of 1982	5 USCS §§ 6120	Extended the use of flexible and alternative work arrangements in federal and encouraged in state and local.
Federal Employees Flexible and Compressed Work Schedules Act of 1985	5 USCS § 6101 nt.	Made the flexible and compressed work schedules a permanent option for federal and state employees.
Retirement Equity Act of 1985	26 USCS §§ 72	Provided for retirement benefits for divorced spouse.
Age Discrimination in Employment Amendment of 1986	29 USCS § 621 nt.	Mandatory Retirement at age 70 was eliminated.
Comprehensive Child Development Centers Act of 1988. Repealed by Public Law 103-252, May 18, 1994	42 USCS § 9801 nt.	Created funds for centers to support children of working parents coming off of welfare. Development of special programs urban and rural low-income to improve quality of economic and social participation in committees.

1960s. James D. Hodgson was U.S. Secretary of Labor and recalled the process of passage (Hodgson, 1988).

During the 1980s, OSHA staff worked to extend coverage. Carmel and Dolan (1984) wrote about the *Right to Know* laws and how states incorporated their OSHA guidelines into state legislative agendas. Stead and Stead (1983) presented OSHA's cancer policy. With a doubtful future, the policy tried to establish guidelines for exposure and compute the cost differences between implementing the policy and not having one.

Employers were concerned about OSHA visits and their rights. Hayes (1982) assured *Personnel Administrator* readers that OSHA staff was required to have a warrant issued locally to enter without the company's consent. Employers had the right to deny assess without a warrant. The value of OSHA was questioned. Gricar and Hopkins (1983) questioned 26 heavy manufacturers about OSHA visits, incidences of citations, and accident rates. They found a positive impact from OSHA (1970) over time. Davis (1980) felt that OSHA needed changes but the real failure in workplace safety was caused by management and HRM failures to address worker needs.

Greenlaw and Kohl (1982a) defined the parameters of the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) of 1978 as issued by the EEOC in 1981. After the ADEA administration was transferred from the U.S. Department of Labor to the EEOC, the final guidelines for enforcement and interpretation were established. Baroni (1981) identified specific issues under hiring and selection, employee benefits, bona fide occupational qualifications, and differentiation based upon factors other than age.

Cabot (1987) detailed amendments to the ADEA (1978) that extended its protection to the private sector in addition to most state and local government workers. Mandatory retirement for workers older than 70 years was eliminated. Employers were concerned they would have diminished power to determine and develop their workforces. Issues such as pension planning costs and the age-related impact of an older workforce concerned HR.

The administration of laws within federal organizations was subject to change. Greenlaw and Kohl (1982b) reported on controversial differences that movement of the Equal Pay Act (EPA) of 1963 from U.S. Department of Labor to Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) produced. Hoyman and Robinson (1980) explained the EEOC's *Interpretative Guidelines on Sexual Harassment* issued March 1980. Sexual harassment was prevalent in the American workplace of the late 1970s. They offered examples and guidelines for individual company policy development. Boundaries and enforcement originated at the company level.

Graham (1988) concluded ERISA (1974) positively impacted pension planning issues for employees. Since the enactment of the Act, vesting status was attained more quickly for employees. Workers changing jobs or relocating participated more readily in pension activities with the new law.

The impact of the Pregnancy Discrimination Act (PDA) of 1979 was a frequent topic in the literature during the 1980s. Workplace changes increased opportunities for women to work throughout pregnancy. For example, as more jobs developed in the services industries women were more likely to work through pregnancy. Greenlaw and

Foderaro (1980) discussed how three types of organizations were negatively impacted: (a) small size firms with higher rates for benefits, (b) firms with a large percentage of women of child-bearing ages, and (c) firms with inelastic demand. Trotter, Zacur, and Gatewood (1982a; 1982b) presented a two-part analysis of the PDA. They detailed the history of pregnancy and maternity benefits and defined how women were considered historically in the workplace. In the second part, they outlined specifically what was permitted in dealing with pregnant workers.

The U.S. Supreme Court Decisions Context Between 1980 and 1989

The major Supreme Court rulings during the 1980s are listed in Table 4.2. Issues addressed further defined the intentions of the law. The majority of the cases were focused on gender issues in the workplace.

Table 4.2

1980s Supreme Court Decisions

Year	Title	Listing	Summary
1981	Washington County v. Gunther	452 U.S. 161	Sexual discrimination cases could not be barred due to performance of similar jobs as male workers
1983	Newport News Shipbuilding and Drydock v. EECO	462 U.S. 669	Male and female employees were entitled to equal insurance
1983	Arizona v. Norris	463 U.S. 1973	Retirement plans have to pay equally
1984	NLRB v. Bildisco & Bildisco	465 U.S. 513	Employers filing for reorganization may terminate collective bargaining
1987	Firefighters Local Union No. 1784 v. Stotts et al.	467 U.S. 561	Courts could not interfere with seniority systems in order to hire more minorities
1987	Johnson v. Transportation Agency	480 U.S. 616	Employees can implement affirmative action plans to eliminate sexual discrimination

Unions Activities From the 1980s Literature Review

The 1980s were a period of change for unions. Economic conditions forced major manufacturers in key industries to renegotiate for lowered wages or threaten to close operations. Union concessions maintained jobs. Wage increases were secondary in many collective bargaining arrangements. External and internal impacts necessitated new agreements between the manufacturer and the union. Concessions were made by union negotiators in order to preserve jobs. The issue of wage increases became secondary to job preservation.

Sleemi (1990) summarized that the 1980s were an innovative decade for unions. The impact of the 1981-1982 recession, the longest during the post World War II period, caused heavy job losses in manufacturing. In reaction to the new economic environment, there were more agreements that balanced wage changes and accelerated health costs. Many settlements did not include wage increases and the number of workers covered by cost-of-living adjustments (COLA) clauses dropped sharply. There were adjustments in payments methods to work with companies such as lump sum payments. In some industries, settlements included reduced wages and benefits for new hires.

Dunlop (1988) summarized union collective bargaining changes during the 1980s included two-tier wages, lump sum payments, elimination of COLAs, and many other concessions in exchange for jobs. Changes influenced the relationship between labor, management, and government included: (a) macroeconomic policies, (b) deregulation of airlines and trucking, (c) technology, (d) demography, and (e) the political climate of the

1980s. Dunlop explained that labor relations with the Regan administration were characterized by “unmatched hostility” (p. 33).

Economic changes for unions reflected the national economic conditions. Inflation, reduced productivity, and increased competition altered collective bargaining and contracts. Many unions negotiated for worker jobs as opposed to increased wages to reduce the threats of management to relocate or close plants completely.

Wasilewski (1980) described increased inflation between 1979 and 1980. Major contracts for 59% of all workers included periodic adjustment for wage rates based upon the movement of the CPI. Douglas (1981) described that many of the workers covered under COLA provisions were members of large unions such as the United Autoworkers. Ruben (1981) detailed the economic status of the country. Major companies such as the big four automakers and U.S. Steel reported losses in the billions. Unions agreed to special wage concessions. American automobile manufacturers suffered from reduced sales as a result of increased foreign competition, high fuel costs, inflation, recession, and a lack of small car selection. Ruben (1982) stated that as organized labor celebrated 100 years in 1981, it battled reduced numbers of new workers, employment reductions by major industries, and continued disagreements with the Reagan Administration over social and economic policies. Mills (1983) wrote labor conditions of the early 1980s changed collective bargaining and less conflict, more cooperation was needed between labor and management.

Recessions and labor reductions continued to impact contract negotiations during the 1980s. Ruben (1984) stated that the issues from 1981 continued in 1982. Lacombe

and Conley (1984) wrote that 1984 agreements contained record low wage increases. Ruben (1985) indicated that despite the economic recovery wage adjustment rates were less than three percent as compared to the eight percent range of the last contract negotiation period.

Ruben (1986) wrote changes in products and consumer tastes were new problems impacting negotiations in 1985. Management wanted two-tier wages to lower wages for new workers, lump-sum payments substitutions for wage increases, and traditional health plans alternatives to combat rising health costs. The lump sum program appealed to management because it reduced the payments to pensions. Kochan, McKensie, and Katz (1985) reported that a change in the relationships between labor and management had occurred and both were calling for workplace cooperation. Lacombe and Borum (1987) wrote that labor provisions to save jobs included small wage increases, wage freezes, and lump sum payments. Ruben (1989) described union concessions to maintain jobs including substantial reductions in wage adjustment rates. Increased challenges for companies included foreign competition and competition from nonunion companies. Brody (1989) observed increased contact between labor and management during the 1980s and more interdisciplinary research on the impact of labor on industry. By the end of the 1980s, union settlements increased but a new era of labor management cooperation existed and functioned in the new economic environment (Sleemi, 1990).

Two industries permanently changed by economic and labor changes during the 1980s were the auto industry and airlines. Singleton (1992) described the 1980s as a decade of transition for the auto industry. Increased competition caused many consumers

to loose faith in traditional American auto industry models and they demanded smaller, more fuel-efficient cars. Japanese automakers started U.S. operations to reduce shipping and increase distribution. Demographically, the surge of automobile purchases by the smaller Baby Boomers slowed and the baby bust generation did not require as many new cars.

Curtin (1986) described the impact of deregulation on the airline industry. Numerous airlines did not have union members. As airlines expanded into different markets, local groups had offered perks and benefits that impacted the ability for new groups to compete. Labor experts warned that deregulation required a transitional period to adjust to the new environment. Curtin summarized that the deregulations occurred during one of the worst economic recessions in recent memory and caused more uncertainty for many airline industry workers.

The impact of ERISA (1974) and changes in social security altered some union goals on retirement. (Stein, 1980). Unions continued to affect national labor conditions. Kahn (1980) evaluated the impact of unions on secondary, nonunion labor markets. The wages of white males in this market were higher than females and nonwhite males due to union wage comparisons. Changes such as 1970s legislation altered union agendas for collective bargaining regarding safety and retirement.

Adams (1984) wrote that over 30 mergers that occurred between January 1979 and June 1984. Some mergers resulted from the impact of technology in the 1970s. Chamot (1987) wrote the impact of technology in the 1980s was different than in the past. Greater flexibility of computer systems and the portability of electronic work

changed the concepts of time and place for workers. As the economy mix shifted towards more service positions, the impact of technology was predicted to be one of the most important issues for labor's future. The perception that technology eliminated jobs changed to one that technology created new opportunities. For example, people trained in clerk typing skills made a natural transition to personal computer use.

Americans had mixed perceptions about unions. Grimes (1987), as a former *New York Times* reporter assigned to union coverage, reviewed the history of labor coverage in media. He was concerned that many reporters did not cover the real issues and only wanted to represent the strikes or turbulence caused by unions. Modern coverage had declined in volume due to the complexities of economics, social, and political structures influencing unions. In order to change general public perceptions about unions, labor needed to create a new image and build relationships with media.

Rosenzweig (1987) discussed how historical sources did not promote the role of unions in American history. Corporate leaders and company histories ignored the impact of labor on success. He speculated that the negative perceptions of unions influenced the comfort level of historians. Management contributed funds to support historical representations that naturally downplayed the role of unions in economic development.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, public perceptions about unions were more positive. Brett (1980) reported on a survey to gather public perceptions about unions. According to the Department of Labor survey, the results suggested that unions represented 27% of the non-agricultural workers and 33% of those not represented by unions would vote for representation. The main factors influencing union membership

were dissatisfaction with job security and wages. Workers perceived that unions could act as the liaison between them and their respective companies.

Professional worker unions continued to grow during the 1980s. Mode (1980) reported on union efforts to organize scientific and engineering professionals. Engineers received higher wages but were subject to wage freezes with climbing inflation. Another issue was that younger engineers with advanced technology demanded and received higher wages than experienced professionals. Incentive packages for experienced engineers were common but did not accommodate changing inflation rates. Targeted groups for union expansion included private sector professionals such as doctors and lawyers. Levitan and Gallo (1989) summarized that groups such as the American Medical Association controlled membership through educational, training, and certification requirements.

Union survival techniques included the practice of “corporate campaigns”. Ropp (1987) detailed how unions used public relations tactics to influence larger organizations with multiple sites. Relationships with key strategically located companies such as suppliers or customers were used to apply pressure for union membership. By implementing an open-systems design, various tactics that approached and influenced the public, employees, suppliers, local government, and customers pressured management to meet union demands and to promote membership.

Keegan (1987) reported on a Harris Poll consisting of 1,500 telephone interviews conducted to ascertain the role of communication gaps in the perceptions of union and nonunion workers about unions. Questions compared differing group perceptions on how

well unions functioned for the workers who formed them. The results indicated an “image gap” caused by direct and indirect information on unions. Union workers predicted that benefits, pay, job security, supervisor treatment, safety, and participation would worsen if they lost their union. Non-union workers perceived that union membership would increase wages and benefits with little mention of non-wage conditions. Workers without union experience were less likely to realize the overall impact of unions on working conditions.

Companies had to change during this period to accommodate volatile economic conditions. Adams (1985) reported organized labor lost 2.7 million members from among America’s wage and salary workers between 1980 and 1984. Job losses in goods producing industries and transportation due to numerous types of competition hurt labor. Freedman (1988) described how management in the 1980s became more cost conscious due to impacts from foreign competition, competition from deregulation, and competition from nonunion firms. Flexible wages, two-tier systems, lump sum payments, and gain sharing, and flexible staffing were used to reduce labor costs. The use of temporary or contingent workers to gain power for rapid downsizing and cost cutting was a change in labor practices during the 1980s.

Fiorito, Lowman, and Nelson (1987) described how human resource practices in organizations were limiting the impact of unionization efforts. Conference Board research on employer human resources practices, union election outcomes, and unionization of new facilities suggested that contemporary human resources practices substituted for the need for a union.

Organized labor changed dramatically during the 1980s and the future for unions was uncertain. Heshizer and Graham (1984) detailed how union officials were divided on the causes of membership decline and how to address the need for new members. Dunlop (1985) felt that union leaders needed to understand microeconomic issues of internal labor markets, persistent differentials from product market and establishment sizes, and bargaining theory applications on local market conditions. Thompson (1987) warned that the children of the Baby Boomers would be the least sympathetic group to unions in history. Unions had changed by offering credit cards and counseling services but many people did not realize the historical value of unions to the economy and working conditions. Corporate greed would always exist and unions were part of the answer for workers to survive.

Economic Context Between 1980 and 1989

General Economic Context Between 1980 and 1989

The U.S. economy was in a mild depression in 1980 and a longer, more sustained one in 1982 (NBER, 2001). Some economists suggested that the economy never fully recovered from the 1980 recession. The recovery actions or tax breaks passed by Congress for Reagan caused a sharp increase in the federal budget (Jackman, 1990). The Prime Lending rate hit 21%, the highest level since the Civil War (Glennon, 2000).

Energy prices caused inflation in 1981 and continued to be an issue through the middle 1980s. Sharp drops in energy prices in 1986 made it appear that inflation disappeared (Howell, Burns, & Clem, 1987). Then oil prices increased again and the CPI rate changes were the largest since 1981 (Kuemmerling & Howell, 1990). Bahr (1987)

stated that movement in the price of energy dominated the economy in the late 1980s. Singleton reported an increase in foreign demand and export of heavy equipment and instruments that spurred the economy in 1987-1988.

The 1980s were a period impacted by macro-level developments from the 1970s. Greene (1981) wrote that employment in energy extraction increased due to the energy crisis. Henderson (1981) felt that the future trend for consumption would include decisions based on conservation of nonrenewable resources. She supported the philosophy of a solar age promoting ecological understanding throughout society. The test for HRM was education since many of the management decision makers were trained during a period of petroleum and fossil fuels. Henderson identified the rate of inflation as the system failure. The system failed when inflation rates increased, structural employment occurred, macro-economic management problems, and tax revolts erupted around the country. The cost of living had been impacted by cost of energy that had been traditionally a very inexpensive budget item.

Patten (1981) detailed the impact of the energy crunch on employment in the 1980s. Prior to the 1973-1974 oil crisis, the commute distance was not an issue. Some professionals commuted as a matter of status. The future cost of energy was uncertain and speculation included relocation of factories to reduce energy consumption and access cheap labor. The real cost of manufacturing was evaluated using models to project the cost of machine made using energy versus labor manufacturing. Alternative work arrangements such as flextime, gliding time, and compressed workweeks were presented as energy saving tools to accommodate worker needs and support energy savings. He

speculated that future employers may present bonuses to support energy costs and salary increases would be needed to sustain workers.

During the Vietnam War, defense spending comprised 10% of the Gross National Product from 1964-1968. According to Henry and Oliver (1987), between 1968 and 1976, the percentage of the GNP dropped by one half. From 1980 to 1985, there was a 5.5% annual increase in defense spending that cushioned the decline of manufacturing orders. During the 1960s expenditures period, manufacturers were at high capacity and there was low unemployment. The cost of doing business had changed by the 1980s buildup. The utilization of factories was low and unemployment was higher. During the 1980s, expenditures were reduced for operational needs and more money was allocated for industry sectors supporting the military.

According to Silvestri (1985), employment slowed between 1984 and 1985. Occupations of previous significant growth such as clerical workers and blue-collar occupations declined considerably. Changes in industry trends and technology impacted occupational structures. All clerical positions declined. They speculated that declines in the number of clerical positions would become increasingly more pronounced with the advancements in computer technology and office automation. The share by clerical in the total employment numbers was projected to decline from 17.5% in 1984 to 16.7% in 1995 (p. 43).

In relative terms, investigation of tracking methods illustrated an interesting point about the shift in job designations. Urquhart (1981) shared that clerical duties performed within a manufacturing context were counted as manufacturing jobs. During this period, a

number of companies outsourced clerical and other office functions such as payroll. The jobs were counted as service related positions with the change.

One of the 1980s developments was the increased presence of the business services industries such as computer and data processing, business consultation, and contracting on specialized job functions. Howe (1986a,) reported that this sector was the fastest growing industry in the economy and a trend to watch to gauge future business activity. Employment for the business services sector of the economy doubled between 1975 and 1985. There were seven major industries included in the business services category: (a) advertising, (b) consumer credit reporting and collection, (c) mailing, reproduction, and stenographic services, (d) building services including cleaning, maintenance, and extermination, (e) personal supply services, (f) computer and data processing services, and (g) miscellaneous supports such as research and development, management and consulting, and protective or security services. The group of services under computer and data processing grew by 250% during the time frame. Employees in this sector were well paid, represented diverse backgrounds, and were employed for shorter lengths of time indicating more contractual agreements.

Although considerable growth occurred in the service industries, the stability of the work was questioned. Urquhart (1981) reviewed the stability of service industry jobs during recessions. He found that of the seven post World War II recessions, only the 1974-1975 period had declines in the service industries. Historically, the majority of employment growth occurred in services, 53% in 1920, 58% in 1948, and more than 70%

in 1980. He reported that 55% female employment gains were in service type positions over time and accounted for 67% of the total employment increase overall.

Supple (1986) wrote about the impending labor shortage generated by the baby bust period between 1965 and 1979. The supply of teenage workers in 1995 was projected to be 20% below the 1975 amount. The young people of this generation were well educated with high expectations. The impact was first observed in school systems where teachers were laid off, schools were closed, and school districts were consolidated. Labor needs for hospitality and other lower wage jobs were addressed through special recruiting in high schools and senior citizen centers. This group expected benefits, higher wages, and better workplace due to their education and fewer numbers.

The demographic composition of the population and the workforce changed during the 1980s. Cattani (1988) stated that the rising Hispanic population provided about one fifth of the nation's employment growth between 1980 and 1989. By 1987, over 8.5 million Hispanic workers represented a 39% increase while the non-Hispanic workforce increased by 10.4 %. The increased presence contributed to workforce diversity and this group filled many of entry-level positions. The traditional workers, younger people, were fewer in number.

The impact of increased numbers of women changed the demographics. Shank (1988) described how seven out of ten women between the ages of 25 and 54 were in the labor force as compared with three of ten four decades earlier. The impact of women 25 to 34 years of age changed the previous pattern of female participation by age. The usual dip in participation around children disappeared as the demographics changed. Most of

the women born in the late 1950s increased labor force participation in their early 30s and reversed the pattern established twenty years earlier.

Haugen (1986) reported on the increases in retail trade positions between 1973 and 1985. Retail employment increased 41% during this period and accounted for one fourth of the nonagricultural employment increase of the period. In 1985, nearly one sixth of the workforce was in retail. The most significant growth was in eating and drinking establishments and food stores reflecting the changes American lifestyle and income to support growth in these areas. The majority of the positions were part-time working less than 35 hours per week. One out of three part-time workers across industries were employed in food services. Women and young people filled most of the available positions. Impacts on the industry included increased use of specialized technology, computers, and self-service supports.

Consumer Price Index (CPI) Impacts on Context Between 1980 and 1989

In the later 1970s and the early 1980s, Americans paid significantly more for their energy as shown in Figure 4.2. There were a number of legislation pieces passed by congress to address the cost of present and future energy supplies during the 1970s and 1980s. Oil prices increased sharply in the early 1980s during the recession and accelerated problems with oil suppliers. The price of oil leveled out until 1986 and dropped significantly. The cost of the market basket of goods and services continued to rise across the 1980s decade.

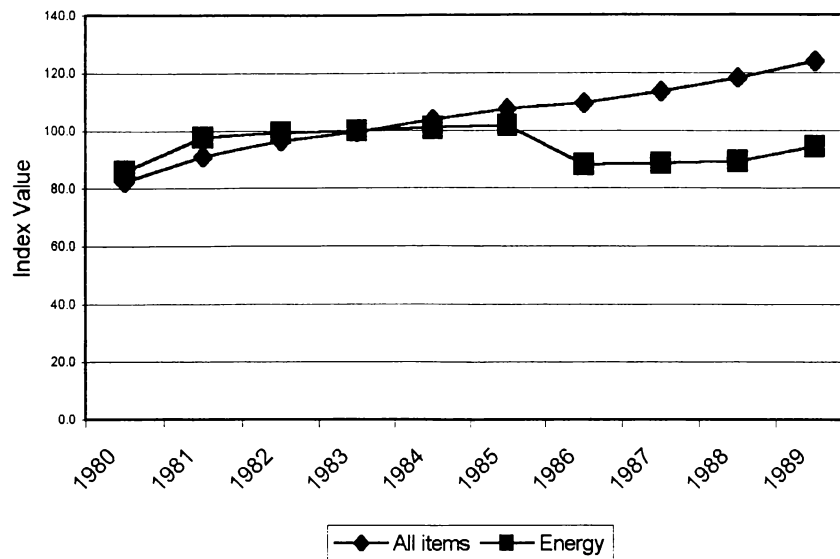


Figure 4.2. Consumer Price Index (CPI) between 1980 and 1989.

Work Systems Variables Influencing the 1980s

The impact of the number of manufacturing jobs affected labor but also decisions by HRM and management regarding staffing needs. Many workers across the nation experienced downsizing or rightsizing in management's attempts to stabilize the costs of labor and stimulate the productivity levels, at least on the books. The role of HRM evolved with downsizing and different management programs. One of the developments during this period was the increased use of computer and the increased use of personal

Employment Trends Between 1980 and 1989

Employment trends continued to reflect economic changes and workforce needs. Figure 4. 3 charted the rates for the percentages of the population employed, unemployed, and not in the labor force. The impact of the 1982 recession on unemployment continued through 1983. The number of people entering the workforce previously not in the labor pool continued to decline slightly across the decade. The percentage of the population in

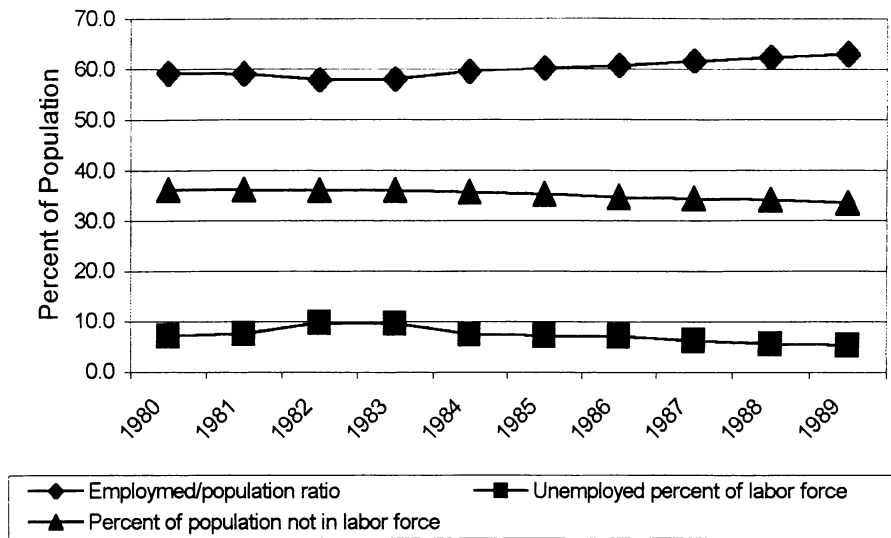


Figure 4.3 Employment data between 1980 and 1989.

the workforce continued to rise reflecting economic growth and the demographics changes as Baby Boomers dominated the composition of the workforce.

The prediction of increased strain on the economy and employment (Alterman, 1973) with the arrival of the middle and late Baby Boomers entering the labor force in the 1970s and early 1980s. Deven, Leon, and Sprinkle (1984) reported that more people entered the labor force in 1980 than any other single year in American labor history. The Baby Boomer generation had made its mark on employment.

Human Resource Management (HRM) Literature Review Between 1980 and 1989

During the 1980s, fewer personnel titles existed and the human resources staff simply became known as HR in many organizations. Beer and Spector (1984) wrote about how American personnel managers were not satisfied with traditional industrial relations or organizational development titles to define their operational and strategic positions in organizations. Lodge (1983) cautioned that human resources education

should include holistic framework to integrate HRM and the greater business, community, and society.

Finney (1988) discussed HRM's function in changing societal values and promoting diversity trends. As unions lost more of the employee base, family and life style planning issues became increasingly important for white-collar workers. Frohman (1984) illustrated a full organizational change project to increase productivity at a plant in Ohio. Campbell and Barron (1982) questioned the effectiveness of HRM during an era of evolving corporate management techniques. There were conflicting perceptions about practices in the workforce. As with any survey, the survey language, distribution, sample composition, and sample size influenced the findings. A poll indicated participants believed that 46% of American companies had flextime options in 1985. Campbell and Barron reported that HRM professional's perceptions were inaccurate and 26% of companies used flextime.

Pursell (1981) wrote during the 1980s, that the U.S. would experience its first labor shortage. The real and nominal cost of labor was projected to increase with employee needs (competitive wages) and supports (benefits). Demands for workers in specific occupations, workforce demographic changes, and technology impacts altered labor projections. Personick (1985) projected nine out of ten future new jobs would be in the services producing industries. Service positions required different skill sets compared with manufacturing positions.

The impact of government on HRM was a continuous topic. Overman (1989) predicted the addition of government regulations influencing HRM during the 1990s.

Issues such as family leave would require strong government supports. There would be many new opportunities for HRM to lead organizations strategically with supports for new hires, employee supports, and management supports. Kanter (1983) cautioned HRM against initiating into new policies without proper planning and execution.

Guinn (1989) suggested providing alternative human resource directives to support dual career family employees. Wives with husbands in higher paid positions were less likely to return to work after children. Incentives such as flextime, longer maternity leaves, and part-time employment were strong human resource tools to maintain a quality workforce. Another option was the use of two career tracks incorporating the “mommy track” to provide many of the benefits of professional employment in a scaled down version. One of the newer trends was the emergence of working at home. Projections included a more “family atmosphere” with increased awareness of appropriate supports.

Healthcare services experienced significant growth and changes during the 1970s and 1980s. The field changed from a numbers and supply mentality to one promoting efficiency and cost effective service delivery (Kahl & Clark, 1986). Long term impacts were expected from demographic changes, Health Maintenance Organization (HMO) developments, private long-term health insurance increases, Social Security and Medicaid changes, and innovations in technology, medicine, and drug research.

Kahl and Clark (1986,) explained increasing health care costs concerned consumers. Factors such as continued inflation, recent recessions, soaring health care coverage costs for employers, discussions on Medicare insolvency, and fiscal crises in many states were topics of health care discussions. The changing individual and group

(cohort and regional) medical needs and consumption patterns changed dramatically during the period. Reduced family size, advancements in medical interventions and treatments, and increased longevity contributed to concerns about coverage for the elderly population. Consequently, the Baby Boomers started to deal with issues of their parents and other elder relatives.

Healthcare costs concerned both employees and HRM. Chen (1981) explained how benefits changed during the 1970s. Professional level workers expected significant benefits. Blostin and Marclay (1983) discussed the rise of HMOs since the passage of the HMO Act of 1973. Meisenheimer and Wiatrowski (1989) discussed the multiple benefits options such as flexible benefit plans and reimbursement accounts designed to provide employee options.

Stelluto and Klein (1990) discussed changes in compensation packages during the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s. Wages and salaries grew at a slower pace than employer costs and benefits became a larger part of total compensation packages. By 1988, Baby Boomers comprised 19% of the labor force. Employers developed creative packages for the better-educated workforce that started with the Baby Boomer group.

Absenteeism caused many problems as an ongoing concern. Human resource policies reflected various solutions to the issue affecting HRM, workers, managers, and customers. Allen (1981) examined the impact of absenteeism on labor costs and as an alternative way for employees to gain flexibility. Leon (1981) and Klein (1986) presented the financial impact of absenteeism for organizations.

One of major topics of concern for human resource professionals, the government, and economists was the apparent “de-industrialization” of the American economy (Kutscher & Personick, 1986). The actual numbers indicated tremendous job growth in the services industries and lighter more, moderate increases across manufacturing sectors. The message about manufacturing and service positions were discussed throughout the 1980s across various fields and areas of study.

Kutscher and Personick (1986) reported that the perception of industrial decline was in relative and not absolute terms. There were about 20 manufacturing industries including steel, leather, and tires that experienced significant declines in employment over the 1970s and 1980s. In 1959, 25.1% of total jobs were in manufacturing as compared to 18.5% in 1984. The actual or absolute employment in goods producing was fairly stable but the total employment distribution or percentage changed dramatically due to increased employment of women primarily in the services sector. The rise in the number of service jobs and the number of women entering the workforce were parallel. Goods producing included agriculture, mining, construction, and manufacturing (durable and non-durable). Of the total workforce, goods producing jobs were held by 60% in 1959 and 28% in 1984. The service industry employed 40% of the workforce in 1959 and 78% in 1984.

The manufacturing or goods producing sector of the economy problems included declining job shares, plant closings caused by lower product demand and changing technologies, and regional high unemployment especially in unionized sectors. During this period, Kutcher and Personick (1986) stated that most of the decrease in

manufacturing was traced to decline in agricultural goods demand. Overall output, even during the recessions, was relatively high. Manufacturing decreased 6.6 % points in the total share of the workforce but only 2.3 % in output. Innovations and restructuring changed the industrial base.

Krucsher and Personick (1986) illustrated their points detailing the decline of the steel industry after the 1973-1974 energy crisis. Although the steel industry experienced an earlier decline in market shares, the impact was heightened by large wage differentials, failure to invest in more efficient technologies and techniques, and continued and exacerbated market share losses to cheaper imports and substitutions. Following the oil crisis, transportation manufacturers used lighter, more fuel-efficient materials. Internal and external systems changed the steel industry.

During the 1980s corporations addressed concerns about women managers. Rytina and Bianchi (1984) reflected that the shift in the number of female managers during the 1970s reduced the dominance of males in many occupations. However, the higher labor participation rates for women were in the traditionally female occupations. Rosen, Miguel, and Peirce (1989) reported on a national sample of CEOs and HRMs. Questions focused on the impact of HRM and corporate policies on women in management. Of the 2,500 surveys distributed, 245 usable surveys were received. The researchers cautioned that participant companies possibly had an agenda to increase women in management more than the non-response companies. Large and small organizations participated and half of the respondents reported difficulty in attracting and retaining female workers. Career problems causing conflict included organizational

politics, lack of career development opportunities, and family responsibilities. The political arena included comments on the old boys' network, the absence of mentors, the lack of male colleague supports, and the role of male bosses in career decisions. The expectations of gender roles constrained women. They supported flexibility options for women returning to work after leaves for children. It was reported that many females started their own businesses to gain the flexibility required to balance family and career needs.

Between 1980 and 1987, Hispanic workers provided nearly 20% of the national employment growth (Cattan, 1988). The increased diversity in the workplace was evident in entry-level positions traditionally filled by the younger labor pool. Decreases in the number of younger workers created new opportunities for other work groups. Increased concerns about childcare (U.S. Bureau of National Affairs, 1985), management of older workers (Rosen & Jerdee, 1988), and the aging U.S. population (Morrison, 1983) exemplified the growing demographic implications for HR. Increasingly, the implications of future planning and directions were HRM concerns to identify and solve.

Patten (1981) wrote about how the 1973-1974 oil crisis impacted human resources. Before then, energy costs rarely influenced location decisions. Patten presented speculations on HR impacts if the oil crisis increased in severity and intensity. For manufacturing, rising energy costs could potentially necessitate relocation. In the future, some workers may choose to relocate to facilitate a shortened commute and older workers may have to continue working due to the impact of higher energy costs on retirement savings. Alternative work arrangements such as flextime accommodated

contemporary lifestyles and compressed workweek arrangements reduced energy consumption by employers and employees. Human resources issues included employee wage increases to offset increased energy costs and increased employee moonlighting.

Sexual harassment in the workplace became a critical topic for HR during the 1980s. Driscoll (1981) distinguished the differences between sexual attraction and sexual harassment. Greenlaw and Kohl (1981) warned HRM leaders to establish internal mechanisms to minimize potential problems. Kronenberger and Bourke (1981) provided advice to help HRM to meet EEOC guidelines and examples of court cases potentially influencing financial settlements. They advised readers on how to handle in-house cases and strongly recommended a corporate policy to protect companies and employers.

Peterson and Massengill (1982) provided examples of sexual harassment policies. They stated that most of the women harassed were between the ages of 24 and 34 in entry-level positions. The harassers were mostly older males from the same background of the female and often in a supervisory role. Renick (1980) stated there were double standards in American workplaces that encouraged sexual harassment. He proposed that men who believed women belonged at home were using the harassment to try to control the situation.

The rapid pace of American life impacted work and family. Kahn (1984) looked at life course planning and the dominance of work in American lives. Technological advancements were conveniences but also encouraged *an immediate return mentality* or a *quick fix perception*. Clark (1995) stated personal computers and other new technologies accelerated the pace of life.

Contemporary lifestyles caused worker stress. DeCarlo and Gruenfeld (1989) stated stress was the one of the ten leading causes of work-related problems and illnesses. Cox and Brown (1982) revisited the quality of life literature and outcomes. The issue was that corporate American culture did not encourage provisions for quality of life supports. The increased number of women added stress in the workplace as work and family balance issues influenced daily operations and strategic planning. Worker impacts from sick children or elderly parent demands were unpredictable.

Finally, Hedges (1983) reported on job perceptions in America. She proposed that measurements such as the incidence of moonlighting and the amount of overtime were objective measures to track commitment. Looking at absences and turnover numbers was ineffective and these contained other hidden information independent of commitment. Hedges' proposition to look for evidence of positive worker traits as opposed to contradictory negative perception epitomized the issues of management perceptions about workers. Most management perceptions failed to identify and understand workers.

Narrative on Alternative Work Arrangements (AWA) Between 1980 and 1989

Work conditions changed dramatically during the 1980s. Hallett (1988) described a new era with globalization, shortage of skilled workers, reliance on information and knowledge, more flexibility, and explosive technology. For more than 100 years, many viewed America as an industrial economy. The future economic growth required management to effectively use knowledge and skills in products and services.

Alternative working arrangements provided businesses with flexibility and employees with balance in most cases. Stackel (1987) detailed a report from the Bureau

of National Affairs (BNA) that collected responses from over 400 personnel directors on alternative staffing and scheduling in offices and factories. The trend was a definite shift over the late 1970s and early 1980s with the language of flexibility and alternative work commonplace.

Stackel (1987) described six social and economic conditions in work places causing the changes: (a) more women and greater needs for flexible work definitions, (b) more self-determined workers seeking accommodating work, (c) high unemployment that allowed flexible staffing solutions, (d) shift from manufacturing to services economy, (e) new work technology such as computers, and (f) growth of middle-man businesses such as staffing agencies or temporary employment agencies that freed up companies from permanent placements in some positions. Flexible options included on-call pools, leasing, subcontracting, temporary employees, part-time employees, permanent part-time work, job sharing, work sharing, voluntary reduced-time work, flextime, and telecommuting. The key was customized agreements for workers and employers to meet the job requirements and personal needs.

Owen (1988) compared the differences between U.S. and European perspectives on working hours. Post World War II European companies stabilized work and leisure time balances. Owen found that Europeans as a whole were (a) more willing to trade income for leisure, (b) subject to higher marginal tax rates that discouraged higher labor participation, (c) more greatly influenced by societal determinants such as strong, political trade unions and state legislatures, and (d) more willing since the worldwide recessions of the 1970s to reduce hours to share scarce employment opportunities.

The traditional workweek was the standard in America. Smith (1986) explained that the 40-hour, five-day workweek was the choice of most employers. The information was based upon the May 1985 Current Population Survey and compared with the May 1974 and May 1979 CPS surveys to minimize distortions. Applications of measures of central tendency on the data illustrated the dominance of the traditional workweek but there were some emerging trends impacting the workforce.

According to Smith (1986), the average workweek for factory workers decreased by 0.8 hours and the workweek for full-time office workers increased by 0.2 hours between 1973 and 1985. The median length of the full-time workweek remained nearly fixed at 40.6 hours. More than half of the American workforce worked the traditional or standard workweek. Part-time work workweek median hours rose from 20.2 in 1973 to 23.0 in 1985.

Operational problems caused by absenteeism and tardiness continued in the 1980s. Harrick, Vanek, and Michlitch (1986) reported that leave usage declined with alternative work arrangements at a federal government agency using compressed workweek and a modified flexitour arrangement. The annual savings in reduced leave was \$235,611 or 14.4 staff years annually.

Programs such as work or job sharing positions became popular during the 1980s. Kerachsky, Nichoson, Cavin, and Hershey (1986) detailed how work sharing was used to reduce the layoffs of workers during the recessions of the early 1980s. Part-time work was the flexibility option for many. Tober (Adams, 1987) stated that many of the sandwich generation were dual career couples caught between eldercare and childcare

issues. The Association of Part-Time Professionals (APTP) ranks increased membership by more than 50% during the 1980s. Part time options enabled workers to balance work, family, and other demands such as school. Part-time work hours provided opportunities for workers to determine when and for how long (relative to economic needs) that they needed to work.

Turney and Cohen (1983) explained the merits of putting workers in charge of their own work schedules. They used the term alternative work schedules (AWS) to represent a variety of options beyond flextime or part-time options. The fixed compressed workweek often resulted substantial energy savings for companies and communities. However, compressed workdays (10-hour shifts) made it difficult for workers to maintain higher performance levels. Many organizations offered multiple types of arrangements to accommodate various types of workers in specific job descriptions. Each situation was unique to the company's needs and products.

Of the companies offering alternative practices, many used compressed workweeks. Smith (1986) reported that the most popular form of alternative work schedules was the compressed workweek. This scheme grew about 4.5 times as fast as the total employment between 1973 and 1985. There were also examples of people working compressed part-time schemes with 30 or more hours within three days. Smith stated that it appeared that men worked more compressed and alternative schedules while women worked increasingly longer workweeks. When multiple job holding was factored into the length of workweek, the number of people working more than 40-hours per week increased to 84% in 1985.

As the number of women in the workplace stabilized, the overall composition of the workforce changed. Flaim (1986) explained sections of the May 1985 CPS report, featuring the expanded role of women. The expanding role of women was featured. From 1973 to 1985, women, 16 years or older, in the workforce increased from 39 to 55% of the total workforce. Meanwhile, a number of early retirements caused the percentage of men in the same age range to drop from 81 to 76% of the workforce. Contrary to prevailing beliefs that women were more likely to work in part-time positions, 75% of women surveyed were in full-time positions.

During the 1980s, the use of home based telework or telecommuting expanded. Flextime freed many workers from tight scheduling and management's need to control workers visually and performance by sight issues. The technology advances of the late 1980s provided more opportunities for workers to achieve a work balance by working out of their homes. Two aspects of success depended on the comfort levels of the parties. Managers had to be comfortable with workers being productive outside of the office. Workers had to be comfortable with use and applications of technology.

Robinson (1987) presented at the 1988 conference entitled *Telework: Present Situation and Future Development*. Robinson summarized the various presentations. Ambry (1988) wrote about findings from the 1985 U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics survey on telework and emphasized the role of computer technology in the development. Horvath (1986) reported findings from the 1985 CPS survey and stated formalized arrangements were rare.

A variety of sources provided information on telecommuting. McGee (1988) promoted that using telecommuting provided a broader recruitment pool and home workers were more productive without the interferences from the office. Kelly (1984) reported a study funded by corporate leaders to assess the impacts of telecommuting. They were told it was a way to reward value employees, increase productivity, and reduce weather related problems. Unions were skeptical about telework. The actual productivity increases varied by job and person. Gordon (1988) wrote several books and participated in numerous groups to promote telecommuting for the global workforce. At conferences, Gordon promoted a new language for the telecommuting work option to distinguish the various arrangements between employees and employers.

Companies wanted ways to increase productivity, compete in the global marketplace and use plant facilities more effectively during operation. Levine (1987a) illustrated the need for alternative work arrangements to *Personnel* readers by describing the numbers on working women who were mothers. Women comprised 51% of the workforce and the mothers with school-age children rose from 64% to 70% between 1980 and 1986. *Personnel* conducted a survey on alternative work practices and found that 73 out of 97 companies participating had alternative work options. Of this number, 75% had permanent part-time positions, 35% had flextime, 30% used staggered hours, 24% had compressed work weeks, 16% offered job sharing, 12% used short workweeks, and 1% utilized job rotation methods. Of those using flextime, most companies considered it a recruitment and retention option.

Howe (1986b) wrote that most of the literature on the temporary industry focused on the conditions promoting the use of temporary workers. The information he reported was from the May 1985 CPS. He noted that the Current Employment Statistics (CES) program used data from payroll records representing sample establishments as compared with self-report data on the CPS. The group was composed of mostly women (two-thirds) and typically people between jobs. Howe noted that women with children were more likely to select this temporary work option to provide income with flexibility. Some women use the temporary system to re-enter the workforce after children entered school particularly if they had stayed home with them while they were young. Adults in school used temporary positions for summer employment and flexible options to accommodate classes and studying. Another option for people entering the labor market was the opportunity to experience different jobs prior to commitment in full-time employment. Many of the positions, 43%, were either clerical or administrative-support. In all industries, clerical positions were 17.3% of the workforce. The second highest temporary assignments were in industrial help positions requiring lower skills levels.

Contingent staffing was a viable option for many companies. Polivika and Nardone (1989) defined contingent work as a means for companies to gain control over labor costs. Earlier, Nardone (1986) profiled part-time workers and explained the difficulty of defining this employment option. The federal government had a objective definition but estimation on a precise number of part-time workers was difficult. People who typically worked less than 35 hours per week were part-time status. The Bureau of Labor Statistics collected part-time data from these subgroups of workers: (a) those who

voluntarily worked part-time, (b) employed persons not at work, but working part-time, and (c) unemployed people seeking part-time positions. These workers typically were younger (ages 16 to 24) or older (age 65 and older). Workers tended to be female, two-thirds of the total part-time workforce in 1985. Approximately 60% of the women in part-time employment were married and about 30% had never been married. Most men working part-time positions were single. Jobs were concentrated in retail and service industries. The data for people who moonlighted or worked a second part-time job while employed fulltime was not part of this data. In addition, it was not reported if people worked in concurrent part-time positions.

Jondrow, Brechling, and Marcus (1987) presented the advantages of employing older workers to help transition them into retirement. Older part-time workers made excellent coaches and mentors for younger workers. For some employers, part-time employees were more costly per hour considering insurance and benefits costs. However with part-time retired workers, the training time was reduced and benefits were often not an issue.

Narrative on Flextime Literature Between 1980 and 1989

During the 1980s, the literature on flextime changed reflecting the evolution of the research and writings on the subject. At the end of the 1970s, Golembiewski and Proehl (1978) discussed the lack of empirical research on flextime arrangements. The majority of the research prior to the 1980s was mostly anecdotal or post-survey measures. In 1978, President Carter signed the Federal Government Flextime law to experiment with flexible arrangements. Several state and municipalities followed the federal lead.

The public sector support for flextime included family and work balance, tardiness reduction, recruitment, and energy consumption reduction. The number of flextime reports increased dramatically in the 1980s.

The emergence of flextime as a HRM tool in the public sector was significant for research. Many private sector organizations were, and continue to be, reluctant to provide access to employees for research for publication. The public sector based literature increased dramatically during the 1980s. There were several important advantages to working in the public sector: (a) accessibility, (b) similar demographics for workers, (c) homogeneous geographic locality, and (d) consistent job descriptions and pay levels. With the emphasis on developing empirical research, an interesting phenomenon was observed during the 1980s flextime literature review. Two studies were published (Winett & Neale, 1980) and (McGuire & Liro, 1986) then republished (Winett, Neale, & Williams, 1982) and (McGuire & Liro, 1987) reflecting edits and more scholarly approaches.

Many of the articles from the 1980s included basic definitions and tips for application in organizations. Several authors stated each company was unique and flextime was not a remedy for organizational problems. Pierce and Newstrom (1980) and Ronen (1981b; 1984) applied theoretical constructs to flexible practices and more specific applications from American companies were reported.

The literature emphasis on European flextime arrangements dissipated during the 1980s. Articles that provided contextual elements mentioned the start of flextime in European companies and concentrated on American case studies. There were a few

pieces on the *whole-life* flexibility philosophies of social activists and others. Teriet (1982) reported on perceptions about different alternatives to working in fixed daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, and lifelong schedules. Published in *Personnel Journal*, this piece was part of the exposure to European flextime options.

Another trend continued from the 1970s was the inclusion of several flexible work arrangements in one article. If the article was primarily about flextime, it was reported in this section. If the article featured another work arrangement or presented equal information about several approaches, it was included the Alternative Work Arrangements literature review narrative. Each article title and content was carefully evaluated for the review and the title counts.

Staines and Pleck (1986) used information from the 1977 Quality of Employment Survey to demonstrate that work schedule flexibility moderated the effects of nonstandard work schedules in family and work life conflicts. The effect of the moderation varied by sex. The flexibility of the mother's schedule was more important in reducing family stress. The problem with this study was the broad definition of nonstandard shifts. The authors were not clear if their definition meant shift work or flextime schedules. Another problem was using an established data set to answer specific questions.

Flextime by the Numbers

Published numbers were powerful tools in the dissemination of U.S. flextime. With the increased role of HRM in organizations, HRM leaders looked for strategies to stabilize their roles in organizational planning. Ronen (1984) discussed the role of HRM

in organizational systems leadership. Flextime and other alternative work arrangements were important recruitment and retention tools in the context of the changing workforce and society trends. Information about company successes and surveys on implementation was important source of support for HRM to investigate and promote flextime trends.

Mellor (1986) reported that according to the special supplement to May 1985 CPS that the incidence of flextime was small. Availability varied by sex, race, age, and other characteristics. About 80% of the fulltime wage and salary workers worked traditional schedules: 8 to 5, 7 to 4, 8 to 4, or 9 to 5. Flextime arrangements varied by production, customer and other coverage requirements; public laws and collective bargaining agreements; and the attitudes of individual managers and supervisors. Flextime arrangements included both formal and informal formats. Advantages listed included reduced tardiness, added hours of service to the public, smoothing rush hour traffic peaks, larger blocks of leisure time for employees, facilitating childcare, and better scheduling of workforce to handle work load. Problems included management scheduling for workflow, timekeeping needs, and increased hours of operation. According to the CPS data, about 9.1 million or 12.3 % of the workforce worked flextime schedules. The highest concentration was in the 35 to 44 year old range and those over 65 years of age. Men were more likely than women to have flextime. The private sector (12.6%) was more likely than the public sector (11.3%) according to sample.

A Personnel Journal ("Summer hours," 1987) poll conducted in 1987 revealed that of the 100 companies surveyed that 27% offered flextime, with 15% year round and 12% only in the summer. Workers reduced commute time in order to maximize summer

daylight hours. Levine (1987b) reported a *Personnel* survey on alternative work arrangements. An earlier piece described the general findings and concentrated on the primary arrangement, permanent part-time (Levine, 1987a). There were 120 company responses, 23 with no alternative arrangements, 73 with part-time, and 35 with flextime. The article featured research on Liberty Mutual's flextime program. Findings included reductions in the number of partial day absences, external and internal facility congestion, and stress over sharing equipment. Increases in cross-training, leisure time, and time for appointments were positive findings at Liberty Mutual.

The Administrative Management Society (AMS) Foundation, a not-for-profit organization dedicated to helping businesses, advanced business knowledge for more than 50 years (Welch, 2001). The group conducted salary and business trends surveys disseminated through various media sources and published monographs on specific topics. During the 1980s, AMS published surveys on workforce. Participants were managers in the Committee of 500, a survey group consisting of AMS members throughout the U.S. and Canada. The incidence of flextime rose across the years of the survey. In 1977, 15% reported company implementation and 21% reported usage in 1981. Studies in 1977 and 1981 combined responses from both countries (Thomas, 1986). Thomas reported that the 1985 report was the first to separate the findings.

