

**THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN FIVE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES
AND MARITAL SATISFACTION OF MEN AND WOMEN
IN DUAL-EARNER MARRIAGES**

by

Pindy Badyal

B.A., University of British Columbia, 1984

**THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS**

in the Faculty

of

Education

© Pindy P. Badyal 1992

SIMON FRASER UNIVERSITY

December, 1992

All rights reserved. This work may not be reproduced in whole or in part, by photocopy or other means, without permission of the author.

APPROVAL

Name: Pindy P. Badyal
Degree: Master of Arts
Title of Thesis: The Relationship Between Five Demographic Variables and Marital Satisfaction of Men and Women in Dual-earner Marriages
Examining Committee:
Chair: Janny Thompson

Adam Horvath
Senior Supervisor

Marilyn L. Bowman
Associate Professor
Psychology Department

Beth E. Haverkamp
Assistant Professor
Department of Counselling Psychology
University of British Columbia
External Examiner

Date Approved Dec. 4, 1992

PARTIAL COPYRIGHT LICENSE

I hereby grant to Simon Fraser University the right to lend my thesis, project or extended essay (the title of which is shown below) to users of the Simon Fraser University Library, and to make partial or single copies only for such users or in response to a request from the library of any other university, or other educational institution, on its own behalf or for one of its users. I further agree that permission for multiple copying of this work for scholarly purposes may be granted by me or the Dean of Graduate Studies. It is understood that copying or publication of this work for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Title of Thesis/Project/Extended Essay

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FIVE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND MARITAL SATISFACTION
OF MEN AND WOMEN IN DUAL-EARNER MARRIAGES

Author: _____

(signature)

Pindy P. Badyal

(name)

December 4/92

(date)

ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationship between education, family income level, duration of marriage and marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages. The occupational status of the spouses was also explored for its influence on marital satisfaction. As well, the effects of children on marital satisfaction were examined. The participants were recruited from the general population of the Fairview and Kitsilano district in metropolitan Vancouver. Initial contact with potential participants was made by random dialing of telephone numbers in the 73-exchange. Data were collected from 101 dual-earner couples. The age for males ranged from 24 to 77 years with an average age of 39. For females, the average age was 36 with a range of 21 to 71 years.

The dependent variable, marital satisfaction, was assessed by using two instruments: The Marital Satisfaction Scale (MSS) and the Global Distress Subscale (GDS) of the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI). The five independent variables were: a) education b) family income level c) occupational status d) duration of marriage and e) the presence or absence of children. The results indicated that none of these variables affected marital satisfaction as measured by the GDS. However, when marital satisfaction was measured using the MSS, men and women who were employed in careers and had children, reported significantly lower levels of marital satisfaction than men and women who were employed in careers but were childfree.

Overall, the five demographic variables were not strongly associated with marital satisfaction of dual-earner spouses. These variables together explained only 8% of the total variance in marital satisfaction, as measured by the MSS, for men and 14% for women. Similarly, when marital satisfaction was measured using the GDS, these variables accounted for only 9% of the total variance in marital satisfaction for men and 7% for women.

**Most people look at the wonders of the world
and ask the questionwhy?
I dream of the world as it ought to be
and ask the question.....why not?**

(Author Unknown)

To my sister Pardeep.

**Yesterday's hurts
Are today's understandings
Interwoven into tomorrow's Love.**

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank Dr. Adam Horvath, my senior supervisor, for his steadfast support, encouragement and guidance throughout the preparation of this thesis. As well, I wish to thank Dr. Marilyn Bowman, the second member of my committee, for her continuing support and encouragement with this research.

I am ever indebted to my parents Gurmit and Charnjit Badyal for their tremendous support, gentle strokes of encouragement and for loving me as deeply as they have throughout this adventure. I am also extremely grateful to my brothers Paul, Jake, Kuldip and Aman Badyal for providing me with unlimited quantity of kindness, love and support throughout this journey.

My heartfelt appreciation also goes out to Bob Prosser, Tim Seifart and Jeff Sugarman for their invaluable assistance with the data analyses. I would also like to thank Larry Wiebe, George Murnaghan, Susan Crichton and Kevin Akins for their gentle instruction and tutelage with the finer points of Macintosh use.

Also, I would like to thank the couples who generously took the time from their busy schedules to participate in this research. Without their participation, this research would not have been possible. I was deeply touched by the kind hospitality I received from all the participants.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my colleagues Susan, Dennis, Peggy, Gordon, Mary Ann, Parneet, Jessica, Jennifer, Janet, Carolyn, Barbara, Natasha, Rob, Katalin, Carmen, Neal, Kathy, Dolores, Pat, Susie, Greg and Nancy for their unwavering support, enthusiasm and companionship throughout this adventure. My friendship with each of you has made me realize that friends truly are the most beautiful flowers in the garden of life.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
APPROVAL.....	ii
ABSTRACT.....	iii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
CHAPTER	
1. Introduction	1
Background Information	1
Definitions of Terms	4
Theoretical Perspectives	6
Demographics of Dual-Earner Families in the United States and Canada	7
Educational Patterns of Canadian Women.....	9
Factors Contributing to Women's Participation in the Work Force	10
Effects of Married Women's Employment on Marital Satisfaction.....	14
General Statement of the Problem.....	14
Organization of the Thesis.....	16
2. Review of the Literature	17
Theoretical Perspectives	17
Stresses Inherent in the Dual-Career Lifestyle	20
Satisfactions Inherent in the Dual-Career Lifestyle.....	24
Married Women's Employment and Marital Satisfaction.....	26
Effects of Education on Marital Satisfaction	31
Work Orientation of the Spouses and Marital Satisfaction	33

Family Income Level and Marital Satisfaction	34
Impact of Children on Marital Satisfaction	35
Duration of Marriage and Marital Satisfaction	38
Summary	39
3. Method.....	41
Design	41
Participants.....	42
Sampling Procedure.....	42
Data Collection.....	43
Instrumentation	44
Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI).....	44
Marital Satisfaction Scale (MSS)	47
Work Orientation Questionnaire (WOQ).....	49
Data Coding.....	51
4. Results.....	52
Demographics of the Sample.....	52
Reliability Scores of the Scales	59
Correlation Between the MSS and the GDS	60
Research Hypotheses	60
Results of Multiple Regression	69
5. Discussion.....	73
Research Objectives.....	73
Education and Marital Satisfaction	73
Family Income Level and Marital Satisfaction	74
Occupational Status of the Spouses and Marital Satisfaction.....	75
Duration of Marriage and Marital Satisfaction	77
Effects of Children on Marital Satisfaction.....	80

Limitations of the Study82
Recommendations for Further Research.....83
Summary84

APPENDICES

Appendix A - Consent Form87
Appendix B - Introduction Letter88
Appendix C - Demographic Sheet89
Appendix D - Work Orientation Questionnaire.....90
Appendix E - Descriptive Statistics for the Sample91

REFERENCES92

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1 Ethnicity of the participants.....	53
Table 2 Educational levels of the participants.....	54
Table 3 Correlations between demographic variables & marital satisfaction of women .	65
Table 4 Correlations between demographic variables & marital satisfaction for men....	65
Table 5 Men's marital satisfaction: MSS by wife's occupational status	67
Table 6 Women's marital satisfaction: Mss by wife's occupational status	67
Table 7 Men's marital satisfaction: GDS by wife's occupational status	68
Table 8 Women's marital satisfaction: GDS by wife's occupational status	68
Table 9 Factors influencing men's marital satisfaction (MSS).....	70
Table 10 Factors influencing men's marital satisfaction (GDS).....	70
Table 11 Factors influencing women's marital satisfaction (MSS)	71
Table 12 Factors influencing women's marital satisfaction (GDS)	71

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1 Time worked weekly.....	54
Figure 2 Ethnicity of participants compared to the 1986 Census data.....	57
Figure 3 Age distribution of males in the sample and 1986 Census data.....	58
Figure 4 Age distribution of females in the sample and 1986 Census data.....	58

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The study examined the relationship between five demographic variables and marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner¹ and dual-career marriages. This chapter provides a brief overview of the issues relevant to this study. Topics presented in this chapter include (a) background information (b) definitions of terms (c) theoretical perspectives (d) demographics of dual-earner families in the United States and Canada (e) educational patterns of Canadian women (f) factors contributing to women's participation in the work force (g) effects of married women's employment on marital satisfaction (h) general statement of the problem and (i) organization of the thesis.

Background Information

The structure of the family in western society is being redefined by dual-earner couples who no longer consider the traditional segregation of family and work roles as viable (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987; Kenney, 1982; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976; Sekaran, 1986). The traditional nuclear family is characterized by a division of family and work roles: the husband is acknowledged as the breadwinner, status giver and the legitimate head of the family, while the wife is known for her role as the homemaker, caregiver and nurturer (Pleck, 1979; Sagi & Sharon, 1984). The dual-earner family differs from the traditional nuclear family in that both spouses are engaged in paid work and, at the same time, maintain a family life together (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971; Sekaran, 1986).

A subset of the dual-earner family is known as the dual-career family. A distinctive characteristic of this family model is that both spouses are committed to occupational

¹ The literature on dual-earner and dual-career families has been poorly differentiated. For the purposes of this thesis, the term "dual-earner family" is considered the more general, inclusive term. "Dual-career family" is a subset of "dual-earner families" unless otherwise specified. Each of these terms is more explicitly defined in a subsequent section of this chapter.

careers and to maintaining family life together (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). "The implicit assumption underlying the dual-career family structure is that neither spouse will necessarily subordinate career expectations to family expectations and that each spouse is committed to participation in career and family life" (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987, p. 9). This family structure encourages men and women to share commitments and aspirations both in the occupational and familial arenas (Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971):

In contrast to the traditional nuclear family, the dual-earner family requires the coordination, balance and integration of work and family roles for each spouse individually and as a couple (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987). The degree to which the spouses coordinate their family and work roles will greatly affect the management of the dual-earner family (O'Neil, Fishman, & Kinsella-Shaw, 1987). Dual-earner couples encounter many frustrations, dilemmas and challenges as they attempt to successfully integrate their work and family responsibilities (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987; Sekaran, 1986). Few established guidelines exist to help dual-earner couples deal with the demands of their multiple and often conflicting roles (O'Neil et al., 1987). Moreover, attempts by these individuals to experiment with cross-gender behaviour are often met with scorn and ridicule (Gilbert, 1985; Kenney, 1982).