According to Thomas (1986), there were 280 American and 28 Canadian responses obtained in the 1985 AMS survey. The survey included questions about flextime, workweek schedule plans, and job sharing. American managers responses indicated that 28% or 78 of the companies participating had flextime. Of the remaining

responses, 5% were considering flextime and 67% were not considering or using flextime. Of the 28% using flextime, 42% of companies used it throughout the organization and 58% had partial implementation. From the latter group, 47% indicated that departments could use flextime if they chose. Participants were asked to project the future of flextime. From the U.S. responses, percentage breakdowns included 42 for increased usage, 4 for diminished usage, and 53% indicated that flextime usage would stabilize. The report required careful reading. The problem was that it was difficult to discern the meaning as presented. As one turned the first page, the final line was “A higher percentage of Canadian...” Without careful reading, the reader might think that this line implied that there was a greater number of Canadian participants. The Canadian companies numbered 28 total and the higher 39% reported was only 11 companies as compared with 78 companies or 28% U.S. companies in the study.

Thomas (1987a; 1987b) reported on the AMS 1987 survey in two articles. It appeared that Thomas combined Canadian and U.S. numbers for in these reports. Thomas (1987a) summarized that flextime usage appeared to be growing about 1.5% per year. Thomas (1987b) reported on the reasons for the revolution in working time. His list included (a) Baby Boomers in their prime working years, (b) increased numbers of women in workforce, (c) more mothers in the workforce, and (d) the skyrocketing number of dual-career families. Contemporary workers wanted different workplaces from their predecessors. As a group, they were better educated, they wanted more satisfaction from their jobs, and they were less likely to stay with one job, especially under current merger trends.

Employers continued to have issues with flextime. McKendrick (1989) reported on the 1989 AMS survey. Flextime had grown in popularity to 30% of the companies. In 1989, two percent indicated that they were considering flextime options. A majority of the respondents indicated that flextime improved morale and about half stated that it reduced tardiness and absenteeism. The reasons for using flextime were fairly consistent with previous years and other studies. Employees liked flextime because it helped those with children and permitted scheduling of personal needs during the flexible portions of the day. Less than one-third of the companies listed disadvantages such as lack of supervision and scheduling hassles. Some respondents indicated that in some areas, the arrival and departure of employees was a problem for some managers. Overall, the 5-day, 40-hour workweek remained the dominant work structure. In surveys conducted between 1985 and 1988, the number surveyed with the traditional weeks dropped from 64 to 55% but was up to 56% in 1989. In closing, one of the respondents replied that not having a flexible work arrangements caused them to miss opportunities to attract and keep excellent employees.

Presentations of numbers on flextime were sometimes deceiving and promoted perceptions based upon a select portion of the American workforce. The issue that cannot be answered through historical research with informal data was how were HRM leaders and management influenced by the information published about flexible work arrangements. The purpose of this narrative was to present the information that was available in specific points in time. The influence that information had in promoting flextime at that point was speculative at best.

Flextime Studies

Pierce and Newstorm (1980) used a work adjustment model to explain theoretically how flexible working hours influenced employee satisfaction, performance, absenteeism, tenure, organizational commitment, and job involvement. They presented that the contemporary worker sought need fulfillment, stress reduction, and harmonization of work with human circadian rhythms. Flextime contributed by helping to frame opportunities for the (a) individual's abilities and ability requirements to do the job and (b) individual's needs and the satisfaction of those needs by the work environment. They reviewed the literature and illustrated how previous studies supported flextime as a demonstration of the work adjustment model.

Concerns about the quality of research continued during the 1980s. Rainey and Wolf (1982) acknowledged the prevalence of flextime practices in recent years and research and support for the option from various sectors. However, like others they were concerned with the inadequacy of the research on flextime. Their work outlined limitations of the existing data and observations. The bottom line was a need for more objective and appropriate research on real issues of flextime.

There were concerns that practitioners viewed flextime as a method to treat organizational problems. Rainey and Wolf (1982) cautioned organizations against using flextime to reinvent the firm and as a cure for tardiness. Buckly, Kicza, and Crane (1987) summarized that flextime did not operate in a vacuum and the effects were difficult to isolate and measure. Several studies failed to support reported advantages. They reported on studies and findings describing unrealistic supervisor expectations and how managers

forced the model of flextime on workers and organizations. All organizations were different and therefore, time and organizational wide commitment were considerations. In some companies, problems reported with flextime options were actually ongoing organizational issues.

Narayan and Nath (1984) evaluated the relationship between group cohesiveness as promoted by the Tavistock Institute. Two units, experimental and control, were randomly selected and divided into respective work groups (19 flextime and 10 control) consisting of approximately eight members each. Data were collected pre- and post-intervention. From a 60% average response rate, there were 148 subjects for pre-flextime calculations and 130 responses for the post calculations. Questions on group cohesiveness were adapted from earlier validated instruments. Group cohesiveness was determined by a group calculation on these questions. The results indicated that work group cohesiveness influenced flextime and more cohesive groups experienced positive results. The lower cohesive groups were not as successful in flextime operations. Questions on job satisfaction, employee perceptions of flexibility, relationships with superiors, and productivity were included.

According to Curry, Talmer, and Haerer (1981), flextime options were adopted in Canada in the early 1970s and moved southward to U.S. companies. The early preference of American companies was the four-day workweek but the three-day workweek did not fit into the “complexities of modern living styles” (p. 62). Companies with successful flextime hours combined careful planning and open communications to foster success. An increase in the number of women employees, Equal Employment Opportunity laws,

and the changing social patterns and values of the American worker were considered major reasons for the emergence of flextime. They detailed the development of a pilot test and followed by company-wide implementation of flextime at Stanley Consultants in Iowa.

One of the most significant private industry studies was conducted in the insurance industry. Pierce and Newstorm (1982) reported on flextime arrangements using production employees in word processing from four organizations in the insurance industry. The employees were employed in the same geographic location and any differences in the organizations were not reported. Each department used the working arrangements studied for two years. Group one had 29 participants and worked a fixed or traditional schedule. Group two had 19 participants and worked a staggered start with eleven start times reallocated by seniority four times per year. Group three had 25 employees all on flextime but employees had to declare and maintain a morning start time between 6:30 and 9:00 a.m. for two week periods. Group four contained 21 workers on flextime with no arrival restrictions and lunch flexibility. The study was complex with six constructs measured through a combination of validated scales, supervisor perceptions, and personal reporting.

Researchers Pierce and Newstrom (1982) wanted to ascertain if there were graduated differences by the degree of flexibility on the constructs in the insurance industry study. The constructs were organizational attachment, organizational attendance, performance, stress, off-job satisfaction, and job attitudes. The comparisons for the statistical analysis included (a) fixed and the three flexible groups, (b) staggered and two

flexible, and (c) the two flexible groups. From the analysis, group one with the fixed schedule had the weakest organizational attachment, lowest organizational attendance, and the poorest job attitudes. Despite the increasingly flexible conditions for the workers in the three groups, there were no statistically significant differences between the groups on the construct measures. They suggested future research to investigate the role of discretionary time in the flexible work in the employee affective and behavioral reactions.

When companies permitted limited flexible options, the clerical pool and word processing units were typical locations. Most workers were female, in lower paying positions, and in sufficient numbers to reduce staffing stress. Swart (1985) reported on research with clerical workers in three industries: banking, insurance, and public utilities. A structured questionnaire was administered during 1982-1983 to the vice-presidents of personnel (HRM) at 300 of each industry. Published industry specific mailing lists were the sources for companies. Response rates were banking 141 of 300 or 47%, insurance 153 of 300 or 51%, and utilities 125 of 300 or 42% returned. Companies responded to 10 questions concerning their fulltime clerical staff. Results indicated that 25% of the banks, 30% of the insurance groups, and 20% of the utilities offered flextime for clerical staff. Responses specific to work volume and quality of work indicated some improvement with flextime. Across the industries, participants indicated a 70% reduction in tardiness, an 84% increase in the degree of effectiveness, and an improvement of over 93% in the degree of job satisfaction. Absenteeism rate reductions included 60% in banking, 44% in insurance, and 38% in utility companies participating in the survey.

According to a *Personnel* survey, not all firms allowed company-wide flexibility (Levine, 1987b). Only 51% of those surveyed with flextime allowed company wide and the others limited participation to departments or by employee job descriptions. Flextime benefits reported included better workplace coverage, scheduling to meet higher productivity periods, recruitment and retention tool, and a reduction in tardiness. Problems were reported by 13 of the 35 respondents using flextime. Several had minimal problems, one aerospace firm wanted to stop the program, two reported phone coverage problems, two reported meeting scheduling problems, and other issues such as intra-departmental meeting problems were reported.

Implementation of Flextime Articles

There were several pieces on establishing flextime arrangements in workplaces. Buckely, Fedor, and Kicza (1988) discussed the role of HRM in the employee relationship. They outlined a process for implementing flextime options. They reported that employee lifestyle needs changed over time and that HRM should respond to worker needs. The increased numbers of women working and the emerging role of the employer as the facilitator in work and life balance were discussed. Organization objectives included more functional relationships with employees to maximize productivity, commitment, and satisfaction. For workers, there was less family support for work and family balance with the changing demographics of the population. They reported that more than 20% of Federal employees and more than 12.6 % of the private sector employees used available flexible work options. They encouraged organizations to evaluate the overall impact of flexibility and the impact on the whole organization. Many

companies offered flextime as an employee benefit. Companies reported a reduction in small talk and increased efficiency. Flextime was not a cure for the problem employee.

Flextime was not appropriate in all situations. Coltrin and Barendse (1981) presented a method of organizational analysis to determine candidacy for flextime scheduling. Firms needed to evaluate employee demographics, size and type of organization, technology, and location before testing flextime. Under demographics, they reported that younger workers had more non-work demands and were more adaptable than older workers. Under size, larger organizations had more employees to cover non-core hours. Production operations with assembly line technology requiring high interaction and teamwork were not good flextime candidates. Industries where staffing demands were less predictable were less likely to be appropriate. Technology based operations required less supervision and more independent work time, and therefore were excellent locations. Location was a factor when multiple adjacent firms allowed flexibility for arrival and departure and thus, alleviated congestion.

Olmstead (1987) equated money with the use of flexible time arrangements including flextime, job sharing, and part-time work options. Many of these work options were unknown until the early 1970s. A major factor in the emergence of flexible trends was the workforce demands of working parents, the Baby Boomer generation, and senior citizens either requiring or desiring some type of work. With 54% of all women and 48 % of mothers with children less than a year old working, there were more stressors on the work-family interface. In addition, senior dependent care continued as a growing issue for many sandwich generation employees. As a group, Baby Boomers were better

educated and expected different fulfillment from their working arrangements. Culturally, this generation wanted more time for enjoying life and family as compared with their parents and grandparents. For the employee with a traditional nine to five job without flexibility, the results of children or eldercare demands translated into absenteeism, too much personal business on company time, and ultimately the loss of experienced, solid employees. In addition to the employee need for flexibility, other factors influenced the implementation decision such as changing local, national and worldwide economic conditions, changing demographics, and the need for employee loyalty.

Management perceptions about employee visibility and perceived control were ongoing topics in the flextime literature. Weatherall (1989) questioned the need for managers to visibly track work processes. In his presentation, he questioned the management need for visibility and options for measuring productivity at work. Flextime was used by one in four office workers to “dovetail commitments” of work and family. Both the employer and employee benefited from the practice. Some jobs, such as production, were not suitable for flextime arrangements. There were several issues with the lack of supervisor support for office staff flextime arrangements. He concluded that supervisors needed training to know how to supervise outside of the traditional work schedules and arrangements.

Flextime options reflected and enforced changes in the American workplace. Hollingsworth and Wiebe (1989) stated that several factors indirectly contributed to the innovation of flextime. Changes in management styles, work and life environments, and the basic characteristics of workers, collectively, made it easier for companies to

implement flexible programs. Shifts in management and HRM theory evolved from traditional practices to human relations based and later to human resources where employee participation meant participation in company goals. Better-educated workers during the 1970s and 1980s desired life improvements with increased leisure. Flextime was a tool for HRM and management to meet worker needs and support retention..

Hollingsworth and Wiebe (1989) stated “before the popularity of a more democratic management style, almost the only way for employees to self-direct goals was through the unionization of the workforce” (p. 24). Group leverage provided more individual rights. The change from industrial to information-based employment had a profound impact. Terms such as *blue-collar* were losing meaning in the cultural context of society. The problem with adoption of flextime in the U.S. was detailed. Transfer techniques between cultures were discussed. In Europe, the lines were more pliable with more employee involvement and power sharing overall. It was difficult for new ideas to be supported throughout U.S. companies.

Employees exercised options and looked for companies with selected benefits. Newman (1989) discussed that many organizations used flextime options as a recruiting and retention for competing with other companies over qualified and talented workers. Flextime required supervisors to look at output rather than presence and this was more difficult. Traditional management policies changed under this directive. Flextime appealed to many workers with small children and the compressed workweek appealed to single employees. Companies targeted their recruitment to accommodate employee needs.

Flextime in the Public Sector

The emphasis of this historical analysis was in the private sector. The public sector studies were often published in obscure or limited venues not readily available to the general HRM public or private sector reader. Some of the private sector scholars referenced public sector studies. Two of the evaluative studies on the state of flextime research concentrated in the public sector. Collectively, the public sector information impact on the development of private sector flextime arrangements was the verification that traditional work cultures could be changed.

In the late 1970s, a number of public entities issued proclamations and legislation to increase the availability of flexible or alternative work arrangements. In 1978, New York Governor Cary signed legislation for state agencies to develop a format for scheduling flexible arrangements (McGuire & Liro, 1986, 1987). Other municipality, county, and state governments applied flextime and other alternative work arrangements. Advantages promoted included changing demographics, recruitment and retention of changing workforce, and energy conservation through improved transportation and facility usage.

The public sector setting offered several advantages to researchers. As McGuire and Liro (1986; 1987) stated there were advantages to using government employees for research. Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981) stated that the conditions within federal organizations were fairly standardized and in areas such as Washington, DC, the federal employee presence and workplace conditions were part of the area culture. An example of a private sector venue with similar conditions would have been an area with a

concentration of products or services such as a region known for tourism (Daytona Beach, Florida or Branson, Missouri). The systems and ancillary systems developed and evolved in response to the needs of the employees and their families. In many respects, the public sector literature evolution supporting the emergence of flextime reflected the greater access to subjects and control of conditions.

The following summaries were grouped by size and type of public sector operation. National or federal studies preceded, state level studies, and studies published in major journals from the country or municipality level were presented last. There were a number of the smaller scale studies presented in the summative pieces.

Golembiewski and Proehl (1980) evaluated flextime research in the public sector using four tables to organize their findings. In the first table, they organized studies by the setting, union involvement, study design, comparison group, data type (hard or soft), and presence of statistical treatments. The other three tables summarized findings for behavioral effects, attitudinal effects of employees, and attitudinal effects of supervisors. One of the most significant findings from their review was that supervisor negative attitudes dissipated over time. In their conclusions, they wrote that the patterns for type and scope of studies were consistent in both private and public sector research on flextime. Flextime had grown in acceptance and application since their earlier work (Golembiewski & Proehl, 1978). Future recommendations included additional research in flextime effects and the types of conditions that foster positive effects.

Ronen and Primps (1980) researched flextime impacts on performance and attitudes in 25 public agencies. They reported general trends on four categories (a)

organizational effectiveness, (b) attitudes, (c) membership, and (d) time management from their analysis of previously published reports from public agencies. They stated that findings were either objective data or subjective (attitudinal) results. Flextime findings included: improved organizations, increased individual effectiveness (work control), reduced absenteeism and turnover, improved employee attitudes, improved work/life balance, and improved employee commuting. They cautioned that front line supervisors required training and the flextime concept should be customized to the organizational work environment.

One of the largest flextime applications occurred at the U.S. Social Security Administration. Barad (1980) reported on a study of eight separate groups, about 3% of social security administration's 78,000 employees. Five headings summarized the findings: (a) employee attitudes and morale, (b) leave usage and attendance, (c) productivity and organizational effectiveness, (d) transportation and parking, and (e) ease of implementation and patterns of utilization. Under employee attitudes, more than 70% of respondents reported improvement over traditional work settings. Supervisors in the largest group perceived improvements in morale. The clerical group findings indicated that they liked having a voice in their schedules and the program provided opportunities for family and community commitments. There were inconsistent findings on leave usage. Productivity increased overall with a few project specific issues. Transportation concerns improved with reduced time and stress for travel however, the use of public transportation decreased. A few of the employees objected to mechanical time keeping devices. The Social Security Administration (SSA) top management impressed with the

findings, offered flextime where feasible throughout the organization. At the time of the publication, over 37,000 or 47% of the SSA total workforce varied their working hours under flextime model. Flextime and other alternative options were under consideration by the Office of Personnel Management (formerly the Civil Service Commission).

Employers were concerned that employees would take advantage of the situation. Ronen (1981a), although the study took place in Israel, established that government workers stabilized their arrival and departure times with flextime. Furthermore, the actual arrival and departure times were only slight deviations from their pre-flextime times. Tardiness incidences went from an average of six per employee per month to 0.67 per employee per month.

Orpen (1981) conducted an academic study on perceptions and productivity of federal employees. The problem was that it was unclear if the study took place in the U.S. or South Africa. The subjects were females, average age of 36.7 years, with an average employment tenure of 4.8 years. A simple method for assessing productivity included tabulations of individual daily counts of completed cards. Subjects were told that they would have the option of participating in a study on flexible hours. Upon agreement to participate, the subjects were divided into control (no change) and flexible (variable hours) groups. Participant names were drawn randomly. Even drawn number (counts) names were assigned to fixed working hours. Each subject, prior to start of the flextime, completed the Index of Job Satisfaction to assess overall feelings about job satisfaction. Individual pre-test performance measures included ratings by the supervisor and an average score of the number of cards processed daily from the previous three months.

After six months, subjects repeated the Index of Job Satisfaction according to Orpen (1981). Post-test productivity measures included supervisor rating for the past six months and a tabulation of the number of cards processed. The only reported difference between the control and experimental (flexible) group was the flexibility. All other aspects of work and evaluation were the same. The results indicated that job satisfaction increased with flexibility but productivity and performance ratings did not. The conclusions did not support previous studies of increased performance. However, performance was not hindered by the change. In a tight labor market, the use of flexible work arrangements could be an effective recruitment and retention tool.

Ahmadi, Raiszadeh, and Wells (1986) reported on the state of alternative work arrangements. In the literature, most of the attention had been given to flextime and the 4-day workweek. The use of flextime was more prevalent and was preferred in egalitarian organizations. The disadvantages were all management related. They reported on a case study conducted with government workers.

Productivity increases were one of the desired effects of flextime. Ralston, Anthony, and Gustafson (1985) evaluated the flextime impact on productivity. They found a positive effect when there were limited resources shared by a work group. National reports of reduced productivity since 1970 created a renewed interest in flextime. They investigated two state government agencies with control comparisons in similar operations. Researchers tracked programmers and data entry workers through existing productivity measurements over a two-year period. They found that the

experimental group significantly improved productivity from the pre- to long post-test measures. The gains continued after flextime was in place for a sustained period.

There were concerns that positive impacts of flextime would deteriorate over time. Ralston and Flanagan (1985) researched non-supervisory computer programmers from two state agencies in a two-year longitudinal study. All of the subjects were young, college graduates with future management goals. There were four groups; female (flextime and traditional hours) and male (flextime and traditional hours). The flextime workers and the traditional schedule workers were at separate locations. The experimental group was the female flextime group and the other three groups were used as controls. There were three time periods: pre-test, post-test, and long post-test. From the pre-test periods, it was noted that females had substantially more absences than males. From the analysis, the females in traditional work roles continued the trend. However, the males and females on flextime schedules reduced their absenteeism during the time frame of the post-test and continued this into the long post-test period. Females on flextime reduced absences to a level equal to the males on flextime and significantly lower incidences than males on traditional schedules. Since the group of flextime female participants contained 25 people, the total absenteeism drop on an annual basis by 330 hours or by over 8 weeks of an individual's work.

The availability of flextime increased during the 1980s. Ralston (1989) reported over five million people had flextime hours in 1988. Although many positive outcomes were reported with flextime, the literature lacked empirical support of the beneficial aspects. Two government agencies participated in a study on organizational perceptions.

Questions targeted worker perceptions of benefits associated with flextime. Surveys were conducted before flextime and after six months. The post results indicated statistical significance for all benefits when compared to pre-test survey answers. Interactions were significant for commuting, coordination of work and outside responsibilities, reduction of tardiness, and job satisfaction. The reliability of the data was a problem in this study.

Dunham, Pierce, and Castaneda (1987) conducted two studies to evaluate worker attitudes about flextime. They presented the studies as models for understanding the impact of work schedules. Workers in both studies ($n = 140$ and $n = 102$) received flextime arrangements and their perceptions were monitored over time. Researchers asked workers questions about organizational effectiveness, interface of work to personal activities, work satisfaction, perception of flextime influence over satisfaction, and whether or not the workers could predict their levels of satisfaction. The schedule was not sufficiently flexible to impact conflict and age of participants influenced general findings. Finally, they reported that attitudes about flextime dissipated over time.

As a guest contributor to *Personnel*, Wagel (1987) described her organization's flextime arrangements for readers. The Minnesota Department of Energy and Economic Development (utilities) responded to their union's proposal for flextime. After an employee attitude survey, they gathered recommendations from an employee management committee. Wagel and other HRM staff researched other organizations' methods, policies, and procedures before developing their customized plan. They reviewed the plan with labor union representatives prior to implementation. Internal and external contacts helped to develop a process for implementing and supporting flextime.

Individuals were allowed to change to flexible arrangements if they followed a predetermined procedure agreed upon by the union. At the time of the publication, they had not formally evaluated the process but realized from experience that success depended on the employee and supervisor relationship. They had become an employer of choice attracting and retaining employees despite more financially lucrative private sector offers.

Kim and Campagna (1981) investigated flextime impact on attendance and performance in four departments of a county welfare agency. They conducted pre-test and post-test evaluations with 353 employees, 78% female, using experimental and control groups. Most of the studies to date utilized a post-test only design. Flextime appeared to reduce the number of short-term (less than two hours) absences but there were no differences in the use of long-term (two or more day absences). Statistically, only one experimental group was more productive than the parallel control group. However, the other three experimental group findings were close to significance. The researchers cautioned that participants knew that the findings would be used in evaluation of flextime arrangements and that may have impacted the study.

Flextime reports included reduced worker absences. Moss and Curtis (1985) presented their work leisure model to illustrate the relationship between leisure, work, and earnings for individual workers. The amount of earnings was directly tied to the tradeoff between leisure and work time demands. One of the illustrations of the model suggested was that as wages increased, the worker moved to better locations further away from work, and therefore he or she had a longer commute. The authors reported on their

study conducted with employees from a Florida county. They evaluated weekly sick leave reports for control and experimental groups pre-test and post-test. They found no statistical significance between the absences for the two groups. In order to control for a chronic illness, they eliminated individual reports of more than 100 hours of sick leave. No statistical significance was found. Moss and Curtis did not indicate what statistical analysis was performed nor did they provide demographics for their groups. The use of sick leave may have been altered by the age of the participants, the presence of children, and the supervisor. Authors did not discuss any of these explanations.

Flextime Study Rewrites

As previously stated, there were two author groups that republished studies in the 1980s. The evaluation of these studies was an important piece of the historical evolution of the literature on flextime. The second publications illustrated the ongoing evolution of the research development in the field of HRM and interdisciplinary studies on flextime.

Winett and Neale (1980) presented the first edition of the data in *Monthly Labor Review* in November 1980. The study was conducted while the authors were at the Institute for Behavior Research, Inc., and funded by Center for the Study of Metropolitan Problems of the National Institute of Mental Health. The earlier writing was presented as a study on flextime and family life and to explain the advantages of experimental studies to build knowledge on a particular subject. This study was difficult to follow and contained information that made it confusing at times. There were two federal agencies studied: Agency A with 600 employees and $n = 32$; Agency B with 2,200 employees, and $n = 65$. From the sampling, approximately half of participants were on flextime and the

other half were on a fixed schedule. A combination of measurements was used including time logs, paid interviews in the homes, and questionnaires. The critical findings were that workers spent more time with family during the evening hours with flextime scheduling.

Winett, Neale, and Williams (1982) published the same study in *American Journal of Community Psychology* in October 1982. In the second publication, the research was more clearly organized and included specific demographic information for each group and comparisons for analysis. The total time for data collection in each organization was clearly defined. There was less emphasis on the value of experimental design and more attention to the description of the process and the careful analysis of the data. They presented the study as an ecological study using Bronfenbrenner's (1979) research on how modifications in important systems such as work systems potentially benefit families. It was interesting to note the publication of this study in relation to Bohen and Viverous-Long (1981) using Bronfenbrenner to frame their work on federal employees and work and family.

McGuire and Liro (1986; 1987) researched three agencies across two departments in New York state government that were published in consecutive years in *Public Personnel Management*. The analysis of these two articles on the same study represented an interesting development in the literature review and represented an excellent opportunity to evaluate research publication. Individually, there were flaws but collectively, a fairly comprehensive analysis developed from the articles.

As a result of their extensive reviews, McGuire and Liro (1986) included a summary of problems with flextime studies to date: (a) absence of control groups, (b) absence of solid definition of criterion measure, and (c) lack of statistical control for possible confounding influences. They questioned the respondents on three areas (a) job satisfaction, (b) productivity, and (c) commuting patterns. They surveyed three groups (a) true flextime agency responsible for policy administration and implementation, (b) staggered fixed schedule agency responsible for policy development, and (c) control or fixed answered statewide inquiries from the public. The true flextime option (a) had been in place for some time and was previously a staggered schedule for three years, the staggered fixed schedule had been an option for three years, and the control (c) group schedule was established by the job's tasks.

This study applied significant methodological rigor. The reasons given for the study were noteworthy and indicated a change in the direction of research. McGuire and Liro (1986) discussed the positives of flextime as discussed in previous research by others. Flexibility gave employees more control over their work environments (hours of work), it allowed adjustment of scheduling to the individual's "bioclock", it was more efficient and flexible in regards to transportation issues, and it accommodated work and nonwork activities more effectively. Previous studies had failed to provide adequate methodological rigor, examine and specify modes of implementation, and investigate the variability of flextime. The variability of flextime was addressed in the 1986 study.

Apparently, the earlier publication (McGuire & Liro, 1986) was erroneous in the number of participants in the true flextime approach. Their stated $n = 13$ and in the 1987 edition (1987) stated $n = 130$. They reported participation of 100% of the control group ($n = 29$), 87% of staggered fixed ($n = 115$), and 87% of the true flexible ($n = 13$). More information about the demographics of the three groups was given in 1986. The typical control group member was described as a married male, age 40-49, with more than 10 years experience and a fairly high salary grade. The staggered flexible group was typically composed of married males, age 30 to 39, with less than five years service, and a higher salary grade. The true flexible group was composed of married females, age 40-49, with more than 10 years experience but with a much lower salary grade. This group was mainly data processing and clerical workers. They stated that the flextime group composition was consistent with earlier literature to support family and work conflicts. However, the age suggested older children and Moss and Curtis (1985) suggested that the impact of flexibility on groups such as clerical was a factor of economics and time. Results reported included: (a) overall more job satisfaction with flextime and most of all groups wanted to continue their present working environment, (b) all respondents reported their respective productivity as high, and (c) no statistical effect was found on commuting but flextime thought that their commute was easier.

In the later publication, (McGuire & Liro, 1987) emphasized the study as an inquiry to the success of different types of flextime arrangements. They reported that previous studies had not addressed the different types and applications of flextime. This study was reportedly designed to evaluate the impact of the degree of flexibility in terms

of the difficulty of establishing and maintaining flextime programs. In 1987, they stated that they developed a survey instrument for evaluation. The sample was described as 274 workers from a total population of 3,679 in two New York state departments. In the earlier piece, the size of the population was not given. For the staggered flextime hours, 115 (final $n = 105$) completed the survey and 130 ($n = 114$) completed from the true flextime group. The traditional schedule group included the entire population of 29 in a department. No information was given on the demographic composition.

McGuire and Liro (1987) hypothesized that flextime would reduce absenteeism. They did not find any reduction in any of the groups. Short-term absenteeism was lowered in the group using staggered fixed scheduling. However, overall absenteeism changes were not statistically significant. The researchers speculated the staggered fixed schedules were easier to plan appointments and other commitments around as compared to more loosely structured true flextime. The use of staggered fixed schedules may have indicated a greater organizational commitment to attendance policies.

Overall limitations of these pieces included the use of self-reports on surveys for productivity and perceptions about differences, the demographics of the populations although they were attempting a fairly methodical study, and the presentation. These two studies were examples of the development of research on flextime during the 1980s. The problems and process of redefining the studies illustrated one of the problems of the research on flextime. These studies illustrated the development and refinement of empirical research on the topic of flextime.

Flextime Books Published During the 1980s

Flextime options changed perceptions about work and working time. Applegath (1982) wrote the image of the American workplace was in manufacturing despite the reality that only 20% of the workforce directly worked in manufacturing. In modern society, there were many definitions to “work”. There were many variations to employment types, locations, and schedules. Work did not have to happen specifically to someone else’s schedule. He considered flextime a “fine-tuning of basically bureaucratic management, but not a major departure from the 9 to 5 schedule” (p. 15). Women were the vanguards who changed interpretations of work life and men noticed the positives and wanted more flexibility. Flextime allowed for life’s situations. In the past, the theories and practice of flextime were more prevalent in smaller organizations. Applegath considered the important role of the part-time worker in society. He described organizations dedicated to the improving the quality and compensation of part-time jobs such as *New Ways to Work*, *The National Council for Alternative Work Patterns*, and *Workshare*.

Ronen, (1981b; 1984) published two books on flexible work arrangements. The information was nearly identical and the chapter on flexile hours or flexitime provided basic information, guidance for establishing a program, and evidence of the pros and cons of various approaches to flextime using different definitions of core and flex time. Ronen presented a model of the multiple factors impacting flexible work arrangements. There were similarities to model developed for this research but more intangibles were added to Ronen’s model such as personal value systems, social pressures, and work goals.

Ronen (1984) explained the role conflict for supervisors of workers on flextime. They typically enjoyed the flexibility as workers but the schedule was harder on them as supervisors. Ronen was concerned that American labor unions would want management to share the increased profits from productivity increases with employees (p. 111). The pressure might cause some organizations to eliminate flextime and everyone would suffer. Within time, unions supported flextime. Union support during the early 1980s was important for the opportunity of flextime. Barad (1980) reported that the Social Security Administration (SSA) secured the support of unions and union leaders before finalizing the sites for participation.

Pierce, Newstorm, Dunham, and Barber (1989) presented an excellent summary of the historical and cultural meanings of work. They cautioned that employers should not use standardized practices but they should customize to meet the needs of the organization and workers. They detailed the development of flextime in Europe and the early days of U.S. flextime. They reported that in 1973 there were about 100 firms with flextime and by 1977, the number had grown to over 3,000. The other excellent publication was by Nollen (1982). He detailed the various types of alternative work with a section on flextime.

Flextime Reports and Other Issues

Christensen (1989) wrote one of the most widely quoted reports from either the work or family researchers on flexibility options in the U.S.. Her work detailed a study she conducted for the Conference Board on flexible staffing and flexible hours as methods for HR to improve morale, reduce costs, and target different labor pools.

Cooley (1990) reported the findings of the Bureau of Labor Statistics 1989 Employee Benefits Survey. This survey designed to determine basic benefits included flextime and flexible work schedules for the first time. Most flextime arrangements included a core time with variances for arrival and departure. Fifteen percent of those surveyed had flextime and white-collar professions had twice as many flextime workers.

***Flextime Title Counts From Human Resource Management (HRM)
Journals Between 1980 and 1989***

Frequency counts on the flextime literature were conducted and included in Table 4.3. An inspection of the article numbers by years reveals a trend for articles that corresponded with other national events. Reminding HRM and management about flextime during recession times may have been intentional. Flextime was relatively inexpensive and the scheduling freedom may have been prompted as an incentive for HR to try during difficult times. The increase in the later part of the decade corresponded to the period of support for the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA).

Table 4.3

1980s Flextime Title Counts From Human Resource Management (HRM) Journals

Journal	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89
<i>HR Focus</i>	<i>Personnel</i>									
<i>HR Magazine</i>	<i>Personnel Administrator</i>									
<i>Human Relations</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Human Resource Management</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Journal of Human Resources</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Personnel</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	0
<i>Personnel Administrator</i>	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Personnel Journal</i>	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Personnel Psychology</i>	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management</i>	Not Published									
<i>Workforce</i>	<i>Personnel Journal</i>									
1980s Totals	1	3	0	0	0	1	0	5	1	0

Table 4.4***1980s Flextime Title Counts From Management and Business Journals***

Journal	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89
<i>Industrial Management</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
<i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Journal of Management</i>	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Management World</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
<i>Monthly Labor Review</i>	2	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Public Personnel Management</i>	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
Other Titles	1	2	1	0	1	2	1	2	0	3
1980s Totals	5	3	4	0	1	3	5	5	0	5

Flextime Title Counts From Management and Business Journals Between 1980 and 1989

The number and distribution for the title counts in the business and management journals were greater than the HRM journals as shown in Table 4.4. During the 1980s, the higher counts may have reflected the need for companies to be exposed to a inexpensive benefit or perk that could increase productivity and accommodate women. During the late 1980s, the push against family legislation, inexpensive benefits for employee perks, and accommodation of the working mother were all plausible explanations for the counts.

Family System Variable Influencing the 1980s

During the 1980s, the average age of first time mothers continued to increase. Many of the Baby Boomer generation existed in the sandwich generation between small children and elderly parents. There were several attempts to promote a family leave policy in Congress. The needs of single workers to care for elderly parents or loved ones became an issue within this time period.

Household Income Shifts Between 1980 and 1989

During the 1980s, family income using current dollars continued to rise as shown in Figure 4.4. The constant dollar plots reflected the recession periods of early 1980s and the surges in prices from oil price increases. Single female, head of household income basically held constant. This household often had costs associated with childcare the social and cultural perceived needs of children.

Household Composition Shifts Between 1980 and 1989

The percentage of adults in traditional, married couple with family, households continued to decline but at a slower rate as compared with the 1970s. The percentage of male *households without family* increased from 10.4% to 12.8% of the population. The

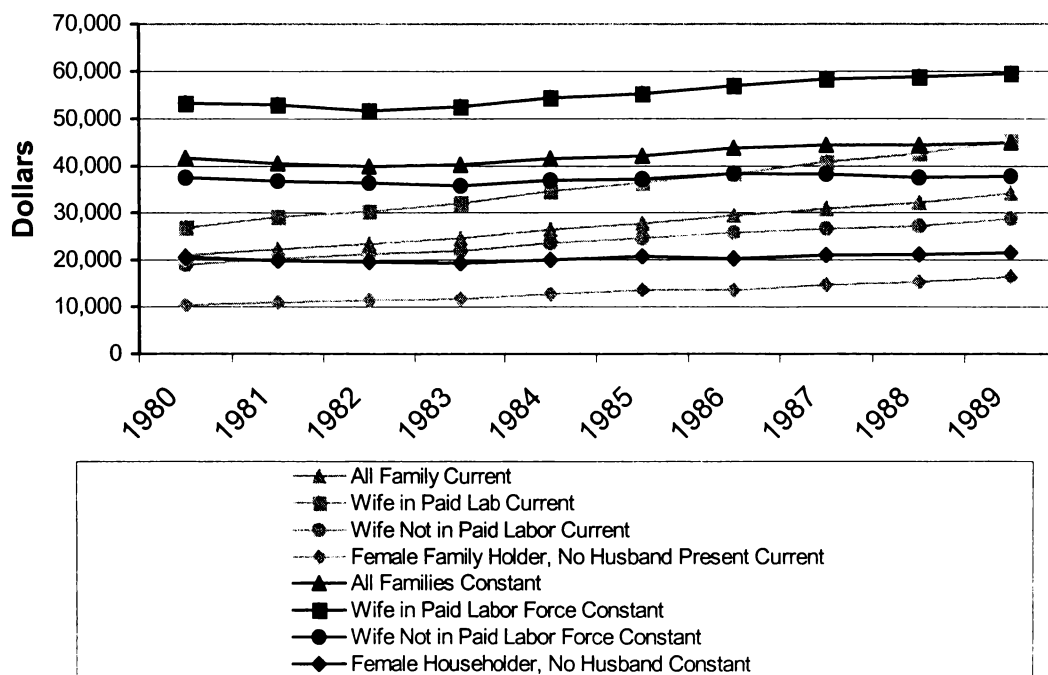


Figure 4.4. Household income shifts between 1980 and 1989.

percentage share of female *household heads with family* increased from 15.4% in 1980 to 16.3% in 1989. Female and Male *households with family* each gained about 1% of the total population distribution. All family head of household decreased 2.8% and the total for households without children increased 2.8%.

Marital Status Shifts Between 1980 and 1989

Annual Census Bureau percentage distributions for 1980 and 1990 on marital status indicated increases for both males and females in *never married* and *divorced* categories. Males *never married* percentage increased .7% and *divorced* increased 2% from 1980 to 1989. Females *never married* percentages increased .4% and *divorced* increased 2.2%.

Narrative on Work and Family Literature Between 1980 and 1989

Historically, family policy issues impacted work-scheduling trends. During the late 1970s and early 1980s, researchers established the importance of the balance of love, family, and work relationships in contemporary adults (Crouter & Perry-Jenkins, 1986). According to Rothman and Marks (1987), during World War II municipalities staggered arrival and departure times to accommodate production and work schedules. They believed that family friendly work practices started as a policy directive. Over the short period of time during the late 1970s and early 1980s, the policy evolved into a reliable tool to balance work and family.

Waldman (1983) described families as “the basic unit of American society that provided the country with its current labor supply and molded the character of its future workers.”(p. 16). Families during the latter part of the 20th century changed from an

extended to a nuclear structure, relocated from rural to urban settings, and adjusted to recession and prosperity of the American economic culture. Since the 1970s, families were smaller, more variety was witnessed in living arrangements, preschool children were more likely to be living with only one natural parent, and most young children had working mothers. Waldman listed (a) unusually low birth rates, (b) exceptionally high divorce rates, (c) delayed marriages, (d) population maturation, and (e) increased labor force participation. During this period, more than half of couples became multi-earner families. As the economy demanded more workers to support the increase in service industries, more women were needed. Most of the new workers were married women. Even during World War II, most of the workers were single women and men. As need increased, women with older children were recruited for positions. In the past decade, more women with young children were in the workforce. The causes were interrelated: recession and inflation.

The concepts of American families were changing. Waldman (1983) predicted that new factors would impact the future labor force as recent developments had such as (a) the birth control pill, (b) the transistor, (c) computer advances, and (d) laws governing employment (p. 19). Future projections included current family, work, and demographic trends and in addition to non-demographic advancements.

Nichols (1982) indicated that policies addressing family and work were on the rise. At the 1980 White House Conference on Families, support for family-friendly policies to address the needs of working parents was supported by 90% of the delegates. The issues of time for parents to complete work and provide for families had become

more prevalent with the increased presence of women in more responsible positions in the workforce. Attendees were urged to take action at federal, state, and local levels through policy changes and tax incentives to benefit family life.

Baby Boomers and their needs altered policy. Crouter and Perry-Jenkins (1986) summarized the recent history of studies on the dual impact of work and family. They isolated impacts of whose job, job satisfaction, job time involvement, household chores, children supervision, and children characteristics as determining factors. Historical themes of research included (a) studies design and findings mirror the societal and economic context, (b) work research questions differed along gender lines, and (c) emerging recognition of family systematically and interacting with other systems. Within the systems framework, young children impacted work operationally and strategically. The daily interface along developmental lines impacted work and strategic issues such as dual income families, childcare issues, and marriage quality impacted planning and work options.

In review of research to date, Crouter and Perry-Jenkins (1986) discussed the impact of the wife's career on the home. Housework issues included the amount of time actually dedicated weekly by both husband and wife compared with dual income and single income marriages. Spitze and South (1985) researched the impact of wife employment on divorce. They found that as responsibilities and time commitments to work increased that the probability of divorce increased. For women, marriage (and family) generated more housework. Higher incomes compensated with conveniences and external labor. In households where the husband disapproved of the wife working, there

was additional stress and increased chances for divorce. Women reduced the amount of housework but men did not increase the amount of housework.

Stafford (1980) looked at married women's work histories to determine if choices were voluntary or factors of culturally prescribed differences in household labor needs augmented by low work wages and tax considerations. He compared diary estimates between 1965 and 1975 on the market hours of married women who worked at least ten hours per week. Married women experienced a 2.2 % decrease in hours of work. However, married men had decreased their hours of work by 10.8 % during the same time frame. In addition, single women (never married or divorced) increased their hours of work and thus offset the decrease in women's total market participation. Stafford explained men and women time choices were more evenly divided in married families with higher education and more professional occupations. The trade-off for married professional, educated women was discussed in regards to childcare. As opposed to the past, the market value of hours (work time) of the educated woman with small children exceeded the lesser educated. Within the social security system, married women received only an incremental benefit excess of what they claimed as a dependent. Therefore, with smaller salaries, their marginal discounted benefit gain from labor market participation was very small. With professional women, the economic situation changed.

Professional women delayed marriage and having children. Langer (1985) reported that the number of first time births to women over the age of 25 doubled over the previous 15 years. First births before the age of 25 had declined. The number of first births to women between the ages of 30 and 34 had tripled. Older mothers were described

as Caucasian, highly educated, professionals, and in higher family income levels. More women were making child bearing decisions around occupations and life stage (Daniels & Weingarten, 1984).

Scarr, Philips, and McCarthey (1989) evaluated the needs of working mothers. Many of the Baby Boomer mothers were members of the sandwich generation (Werther, 1989). In addition to the childcare issues of working, many dwelt with eldercare issues (Dobelstein & Johnson, 1985; Glynn, 1988). The U.S. lagged behind other industrialized nations in balancing work and family needs (Adams, 1987; LoBosco, 1986).

The problem for many families was affordable and appropriate daycare for young children. Presser (1989) wrote the growing services industries impacted childcare. As many of the female family members continued working, there were fewer options for working mothers. In addition, the older the mother was at childbirth, the more likely she would return to work while the child was an infant. Presser called for structural changes in society to support mothers and young children. Kamerman (1983) wanted national data collection on childcare.

Kanter (1984) called for a systems approach by corporations to understand and address work and family conflict. Friedman (1986) polled executives and found most thought 40 to 70% of mothers stayed home with their children. This was the tradition for their wives but the reality was only 10% of mothers stayed home with children. Hayghe (1986) reported the percentage of infants with working mothers rose from 31% in 1975 to 50% in 1985. Grossman (1981) reported fewer mothers were home with school age children. In 1982, 54% of children age 18 or under had working mothers (Grossman,

1982). A record number of children under 18 had working mothers, six out of ten in 1985 (Hayghe, 1985). Hofferth and Phillips (1987) wrote the problem was that neither schools nor workplaces were designed (time and space) with considerations for working mothers.

Many couples chose not to have children. Spain and Nock (1984) described the typical dual career couples. The commitment of couple to a new lifestyle with fewer children and more income for family and purchases was a desirable situation for many Americans. They reported that 62% of all married couples in 1981 had dual earnings, the highest number in American history. The number of female managers doubled to 28% from 1950 to 1980. Household size, number of children, was the smallest among dual career couples with higher educations (p. 27).

The impact of stress on families was a significant topic in the 1980s. The number of dual-career/working families remained fairly constant in the early 1980s (Hayghe, 1982). Multiple roles and family stress was well documented (Gutek, Nakamura, & Nieva, 1981). Impacts of work and family topics included consumer spending (Robinson, 1988), mother's health (Matthews & Rodin, 1989; Repetti, Matthews, & Waldron, 1989), spillover from family to work (Crouter, 1984; Mortimor & London, 1984), and spillover from work to home (Crouter, Perry-Jenkins, Huston, & Crawford, 1989).

The number of dual-career families with children increased significantly in the 1980s. More than half of the record 1980 increase in workers were in dual career families and between the ages of 25 and 34. Galinsky (1986) wrote about the impacts of working parents, job conditions, family conditions, work/family interface, stress buffers, and

company family policies. The key to success was how the policies were presented and supported.

The balance of work in the home and job demands emerged as important topics in the literature. Pleck (1985) evaluated housework and home management issues. Presser (1984) studied shift work factors and later evaluated specific issues such as the sex of the spouse on shift work (Presser, 1987). Dual-career families required redefinition of roles in both but wives changed more often (Brett & Yogev, 1988).

Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, and Wethington (1989) reported women were more pliable in balancing work around family. Moen and Dempster-McClain (1987) detailed a study on the number and types of families who would be willing to work less with pay cuts to spend time with family. Zaleznik (1986) proposed corporate families with multiple roles and children isolated themselves more from community in order to cope and balance needs.

The issues surrounding divorce continued as a prevalent topic in the literature. Spitze and South (1985) researched the impact of wife employment on divorce. They found that as responsibilities and time commitments to work increased that the probability of divorce increased. For women, marriage (and family) generated more housework. Higher incomes compensated with conveniences and external labor. In households where the husband disapproved of the wife working, there was additional stress and increased chances for divorce.

Family and work impacts on children were important. Nock and Kingston (1988) reported a study on the impact of family demographics on children. Heyns and Catsambis

(1986) evaluated the impact of working parents on children's achievement and development. Stipp (1988) reported on a national syndicated study on 1980s children (six to eleven years old) as consumers. Fewer than 30% were in traditional single income families. Those children however, were less concerned with products for appearance. Less affluent families' children had more spending money due to the chores and independent sources of income. Children in traditional families were less independent. During the time frame, more children in the study came from single parent homes or dual income families. As family members, they had more responsibilities.

One of the aspects of the literature on flextime addressing family and work balance was the perception that the degree or type of flexibility made a difference in the effectiveness of the application. Bohn and Vivieros-Long (1981; 1984) found that marginal flextime options in federal government work environments improved work and personal life balance for those without child-care issues. The stress for single-mothers and mothers of dual-career families was still an issue. They speculated that the daily hours of work were longer and more restrictive on time than typical daycare or school options. Therefore, despite some flexibility, childcare issues limited working mothers' use of flextime options.

A strength of the Boehn and Vivieors-Long (1981) study was information gathered during follow-up interviews with a small number of participants. The cultural impact of sex-role expectations in both family and work were stronger than anticipated. Parents with similar education, training, and occupations were questioned. Women expected less of themselves professionally, quantity and sustained quality, when they

combined motherhood and work. The opportunity to balance roles was not fully utilized even when the father had fewer work demands because of cultural expectations by mothers of motherhood. Although flextime appeared to address some of the time conflict issues, the cultural expectations and operational decision-making took precedence in daily decisions about work and family time balances.

The role of flextime and other alternative work arrangements in the family and human resource literature continued to increase during the 1980s and rose significantly throughout the 1990s. Support for flextime as a method to balance work and family were presented by Nichols (1982), Shinn, Wong, Simko, and Ortiz-Torres (1989), and Staines and Pleck (1983).

The shape and design of families in America changed during the 1980s. Grossman reported on a trend within the Baby Boomers to never marry or remain as couples (Grossman, 1981). The 1990s would bring a growing awareness of how work and family issues influenced others and changed policy. The Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) started as a parental leave policy. Pressures to include eldercare and different definitions of home prompted supporters to change the name (England & Naulleau, 1991).

Individual Systems Influencing the 1980s

During the 1980s, Baby Boomers completed their entrance into the workforce. Educational institutions had decreased numbers and there were concerns about the quality of education by the end of the 1980s. The Hudson Institute published *Workforce*

2000 and detailed how economics, current management practices, and skills of new workers were in dichotomous positions for future success.

Educational Level Shifts Between 1980 and 1989

Educational levels percentages reflected the general shift in demographics during the 1980s as shown in Figure 4.5. The percentage of people with less than five years of elementary school declined slightly. This subpopulation included older Americans who had limited educational opportunities as children and populations of people with disabilities and other barriers to education. The percentages of males and females with high school education or greater continued the trend of the 1970s. This population segment included Baby Boomers and others who completed high school in programs to encourage education. The percentage of males and females with four or more years of college continued to increase. The percentage of females with college degrees was increasing at a faster rate than the percentage of males.