In some respects little has changed to accommodate the demands of the dual-earner family. This family structure appears to have emerged, for example, without the development of an adequate child care system, without a national maternity/paternity policy and with relatively few changes in the norms or regulations of the workplace (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976; Sekaran, 1986; Strober, 1988). Many of the necessary changes in the lifestyle patterns of the dual-earner family have been slow to occur due to the inflexibility of social systems (Sekaran, 1986; Strober, 1988). Neither social attitude nor social policy seems to be in synchrony with the fact that the dual-earner family now represents the

majority of contemporary families in western society (Hoffman, 1989). This is nowhere more evident than in the attitudes of policymakers:

The notion that there is some "best" sort of family structure is often explicitly voiced by policymakers who seek to "save" the family (meaning the two-parent, husband-only-earner family), by voting, for example, against legislation to foster the development of extrafamily child care. The notion is less explicit, but nonetheless powerful, among decision makers in schools and workplaces who have yet to adjust to the realities of two-earner families. (Strober, 1988, p. 161)

Clearly, dual-earner couples are faced with a variety of resistances as they attempt to shape their lives into meaningful patterns.

The dual-earner marriage requires couples to make adaptations which may not be necessary in a single-earner marriage. For example, dual-earner spouses are often required to redefine gender-oriented activities and adapt emotionally to the stresses of new roles and expectations (Nadelson & Nadelson, 1980). Both must find time and energy to balance work, home and family responsibilities (Ray, 1988). However, in spite of the added stresses and demands on their time and energy, an increasing number of men and women are pursuing a dual-earner lifestyle and many are questioning the traditional view of male and female roles (Gilbert, 1985; Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987; Ray, 1988; Sekaran, 1986).

The dual-earner marriage embodies the concept of choice rather than an obligation to the traditional male and female roles: "It is fashioned to incorporate differing individual concepts and attitudes; it offers the opportunity for growth and readaptation as well as the possibility of failure" (Nadelson & Nadelson, 1980, pp. 94-5). Empirical studies document the difficulties encountered by dual-earner couples (Poloma, Pendleton & Garland, 1982). The stresses inherent in the dual-earner lifestyle include issues such as role overload, lack of social support and concerns of personal identity. Each of these dilemmas will be discussed more thoroughly in Chapter 2.

While considerable attention has been focused on the stresses of the dual-earner marriage, this lifestyle also offers a number of benefits. Dual-earner couples attest to the personal gains which sustain their efforts. The advantages of a dual-earner marriage, in comparison to a single-earner marriage, include: a higher standard of living, increased sharing of domestic chores and expression of egalitarian values (Price-Bonham & Murphy, 1980). Another major satisfaction of the dual-earner marriage is the personal and professional development of both partners (St. John-Parsons, 1978).

Previous research has shown that several demographic variables are related to marital satisfaction of husbands and wives in single-earner marriages. Marital satisfaction has been found to be positively related to higher occupational status, income and educational level of husbands (Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Hicks & Platt, 1970). In addition, husband-wife similarities in socio-economic status, age and religion have been delineated as variables which correlate positively with marital satisfaction of both husbands and wives (Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Hicks & Platt, 1970).

Definitions of Terms

Several key terms will be used in this thesis. They are as follows: career, professional career, job, dual-earner family, dual-career family, egalitarian marriage, marital satisfaction, marital stability and role overload. Definitions for these terms are provided below.

Career: Although sometimes used to indicate any sequence of employment, a career more precisely refers to a sequence of occupations which are developmental in character and which require a continuous and high degree of commitment (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971). A career usually entails substantial training and requires a long-term personal commitment.

- Professional career:** Refers to an occupation which requires a period of systematic training in an institution of higher education and entails commitment for career development.
- Job:** Jobs, compared to careers, are more likely to be pursued for economic reasons, are more subject to interruption and are more likely to lack clear developmental stages and accumulation of experiences (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971).
- Dual-earner family:** A dual-earner family (also known as a dual-worker, dual-income, two-paycheque, two-earner, or a two-job family) refers to a family where both spouses are involved in paid work but not necessarily in pursuit of a career (Gilbert and Rachlin, 1987). In a dual-earner family, one spouse may pursue a career while the other spouse pursues a job, or both spouses may be involved with jobs.
- Dual-career family:** A dual-career family is a subset of the broader category of dual-earner families. The term dual-career family refers to a family where both spouses pursue careers and, at the same time, maintain a family life together (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971).
- Egalitarian marriage:** A marriage in which the husband and the wife share joint responsibility for their roles as homemaker and breadwinner.
- Marital satisfaction:** Marital satisfaction (also referred to as marital quality, marital adjustment and marital happiness) is defined as one's subjective evaluation of favourability towards his/her spouse and the marital relationship (Roach, Frazier & Bowden, 1981).
- Marital stability:** The formal or informal status of a marriage as intact or nonintact (Lewis & Spanier, 1979). A nonintact marriage is one which is willfully terminated by one or both spouses.

Role overload: Refers to the physical and emotional strain experienced by an individual who occupies a number of demanding roles (i.e., role of a parent, spouse and worker).

Theoretical Perspectives

A number of theoretical perspectives have been proposed to explain the effects of married women's employment on marital adjustment of men and women in dual-earner marriages. Two viewpoints are briefly discussed in this section: the role differentiation theory and the role homophily theory. Each of these perspectives will be discussed more thoroughly in Chapter 2.

The role differentiation theory, proposed by Parsons (1942, 1949, 1955), states that conjugal role differentiation is critical for marital stability. This perspective suggests that a married woman's employment in an occupation of equal or higher status than that of her husband could create status competition between the spouses which may harm the marriage.

Parsons' role differentiation theory has received considerable criticism in recent years. Oppenheimer (1977) contends that Parsons overestimated the deleterious effects of competition between the spouses and failed to consider the mechanisms by which the competition could be prevented or neutralized. She suggests that Parsons' preoccupation with status competition has led to a distorted analysis of the issue of role consistency within the family. In addition, Simpson and England (1981) argue that Parsons' theory suffers from an overemphasis on the functional and consensual aspects of arrangements that were current in the 1950s. They believe that a different perspective is needed to examine the effects of married women's employment on marital satisfaction of dual-earner couples in contemporary society.

Simpson and England (1981) propose an alternative theory, the theory of role homophily. This perspective suggests that a married woman's employment, far from

harming the marriage, actually benefits the relationship by enhancing communication between the spouses. Simpson and England (1981) champion the notion that shared world views enhance marital interaction and companionship. Spouses who have parallel roles bring similar interests into their marriage. The problems of one spouse can be more readily appreciated by the other. For example, working wives become more appreciative of the work pressures that their husbands experience and husbands become more appreciative of the challenges of housework and child care that their wives experience. This awareness between the spouses can benefit the marriage.

Demographics of Dual-Earner Families in the United States and Canada

The influx of married women entering the work force is perhaps the most striking economic and social developments of the post World War II period. The rate of labour force participation among married women in the United States has increased from 15% in 1940 to 54% by 1985 and is approaching the male participation rate of 77% (Hayghe, 1986). Married women now comprise almost one fourth (23.4%) of the total American work force and more than half (54%) of the American female work force (Hayghe, 1986). These trends indicate that married women are strongly represented in the American work force.

The dual-career lifestyle is rapidly becoming more prevalent in contemporary society. In the United States, the number of dual-career couples has increased from 900,000 in 1960 to 3.3 million in 1983 (Conference Board, 1985). In 1980, women constituted nearly 39% of the American professional labour force, compared with 26% in 1960 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982). The majority of these women are married and most have children.

Married women with children entered the work force at different rates and at different times depending on their family situation. During the 1940s and 1950s, married women with school-age children entered the work force in greater numbers, showing the largest

increase in employment rates of married women for a period of fifty years (Hayghe, 1976). Beginning in the early 1960s, the only remaining group (e.g., married women with preschool-age children) moved en masse into the work force (Strober, 1988).

The employment rates of married women with children fluctuate slightly depending on the age of the child. For example, in 1985, 49.4% of married women with children under the age of one, 53.5% of married women with children between the ages of 2 and 5 and 69.9% of married women with children between the ages of 6 and 17 were employed outside the home (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1986). These statistics indicate that for contemporary American women, employment, marriage and motherhood often occur simultaneously.

Many lament these changes, advocating that the "best" sort of family is the traditional nuclear family. The traditional nuclear family, enshrined in Parsonian writing, is relentlessly considered the "real" or "normal" family, in spite of the fact that it no longer represents the majority of families in contemporary society. Recent evidence indicates that the dual-earner family is now the typical family in the western society. This is nowhere more evident than in the statistics indicating the status of the American family. In 1980, dual-earner families represented 52% of all families in the United States, whereas the traditional single-earner families accounted for only 31% of all families in the United States (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1985b). The dual-earner family can no longer be considered a rarity; rather, it is a growing force that will have a substantial impact on the American society and its economy.

The patterns of dual-earner families in Canada are similar to those found in the United States. The proportion of dual-earner couples in Canada has increased steadily over the past thirty years, from 20% in 1961 to 71.2% of all married couples by 1989 (Women's Bureau, 1991). In the past forty years, the participation rates of women in the Canadian labour force have changed dramatically. In 1951, slightly less than one quarter (24.1%) of

all Canadian women were employed in the work force (Connelly & MacDonald, 1990). By 1989 this figure had increased to 57.9% (Connelly & MacDonald, 1990; Women's Bureau, 1991). The male labour force participation rate, however, has remained relatively constant, in the last 20 years, ranging from 76.4% in 1971 to 76.7% by 1989 (Women's Bureau, 1991).

In the past three decades, the employment rates of married women have increased significantly. In 1960, approximately 19% of married women were employed in the work force. By 1986, this figure had increased to 57.4% (Connelly & MacDonald, 1990). Even more extraordinary increases in rates of female employment occurred among married women with preschool-age children. The rate of labour force participation among these women increased from 38.5% in 1976 to 62.1% by 1986 (Connelly & MacDonald, 1990). The rapid influx of married women entering the Canadian work force, in turn, gave rise to dual-earner families. The rate of dual-earner families in Canada has increased threefold in the past thirty years. In 1961 approximately 20% of all husband-wife families were dual-earner families. By 1986 this figure had increased to 61.2% (Connelly & MacDonald, 1990).

The dual-earner family is now the dominant family form in American and Canadian society. While the implications of these rapid changes on the roles and responsibilities within the home may not be fully realized for many years to come, the demographic information available secures the dual-earner family within the mainstream of contemporary society.

Educational Patterns of Canadian Women

The effects of a dual-earner lifestyle on the educational ambitions of women are already visible. An increasing number of women are attending post-secondary institutions. In 1966, Canadian women represented 33.7% and 18% of the total full-time university enrollment for undergraduate and graduate programs respectively (Nakamura & Nakamura,

1984). By 1988, these rates had increased to 53.9% and 37.3% respectively (Women's Bureau, 1991).