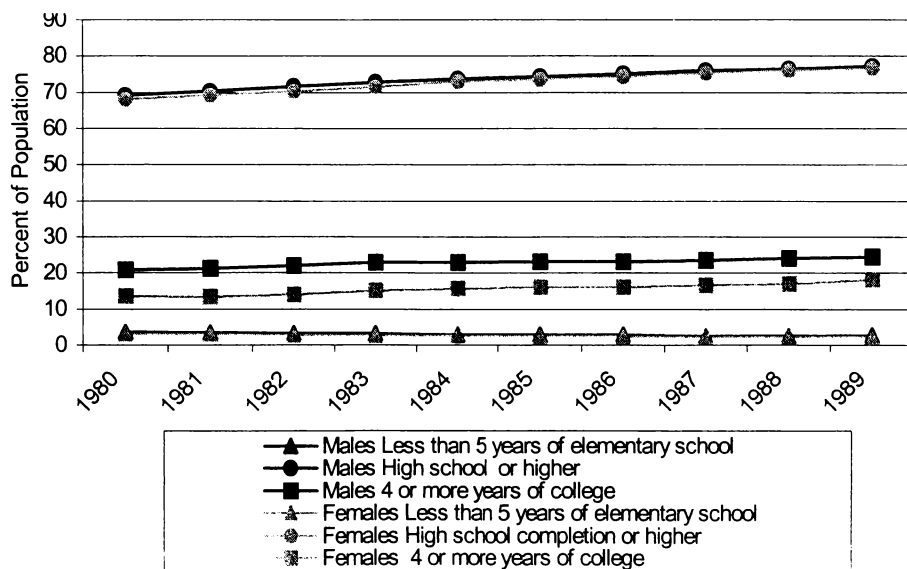


Figure 4.5. Educational levels between 1980 and 1989.

Life Expectancy Level Shifts Between 1980 and 1989

The life expectancy for men and women continued to increase during the 1980s but not at the same rate as during the 1970s. Men's life expectancy rate increased the most about two years. Figure 4.6 depicted the trends.

Consumer Confidence Survey Between 1980 and 1989

The Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) dropped sharply in during the first half of 1980 (recession period) as shown in Figure 4.7. It increased after the election to a high point in January 1981 with Reagan's inauguration. The recession of 1982 caused a sharp decrease in the ratings.

As the nation started to recover the confidence rating increased and maintained a steady rate until 1987. In October 1997, the stock market crashed and confidence wavered. Consumer confidence continued to grow for the remainder of the decade.

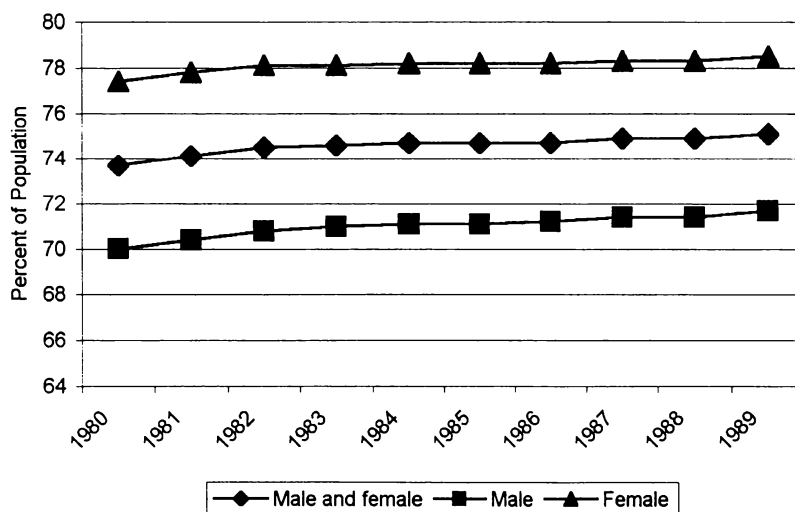


Figure 4.6. Life expectancy rates between 1980 and 1989.

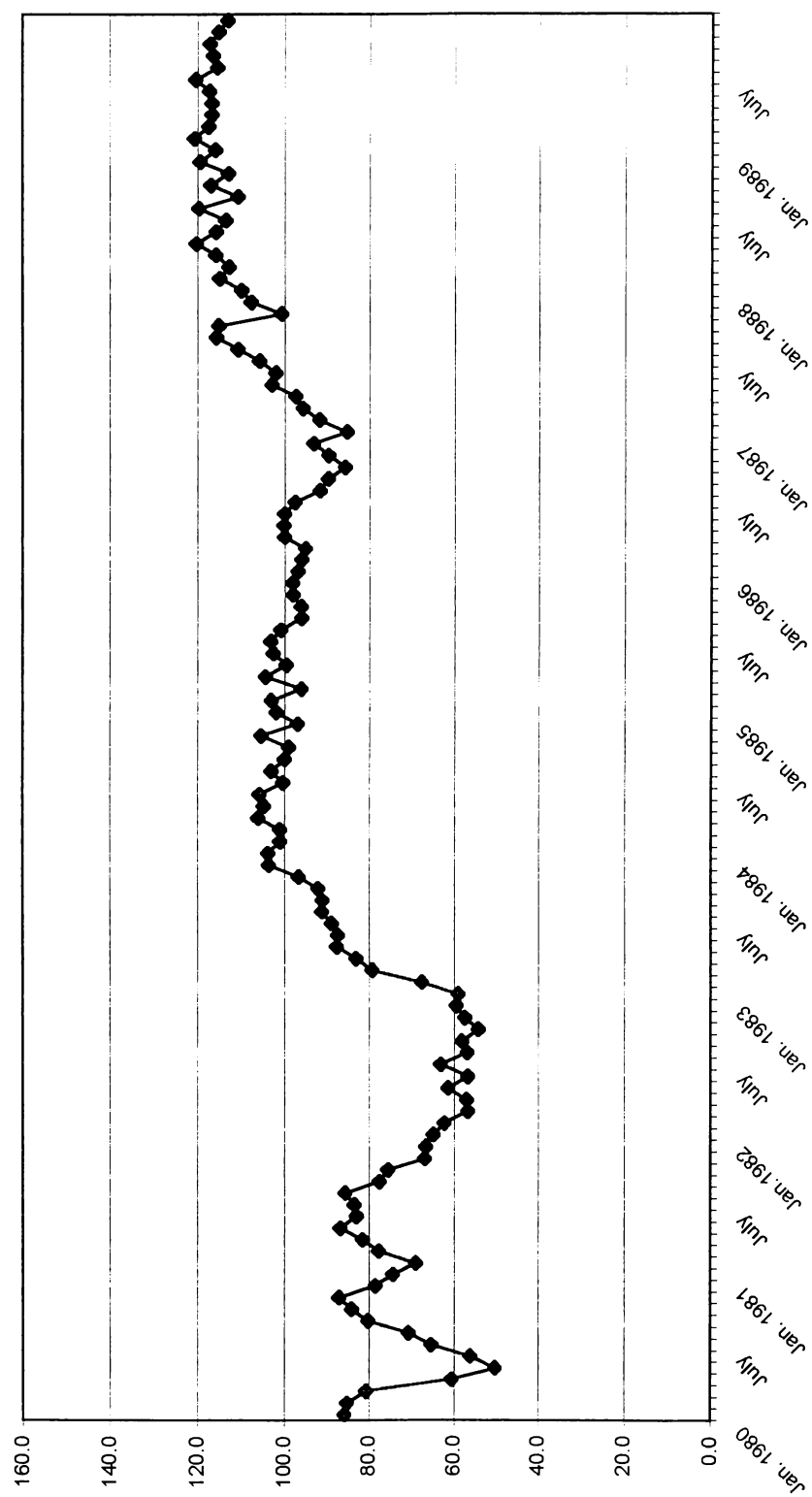


Figure 4.7. Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) between 1980 and 1989.

Data Collected From Cohort Two

The participants representing the median age in 1985 were all female. The summation of the general demographics in Table 4.5 included information reflective of the general literature about women in the 1980s. All of the 11 participants were actively in the labor force: one in family business, two in clerical positions, three in general services, and five in administrative or management positions. All increased their occupational status since 1985. All with children (10 of 11) relied upon family or hired supports to manage work/children demands. All commented that their present positions were more demanding than the positions held in 1985. Five respondents commented on gender discrimination in the workplace and four commented that discrimination continues in today's workplace with wages and promotions.

Cohort Two did not have any differences within the sample for gender. Occupational differences reflected income levels. One professional human resource director had a nanny for her children to free her for travel. All women reported more life satisfaction and more multi-tasking in their current work positions.

Summary of the 1980s

The 1980s were a time of recovery from the shock of lost prominence as nation and a renewed sense of making things work. The economy improved with various interventions. In the workplace, the Baby Boomers arrived and started to move into increasingly more important positions. They had children and wanted increased system supports. In some areas, systems existed and were supportive such as the government. However, government employment, although it grew during the 1980s, was not the

Table 4.5

Cohort Two Demographics

Participant Number	State	2001 Age	1985 Age	Sex	Educ 1985	Later Educ	Children 1985	Marital Status 1985	Occupation 1985	Occupation 1995
1	VA	54	33	F	High School	Technical School	3	M	Cafeteria Manager	Supervisor
2	AL	54	33	F	High School	Some College	4	M	Owner/Operator	Nonprofit Agency
3	TN	53	32	F	High School	Training	1	M	Personnel	Customer Service
4	MI	49	28	F	2 Yr College	None	1	S		Secretary
5	TN	52	31	F	High School	Training	1	M	Bank Branch Manager	VP Bank
6	TN	52	31	F	Graduate School	None	0	D/R	State Director Nonprofit	Executive Director Nonprofit
7	TN	53	32	F	2 Yr College	Training	1	D/S	Personnel	Payroll Supervisor
8	TN	54	33	F	College	Attended Graduate School	2	M		HR Director
9	WA	50	29	F	High School	Graduate	3	D/R	Coordinator University Communications	Business Manager Nonprofit
10	TN	52	31	F	High School	Training	1	D/S	Secretary	HR Manager
11	AL	54	33	F	College	Training	2	M	Sales/Aide	Research Assistant

primary employer of the new workforce. As private businesses embraced the Baby Boomers, there were problems. As manufacturing struggled, more people went to work in the services arena. With the changing workplace, the role of the HR department was more visible. However, the role of management was influential on the lives of individual workers with outside lives. The model in Figure 4.8 illustrated the cumulative interactions of variables impacting flextime during the 1980s.

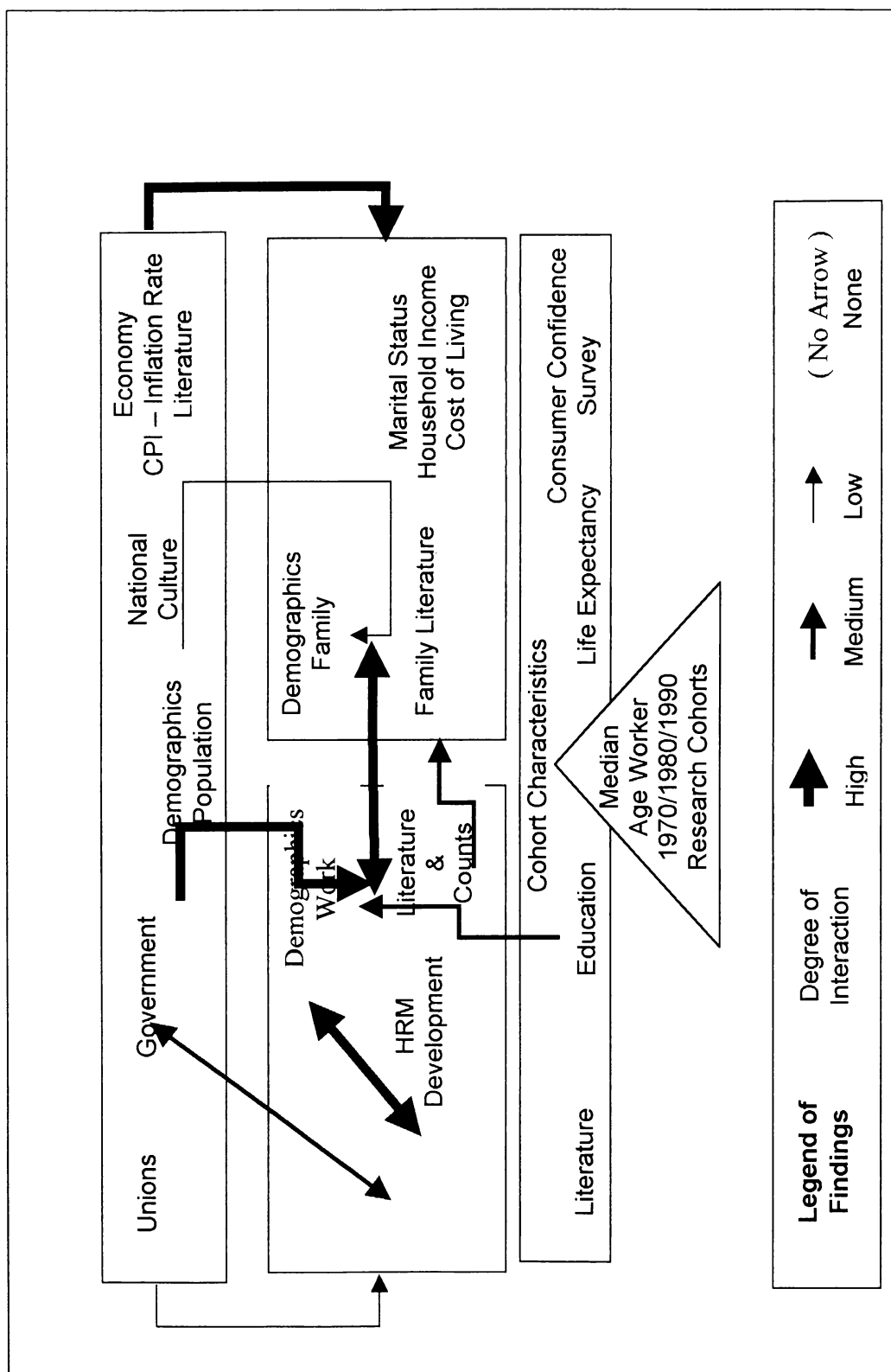


Figure 4.8. 1980s model on the emergence of flextime.

CHAPTER 5

THE 1990s: THE DECADE OF OPPORTUNITY

During the 1990s, impacts on the American working force included new and old issues. The 1990s, a time of unparalleled economic growth and new technology such as the computer technology, the internet, and advances such as cellular phones and DVD products, changed home and work. The cold war officially ended but new fears emerged to challenge feelings of security. Events such as the school shootings (Columbine, Arkansas, and others), racially motivated riots (Los Angeles and Philadelphia), and bombings of public spaces (former World Trade Center in 1993, Oklahoma City, and Atlanta Olympics) challenged perceptions of freedom and security. Recurrent themes such as sexual tension surfaced during the Clarence Thomas Supreme Court Hearings and Impeachment hearings of President Clinton. The 1990s were a period when Americans had many opportunities to realize the importance of freedom, prosperity, and values in family and work.

National System Variables Influencing the 1990s

General Population Age Distribution Shifts Between 1990 and 1990

During the 1990s, the distributions of the age percentages of the general population were more evenly distributed as shown in Figure 5.1. The percentage of children under the age of five decreased slightly over the latter years of the decade. This shows the aging of the early Baby Boomers beyond childbearing and the tendency of the next generation towards smaller families or no children. The percentages of the population in the 5-14 and the 15-24 age groups were fairly constant during the 1990s. Notable increases in the

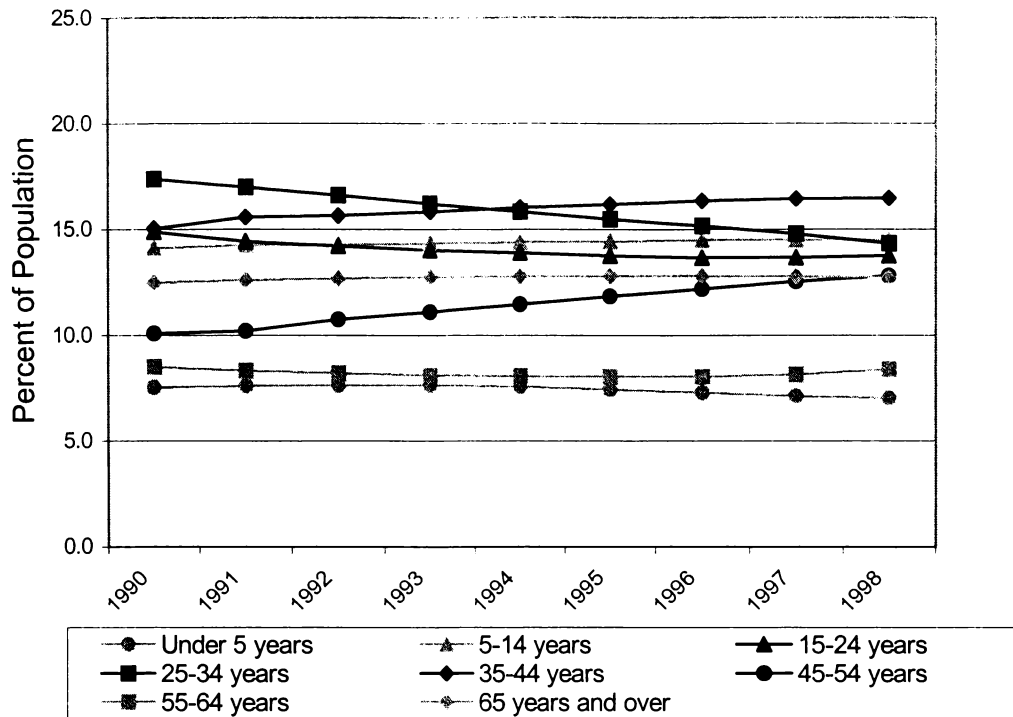


Figure 5.1. General population age distribution between 1990 and 1998.

percentage distributions for the two age groups in the Baby Boomer range (35-44 and 45-54 age groups). The percentage of people 55-64 continued the slight decline of the earlier decades but leveled out with a slight increase near the end of the period. The percentage of the population 65 and older continued at a steady rate. The population percentages distribution were more stable by the 1990s. The impact of the population of children of the Baby Boomers started to influence the figures of young children.

National Culture Context Between 1990 and 1999

Significant events from history books impacting political, economical, social, and recreational aspects of the American culture during the 1990s were summarized by date in Table E.1 located in Appendix E. The 1990s included a wide range of events.

Federal Executive Government Context Between 1990 and 1999

In 1992, George Bush lost his bid for a second term to William (Bill) Jefferson Clinton, former Governor of Arkansas. Bush had issued a statement in his first campaign of “read my lips, no new taxes” that began a theme for the opposing candidates during the campaign. Ross Perot played a significant role in the outcome of the election and received 19% of the popular vote. The reactions of Americans to government during the 1990s were varied. The Gulf War to free Kuwait had mixed reactions among Americans as well.

President Clinton signed the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) of 1993, proposed changes in government, and promoted opportunities for women with the appointment of Janet Reno (first female attorney general) and Madeleine Albright (first female secretary of state). In 1994, the Republican Party gained control of Congress and created new tensions in Washington. The lawsuit by Paula Jones in 1998, followed by a civil suit, and the Monica Lewinsky affair limited Clinton’s political agenda. In 1998, the U.S. House impeached him for violations of justice and the U.S. Senate acquitted him in 1999. The nation was torn on what constituted private and public life.

Federal Legislation Context Between 1990 and 1999

A small number of legislation acts related to this study became law in the 1990s. The significant actions were summarized in Table 5.1. The House of Representatives passed legislation that allowed employers to offer paid time off instead of wages for overtime work. With strong union opposition, the bill stalled in the U.S. Senate during

Table 5.1***Significant Legislation in the 1990s***

Title and Year	Code	Summary
Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (ADA)	42 USCS 12101 nt.	Made illegal practices of discrimination against people with disabilities in employment and provided for reasonable accommodation
Clean Air Act of 1990	29 USCS § 655 nt.	Set standards for larger city emissions and pollution in order to protect the earth's ozone layer and limit global warming.
Immigration Act of 1990	8 USCS §§ 1101 et seq.	Provided access for increased numbers of immigrants based upon training and expertise
Civil Rights Act of 1991	42 USCS § 1981 nt.	Granted compensatory damages and clarified limitations on unintentional discrimination
Glass Ceiling Act of 1991	42 USCS § 2000 e nt.	Established commission to study and recommend on discrimination in management against women and minorities
Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993 (FMLA)	2 USCS §§ 60 m. 60n.	Employers with more than 50 employees were required to grant workers unpaid leave for family or medical reasons

the 105th Congress. For employees with flexible schedules, the bill was a positive move. However for the workers who with fixed schedule positions that accommodated family, the bill would have been disastrous. Employers could expect 80 hours of work per two-week period, overtime would be mandatory, and with time instead of pay (Koch, 1998).

Koch reported (1998) that the Clean Air Act of 1990 increased telecommuting. The 1990 amendments required employers in pollution-plagued cities to reduce the number of single-occupancy commuting trips of employees. With Republican control of both houses of Congress in 1995, an amendment was passed reducing pollution controls to optional for employers (p. 709).

Raiser (1992) reported on a mock jury for an Americans with Disabilities (ADA) of 1990 case. The jury decided for the plaintiff and fined the company in a suit. The drama included how the jury discussed family, friend, and known incidents to support ADA issues. Many HRM leaders voiced concern about the impact of ADA on employment practices. Bland (1999), Pimental and Lotitio (1992), Solomon (1992b), and Barlow and Hane (1992) outlined critical points and applications of the ADA. Segal (1997) summarized *Sutton v. United Air Lines, Inc.* (No. 97-1443, 1999). The intent of the law was further defined with the test cases. The Supreme Court's ruling on corrective measures was a significant event in ADA history.

The Civil Rights Act of 1991 reversed previous U.S. Supreme Court decisions on intentional discrimination (Zall & Kobata, 1992). The Act created discrimination victim rights to compensatory, punitive damages and to jury trial. Zall reported that President Bush opposed the legislation because he perceived that it could lead to "quotas" (p, 46). The legislation was supported in part from the negative fallout from the Clarence Thomas hearings, increased pressure from women and minority groups, and republican legislators who were afraid not to pass it during an election year.

The continued development of OSHA standards and meanings was covered in the literature. Gray and Jones (1991) reported on their study of the longitudinal impact of OSHA visitations on the improvements in workplace safety. They showed how plant visits reduced the total number of violations. Murphy, Barlow, and Hatch (1992) detailed the ruling on blood-borne pathogens in response to rising concerns over health field (and other) employee exposure to diseases such as AIDS. Scherer, Brodzinski, and Crable

(1993) reported on the impact of the human factor in workplace safety. Analysis of the database on accidents revealed that between 1976 and 1990 employee error was the leading cause but it decreased over the period. However, accidents due to equipment and lack of procedures increased.

Thompson (1999) reported his interview with Charles Jeffres, the new director of OSHA. Jeffres' concerns included OSHA proposed ergonomics legislation to prevent musculoskeletal disorders, revisions of employer record keeping, and required health and safety programs for workers. Atkinson (1999b) outlined employer rights and responsibilities with OSHA inspections. In a subsequent article, Atkinson (1999a) presented OSHA as strategic business partner for HRM. Many HR professionals thought a good relationship with OSHA representatives could positively impact productivity and profit.

Hundley (1992) wrote about the continued impact age discrimination despite the Age in Discrimination Act (ADEA) of 1978. The job market changed and more professional workers competed for fewer positions. Problems identified included: (a) youth recruitment practices, (b) the suitability of succession in work groups, (c) maximum experience limits, and (d) current unemployment.

The most controversial legislation was the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) of 1993. Congress passed the bill under George Bush's administration and he had vetoed the legislation. President Clinton signed the bill as part of his family agenda. England and Naulleau (1991) detailed the history of the FMLA. The bill was first introduced in 1984 as 'parental leave' but later evolved to include eldercare. Ann

Launders reportedly supported the bill in her daily newspaper column with national distribution (England & Naulleau, , p. 97).

Many companies voiced concern over the economic impact of FMLA (1993). Gunsh (1993) predicted financial burden of the FMLA would vary by industry. Cross-training of the workforce and improved communication were recommendations for HRM to proactively offset the projected costs. The U.S. General Accounting Office estimated an increased insurance coverage cost of \$674 million. Other studies predicted cost increases from unpaid maternity leave and infant care need to double to over \$10 million yearly. The companies with larger female workforces faced lost profits, loss productivity with temporary workers, and increased insurance costs. In some companies, the fear was specific over the impact on female workers. Martinez (1994) explained most companies had a leave benefit but legislation caused increased paperwork and costs. Different perspectives from HRM directors with existing policies included a flexible package of options to meet employee, family, and company needs.

The family friendly legislation caused concerns for employers. Leonard (1999b) described how initial supporters of the FMLA (1993) changed their minds after the Department of Labor (DOL) issued rules and regulations for enforcement. Many companies had viable programs dissipated with the burden of the DOL administrative requirements. Leonard shared a 1997 SHRM survey indicating that 60% of HRM respondents had problems with the rules and regulations of reporting. The report described how many HRM departments had outsourced FMLA administrative tasks.

Waldfoegel (1999) presented the objective government perspective that the FMLA (1993) impacted positively the number of employees receiving family leave coverage. There was a noticeable increase in the availability of paternal leave coverage. Smaller firms not covered by the FMLA were an important state legislative topic.

The U.S. Supreme Court Decisions Context Between 1990 and 1999

A summary of the major Supreme Court decisions during the 1990s was included in Table 5.2. Decisions included judgments concerning union memberships, retirement policies, OSHA standards, discrimination, and the ADA interpretations.

Union Activities From the 1990s Literature Review

By the 1990s, the American union persona changed. Jost (1996) evaluated the status of unions for *Congressional Quarterly (CQ) Researcher*. From his research, the political and social strength of unions peaked in the 1950s. With demographic and geographic shifts during the 1960s and 1970s, the types of new jobs created as white-collar did not support or need union intervention. With increasing protection from government legislation for worker safety and retirement, the issues of unions became less of a factor. During the Republican administrations, the emphasis on business over labor impacted the political strength of labor issues. There were indications unions were trying to mold images to appeal to the changing workforce.

Situations such as strikes in professional sports and the role of unions drew little sympathy from the average American. Many felt that sports figures made too much money with contracts and commercial endorsements. For many American sports fans, exposure to union activities during the baseball strike of 1995-1996 caused

Table 5.2***1990s Supreme Court Decisions***

Date	Case	Reference	Summary
1990	NLRB v. Curtin Matheson Scientific, Inc.	110 S. Ct. 1542 (1990)	Ruled that employer's good faith doubt could not prohibit from employing qualified worker who was a union member
1991	UAW v. Johnson Controls	499 U.S. 187	Court upheld company policy to not let pregnant women work in environments with high levels of lead
1995	Varitz Corp v. Howe	116 S. Ct. 1065	Ruled that employee could sue employer for fraudulent statements about subsidiary's business outlook and retirement fund security.
1995	NLRB v. Town & Country Electric, Inc.	34 F.3d 625 29 U.S.C. § 158 (a) (l)	Ruled that an employee can work at a company and received wages from union at the same time. Ruling on the practice of salting used by unions to gain access.
1997	Bronk V. Mountain States Telephone and Telegraph, Inc. d/b/a US West Communications	140 F. 3d 1006	Pension plans had to specifically provide for inclusion of contingent or temporary workers. Leases workers were not covered under the plans of ERISA.
1998	McKay v. Toyota Motor Manufacturing, U.S.A., Inc.	DC Eky, No. 93-492	Employee with carpal tunnel syndrome did not qualify for restitution under ADA. She could perform a number of other jobs.
1998	Burlington Industries, Inc. v. Ellerth	118 S.Ct. 595 (1998)	Employees did not have to submit or suffer any tangible consequences to sue for quid pro quo sexual harassment
1999	O'Connor v. Consolidated Coin Caterers Corp.	U.S. S. Ct., 95-354	Ruled discrimination was illegal even when the new employee was considered a member of the protected group under ERISA.

a general disillusionment about baseball, players, owners, and unions (Staudohar, 1997). In basketball, the lockout of 1998-1999 produced similar effects with a loss of fan support (Staudohar, 1999). The perception of the inflated sports salaries and endorsement packages influenced a negative perception about union support for the common person.

Union sympathy efforts were successful with the situation and publicity surrounding the UPS strike of 1997. Caudron (1997c) reported that the 15-day Teamsters supported strike crippled the country's package delivery system and cost UPS more than 700 million dollars. The Teamsters selected UPS for a strategic strike to illustrate the plight of the contingent or part-time worker. During the normal business day, UPS used part-time workers to strategically staff for peak demand periods in order to meet delivery schedules. Wages for part-time workers were above average. Following the conclusion of the strike, UPS was overwhelmed with employment applications. Americans were sympathetic to the workers, according to Caudron, because most working people knew their UPS driver and most sympathized with the anger of the workers over the corporate policy to hire part-time workers with the promise of fulltime positions that never materialized.

Nearly 15% of America's wage and salary employees belonged to unions or similar trade groups in 1995 (Wooton, 1996). Almost 38% of government workers and more than 10% of private, nonagricultural workers belonged to unions (p. 42). Hirsch and Schumaker (1998) reported wage effects of union membership were greater for lower skilled workers. Analysis of skill sets among union and nonunion organizations suggested union companies were more likely to have labor forces with homogeneous skill sets.

Relationships between unions and management changed during the 1980s and continued to evolve in the 1990s. Masters and Atkin (1999) evaluated union activities and found a new value-added agenda to strategically position unionized firms to compete in the increasingly complex marketplace. They felt that employees and employers benefited from this changed union perspective. Stuart (1993) summarized how business partnerships between management and unions were viewed as important method to increase productivity and position American companies for global competition. Thomas (1991) summarized how unions and management groups worked together to strategize how to work with the impacts of technology. Union involvement was limited by intra-organizational power struggles, resource allocations, and uncertainty in technology applications.

There were different perceptions about the success of unions during wage negotiations. Sleemis (1992) reported most major collective bargaining settlements were higher than contracts they succeeded. Williamson (1995) concluded contracts negotiated during 1994 average wage and compensation changes were less than previous contracts for the third straight year. The trend for the 1990s in labor and management practices included more cooperative provisions to strategize productivity for competition in the global marketplace (Gray, Myers, & Myers, 1999).

Cutcher-Gershenfeld, Kochan, and Wells (1998) reported a survey of management and union negotiators assessing the future of collective bargaining. The survey responded to Clinton's 1993 order for federal agencies to conduct performance reviews to ensure continuous improvement. A stratified sample of 1,050 contract notices

from 1993-1996 listings at the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service also included contracts from the first-contracts negotiations bargaining unit. Different types and sizes of contracts were represented. Stratification included using contracts with one half representing bargaining units of 250 or less and the rest representing larger groups. The chief negotiators for unions and companies were contacted. There were 777 union respondents and 780 employer participants. The sample was statistically weighted for balance. Union respondents perceived that factors influencing collective bargaining such as wages, global competition, and benefits were more influential in the process than management.

According to Cutcher-Gershenfeld, Kochan, and Wells (1998), contracts negotiated included 94% for wage increases and less than 50% of the contracts contained new work systems aspects. Strikes occurred in 4% of the negotiations. One of the main findings was that management issued threats of plant closings and replacement workers to apply pressure before threats of strikes. The information on first contracts indicated that one-fourth did not produce agreements and the threat of strikes and replacement workers were often the cause of contract failure. The future of collective bargaining was questioned.

Collective bargaining in 1990 issues included health care, wages, pensions, and job and income security (Cimini, 1991). Talks in 1991 were influenced by the recession, competition, deregulation, higher health care costs, and the impact of the Persian Gulf War (Cimini & Behrmann, 1992). In 1992, the impact of stiff foreign competition and cutbacks in defense and automobile manufacturing influenced management's perceptions

of contracts (Cimini, Behrmann, & Johnson, 1993). Many companies subcontracted work to non-union shops and built plants in other countries. These actions caused plant closings, staff reductions, and increased pressures for productivity in workers. Cimini, Behrmann, and Johnson noted that health care was the major bargaining conflict.

During 1993, a trend emerged for more cooperation between labor and management on innovative approaches for mutual benefit (Cimini, Behrmann, & Johnson, 1994). Negotiated contracts predicted the emergence of more high-performance workplaces, increased worker productivity, empowerment, responsibilities, and rights (p. 20). Management created more opportunities for union leadership with representation on company boards, increased fiscal information, and company management input.

As the economy improved in 1994, there were increased incidences of conflicts over job security, the costs of benefits, and concerns over work rules. Cimini and Muhl (1995) reported on the trend for employee reduction in highly concentrated union industries concerned labor as a whole. Many companies worked with restructuring programs in response to external conditions. For many manufacturers, continued impact from foreign competition, defense cutbacks, technological change, deregulation, and declines in demand for specific products or services impacted management practices. In cases where unions resisted the management efforts for change, the negotiations and threats were more volatile than in years past.

By 1995, the efforts of unions in general concentrated on reorganizations and makeovers to attract more workers. Cimini (1996) reported that organized labor did not fair well politically during 1995 and mergers with leadership shifts did not improve

general perceptions about unions. Overman (1991) described how unions changed their pitches to illustrate the benefits of unions through alternative marketing techniques and community activities. Unions tried to promote benefits in white collar and highly technical fields with limited success (Boardman, 1999; Kilgour, 1990).

Unions changed with the needs of members. B. Leonard (1999a) described the physical and organizational improvements that AFL-CIO made under new leadership to improve external and internal perceptions about the union. The bottom line approach included an understanding of the need to modernize all aspects of the union's pitch to attract new members and to survive in an increasingly competitive labor venue.

The perspective of HRM on unions changes as well. S. Leonard (1999) presented recent activities of unions including publicity and expanded recruiting efforts to increase membership. She warned fellow HRM professionals of an increased threat from unions. Employees perceived that unions would promote health insurance and higher wages as a result of increased profits from productivity gains. Overman (1997) outlined union concerns and adaptations to the increased outsourcing by companies to control union activities.

Negative perceptions about relationships with management concerned many unions. Gudza (1992) summarized discussions at the 30th United Auto Workers (UAW) convention. Since 1979, union membership declined 43% and automakers announced plans to close a number of plants. Social issues for workers and recent contract negotiations failures caused many union members to feel uneasy about the future of union influence. Leaders promoted that unions started because of uneasy situations and

the current conditions supported a return to unions. However, the move away from the reliance of the Gross National Product (GNP) on manufactured goods diminished the viability of this concept. The influence of the manufacturing based unions weakened as the economy was less dependent on the sale of American manufactured products.

Ng and Maki (1994) evaluated the influence of unionization on human resource management practices. They evaluated 37 HRM practices and found that unionization created a more formal approach to procedures. New hire selectivity was more formal with a mandatory probationary period. Additional findings indicate that training program design and audience impacted union interference. The ability of HRM to provide for general workers concerns limited the impact of unions.

For many, perceptions persisted that union members made higher wages than nonunion workers in the same types of positions. Anderson, Doyle, and Schwenik (1990) compared union and nonunion wages and found that wages were industry specific. Since there had been a decline in manufacturing jobs, the types of data for comparison was misleading in some areas. Overall, union positions continued historical trends with slightly higher wages for similar positions. Wiatrowski (1994) evaluated information from the Bureau of Labor Statistics Employee Benefits Survey. For the first time, comparison data between union and nonunion benefits packages were collected. Union membership typically provided more participation in medical plans and increased retirement benefits when compared with similar nonunion positions.

The union issues for the 1990s included concerns about diminished impact on the wages and benefits structures of American workers and revitalization efforts to develop

more sympathy with the general public. The UPS strike and campaigns to pressure organizations to union demands included the lives of everyday Americans as consumers of services and products. Collective bargaining by major union groups caused less significant impact than in the previous decades of the study. Caudron (1997c) described some of the localized efforts of unions to support contingent workers but the systems impact of unions had diminished overall by the end of the 1990s.

Economic Context Between 1990 and 1999

General Economic Context Between 1990 and 1998

The 1990s decade was a period of tremendous economic growth. The Dow Jones Industrial Average hit 8,000 in 1997 and broke 10,000 in 1999. The major economic indicators existed in uncharted territory.

Leonard (1996) interviewed Frank Doyle, chairman of the Committee for Economic Development for *HR Magazine*. Doyle chaired a committee that guided the research and publication of *American Workers and Economic Change* published in 1996. The report found the U.S. had an edge in the global marketplace due to flexibility of the workforce and the capital market. Under-educated and low-skilled workers were suffering in the economy. Larger companies had fewer low-skilled positions and limited training to high-value employees. Doyle contended that a three-way accountability included individuals, private sector, and government responsibilities. Doyle addressed the issue of productivity and job security. During the 1970s and early 1980s, protection of the American economy with stagnant productivity led to the downsizing of the mid-1980s and 1990s. Japan was in the midst of their downsizing in the mid-1990s. During the

1970s, American productivity was high in world standards but with an increasingly narrow gap between other countries. In order to support the American standard of living, companies increased productivity and profits at the expense of the workers.

Martel and Kelter (2000) reported that by the end of 1999, the 106 months of continuous recovery following the 1990-1991 recession equaled the longest expansion on record recorded during the 1960s. Consumer spending was the largest factor in the continued strength in 1999. Employment growth in the services and higher paying managerial and professional specialty occupations comprised the majority of the positive changes. Caudron (1997a) explained that companies failed to value workers as consumers and customers of American made products.

Gardner (1994) explained that the 1990-1991 slowdown, although milder than previous recessions, hurt more service industry workers. Pfleeger (1996) described how purchases created jobs. By 1993, nearly 66% of all jobs in the U.S. economy were dependent, directly or indirectly, on consumer expenditures (p. 7). Therefore, consumers were responsible for 79 million jobs in 1993. Berman and Pfleeger (1997) explained how consumer purchases, both business and personal, decreased during economic downturns. The necessities were education, drugs, insurance, and food-related activities. Good and services were more expensive during the 1990s.

The NBER (2001) officially listed a sharp recession between 1990 and 1991. The recession ended in August 1991. Gardner, Hipple, and Nardone (1994) wrote that economic growth was slower than other post recessionary periods continuing throughout 1992. Long-term economic problems included defense cutbacks and a continued

slowdown in office building construction that resulted from overbuilding during the 1980s.

Inflation impacted by the rising costs of employee benefits for employers (Garner, 1999). As benefits costs rose, many employers downsized and replaced experienced workers with lower status less experienced workers, part-time employees without benefits, and contingency workers. The cost of labor declined but the impact on the existing skilled labor force was more overtime, burnout, and stress caused by variations in the labor force.

Sparks and Greiner (1997) compared the manufacturing productivity numbers for the US and other world economic powers. Their analysis explained theoretically how American productivity numbers had declined in comparison with other countries. During the reference period of 1979-1995, American manufacturing output numbers reflected the wage standards used for comparison. During the 1979-1985 segment, the value of the United States dollar plummeted 7.5% per year relative to competing countries. The value of the dollar rose 5.5% per year and determined unit labor costs. During this period, United States labor costs rose 4% annually relative to comparison countries and therefore negatively impacted productivity measures. By 1995, American productivity figures increased 3.4% with only Sweden, Japan, and Italy with higher growth. After the publication of their work, the formula for productivity was changed to reflect the more competitive American workforce.

Productivity numbers were used as an economy measuring stick. With the surge of jobs in the service sector, the problem of measuring productivity in services became an

issue that many ignored. Triplett (1999) addressed the issue of service industry productivity and found intermediate service industries were not being measured. Industries such as insurance and banking have outputs that were difficult to calibrate under traditional models. The impact of computer technology on productivity and measurements was the focus of the issue. Triplett stated that the slowdown in productivity was real regardless of measurement issues and it impacted the general perceptions about the economy.

Garner (1999) reported that the growth rate of wages and benefits during the 1980s and 1990s increased from the traditional 70% of total employment costs. Professional and management positions with significant benefits costs such as stock options and signing bonuses were not tracked. The Bureau of Labor Statistics tracked a small portion of the employees receiving these types of benefits. As the number of these positions increased Martel and Kelter (2000), the overall costs of business were impacted.

Glosser and Golden (1997) reported that the average workweek in U.S. manufacturing became less associated with the entire business cycle after 1979 in both output and employment. At the end of 1978, manufacturing employment began a downward trend, wages for hourly manufacturing workers reversed historical upwards trend, average overtime hours increased even during the recessions in 1980s and early 1990s, increase in non-production employment, increased investments in technology, and changes in the macroeconomic environment. In the tightening of the monetary market, there were issues of higher employment particularly in production workers, accelerated inflation, and higher interest rates. The weaken dollar impacted international trade

negatively and caused a reduction in investments. They postulated that increased work hours as supported by human resources were a cost reduction method to reduce labor costs and the declining union density facilitated the practice. They cautioned that practices supporting layoffs in specific skill occupations would cause future skilled labor shortages.

Laabs (1999a) reported on a survey of small and mid-sized businesses and owners felt that the economy was going to hit a downward trend or no growth for 1999. Downsizing of 1998 would have global impacts on the economy. More than 4.6 million jobs had been cut from 1988 to 1998 and 1998 was a year of the largest downsizing in history. Downsizing was a management tool to be able to redistribute resources to meet business demands. Due to equal opportunity laws, companies had to fire both good and poor performers.

Consumer Price Index (CPI) Impacts on Context Between 1990 and 1999

The rate of inflation increased steadily during the 1990s as seen in Figure 5.2. The increases indicated that consumers paid \$16.20 for the same type of goods that consumers paid \$10.00 for in the 1982-1984 reference data years.

Energy costs were a considerable expense at the beginning of the decade. During 1990, the economy entered a recession with sharp increases in the CPI due to energy price hike. Thomas (1991) explained that the CPI rose 6.1%, the largest yearly change since an 8.9% increase in 1981. The energy component of the CPI increased 18.1% in 1990 compared with a 5.1% increase in 1989. There were oil production issues and the start of the war with Iraq to free Kuwait.

Light and Shelvin (1998) explained the impact of the 1995-1996 drought in the Midwest on the rising food costs in 1996. The CPI-U for food rose 3.2% in 1996 whereas overall inflation was 3.0% and only 2.7% less food and energy price increases.

Wilson (2000) stated that the CPI-U for all items increased 2.7% in 1999, up 1.6% from 1998. The increase excluding food and gasoline was 1.9% or the smallest increase since 1965. Commodity prices remained nearly unchanged for the lowest increase since 1965. Energy prices increased 13.4 % in 1999 after an 8.8% decrease in 1998. Gasoline prices rose 30.1% due to reduced oil production of the OPEC. Other areas of increased costs included medical care (Catron & Murphy, 1996), airfares, and cigarettes.

The U.S. re-emerged as the world economic leader during the 1980s. Events such as the riots and the emergence of third political parties in presidential elections illustrated

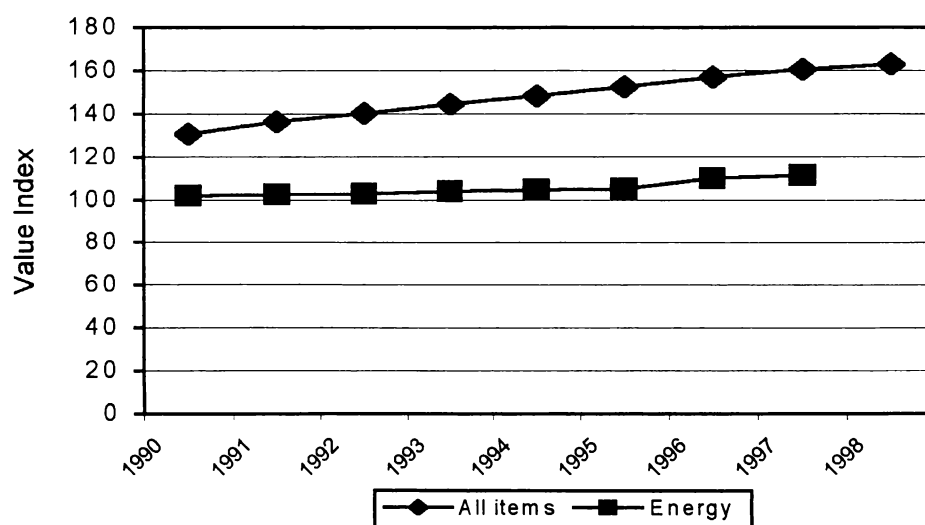


Figure 5.2. Consumer Price Index (CPI) between 1990 and 1998.

the cultural variances of the nation while demographically, the Baby Boomers dominated the workplace with all members between 25 and 45 years of age in 1990, the prime working years. The number of older Americans continued to increase and the impact of sandwich generation issues caused workers to seek supports through FMLA actions and independently through alternative work arrangements.

The legislation of the 1990s addressed issues for individuals with disabilities, with family and health issues, and discrimination. The Clean Air Act of 1990 legislation attempted to provide for the future environment and lost to corporate America pressure on Congress. The U.S. Supreme Court decisions further defined the laws established by Congress to protect workers, families, women and minorities, and people who wanted to enter the workforce. The 1990s national impacts were all influenced thematically by the needs and wants of individuals whether in terrorism, rioting, sexual exploitation, individual workers needing time without extended family, and protection for union activities.

Issues became personal as illustrated by Caudron (1997c) when she wrote about the success of the UPS strike. The average worker knew his or her UPS delivery person and related to the harshness of corporate policy. Although the national events did not directly challenge everyone, there were numerous opportunities to take issues personally, and many people did this from Clinton to Oklahoma City.

Work Systems Variables Influencing the 1990s

The 1990s were a period of unparalleled growth following an early period of recession. Baby Boomers dominated the workforce. Human resource management helped

workers deal with childcare, personal issues, eldercare, retirements, benefits, and career changes. The role of the HRM leader was defined in the daily operations of organizations and the challenge of the 1990s was to become a strategic member of organizations.

Employment Trends Between 1990 and 1998

During the 1990s, the number of people entering the labor force who were previously out of the labor market leveled off as illustrated in Figure 5.3. Unemployment rose slightly with the recession of the early 1990s but decrease to a thirty year low by the end of 1999. The percentage of people working continued to increase after a slight downturn during the recession of the early 1990s.

Human Resource Management (HRM) Literature Review Between 1990 and 1999

During the 1990s, HRM practitioners faced a number of workplace issues. Topics such as benefits, technology, alternative work schedules and practices, diversity, preparations for the next century, and celebrations of the past were covered in the leading



Figure 5.3. Employment data between 1990 and 1998.

HRM journals. The field evolved as a strategic partner in organizations but review of literature illustrated the focus on the operational needs of organizations and workers.

As the world prepared for the new millennium and acknowledged the past, HRM journals reviewed the history of the personnel and HRM. In 1998, *HR Magazine* ("Flashbacks from SHRM," 1998; Losey, 1998) celebrated 50 years of publication highlighting the changes in the emergence of human resource management from the foundations of personnel. *Training and Development* (Galahan, 1996) presented their time line on the development of HRD and HRM. *Workforce* presented a summary across the 20th century highlighting the emergence of HRM with selected events with national impact (Caudron, 1997a). These publications featured partnerships across history and venues and illustrated the open systems of HRM practices that Jackson and Schuler (1995) explained in their model.

As the 1980s ended, *Workforce* magazine gathered distinguished HRM leaders at a roundtable on future HR trends and concerns. Wagel (1990) detailed potential HRM impacts from issues such as employee benefits taxes, elimination of the mandatory retirement age, labor and management relations, environmental and safety regulations, Supreme Court composition ramifications, changing demographic impacts, the labor supply, drug issues, healthcare reform, family/work balances, global competition, and deterioration in the leadership skills in private and public sectors. Each of these topics was multi-dimensional and would have systems impacts on HR operationally and strategically.

Kovach and Pearce (1990) reported on management changes that impacted work, families, and communities. Leonard (1998) summarized CEOs perceptions of HRM in their diverse companies. Business leaders viewed human resources as a strategic partner in the bottom-line success of organizations. Each situation was unique and CEOs recommended financial management training for HRM staff. All companies investigated methods to increase productivity and reduce costs. An understanding of the company's financial situation was increasingly critical for HRM success.

Kanter (1986) wrote a piece for *Human Resource Management* on the philosophy that participative, entrepreneurial management was not the best approach to increase American productivity and competitiveness in the global marketplace. She stressed that the three dilemmas from the workplace practices: (a) impact of increased employee participation on existing pay systems, (b) innovation desires versus management controls, and (c) tensions between equal opportunities for women and the time demands for balance. Companies that addressed these strains on the participative or new management system were more successful and balanced.

As the new millennium approached, future trends, projections, and concerns were common in across disciplines. Burke (1997) summarized basics of current HRM practices including: (a) employee relations, (b) compensation and benefits, (c) selection and placement, (d) training and development, and (e) succession and planning. Nine future issues with appropriate background and readings were summarized for readers. This presentation included: (a) performance improvement, (b) restructuring practices in organizations, (c) organizational change, (d) globalization, (e) groups and teams, (f)

action learning, (g) inter-personal, inter-group, and inter-organizational practices, (h) time shift issues, and (i) micro (organizational) and macro (multi-organizational, societal, or global) power shifts. The time shifts trend included (a) blurring of work and family, (b) the length of work time weekly and lifespan, and (c) the mixing of work and family boundaries with technology.

Organizational downsizing and reorganization for cost reductions continued in the 1990s. Kovach and Pearce (1990) described how manufacturing plants located in strategic geographic areas for labor, transportation, and manufacturing time reductions. Consolidation and streamlining of HRM practices were common in major organizations (Thornburg, 1991). By the end of the century, alternative resources for HRM outsourcing included call centers, internet web pages, and CD-ROM training on basics such as benefits. Computer use in HRM was accompanied by related changes in structure, strategy, and personnel. Broderick and Boudreau (1991) reported on interviews with HRM specialists in ten Fortune 500 companies. They presented a model of computer use to show the steps of integration of computer usage into organizations and HRM departments.