The number of Canadian women receiving university degrees has increased significantly over the past twenty years. For instance, in 1966, 34.1% of all Bachelors degrees awarded by Canadian Universities and Colleges were awarded to women (Nakamura & Nakamura, 1984). By 1988, this figure had increased to 53.7% (Women's Bureau, 1991). In the past two decades, the percentage of women receiving Master and Doctorate degrees has also increased significantly. For example, in 1966, about 20% of all Master degrees and about 8% of all Doctorate degrees were awarded to women (Nakamura & Nakamura, 1984). By 1988, these rates had increased to 44.9% and 30.6% respectively (Women's Bureau, 1991).

The educational trends of Canadian women suggest that an increasing number of women are preparing themselves for career-oriented employment. As the number of dual-career couples continues to rise, its impact on the family structure, domestic work, child care responsibilities and marital relationship will increase as well. Therefore, research investigating the challenges and rewards of a dual-earner, particularly dual-career, marriage is essential in order to provide the information required to deal with the demands and concerns of this lifestyle. The objective of this research is to provide information regarding factors related to marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner and dual-career marriages.

Factors Contributing to Women's Participation in the Work Force

The period of rapid economic expansion and population growth that followed World War II produced many social and economic changes that have had major consequences for the family (Kalbach, 1983). High inflation rates and economic downturns during the early 1960s put increased pressure on families to earn two incomes (Kalbach, 1983). During

this time of transition, an increasing number of women entered the work force both out of choice and necessity (Burgwyn, 1981).

The rapid entry of women into the American and Canadian work force can be best understood by examining a number of social factors. These factors include (a) the industrialization of society (b) changes in social attitudes (c) increased number of job opportunities for women (d) improvements in household technology (e) increases in life expectancy and (f) improvements in contraception. Each of these factors is briefly discussed in this section.

Industrialization of society.

As the economy became more industrialized and market-oriented, women realized that they could best serve their families by earning an income which would allow them to purchase the goods and services traditionally produced in the home from the "market" (Strober, 1988). For example, in the 19th century, a "good" mother stayed home so that she could educate her children and if they became ill, she could provide nursing services for them (Strober, 1988). However, the system of socially organized education and medicine has advanced and is no longer the main responsibility of the homemaker. Therefore, mothers now work to help pay for their children's education and medical care (Strober, 1988).

Changes in social attitudes.

Several social forces (e.g., women's movement and legislative changes such as equal pay for equal work) combined with the economic changes that accompanied the industrial revolution have helped to shift attitudes towards the acceptance and support for career motivated women (Delage-Kaufhold, 1983; Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989). These changes in social attitudes, in turn, encouraged a significant increase in women entering and remaining in the work force.

Increased number of job opportunities for women.

The increased number of jobs which are available for women has also contributed to women's increased employment outside the home. The rapid growth of white-collar jobs, the expansion of the service sector, the reduction in the average work week and the rise in the availability of part-time employment have all been conducive to the increased numbers of women, particularly married women, participating in the work force (Harpell, 1985).

Improvements in household technology.

Women's employment in the work force has also been encouraged by substantial improvements in household technology (Harpell, 1985). Time-saving goods and services such as microwave ovens, dishwashers and convenience foods have helped to reduce work in the domestic arena (Harpell, 1985; Strober, 1988). These time-saving devices facilitated the movement of women (especially married women) into the work force (Strober, 1988).

Increases in life expectancy.

The dramatic increase in life expectancy is another significant factor contributing to women's participation in the work force. The average life expectancy at birth for American women was approximately 55 years in 1920 (Statistical abstract of the United States, 1981). Today a newborn female in an industrialized nation can expect to live to the age of 78 (Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989). This increase in the lifespan of women suggests that, after they have borne and reared their children, they will still have many years remaining in which to be productive members of the work force (Strober, 1988).

Improvements in contraception.

Another reason for the increase in women's employment outside the home is related to the dramatic changes affecting human reproduction. The major demographic shifts have been a decline in infant mortality and decline in fertility (Burgwyn, 1981; Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989). In agrarian societies, half of the children did not live to the age of 14.

Therefore, it was necessary to bear at least four children in the hope that two might survive to adulthood (Sullerot, 1971). Large-scale procreation was encouraged, if not demanded, in agrarian societies (Burgwyn, 1981). In contrast, the need to produce many children has been greatly reduced in an industrial society:

The industrial revolution caused a tremendous drop in infant mortality, because of the increase in standard of living it brought, including sanitation, clean water, and more adequate nutrition. Fertility also declined as children in an urban, industrial society became economic liabilities rather than assets for their parents and as more effective methods of birth control developed. (Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989, p. 47)

Modern contraceptives have made childbearing a matter of choice. This choice is often made by weighing the costs and benefits of the value of children relative to other lifestyle options (Neal, Groat & Wicks, 1989). The "opportunity costs" of children are especially great for couples in which a career woman plans to work throughout her married life (Espenshade, 1977; Groat et al., 1982). Therefore, career-minded women are likely to opt for a childfree lifestyle or they may greatly limit their number of children (Burgwyn, 1981; Hoffman & Manis, 1979).

Ideals about the family are giving way to new realities: later marriages, postponed children and more dependable birth control. Effective control over the timing and number of children has allowed women to be active participants in the work force. Working women and working mothers can no longer be considered a rarity; rather they are a growing force with substantial impact on the western society and its economy.

It is evident that many factors have contributed to the increase of women's employment in the work force. Clearly, none of these factors could be considered causative in isolation. However, when combined, a multifaceted transition can be described that sheds light on the essential components of this dramatic social change. The

effects of married women's employment on marital satisfaction have been widely studied. The following section provides a brief summary of the major research findings.

Effects of Married Women's Employment on Marital Satisfaction

Systematic research on dual-career families began in 1969 with the work of Rhona and Robert Rapoport. Initial studies (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969; 1971; Epstein, 1971; Holmstorm, 1972; Poloma & Garland, 1971) were concerned with the viability of this new family life pattern. Early research tended to view wives' employment as having pernicious effects on marital relationships of dual-career couples. "The husband/father is presumed to suffer the loss of home production (including special meals, attentive soothing, and carefree child-rearing)" (Strober, 1988, p. 162). The destructive potentials of the dual-career marriage were expressed as fears that this new lifestyle would destroy the marriage and emotionally damage the children.

A number of early studies which compared the marital satisfaction of employed and unemployed wives concluded that employed wives and their husbands experienced lower levels of marital satisfaction (Axelson, 1963; Nye & Hoffman, 1963; Orden & Bradburn, 1969). Later studies, however, were unable to replicate these findings (Booth, 1977; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Wright, 1978). More recent studies show that either a neutral or a positive correlation exists between wives' employment and marital satisfaction (Green & Zenisek, 1983; Johnson, 1984; Yogev & Brett, 1985).

General Statement of the Problem

The dual-earner lifestyle is receiving considerable attention in both professional journals and the popular press. However, despite the proliferation of the studies investigating the effects of wives' employment on the family, little is known about how the demands of combining work and family roles are related to marital satisfaction of dual-earner spouses. The data on antecedents of marital satisfaction of dual-earner couples are limited. Moreover, in Canada little research has been done specifically on dual-career

couples. This study will provide empirical data from a Canadian west coast population on factors related to marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner and dual-career marriages.

This study examines the relationship between five demographic variables and marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages. The dependent variable, marital satisfaction, is assessed by using two measures: The Marital Satisfaction Scale (MSS) and the Global Distress Subscale of the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI). The reliability and validity for each of these instruments is discussed more thoroughly in Chapter 3. The five independent variables examined in this research include (a) duration of marriage (b) presence (or absence) of children (c) the level of education among the spouses (d) family income level and (e) career versus job orientation of the spouses. These variables do not exhaust the range of factors that may be correlates of marital satisfaction for dual-earner couples. Rather, these variables are selected because they are interrelated in such a way that the direct effect of each is best estimated with the other variables controlled. The specific questions addressed in this research are:

1. Is there an association between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages?
2. Does the presence of children affect the marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages?
3. Is there a relationship between education and marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages?
4. Does career versus job orientation of the spouses have an effect on marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages?
5. Is there a relationship between family income level and marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages?

6. Does the wife's occupational success relative to that of her husband affect the marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages?

Organization of the Thesis

This chapter introduced the study and provided a brief overview. A general statement of the problem was provided and research questions were summarized. Chapter 2 provides a review of the theoretical and empirical literature relevant to this study. Chapter 3 describes the method, focusing on subject selection and administration of the questionnaires. Chapter 4 presents the results of this research. Chapter 5, the final chapter of this thesis, provides interpretations of the findings. The limitations of the study are discussed along with recommendations for further research. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the main findings.

CHAPTER 2

Review of the Literature

A review of the literature relevant to this study is presented in nine sections. First, a theoretical framework is provided. Next, the costs and the benefits of a dual-career lifestyle are examined. This leads to a discussion of the literature concerning the effects of married women's employment on marital satisfaction. The effects of education, family income level and occupational status of the spouses on marital satisfaction are also explored. Finally, the findings regarding the effects of children on marital satisfaction are reviewed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the literature investigating the relationship between marital satisfaction and duration of marriage.

Theoretical Perspectives

A number of theoretical perspectives have been proposed to explain the effects of married women's employment on marital adjustment of dual-earner couples. Two viewpoints are discussed in this section: the role differentiation theory and the role homophily theory.

Role differentiation theory.

The role differentiation theory emerged from the early work of Talcott Parsons (1942, 1949, 1955). Parsons saw conjugal role differentiation as being critical for marital stability. Conjugal role differentiation, according to Parsons, involves exchanges between the occupational and familial systems. The husband's focus is on obtaining an income by performing occupational roles outside of the family and the wife is concerned with procreative and sustenance functions within the family. This division of labour, according to Parsons, provides a balanced relationship.

Parsons (1942, 1949) speculated that, if marital stability were to be maintained, married women must either avoid paid employment or pursue occupations which are not in status competition with those of their husbands. He argued that if both spouses seek

success in paid employment, their achievements might lead to judgements about who is more successful. Spouses would be in competition with one another and this competition could be disruptive to the marriage.

In the early 1950s, divorce rates fortuitously supported Parsons' position. Divorce rates were the highest among the lower class families and it was among these families that married women's employment outside the home was more common (Aldous, Osmond & Hicks, 1979). Scholars seemed convinced that the rising divorce rates were related to married women's increasing employment outside of the home.

Some studies yielded results consistent with Parsons' predictions. Ross and Sawhill (1975) reported that employed women are more apt to divorce if they have relatively high earnings. Subsequently, Udry (1981) found a positive correlation between wives' income level and the likelihood of marital disruption, with women earning higher incomes being more likely to divorce.