Kemske (1998) summarized the findings of a *Workforce* forecast study on HR issues until 2008. The panel of distinguished HR specialists participated in a Delphi study and created a consensus. From the top six fields, 60 predictions were generated: (a) workforce flexibility, (b) global business, (c) work and society, (d) workforce development, (e) definition of jobs, and (f) strategic role of HRM. Under workplace flexibility practices such as flexibility in hours, more work choices, scheduling flexibility

with more emphasis on work and not hours, less structure in the workplace, and more virtual organizations.

Fears about computer and systems failures at the beginning of the 21st turn of the century created panic. The *Y-2* (or Year-2000) problem received exposure across media sources as people feared that bank accounts and payments systems would fail with the change from 1999 to 2000 in older computer systems. Goetz and Hines (1998) presented suggestions for HRM to deal with anticipated computer problems in the year 2000. They warned that sharing files from computers without 2000 compliance could cause problems in data.

As the new millennium approached, diverse groups anticipated and predicted the future of fields such as HRM. Comeau-Kischner and Wah (1999) predicted HRM issues for the new millennium. Ideas included (a) redefinition of wellness as emotional, spiritual, and physical well being, (b) ethical business practices, (c) expansion of intellectual horizons, (d) emotional balance, and (e) respect employee soul-searching for personal fulfillment.

As legislation and business practices changed industries such as telecommunication, HRM supported displace workers through transitions into new positions and addressed career development issues instead of company longevity. Bencivenga (1997) explained the practice of lifelong employment was archaic. Employers and employees recognized the need for specific training and development. In order for business success, learning organizations positively supported workers and employers to meet changing industry demands were promoted.

In the workplace, the impact of technology eliminated positions and dramatically changed others. Millions of jobs were lost to changes in technology and manufacturing relocations during the 1990s (Rones, Ilg, & Gardner, 1997). For the HRM professionals, worker displacement and the quality of jobs available were major issues of the 1990s. McIntosh (1990) described the changes of the previous five years and suggested changes in HRM practices to enhance future evolution and development of the field. Computers were more common in workplaces. Mirvis, Sales, and Hackett (1991) explained the importance of training and user support for successful integration of computer supports. To avoid organizational problems, it was critical to get the support of management. Trainers addressed issues such as worker age and previous experience with technology.

By the end of the decade, OSHA concerns about computer related injuries prompted a guide for manufacturers on the basic ergonomics of computer use. Richardson and Larsen (1997) detailed how repetitive strain injuries such as carpal tunnel syndrome evolved from blue-collar assembly line issues to white-collar, computer user injuries. Many managers misunderstood the claims and failed to see the relationship to workplace design and practices.

Tyler (1998) wrote about the lack of national ergonomic standards. She predicted that increased usage of computers would cause more cumulative trauma disorders (CTDs) and increase worker compensation claims. Grossman (2000) summarized cautions about ergonomics. Government figures suggested that 1.8 million people per year experience injury from overexertion or repetitive motion. OSHA contended that good ergonomics increased productivity and morale while reducing injury rates.

The workplace became more diverse in the 1990s. Challenges included different generations at work together, women, differences in the labor pool, and adjustments of benefits to accommodate a variety of workers. Kovach and Pearce (1990) summarized HR strategic mandates that included evaluation of the impact of the various demographic groups in the workforce during the 1990s. There would be fewer workers under the age of 25 and fewer retirements from those over 55 years of age. The middle age workers (25 to 54 years old) would be the fastest growing segment until 2000 and comprise 25% of the total population. Staroba (1992) cautioned HRM professionals to evaluate their company demographics carefully. The key was application of creative strategies to allocate financial benefits to meet diverse workers needs.

Different generations with diverse cultural norms were a continued issue in organizations. Concerns about different generational groups included the workplace emergence of the baby bust generation (Dunn, 1993; Flynn, 1996b; Solomon, 1992a). Writings about the Baby Boomers were numerous (Chanick, 1992; Claudron, 1997; Dailey, 1998; Laabs, 1997; Masci, 1998; Sunoo, 1997; Waldrop, 1991). Another group, less defined by cohort labels was older Americans. Some researchers speculated that Baby Boomers would work longer and their adjustments to the older workers in the 1990s would help accommodate the anticipated increase in older workers in the future.

The value of older workers was unknown in many corporations. Steihauser (1998) addressed age bias in corporate cultures. Older workers were presented as viable employees (Barth & McNaught, 1991; Besl & Kale, 1996; Greller & Stroh, 1995). Participation of older workers helped to alleviate anticipated labor shortages and skill

drain (Fandray, 2000; Kindelan, 1998). Poe (1999b) presented innovative corporate policies that helped employees with older workers. Kramer (1995) addressed benefits for older workers and explained that with longer life expectancy rates, more workers would want to keep the option of flexible work for additional income

Segal (1997) illustrated the impact of workforce diversity on meeting the changing, more diverse customer base for service organizations. Jost (1997) presented a historical overview of workforce diversity and stated that a multicultural revolution had occurred during the past twenty years. Diversity training was an innovation of the 1980s but there were still concerns over the ramifications of affirmative action in hiring, firing, and promotion. The business fear of employers was the allegation of double standards from various groups. Flynn (1999) proposed the investigation of labor pool members from nontraditional ranks such former convicts and welfare recipients. With the passage of the Americans with Disabilities Act in 1990, there were new issues about accommodations for workers and customers with disabilities.

Cohen (1991) wrote that benefits for the diverse workforce in 2000 would be the biggest challenge for HRM. Among the suggestions she promoted were opportunities for customized supports and flexible arrangements and hours for workers with small children and eldercare issues. Benefits emerged as a recruitment and retention tool. Gunderson, Rozell, and Kellogg (1995) surveyed college seniors, representing mixed demographics, to ascertain benefit preferences through job information case studies. Although women and family preferred family sick time, the second highest ranking overall was for flextime. Participants stated they wanted balance between work and life.

The stress of downsizing and corporate buyouts promoted a work philosophy for both men and women regarding personal health, mental health, and balance with family issues. Tyler (1999) described the impact of *workaholism* in 1990s American workers. Workaholics, addicted to work, brought work home, and had to be forced to take vacation. Traditionally, companies looked for this type of person, but many companies realized the negative impacts on the company culture. Poe (1999c) encouraged increased vacation time to avoid burnout.

Work life initiatives were very popular during the 1990s. Cauldron illustrated how employees had to choose between work and family. Baby Boomers were caught between their children and their parents (Caudron, 1997b; Laabs, 1998; McCormick, 1992). Laabs stated workers wanted more support for work and family balance. During the 1990s, work and family balance was one of the main arguments for flextime and alternative work arrangements as presented elsewhere. Numerous issues around the need for HRM supports at the operational level existed.

Female labor force participation was encouraged and studied. Shaw (1994) evaluated Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID) data from 1967 through 1987 and found that overall women were either workers or not participating in the workforce. Workers would return after family and other would remain out of the workforce even after family responsibilities. A number of workers originally entered the workforce as replacement workers for retirees. Older women in the workforce were more likely to have sustained employment. Nakamura and Nakamura (1994) compared 1970 and 1980 Consensus data for United States and Canada and investigated if the number of children

and weeks of work could be used as predictive variables for female workforce participation. Although these studies presented reflective information, workforce participation was a personal, individualized decision.

Demographic information about women in the workforce was important. Replacement of professional and managerial women was costly. However, the plight of the female worker with lower education and limited transportation was rarely addressed. MacDonald (1999) in a review for *Journal of Planning Literature* provided a synopsis. The issues of transportation were different for men and women. Women were restricted by location of job, type of job skills, neighborhood constraints, and timing of job in relation to other daily activities with family. The cost of commuting was a burden for women with lower education and income. Women in this group had limited options.

Professional female workers received more attention due to bottom-line issues in organizations. Bass and Avolio (1994) detailed findings illustrating how female managers were better with work teams with a more consensus oriented management style. The Office of Federal Contract Compliance in response to EEOC complaints investigated organizations with federal contracts to ascertain “glass ceiling” allegations (Dominguez, 1990). Stuart (1992) stated that gender bias or “glass ceiling” complaints cost 1% of total operating costs for the typical organization. The predominance of male culture in the workplace changed with more highly educated females in the workplace.

Dominguez (1992) evaluated performance review forms and found different standards for men and women. The male cultural perception was that women were less committed to work overall. Korabik and Rosin (1995) surveyed female MBAs and found

no differences between those with children and without children in critical workplace perceptions. There were (a) met expectations, (b) turnover intentions, (c) commitment, (d) job satisfaction, (e) job characteristics, and (f) perceptions of career progress. However, differences were found between the groups in perceived job involvement and amount of hours worked.

Work-life or work and family programs were a repeated topic in the literature during the 1990s. Martinez (1990) stated not all policies had to be formal. Informal arrangements such as bringing very young children to work would positively impact the family-friendly perceptions of the current workforce. As family-friendly benefits were introduced in companies, turnover decreased, productivity increased, and service-oriented companies retained valuable customers by maintaining relationships with seasoned workers. The theory was that companies should treat a more highly educated, better skilled female workforce as adults with supports to multi-task across work and family venues.

Hand and Zawacki (1994) stated trends such as (a) changing demographics, (b) changing skill levels and values, (c) increased competition, and (d) increased regulation impacted decisions to provide work and family benefits. Solomon (1994a) reported however that family friendly practices were not as prevalent as needed in corporate America. She reported that a panel of 13 experts from HRM practice, academia, and consultation felt that flextime, as the least invasive, was the most popular. Other important benefits such as family care and more direct supports were not as popular.

One of the problems of work and family programs was uncertainty about how to provide them in the real workplace. Szostak (1998) detailed the successful pilot program at Fleet Financial and how they developed the program around measurable results for evaluation. From their findings at one site, they refined the program for continued application and developed programs for other locations.

The presence of mothers with small children was an important topic during the 1990s. Klerman and Leibowitz (1994) evaluated CPS data between 1979 and 1988 to look at the labor force participation trends for mothers following childbirth. They found that mothers who returned to work within three months were more likely to be working when children were three years old. In addition, they noted that mothers who worked during pregnancy and had maternity leave were more likely to return to the workforce.

Marshall and Kramer (1993) described prenatal benefits as supports of new mothers that helped reduce later complications. Thompson and Francesco (1996) wrote about the role of top management in addressing employee pregnancy. Lande (1990) evaluated data on the employment status of first time mothers. The mother's relationship with her employer and job status influenced choices. Women worked through pregnancy and returned to work more quickly than in the past. Maume (1991) looked at the relationship between childcare costs and the quit rates for mothers. Weekly childcare quality affected quit rates. Issues such as wages or work status (fulltime or part-time) were not issues related to quitting in Maume's study.

Mothers in the workforce need childcare support options. Kossek and Nichol (1992) surveyed employees about onsite daycare, an important benefit for those with

families. Ribar (1992) looked at the negative impact the cost of quality daycare. Mothers with higher wages were more likely to work but as the costs of daycare increased, they were more likely to quit. The cost of quality daycare, as defined by the parents, was directly related to the labor force participation. These studies evaluated different groups of women in different time frames. The reality was daycare availability was a factor of economics.

Perceptions about the role of fathers evolved during the 1990s. Poe (1999a) described how dual career marriages changed the role of husbands. When questioned, men wanted the same thing as women, a healthy balance between work and family. Delong and Delong (1992) looked at the impact of work by occupation and other variables on the father in families. For those in authoritative or management roles, it was difficult to switch roles. As the 1990s progressed, men took on elevated childcare roles. During the data collection of this project, one of the research participants shared that she managed several men who worked flextime to accommodate their children's needs while their wives were in professional level fulltime careers.

Childcare was not the only family care issue influencing HRM during the 1990s. Eldercare affected many professional workers and therefore their situations created challenges in the workplace. As more women were in professional or management positions, the impact of family was more apparent. Gender differences about eldercare expectations and the cost to household income were economically and culturally based (Dwyer & Seccombe, 1991). Gerbman (2000) explained as women contributed more to their household incomes, they were less likely to exit from the workforce to care for

elderly parents than in previous generations. With smaller families, living greater distances apart, the care of elderly parents and relatives affected the work lives of more women. Singleton (1998) defined these issues and provided examples of solutions. The challenges such as regional and state differences in care options (Walter, 1996), the unpredictability of the responsibilities and care decisions (Solomon, 1999), and the issues of worker supports to deal with sudden family or personal care while maintaining work obligations (Wells, 2000) created new opportunities for HRM supports. For many workers, the support of the immediate supervisor was still an important variable. The balance between management productivity needs and customer satisfaction and the worker conflicts were often handled through HRM directives. Family care issues became very complex in the 1990s. The extensive and overlapping roles of women influenced work and home interactions.

Judiesch and Lyness (1999) researched the impact of leaves of absence on career development and wage increases in a national organization. One of the problems with the study was the small number of males taking leaves and the impact on the sample size for comparisons between male and female workers. They found that women were more likely to take leaves or sick time in order to care for family members. Longer leaves for maternity, healthcare for elderly relatives or sick family members, and paternity leaves impacted both wages and promotions. The length of time taken after childbirth diminished during the 1980s. Judiesch and Lyness suggested that perceptions about wages, promotions, and the work place culture influenced decisions that were unhealthy for mothers and children.

Different expectations for employees and employers existed about work expectations. Lucero and Allen (1994) summarized literature on the psychological contracts of employee benefits. The expectations of benefits changed dramatically during the 1960s and 1970s. Expectations were affected by (a) federal legislation, (b) increases in the value and cost of benefits, (c) promotion of tax advantages and group purchasing power, and (d) evolutions in social reforms in leaves and childcare promoted by changing demographics. During the 1980s, benefit availability declined due to increased costs, problems with healthcare options, and increased diversity of the workforce.

Hetrick (2000) reported that since the end of the recession in March 1991, overtime increased to the highest weekly average since the 1950s at 4.9 hours. Companies were more likely to increase overtime than to hire new workers. As the overall number of manufacturing jobs decreased, highly skilled workers were more likely to work overtime. The issue of work and life balance was secondary to the need for employment in certain sectors.

Exempt employees worked longer hours but without overtime. Sunoo (1999) warned that many employers were mislabeling exempt employees to avoid overtime pay. The confusing wording of the Fair Labor Standards Act (1938) and subsequent amendments compounded the exempt status requirements. Employee rights were violated by many scheduling and work options popular in the 1980s and 1990s. She presented tips for dealing with Department of Labor (DOL) investigation visits and she clearly defined the requirements for exempt employees. Alderman (1995) recommended that employees who felt overworked to determine the essential functions of their positions and to

approach their bosses with the assessment. The problem was exempt employees were not covered by the FLSA (1938).

Overworked employees were a critical HRM concern in the 1990s. Laabs (1999b) summarized issues on overworked employees. Numerous examples of workers taking drastic means such as starting their own businesses were cited. Economic, technological and business factors such as downsizing, the skills shortage, and low unemployment have caused overtime and burnout for many left in their jobs. Corporate America operated at crisis mode successfully for a period of time and managers expected that level of commitment to continue. As reported by Hetrick (2000), nonexempt weekly hours rose during this period. A 1997 Work and Families Institute study reported that exempt weekly hours rose from 45 to 48 hours on average from 1970 figures. *Workforce* reported in a 1993 *Working Smarter* section that 95% of the workers surveyed worked more than 45 hours per week (Laabs, 1999b). Laabs charged that HRM should determine workflows and create balance for overworked employees. Employees needed time for life and to be creative in order to perform at required levels of performance. Solomon (1991) explained the impact of employees working two full time jobs, one at work and one at home.

The stress of the modern workplace required management support for workers. Clark (1995) edited a series of pieces on the impact of modern day stress on workers and their families. Technology limited the ability of many workers to escape work while at home. Clark suggested that some groups of workers joined unions to avoid the stress of job security and benefits issues personally. With the modern societal demands for workers, emotional depression increased. Stress influenced the ability to think and

perform work. Current downsizing and technology changes affected middle managers. Van Auken (1992) wrote that supervisors needed to change their perceptions about managing the workforce. Supervisors could not control workers and limit the application of technology. Supervisors were the key to flexibility success.

As the number of professional positions increased and employees felt less allegiance with downsizing, there were issues about intellectual property rights in the 1990s. Hirschman (2000) described how technology and information transfer blurred the intellectual property perceptions in modern service and professional organizations. The issue was particularly salient with the number of professional employees that moonlighted on special projects.

Bridges (1994a;1994b) outlined how rigid job descriptions in many organizations lost impact with cross-training and downsizing. Many managers maintained practices that evaluated work on job performance by narrowly defined tasks or the actual physical presence of the worker at the job. The shift in jobs enabled workers to know and embrace all aspects of work and intuitively apply professional standards. Progressive managers acknowledged of the value of each worker to the work systems. Williams (1999) revisited Bridges' work and encouraged HRM to support the philosophies.

Davidson (1999) shared the Official End-of-the-Millennium State of HR Survey results with *Workforce* readers. Three surveys on different topics were sent to an average of 360 HR professionals. Responses to the perception HR was more strategic included: (a) daily functions were too time consuming and (b) leaders varied on what was important strategically. Refinement of HRM's role in strategic issues depended on

management. Davidson questioned, based upon the responses, if HR envisioned their roles as more strategic than management viewed them.

In summary, HRM literature during the 1990s covered numerous topics concerning work, family, and balance. The discussions prevalent in literature on strategic partnerships were not realized in the workplace. Management concentrated on the bottom line and HRM tried to balance legislation, budgets, staffing needs, and issues such as work and family balance.

Narrative on Alternative Work Arrangements (AWA) Between 1990 and 1999

In general, alternative work options were promoted as methods to increase productivity and job satisfaction ("The future is now," 1995). President Clinton (1997) summarized that flexible labor helped to control costs and reduce employee demands. Work concepts that permitted time flexibility appeared in a variety of work environments. In many situations such as part-time or contract work, the wages were higher but with fewer or no benefits (Hipple & Stewart, 1996). Nonstandard work arrangements attracted workers from diverse backgrounds as a way to establish working credentials. Alternative work options increased workplace diversity (McC Campbell, 1996). Compressed workweek work options were promoted for certain types of jobs. Vega and Gilbert (1997) reported on a case study with law enforcement that resulted in increased productivity and attitudes.

The Federal Government supported alternative options to promote family and work balance and reduce costs. Clinton issued a memorandum directing agencies to develop comprehensive work and family programs on July 11, 1994. The Office of

Personal Management published a handbook on alternative work arrangements including terms, guidelines, and appropriate legislation (Office of Compensation Policy, 1996).

The status of workers in alternative work arrangements was a continued research topic for government departments. Cohany (1996) reported that arrangements varied within groups of workers and when compared to traditional workers. Young women in alternative work were more likely to be in temporary work and contract workers were more likely to be middle-aged or older men. Cohany (1998) evaluated CPS data and determined that one in 10 workers were in one of four alternative work arrangements in 1997. The arrangements were (a) independent contracting, (b) on-call work arrangements, (c) temporary help agency positions, or (d) contractual basis through a specialty firm. One of the departments interested in contractor workers was the Internal Revenue Service. Maddaioni (1999) offered suggestions for meeting the criteria for independent contractors.

By the end of the 1990s, perspectives on alternative work arrangements changed. Two types of alternative arrangements affected the American workplace culture in significant ways, contingent (temporary) and part-time workers. Both alternative options increased opportunities for working outside of the traditional work arrangements.

Contingency or temporary workers reduced labor costs for many organizations to improve profit and productivity. Some organizations used temporary positions as on-site screening situations. Using contingency staff meant that employers did not pay benefits and lost less money with turnover. Part-time positions enabled companies to staff on demand to customer and production needs. Companies used reduced, prorated pay scales

and saved considerable sums of money with part-time staff. United Parcel Service (UPS) workers, members of the Teamster's Union, went on strike to protest the lack of opportunities and working conditions for part-time workers in 1997 (Caudron, 1997c). The increasing reliance of manufacturers on contract or contingency workers was an issue with the AFL-CIO. Burn (1999) reported that the AFL-CIO protested the use of a complex tax law to avoid pension benefits for independent contractors. Cauldron (1998) explained independent contractors cost 30% less than a fulltime employee.

More women worked in part-time positions. Polivka (1996a) wrote that contingent work arrangements were not new or innovative. Substitute teachers were contingent workers and a standard labor practice in education. In 1995, over six million people were classified as contingent or temporary workers. Policka (1996a) stated Audrey Freeman first used the term "contingent" in 1985 to describe just-in-time staffing for managers. Polivka (1996b) explained some segments of the working population were more likely to work in temporary jobs due to unemployment. Many contingent workers used the option to accommodate family or school. Hipple (1998) reported 1997 CPS data indicating the number of contingent workers declined between 1995 and 1997. According to the data, contingent workers were more likely to hold multiple jobs and three-fifths preferred fulltime employment. Occupations of the group surveyed were either high or low skilled jobs.

Sacco (1992) detailed that temporary positions helped employers to diversify services. Real growth in the concept occurred in the 1970s with overloads and special

projects. As more jobs shifted from goods producing to services orientation, the flexible workforce was an important business decision for many companies.

A late 1980s Catalyst study on flexible options for management and professionals reported that 41% of the participants (HRM) felt that mid-management in their companies resisted flexible work options (Mattis, 1990). Flexible options were not used as widely as many perceived due to management concerns. Many companies viewed flexibility options such as a means to increase opportunities to maintain women in the workplace especially after having children.

For part-time workers, the concepts of flexibility were difficult. Employers and employees had different definitions and applications of flextime options (Koch, 1998). During the 1990s, the concept of holiday flextime became popular. Employees were given a set number of Holidays but allowed to select the ones to work.

Graham (1996) presented the findings from a study on flextime at the Chubb Group of Insurance Companies. In 1991, they conducted a work and family needs analysis with more than 7,800 employees and repeated it in 1994. As the workplace was increasingly more demanding, the availability of alternative work arrangements was an innovative approach to recruit and retain quality workers. Millions of dollars were lost yearly to turnover and absenteeism cost the company about \$500,000 per day. For human resources, the flexibility options addressed both employee and senior management concerns.

Research on the use and application of telecommuting dominated the alternative work literature during the 1990s. The National Research Council published a report on

telecommuting covering the link to flextime and research on family and work issue (Technology and Telecommuting: Issues and Impacts Committee, 1994). The role of managers in telecommuting was critical to success. Kugelmass (1995), Gray, Hodson, and Gordon (1993), and Nilles (1994) published guidebooks with supports and recommendations for managers.

Dissertations published during the 1990s researching management perceptions about telecommuting included (Bolling, 1992; Ellis, 1993; Griffith, 1988; Klayton, 1994; Lowry, 1996; Speeth, 1992; Weidner, 1994). Organizational support was researched in relation to the adoption process (Fritz, 1995; Ruppel, 1995; Welchans, 1996; Yen, 1994). Giordano (1989) and Ramsower (1983) investigated the impact of telecommuting on organizational culture. Case studies on telecommuting locations were investigated (LaDouceur, 1990; Meador, 1995; Staker, 1991).

Sturgill (1998) and Belanger (1997) researched communication patterns in telecommuting relationships. Mazzi (1995), Juban (1996), and De Lay (1995) looked at telecommuting impacts on home and family. Other telecommuting research topics included women (Falconer, 1993), professionals (McCloskey, 1997), telecommuter frequency (Mandel, 1995), job satisfaction (Coveyduck, 1997), demand for telecommuting (Westfall, 1997), and personality and work styles (Ross, 1990).

Professional journal coverage of telecommuting was extensive. Cauldron (1992) suggested that telecommuting practices reduced office expenses and traffic congestion while responding to changing lifestyle needs. The organizational needs included qualified employees and training for managers and workers. Gensing-Pophal (1997) explained

how telecommuting started as a flexibility option but later evolved into a tool to reduce costs and employ the best people at a distance. Weiss (1994) reported that telecommuting increased productivity, morale, and lowered business costs.

In 1990, the use of the term telecommuting was not common. Nilles (1994) wrote a practical guide to telecommuting. He coined the phrase *telecommuting* in the 1970s. Edwards (1996) reported findings from a micro-data sample of the 1990 Census of Population. Homebased workers were more likely self-employed, in rural locations, working nonstandard hours, women, and in service industries or occupations.

Filipowski (1992) found a 20% increase in the number of telecommuters from 1991 to 1992. Interagency work center or telecommuting centers became popular in larger city perimeters (Master & Joice, 1993). McQuarrie (1994) questioned the real benefits of telecommuting. Systems perspective issues included relocation of services, distribution of income away from city or established centers, and impacts on the managers and workers left in the central office. For some workers, the appeal of telecommuting was rejected because of the fear of losing corporate presence. Solomon (2000) cautioned human resources staff to remember the issues and needs of telecommuters as part of the standard employment mix.

Reynolds reported that 23% of major companies allowed telecommuting arrangements (1995). Reasons for telecommuting included reduction of current costs, avoidance of future costs, and as a means for younger organizations to meet developmental needs. Capowski (1998) showed that an average company could reduce real estate and operating costs by thousands annually with telecommuting. Apgar (1998)

stated that telecommuting was an ideal situation for workers at IBM, AT&T, and American Express. Deming (1994) reported on 1991 CPS data suggesting that telecommuting was a work option promoted by rural areas as marketing strategy to attract new residents. Dutton (1994) discussed how the California corporate culture changed about telecommuting with the enforcement of Clean Air Act of 1990 and after the San Francisco earthquake of 1993.

During the 1990s, numerous American workers used alternative work arrangements to accommodate life style situations. Cauldron (1998) wrote that the literature focused on employer perceptions but working arrangements were more effective for certain groups of workers. Mothers, people with disabilities, and students preferred alternative options to balance work and life needs.

Ferber and Waldfogel (1998) reported on findings from data analysis from 1979-1993 of the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY). The impact of past part-time work on subsequent or current wages was mediated by gender and whether the part-time position was voluntary. Rothstein (1996) reported 1994 NLSY information indicated that nonstandard work arrangements were more common with the birth of a child or a change in marital status.

Of all of the alternative options, HR and management reported the availability of part-time positions within the regular organizational structure more frequently. Gardner (1996) discussed the issue of hidden part-timers in U.S. labor reporting standards. If an employee worked 35 or more hours, the government classified his or her status for data collections as fulltime. However, the hours and benefits were not fulltime.

The classification of part-time workers was a problem in many respects. Tilly (1990) stated that the federal government classified over 19 million workers as part-time in 1989 or over one-fifth of the workforce. The prevalence of the part-time option was dangerous to the economy. Since 1970, the drive to reduce employer costs was more important than worker needs. Between 1979 and 1989, the number of workers holding multiple jobs with either all part-time or combination increased from 4.9% to 6.2% of the workforce. Tilly reported that 42% of the growth of income differences from annual wage increases from 1998 to 1984 was caused by part-time worker wages and the increasing differences in part-time and fulltime wages.

Tucker (1997) investigated part-time professional workers and perceptions about organizational factors influencing job satisfaction and commitment. Data were gathered from surveys with members of the Association of Part-Time Professionals. Job satisfaction was generally high for the 319 participants. The commitment levels of part-time workers were high and not an issue with performance. Scordato (1990) reported on a Catalyst study with HR managers on part-time workers. Typically mothers with small children used job sharing and part-time options. They started as traditional fulltime employees were offered part-time because of mutual investments.

In many cases, part-time workers wanted to spend less time at work in order to experience other areas of their lives (Brotherton, 1997). For the employer, the valued professional worker had the option to negotiate a balance between life and work. During talent and skill shortages, employers used part-time workers (Leonard, 2000). Williams performed a gross flow analysis on part-time work data and found trends for workers in

different types of positions. He reported that part-time options declined in popularity in the early 1970s. With the recessions of the 1970s and early 1980s, part-time work peaked at 20.6% in 1982. By 1990, 18.5% of the labor force worked part-time.

Narrative on Flextime Literature Between 1990 and 1999

During the 1990s, articles on the use of flextime to address retention, recruitment, and work and family dominated the literature. Fewer empirical studies were conducted. The general perception in some industries was that flextime was an accepted work option in American corporations. However, as Berlinger (1978) cautioned, the literature can be deceiving as to the actual strength of a trend or movement.

Numerous titles suggesting flextime or flexible work options were found during the 1990s literature review. Gittleman, Horrigan, and Joyce's (1998) title "Flexible workplace practices: Evidence from a nationally representative survey" illustrated the challenge of the extensive use of the word "flexible". The reported on using flexible work flow and task arrangement. Christensen (1989) wrote "flexibility" was considered the corporate watchword for the 1990s. Flexible leave, flexible benefits, and flexible vacation were all popular terms in the HRM literature reviewed.

Supervision ("Flexible work," 1990) presented the findings of Christensen's (1989) report on flexible work options. They pointed out that most of the flexible options were limited to women in clerical, administrative, or sales occupations and were rarely available for managers, professionals, and executives. Christensen was quoted as promoting flexible work schedules during the 1990s to address issues of tightening labor markets, projected work force shortages, and increased work-family pressures. The

largest obstacle for human resources was the manager fears of permitting flexibility outside of traditional work systems. The key for changing cultural acceptance was promotion of success stories to influence perceptions about managing outside of norm.

Christensen (1990) explained her 1989 report (Christensen, 1989) in *Across the Board*. She summarized many managers resisted what differed from traditional standards of operations. Unions were hesitant and supervisors thought that flextime workers were difficult to manage. Respondents perceived flextime and flex-place would increase throughout the 1990s. Human resource executives stated that contingent workers and increased use of flextime, job sharing, and home-based work or telecommuting were important 1990s issues. The Conference Board survey indicated management techniques required improvement before flexible options would become readily available for the majority of workers.

Flextime in America had changed during 20 years of application. Olmstead (1995) presented an overview of the history of flexible and alternative work arrangements. Flextime was an immediate hit with American workers and was one of the early scheduling options of the 1970s and 1980s collectively referred to as flexible work arrangements. During the first decade and half, flexible arrangements were informal or ad hoc between workers and supervisors. During the late 1980s, the benefits of flexibility for organizations were published and the relationship between flexible arrangements and profit were featured. Benefits such as reduced absenteeism and turnover were well published. Early flexible supporters promoted it as an accommodation and later to part of the business strategy. The next obstacle was the impact of flexible arrangements on team

workflow and equality. Olmstead presented evidence that offering flextime to all workers and encouraging self-regulation produced very positive results.

By the time of the 1997 May Supplement on Work Schedules to the CPS (U.S. Census, 1997), the concepts of flextime or flexible working time were established. The report stated that nearly 28 % of the workforce reported had flextime arrangements. However, the survey is a self-report and by household not repeated individuals. The questions asked were broad and could be interpreted differently by occupation. The specific question on flexibility was first, “Do you have flexible hours that allow you to vary or make changes in the time you begin and end work?” The issue of whether arrangements were formal or informal was not addressed in the supplemental survey. Beers (2000) explained that the 27.6% included all fulltime workers who varied their schedules to some degree. This number had doubled since 1985 as reported by Mellor (1986). Beers continued that according to reports from the BLS Employees Benefits Survey completed by employers, only 6% of employees had formal flextime or flexible working hours arrangements between 1994 and 1997.

Several authors felt that the use of flextime and flexibility as a descriptor for work in the 1990s was well accepted (Cowans, 1994; Kirrane, 1994; Olmstead & Smith, 1994). Hignite (1999) summarized the 1998 Annual Benefits Survey for the Society of Human Resource Managers (SHRM) and stated “employers were placing a greater emphasis on meeting employee needs” (p. 48). Petrini and Thomas (1995) stated that all 50 state governments used flextime but only Arkansas had a formal flextime policy.

The role of the manager and corporate culture in the availability and application of flextime was a consistent theme of articles in 1990s. Thornburg (1994), Gittleman (1998), and Kossek, Barbers, and Winters (1993) paralleled the merits of flextime with basic total quality management (TQM) management principles. Sheley (1996) and Hignite (1999) warned managers to view flextime as a business strategy and not as an accommodation.

In contrast, several pieces were presented in human resource and management literature on the impact of work and family issues around flexible work arrangements. Hall and Parker (1993) wanted the concept of flexibility to be applied to work and family exclusively. Solomon (1994b) stated that corporate cultures were inflexible with regards to work and family balance. *Personnel Journal* created a work and family advisory board of 13 acknowledged experts to evaluate corporate America on work and family issues.

Silver and Goldscheider (1994) reported on a study conducted with data from the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) on two cohorts of employed women. The first group was between the ages of 33 and 44 years in 1988 and the second group was 52 to 66 years of age in 1989. They evaluated the reported differences in housework and hours worked outside in employment of the two cohorts. Controls included family, job, and demographic variables. Tests were conducted to investigate if flexible jobs had impact on housework hours. The older cohort received more flexible options than the younger cohort members possibly due to seniority, management status, presence of children, or occupation. Older women performed more housework than younger workers on flexible schedules. For the younger women, as the demands of the work increased during the

study time frame, time spent on housework decreased significantly. However, it remained fairly constant for the older workers except when given flextime options.

Many managers were skeptical about flextime. Gottlieb, Kelloway, and Barham (1998) wrote the basic guide for managers, HRM, and workers for flextime in the 1990s. In the tradition of Ronen (1981; 1984), the book provided a framework to understand options for flexibility. Available supports through professional organization chapters, websites, consultants, and special interest groups such as the New York based Work in America Institute were featured. Casner-Lotto (2000) published a guide for businesses on balance in workplace cultures. Flextime was a feature of several organizations presented in case studies.

Higgins, Duxbury, Mills, and Mills (1992) stated that the traditional five-day, 40-hour workweek did not support the changing demographic needs of society. They predicted that during the 1990s that flexible work options would dominate work schedules. Both public and private sector organizations used flextime in order to accommodate more mothers in the workforce, increased father involvement in the care of children, aging workforce, and service sector growth. Olmsted (1990) stated that the 1970s workforce started the trend to think in terms of careers and quality in work.

Fulltime work options often required a customized approach. Boden (1999) reported that females were more likely to become self-employed to achieve flexibility according to data from the 1995 CPS survey. Males selected self-employment independent of family responsibilities. The proportion of women self-employed increased 63% between 1975 and 1990. Care of young children was the reason for self-employment

by one in five of the self-employed respondents. For many women, the reality of flextime was not realistic with family demands.

Ralston (1990) described the contemporary female professional as someone with multiple role conflicts between work and home. In 1990, over two-thirds of all mothers and over half of mothers with children under the age of six were in the labor force. Ralston surveyed 115 women in two southern agencies with 53 on flextime and 62 on traditional work hours. The participants completed surveys on organizational issues ten months after the introduction of flextime. They were not aware that flextime analysis was part of the study. Flextime workers reported reduced childcare issues, lower absenteeism, and improved job satisfaction. Ralston stated that reduced absenteeism was a measure to track performance on jobs where it was difficult to quantify.

The concept that managers were cautious about breaking from traditional management practices was presented by Cowans (1994), Olmstead (1995), Rose (1998), Deutschman (1991), Kirrane (1994), Christensen (1990), Prince (1998), and Rodgers (1992). Boden (1999) stated that “in virtually all cases in both government and private sectors, flexible scheduling was not as much as a worker’s right as it was a privilege doled out at his or her supervisor’s discretion” (p. 81).

Greenwald (1998) wrote that manager support was critical. One of the changes of the 1990s was the increase in the number of professionals and managers on part-time or other alternative schedules (Conklin, 1999; Laabs, 1993). Hall and Parker (1993) thought Taylor philosophies were still applied in organizations. The concept that human work had

to match mechanical requirements for efficiency and accuracy prevailed at the end of the 20th century.

Fundamental corporate issues had to be evaluated. Recent trends indicated that during downsizing, mergers, and acquisitions family friendly options were increased on paper. However, the reality was that business was extremely resistant to flexibility. The problem was the concept of office time. High performers by definition had to be visible. According to Olmsted (1994), issues on flexibility were not programmatic but were cultural and reflected labor force issues. Corporate culture reflected the male philosophies of the business world.

Peak (1994) thought that many companies had flextime on paper but the reality of the availability and support was based on the individual manager perspectives on the program. Graham (1996) wrote that manager acceptance was critical for success and recommended a guidebook for managers. Nelton (1993) introduced the concept of flexible management practices to consider the wide range of flexibility options. Denton (1993) reported on the longitudinal work on flextime by Merck & Company, a leader in family work policies. Denton recommended the development of a flextime coordinator to eliminate some of the strain on managers in the decision making and policing of flextime. Sullivan (1995) and Capowski (1996) recommended targeted training for managers to understand the merits and applications of flexibility. Resnick's (1997) four level process included steps to support and evaluate managers for successful flextime implementation.

Rodgers (1992) summarized findings from survey work conducted by Rodgers & Associates with 20 Fortune 500 companies that reached more than 60,000 employees.

Flexibility was not encouraged by the corporate culture. Focus group findings revealed that flexible options that allowed people to work earlier in the day limited promotions and advancements opportunities. The traditional management perception was that good workers stayed late. “Managers in large corporations were often unwilling to consider a nontraditional solution that involved a different way of organizing, scheduling, or performing work” (p. 190). Family responsibilities limited women’s professional growth and family commitment was viewed as a lack of work commitment. The challenge for the 1990s was to change this perspective that flexibility negatively impacted work and company success.

There were HRM leaders who spoke out against flextime. Peak (1994) stated that she hated flextime because HRM promoted it and the corporate support for the change was not in place. The policies were outlined in manuals but not implemented equally by all managers. It was difficult for managers to fairly treat employees on an individual basis. Flextime was increasingly perceived as a right of employment and not as a reward for good work. Management needed to realize that new measures were needed to measure job success and technology was needed to keep employees in constant communication.

Koch (1998) reported the emergence of flexible arrangements was caused by the change in the demographic composition of the workforce. The number of women working, the increase in dual-career households, and more Generation X workers wanted more balance with work and life. This group witnessed how their parents sacrificed family time to survive in corporate worlds and later downsized during the 1980s and 1990s. She predicted that as more women became managers, the option for flexibility

would be more prevalent. Koch illustrated the development of the Baby Boomer leadership in the late 1980s and early 1990s impacted the perceptions of work and family for corporate America. Between 1985 and 1997, the employer use of flextime doubled from 12% to 27.6% according to government figures (p.708). The federal government led the development, implementation, and promotion of flexible work arrangements. Koch reported that some business leaders argued that the FLSA (1938) provisions limited the ability of corporate America to support flexible work arrangements as private employers.

At issue were workers with limited opportunities and little flexibility. Koch (1998) reported family advocates complain that the low-income workers have the least amount of flexibility and need more time to balance responsibilities on marginal incomes. Another negative issue with flextime is that although a number of companies have it on paper, the individual supervisor does not support it. The informal message of the company culture is to not use flextime or promote family friendly issues. The pervasive American corporate culture included management availability for longer hours and weekends in order to succeed. The Society for Human Resource Managers (SHRM) reported flextime rose from 46% to 55% between 1997 and 1998 according to one of their quick response surveys of members.

Companies offering flextime had more loyal employees. Scandura and Lankau (1997) tested three hypotheses on the relationship between employee commitment and flextime. A random sample of 1,200 potential participants was screened. The study sample comprised of matched pairs of male and female managers included controls for matching demographics. Of the willing participants, 275 total surveys were returned (176

women, 99 males). A total of 80 matched pairs were included. Survey components included organizational commitment scales, demographics, job satisfaction scale, and family information. Women with flextime options reported higher commitment to their organizations and job satisfaction as compared with women without flextime.

Dalton and Mesch (1990) reported on a study in a Midwestern utilities company using a quasi-control design and a time series design. Monthly measures on absenteeism and turnover were tracked for three years before flextime, the single year during flextime, and for two years after discontinuation for one control and one experimental employee unit. They provided an excellent review of the theoretical links between flexible options, absenteeism, and the turnover literature. The primary limitation of the study was that the researchers received the data without demographic information. Issues such as gender, children, and marital status impacted these dependent measures in other studies. Therefore, even within group differences on the measures could not be evaluated.

Essentially, Dalton and Mesch (1990) found that flextime had a significant impact on absenteeism but less of an impact on turnover. Absenteeism in the experimental group decreased during flextime and returned to pre-flextime levels after discontinuation. Turnover in both control and experimental groups declined as did the national average for the year of the intervention. The researchers noted that the impact of flextime on turnover probably required a longer intervention time frame. The union and the company collaborated on the study. Company wide flexibility was not an option due to customer service demands (responsiveness and availability), union problems with shift need,

overtime, seniority, the lack of opportunities for front supervisors to enjoy flexibility, and problems with scheduling meetings.

Baltes, Briggs, Huff, and Wright (1999) conducted a meta-analysis of flexible and workweek schedules research and evaluated the data on work-related criteria. They evaluated previous research and found (a) most were not based on theoretical models, (b) different interpretations on the effects of alternative work schedules, (c) a lack of strong empirical research, and (d) schedules were not evaluated as multi-dimensional or variant in nature (p. 497). In this study, the authors applied two theoretical models and literature analysis to formulate hypotheses on outcome effects. They conducted a quantitative meta-analysis on the effects of schedules on outcomes. They conducted an extensive (historical based) review of literature in databases and reference lists of found articles on flextime, flexitime, flexible hours, compressed workweeks, and other descriptors between 1974 and 1997. From their literature analysis, they reasoned that compressed work schedules were used in manufacturing and flextime in non-manufacturing organizations. For flextime, research supported increased job performance, increased job autonomy, lowered absenteeism, increased schedule satisfaction, and overall job satisfaction. They contacted 20 larger corporations known for alternative work schedules and found were informed that little or no tracking on the impact of the options were maintained or available.

For the meta-analysis, Baltes, Briggs, Huff, and Wright (1999) evaluated available primary data studies designed with pre-post, control experimental, or normative-experimental comparisons. There were 27 flextime and 12 compressed

workweek studies in the analysis. They evaluated studies' results on effect size for (a) production, (b) supervisor performance evaluation, (c) self-performance evaluation, (d) job satisfaction, (e) absenteeism, and (f) schedule satisfaction. Control of flexible schedules was rated as either high (five or less core time hours) or low (more than five hours core time). Time since intervention was calculated as either long (more than six months previous) or short (within the past six months). In addition, the type of employees in flextime and the methodological rigor of the studies were rated. They converted the information to a common statistic of Pearson correlations. Regression analyses were conducted to test for relationships between study effect sizes and moderators.

Kossek, Barber, and Winters (1993) described a study in a large firm that assessed individual, work group, and organizational acceptance of (a) flextime, (b) four-day work schedules, (c) leaves of absence, and (d) time off without pay. This investigation was the first to apply relational demography to managerial acceptance of flextime. Over 2,000 managerial employees participated. Two dependent measures, intention to use and affective response to use were tested for the four schedules. Independent measures included (a) affective response to schedule, (b) demographics, (c) organizational commitment, (d) career salience, (e) work load, (f) importance of family relative to career, and (g) familiarity with schedule. In addition organization consequences of managerial use were evaluated. There was a 67.6% response rate for a sample comprised of 52% males and 48% females. Flextime models explained the most variance for the measurements. Gender variance and interactions were found for flextime and women with family. At the organizational level, external pressures were perceived to be the

reason for adoption. Flextime and four-day workweek positives were greater than the perceived negative. At the work group level, the percentage that the groups were female impacted the outcomes.

Flextime positively influenced productivity, job satisfaction, absenteeism, and satisfaction with work schedule. Baltes, Briggs, Huff, and Wright (1999) reported that employees felt the impact of flextime more than managers and professionals. The schedules for these groups were more flexible by traditional work expectations. However, the number of studies on with managers and professionals was small and the demographics of studies were not evaluated. Flextime schedules with more core hours resulted in larger effect sizes. Short-term effects were not larger than long-term effects. Finally, the studies with higher research rigor produced the larger effect sizes. Weighted multiple-regression analyses were conducted to determine which characteristics were uniquely related to effect sizes. Findings suggested that as time increased since intervention that results decreased in magnitude. Moreover, there was significant variance in the effect sizes that was not explained by the study characteristics evaluated. This suggested that other factors impacted studies that were not evaluated.

Shepard, Clifton, and Kruse (1996) conducted the most rigorous and supportive study on flextime and productivity. They selected the pharmaceutical industry and matched companies listed in Standard and Poors COMPUSTAT database with Syracuse's Le Moyne College longitudinal survey data on flexible work collected by the Industrial Relations and Human Resource Management Department. The Cobb-Douglas (C-D) production model was modified for productivity effects by incorporating a constructed

flextime variable. Data limited the further determination of individual casual factors. Individual firm effects were eliminated and the measurement was output per hour per worker determined by dividing net sales in millions by the number of employees reported. An 11-year period (1981 to 1991) was evaluated using data from the previously described matching for the estimation of the binary version of the model. A second set of matched data was used for the estimation of the continuous version of the model from an additional mail survey set to companies from the original set with flextime in operation. Of the 33 who agreed to do the survey, 21 had continuous information on COMPUSTAT. Of this group, seven had used flextime continuously over the 11-year period. Although limited in size, the study provided important support to impact of flexible work hours on productivity over time.

Shepard, Clifton, and Kruse (1996) stated findings indicated that flextime contributed to the increases in productivity. Simple correlations suggested that larger firms increased flextime and productivity over time. Results were dependent on the presence of a flextime program and not on the type of firm. Limitations included (a) absence of controls for other human resource practices, (b) use of number of employees and labor hours for labor variable in regression models, and (c) difficult to distinguish results on productivity increases from reduced absenteeism with flextime or actual increased production (output per worker). There were several positives to this study. They reported that labor costs information was not available for most companies thus eliminating the addition of a value added measure to support productivity numbers. Consistent data for absenteeism were not available and without the number of hours

During the 1990s, there was growing discontent among single or childless employees over the impact of flexible work arrangements in the workplace. Wood (1998) thought manager decisions and expectations were the causes of single worker discontent but were the solution as well. Flynn (1996a) reported on a April 1996 *Personnel* survey that single or childless employees (a) 80% felt left out of company policies, (b) 80% reported that their needs were not met, and (c) 81% felt that they carried more of the burden in the workplace than their associates married with children. From those surveyed, 69% reported that Corporate America would feel the backlash of the discrimination. Flynn (1996a) described how Leslie Lafayette started the ChildFree Network after observing the family focus of the 1992 Presidential campaign.

The 1990 Census indicated that more than 20 million of the adults over the age of 35 were childless and that one in five Baby Boomers would remain childless. More of the single workers have readjusted their lives with the 1990s job crunch. However, visibility was a key factor for many managers and the worker with children was not as visible at critical times.

Wood (1998) reported that workers without children were feeling punished through work demands for not having children. Mary Young's work on single workers indicated it was not that the accommodations had been made, for many it was the way that the accommodations had been made. A SHRM report stated that childless, single employees were the fastest growing segment of the workforce. According to a 1996 BLS survey, 20 million Americans over 35 years of age were childless and only 34% of the workforce had children under the age of 18. The root of the problem and the solution

were managers. Flextime was not allocated equally. Partnered parents were three times more likely than single nonparents and twice as likely as partnered nonparents to use flextime. Corporate cultures implied when and how flextime was allocated. Many companies operated on “face time” values and did not practice what was in manuals. She noted that research supported that it was often the informal, daily decisions that generated the most conflict. Deadlines determined the manager’s involvement. One of the examples was when new mothers returned from maternity. Co-workers often resented the transition time.

In contrast, Conroy (1997) stated that in 1996 President Clinton had campaigned for flexibility as an old idea worth revisiting again in corporate America. After the 1970s, the “flextime fad had quieted down with programs used primarily in certain industry segments such as entertainment, government, healthcare, and higher education. The changing demographics and workplace changes were supporting the application of flextime. Aging of the workforce, fewer young people, slowing rate of women entering the workforce, skill shortages, global competition, and gaps in the education system all demanded a review of flextime.

Parkinson (1998) wrote about workers without flextime. The issue was that the least paid workers were important and statistically they experienced more work and family conflict. More than half of the group were women and most were high school graduates without any college. Many of the workers were in front line positions in the services industries and important to the continued relationships with company customers.

Incentives such as flextime, resource and referral programs, and employee assistance were needed to help support those working in critical customer functions.

Buck Consultants, Inc. of New York conducted a survey of 1,085 employers and found that 53% used flextime (Greenwald, 1998). Manager support was critical and some needed to learn to be flexible. Problems were caused were the result of deeper issues that emerged with conflicts over flextime. Clear communication in the beginning was critical.

Kush and Stroh (1994) reviewed research on flextime and found that many surveys did not clearly define flextime. Many companies offered it only an ad hoc or temporary basis. Companies limited flextime offers to specific individuals and occupations. Many employers were not offering it on a permanent basis and were not going to make flextime a workplace option. They conducted a survey of Chicago area smaller businesses. The Bureau of Labor Statistics information indicated most of the business growth of the 1990s was concentrated in smaller companies. They used *Craig's Chicago Business* and mailed surveys to every second name on the list. More than 250 companies were contacted and 121 responded.

Participants were asked directly about flextime options and plans. Kush and Stroh (1994) described how respondents were asked if they were currently using flextime and if they were planning on using flextime in the future. There were 64 responses with nine or 14% using flextime. They did not specify if there were any industry differences in the respondents. Kush and Stroh stated that more men wanted work situations that promoted work and family balance. The trend was for employees to think differently about work and family balance and therefore, employers had to acknowledge this in practices.

Laabs (1993) wrote that flextime continued to grow in popularity. Repeated Catalyst research in 1989 and 1993 found that more employers were viewing flextime as a means to retain desirable employees. At the management and professional levels, flextime was a means for balance while achieving career goals. More than one third of the employers surveyed in 1989 and 1993 reported that they were more interested in flexible arrangements in 1993. Almost 40% of the companies with more than 100 employees were using flextime.

Different organizations used flextime. Sheley (1996) provided examples of successful flextime programs at Dupont, United Air Lines, Nynex, and Deloitte & Touche, Inc. to illustrate how companies developed programs. She cautioned that programs were the source of cultural change but individual work groups customized processes. Companies viewed flexible options as methods to retain and motivate qualified workers. The key was the relationship between the worker and his or her supervisor. The mechanics of flexibility were worked out at the team level in successful operations. Dupont tracked childcare and flexibility options between 1985 and 1995 across 20 business units impacting 18,000 employees. They found that many worked the same number of hours as counterparts not on flextime and that the flextime worker commitment to the company was higher.

According to Lussier (1990), an estimated 400,000 companies and many government groups used flextime options. Each case was company specific and problems arose when work groups closely coordinated activities for projects. Flextime was a recruitment tool, a method to increase client coverage, a means to treat employees like

adults, and a way to support employees in work and life balance situations. A number of testimonials regarding flextime existed but there were few examples of solid research in Lussier's opinion.

Sullivan and Lussier (1995) reported on implementation of flextime arrangements. There were two extremes for managers: (a) no rules or guidelines and (b) extensive and limiting lists of guidelines and rules. Many employee surveys indicated that people were skeptical about flextime with the downsizing trends of the 1990s. Successful results were more likely if a process involving focus groups, task force, and pilot groups were used. The process of preparing to start a flextime program was critical.

Studies on the Merits of Flextime

Myers (1999) presented flextime as a necessary perk in some localities and occupations. The trend was popularized during the 1980s as working parents accommodated children's daily schedules. Implementation was easier in larger companies and technology improved success. She reported that more employees without children requested flexible work arrangements to accommodate life and work demands.

The implementation of flextime often reduced turnover in fields with professional workers. Conner, Hooks, and McGuire (1997) investigated the use of flextime in public accounting and professional services firms with high staff turnover. They found that flextime and flexible career paths were important recruitment and retention tools. One of the outcomes of the management practices of the 1980s was that specialization on complex topics made it difficult to replace valuable, knowledgeable workers. Partners and experienced workers left under the stress of the workplace. Flexibility was needed to

attract new workers. Sullivan (1995) presented flexibility as a management tool to create opportunities for top performers. She described flexibility as a life cycle decision to accommodate changing roles and needs for all workers but especially parents.

Resnick (1997) provided a four-step process for implementing flextime. Human resource managers were instructed to (a) build organizational support, (b) support managers and uses, (c) internalize the practice of flextime, and (d) sustain the commitment. The issues under sustain the commitment included (a) make sure that the process was continuous, (b) implement accountability, (c) evaluate managers on effectiveness in implementation and support, and (d) include flexibility as part of the organizational mission. Bianchi (1996) shared a flextime request form with *HR Magazine* readers. The form provided structure for handling requests independent of employee reasons. Although many viewed flextime as a career killer, the form provided a format for employees and employers to consider flextime requests as a business decision.

Many family focused groups studied work options. Romano (1994) reported on a recent Work and Family Institute study on the changing American workforce. Flexibility ranked third to job security and salary as issues for workers. Many workers desired flexibility and reported that they wanted quality in multiple aspects of their lives. Over 2.4 million employees were surveyed in Fortune 500 companies. One fourth of the total employees reported that 80 of the companies provided flextime. Nearly one half of the employees with flextime reported that the option was subject to managerial discretion although it was a written company policy. Romano reported that a recent Catalyst survey

with 70 companies offering at least one form of flexible arrangement that over 67% of men used flexible options.

Solomon (1996) reported on the changing role of flextime and flexibility in American corporations. Initially, flextime was promoted as a means to accommodate the growing population of working mothers with small children. The improvements of productivity, reduced turnover, and reduced employee stress helped to evolve flextime as a business strategy. Corporations had moved from programmatic solution status (by offering flextime to primarily to mothers) to a fundamental endeavor affecting corporate policy and culture. In 1994, Hewitt Associates LLC conducted a survey of 1,035 organizations with a 66% response rate. Over 71% of the respondents offered flextime. For Price Waterhouse LLP flextime was available nationwide to meet the needs of their changing workforce. The philosophical mindset of the firm had changed to respect the balance of work and family. In addition, changing staff and client demographics required a reassessment of policy. They evaluated the communication patterns and realized that office presence was impacting the turnover of staff. Other accounting groups have discovered that many talented and dedicated professionals wanted options other than the possibility of partnerships for commitment. The trend was to develop specializations for key staff and provide them and clients with flexibility.

The workweek was an American tradition. Capowski (1996) described the traditional workweek was structured around the manufacturing society of yesterday. Traditional systems, policies, and work were designed for another time, place, and demographics. In the 1990s, employers were not able to offer job security and career

advancement. Companies such as AT&T and Continental Airlines offered flextime and improved productivity and retention. The problem according to Capowski was that CEOs were often unsympathetic to worker needs for flexibility. Most of the males had nonworking wives, established flexible schedules as professionals, and adequate support. Flextime was a corporate policy but rarely supported down the ranks. Managers throughout the organization had to view flextime as a business tool and incorporate it into the strategic agenda. During the 1980s, the hype over flextime was directed at working mothers and fathers. Capowski viewed flextime as a practice that could heal employee wounds from downsizing, sinking morale, rising competition, and loss of customer and employee allegiance.

Thornburg (1994) reported that top leaders at progressive companies supported flextime but others were cautious about claims of increased productivity. William M. Mercer surveyed 350 companies in the southwest and 72% of the respondents reported that flexibility programs positively impacted their organizations. Almost half felt that the bottom-line was positively impacted. Thornburg wrote flexible work options paralleled the movement towards total quality management (TQM) environments with mission statements including words such as freedom, trust, responsibility, and respect (p. 47).

Conlin (1999) described how corporate America provided more flexibility in order to retain workers and enable them to achieve a balance between work and home. Flextime was part of the package used by IBM leader Ted Child to improve workforce diversity. Examples of how managers changing from traditional to flexible options dramatically increased their productivity. Evidence existed that corporations understood

time demands and perks for employees and created more opportunities to encourage employee loyalty.

Philosophically, the labor force was a valuable resource. Nelton (1993) described flexible management as the practices of developing and maintaining environmental supports to provide options for employee work needs. Employees were the single largest resource of the contemporary organization. Managers were worried when employees did not appear to be working within the traditional expectations. Many workers were caught between family issues of young children and elderly parents and needed support from the workplace. Under the economic conditions of downsizing and other work adjustments, many quality workers were overworked and flexible supports were a cost-effective option.

Denton (1993) presented flextime as a competitive advantage in recruiting and retaining professional employees at Merck & Company. Issues that they had found included problems in smaller departments, meeting fixed customer service demand schedules, departments that required more intense coordination, and departments with continuous operations with shift work. An important finding was that overall Merck believed that people were more task oriented and less time oriented.

Deutschman (1991) described how flextime was more popular during times of economic prosperity but that corporate expectations were not as supportive as many envisioned. Real flexibility was contradictory to traditional assumptions of the culture of work. However, professionals with flexibility were more loyal and committed than those in traditional cultures. The contemporary professional was described as a person who felt

that he or she had to excel at all of work and life challenges. Flexibility was the solution for keeping quality workers and not losing their experience and knowledge.

The American workforce realized the value of work, time, and family. Kirrane (1994) stated “for good and ill, America was undergoing numerous changes that affected the work force and work arrangements (p. 39).” The Economic Policy Institute stated that workers for the first time wanted personal time more than pay or career growth. The concept of family household changed. According to the 1990 Census, over 13 million children lived in single parent homes and more than three million were living with grandparents. Technology made work and life easier for many. Advances in medicine, surgery, and knowledge about human body systems were applied to extend American lives and medicine helped infertile couples conceive.

***Flextime Title Counts From Human Resource Management (HRM)
Journals Between 1990 and 1999***

Throughout the 1990s, flextime titles were published in HRM journals but at low numbers. Inspection of Table 5.3 revealed that there were peaks of three in 1994 and four in 1996. The passage of FMLA in 1993 and President’s Clinton’s promotion of flextime in his 1996 re-election campaign may have prompted the interest in flextime.

***Flextime Title Counts From Management and
Business Journals Between 1990 and 1999***

The numbers of flextime articles shown in Table 5.4 were high in 1990 as President Bush did not sign FLMA when it was passed in Congress and again in 1994, the year after the FMLA went into effect. As the 1990s were ending, the counts in 1998 and 1999 reflected flextime for work and family balance and retention.

Table 5.3***1990s Flextime Title Counts From Human Resource Management (HRM) Journals***

Journal	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99
HR Focus		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
HR Magazine	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	0
Human Relations	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Human Resource Management	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Journal of Human Resources	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Personnel	1	HR Focus								
Personnel Administrator	HR Magazine									
Personnel Journal	0	0	0	1	2	0	1	Workforce		
Personnel Psychology	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Workforce	Personnel Journal									
1990s Totals	1	0	1	1	3	0	4	1	1	0

Table 5.4***1990s Flextime Title Counts From Management and Business Journals***

Journal	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99
<i>Association Management</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Business Insurance</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	0
<i>Industrial Relations</i>	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Journal of Compensation and Benefits</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Management Review</i>	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Supervision</i>	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Other Titles</i>	3	1	1	4	2	3	1	1	4	4
1990s Totals	7	1	1	4	7	4	2	2	6	5

Family Systems Variables Influencing the 1990s

The American definition of family continued to change throughout the 1990s.

There were more single adults choosing not to marry. There were more households headed by single or divorced persons. Family responsibilities remained the mother's role but there was evidence of support from men with childcare and general duties. The issues

for women continued to be time for balance, support from work, and assistance at home to handle the complexities of any given day.

Household Income Shifts Between 1990 and 1999

The recession altered household income in 1991. Figure 5.4 illustrated household income levels for the selected family groupings from 1990 to 1998. The recovery after the recession impacted women more significantly because they were less likely to regain employment as easily in recent past recessions. Household income dropped most significantly in relative terms for the average married man with his wife out of the labor force. All families plotted under constant terms dipped slightly, but recovered to register increases by the end of the period. This pattern repeated with less variance in the dual-working household group. Woman without husbands present lost some income but recovered losses during the 1990s. However, this group had less disposable income and at the lower levels, the costs of goods and services affected the

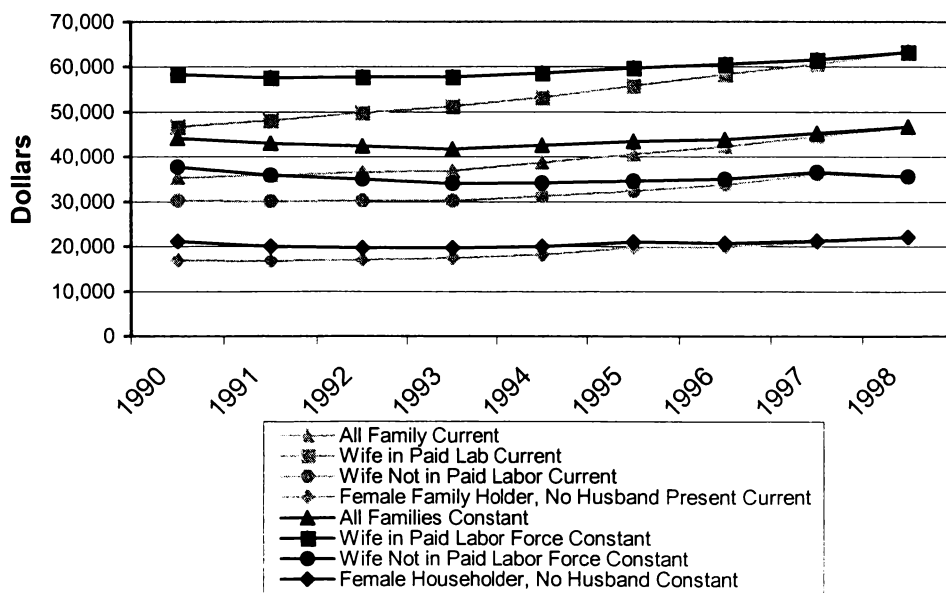


Figure 5.4. Household income shifts between 1990 and 1998.

total income more significantly. The essentials required most of the income of women in this group.

Household Composition Shifts Between 1990 and 1999

During the 1990s, the percentage of traditional, married couple with *family households* continued to decline. The number of *nonfamily households* continued the increase from 18.8% in 1970, 26.8% in 1980, 29.2% in 1990, and 30.9% in 1998 according to CPS data for the period. There was a period between 1993 and mid 1995 when the percentage stabilized at 29.3%. These figures conversely indicated that the percentage of traditional married family households with children declined in the decade from 56% in 1990 to 53% in 1998. The percentage for *male without family* increased from 12.4% in 1990 to 13.8% in 1998. Percentages for female *heads of household with children* increased .6% and female *head of household without family* increased .3% in the 1990s.

Kirrane (1994) stated the concept of family household changed. According to the 1990 Census, over 13 million children lived in single parent homes and more than three million children lived with their grandparents. The high number of children living with grandparents was the result of several demographic and economic factors.

Marital Status Shifts Between 1990 and 1999

For the female population, the number *divorced* increased between 1990 (9.5%) and 2000 (12.6%), while the number of females *widowed* decreased from 12% to 10%. The number of females *never married* increased slightly from 23.4% to 25.1%. The downward trend for *married* females and males continued with a drop of 3.2% for males

and 2.8% for females *married* during the 1990s. The number of males *never married* increased .6% and the number of females *never married* increased 1.7%.

Narrative on Family Literature Between 1990 and 1999

The struggles for balance between work, family, and community continued throughout the 1990s. Prince (1998) reported that changes in American culture and role perceptions were needed before workplaces would become more family friendly. Work re-examination included (a) evaluation of work-flow activities, (b) worker evaluation on quality of work and not time on job, (c) management involvement and understanding, (d) enriched lives for employees, and (e) preparation of the company culture to support work and family both informally and formally.

Googins (1997) credited Kanter (1977) with starting the work and family issues agenda. The key was to envision family, work, and communities working together. Time demands caused by hectic schedules inside and outside of work were the problem. Hayghe (1991) profiled the typical volunteer as female between the ages of 35 and 44 with a part-time job or a traditional stay-at-home lifestyle. The majority of people volunteered through their kid's activities. Jacobs and Gerson (1990) noted that work demands influenced time for volunteering. Work, family, and communities increased the demands on the American family.

Employee benefits targeted for balance between work and family were received with mixed acceptance in the workplace. Aldous (1990) wrote that politically conservative groups opposed women in the workforce and businesses traditionally opposed worker-friendly policies (pp. 358-59). Hedger (1992) reported that 1990 data on

state and local governments supported more family provisions such as maternity leave. Applebaum (1998) explained how demographics and other factors changed the workplace and family. People needed supports to cope with the complexities.

Each organization had to evaluate family policies by the demands of the work environment. Scott (1994) stated that work and family issues required structured but customized process. Too many organizations tried to emulate other company's success without targeting plans to their respective organizations and workers. Galinsky (1996) related how some companies recognized that all workers needed supports and had renamed their initiatives work-life programs.

Lobel (1991) presented role investment theory and evaluated the impact of work on family. Identity salience roles and utilitarian motives research facilitated the development of a model of allocation. The integrated model incorporated moderating factors of gender, life stage, and culture. At issue was the individual's devotion to work roles and the impact of changes in workplace and gender expectations.

Family life impacts on work required business decisions. Regan (1994) stated that work family conflicts were a business issue that required a reassessment of policies regarding implementation. There were a number of work and life or work and family programs in organizations but very few of them were successful. Managers and supervisors stymied corporate culture change. They achieved their status by following the rigid rules of work demands over family and considered work and family initiatives a rejection of their accomplishments and authority.

Work and family programs interfered with workflow and management agendas. In order to change, Regan (1994) explained that managers needed education on demographic and social trends with an emphasis on the business rationale of programs. After training, managers were expected to meet work and family related goals with existing measures of accountability. Work and family policies failed when they were not connected to the bottom line (Lobel, Googins, & Bankert, 1999).

Solomon (1991) reported Families and Work Institute findings on family-friendly work policies in corporations. Three stages including programmatic, integrated, and established stages were observed in a number of organizations. During the programmatic stage, a typical organization tried childcare, eldercare, and training programs to address immediate issues. Management often perceived the problem solved because the program was on the book. During the integrated stage, one group perceived work and family as a bottom line business issue. During the programmatic stage, companies realized what would succeed in situations.

Friedman and Johnson (1997) detailed how to move corporate programs into cultural change. Corporate programs needed to become second nature or respected practitioners (Christensen, 1997). Shellenbarger (1992) outlined family issues for HRM and illustrated the problems with trying to impact traditional male corporate culture. Glass and Fujimoto (1995) found that more formal benefits were found in larger firms and unionized workplaces. In the larger organizations, the supervisor support was more important. Grover and Crooker (1995) reported employees with more family-friendly policies had greater organizational attachment.

Kropf (1996) wrote in *HR Magazine* that flexible schedules were the answer to the employee family and work juggling acts impacting productivity and absenteeism. Flexible options and business goals were linked and recommendations on processes were presented. She suggested that HRM incorporate flexibility into other initiatives to change culture.

One of the problems with addressing work and family concerns was different types of jobs, families, and related economic variables structure the conflict. Each situation was unique. Burris (1991) found that professional mothers had more work and family interference because of longer working hours. Working class mothers had economic issues and little flexibility, plus childcare problems. Each situation was unique and required different coping skills.

For the professional mother, the balance of home and family was the issue. Maier (1991) reported more managers in the U.S. were women and the work and family boundaries impacted their success. Impacts on women managers' careers included: (a) inflexible schedules, (b) unresponsive husbands, (c) homemaking tasks, (d) male oriented corporate structures, and (e) traditional managerial expectations.

Bailyn (1993) outlined cultural assumptions about women and work. Although women comprised 50% of the workforce, there was little change in the male corporate culture. The issues of family were expected to be invisible at work especially for professional women. Raabe (1998) discussed how some mothers balanced work and family with part-time professional positions. A part-time position was better for career and later advancement as opposed to completely leaving the workforce. Folk and Beller

(1993) reported mothers of small children were more likely to work part-time according to the National Survey of Families and Households. The problem for mothers was the cultural pulls between her education, family, previous job, and husband's job. The preferred caretaker for young children was the father.

The daycare industry experienced significant growth during this period. The passage of the Comprehensive Child Development Centers Act of 1988 influenced development and standards. It was recognized that more women needed competent daycare. Goodman (1995) described the increase in the number of daycare workers. Cattan (1991) reported on the National Longitudinal Study of Youth (NLSY) findings indicating that one in three mothers stayed at home with young children due to the lack of affordable day care.

Childcare became a national issue during the 1990s. Hofferth, Brayfield, Deich, and Holcomb (1991) published the *National Child Care Survey of 1990*. Many leaders questioned the wisdom of childcare. Greenstein (1995) evaluated 5,803 children of NLSY female participants on a standardized vocabulary test. Income and household stimulation compensated for working mothers in the findings. Menaghan and Parcel (1995) looked at NLSY data from 1988 and 1989 mother-child supplement surveys to evaluate impacts of home environment changes on children. Negative effects included (a) birth of an additional child, (b) marital termination, and (c) mother remaining unmarried and having less income. The economic base for children was critical.

The role of fathers in preschooler's lives was investigated. Aldous, Mulligan, and Bjarnason (1998) compared 1987 to 1988 data with 1992 to 1993 from the National

Survey of Families and Households (NSFH). More highly educated, egalitarian fathers spent increased time with preschoolers and positively influenced their children. The issue for many couples was the amount work time required in career development. Solberg (1992) studied how children were affected by their father's traveling. Galinsky and Stein (1990) reported professionals were working more. Jacobs and Gerson (1998) reported the U.S. had the highest incidence of people working more than 50 hours per week. They found higher levels of work time for professionals and for people with higher levels of education.

Several studies researched the stress of marriage, family, and work (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Powell, 1997). A considerable body of literature addressed the issues of women's home and work conflicts including time, housework, and career commitments (DeVault, 1991; Ferree, 1991; Lambert, 1990; Marshall & Barnett, 1993; Mederer, 1993; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999; Williams, 1995).

In order to know the relationships between work and family, research developed to measure credible factors required targeted measurements. Raake (1990) commented that the complexity of the dual environments made it difficult to accurately assess impacts. Crouter (1994) stated there were too many self-report studies. Stress in families with work and other outside influences required a systems approach applying appropriate data.

The future of the work and family interface was uncertain. The younger Baby Bust or Generation X group was different in their approaches to work and life balance.

Later Baby Boomers appeared to want more balance. Kraut (1992) reported that younger professionals, age 35 and younger, placed a higher value on family over work.

Individual Systems Influencing the 1990s

Educational Level Shifts Between 1990 and 1999

The educational levels for Americans continued to increase during the 1990s as illustrated in Figure 5.5. The percentages for male and female high school graduates increased around eight percent and the percentages with college degrees held fairly steady. There was a slight drop in the number of females with four or more years of college during the early 1990s but the plot appeared to be converging across the time span. The number of people with lower educational levels continued to decline.

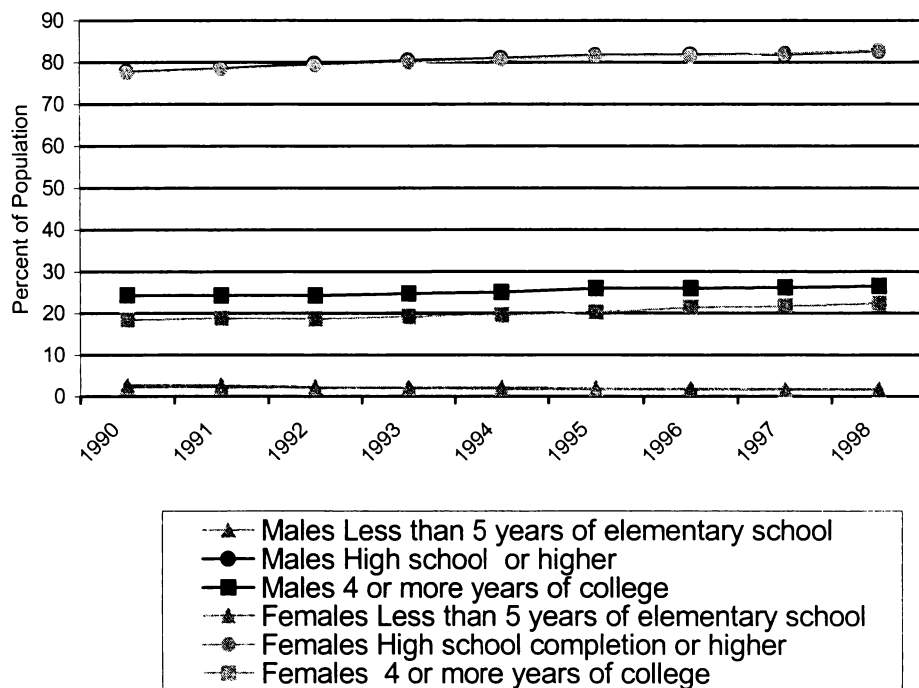


Figure 5.5. Educational levels between 1990 and 1998.

Life Expectancy Level Shifts Between 1990 and 1999

The overall life expectancy percentages increased during the 1990s as illustrated in Figure 5.6. There was a slight dip in the plot for men and women and this impacted the combined plot during the middle of the decade. The expectancy for men increased more significantly over the decade and reached age 74, the approximate range for women in 1990.

Consumer Confidence Survey Between 1990 and 1999

The consumer confidence numbers were responsive to the economy and national events as illustrated in Figure 5.7. The confidence of consumers was challenged during the 1990-1993 years. Starting in 1994, the confidence measure increased overall with some month-to-month downward trends.

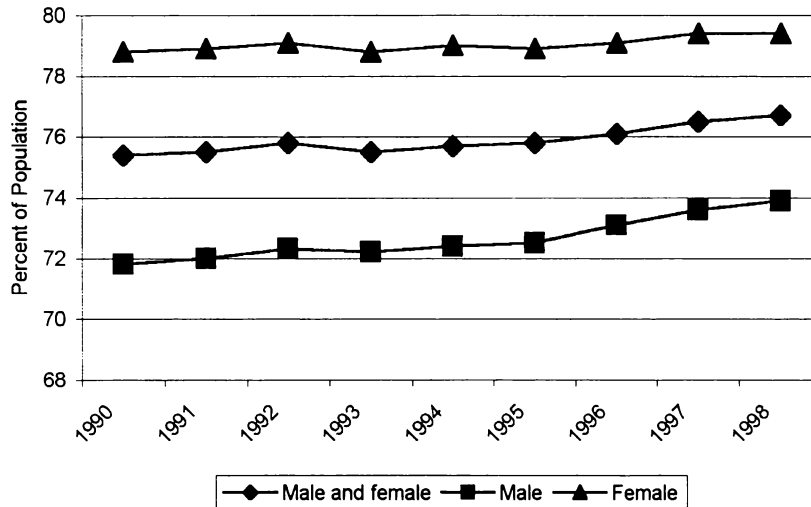


Figure 5.6. Life expectancy levels between 1990 and 1998.

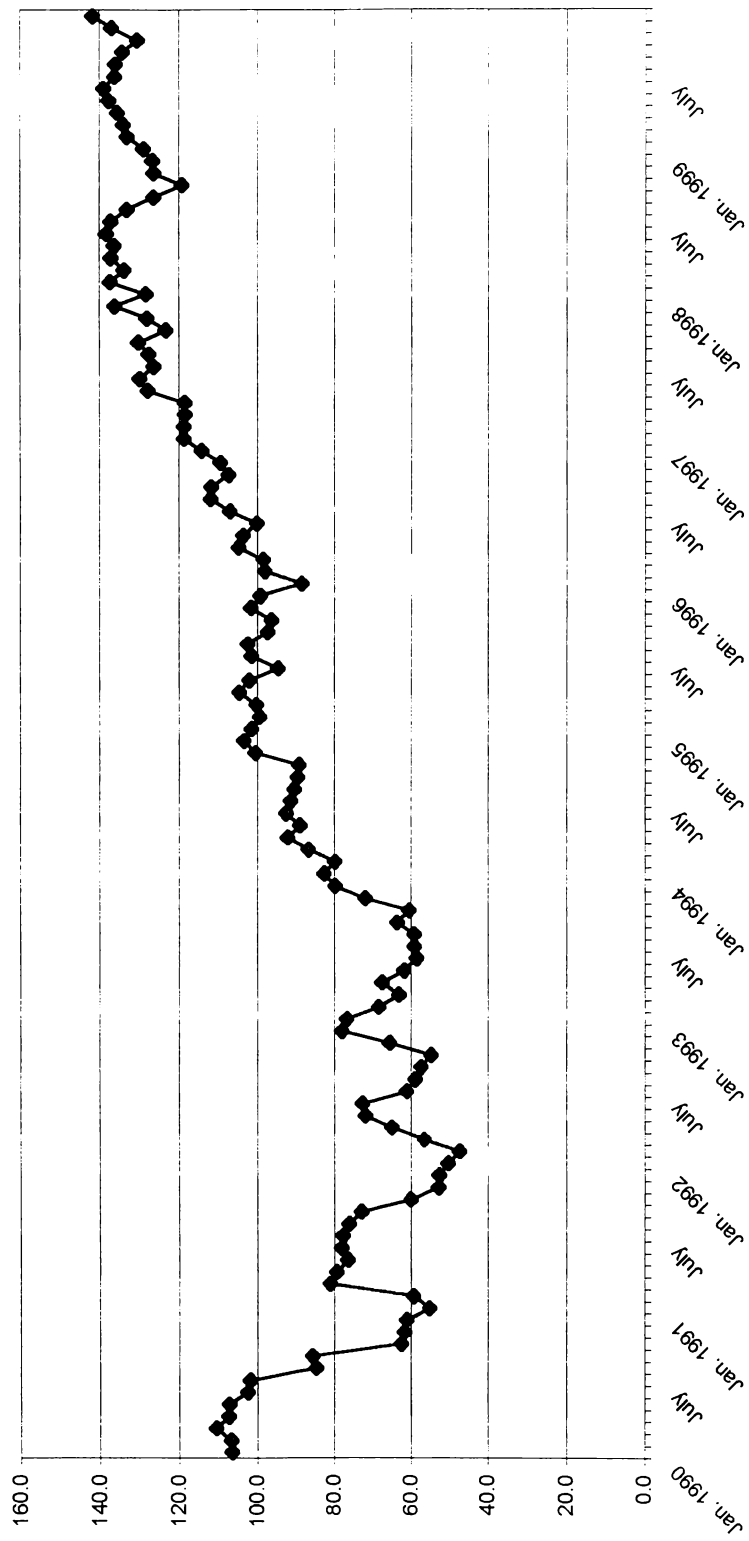


Figure 5.7. Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) between 1990 and 1999.

Data Collected From Cohort Three

The participants of the third cohort were more highly educated as a group and all reported increased responsibilities in 2001. The demographic variables summarized in Table 5.5 included 15 participants. Cohort occupational composition included: five in management, two own businesses, two clerical, two in services, and three in professional positions. Eight participants had children and only one with twins had more than two. Five had no children and seven were single in 1995. Literature indicated that more people from this general age group remained single and the variety in the participants' marital status paralleled this trend. This group was more positive than the other two cohorts. Each respondent had a unique perspective on what had changed in the workplace. As a whole, the 1990s group was more diverse in location, background, and current occupation.

Summary of the 1990s

The 1990s were a period of challenge and change for employees and employers with issues such as FMLA, sexual discrimination, and the impact of the Baby Boomers on work and family systems. The early information on the Baby Bust generation indicated that they wanted to achieve more balance between work, family, and life. For some of the Baby Boomer generation in management, this attitude translated into less commitment to the job.

The issues of family and work continued throughout the 1990s. The daily regulation of the balance for workers was regulated in part by the managers within companies who made the operational decisions. Formal flextime was on the books but

Table 5.5

Cohort Three Demographics

Participant Number	State	2001 Age	1995 Age	Sex	Educ 1995	Later Educ	Children 1995	Marital Status 1995	Occupation 1995
1	MO	45	34	F	College	Graduate School	0	S	Security Coordinator
2	TN	47	36	M	High School	Some College	0	S	Beauty Salon Owner
3	MI	43	31	F	Graduate	Training	2	M	Physician's Assistant
4	MO	44	33	F	College	Graduate School	2	M	Manager – Nonprofit
5	TN			F	High School	Training	0	M	Bookkeeper
6	TN	44	33	F	College	Graduate School	0	S	Vice President – Banking
7	TN	46	35	F	High School	Some College	2	M	Manager Store – Computers
8	NY	43	32	M	College	2nd Degree	0	S	Director – Marketing
9	TN	44	33	F	College	Graduate School	2	M	Director – Communications Nonprofit
10	TN	45	34	F	College	Training	1	M	Secretary
11	TN	45	34	F	College	Graduate School	1	M	Sr. Geologist
12	IL	41	30	M	Graduate	None	0	S	Architect
13	VA	46	35	F	High School	Training	1	M	Payroll Technician
14	TX	41	30	F	High School	Training	3	D/S	Clerical
15	TN	44	33	F	College	Graduate School	1	D/S	Vice President Human Resources

there was growing evidence that workers continued to have to make decisions between work and family. Many mothers selected part-time employment or options for self-employment. Their individual work commitment, family commitment, and social commitments made daily life challenging and stressful. The research model or Figure 5.8 in was completed to visually chart interactions and influences.

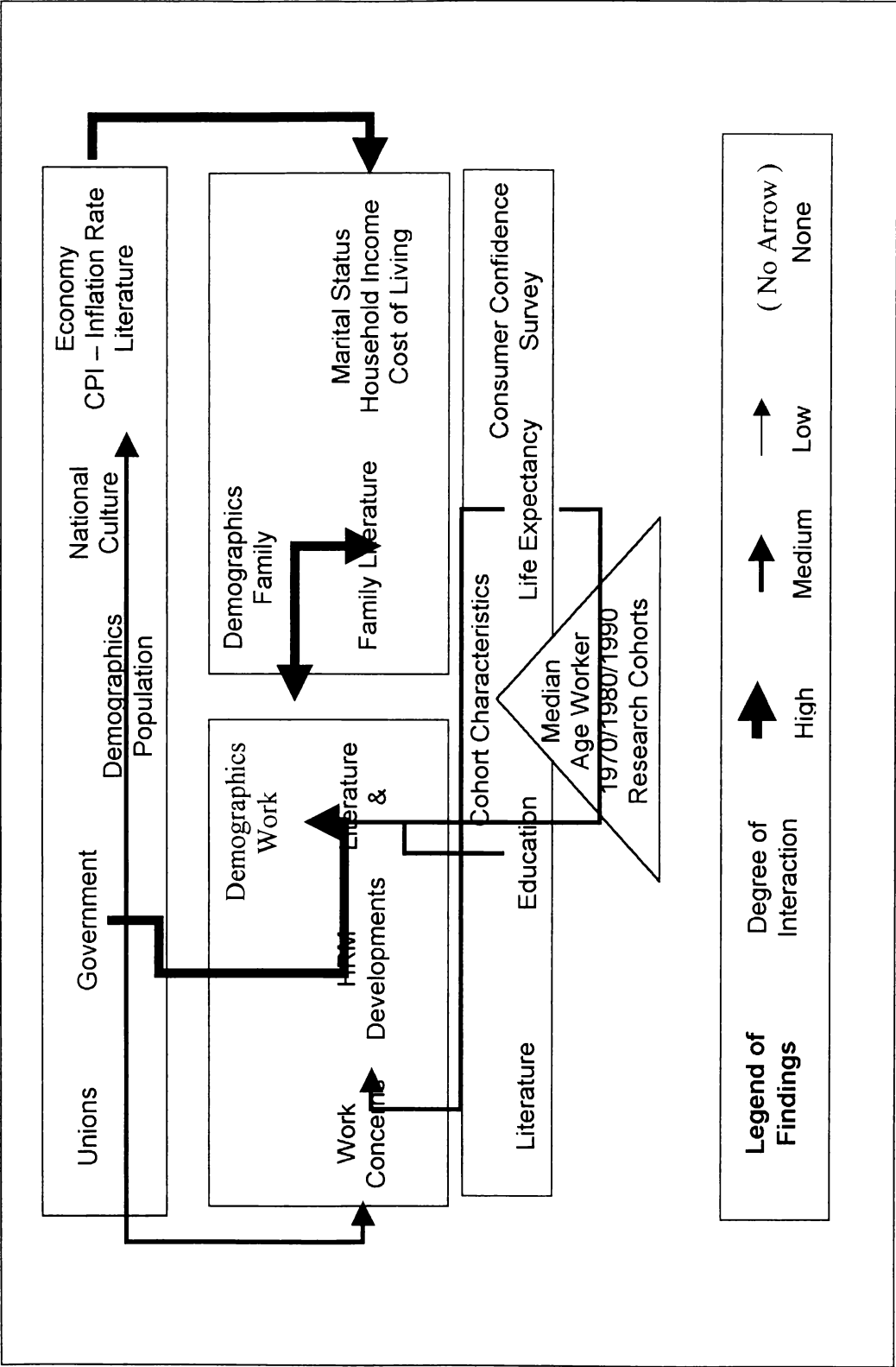


Figure 5.8. 1990s model on the emergence of flextime.

CHAPTER 6

CUMULATIVE IMPACT ON FLEXTIME: 1970-1999

Historical context is the tool used to evaluate and understand the significance of the elements or events over time. The definition of context is always subjective. Triangulation of sources and the validation of primary sources on meaning and interpretation are the critical. The passage of time defines context. For example, the impact of the oil crisis in the 1970s was significant. However, the ramifications of the variables in context illustrate that the ongoing issues on the oil crisis have significant impacts on long term systems. In a formal setting such as this study, the process used to gather information, the rigor of the evaluation of materials, the analysis, and the presentation are various points of validation.

All research contains subjective elements. In this study the controls for subjectivity bias included the use of a conceptual model, consistent practices in literature research and interpretation, and attempts to represent various populations, locations, and groups as part of the research inquiry. The final analysis of the study was the isolation of factors across the period of the 1970 to 1999 time frame. This information was analyzed using thematic interpretation of qualitative research analysis. Interactions between the research questions across themes were discussed as illustrations of the research model.

The format of the chapter included the cumulative findings to each of the research questions of the research model, the final research questions, and additional findings of the study. The research questions are divided by national, work, family, and individual systems headings.

National System Variable Influences Between 1970 and 1999

General Population Age Distribution Shifts Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 1. What were the trends in the general population distribution data and how did these changes related to the model cumulatively between 1970 and 1999?

During the 1970 to 1999 time frame, the CPS data on the general population age distribution was altered by the changing birthrates during the earlier portion of the 20th century. For example, the birth rate and childhood survival rate dropped appreciably during the Great Depression. During World War II, the birth rate reflected the uncertainty of the future and the separation of couples. The children born in these time frames preceded the Baby Boomers into the school system, the workplace, adulthood, and retirement. The impact of the Baby Boomers, those born between 1947 and 1964, was significant in this study. The early Baby Boomers dominated the culture of the 1960s and the later Baby Boomers experienced the oil crisis, recessions, and workplace changes as they entered early adulthood and their working careers.

The cumulative plot for the Age Distributions by Percentages is shown in Figure 6.1. To illustrate the movement of the Baby Boomers through the workplace, the approximate cohort distributions for the group were plotted in black with the other population distribution range plots in dark gray.

The workplace population composition was dominated by the Baby Boomer generation's entrance and assimilation during the time frame. Kovach and Pearce (1990) wrote that 25% of the total population would be in the 25 to 54 year old range, the fastest

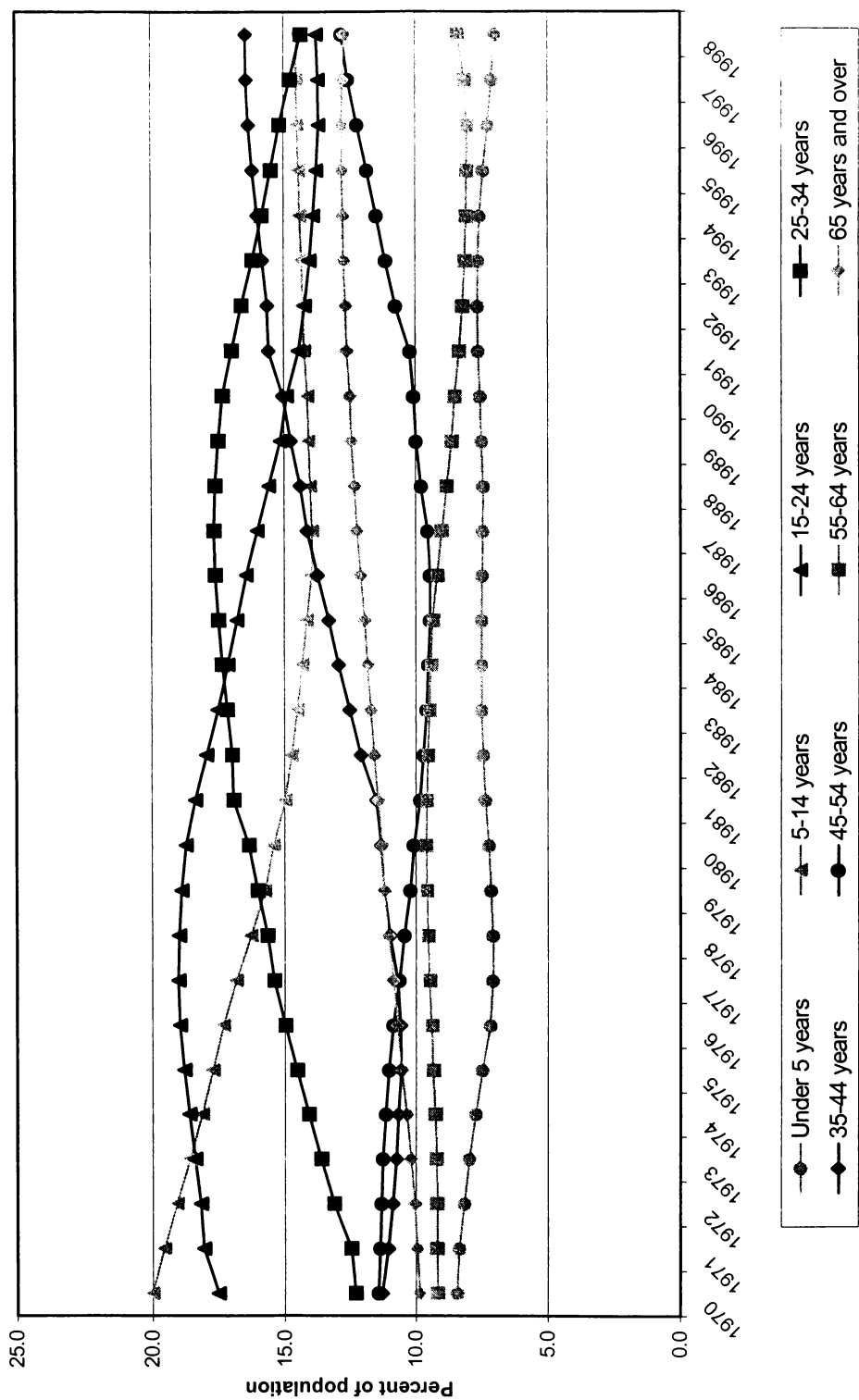


Figure 6.1. General population age distribution between 1970 and 1998.

growing population segment until the year 2000. The older population group (65 years or older) continued to increase in size as medical advancements and income levels for this group improved. The population of young children (under the age of five) dropped sharply during the early period as many couples either remained childless or limited the total number of children. The Baby Bust generation (born between 1965 and 1980) entered the workforce during the time frame. This group was smaller than the Baby Boomers but contributed their perceptions about work and life balance.

Overall the distribution of people between 35 to 44 years of age was the single most significant demographic issue in this study. The group's percentage of the total workforce started at about 12% in 1972 and by 1998, this group occupied the largest percentage at around 17%. This age group contained most of the subjects in the individual participant pool.

National Systems Variables Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 2. What were the significant events that reflected national culture and expectation that influenced the model during the 1970-1999 timeframe?

In overview, there were a number of impacts from analysis of time tables in Appendices C, D, and E were included in the general and specific literature review findings. In each of the decades, people witnessed events that challenged their perceptions about their country and the intent of the government. Developments in medicine altered perceptions about life and longevity, incidents such as terrorist attacks and the school shootings changed perceptions about security, and the impact of the oil crisis and corporate expectations altered the American dream. Cultural perceptions were

altered through the media as television shows, movies, news coverage, and technology such as the internet provided expanded viewpoints and opportunities for cultural exposure and interpretation. For example, the development of cable networks produced MTV and CNN and provided 24-hour news coverage during the 1980s. The Baby Buster generation developed cultural expectations as a result of their interface with advanced technology as compared with previous generations. The changes of the 20th century accelerated in the latter 30 years and because of changes in national culture and the extensive exposure of media, the better-educated public and working population assimilated these changes into everyday life. The problem in some instances was that the interface between work and home blurred and boundaries became nebulous at times. In addition, instant exposure to traumatic events and cultural developments created a new generation of values and expectations at home and work.

In summary, the national culture evolved with the impact of technology and the subsequent exposure of various people to the outcomes. The amount and content of information became more complex and life in general became more stressful.

Federal Executive Government Context Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 3. What were the events at the executive government level that influenced culture and expectations as illustrated in the model cumulatively between 1970 and 1999?

President Nixon's administration illustrated how power and politics impact a whole nation. Following his resignation, the stock market dropped significantly. Carter inherited some of the economic problems and tried to remedy through freeing up the Federal Reserve to increase interest rates helped the economy to recover from inflation.

Reagan helped to restore the faith in government but he had periods when people doubted his capabilities. The actions of Clinton were inexcusable in the eyes of many but many of his administrative policies promoted diversity and opportunities with accountability. In summary, the individual decisions of presidents impacted perceptions of and political influence of the executive office throughout the timeframe.

Federal Legislation Context Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 4. What were the significant legislation pieces at the federal level that influenced the model cumulatively during the 1970-1999 timeframe?

The impact of legislation varied with the law and the context of time and the economy. After review of the literature and subsequent research on the research model variables, a system to rank different important laws was devised to illustrate effects and interactions with the research model as represented in Table 6.1. The laws grouped under primary impact made a direct and significant contribution to the contextual milieu supporting the emergence and acceptance of flextime. The laws listed under secondary impact contributed more indirectly to the contextual environment. Each of the categories was divided by cohort needs and interface. Cohort needs alluded to the impact of specific cohort or minorities. As the workplace assimilated more females, the issues of family and work balance were more significant. The concept of interface defined the category of laws that directly and indirectly established context for the interface of work and family or mesosystem issues. Several of the laws created during this time frame developed guidelines for the workplace and established regulatory commissions or boards for interpretation and enforcement.

Table 6.1

Significant Legislation and Research Model Impacts between 1970 and 1999

Primary Impact		
Cohort Needs	Equal Opportunity Act of 1972	Established EEOC to regulate laws on discrimination
	Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1978 and 1986	Lifted mandatory retirement
	Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1979	Established workplace guidelines for pregnancy
	Glass Ceiling Act of 1991	Investigated discrimination against women in management
	Civil Rights Act of 1991	Extended recourse for discrimination violations
Interface	Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970	Created OSHA to regulate workplace health and safety
	Federal Employee's Flexible and Compressed Work Week Act of 1978, 1984, and 1985	Changed acceptance and opportunities and promoted research
	Federal Employee Part-Time Career Act of 1978	Opened opportunities for work and family balance
	Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993	Leave guarantees for workers for family and personal illness
Secondary Impact		
Cohort Needs	Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973	Opportunities for people with disabilities Alternative work arrangements transitioning
	Retirement Equity Act of 1984	Retirement guarantees for divorced spouses Acknowledgement of the role of the traditional homemaker
	Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990	Extended opportunities for people with disabilities
	Holiday Pay Act of 1971	Established three day holidays and may have encouraged adoption of Four Day Workweek arrangements
Interface	Equal Retirement Income and Security Act of 1974	Retirement benefit opportunities for workers through work

The EEOC (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission) was established with the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972. The impact of the EEOC was paramount in the cultural change for opportunities for minorities, especially women. As other laws specific to issues extending the rights of women and minorities were passed such as the Glass Ceiling Act of 1991, Congress charged the EEOC, as an established body, with regulation.

The cumulative effect of the legislation from the time frame was a gradual cultural change in perceptions about minorities especially women in the workplace. Initial acceptance was limited but through time and interpretation of laws by companies, regulatory groups, and the court system, more minorities assimilated into the American workplace. As the number of individuals increased with specific needs and issues reflective of assimilation, additional supports such as regulation and legislation evolved. In summary, many of the legislative acts were reactions to the workplace system impacts of previously limited representations of minorities. As the workplace accommodated the growing minority population, the issues became more salient to the culture and influenced the evolution of the changes.

Social scientists and progressive organizations through the process learned more about the American workplace culture. Through the observation and interpretation of the changes, increased knowledge of the workplace culture system was developed. Bronfenbrenner (1995) stated that one of the early teachings of his graduate career was that total knowledge about a system was gained through the process of trying to change it. The problem was that the measurements of workplace culture were subjectivity

developed over time. The status of acceptance followed the traditional family structure with the male breadwinner and the stay-at-home wife with restricted access to the corporate world. As the composition of the of the workforce changes, the subjective measures were accelerated as boundaries for acceptance were reflected in the concepts of corporate America.

As Chandler (1977) explained, the role of middle management in the development of the American business culture success was critical. In some respects the middle managers were the spouses of the workplace interpreting and managing the daily operations of the business. As discussed in the findings on flextime, the interpretation of the formal policies was dependent of the supervisor and middle management at the operational level. Legislation made supervisor and managers increasingly aware of workplace issues.

The other law with a regulatory group that yielded considerable impact was the Occupational Health and Safety Act of 1970. The creation of OSHA to inspect and regulate health and safety issues helped to change perceptions indirectly about the workplace. The classic adage “men’s work” was a reflection of the physical demands and working conditions associated with jobs in industries such as manufacturing and mining. As conditions improved through OSHA visits and reprimands, there was an increased social and cultural acceptance of women at various levels of the workplace.

Research Question 5. What were the perceptions on legislation and influences on the model from the literature review on legislation and human resource cumulatively between 1970 and 1999?

The impact of legislation on the literature during the time period followed several different themes. Two pieces passed in the 1970s, ADEA (1978), and the Occupational Health and Safety Act (1970) that created OSHA were discussed throughout the time period. The discussions on ADEA became increasingly important with the downsizing activities and plant closings of the 1980s and 1990s. Some companies targeted older employees for elimination for various reasons. OSHA regulations and visits were an ongoing topic. In addition, OSHA worked for ergonomic regulation to reduce injuries associated with computer usage.

The Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1979 created new concerns for smaller companies. The impact on the model was increased opportunities for women for continued employment through maternity leave. Issues around childcare contributed to the understanding of the need for affordable daycare for employees with fewer opportunities and resources.

During the 1990s, the ADA (1990) and FMLA (1993) legislation debates created numerous articles. The extensive coverage of the ADA concentrated on fears and concerns over the interpretation of the legislation (Barlow & Hane, 1992; Bland, 1999; Pimentel & Lotito, 1992; Solomon, 1992b). FMLA discussions focused on the economic impacts for companies (B. Leonard, 1999; Martinez, 1994; Waldfogel, 1999). Many companies feared the unknown implications with the new legislation.