Parsons' role differentiation theory, on the other hand, has been challenged by several researchers, most notably by Oppenheimer (1975; 1977). Oppenheimer (1975) counters Parsons' structural argument for the necessity of the breadwinner and homemaker type of conjugal role differentiation with an equally plausible explanation of why it is not necessary for marital stability. She indicates that spouses are rarely in direct occupational competition. Most spouses have different occupations and those who have similar positions are usually employed in different settings. Therefore, a decline in role differentiation, as Parsons defines it, does not necessarily threaten marital stability.

Oppenheimer (1977) argues that the stresses induced by equal or higher earnings of married women may be related to the traditional norms governing men's breadwinner roles rather than being inherent in the dual-earner lifestyle. She states:

...the fact that a wife's equal or somewhat greater earnings is interpreted as a threat in spite of its economic utility to the couple suggests that it is the existence of the norm

basing the husband's standing and authority in the family on his ability to be the major provider which leads to stress rather than any other inherent features of the situation. (Oppenheimer, 1977, p. 395)

Oppenheimer (1975), using the data collected by 1960 and 1970 U.S. Censuses, found that the greatest increases in labour force participation for the decade between 1960 and 1970 was among upper-middle class wives. Yet divorce rates among these women were still the lowest. Oppenheimer (1975) concludes that the higher divorce rates among couples in the lower class families may be due less to wives' employment, as Parsons argues, than to the husband's inability to perform the provider role.

Oppenheimer (1977) claims that Parsons' role differentiation perspective "comes perilously close to an argument for the functional necessity not of equivalent evaluation within the family but of male superiority" (p. 391). Simpson and England (1981) echo that the "isolation and subordination of wives inherent in Parsons's view on sex-role differentiation impair the companionship that couples now seek" (p. 199). These authors argue that a different perspective is required to examine the effects of married women's employment on marital satisfaction of dual-earner couples in contemporary society.

Role homophily theory.

Simpson and England (1981) propose a theory of role homophily. The underlying assumption of this perspective is the opposite of that of Parsons' role differentiation theory. The role homophily perspective states that role congruity enhances marital satisfaction. Simpson and England (1981) argue that Parsons' role differentiation perspective has "divisive effects; it separates the worlds of husbands and wives and this separation impedes mutual understanding and companionship" (pp. 185-6).

Simpson and England (1981) contend that similarity of roles fosters marital communication and companionship. Their contention that role congruity enhances marital satisfaction takes support from the U-shaped curve of marital satisfaction over the family

life stages. Several researchers (Rollins & Feldman, 1970; Rollins & Cannon, 1974) have found that marital satisfaction is reported to be the highest prior to child rearing and following the launching of children from the home. The dip in marital satisfaction has been interpreted by most researchers as being related to the rigors of child rearing. However, Simpson and England (1981) postulate that this dip in marital satisfaction suggests that the greatest satisfaction in marriage coincides with those family life stages with the least amount of sex-role differentiation. These authors advocate that role congruity enhances marital interaction which has positive effects on the marriage.

Empirical findings support Simpson and England's claim that role congruity benefits the marriage. Michel (1970) noted that flexible sex-role differentiation enhances marital satisfaction. Similarly, Bean et al. (1977) found that marital satisfaction benefits from equality of power between the spouses. Simpson and England's (1981) results also support the hypothesis that role congruity enhances marital satisfaction.

The role homophily theory deals with marital satisfaction, not the survival and dissolution of marriages. Simpson and England (1981) point out that while role congruity produced by the wife's employment contributes to marital communication and companionship, her employment may also give spouses the independence to dissolve their marriage if either spouse becomes dissatisfied with the marriage. Married women who lack financial independence cannot afford to dissolve their marriages, even if they are dissatisfied with them; "many such marriages remain intact" (Simpson & England, 1981, p. 186).

Stresses Inherent in the Dual-Career Lifestyle

Dual-career couples are faced with many challenges as they attempt to balance the demands of their career and family responsibilities. Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) identified five major dilemmas inherent in the dual-career lifestyle. These include: role

overload, identity dilemma, environmental sanctions, social network stressors and multiple role-cycling. Each of these stresses is briefly discussed in this section.

Role overload.

Role overload refers to the strain associated with multiple roles (i.e., spouse, parent and worker) taken on by the dual-career couple. With both spouses working outside the home, it would appear that the family and household responsibilities would need to be shared by the husband and the wife. Although hired domestic help can reduce the burden of household chores, it does not eliminate all the family responsibilities of the spouses. For example, in families with children, the children require a great deal of parental care, love and emotional support. Dual-career couples, as they attend to their family responsibilities before and after a day's work outside the home, experience physical exhaustion and emotional stress (Sekaran, 1986).

Identity dilemma.

In addition to role overload, dual-career couples experience considerable internal conflict as they attempt to establish a sense of personal identity. The gender-based roles and values internalized by these individuals early in their life through the process of socialization conflict with the more androgynous roles that they are now trying to establish. The flexible sharing of male and female roles in dual-career families can often create role and identity confusion. For example, a husband who shares household and child care responsibilities could, at times, doubt his manliness. A wife could agonize over not being a good mother since she is away from home for the major part of her day (Sekaran, 1986).

Environmental sanctions.