The U.S. Supreme Court Decisions Context Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 6. Which Supreme Court decisions influenced the model cumulatively during the 1970-1999 timeframe?

In the investigation of Supreme Court decisions, it became clear that it was not

the ultimate court of the United States that made a difference but rather the lower court interpretations and rulings impacting individual situations over time.

From a review of the ongoing *Monthly Labor Review* section on legal decisions, the influences of the various court systems in time and place interpreted the legislation and helped to redefine laws as appropriate. The scope of this information was beyond the resources of this project.

Union Activities From the 1970 to 1999 Literature Review

Research Question 7: What were the significant union activities investigated in the literature review that influenced the model during the 1970-1999 timeframe?

The history of unions during this timeframe reflected the changing role of manufacturing in the American economy and job market. As the number of employees in the manufacturing sector changed due to competition, productivity demands, and changing management styles the influence of unions on policies diminished. In the wake of the changes in manufacturing, jobs were created in the service sector. The emphasis on the profitability caused companies to evaluate productivity and labor costs. By the end of the time frame, the UPS strike illustrated an important aspect of unions at the end of the 20th century (Caudron, 1997). The benefits and wages of the part-time and contingent workers were the issue of the strike. In many industries, the part-time and contingent workers replaced traditional hiring practices and limited the impact of unions on negotiations and strike threats.

As unions tried to support current workers, the different types of jobs (more intellectual than physical) and the evolving demographics (younger generations without

experience of union history) influenced the development of relationships. Thompson (1987) wrote that children of the Baby Boomer generation would not have any sympathy for union efforts. Lower skill workers benefited the most from union support (Hirsch & Schumacher, 1998) and therefore, the better-educated workers did not have experience with the history of unions. The history of unions was not presented in context to the ramifications of collective bargaining impacts on American working conditions (Rosenzweig, 1987). Unions tried to reach new groups of workers and professionals. Attempts to approach professional organizations failed (Boardman, 1999; Kilgour, 1990; Levitan & Gallo, 1989). Unions of the 1990s used highly organized public relations campaigns and tactics to encourage membership and support collective bargaining (S. Leonard, 1999; Overman, 1997).

Finally the types of legislation passed during this timeframe and the emergence of professional HRM impacted the perceived need for unions for many workers (Fiorito, Lowman, & Nelson, 1987; Ng & Maki, 1994). Unions influenced legislation pieces protecting retirement (ERISA, 1974), safety and working conditions (OSHA, 1970), older workers (ADEA, 1978), family (FMLA, 1993), and issues with women in the workplace over the years. The problem for many Americans was the fact that union pockets of influence did not directly connect into their lives and jobs.

The single most important change was the diminished control of unions over collective bargaining activities. Throughout the 1980s, the emphasis of the negotiations changed from wage increases to the concessions of unions that maintained jobs and sometimes the manufacturing plants in the area. By the end of the time period, there were

more unsettled contracts and increased threats of the use of contingent workers in the threat of strikes (Cutcher-Gershenfeld, Kochan, & Wells, 1998).

The literature on unions from the HRM literature review and *Monthly Labor Review* illustrated the changing roles and perceptions on unions. In reality, since the majority of workers in the workplace at the end of the 20th century were in service industries, the role of unions to influence area wage rates was diminished. As fewer people overall worked in union industries and the job market remained salient, people did not perceive the need for unions as they did when working conditions were treacherous and workers had few benefits. With the impact of the changes in HRM, benefits increased and wages for better-educated workers were high. As more women (and mothers) entered the workforce and started receiving better compensation, the household income levels rose and the emphasis on the family wage needs defined by the traditional male, head of family manufacturing worker decreased.

Union impact on the model was more significant in the 1970s as unions negotiated for wages and supported legislation to improve working conditions such as OSHA (1970). The better-educated Baby Boomer union members influenced unions during the 1970s (Kassalow, 1979; Norris & Bockelmann, 2000; Pestillo, 1979). During the 1980s, collective bargaining changes saved jobs but the perceptions about unions were mixed overall. By the 1990s, people in the lower skill jobs and with a relationship with workers such as their UPS delivery person sympathized but the perceptions about larger union groups were more nebulous.

Economic Context Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 8. What were the significant economic changes and events influencing the model cumulatively during the 1970 to 1999 time frame as determined by NBEA data and the literature review?

There were many changes and swings in the economy during the time frame. The experiences of the 1970s illustrated the extremes of the overall economic conditions with events such the Dow Jones Industrial Average hitting 1,000 for the first time and then falling rapidly in response to the oil crisis, devaluation of the dollar, and the fallout to the Nixon Watergate scandal. The changes in the Federal Reserve initiated by President Carter helped to curb the inflation during the 1980s (Glennon, 2000; Norris & Bockelmann, 2000).

There were five economic downturn periods during the cumulative time frame with three mild and two sharp recessions. In chronological order, the periods were December 1969 through November 1970 (mild), November 1973 through March 1975 (sharp), January 1980 through July 1980 (mild), July 1981 through November 1982 (sharp), and July 1990 through August 1991 (mild) (NBER, 2001). Contributing factors to the earliest economic downturn period included the end of the Vietnam War and defense spending cutbacks, technology impacts, and the surge of new workers such as women and the Baby Boomers. During the next recession, the impact of President Nixon's Watergate involvement, the devaluation of the U.S. dollar, the oil crisis, increased global competition, and the demographic changes all contributed to the economic downturn.

The recessions of the early 1980s were the result of residual effects of the events of the 1970s, increased energy costs, escalated inflationary measures to control inflation, increased global competition, and demographics. The 1981 to 1982 recession was caused by the slow recovery from the 1980 recession. The final recession was the result of changing market demands, rising health care costs, and another energy price increase. However for the first time service industry workers lost jobs (Gardner, 1994) and women were not the target pool for newly created jobs in the recovery as in the past four recessions (Gardner, Hipple, & Nardone, 1994). The key to the recovery of the 1990s was consumer spending (Berman & Pfleeger, 1997; Pfleeger, 1996).

During the 1990s, the Dow Jones Industrial Average exceeded 10,000 for the first time (Daniels, 1999; Glennon, 2000) and the economic expansion was the longest since the 1960s (Martel & Keiter, 2000). The impact of downsizing in companies continued throughout the time frame. After the layoffs of the 1970s (Daniels, 1999), the largest number of employees downsized in a single year was in 1998 (Laabs, 1999). As companies downsized throughout the period and threatened to close operations, the overtime hours worked by exempt and non-exempt American employees was the highest in the world. Bluestone and Rose (1998) explained how the working hours for prime age workers (experienced and skilled) rose dramatically during the 1980s and 1990s. Data from the CPS and PSID indicated that working hours rose sharply starting in 1989. In contrast, the real hours wages for workers continued to decline from rates of the early 1970s

due to inflation and other factors. In 1998, the average hourly wage in 1998 was 11% below the 1973 level. On average, Americans were working longer hours, in more intellectually demanding jobs, for reduced wages. The value added effects of education provided additional opportunities but the price in many cases was additional time dedicated to the job.

Research Question 9. What were the changes in the CPI that impacted the model during the 1970-1999 timeframe?

The Consumer Price Index (CPI) rate changes reflected the impact of the rising market basket costs for urban consumers and the impact of the escalation of energy costs during the study time frame as shown in Figure 6.2. The CPI rate for energy doubled in the 1970s and spiked with the OPEC announcements of 1979. The HRM literature for this period included information on how HRM may have to change strategies. The issue of the cost of the worker's commute was considered. Legislation was passed to encourage energy conservation and changes in work options. Flextime and compressed workweek schedules were promoted as a way to reduce traffic, encourage carpooling, and increase factory downtime and thus reduce energy consumption.

Thomas (1991) wrote that Americans experienced the largest oil price increases in 1981 (8.9%) and 1991 (6.1%) on the CPI. Wilson (2000) stated that during the 1990s, that OPEC raised energy prices 30.1%. Although the OPEC increases were significant, the U.S. oil supply was created from other sources as well. The OPEC prices increased the cost of energy but not as heavily as countries in Europe and Japan. Under the conditions of the OPEC price increases, the impact was more devastating economically for them. Therefore, as part of the world market, consumers in those countries were not

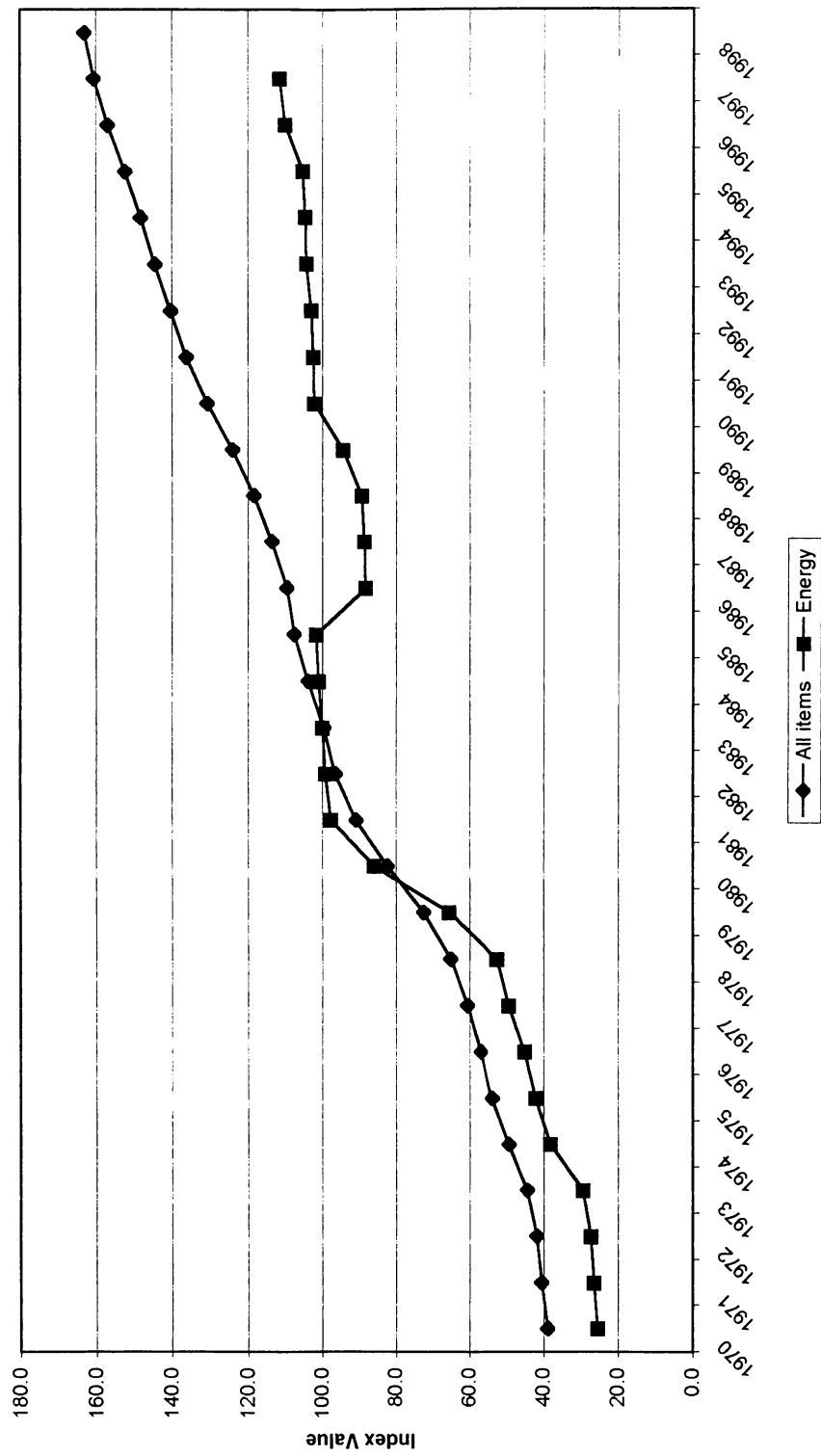


Figure 6.2 Consumer Price Index (CPI) between 1970 and 1998.

able to purchase. In turn, fewer American products were exported and the 1970s attempts to devalue the dollar to increase world trade were negated by the impact of the OPEC oil embargo.

The overall inflation rate escalated from an index reading of 40 in 1970 to 160 in 1998. The rate of change was prominent in the inflationary periods of the early 1980s recession periods. Unions and economist used CPI changes to determine wage structures (Wasilewski, 1980). Changes in the CPI illustrated the need for families to have dual incomes. The overall urban market basket costs rose steadily during the time frame. Situations like the Midwestern drought increased food prices (Light & Shelvin, 1998) and the continuing increases in the cost of medical related expenses impacted families and individuals (Wilson, 2000).

The influence of inflation on the changing workforce cannot be underestimated. The impact of employment on household income was the major factor in the decision for many working mothers to be in the workplace. If the cost of living had remained constant, fewer women probably would not have worked fulltime. Glennon (2000) blamed the inflation of the period on the oil crisis. As inflation increased with the cost of oil and oil products, globally people borrowed substantial amounts of money to maintain business. During 1973-1974, OPEC raised the price of oil 400% and an additional 70% in 1979. United States banks raised the prime rate to over 15% and consumer spending (and borrowing) decreased. Another potential impact of the recovery of the 1980s, was the changed in the U.S. tax structure.

The impact of the economic changes during the time frame was a critical interface in the research model. The rising CPI created an atmosphere that prompted many wives and mothers to enter the workforce. The economic conditions created the context for the growth of the service industries. Although women and minorities were encouraged to enter the workplace, the necessity of the added income helped to facilitate changes to accommodate the real needs of women in the balance of work and home demands.

Work System Variable Influences Between 1970 and 1999

Employment Trends Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 10: What were the cumulative rate changes in the employment figures during the 1970 to 1999 period and how did the data influenced the model interactions?

As the total population increased, there was a greater need to expand job opportunities in the services sector to provide employment, apply technology, create and provide for demand of good and services, and balance occupational, educational, and skills sets of current and future employees. The employment figures were one of the indicators watched to measure the economy for these factors. Employment figures as percentages are deceptive to a degree. The total employment for the period exceeded any point in U.S. history. The number of manufacturing jobs was limited by the demand and needs of consumers.

During the 1970s, the unemployment figures as shown in Figure 6.3 increased dramatically after the end of the second recession. This was during a period of uncertainty as more of the Baby Boomers entered the job market and manufacturing jobs in certain sectors were eliminated as a result of economic conditions. Alterman (1973)

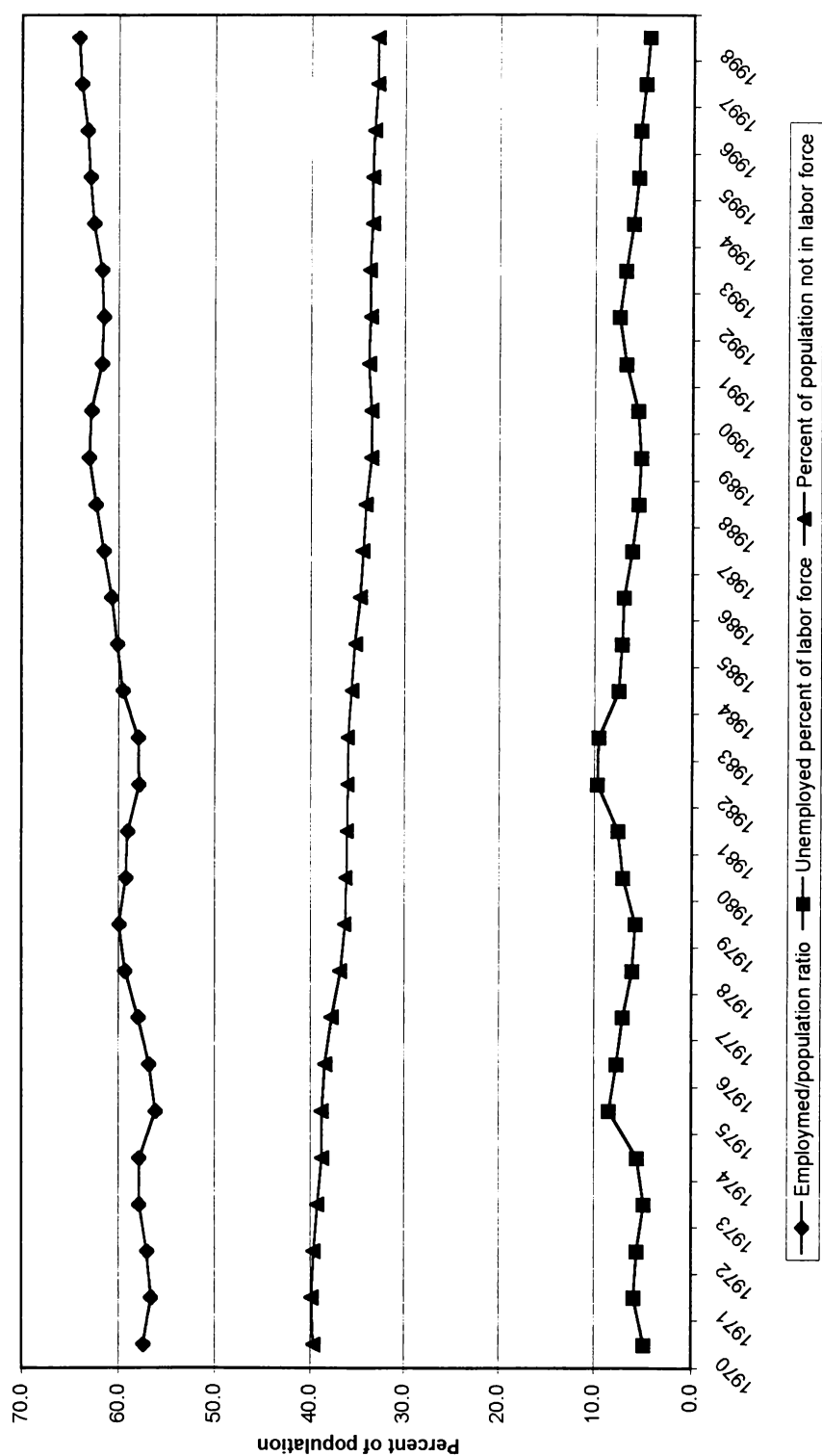


Figure J1. Employment trends between 1970 and 1998.

described that the government predicted an economic slowdown during the late 1970s and early 1980s. The cause of the slowdown was the immense size of the later Baby Boomer generation and the impact that new workers from the group would make on employment opportunities as job seekers and future consumers.

Early (1974) described the systems ramifications of the oil crisis. In the recovery period of the energy cost increases and the recessions of the early 1980s, companies posted record losses. In the late 1970s, the first major layoff of white-collar workers occurred at U.S. Steel (1999).

The unemployment rate reached 10% in the wake of the 1982-1983 recession. The employment had changed with the reduced number of positions from economic problems and the Baby Boomers class of 1980 was the largest group to enter the labor market (Deven, Leon, and Sprinkle, 1985). Unemployment during the early 1980s was the result of changing demographics, manufacturing reductions, and economic conditions limiting the number of new service type positions. The services industries grew quickly after the recession periods because of the low overhead and flexibility of the business development (Plunkert, 1990).

During the recession periods the segment of employment was not tracked in the employment figures was the number of people with second or part-time jobs in addition to their traditional jobs. The incidence of moonlighting increased dramatically during this the 1980s (Stinson, 1987). Many people used second jobs to offset the uncertainty of the economic conditions of the period.

During the 1990s, employment numbers recovered quickly after the early recession. Unemployment hit a 30-year low in 1997 (Glennon, 2000) and hit 4.5% according to the CPS figures in 1998. The employment situation created a employee's market with salary increases and additional benefits for workers. Flextime was a popular work option for Baby Boomers and the Baby Bust generation. Numerous examples were found in the literature review describing the demand by the Baby Bust generation for balance between work and leisure (Dunn, 1993; Newitt, 1987; Solomon, 1992a).

During the periods of low unemployment, workers typically have more workplace options and will pressure for benefits in addition to income. The period of the late 1990s were a ideal time for flextime. Also, employers will offer perks such as flextime during periods of moderate unemployment to reward good employees for their support. Flextime options were more readily available during periods of lower unemployment as a rule.

Flaim (1979) evaluated the impact of the Baby Boomers and other demographic changes on unemployment during the 1970s. The increased numbers of new workers had the impact of raising the unemployment rate until the economy improved and the work opportunities with new jobs created for goods and services were realized. For example, there was an increase need for new automobiles with high mileage as the Baby Boomers purchased their first new automobile after stable employment.

Human Resource Management Literature Review Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 11: What were the significant issues form the HRM literature review that influenced the model cumulatively from 1970 to 1999?

There were several continuous themes from the analysis of the HRM literature across the time frame. Included in the list were impact of technology, development or evolution of the HRM field, increased diversity and subsequent protections in the workplace, legislative impacts, the influence of Supreme Court decisions, corporate culture expectations, and generational issues.

The impact of technology was one of the critical themes of the literature. As computers became smaller and more powerful, the transition of clerical workers to newly created often more prestigious positions occurred during the 1980s and early 1990s. Other technological impacts included the fax machine, the evolution of office support equipment, and expansion of services. By the end of the 20th century, internet access and email changed the communication patterns for many organizations. The cultural milieu interface with technology changed American workplaces.

The development of the field during the time span affected the professionalism of workers and the relationship of HRM to the corporate culture. As the role expanded to include interpretation of new legislation and compliance issues, employee training and development, recruitment, retention, and increasingly complex benefit packages.

The cultural changes for the field of HRM were reflected in the content of journal articles, the professionalism of the writings in articles and books, and the general language of the texts evolved during the time frame. As the language evolved with the changing professionalism and diversity in HRM and the workplace in general, the content of the literature changed. For example, the philosophical nature of journals reflected the disciplinary approach of the editors and the readers. With the title changes

during the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s, the content of most of the journals was targeted to specific audiences. Development of new journals such as *Human Resource Development Quarterly* reflected an assessment of the need for articles on specific topics. Another explanation might be that researchers and academia needed additional venues for publications on topics not supported in other publications and created a journal for their research and promotion.

As the workplace became more diverse with minority opportunities and the increased number of women, the issues of assimilation and protection of rights often were under the direction of HRM. Jost (1997) stated that since the late 1970s that the workplace had undergone a multi-cultural revolution. Following the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the gradual employment of people from different minorities into corporate America occurred. There were issues (Norris & Bockelmann, 2000) and cultural biases and expectations had to be addressed.

The employment and career development changes for women had the greatest impact on the workplace for HRM. Shifts in issues such as occupational stereotyping, sexual harassment, safety, working mothers, childcare, sick child care, eldercare, dual career families, part-time professionals, and promotions were addressed through HRM interventions. The employment of women encouraged discussions about balance between work, family, and life issues.

The impact of legislation on the HRM role was considerable. As stated elsewhere, the number of legislative acts and regulations changed the workplace culture. As the regulations and interpretations accelerated the role of HRM to provide the timely support

to management and workers was established. As the middle management roles changed with new responsibilities and redefinition in the 1980s, the metaphor of the wife to the corporate structure transferred to HRM. As in many traditional families, the HRM role interpreted the rules, enforced the issues when needed, and provided the necessary supports to recruit, hire, train, and retrain the most valuable resources, employees. Just as the cultural definition of the mother to soothe and regulate the child's interpretation of a given situation, in many cases HRM handled the difficult task of downsizing and reallocation of employees with the changing economic conditions.

The importance of the corporate culture resonated throughout the research study. As formal and informal provisions were made for workers on the books, the interpretation of the appropriateness of options such as flextime were culturally defined. For example, the identification of companies as family-friendly was a manifestation of the need for some corporate cultures to formally identify with employee work and life balance issues.

Generational issues impacts included all of the workers in the workplace. Older workers had problems with retirement, technology, and lower education in many manufacturing plants. The silent generation as the group born during the Great Depression and World War II were fewer in number but demanded their rights. These two groups defined the corporate culture. Many of the workers were men with wives who stayed at home with children or the responsibilities of the house. As these workers had to accommodate the needs of women with dual home and work responsibilities, they were less supportive. Women in this generation who worked typically did not have children or

they returned to work after children. They did not have the cultural opportunities to work and raise a family. The Baby Boomers dominated the workforce during the time frame. Their needs included accommodations for family and school. As they matured and their parents aged, they had dual issues of eldercare and childcare. With the economy and the cost of raising a family, quitting for family care issues was not an option for many people.

In summary, problems faced by HRM practitioners were numerous and the literature presented ideas and research on solutions and studies on interventions and HRM solutions. Throughout the flextime and alternative work arrangement literature presented below, a small but significant theme was that organizations were unique and HRM leaders should be cautious in applying interventions developed for specific work milieus. Hedges (1983) cautioned about applying findings to problems without assessing the issues. Campbell and Baron (1982) doubted the application of validated HRM practices in the field. In review of the literature, they questioned the true application of flextime in practice. A significant realization of this study was the impact of the corporate culture in the interpretation and practices of HRM. In summary, HRM literature addressed an array of issues that influenced the research model.

Narrative on Alternative Work Arrangements (AWA) Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 13: What Information from the literature review on alternative work arrangements (AWA) during the 1970 to 1999 time frame cumulatively influenced the model?

During the time frame, the emergence of alternative work arrangements was a significant part of the flextime option development. Often companies would offer a

collection of options in order to meet work needs for employees at various levels in the organization or in certain occupations. As stated elsewhere, flextime was considered an alternative work arrangement in many of the literature sources. The availability of flextime as an option supported the development of other work options in companies. Flextime was the easy option to provide and the other options often required additional support from HRM.

From the literature review of flextime during the 1970s, several authors stated that compressed workweek or the Four-Day Workweek was heavily promoted during the early 1970s. As more mothers entered the workforce, the availability of part-time positions was important. Employers looked for options to increase productivity and reduce costs for escalating benefits. The contingent work force allowed employers to reduce benefit costs, test out workers, and in union cases, reduced the packages for new hires. The alternative work arrangements changed the scope of working life for many people during the time frame.

Alternative options included job sharing, permanent part-time, temporary or contingent work, compressed workweek, and telecommuting. During the time frame, the most controversial option was the temporary pool. In some instances, the only method for future fulltime positions with companies was through the temporary services. During the 1980s and 1990s, the employment agency developed contracts companies to provide workers on a temporary or term arrangement. Some companies offered contracts directly to contingent workers with special skills. For example, an architectural company hired a temporary worker who was an architect with experience in medical facilities in order to

complete a contract while the fulltime employee was out on leave. Overall, the temporary worker made 30% less than the fulltime worker in the company (Caudron, 1998).

Temporary workers or substitute teachers have helped schools to staff classrooms on a on-call basis.

Job sharing was used to provide professional staff and reduced hours. The option was very popular with banking and services where customer relationships were important. When professional level employees needed to reduce hours the opportunity for sharing the workload with another co-worker with the same needs was presented. During the recession periods, job sharing reduced the cost to provide services and also reduced the number of layoffs in some industries (Kerachsky, Nicholson, Cavin, & Hershey, 1986).

Permanent part-time was an option desired by mothers, people with eldercare issues, retired workers, adult students, and other who wanted or needed work but did not want to commit to a fulltime job. Hedges (1977) explained how the government counted part-time positions for employment and productivity studies. The issue about part-time employment developed as more professional workers, especially mothers with small children, in exempt positions worked in positions that were officially part-time but required additional hours unpaid as exempt staff.

Positive outcomes achieved with AWA options included increased diversity with AWA (McCampbell, 1996) and balance between work and life (Brotherton, 1997). Leonard (2000) stated that the use of part-time workers helped during periods of talent and skills shortages.

Telecommuting became more popular with the technological advances of the 1980s and 1990s. The Clean Air Act (1990) enforcement encouraged this option and provided workers with flexibility to balance home and work in many cases. Extensive literature on the development and implementation of telecommuting programs was written during the time frame. Without the positive perceptions of flextime and the relaxation of standard work hours of operation, the telecommuting option would have taken more development time in many companies.

In closing, the AWA arrangements became more popular during the time frame. The key word was flexibility and the options provided workers to balance their needs and the company work demands. The presence of AWA in the workplace helped to stabilize flextime as a benefit for employees.

Narrative on Flextime Literature Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 14. What aspects of the evolution of flextime researched through analysis of the flextime literature reviews from cumulatively from the 1970 to 199 time frame influenced the model?

The literature on flextime was extensive and included articles, books, chapters of books, and reports. The thematic analysis of the literature review provided the information for this question. There were six themes in the literature over the time frame.

The most important finding was the escalating issue concerning supervisors and managers in the availability and support for flextime. During the 1970s, Hilgert and Hundley (1975) and Schein, Maurer, and Novak (1977) cautioned that most supervisors did not like the option. Thomas (1986; 1987), Weatherall (1989), and Mellor (1986) reported on supervisor problems and perceptions. By the 1990s, the issue of supervisor

support was a considerable topic (Boden, 1999; Christensen & Staines, 1990; Cowans, 1994; Greenwald, 1998; Kossek, Barber, & Winters, 1993; Olmstead, 1995; Rose, 1998; Sheley, 1996; Thornburg, 1994).

Another theme was the role of government in the promotion and development of flextime for organizations. The 1978 Federal Employees Flexible and Compressed Work Schedules Act changed perceptions about flextime. The bill was developed in response to several successful pilot studies and applications at various government sites. From the government's perspective, the bill allowed for energy conservation, it was recruitment and retention tool, the option promoted scheduling for family time, and it helped to create a more diverse work pool. During the 1980s, the government made flextime options permanent and a considerable portion of literature originated in government offices and divisions locations. The passage of the FMLA (1993) provided the context for additional promotions of flextime. In 1994, President Clinton issued a memorandum directing agencies to develop and provide comprehensive work and family programs including options such as flextime. Conroy (1997) detailed how President Clinton promoted flextime as a benefit to rethink and use as a slogan in the 1994 re-election campaign. Most of the arrangements were informal. Petrini and Thomas (1995) stated that although all 50 states promoted flextime only Arkansas had a formal policy.

During the time frame, perceptions about flextime changed and evolved. Although flextime originated in Europe, American organizations quickly adapted the practice. One of the ongoing issues with the literature was the quality of the research studies conducted. There were several contributing factors to the literature quality. Many

of the effects were difficult to isolate in the context of typical working environments. In some studies, participants were told that they were in a pilot program to assess if flextime would become a workplace option. In the cases of self-report, the findings were suspect. Even when other measurements of attendance, tardiness, and productivity were measured, the effects were specific to that organization in time and place. In organizations where other issues were present or other interventions were ongoing, the conclusions from several of the studies were limited.

Many of the studies, especially in the 1980s, were conducted in government agencies for convenience, access to population and potential additional measures, and fairly homogenous populations for data collection. At issue were the differences in management and operations between public and private sectors. Within the public sector, daily operations and levels of management were different. During the time frame, the number of jobs in the government tripled (Wiatrowski, 1988). The pay scales were lower in the public sector for comparable positions (Miller, 1996).

Access to companies was limited although there were several excellent studies conducted in the 1990s (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, & Wright, 1999; Kossek et al., 1993; Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse, 1996). Rynes, Bartunek, and Daft (2001) explained the challenges and difficulties in working between academia and private industry. Access to the workers and limitations on information published were key issues to the research. In summary, it was difficult to isolate effects in organizational research and analysis in the private sector and therefore the determination of the actual effects was limited.

The evolution of the flextime movement was evident in the literature. During the 1970s, flextime marketing and promotion were important. During the 1980s, the literature included success studies and guides to the development of flextime. By the 1990s, the emphasis was on flextime as an option for work and life balance.

In many organizations, the flextime policy was formalized and part of the employee guidelines. However, supervisors did not promote it as readily as HRM and management reported on various studies. According to Solomon (1994), there were numerous people who wanted to use flextime but were discouraged as a result of the informal policies of corporate America. Family and life issues were discouraged in the workplace. In some respects, the traditional male corporate culture represented a deeper level of control and a type of discrimination against people, especially women with families, who had balance issues. Organizational development was at the discretion of management (Greenwald, 1998). For some, the issue was that people who really needed flextime or work options did not have them as a result of occupation and work structure limitations. Many women with lower skills and education were limited as to their work options (Koch, 1998). They could not take care of their family or personal needs during standard work hours.

Peak (1994) did not like the way that flextime was promoted by HRM. Since HRM was limited in their abilities to regulate flextime policy, the promotion of the option was not reasonable. From the careful analysis of the literature, many of the reports of the extensive of flextime were based upon self-reporting surveys from management and HRM. Christensen (1989) stated that flexibility was the corporate watchword for the

1990s. Cowans (1994) considered flextime as an established part of the American workplace culture. However, corporations were inflexible with work and life balance options (Solomon, 1994). There were differences in formal policies and what corporations informally promoted at the middle management level.

Throughout the time frame, there were several critical studies and publications by the leading researchers on flextime. From the 1970s, the works of Hedges (1973; 1974; 1977), Owen (1988) and Golembieswski (1977; 1974; 1978; 1975) were all instrumental to the development of American flextime options. During the 1980s, books on the application and use of flextime were resources for practitioners, HRM, management, and academia to understand the ramifications of flextime and other alternative arrangements (Applegath, 1982; Nollen, 1982; Pierce, Newstrom, Dunham, & Barber, 1989; Ronen, 1981, 1984).

Flextime was not as prevalent as many of the publications promoted in the American workplace. Beers (2000) described the 1997 CPS Work Schedules Supplement. The data indicated that nearly 28% of those surveyed had flexibility in the time of arrival and departure from work. However, according to employers, the percentage of companies offering formal arrangements was low at less than 6%. There was not any data on the number of people with formal arrangements and the percentages of those using flextime. Tracking the existence was dependent on reliable and valid data. Many of the studies relied on anecdotal reports and self-reports of perceived changes. As mentioned elsewhere, the true reliability of these methods was limited because responses were conceivably the impact of bias for or against flextime. The reports of many of the studies

were suspect when the source of the information was weighted against reports that although flextime options were formally written into the employee guidelines and reported by HRM and management, the actual support of flextime (and use) was more limited. Another finding was the fact that in the early days of flextime, the professional level and management workers typically male had more flexible arrangements by the unwritten culture of their occupations. In some organizations, the addition of time clocks were perceived as demeaning to perceived occupational and corporate status. In some respects, flextime denied a perceptual freedom for some workers.

Finally, the corporate perceptions regarding the hours of work and management of time were changed by technology and demographic changes. However, the boundaries for the exempt class of workers between work and home were eliminated with technology. As technology equaled the work rules for women in exempt positions, the outcome was less distinction in responsibilities. This finding was particularly salient for professional women trying to balance reduced hours such as part-time professional jobs and family. The time demands became a 24-hour a day management issue. As flextime was offered, the additional stress of corporate disdain for the option limited the acceptance by the group of people who needed it most.

***Flextime Title Counts From Human Resource Management
(HRM) Journals Between 1970 and 1999***

Research Question 15. What were the counts of articles in major HRM journals specifically entitled or subtitled flextime or flexible working hours during the 1970 to 1999 cumulative time frame? Where there any trends from the review (and graphic plot) of the counts that reflected the trends identified in the model variables?

***Flextime Title Counts From Management
and Business Journals Between 1970 and 1999***

Research Question 16. What types of journals other than HRM published flextime articles and were there any trends from counts of flextime titles cumulatively during the time frame that reflected the trends identified in the model variables?

In the individual decade findings chapters, the literature counts addressing questions 15 and 16 were presented in table format to illustrate the changing HRM journal titles and to provide a record of the distributions by journal title. In this section, the cumulative findings were tabulated under type of count as shown in Figure 6.4. The counts for HRM journals, business journals, and the single title counts were plotted. The single title count numbers were calibrated by decade and did not address if any specific journals had more than one count across the decades. The intent of these questions was not the analysis of specific journals but to isolate if the journal counts illustrated any interactions with other model variables.

In Figure 6.4, the peaks for HRM journals occurred in 1979 (six counts), 1987 (five counts), and 1996 (four counts). The low or troughs occurred in 1982, 1984, 1989, 1991, 1995, and 1999 with zero counts for each of these years. One of the findings of this research on frequency counts was that 1979 was the year after the 1978 Federal Flextime Act and information on the topic of flextime was important. The early part of 1987 was prosperous and companies were lobbying against the FMLA (1993) and therefore flextime options were a means to reduce the likelihood of the passage of the act. In 1996, flextime was an option to provide benefits for recruitment and retention. As for the years

of the troughs, all but 1995 and 1999 were periods of economic downturns. During 1995 and 1996, the options were apparently not as important as in HRM.

For the flextime counts on the business journals, the peaks were in 1977 (seven counts) and 1994 (and these dates paralleled changes in legislation. Trough years in early 1970s were attributed to the developmental stages of flextime. The counts for the years 1979 and 1983 reflected negative economic conditions. The counts for 1989, 1992, and 1993 were not readily associated with other model variables. Counts for the single journal category were generally low (no greater than four) for the entire period of the data collection.

The impact of the other model variables was unclear with the information tabulated for Figure 6.4. All of the counts were combined and plotted by year for the time frame as shown in Figure 6.5. The patterns of the counts were more clearly defined. The low points were in the early years and following periods of recession. The peaks were in years when government action existed or was pending, 1977, 1979, 1987, 1990, and 1994. The years 1977 and 1979 flanked the passage of the Federal Employees Flextime and Compressed Work Week Act (1978). Act. In addition, there were increased interests in providing flexibility for women and as a benefit to attract employees. In 1987 and 1990, the literature suggested that heavy support against the FMLA created interest in opportunities for employees to balance life and work without federal regulation. In 1994, flextime was a work and life balance option that supported workers to reduce the incidence of FMLA and this was the year that President Clinton called for more family

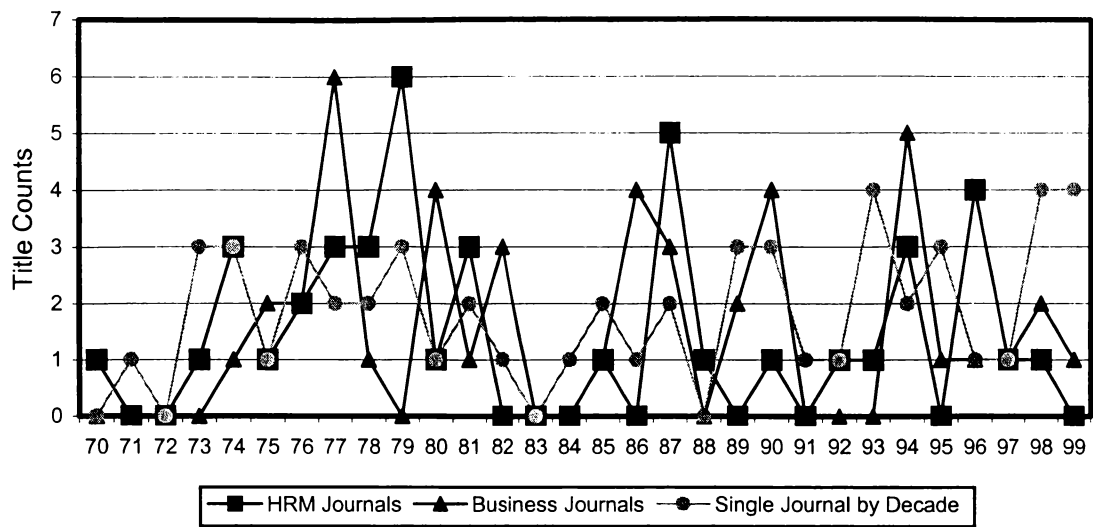


Figure 6.4 Flextime title counts by category between 1970 and 1999.

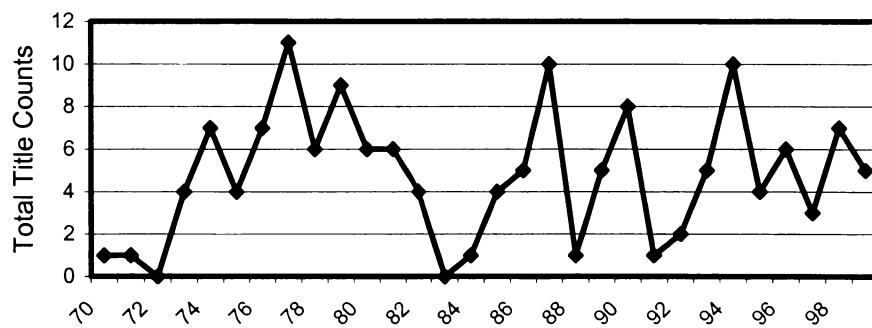


Figure 6.5 Flextime tile counts combined between 1970 and 1999.

friendly policies in the public sector. In the tight job market, options that supported families were important.

Family System Variables Influences Between 1970 and 1999

Household Income Shifts Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 17. What were the changes in current and constant incomes for households during the cumulative time frame between 1970 and 1999 that influenced the model variable interactions?

The American household income, as determined through CPS data, changed dramatically for most groups over the time period. The plots of the various groups were illustrated in Figure 6.6. The plots included current (perceived income amounts) and constant (1998 dollar) amounts for comparisons. The current income measure reflected the annual wage amounts for the four different household groups illustrated in gray plots. This information was important to reflect the perceived income and status of workers. For example, if a worker started his or her career making \$20,000 per year and over time increased the salary amount to \$40,000 per year, the implication is that the person could perceive that he or she made \$20,000 more than the starting salary. However, the purchasing power of the additional income diminished over time due to inflation impacts on goods and services.

The black plots in Figure 6.6 indicated the adjusted household incomes for the same groups. For the group households with wife in the paid labor force the apparent income increase illustrated in current (gray) dollars was not as dramatic and reflected adjustments to the economy. The group with the least amount of income growth was the single female head of household. This income level was fairly constant with little

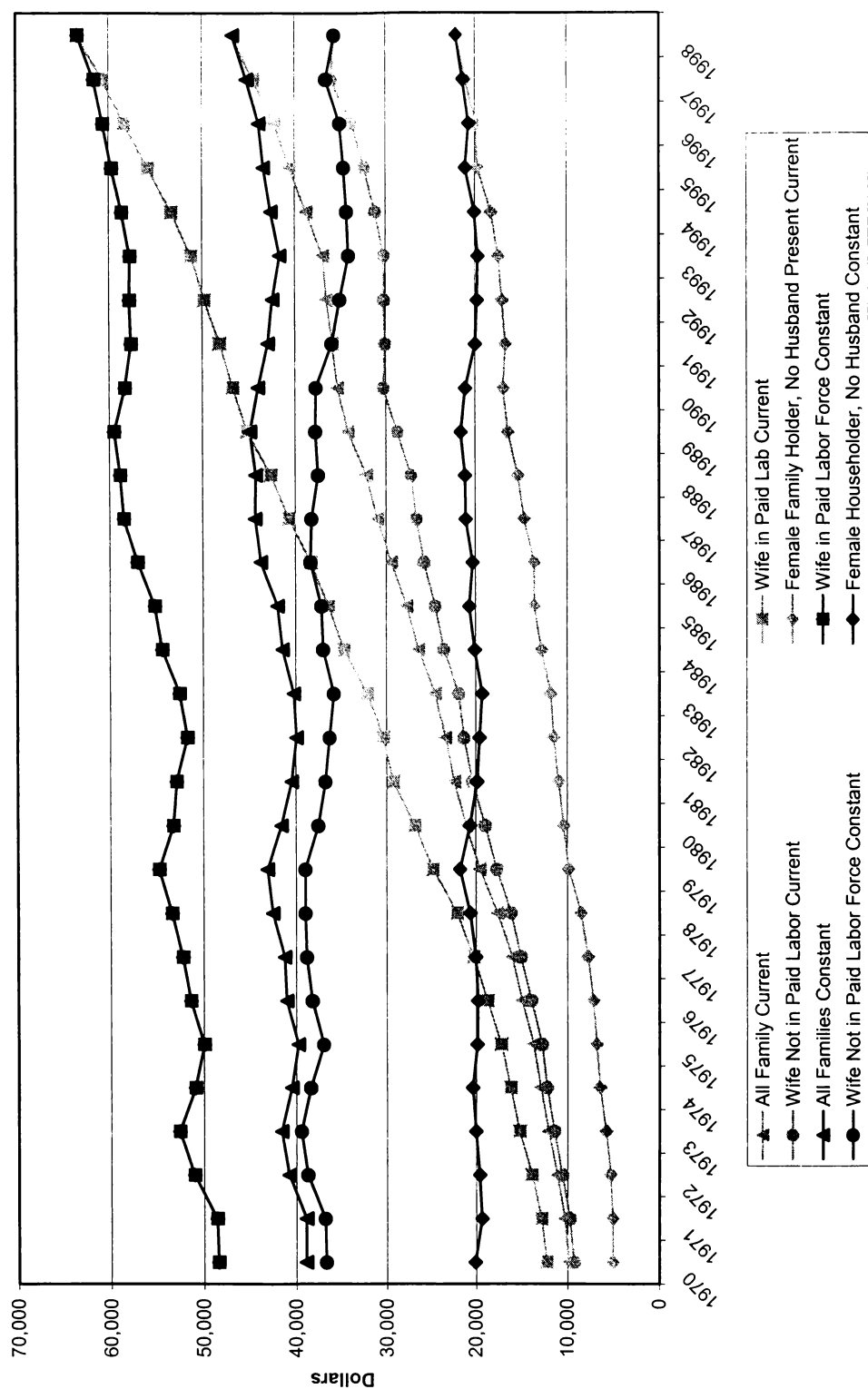


Figure 6.6 Household income in current and constant (1998) dollars between 1970 and 1998.

increases in buying power. At this average income level, little income was available for purchases outside of necessities. The impact of inflation and economic downturns were more dramatic for this group.

Household Composition Shifts Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 18. What were the changes in household composition during the cumulative time frame between 1970 and 1998 that influenced the model variable interactions?

The American family household changed between 1970 and 1998 as illustrated in Table 6.1. There was a trend towards more single adult households over the course of the timeframe with a combined increase of 12.1%. The marital trends of the baby boomer generation support the rise of lifetime single lifestyle. The percentage of the population in traditional married family households dropped appreciably over the time frame.

Table 6.2

Household Composition Distributions Between 1970 and 1999

Family Type	1970	1980	1990	1998	% Change
Married Family	81.2%	60.8%	56%	53%	- 28.2%
Male head of household with family	1.9%	2.1%	3.1%	3.8%	+ 1.9%
Female head of household with family	8.7%	10.8%	11.7%	12.3%	+ 3.6%
Male head of household without family	6.4%	10.9%	12.4%	13.8%	+ 7.4%
Female head of household without family	12.4%	15.4%	16.8%	17.1%	+ 4.7%

Marital Status Shifts Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 19: What were the shifts in marital status cumulatively during the 1970 to 1999 time frame that influenced the model interactions?

By the end of the 20th century, the American perceptions about marriage changed. Table 6.2 detailed the percentages of people in each category for each of the decades and the percentage of change over the time frame. The most significant change was the overall drop from 1970 percentages of males and females married by the 2000 Census. The percentages of people widowed dropped reflecting the increases in life expectancy for both males and females. The divorce rate increased overall about 3.3% but this percentage also applied to a greater number of people in the typical age range for marriage.

Table 6.3

Marital Status Distribution Between 1970 and 2000

	Sex	1970	1980	1990	2000	Change
Married	M	67.7%	62.0%	62.0%	59.3%	-8.4%
	F	62.8%	57.4%	57.4%	55.1%	-7.7%
Never Married	M	26.4%	30.0%	30.0%	30.7%	+4.3%
	F	20.6%	23.0%	23.0%	23.4%	+2.8%
Widowed	M	3.1%	2.6%	.6%	2.5%	-0.6%
	F	12.7%	12.4%	12.4%	12.0%	-0.7%
Divorced	M	2.8%	5.4%	5.4%	7.4%	+4.6%
	F	4.0%	7.2%	7.2%	9.5%	+5.5%

Narrative on Family Literature Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 20. What were the trends from the literature review on family (an work) during the cumulative time frame that influenced the model?

In the 1970s, Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) called for research on the interface of work and family. Kanter's (1977; 1978; 1983; 1984; 1986) work contributed the understanding of the intersections language across venues. Metaphorically, the availability of information on the issues did not the options were operationally applied for either flextime or research on the issues.

Themes from the literature review included the interactions of work and family cultures and expectations, generational issues, gender issues, and economic issues. One of the outcomes of this research was a better understanding of how different disciplines view the same issues. The prevailing issue was the contextual meaning of work and family balance as defined by work systems and family systems. Although flextime was an option for gaining a balance, there were cultural issues at the operational level that precluded the strategic application of the option for many.

The issues about work and family interface changed over the time frame. Multiple role themes included accommodation of expectation, economic expectations, and gender roles. At home, women were often expected to remain in the traditional mother role and reflect the stability of the family. In the workplace, women were expected to be professional and present the corporate image. Societal changes included the concepts of liberation for women in home and work. Schonberger (1971) stated that corporate culture with traditional male expectations kept women unliberated. As the HRM language

focused on quality of worklife, many women were unsure about how to define quality. Definitions included professional success, additional income, family time, successful children, the professional status of one's husband, and the super women mentality.

Bailyn (1970) wrote that many women defined their roles in deference to the expectations of their husbands. Staines, Peck, Shephard, and O'Conner (1978) found that most working women put family first and men put work before family. Friedman described how CEOs did not relate to their employees and assumed that most women were at home with America's children as were their wives. The use of options such as flextime were limited because traditional work schedules were parallel with traditional school and daycare schedules (Hofferth & Phillips, 1987). Women naturally assumed the multiple roles of mother and family and were more successful than most males at achieving balance. Bolger (1989) studied the multiple role effects and found that women were more pliable in multi-role demands.

One of the cultural movements of the 1980s and 1990s was the conservative religious right's promotional of traditional family culture. Glennon (2000) described how the Christian Coalition was influential in Congressional activities. Aldous (1990) wrote that the leaders of the coalition worked with corporations to limit the opportunities for women in the workplace. Many men did not like the idea of women in responsible work situations (Spitze & South, 1985). By promoting the corporate culture of the importance of the traditional family, middle management helped to stymie work and life policies. Regan (1994) described that many of the middle-aged managers perceived that women

and other groups had not paid the same dues. Opportunities for accommodation for family and life issues were not acceptable in the corporate venue.

Bailyn (1993) wrote that over 50% of the workplace was unchanged by work and family initiatives. Family issues were inappropriate in the workplace and professional women had considerable work and family conflicts on a daily basis.(Burris, 1991). The irony was that family friendly company employees reported and exhibited more organizational commitment (Grover & Crooker, 1995). Contemporary workers committed to their careers as opposed to companies as was the case with employees in the past. Larger organizations and unionized companies were more likely to have more family friendly benefits and opportunities however, researchers found that the supervisor determined the actual availability of family friendly options (Glass & Fujimoto, 1995).

In summary, the literature on the family and work interface developed over the time period. Many of the issues covered involved specific examples of the interactions between work culture and family culture demands. The interactions of culture and the expectations were the key themes. Society promoted through the media and through expectations that a standard of living was necessary for success. However, the economic conditions of the time frame demanded dual earner households in many cases. The cultural expectations for family care and work responsibilities were problematic for the working mother of the time frame.

Individual System Variables Influences Between 1970 and 1999

Educational Level Shifts Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 21. :What were the changes in educational levels that influenced the model cumulatively during the 1970-1999 timeframe?

During the time frame of this study, the educational levels of the average American increased as illustrated in Figure 6.7. The percentage of people with a high school education steadily increased for both males and females. The number of people with four or more years of college increased and the difference in the percentage of male and female graduates diminished. Finally, as the opportunities for education increased for all Americans, the percentage of people with less than five years of education declined. Older Americans who had fewer educational opportunities as children decreased in number.

The workforce from this time frame were better educated and competed for jobs that demanded technological skills. As more services positions for professionals and managers were created and filled by males and females with college educations, the demands of the job increased. The concept of career development meant developing an awareness of the corporate culture. Increased numbers of these people were exempt status and had to choose work demands over life and family considerations.

Another issue was witnessed during the early 1970s when the early Baby Boomers who graduated from college in records numbers quickly filled the entry-level positions for college graduates. In turn, a percentage of this group filled manufacturing and service industry positions traditionally taken by high school graduates with fewer higher educational opportunities. The group without high school education was forced into unemployment. Brown (1979) described this effect. One of four college graduates held jobs traditionally filled by someone with lesser education. The number of people with some college increased during the 1970s. The number of people with one year of

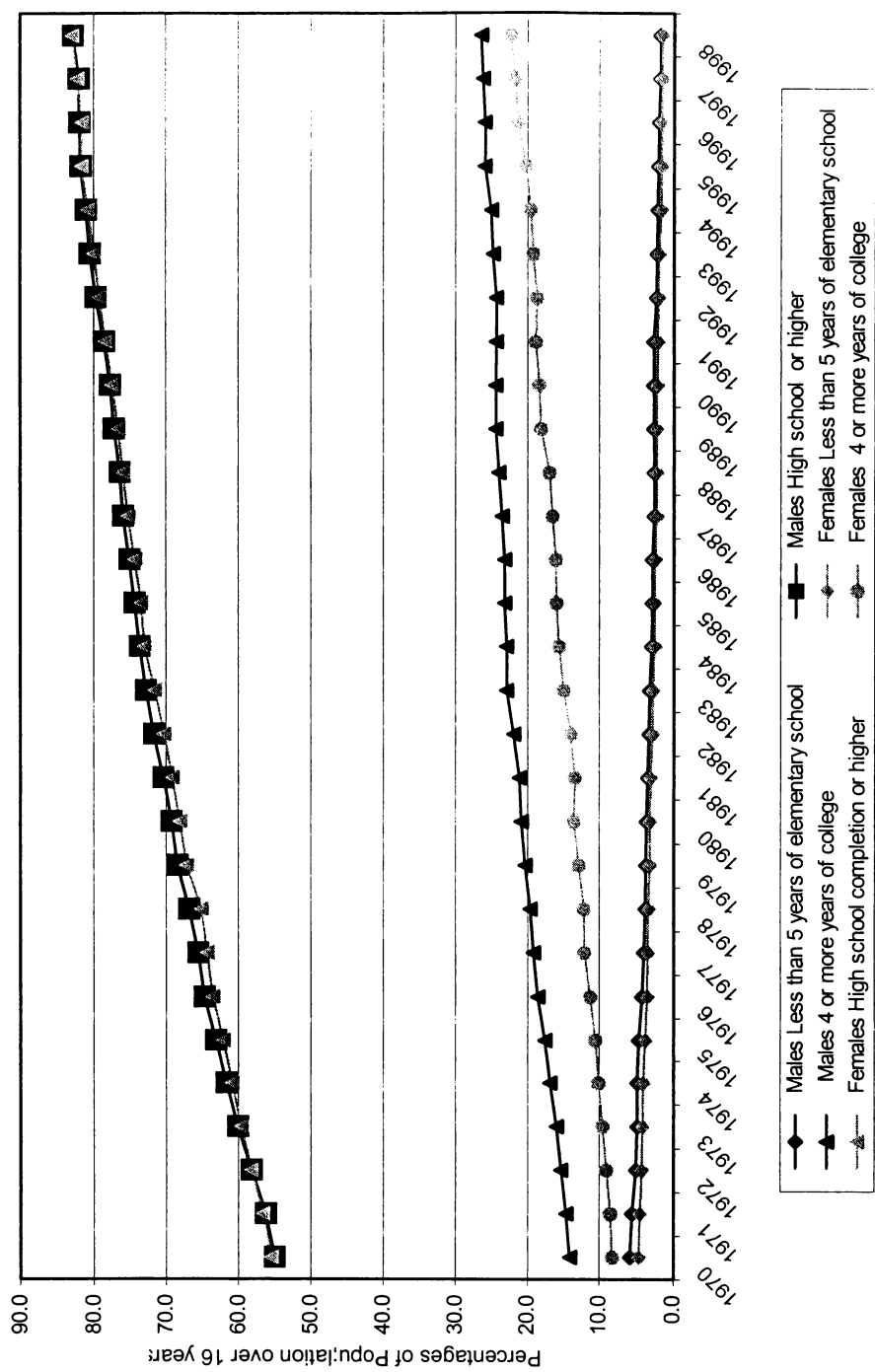


Figure 6.7. Educational shifts between 1970 and 1999.

college in 1973 was 6% and in 1978, 34% of the labor force had at least one year of college. This trend continued into the 1980s and 1990s.

Life Expectancy Levels Shifts Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 22: What were the changes in the life expectancy levels during the cumulative 1970-1999 time frame?

The average life expectancy for both males and females increased during the time frame as shown in Figure 6.8. The combined figures were included to illustrate that the differences were fairly constant and the greater number of females in the elderly population influenced the combined plot more closely.

The implications for this information include long term retirement planning. As the life expectancy increased for both males and females, many felt additional pressure to work beyond the traditional retirement age. With the passage of ADEA, there were increased opportunities for working in viable positions. With the passage of ERISA, the pensions and retirement plan options increased. By the end of the 20th century, the Baby Boomers were started planning for their futures and eventual retirement. Many were beginning to feel the pressure to continue working because of increased longevity figures and advances in health care. The costs of health care prompted many to work during the traditional retirement years.

Flextime options were supported in the literature as the method to help older employees transition into retirement. Often, the experience and knowledge of workers was important in the re-organizations of the 1980s and 1990s. Each situation was unique and reflected the organizational and individual needs.

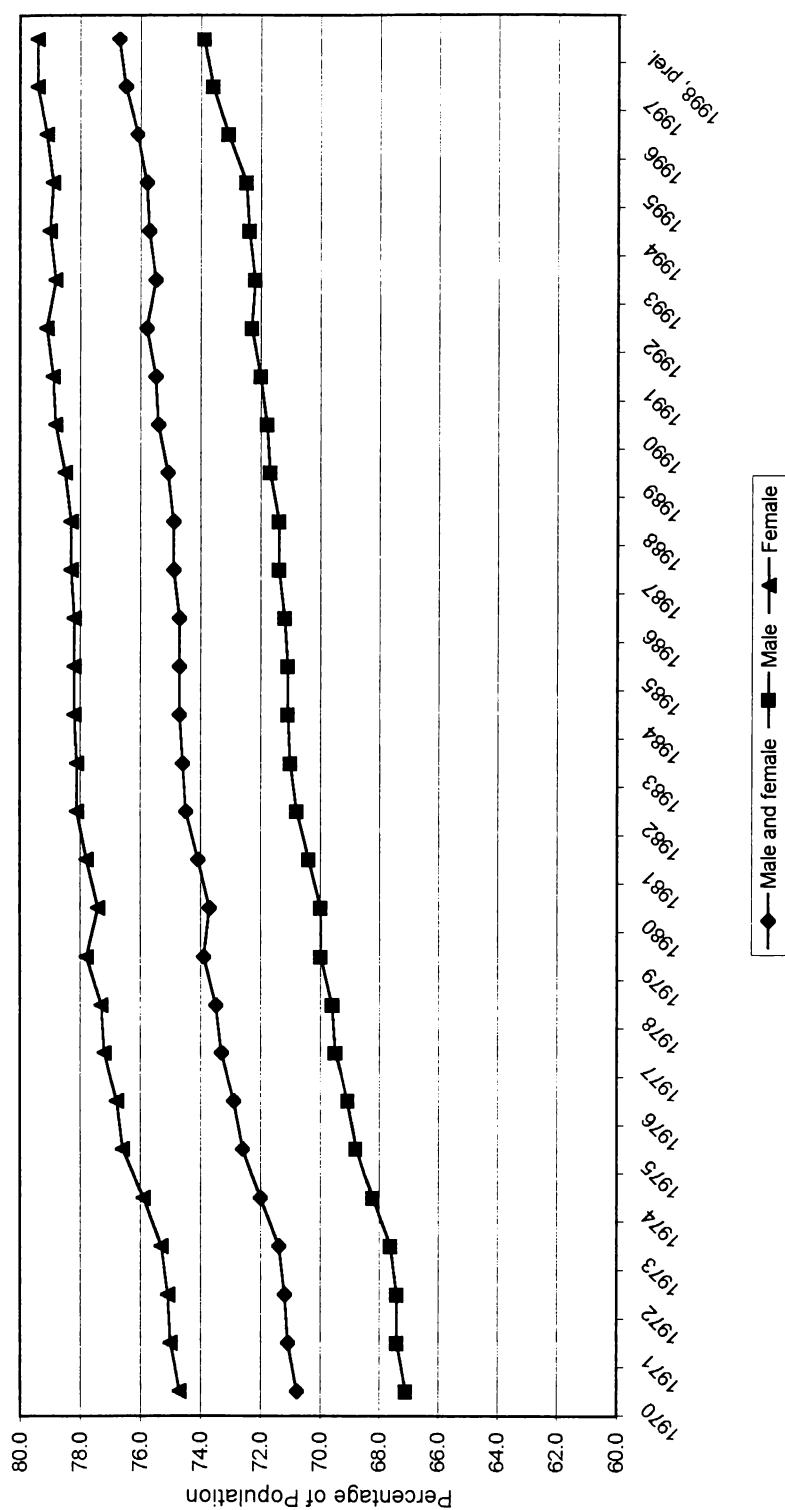


Figure 6.8 Life expectancy rate shifts between 1970 and 1999.

Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) Shifts Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 23. What were the changes in the Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) that influenced the model during the 1970-1999 time frame?

The Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) was averaged for each year using the chart information from Figures 3.7, 4.7., and 5.7. The cumulative date was plotted in Figure 6.9. Gray scale areas approximated the recession periods presented in the answer to question 8.

The drop in the CCS paralleled the recession periods except for the early 1970s. This recession was partially caused by the reductions in defense spending and demographic changes in the workforce. The subsequent recessions involved escalating oil prices and thus, more personal impacts from the changing price structures. The other downturn in the CCS readings occurred in 1987 with the stock market crash.

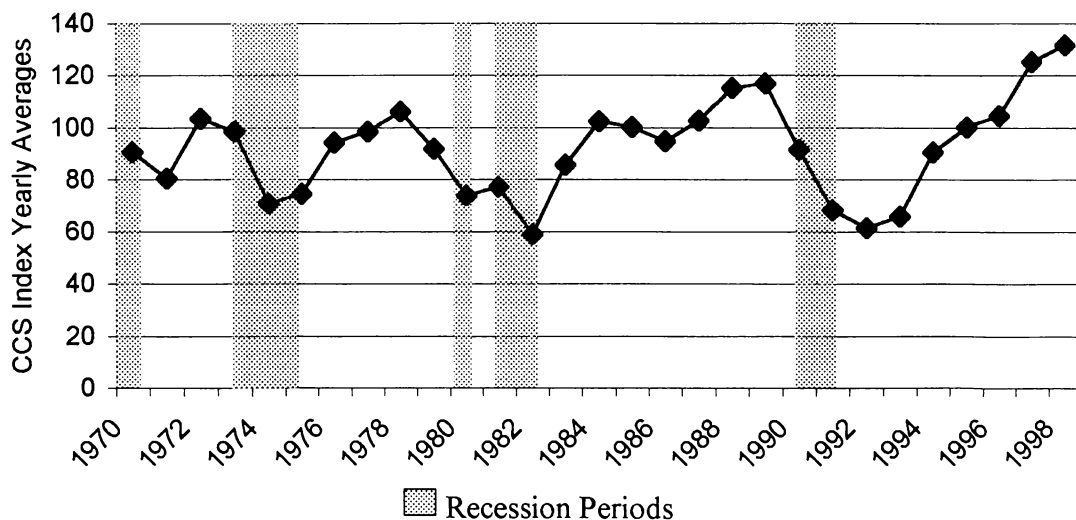


Figure 6.9. Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) overview between 1970 and 1999.

The CCS is the only data that consistently asks the average consumer for his or her perceptions about the economy. Implications for the other variables include the validation of the interactions of the different types of groups. For example, if the CPI escalated without a subsequent change in the CCS, then the impact was not perceived as important in the context of the average American.

Individual Systems Literature Review Between 1970 and 1999

Research Question 24: What information from the general literature review cumulatively from the 1970-1999 timeframe was associated with changes in demographic cohorts and influenced the model?

The literature on cohorts and generational issues was placed within other pieces of the model as appropriate. The time limitations of this study were strict and the opportunity to develop this section was nonexistent. However, information was integrated as noted and appropriate to support other parts of the model.

Individual Cohort Perceptions

Research Question 25: What were the individual worker perceptions (recall) about flexibility, work, and family in each decade and did this information support the other findings?

Each of the research participants provided information on their perceptions about how the workplace had changed since the specific time range when they were the median age for the American workforce. The information from the questionnaire for Question 16 was used to support the model interactions in this section.

Survey Question 16 stated: From your personal perspective, how has work changed for people with your background, education, and responsibilities?

Cohort One Analysis

The members of the first cohort reflected many of the attributes of the findings from work and family literature reviews. For example, three of the respondents stated more education was needed for today's workers. Contextually, a lower percentage of people graduated from high school or entered college from this group as a whole. Professionalism in the job responses reflected the changes from manufacturing to service industries and the overall impact of education, corporate influence, and technology. The competition statements reflected generational issues. There was more competition among the Baby Boomers (Cohorts Two and Three) and the Baby Busters as a group are competing against the larger, more established Baby Boomers.

From the cumulative data analyzed from the survey responses of this group, there were two thematic findings. They had fewer work and family options and they witnessed the positive changes in the workplace. For example, four of the females discussed

Table 6.4

Cohort One Responses to Survey Question 16

Response	Frequency
Need for good education	3
Jobs and work more professional	2
More competition in younger generation	2
More women in workplace	1
More family emphasis	1
More flexibility at work	1

daycare during the 1970s. If it was available, the programs were perceived as unreliable. One respondent stated that she wanted daycare but they did not take infants. By the time she could put her child in daycare the work opportunities had changed. From the literature review, the issues of affordable, reliable daycare were important.

Cohort Two Analysis

The Cohort Two participant responses reflected more of their experiences in the workplace and their past and continued struggles. In 2001, the respondents were between the ages of 48 and 54 years of age and in the prime of their respective careers. This group was comprised of 11 women and their responses were summarized in Table 6.5. Five of the group indicated that the discrimination in the workplace for wages and promotions indicated that some issues have not changed. One respondent (banking vice-president, age 51) wrote: “We still must work harder, work smarter, be the best, train others, and after all of this work, work for lower wages than our male co-workers.”

Cohort Two entered the workforce between 1965 and 1971 (18 years of age) and 1969 and 1975 (22 years of age with college degree). As youth, the women were one of the first groups to be encouraged to enter the workforce. After the Civil Rights Act of 1964, this group of workers experienced the system reaction to the emergence of minority issues. As new workers, they had the stigma of youth in corporate America and they represented the new emphasis on equality. In addition, workers in this age range were the first of the official Baby Boomer generation. The media attention and expectations of the impact of this group as whole on culture was unsettling to the established perception of family and work. The early Baby Boomers were the youth that fought in the Vietnam

War and the youth that protested American involvement. Their work lives started before many of the legislative reforms of the 1970s but they were the ones subject to the ramifications of the reforms.

From the cumulative data analyzed from the survey responses of this group, there were two thematic findings. Currently there were more work and family options and there was a sense of more discrimination. The finding on opportunities was supported by the availability of work options, the impact of legislation, and informal decisions in the workplace for people in management positions. As the early members of the Baby Boomers, the participants citing issues of discrimination were dealing with age and gender problems supported by the general context of the literature. Middle and upper female management's accomplishments were treated as necessary outcomes of the legislation and enforcement actions of the EEOC. This perception was present in the

Table 6.5

Cohort Two Responses to Survey Question 16

Response	Frequency
Discrimination in the workplace	5
Work bigger portion of life	2
Increased wages	1
Increased opportunities	1
Increased technology	1
Flextime more common	1
Lack of dedication in younger workers	1
Workload more	1
Age limited opportunities for other work	1

corporate culture and was part of the informal knowledge and language in many organizations.

Cohort Three Analysis

The participants in Cohort Three participant responses were more positive in general. The responses of this group as found in Table 6.6 supported the general perceptions from the HRM literature. One of the interpretations from the data of this study was that there appeared to be a difference between the older and younger Baby Boomer generation. Unlike the member of Cohort Two, the members of Cohort Three were not directly involved in the Vietnam War. This group was between the ages of 41 and 47 years of age in 2001. When they started working, the economy was down and the impact of the oil crisis was evident. They entered the workforce between the years of 1972 and 1978 (at 18 years of age) and 1976 and 1982 (at 22 years of age). The unemployment rate was high, the price of housing was unaffordable with the prime rates in the early 1980s, and the impact of technology had only started to change the workplace.

Although this sample was one of convenience, the number of unwed and/or childless participants in this sample reflected the national trends discussed elsewhere. The perception that the workplace was more family friendly indicated that in seven years, more of the impact of the FMLA and other measures were present in the workplace. One of the possible themes of the answers addressed the issue of the pace of work as evidenced in the statements about work stress and the cycles in work. As this cohort has witnessed a return to aspects of the culture of the 1970s in contemporary society, they

Table 6.6***Cohort Three Responses to Survey Question 16***

Response	Frequency
More family friendly	4
Impact of technology	3
Value of experience	2
Work more stressful	2
Work less rewarding	2
More flexibility	3
More opportunities	1
Cycle of changes more evident now	1
Hard to find qualified people	1
Need vacation like other industrialized countries	1
Hiring by value to firm	1
Younger workers need advanced education	1
More women take longer leaves for children	1

may be sensing some of the cyclical conditions in the workplace.

From the cumulative data analyzed from the survey responses of this group, there were two thematic findings. Themes were more family friendly and the value of their experience and education in their positions. Although this group entered the workplace before the advent of many of the technological advances, they arrived during a period of change and uncertainty. The workplace during their early career development embraced these changes and they may have been more likely to have benefited from training and exposure because of their junior (lower) status at the time of the impact of technology such as computers.

In the workplace the differences between the early and late Baby Boomers may become more of an issue in the coming years. The overall responses of Cohort Three appeared to be more responsive to younger workers and what was needed for their development. The older Baby Boomers appeared to be less inclined to respond to younger workers and their respective needs. This information was a valuable finding of this study.

Summary of Influences

There were six main themes that emerged from the qualitative analysis of the research questions presented in this section: (a) the influence of corporate culture, (b) the role of management in deciding culture, (c) the changing demographics of the general population and the workforce, (d) the economic conditions of the period, (e) the emerging and influential role of HRM, and (f) the need for work and family balance for the American working public and their dependents. The interactions of the different variables were represented in the final research model representation as illustrated in Figure 6.10.

Final Research Questions

The findings from the research questions presented above were applied to the final research questions that were developed to guide the design of the research study. Each of the questions was developed with the understanding of the qualitative nature of the study and the implications of applying a historical framework in contemporary research.

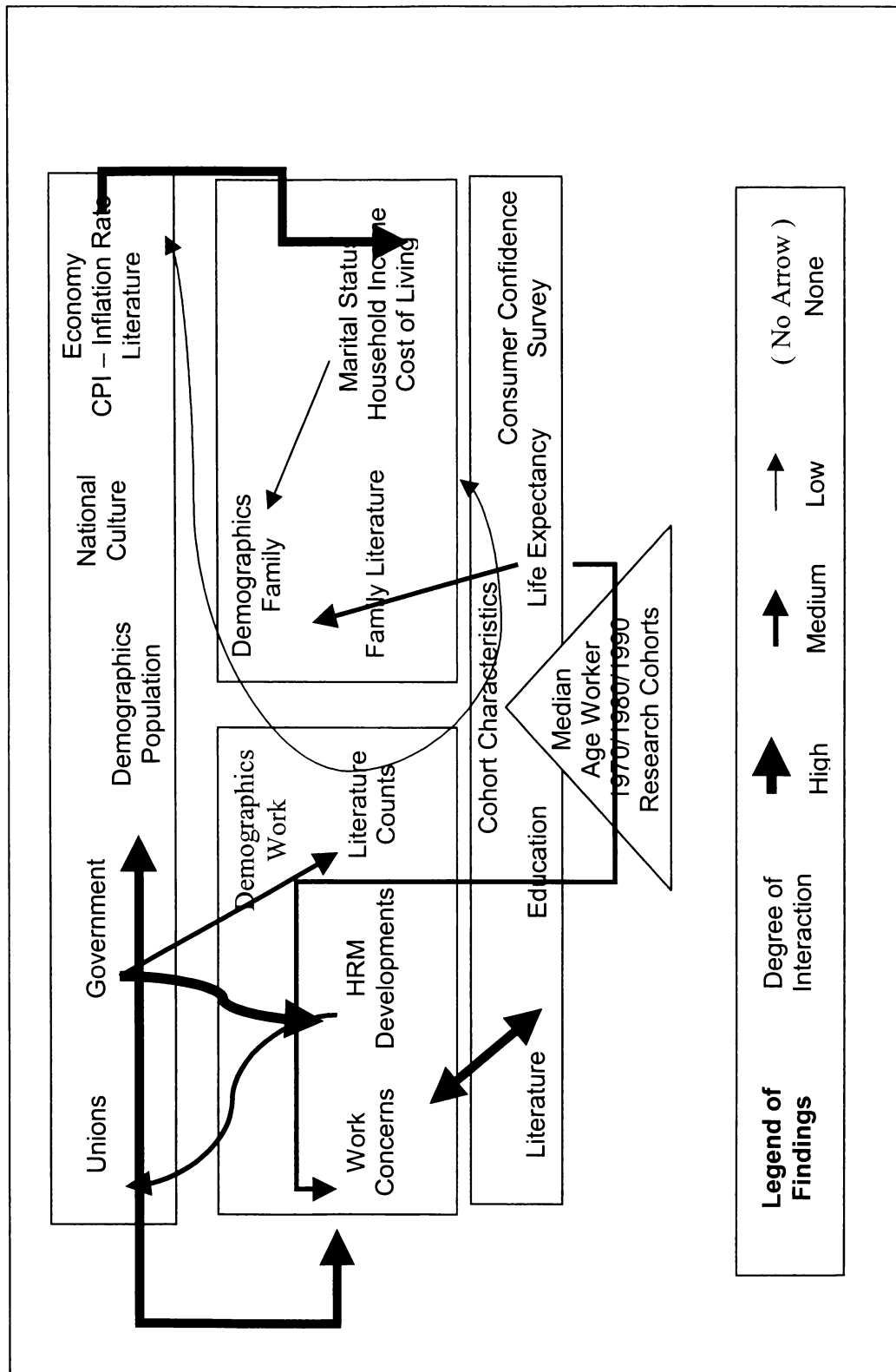


Figure 6.10 Cumulative model on the emergence of flexitime between 1970 and 1999.

Final Research Question Number One

What were the trends of the national systems, work systems, family systems, and individual systems levels that influenced and provided contextual impact on the emergence of flexible hours or flextime?

National Systems Impact Between 1970 and 1999

At the national or macro-level, the impacts of changing demographics, legislation, and the economy were the principal findings for this study. The impacts from national culture, the executive level, and unions were not as critical to the development of the context. The impact of Supreme Court decisions was not directly addressed in this study as noted elsewhere.

The changing demographics influenced the composition of the workforce and the needs of the general population. As the older Americans reached retirement, there were more options for easing into retirement or working after official retirement from the contextual changes investigated in this study. The impact of the Baby Boomer generation on the workplace and on family systems created and supported many of the changes that provided the context for the emergence of flextime. The energy crisis, inflation, the emergence of the services industry, and the impact of inflation on the buying power of households were all important findings under the literature and secondary data researched on the economy.

Work Systems Findings Between 1970 and 1999

The work system variables findings from the HRM literature review, the flextime title counts, and the alternative work arrangements (AWA) counts were significant to the

model. Findings from employment trends were not as important for the findings but were part of the interactions of the model.

Within the work systems level, the development of professional HRM was important in the development of flextime. Initially, flextime was promoted to decrease commute times, reduce absenteeism, and reward employees with cost-effective arrangements that ultimately increased employee productivity. The role of HRM to help employees balance work and life was solidified during this period at the strategic or formal level. Management controlled the operational or informal decisions on family and work balance.

During the 1980s, it was natural to offer flextime as a perk for women with children or eldercare responsibilities. Issues with supervisor perceptions were more common. By the 1990s, flextime was used to address issues with numerous groups from retention of top employees, increased opportunities for people with disabilities, and phased retirement options. The bulk of the reported use and effect was found women with children and/or eldercare issues. In summary, the impact of women into the workplace placed an increased and economic need to address scheduling.

Finally, the increased number of service industry positions with more professional and management opportunities for women, impacted the perceived value of flexibility. Many professional and management level positions have flexibility to an extent by nature. A theme of the literature was the need for management to change their perceptions about managing based on visibility to managing by results. This created a new level of pressure on minorities. Commitment to doing a good job often means extra

time and dedication to the project regardless of the time. In some respects, the philosophies proposed to help create improved management created increased demand.

Literature supported the conflicts of work schedules when dealing with traditional schedules such as daycare and school arrangements for children. The finding that corporate leaders did not understand or appreciate the numerous demands of working mothers or fathers with working spouses supported the concepts of generational issues as well. The control of managers over the work and life balances for workers was an ongoing issue in the American workplace.

Finally, the flextime title counts supported the notion of trends in the promotion of HRM ideas. As part of the historical foundations of this study, the prevalence of counts in context to other events was part of the analysis. The careful review of the content as part of the literature review aided in the content analysis. Without the careful and contextual analysis of the literature, the assumption that flextime was readily available could be made. However, the reports were suspicious and the findings of the empirical studies suggested that flextime was a good practice with moderate application.

Family Systems Level Findings Between 1970 and 1999

The impact of dual-earner family conflicts increased the awareness need for alternative scheduling. The literature supported the concepts of changing work and family roles, issues with corporate perceptions and management supports, and the changing cultural perceptions of individuals, families, and workplaces. The data on household income was important information for the understanding of the interface between the

economic needs of the families during the time span. Information from the marital status and household composition data supported the interactions of the other variables.

As women developed increasingly professional work roles, the family was provided with more income but the time left for the family daily activities and ongoing needs was limited. Although there were reports of tremendous advancements in the treatment of family and work balance, the traditional corporate structure existed in many corporations. When discussing this project for research participants, several shared stories about lost status, gender bias, and a total lack of respect for workers with childcare or eldercare issues.

Individual Systems Level Impacts Between 1970 and 1999

The impact of education was the most important trend from the secondary data. American educational levels rose appreciably during the time frame. Information on the quality of this education was not addressed in this study. Many of the studies addressed the limitations of education and the lower educational standards of the late Baby Boomers and Baby Busters.

From the primary or individual findings, the differences in impressions relative to life stage were significant. Although the participants age range was only 23 years (41 to 64 years of age) the differences in experiences, perceptions, and opportunities was obvious. The meanings determined by time and cultural perceptions were all different. Cohorts Two and Three are both part of the Baby Boomer generation and yet their experiences and perceptions were different. This was an important finding with implications for career development, retirement planning, and training. It appeared that

members of the younger Baby Boomer group would be better suited for roles such as mentoring or coaching younger work members.

The findings from the life expectancy figures indicated that Americans expected to live longer. The findings from the Consumer Confidence Survey (CCS) were interactive and discussed below.

Final Research Question Number Two

What were the interactions between the national systems, work systems, family systems, and individual systems that influenced and provided contextual impact on the emergence of flexible work hours or flextime?

National Systems Interactions Between 1970 and 1999

From the national systems levels, interactions with demographics, legislation, and the economy influenced other part of the model. The changing demographics and the number of people in the Baby Boomer generation influenced both work and family systems. More jobs were needed and the service industries grew to offset the loss of manufacturing jobs, changing technology, and the better-educated Baby Boomer cohort.

The legislative impacts influenced the workplace by providing opportunities that protected worker options and rights. Laws emerged and were tested that protected minorities, workplace safety, work options, retirement issues, and work and family balance. The legislation protected the issues of families and provided opportunities to balance work and family time through work options and family leave. One of the themes of the legislative changes was the emergence of protections for the workplace safety from harm, gender bias, and sexual harassment for women. The increased number of women helped to force the interpretation of the laws that were passed as a result of previous

grievances. As the outcomes of the actions against the people and companies that violated the laws were publicized, several cultural changes were supported.

The impacts of the economy impacted both work and family systems. As the economy was in recession, companies responded with layoffs and cutbacks. The economy impact on the viability of unions in the American workplace was a finding of the literature review. In the context of the economy, the decisions to close companies and displace workers influenced decisions for individuals and families. The impact of the oil crisis on family and work systems was apparent in the literature. As the CPI increased, the household incomes and buying power decreased. The finding that real wages have decreased since the levels of the early 1970s supported the need for dual-income families. This finding supported the need for flextime and other alternative arrangements to provide the necessary time for work and family balance.

Work Systems Interactions Between 1970 and 1999

The impact from the interactions with the work systems and the model were evident in the flextime title counts. The impact of the recessions and legislation on the counts was one of the more significant findings of this project. The promotion of flextime was an reactive measure of the influence of national systems on the workplace.

As readers were exposed to the merits of flextime, it was logical to assume that the incidences of flextime increased. However, the reports on flextime were often from HRM or management in response to forced choice surveys. There were indications that flextime was offered informally but not for extended periods of time. Finally, there was confusion about what was considered flextime. Since many professional and management

positions require nonstandard hours, the concept of flexibility was nebulous in their workplaces.

During economic slumps and recessions, the employment rates changed. Since more people were employed during this period than any other time in American history, the unemployment rate of 4.5% in 1998 was noteworthy. The increases in service industry positions provided more opportunities for work. One of the findings from the literature review was the importance of the American consumer to the economy and the relationship of spending to the creation of jobs to provide goods and services.

Individual Level Interactions Between 1970 and 1999

The role of the shifts in educational levels impacted all other levels of the research model. Cohorts One and Three expressed that education was an important part of employment in today's economy. The findings from the life expectancy trend analysis supported the need for more comprehensive understanding of older Americans retirement needs and the preparations of Baby Boomers for retirement.

The findings from the analysis of the Consumer Confidence Survey information illustrated the interactions of the economy, national events, and individual perceptions about the ramifications of each to his or her life at a given time. From the individual decade charts, it was evident that the reactions of the general populace could be tracked in the CCS responses. The collapsed model followed the overall trends of the interaction of the model.

Information from the three cohort groups was supported from the secondary data of the research study. Although this was a sample of convenience, the responses and

trends from the demographics analysis supported the representative validity of the sample to the general context.

Final Research Question Number Three

Can the research model illustrate visually the emergence of a HRM trend to be used in various contexts to demonstrate historical meanings of the variables of flextime in context?

The model was developed and conceptualized to provide a visual guide during the process of the research. The interactive arrows are limited in communication. After the process of this study, a new model concept was planned with ratings and charts on the degree of interactions between the variables across time. This concept will be applied to future writings and research.

For the presentation of this research, there are limitations to the model. However, the basic findings were represented across time with the illustration of the interactions with each decade. The process of this study was qualitative. The findings at this point are conclusive however, the model should reflect a more objective conceptualization of the findings.

Final Research Question Number Four

What were the most significant individual variable impacts from primary and secondary data that demonstrate the model?

The primary data or participant reports were supported by the secondary data investigations. Although this was a sample of convenience and opportunity, the participants reflected information from the literature and other sources.

The secondary data impacts were literature reviews specifically on legislation, economic factors, HRM field, alternative work arrangements, flextime work, and family. The figures for the secondary data sets added to the interpretation of the literature. The principal secondary themes included (a) the impact of demographic changes, (b) the influence of legislation on work and family, (c) changes in the economy and CPI, (d) the changing field of HRM and its roles in corporate America and employee needs, (e) the impact of the manager or supervisor on the availability of work options such as flextime, (f) the complexity of the situation for women in the workplace and as family members, and (g) the impact of education on the changing workplace.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

This dissertation was a historical investigation of the contextual factors contributing to the emergence of flextime in the American workplace. The time frame from 1970 to 1999 encompassed the earliest recorded dates of U.S. flextime until the end of the 20th century. The concept of flextime was a phenomenon of the latter part of the century but it paralleled historic work situations in that the worker set his (or her) schedule. A systems approach integrating variables from Bronfenbrenner's (1977) human development model and Schuler and Jackson's (1996) human resources management model were used for developing the research model. The research questions that framed the decade chapter organization were developed from the model.

The interactions and consequences of the motives of people and events discovered in this study validated the complexity of determining the causes and consequences of workplace innovations. In this micro-historical study, trends or themes emerged as determined through qualitative methods. The primary data were perceptions of individuals representing the median age for each of the three decades as a means to understand the mesosystem perceptions of the work and family interface during the time frame. The format for this chapter includes the significant findings, the most important conclusions, implications, limitations and recommendations for further research.

Significant Findings

There were eight significant findings from the analysis of this study. The magnitude of the impact of the Baby Boomer generation on the age distribution of the

general population was phenomenal. The interface of the Baby Boomers generation with each of the model variables was significant. As the Baby Boomers entered the workplace, new jobs were needed for a better-educated workforce. With the economic conditions of the 1970s and 1980s accelerated by the oil crisis and increased global market impacts, the size of this generation strained the employment figures. More of the Baby Boomers remained single or childless and this will influence future care needs and arrangements. As this population figuratively moves through the various systems of education, family, work, and eventually retirement the impact of the size of the group continues to have significant consequences.

The second finding was the impact of the economy and how external resources such as oil can influence the economy and work systems. Although the dependence on OPEC oil was not as large as European countries, the worldwide recession that occurred after the oil price increases during the 1970s was catastrophic in the context of the U.S. economic conditions started by President Nixon to strategically improve global marketing conditions. The impact of the decision to redesign the method for regulation of the Federal Reserve (Norris & Bockelmann, 2000) was significant. The action raised inflation during the early 1980s but the recovery prompted future economic growth. The U.S economy was strengthened by the consumer demand for products and services. Consequently, changing consumer demands caused additional strains. For example, U.S. automakers had to respond to the Baby Boomer desires for smaller more efficient cars as a consequence of the oil crisis and the higher gasoline prices.

The third finding was the interaction of legislation with work and family. The significant laws addressed issues for minorities but also the systems supports to encourage work and family balance. The 1978 Federal Workers Flextime and Compressed Workweek Act created new opportunities for acceptance of flextime but also access to worksites in the public sector for studies on the impact of flextime. This literature was instrumental in the development of flextime acceptance. In addition, the group of laws providing opportunities for women and other minorities created new levels of acceptance for workers who did not fit the corporate image. Legislation and the interpretation the laws by court and regulatory groups extended the ramifications of the social reforms. For example, the EEOC regulated issues on discrimination for various laws and extended the impact of the laws.

The fourth finding was the development and evolution of the HRM profession. In the context of the HRM literature, themes of changes in article content, language, and professionalism were evident. As HRM developed a new role, the interface between the employee and management was solidified. Within this role, the opportunities for developing and enforcing policy existed. Management wanted HRM to acquire a greater appreciation of the bottom line or financial implications of decisions. In reality, supervisors and middle management decided the operational decisions in many organizations and HRM had to deal with the ramifications of their actions with the employee.

The fifth concerned the apparent differences between Cohort Two and Three perceptions. There were distinct differences between answers for the two groups.

The older Baby Boomer had experienced different working conditions and life situations than the later member of the generation. From the perspective of the impact of context, this was not surprising but typically the Baby Boomer generation is grouped as a cohort in the literature and in policy definitions. The ramifications of the within group differences could be significant as the Baby Boomers move through various systems.

The sixth finding was the cultural expectations impact on family. The role expectations of the family culture and the gender expectations were issues on one level. However, both males and females with family responsibilities were not accepted as part of the corporate culture. The multiple cultural issues and ramifications influenced the roles and expectations of women.

The seventh significant finding was the accuracy of the Consumer Price Index (CPI) readings in relationship to the other model variables. This proved that people are responsive to the economy and the information that they hear and know tacitly.

The eighth major finding was the impact of the economy on the real wages and incomes of individuals and families. The plots of current and constant income shown in Figure 6.6 illustrated how deceptive income levels can be in the context of the economy. The implications for families included the need for dual income and the impact of the economy on the wages of the single mother.

Important Conclusions

The important conclusions of this study include the need for more historical research and dissemination of findings, the need for further analysis on the impact of differences between different Baby Boomer groups, the role of management in workplace

opportunities, and the understanding of the interrelationships illustrated by the model variables.

In the final analysis phase of this study, Rousseau's (1995) work on psychological contracts was discovered. At different stages in this timeframe, the meaning of psychological contracts between workers and employees changed. The problem of communication and different cultural expectations increased the burden of the implied contracts. Women thought they had a contract but the meaning of the relationship in many cases was very different from what was perceived and believed.

Implications

The implications of this study include the importance of historical analysis to the understanding of trends and impacts on work and family systems. By applying the historical, systems framework, a greater understanding of the contextual elements was realized. The study findings have implications for disciplines interested in either work or family interactions and how these frameworks evolved during the 20th century.

Another implication of the study was the ongoing issues with the middle management control over the policies that can positively impact employees. The role of middle management in the interpretation of rules and culture was proposed by Chandler (1977) and the theme of the issues with supervisors was found in the literature throughout this study. This finding has significant implications. The role of corporate culture is strategically important for assimilation and organizational development. If the guidelines for the role are limited by corporate culture

A critical implication concerns the impact of the children of the Baby Boomers born between 1981 and the early 21st century. The fertility rate increased to above replacement for the first time since the 1970s in the early 21st century. It is predicted that this newest generation will surpass the Baby Boomers in size. As a result of the ADEA and changing economic conditions, it is plausible that fewer Baby Boomers will retire in the traditional time frame. Therefore, the workplace will include and adjust to two large generations with differing systems contexts. In the understanding of the context for the emergence of flextime, this study helped to develop an understanding of the contextual impacts of the Baby Boomers. This information should be applied to predict the ramifications on the future workplace and family systems.

The last implication from the study (and the most important) was that flextime was not as readily available as the literature suggested. The two groups of women who need support for work and family balance were at opposite ends of the workplace spectrum. The women with less education who worked in service positions with fixed schedules and strict attendance policies with children and no spousal support needed some of the benefits of flextime. Traditionally, many of these positions were in the typing pools of the 1960s and 1970s. As technology changed, the types of jobs available required a multitude of skills and fairly regulated environments. The other group of women was the professional mothers who were expected to contribute full attention to work during 45+ hours per week and be available for work demands via cell phone and the internet at home or while traveling. Both are trapped in the contexts of their educations and opportunities.

Limitations

The scope of this study was cumbersome to manage. The number of variables was selected to provide the context of the development of the model. One of the key limitations was the availability of resources. For example, there were conferences on alternative work arrangements in the U.S. during the 1970s. Minimal information was found through several interlibrary searches. There could be more information available but the time and resources for this study were limited.

Originally, information on the Supreme Court decisions was to be included in the literature and database investigation. In the initial investigation, some of the lower court decisions were equally important in the context of the project. The interaction of court decisions with the model is a separate and extensive study.

The other important limitation of this study was the sample used for the primary research. Due to the time limitations and the scope of the other parts of the study, the sampling technique was one of convenience to find a minimum of ten subjects for the study. The sample in analysis was surprisingly representative of the demographic trends from the literature and secondary data set analysis.

General Recommendations

This study in many respects was a demonstration of the appropriateness of the application of a historical framework to investigate the contextual variables and ramifications of the emergence of a HRM trend. The demonstration was a success and elements of the process of this study should be applied in the investigation of other trends. The value of this demonstration in the teaching systems applications is significant.

The implications of the cycles of history are important. As noted in the methodology, the understanding of issues historically and systematically are important tools that many students do not receive in the modern classroom. Historical reasoning is more than facts and dates, the contextual issues are important lessons that are not respected by society.

A second recommendation is the further analysis of the information gathered for this research. Additional research was conducted on model variables but the scope of the project was too immense to include in this dissertation.

A third recommendation is the use of this study in demonstrating the differences between the real and perceived numbers in the extensiveness of flextime. This information could demonstrate the necessity to evaluate readings in professional journals carefully. In addition, a common theme was the need to evaluate organizational problems in context. There were examples of findings that were suspect and could be attributed to other issues. The data in this study has implications for teaching in HRM.

A fourth recommendation is the further development of the research model to more accurately portray the interactions graphically. During the course of this study, several ideas were formulated. The graphic format used in this dissertation is limited and additional work is warranted to illustrate the interactions over time and the cumulative findings.

A final recommendation is the application of this information in the planning for the impact of the Nexters or children of the Baby Boomers' impact on work and family systems. The Baby Boomers as a group will potentially work beyond the traditional

retirement years. As the two large groups are integrated into various systems, the information from this study could be important.

Recommendations for Future Research

The most important recommendation is for the development of interviews with selected study participants to understand more about their perceptions and to further test the model of recall about issues with work and family. The ramifications of the changes in work and family are important guidelines for development of future research.

Additional research is recommended on the possible differences between the older and younger members of the Baby Boomer generation. Future policies and HRM decisions could be influenced by the potential differences from within the generation.

Research with the same cohort groupings and an additional group of median aged workers should be conducted in the future to further develop the model implications for the changes in flextime and generational issues.

Future research on this topic should include information and data from the several longitudinal studies researching family and/or work from this time frame. The information from these studies can help to determine the questions and format for future research with the primary participants as recommended in this section.

Finally, Rousseau's (1995) model may have implications for some the issues concerning the availability of flextime and workplace assimilation. The application of the implied contract may be important in future organizational changes to improve working conditions.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A
List of Acronyms

List of Acronyms

ADA	Americans with Disabilities Act
ADEA	Age Discrimination in Employment Act
AFL-CIO	American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations
BLS	Bureau of Labor Statistics
CCS	Consumer Confidence Survey
COLA	Cost of Living Adjustments (union contracts)
CPI	Current Price Index
CPS	Current Population Survey
DOL	Department of Labor
ERISA	Employee Retirement and Income Securities Act
FLSA	Fair Labor Standards Act
FMLA	Family and Medical Leave Act
HR	Human Resources
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRM	Human Resource Management
IBM	International Business Machines
NLSY	National Longitudinal Survey of Youth
OPEC	Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries
OSHA	Occupational and Health Safety Administration
PDA	Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1979
PSID	Panel Study for Income Dynamics (University of Michigan)
U.S.	United States
UPS	United Parcel Service

Appendix B
List of Definitions

List of Definitions

Alternative Work Arrangements (AWA)

Also:

Alternative Work Options
Flexible Work Arrangements
Flexible Work

Term describing the collections of work arrangements outside of traditional work time (hours or scheduling) and location. The list of options changed during the 1970 to 1999 time frame.

During the 1970s, compressed work week or Four Day Workweek, flextime or flexitime, part-time, and contingent or temporary work.

During the 1980s, compressed work week, flextime, job sharing, part-time, telework, professional part-time, contingent work

During the 1990s, compressed work, flextime, job sharing, part time, telework, professional part-time, contingent work, and flexyear.

Alternative Work Scheduling

Alternative schedules outside of the traditional work day or work arrangements.

Baby Boomers Baby Boomer Generation

People born between 1947 and 1964. This is the largest cohort group during the 1970s to 1990s.

Blue-Collar Workers

Typically factory or manufacturing positions but also mining, fishing, etc. that involved the manual involvement to produce goods and or services.

Compressed Work Week

Reduced workweek consisting of four ten hour days instead of five eight hour days. Applied to hourly or nonexempt workers in manufacturing or blue-collar positions originally but expanded to become a regular work option for companies.

During the 1970s, the option was promoted to increase productivity (less time to start and stop operations) and energy consumption (time and employee energy consumption with travel).

During the 1980s, preferred work option for productivity in certain types of manufacturing.

Contingent work, workers (Temporary Positions)

Workers employed either through an agency or independently to work for a specific time or project but also expanded to include almost permanent positions.

Core Hours (Core Time)

In flextime, flexitime, or gliding time, the hours during the middle of the work day when all participants had to be present. The company used the work group and availability needs to determine the core hours.

Exempt Worker	Under the Fair Labor and Standards Act of 1938 and later amendments, the determination of the status of worker and whether or not the person received overtime pay for work hours beyond the standard 40-hour workweek.
Flexible Work Arrangements	Alternative Work Arrangements specifically with a variance from the standard
Flextime	Flexible working hours when the time of arrival and departure is at the discretion of the worker or possibly a work team. Many organizations had a core time with clerical or support staff. The professional worker using flextime may have to be available for meetings during a certain range of time.
Flex-Year	Work arrangements to schedule the work commitment for a whole year and allowing reduced hours during slow time or for worker needs such as summer time while children of working parents were typically out of school.
Fulltime work, workers	People working more than 35 hours per week including any type of arrangements including flextime.
Generation Nexters	People born between 1981 and 2002. The oldest members were entering work after high school and college at the turn of the century.
Generation X Also: Baby Bust Generation	People born between 1965 and 1980. This group was smaller in number than the Baby Boomers. Some were born to Baby Boomer parents. As a rule, more of their mothers worked. High school graduates entered the workforce between 1983 and 1998. College graduates entered the workplace between 1988 and 2002.
Gliding Time	The original German term for flextime or flexitime.
Human Resource Management (HRM)	Human resources area of practice concerned with the interpreting work policies and procedures for workers. Specifically the recruitment, selection, placement, compensation, appraisal, information systems, and benefits.
Independent Contractors Also Consultant Contractual Worker	Professionals or others with specified skills employed by company for a particular project or duration. The worker receives no benefits and has reduced commitment to the company but commitment to the project.

Job Sharing	Practice of splitting or sharing the requirements of a position. Employer typically receives more production. Employees share the benefits and job requirements. During the 1980s, the practice was very common as a means to employ more women and professional workers and spur the economy. One of the 1990s research participants recalled that the banking industry heavily promoted job sharing options.
Non-Exempt Work, Workers	Under the Fair Labor and Standards Act of 1938 and later amendments, the determination of the status of worker and whether or not the person received overtime pay for work hours beyond the standard 40-hour workweek. The worker receives time and a half for excess over a 40 hour week and premium pay for weekends and holidays.
Nonstandard Work Arrangements	See alternative work arrangements
Part-Time U.S. Federal Government Status	Employee who works for a company for less than 35 hours per week. The group included exempt and hourly status. The issue with the counts was that persons working a second job as part-time were not counted in the figures (counted under moonlighting) and the people who worked more than one part-time job were not counted.
Part-Time Cultural Definition	People who work in a part-time (temporary or permanent) with less than 40 hours or
Part-Time Involuntary	Work on a part-time, less than 35 hours per week status, out of necessity for work. Status may be part of company's reduction or offer of hours during economic downturns. Some workers will take involuntary part-time in order to move into a fulltime position when available.
Part-Time Voluntary	Voluntary part-time work is the choice of people with the need for income but with other commitments including students, the side, mothers, people with other dependent care issues, those who need some additional income, and others who want reduced hours for personal or other career options.
Personnel (Term)	Refers to the company employees. In example, the personnel (employee) issues included pay rates.
Personnel (Title)	Prior to the late 1970s and 1980s, the company branch or group that managed and directed employee issues. Personnel worked in fragmented roles typically and human resource management evolved personnel into more holistic.

Shift Work

Scheduling term to indicate multiple time slots. Term typically in manufacturing or services such as hospitals to designate work time frames.

Temporary Workers

Short term assignment through an agency for specific work.

White-Collar Workers

Professional, managerial, or office positions. The term lost cultural impact during the 1980s and 1990s with the growth of the services industries.

Appendix C

Selected Historical Facts: 1970-1979

Table C.1***History Table for 1970-1979***

Year	Event	Source
1970	Cambodian invasion to impact North Vietnam striking South Vietnam	Glennon, p.516 Adams, p. 35 Mercer, p. 788 Daniels, p. 1019
	Kent State incident	Glennon p. 516 Norris, p. 208 Grun, p. 566 Mercer, p. 789 Daniels, p. 1020
	M*A*S*H* television series started	Daniels, p. 1027
	General Motors (automaker) reported redesigning cars to run on unleaded fuel	Daniels, p. 1017
	U.S. to sell aircraft and weapons to Israel	Daniels, p. 1017
	First computer synthesis of a gene announced by University of Wisconsin scientists	Grun, p. 567
	First Earth Day celebration	Glennon p. 517
	ABC Monday Night Football debut	Glennon p. 518
	World Trade Centers open in New York	Glennon p. 518
	Supreme Court rules that 18 year olds could vote	Glennon p. 519
	Beatles (popular rock group) break up	Glennon p. 520 Mercer, p. 789
1971	Cigarette advertisements banned on U.S. television	Grun, p. 569
	The 26 th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution lowered voting age to 18	Grun, p. 570
	U.S. devalued dollar. Japanese and European companies adjust rates up	Grun, p. 571
	Nixon ordered a 90 day freeze on wages and prices to curb domestic inflation	Grun, p. 570
	OPEC raised prices without consulting buyers	Daniels, p. 1029
	Pentagon Papers published and created new distrust in U.S. government.	Glennon p. 522 Mercer, p. 791
	Gold standard for currency dropped	Glennon p. 523 Norris, p. 216
	Microprocessor invented	Glennon p. 523
	Supreme Court approved busing of children	Norris, p. 208
	Live Aid concert	Glennon p. 523
	Pocket calculator introduced	Adams, p. 35

Table C.1 Continued

	All in the Family television show premiered	Glennon p. 527 Grun, p. 573
1972	American redraw and peace treaty in Vietnam. First U.S. military defeat	Glennon p. 528 Mercer, p. 792
	Dow Jones Industrial average first time over 1,000	Norris, p. 235 Grun, p. 573
	First inclination of U.S. petroleum shortages in home heating oil	Grun, p. 572
	U.S. hit zero population growth	Daniels, p. 1058
	Two airlines announced luggage checks in response to terrorist high-jackings	Daniels, p. 1051
	Murder of Israeli athletes at Munich Summer Olympics	Glennon p. 529 Adams, 36 Mercer, p. 792 Daniels, p. 1052
	Nike running shoes introduced	Glennon p. 530
	Nixon and Agnew defeated McGovern-Shriver ticket for president	Glennon p. 530 Grun, p. 570
	Arrest of 5 men inside Democratic headquarters. Start of Watergate	Glennon p. 531 Grun, p. 570 Daniels, p. 1049
	Youngstown Ohio Strike	Norris, p. 219
	Cat Scans introduced	Adams, p. 36
	Congress passed Supplemental Security Income (SSI) for aid for the aged, blind, and disabled	Glennon p. 531
1973	OPEC raised oil prices	Glennon p. 534 Mercer, p. 795
	Abortion rights Roe v. Wade	Glennon p. 535 Grun, p. 575
	Native Americans seize Wounded Knee	Mercer, p. 794-95
	Spiro Agnew resigned and pleaded “nolo contendere” to one count of income tax evasion	Grun, p. 574 Daniels, p. 1069
	Gerald Ford, Republican leader of the House of Representatives named Vice-President, took office Dec. 6	Grun, p. 574
	Congress passed War Powers Act	Glennon p. 537
	Congress passed Endangered Species Act	Glennon p. 537
	U.S. devalued dollar for second time in two years	Grun, p. 574 Daniels, p. 1062
	Supermarket bar codes introduced	Glennon p. 536

Table C.1 Continued

	Sears Tower in Chicago, world's tallest building	Glennon p. 536
	Paris Peace Agreement to end U.S. involvement in South Vietnam	Glennon p. 537 Daniels, p. 1060
	Battle of the Sexes: Tennis match between Bobby Riggs and Billie Jean King	Glennon p. 537 Daniels, p. 1069
	Watergate Tapes debate by U.S. Supreme Court	Glennon p. 539 Mercer, p. 795 Daniels, p. 1067
1974	Grand Jury convicted President Nixon as co-conspirator	Mercer, p. 796 Daniels, p. 1076
	President Nixon resigned due to Watergate	Glennon p. 540 Mercer, p. 796 Daniels, p. 1082
	First Black female model on Vogue	Glennon p. 542
	Congress passed Freedom of Information Act over Ford's veto	Glennon p. 543
	Bar Code in supermarkets introduced	Adams, p. 36
	Gerald Ford sworn as first president not elected to vice-presidency	Glennon p. 543 Mercer, p. 796 Grun, p. 579
	Worldwide inflation slowed economic growth to near zero. Dow Jones stock exchange average fell to 663, the lowest level since 1970 recession	Grun, p. 576
	Daylight savings time bill adopted to save fuel but later repealed	Grun, p. 577
	President Ford granted President Nixon pardon	Grun, p. 578
	Little League Baseball, Inc. voted to let girls play on teams	Grun, p. 577
	President Nixon agreed to pay \$432,787 in back taxes. Supreme Court ruled that he had to turn over tapes. Three articles of impeachment for consideration recommended by House Judiciary Committee for the House. President Nixon resigned Aug. 9	Gurn p. 579
	According to Chase Manhattan Bank, the profits of the 30 biggest oil companies increased by 93% in first six months of 1974	Grun, p. 579
	Dr. Heimlich introduced Heimlich maneuver	Daniels, p. 1080

Table C.1 Continued

1975	First strike by doctors in 21 New York City hospitals to reduce hours Malpractice insurance rates quadruple	Grun, p. 581
	The International Woman's Year World Conference adopted 10-year plan to improve women's status	Grun, p. 581 Daniels, p. 1088
	Unemployment rate hit 9.2%, the highest since 1940	Grun, p. 581
	OPEC raised oil prices 10%	Grun, p. 582
	W. T. Grant stores filed bankruptcy Second to Penn Central in debt	Grun, p. 581
	W. A. (Tony) Boyle, former United Mine Workers union head sentenced to 3 consecutive life terms for ordering the murder of union official Joseph A. Yablonski	Grun, p. 581
	Atari home computer kit for Atari 800	Glennon p. 548 Adams, p. 38
	Teamsters former president International Brotherhood of Teamsters disappeared	Glennon p. 548
	Arthur Ashe first Black man to win at Wimbledon	Glennon p. 548
	The Helsinki Accords	Glennon p. 548
	Ford approved 2 billion bailout of New York City	Glennon p. 549
	Saturday Night Live television show on the air	Glennon p. 551
1976	First artificial gene M.I.T. announced production	Glennon p. 553 Grun, p. 585
	First female enrollment at U.S. military academy	Glennon p. 554 Grun, p. 583
	Barbara Walters first female news anchor	Glennon p. 554 Daniels, p. 1107
	Bicentennial celebration	Glennon p. 554 Grun, p. 582
	U.S. Copyright laws revised for first time in 67 years	Grun, p. 582
	National Academy of Science reported damage to ozone: spray cans	Grun, p. 583
	First Vice-Presidential candidate debate: Senators Walter Mondale and Robert Dole	Grun, p. 584
	Apple I computers introduced	Glennon p. 554
	Legionnaires disease 29 died from mysterious disease	Glennon p. 554 Grun, p. 585

Table C.1 Continued

	Karen Quinlan controversy between her parents and doctors who wanted to cease life supports	Glennon p. 555 Daniels, p. 1099
	James (Jimmy) Carter elected President	Glennon p. 555 Grun, p. 584
	Toxic Substances Control Act passed	Glennon p. 555
1977	Roots epic mini-series aired on television	Glennon p. 559
	Red dye No. 2 banned	Glennon p. 560
	Elvis Presley died	Glennon p. 560 Grun, p. 584 Daniels, p. 1128
	Minimum wage increased from \$2.30 to \$3.05 per hour	Glennon p. 561
	Alaskan pipeline opened	Glennon p. 561 Daniels, p. 1126 Grun, p. 587
	President Carter granted general amnesty to almost all American draft evaders	Grun, p. 584
	U.S. Department of Energy formed	Grun, p. 586
	British scientists determined the complete genetic structure of a living organism	Grun, p. 587
	First life-threatening viral infection (herpes encephalitis) treated with drugs	Grun, p. 588
	New York City blackout (1965 earlier one) m	Glennon p. 561 Grun, p. 587
1978	First test tube baby born in England	Glennon p. 564 Grun, p. 589 Daniels, p. 1141
	Camp David Accords for peace in Middle East	Glennon p. 564
	U.S. television mini-series drama <i>Holocaust</i>	Grun, p. 589
	CA voters approved "Proposition 13" to lower property taxes 57%	Grun, p. 591
	First ultra sound	Glennon p. 566
	U.S. Rep. Leo J. Ryan and 4 other Americans killed by Jim Jones followers in Guyana. Later, over 900 committed mass suicide	Grun, p. 591 Daniels, p. 1146
	Love Canal situation	Glennon p. 566 Daniels, p. 1142
	Dollar plunged on world market to record low	Grun, p. 589
	Mandatory retirement age raised from 65 to 70	Glennon p. 567
	California Proposition 13	Glennon p. 567

Table C.1 Continued

	First personal computer w/keyboard	Adams, p. 38
	110 day coal strike (longest in history) ended	Glennon p. 568 Daniels, p. 1136
1979	Cleveland files for bankruptcy	Glennon p. 567
	Congress promised Chrysler \$1.5 billion to keep automaker afloat	Daniels, p. 1165
	Iranian revolution and U.S. hostages	Glennon p. 570
	President Carter, Israeli Premier Yusuf Lule Begin, and Egyptian President Anwar Sadat agree on Camp David peace treaty Egypt expelled from Arab League	Grun, p. 592
	SALT-2 Arms Limitations Agreement signed by President Carter and U.S.S.R. President Brezhnev	Grun, p. 592
	Adolph Dubs, U.S. Ambassador to Afghanistan kidnapped by Muslim terrorists and killed in gun battle. Soviet army invaded Afghanistan	Glennon p. 571 Grun, p. 594
	President Carter deregulated oil prices	Norris, p. 211 Daniels, p. 1155
	Sony Walkman introduced	Glennon p. 572
	Karen Silkwood posthumously awarded settlement for negligent exposure to atomic matter	Grun, p. 593
	OPEC ended 18-month price freeze and raised prices. President Carter upset	Glennon p. 572 Adams, p. 38 Daniels, p. 1157
	Three Mile Island Nuclear Plant narrowly escapes a nuclear disaster	Glennon p. 572 Grun, p. 593 Daniels, p. 1153
	Prices increased 13.2% largest increase since 14.0% in 1950	Glennon p. 573
	OPEC price impact on world wide inflation	Glennon p. 574

Appendix D

Selected Historical Facts: 1980 to 1989

Table D.1***History Table 1980-1989***

Year	Event	Source
1980	Honda announced building of first Japanese passenger car plant in Ohio	Daniels, p. 1168
	Price of gold \$802 up 159 in one week	Daniels, p. 1168
	President Carter broke diplomatic relations with Iran and announced trade ban due to continued detention of U.S. Embassy hostages. Airborne commando raid failed with fatalities	Mercer, p. 808 Grun, p. 594
	U.S. Department of Education created	Glennon p. 588
	Department of H.E.W. became Dept. of Human Services	Glennon p. 589
	Moscow Olympics boycott	Glennon p. 588 Daniels, p. 1175 Mercer, p. 808
	Ted Turner started CNN	Glennon p. 588 Norris, p. 259
	Small pox was eradicated	Adams, p. 38
	Ford reported \$595 million loss largest ever reported by American company	Daniels, p. 1181
	33,000 New York City transportation workers strike	Daniels, p. 1171
	U.S. deregulated the trucking industry	Daniels, p. 1174
	ABSCAM Congress members caught in FBI sting on bribery	Glennon p. 588 Daniels, p. 1170
	Supreme Court Patent for new form of life Biotechnology/engineered foods	Norris, p. 251
	President Carter restricted grain sales to U.S.S.R. in protest of Soviet invasion of Afghanistan	Grun, p. 594
	Chrysler buy-out worked 1.5 billion in loans exchanged for stock Paid back in 1983 and government made 311 million with sale of shares held	Norris, p. 248
	The World Health Organization announced world-wide eradication of the smallpox vaccination	Grun, p. 595
	Ronald Reagan became 40 th President of the U.S. Republicans controlled Senate for first time since 1964	Grun, p. 596 Glennon p. 586

Table D.1 Continued

	Summer Olympics in Moscow. Over 50 nations including U.S. boycott in protest of Afghanistan invasion	Grun, p. 597
	Iran freed American hostages	Glennon p. 586 Mercer, p. 811 Daniels, p. 1184
	Reagan's first budget largest tax and spending cuts in history	Grun, p. 598
	Reagan announced welfare to work requirements and end to aid for poor	Daniels, p. 1187
	Scientists identified (AIDS) Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome	Grun, p. 599 Glennon, p. 579 Daniels, p. 1198
	Surgeons at University of Denver inserted valve in unborn baby to drain off brain fluid to prevent hydrocephalus	Grun, p. 599
	More than 12,000 U.S. air traffic controllers go on strike and are dismissed	Grun, p. 599 Daniels, p. 1194
	Space shuttle Columbia launched	Mercer, p. 810 Daniels, p. 1188
	President Reagan's Supply Side Economics started	Glennon p. 587
	Sandra Day O'Connor first female U.S. Supreme Court Judge	Glennon p. 594 Mercer, p. 810 Daniels, p. 1193
	Prime rate reached 21% the highest since the Civil War	Glennon p. 595
	IBM introduced the personal computer	Glennon p. 595
	MTV cable show introduced	Glennon p. 596
1982	USA Today introduced	Glennon p. 600
	Acid rain charges against U.S. by Canada	Glennon p. 600
	Tylenol scare in Chicago	Glennon p. 600
	Anti-trust suit: AT&T breakup	Glennon p. 601
	Reagan extended Soviet sanctions to W. European companies with contracts on the Siberian gas pipeline	Grun, p. 600
	Oil glut, American conservation, and smaller cars took toll on OPEC OPEC cut production in response	Daniels, p. 1200, 1201
	Exxon announced close of 850 stations with declining gas demands	Daniels, p. 1208

Table D.1 Continued

	Consumer prices fell for first time in 17 years .3%	Daniels, p. 1202
	U.S. Census Bureau poverty rate at 14% highest in 15 years	Daniels, p. 1207
	Disneyworld opened EPCOT	Grun, p. 603
	Braniff International first airlines to go bankrupt	Glennon p. 601
	Genetically engineered insulin Humulin first product of recombinant DNA for human use	Glennon p. 602
	First permanent artificial heart transplant	Glennon p. 602
1983	Terrorist attack on U.S. embassy in Beirut (17 Americans killed)	Glennon p. 604 Mercer, p. 814 Daniels, p. 1224
	Apple computer mouse introduced	Glennon p. 606
	Camcorder introduced	Adams, p. 39
	GM and Toyota announced joint work	Daniels, p. 1215
	Martin Luther King Day Federal holiday	Glennon p. 606
	Sally Ride first U.S. female astronaut	Glennon p. 606 Mercer, p. 814 Daniels, p. 1220
	"A Nation at Risk" report on the health of the educational system	Glennon p. 606 Daniels, p. 1218
	Group of young computer hackers enter national security computers	Glennon p. 607
	President Reagan introduced Star Wars defense	Glennon p. 609 Mercer, p. 814 Daniels, p. 1217
	President Reagan called U.S.S.R. the "Evil Empire" and proposed "Star Wars" (Strategic Defense Initiative Defense Initiative	Grun, p. 604 Daniels, p. 1217
	OPEC members cut oil prices	Daniels, p. 1217
	Shiite Muslims planted bomb in U.S. embassy in Beirut 87 people dead.	Grun, p. 604 Mercer, p. 814
	First artificially made chromosome created at Harvard University	Grun, p. 605
	Chairman National Women's Caucus asked Reagan forego reelection	Daniels, p. 1221
	Grenada's Prime Minister killed. 6,000 U.S. marines invaded and instituted civil rule	Grun, p. 606 Glennon p. 604 Mercer, p. 815 Daniels, p. 1225
	Martin Luther King's birthday made a national holiday	Grun, p. 607

Table D.1 Continued

1984	Deregulation of AT&T	Norris, p. 245
	Walter Mondale Democratic Presidential nominee and Geraldine Ferraro (first female candidate) Vice-Presidential nominee	Grun, p. 608
	U.S. and French researchers discovered AIDS virus	Grun, p. 609 Daniels, p. 1232
	U.S. Supreme Court ruled that seniority and not quotas guideline for job layoffs	Daniels, p. 1236
	PG-13 rating introduced for movies	Daniels, p. 1237
	Average American home cost \$100,000	Daniels, p. 1237
	Airbags required on new American cars by 1989	Daniels, p. 1238
	DNA analysis revealed chimpanzees were genetically only 1% different from human beings	Grun, p. 609
	Vietnam veterans with health impairments from Agent Orange exposure awarded \$180 million by seven U.S. chemical companies	Grun, p. 609
	Summer Olympics in Los Angeles boycotted by U.S.S.R. and soviet bloc countries for 1980 Moscow boycott	Grun, p. 609
	Car bomb killed 23 U.S. Embassy Beirut	Daniels, p. 1244
	UAW strike GM 13 plants at once	Daniels, p. 1244
	More than 70 U.S. banks failed, highest number since 1937.	Grun, p. 609
	Megabit memory chip for computers	Glennon p. 612 Grun, p. 609
	Federal bank bailout 79 banks fail Highest number since 1937	Glennon p. 613 Daniels, p. 1250
	President Reagan reelected President	Glennon p. 613
	New York Stock Exchange exceeded 200 million shares for first time	Glennon p. 613
	Virtual reality introduced	Glennon p. 614
	US reported record trade deposit \$123.3 billion	Daniels, p. 1252
1985	Live Aid, concert in London USA for Africa concert	Glennon p. 611 Mercer, p. 818 Daniels, p. 1262
	First compact disk launched	Grun, p. 609 Daniels, p. 1273

Table D.1 Continued

	Gorbachev becomes president of Soviet Union	Glennon p. 616 Adams, p. 40 Norris, p. 245 Mercer, p. 819 Daniels, p. 1255
	Hole in the ozone layer identified	Glennon p. 616
	U.S. ban on leaded gas	Glennon p. 618
	Drug use: The cocaine boom	Glennon p. 618 Grun, p. 623
	TWA jet hostages (39 Americans) Later freed	Daniels, p. 1260 Mercer, p. 819
	Farm aid bill first since 1933	Glennon p. 619
	U.S. debtor nation for first time since 1914	Daniels, p. 1266
	Gramm-Rudman bill signed to reduce federal deficit by 1992	Glennon p. 619
	John Walker Jr. spy ring broken with U.S. citizens spying for U.S.S.R.	Glennon p. 619 Daniels, p. 1264
	Coke introduced "new Coke" formula, public rejected "new Coke", Coke publicized return to original formula	Glennon p. 619 Norris, p. 270-271 Daniels, p. 1257
1986	Reykjavik Summit President Reagan and President Gorbachev	Glennon p. 623 Daniels, p. 1274
	Challenger space shuttle exploded moments after launch	Glennon p. 622 Grun, p. 615 Daniels, p. 1275 Mercer, p. 820
	Iran Contra Scandal concerning illegal sale of arms to contra groups in exchange for hostages	Glennon p. 624 Mercer, p. 820 Daniels, p. 1289
	Oil price dropped to under \$15 barrel	Daniels, p. 1277
	Restructure or income tax system	Glennon p. 623 Daniels, p. 1286
	Insider trading scandal Ivan Boesky on Wall Street	Daniels, p. 1289 Mercer, p. 821
	Oprah television show went national	Glennon p. 627
	U.S. bombed Tripoli and Libya in retaliation for missiles attacks on U.S. aircraft and alleged terrorist attacks on U.S. servicemen	Grun, p. 614 Daniels, p. 1280 Mercer, p. 820

Table D.1 Continued

	First gene discovered to inhibit growth. Situation was cancer	Grun, p. 615
	Chernobyl nuclear disaster was most catastrophic in history and affected European community.	Grun, p. 615 Glennon p. 622 Adams, p. 40 Daniels, p. 1281 Mercer, p. 821
	General Motors became largest U.S. company and replaced Exxon	Grun, p. 615
	Senate hearings live on TV	Grun, p. 615
	President Reagan admitted Iran arms deal	Grun, p. 616 Daniels, p. 1291 Mercer, p. 820
1987	Fax machine introduced	Adams, p. 41
	Trillion dollar budget deposit	Glennon p. 630
	Dow Jones topped 2000 for first time	Daniels, p. 1292
	President Gorbachev visited America	Glennon p. 631
	Japan emerged as world's industrial leader	Glennon p. 632
	Worst single day in stock market history	Norris, p. 272 Daniels, p. 1304 Mercer, p. 823
	President Reagan announced first trillion dollar budget	Grun, p. 618
	President Reagan visited Berlin to mark 750 th anniversary and called for wall to come down	Grun, p. 618, 620
	"Baby M" surrogate mother lost trial to take back baby	Grun, p. 619 Daniels, p. 1295
	Heavy Japanese investments in U.S. real estate	Daniels, p. 1295
	Iran-contra report blamed President Reagan	Daniels, p. 1305 Mercer, p. 823
	David Gates, 32-year old founder of Microsoft, became microcomputing's first billionaire	Grun, p. 619
	President Reagan and President Gorbachev met and signed treaty to ban all short-range and medium-range nuclear weapons in Europe	Grun, p. 620 Mercer, p. 823 Daniels, p. 1306
1988	Roseanne show	Glennon p. 636
	Wall Street deal of the century Nabisco	Glennon p. 636 Daniels, p. 1323
	U.S. imports grains for the first time	Glennon p. 637

Table D.1 Continued

	Human Genome project launched	Glennon p. 637 Adams, p. 42
	Democratic ticket, Michael Dukakis and Lloyd Bentson lost to former Vice-President George Bush and Dan Quayle	Grun, p. 622 Glennon p. 636 Mercer, p. 824 Daniels, p. 1322
	Daily aspirin therapy recommended for heart attack reductions	Grun, p. 623 Daniels, p. 1309
	Eight U.S. toiletry companies announced plans to phase out ozone hostile aerosols by 1989	Grun, p. 623
	Airlines banned smoking on all flights of less than two hours	Grun, p. 623
	U.S. Stealth bomber unveiled	Grun, p. 625 Glennon p. 642
	Soviets pull out of Afghanistan	Glennon p. 638 Mercer, p. 825 Daniels, p. 1313
	Time Warner, Inc. created	Glennon p. 642
	Ban on computer trading	Daniels, p. 1309
1989	Milken junk bond scandal	Glennon p. 643
	San Francisco quake killed 270	Glennon p. 643 Daniels, p. 1340 Mercer, p. 826
	Exxon Valdez environmental disaster	Glennon p. 644 Grun, p. 627 Mercer, p. 826 Daniels, p. 1329
	Time, Inc. purchased Warner Communications for \$13 billion and created world's largest entertainment group	Grun, p. 627 Daniels, p. 1329
	President Bush allocated \$300 billion and prevented collapse of savings and loans thrifts	Grun, p. 627 Daniels, p. 1327
	President Bush unveiled \$7.8 billion anti-drug campaign	Grun, p. 627
	President Bush and President Gorbachev held two-day summit in Malta	Grun, p. 628
	Gen. Colin Powell became the first Black American Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff	Grun, p. 628

Table D.1 Continued

	80 nations signed ban to stop producing chlorofluorocarbons by 2000 that damage ozone layer	Grun, p. 629
	Berlin Wall came down The Cold War was over	Daniels, p. 1343 Mercer, p. 827

Appendix E

Selected Historical Facts: 1990-1999

Table E.1***History Table 1990-1999***

Date	Event	Source
1990	Saddam Hussein Iraqi forces invade Kuwait	Daniels, p. 1355
	United Nations backing for Bush to use force against Iraq	Mercer, p. 828 Daniels, p. 1359
	U.S. hostages freed in Beirut	Daniels, p. 1351 Mercer, p. 828
	First gene therapy patient; 4 year old girl received missing gene	Grun, p. 631
	NC-17 movie rating	Glennon p. 658
	Longest trial in U.S. history CA jury found mother/son McMartin School not guilty of 52 counts of child molestation	Glennon p. 659
	Americans with Disabilities Act passed	Glennon p. 659
	Clean Air Act passed	Glennon p. 659
	Oil prices jumped to \$26 per barrel (Aug)	Daniels, p. 1355
	Oil prices jumped to \$40 per barrel (Sept) first time since 1980	Daniels, p. 1356
	U.S. public buildings close as government was temporary bankrupt	Daniels, p. 1357
	Dr. Kevorkian's first assisted suicide	Glennon p. 660
1991	Desert Storm Operation started (War in Kuwait)	Glennon p. 662 Mercer, p. 830 Daniels, p. 1362-3
	Pan Am Airlines closed	Daniels, p. 1361 Mercer, p. 830
	President Gorbachev resigned Boris Yeltsin became Soviet president	Glennon p. 663 Mercer, p. 831 Daniels, p. 1364, 1371, 1372, 1375
	IBM and Apple computers announce plans to share technology	Daniels, p. 1373
	Dow Jones closed above 3000 for the first time	Glennon p. 665
	Minimum wage increased from \$3.80 to \$4.25 per hour	Daniels, p. 1366
	U.S. announced that no new space shuttles would be built	Daniels, p. 1369
	Eastern Airlines ceased operations	Glennon p. 665

Table E.1 Continued

	Interest rates cut to lowest in 25 years in order to boost the economy	Daniels, p. 1375
	Anita Hill accused U.S. Supreme Court nominee Clarence Thomas of sexual harassment during appointment hearings	Glennon p. 667 Mercer, p. 830 Daniels, p. 1373
1992	William (Bill) Jefferson Clinton elected president	Glennon p. 669 Mercer, p. 833 Daniels, p. 1388
	Ross Perot drew 19% of the popular vote as an independent Presidential candidate	Daniels, p. 1388
	U.S. Troops sent to Somalia	Mercer, p. 833 Daniels, p. 1389
	Los Angeles riots after Rodney King verdict acquittal of police	Daniels, p. 1380 Mercer, p. 833
	World's largest shopping mall opened Mall of America Minnesota	Glennon p. 670
	U.S. House of Representatives bank closed	Glennon p. 670
	Interactive movies available	Glennon p. 670
	Johnny Carson left television NBC Tonight Show	Glennon p. 671 Daniels, p. 1380
	GM posted largest loss to date \$4.45 billion	Glennon p. 671
	The dollar fell to all time low against the German mark	Daniels, p. 1384
	Divorce from biological parents granted to 12-year old boy	Daniels, p. 1386
	Internet introduced	Glennon p. 674
	NAFTA North American Free Trade Agreement setting up world's wealthiest trade block	Glennon p. 674
1993	Israel and PLO signed Peace Accord	Glennon p. 674 Daniels, p. 1398 Mercer, p. 835
	Family Medical Leave Act	Glennon p. 677
	Record number 26.6 million received food stamps	Daniels, p. 1392
	Worst flooding in U.S. history (along Mississippi)	Mercer, p. 834 Daniels, p. 1396
	Janet Reno first female attorney general	Glennon p. 676 Daniels, p. 1391
	World Trade Center bombing	Glennon p. 676 Daniels, p. 1391 Mercer, p. 835

Table E.1 Continued

	Waco, Texas Branch Davidian religious cult stand-off with FBI	Glennon p. 676 Daniels, p. 1393 Mercer, p. 834
	President Clinton selected Sheila Widnall as Secretary of the Air Force, first female	Daniels, p. 1396
	Ruth Bader Ginsburg second woman on Supreme Court	Glennon p. 677
1994	Conclusive evidence of black holes in outer space	Glennon p. 682
	Major earthquake hit predawn L.A.	Daniels, p. 1402 Mercer, p. 837 Glennon p. 684
	Whitewater Scandal	Daniels, p. 1407
	U.S. seize Haiti to back elected leader	Mercer, p. 836
	FDA approved sale of first genetically engineered tomato	Daniels, p. 1406
	Republicans gain control of Congress for first time since 1946	Glennon p. 683 Mercer, p. 836 Daniels, p. 1412
	Million Man March on Washington DC	Glennon p. 686
1995	Windows for PCs	Glennon p. 688
	Oklahoma City bombing	Glennon p. 686 Mercer, p. 838 Daniels, p. 1417
	Dr. Henry Foster's nomination as Surgeon General failed	Glennon p. 688
	Newt Gingrich investigated for book deal	Daniels, p. 1422
	Ralph Reed, Christian Coalition influential in legislation	Glennon p. 688
	Toy Story: 1 st computer animated film	
	Vietnam and U.S. opened liaison offices in other's capitals first time since end of Vietnam War	Daniels, p. 1415
	Russia and U.S. joint space mission	Glennon p. 689
1996	Senator Bob Dole attack on entertainment industry	Glennon p. 690
	Clinton family Whitewater partners Jim Gray and the McDougals found guilty on range of counts in Arkansas	Glennon p. 683 Daniels, p. 1430
	President Clinton reelected President	Glennon p. 692
	Truck bomb killed 19 servicemen in Saudi Arabia	Daniels, p. 1431
	American's crime rate falling	Glennon p. 692

Table E.1 Continued

	Unabomber caught	Glennon p. 693 Daniels, p. 1431
	TWA 800 flight explosion	Glennon p. 693 Mercer, p. 840 Daniels, p.
	Atlanta Olympics bombing	Glennon p. 693
	DVC Digital Video Cassette	Glennon p. 694
	Senate passed bill to raise minimum wage to \$4.75 per hour, \$5.15 in 1997 later	Daniels, p. 1432
	Madeleine Albright became first female U.S. Secretary of State	Daniels, p. 1439
1997	U.S. tobacco industry paid state to reimburse spent on sick smokers	Mercer, p. 842
	First clone sheep	Glennon p. 698
	Democratic fund raising questions	Glennon p. 700
	Midwest farmlands flooded	Glennon p. 700
	Newt Gingrich reelected Speaker of the House but faced tax problems	Glennon p. 701
	Unemployment hit 25 year low of 5%	Glennon p. 701
	Paula Jones lawsuit against Clinton	Daniels, p. 1447
	Justice Department investigation of Vice-President Gore	Daniels, p. 1449
	Dow Jones hit 8,000	Glennon p. 701
	Tobacco Settlement	Glennon p. 701
	Promise Keepers	Glennon p. 701
1998	Newt Gingrich resigned Congress	Glennon p. 704 Daniels, p. 1462
	Paula Jones sexual harassment civil suit against President Clinton	Daniels, p. 1455
	Microsoft antitrust suit filed by U.S.	Daniels, p. 1456
	Two U.S. embassies bombed Tanzania and Kenya	Daniels, p. 1459
	President Clinton denied sexual relationship with Monica Lewinsky	Daniels, p. 1452
	President Clinton's testimony televised	Daniels, p. 1460
	School shooting in Arkansas	Daniels, p. 1454
	House of Representatives impeached President Clinton	Glennon p. 704 Daniels, p. 1463 Mercer, p. 844

Table E.1 Continued

	John Glenn, Oldest astronaut into space 2nd flight into space for Glenn overall	Glennon p. 705 Daniels, p. 1461
	Global Warning Conference	Daniels, p. 1462
	Columbine shootings	Glennon p. 706 Daniels, p. 1467
	Traveler's and Citicorp merged	Glennon p. 708
	The Starr Report	Glennon p. 700
1999	Senate acquitted President Clinton of impeachment	Glennon p. 710 Daniels, p. 1465 Mercer, p. 847
	Y2K scare	Glennon p. 710
	Putin became Soviet new premier minister	Glennon p. 712
	Columbine High School massacre	Glennon p. 712
	Female head for Hewlett Packard Fortune 500 company	Glennon p. 712
	Dow Jones broke 10,000 for the first time	Daniels, p. 1466
	Salt Lake City Olympics scandal	Glennon p. 713

Appendix F
Research Instrumentation

Conventional Mail Letter (On UTK Department of Human Resource Development Letterhead)

Date

Participant
Street Address
Location Zip

Dear Participant (name):

I am pleased to be able to send this correspondence regarding my dissertation research on the development of flexible work arrangements in the United States. As per our initial conversation, I am interviewing people who were the average working age at the reference dates: 1975, 1985, and 1995. As you will recall, you will be one of the ten participants for the 1970s decade. Your answers are very important and I really appreciate your participation in this study. Collectively, information from you and twenty-nine other workers (ten from each decade) will help me investigate perceptions about the development of flexible work arrangements.

The process or method of this part of my dissertation is simple. I will be asking you some general questions about work and your life in 1975. You will not be personally identified in my notes or final report. The enclosed information sheet will be the only link between you and the information from the questions. I will be the only person with this information. Any quotes will be attributed to a pseudo name of the same gender, your age in 1975 and your general job description at that point. I will send you a copy of your answers within 24 hours and ask you to return the enclosed sign off form within 2 weeks to my home address. All data and information sheets will be kept in a locked filing cabinet that only I have the access to in my home office.

Enclosed you will find an information sheet (referenced above), two copies of a required consent form (one for your files and one to sign and return), and an informative summary sheet of key national events from the 1970s. I am requesting that you return the information sheet and a consent form to me before we make arrangements for the interview. The informative summary sheet is enclosed to provide you with a cultural context for discussing your perceptions about your work during the decade when you were the average age for working Americans.

The interview process will last about thirty minutes. There are several ways that I can work with you to get the information. The preferred method is to meet for a face-to-face interview. However, if this is not plausible, I can call you at your convenience. I will be typing your answers at the time. Therefore, I can either send you or email you a copy of your answers for approval. The third method of gathering this information is email. I can email you the questions and you send me your answers (approved copy). Please indicate your preferred approach to this data collection on the enclosed information sheet.

In closing, I am excited about my approach to investigating the emergence of flexible work arrangements in the American workplace during the last thirty years. If you would like a copy of the findings of this project, please let me know.

Sincerely yours,

Janis Brickey

Email Message to Potential Participants (Copied into Email messages with following files attached)

First of all, let me state that I really appreciate your time and efforts in this phase of my dissertation research. As per our conversation, I am researching the emergence of flexible work arrangements during the past three decades: 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s. Portions of my research have included information about the national culture, the human resource field, and area of family studies across the decades. For the perspective of the individual, I am asking contacts (friends, family, and their contacts) for input from specific age groups.

Since you are currently between the ages of 59 and 65, you were the median age range for the civilian work force in 1975 according to calculations from the Current Population Survey. In order to simplify the process, the forms that you need to complete are attachments to this document. If you have problems opening the pieces, let me know as soon as possible. I can mail or fax the documents to you for completion. I used Word 2000 for developing the documents. Each was saved a form/template to simplify the data input. Follow the instructions. If you have problems sending the pieces, print them out and mail or fax to address below.

The four attachments are as follows:

- Consent form (fill in the yellow highlighted areas and return)
- Information sheet on your targeted decade. Please read before completing the forms.
- Participant profile or work/family history form
- Questionnaire

Return to email address: jbrickey@utk.edu

Snail Mail: Janis Brickey 112 East Adair Knoxville, TN 37918

Or fax: Home (865) 687-5480 or Work (865) 974-9180

If you need to reach me for questions or problems my numbers are:

Home (865) 687-5480 or Work (865) 974-9182

Janis Brickey Dissertation Research
Participant Consent Form
Please Keep One Copy for Your Files and Return One

This form constitutes my consent to participate in the research project being conducted during the summer of 2001 by Janis Brickey in compliance with standards established by the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Ms. Brickey's research method on the emergence of flexible work arrangements during the time frame of 1970 to 2000 requires participation of people who were the average age of American workers during specified years. I was ____ years of age in 1975. I understand that the age for 1975 was derived from data provided by the U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Survey.

The information that I will provide to questions posed by Ms. Brickey will include my perceptions about my life and work in 1975. I understand that Ms. Brickey will be the only person with access to information that can connect me personally with the coded answers. She will take care to conduct the interview to ensure my personal privacy. I further understand that I will sign-off or approve the typed answers to the questions provided by Ms. Brickey. If I am responding to questions via email, I understand that information may not be private.

Any use of direct quotes or specific information that describes me, my family, my job, or the company where I worked in 1975 will be coded. This code will consist of a pseudo name (same gender), my age in 1975, and the type of company where I worked on that date (i.e. manufacturing, retail) and my position (i.e. manager, clerk, etc). I am comfortable with this method of documentation.

I understand that Ms. Brickey will be using this information for a qualitative, historical analysis that requires the investigator to collect information and review it for themes about flexible work arrangements. Some data may be represented as a count of on themes. Other information may be included as quotes in the context of her report and used to illustrate findings. A short summary of each participant will be included in the appendix section to provide readers with context for participant selection. I understand that all information in this summary will be coded for my protection.

I, (print name) _____, understand the nature of Ms. Brickey's research and grant my approval to personally participate in the study. My answers will be factual to the best of recollection of the time frame.

Signed: _____
Participant name signed

Date: _____

History Fact Sheet for 1970s

Notable Numbers

U.S. Population: 216 million Average household size: 2.94 people Median Family Income: \$13,719
Women in the Workplace: 46.3% Cost of loaf of bread: \$.36 Cost of average house: \$32,100

Notable Political Events

1972 Nixon and Agnew re-elected. Early 1973, Agnew resigned and Ford became Vice-President.
1972 U.S. combat troops leave Vietnam.
1972 Watergate break-in reported
1974 Nixon resigns due to complications from the Watergate Affair.
1975 Saigon falls to North Vietnam
1976 America celebrated 200 years of independence
1976 Carter elected President

Notable Legislation and Court Cases Impacting Employees and Employers

1970 OSHA (Occupational Safety and Health Administration) legislation passed.
1973 Rehabilitation Act provided opportunities for people with disabilities
1974 ERISA (Early Retirement Income Security Act) established new pension guidelines
1977 Senate approved neutron bomb financing
1978 Pregnancy Act passed
1979 Congress promised Chrysler \$1.5 billion to keep automaker afloat
Equal Rights Amendment failed to be ratified during the 1970s
1971 Griggs vs. Duke Power – Supreme Court articulated principle of adverse impact
1973 Roe vs. Wade – Abortion rights

Studies and Other Events Affecting the Lives of Americans

1970 First Earth Day	1973 Supermarket bar codes appear
1970 Kent State Incident	1973 Battle of the Sexes- B. Riggs vs. Billie Jean King
1970 The New English Bible published	1974 Airbags were introduced for cars
1971 Microprocessor invented/changed technology	1975 Karen Quinlan fell into a coma/right to life issues
1971 First handheld calculator	1977 Elvis Presley died
1972 United States sub-zero population growth	1978 1 st test tube baby was born in England
1972 Nike introduces running shoes	1978 Ultrasound invented
1972 Two airlines announced luggage checks in response to terrorist high-jackings	1978 Guyana: Rev. Jim Jones followers commit mass suicide including 900 Americans
1973 OPEC raised gas prices signaling the start of the oil embargo	1979 Three Mile Island Incident
1974 Dr. Heimlich introduced Heimlich maneuver	1979 Sony introduced the Walkman

Entertainment

Television: M*A*S*H* (1970), All in the Family (1971), Saturday Night Live (1975), Roots (1977)

Human Resources Topics of Note

1974 Study revealed that 75 percent of American workers do not like their jobs. It was thought that the typical worker of the 1970s was better educated and he or she did not respond well to 1950s era management styles.

Many companies changed their personnel departments to human resources.

1972 The first flexible work arrangements were introduced in America

History Fact Sheet for 1980s

Notable Numbers

U.S. Population: 238.5 million Average household size: 2.69 people Median Family Income: \$27,735
Women in the Workplace: 54.5% Cost of loaf of bread: \$.57 Cost of average house: \$62,750

Notable Political Events

1980 Americans taken hostage by Iranian students. 1981 Hostages were freed.
1980 American boycotted Soviet Union Olympics to protest Soviet invasion of Afghanistan
1980 and 1984 Reagan and Bush elected (1981 Assassination attempt)
1982 Vietnam War Memorial dedicated
1982 Canada charged U.S. with acid rain devastation of northern lakes from pollution
1983 Beirut 216 American marines were killed by bomb
1983 Marines invaded Granada Many countries condemned act.
1984 Olympics were held in Los Angeles
1984 Mondale (Democratic Presidential Candidate) selected Geraldine Ferraro (1st woman)
1985 Scientists confirm “green house effect” existence
1986 1987 Montreal Protocols established acceptable emission standards
1987 Iran Contra Affair broke
1988 George Bush elected President
1989 Berlin Wall was torn down

Notable Legislation and Court Cases Impacting Employees and Employers

1980 Carter signed the Chrysler loan bail-out
1981 Sandra Day O'Connor First woman to sit on the Supreme Court
1982 ERA failed to be ratified
1984 Congress approved Federal Bank bail-out
1988 President Reagan welfare reform bill requiring single parents with children older than three to get jobs.
1988 Congress ratified United Nations Protocol freezing nitrogen oxide levels for emissions at 1987 levels
1989 Michael Miliken indicted for racketeering over “junk bond” business

Studies and Other Events Affecting the Lives of Americans

1981 AIDS identified.	1985 Live A.I.D. concert
1981 IBM introduced first personal computer	1983 First women in space
1981 Charles and Diana married	1985 New Coke introduced “later canned”
1982 Synthetic insulin introduced	1986 The Challenger disaster
1982 Compact Disk invented	1988 Prozac invented
1982 First artificial heart implanted	1988 Exxon Valdez ran aground in Alaska

The American Home

1982 National Commission on Excellence in Education released report: A Nation at Risk
1986 Working Woman magazine publishes its first annual list of companies that helped families balance work and family life
Television: J.R. shot Dallas (1980), MTV (1981), Oprah (1986), Roseanne (1988),

HR Topics

Downsizing
Malcolm Baldrige Quality Award
1981 Personnel Journal article discussed the impact of AIDS on the workplace

History Fact Sheet for 1990s

Notable Numbers

U.S. Population: 263.8 million Average household size: 2.67 people Median Family Income: \$38,782
Women in the Workplace: 58.9% Cost of loaf of bread: \$.84 Cost of average house: \$86,529

Notable Political Events

1991 Anita Hill testified that Supreme Court nominee Clarence Thomas sexually harassed her in former job.
1991 Operation Desert Storm
1992, 1996 Clinton and Gore ticket elected
1992 Bush sent troops to Somalia
1993 Israel and PLO peace accord signed.
1994 Whitewater Scandal. Resurfaced 1996
1998 Monica Lewinsky scandal broke. 1999 Clinton survived impeachment proceedings
1994 Republican party controlled both houses of Congress for the first time in decades.
Bombings: 1993 World Trade Center; 1995 Oklahoma City; 1998 2 Embassies in East Africa
1998 The Starr Report published. Independent counsel report on Clintons.
1998 School shootings. Five separate incidences across the nation
1999 Columbine Massacre
1999 Panama Canal ownership turned over to Panama

Notable Legislation and Court Cases Impacting Employees and Employers

1990 ADA – Americans with Disabilities Act
1990 Clean Air Act – controls on sulfur dioxide amounts within decade
Civil Rights Act of 1991- Applicants/employees punitive damages with jury trial over issues such as testing
1993 FMLA – Family Medical Leave Act
1993 NAFTA - North American Free Trade Agreement
1996 Telecom Bill – Local vendors could compete for long distance services

Studies and Other Events Affecting the Lives of Americans

1992 Dream Team Men's Olympic Basketball Team	1997 Dolly, the first cloned sheep
1992 Charles and Diana separated	1997 Promise Keeper Movement
1993 Order of Solar Temple mass suicide	1997 Princess Diana died
1994 - 95 Baseball strike 1 st time no World Series	1997 O. J. Simpson liable for deaths
1995 Million Man March	1998 John Glenn into space again, at 77 years old
1995 O.J. Simpson acquitted of murder	1998 Viagra introduced
1996 Atlanta Olympics bombing	1999 J.F.K. Jr. died
1996 TWA 800 Air Disaster	1999 Dow Jones broke 10,000 for first time

The American Home

1995 *Toy Story* is the first completely computer animated film
1995 Chicken Pox vaccination licensed
1995 The Book of Virtues by William J. Bennett
1996 HMO lingo with Primary Care Provider

HR Topics

Rightsizing, Reengineering the Corporation (1993), The Dilbert Principle (1996)

Sample Participant Sheet

Flexible Work Schedules: Participant Information Sheet

Please fill out the requested information below. All information sheets will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's home office. Please return this completed sheet and your signed consent form in the enclosed envelope to Janis Brickey.

General/Coding Information:

Date of Birth: _____

Gender (circle): Male Female

Education Information	Attend ?		Graduate?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
High School				
Technical School				
Vocational School				
Additional Training (computers or machines)				
College (2 year)				
College (4 year)				
Graduate School				

Family Information:

Marital Status in 1975 (1985, 1995) (Circle all that apply)

Single Married Separated Divorced Widowed Other(explain):

Family Status in 1975 (1985, 1995)

Number of children:

Ages/gender: (i.e. girl, 3 years)

Describe any responsibilities for others (parents or others requiring additional support)

Work Information

Work Status in 1975 (1985, 1995):

Title of job in 1975 (1985, 1995):

Work history prior to 1975 (1985, 1995) (Use back if further space is needed.)

Company name	Type of business	Position held	Work hours (What was your schedule?)	Flexible work available?	Length of employment (dates)

Work history since 1975 (1985, 1995) (Use back if further space is needed.)

Company name	Type of business	Position held	Work hours (What was your schedule?)	Flexible work available?	Length of employment (dates)

Participant Personal Information:

Full name: _____

Address: _____

Check the method that best suits your schedule. Please answer the corresponding questions under your selection to help me plan your data collection.

Face-to-face interview _____

What is the day(s) of the week to arrange this?

What is the best time of the day to meet?

Do you have any suggestions for a meeting location?

What is the best way to make these arrangements? (Provide phone number or email.)

Telephone Interview _____

What is the best time of the week to arrange this?

Do you have any suggestions for a time of the day (morning, afternoon, night)

How do you want me to reach you to set up time? (Provide phone number or email.)

Email Questionnaire _____

What is your email address?

What is your preferred word processing format? (Circle: Word or WordPerfect)

Sample Questionnaire

Interview Questions

Janis Brickey – Dissertation Research

The Emergence of Flexible Work Arrangements: A Historical Analysis Applying A Systems Model

Introduction: *I am researching the emergence of flexible working hours in the American workplace during the time frame of 1970-2000. By flexible working hours, I am referring the concept that work hours are not limited to traditional 8 to 5 or working day formats. Your answers will be coded as per our communication.*

1. Did the information sheet from the decade of the 1970s (1980s, 1990s) help you recall your job and family life in 1975 (1985, 1995)?
2. Tell me about your life in 1975 (1985, 1995). What type of job(s) did you have?
3. What was it like to work as _____ in (x) company?
4. How did you get this job?
5. Was this a typical job for someone with your background and education?
6. Did you have any friends with similar positions?
7. What was your personal life like in the 1975 (1985, 1995)?
8. What types of responsibilities did you have that required a balance with work?
9. (Optional, may be needed to clarify number 8.) What were your work hours?
10. Did your company provide any alternative work arrangements?
(I may have to give examples of other alternative arrangements such as compressed work week, part-time work, etc.)
11. Has your position(s) ever included flexible work hours or scheduling?
12. Did you participate in flexible scheduling? Yes No How did this come about?
13. How does your present work position compare with the position that you had in 1975 (1985, 1995)? (Participant information sheet will be used to expand.)
14. From your personal perspective, how has work changed for people with your background, education, and responsibilities?

VITA

Janis Brickey graduated from Gate City High School in 1976. In 1980, Janis received a B.S. in Interior Design from VA Tech in Blacksburg, Virginia. After a successful design career, she came to graduate school at the University of Tennessee.

While at the University of Tennessee, she received a M.S. in Interior Design and received several departmental and college level awards for her professional contributions. She taught numerous classes in interior design, worked on several research projects studying children at play in their environments, and received the departmental award for research. She was the recipient of the Dorothy Mistifer National Kappa Omicron Nu Fellowship and additional scholarships supported her graduate studies.

In 1996, Janis was named one of ninety outstanding women graduates during the 75th Anniversary of Women at Virginia Tech. Janis worked with UT-TIE organization on grants to support workplace opportunities for people with disabilities during the work on her dissertation. Her work in human resources was a natural transition and current work on the Workplace Supports project identifies retention issues for regional companies.