By deviating from the societal norms in parenting and work schedules, dual-career couples can engender devaluation and criticism from others (O'Neil et al., 1987; Sekaran, 1986). For example, attempts by these individuals to experiment with cross-gender behaviour are often met with scorn and ridicule (Gilbert, 1985; Kenney, 1982). "These are

"These are times of stress, conflict, and considerable soul-searching. Dual-career couples struggle to clarify their values and decide how to address the normative dilemmas" (O'Neil et al., 1987, p. 71). The discrepancies that exist between the lifestyles of the dual-career spouses and the normative behaviours prescribed by society cause dilemmas and psychological stresses for these couples (Sekaran, 1986).

Social network stressors.

Social network stressors add to pressures to conform for these couples. Dual-career couples find it difficult to sustain friendship patterns and kin networks because of the limited free time they have to interact with others (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). Most of their friendships tend to be couple based and the boundaries of their social network tend to include individuals with whom the couple interact on a professional basis (Sekaran, 1986). Close kin relationships are rare except when there are clear responsibilities or compatibilities (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). For example, a grandmother may act as a surrogate parent.

Lack of time may force the couple to exclude friends and even relatives from their social circle. Fulfilling extended family expectations for sociability, hospitality and participation in family affairs may not always be possible for dual-career couples due to time constraints. Social activities of these individuals are often curtailed and weekends are usually filled with catching up on errands, chores and each other (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971).

Dilemmas of multiple role-cycling.

In a single-earner marriage, the family cycle may dovetail well with the work cycle in that many couples marry at the stage when the husband is entering into a regular occupational role (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). The high demands placed on him in his work environment are supported by the "relative non-turbulence in the family scene" (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971, p. 295). However, the balance and integration between

family and work roles are not easily established by dual-career couples. Dual-career couples experience many challenges as they attempt to successfully integrate the demands of their career and family responsibilities. The stresses are even more severe if both spouses are employed in occupations such as medicine, law, academia, or management:

These occupations require not only long hours, but also long periods of intense career "initiation" that usually fall during the years in which childbearing and childrearing normally take place. The career patterns and demands of these occupations developed during a time when their male incumbents had wives at home to manage childrearing and other domestic tasks. These patterns and demands do not fit well with family life when both parents are trying to succeed at careers. (Strober, 1988, p. 177)

Clearly, dual-career couples are confronted with many difficult decisions as they attempt to synchronize their career cycle with their family life cycle. Couples who plan to combine childrearing with their career aspirations are faced with issues such as: the ideal time to start a family, how many children to have and how to space them (Sekaran, 1986). Moreover, these individuals are faced with the additional question: who will care for the children?

The major concern for dual-career couples is how to fit a child into a family in which both spouses are actively involved with professional careers. The timing of children becomes extremely important for career-oriented individuals. Sekaran (1986) states that if the couples "...wait too long, the wife might be past the childbearing age or face health complications; but if they begin raising a family soon after their marriage, the wife might lose many of the benefits she has already gained at the workplace, including the possibility of advancement" (p. 8).

The following comments of a middle-aged professional woman in Sekaran's study succinctly sum up the dilemmas of multiple role-cycling:

After much discussion, my husband and I finally decided not to have children. When we married fourteen years ago, we thought that I should first complete my education and get my master's degree. Then I got a job and was thrilled about it. At that time, we thought that we should postpone having a child for five years. We constantly went back and forth on it because I was already twenty-six when I started working and I would be thirty-one by the time I had my first child. But we agreed that waiting would help us to get established in our careers and in the family. But then, I got promoted before the end of the fourth year on my job, and the new responsibilities involved traveling - I had to be out of town at least six days in the month. There is no point in trying to raise a child under these circumstances. The options were either to reject the new assignment or decide not to raise a family. We decided we would adopt a child when we are ready. (Sekaran, 1986, p. 9)

Satisfactions Inherent in the Dual-Career Lifestyle

Despite the attendant strains, the dual-career lifestyle also offers a great deal of satisfaction for each member of the family. The children raised in dual-career families benefit from contact and involvement with both parents (Russell, 1982; St. John-Parsons, 1978; Stephan & Corder, 1985). These children are able to draw on a wide repertoire of role models. For girls, wider career horizons are present as tangible possibilities. For boys, there is exposure to more equalitarian marital roles (Nadelson & Nadelson, 1980). These children develop flexible ideas concerning personal work and family identities (Knaub, 1986). Moreover, these children tend to be more independent, resourceful and self-sufficient than children raised in single-earner families (Knaub, 1986; Stephan & Corder, 1985; Trimberger & MacLean, 1982).

Adolescent and young adult children raised in dual-career families were surveyed by Knaub (1986). The sample consisted of 54 females and 39 males. These individuals viewed dual-career lifestyle positively and rated their families high in family strength,

especially in the areas of concern, respect and support. The three most mentioned benefits of growing up in a dual-career family included: having positive role models, financial security and the opportunity to develop independence. A large majority of the respondents (66.6%) indicated that they intended to choose the combination of marriage, career and parenthood as their own family lifestyle.

Adults in dual-career families also report substantial personal benefits. Women in dual-career families gain self-esteem, power, effectiveness, respect and well-being (Atkinson & Boles, 1984; Blumstein & Schwartz, 1983; Gilbert, 1985; Hardesty & Betz, 1980; Pepitone-Rockwell, 1980; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1982; Sekaran, 1982). The benefits for the wife also include: the opportunity to develop professionally, a sense of economic independence and greater intellectual companionship and contentment (Gilbert, 1985; Pepitone-Rockwell, 1980). As well, an independent income allows a woman to feel more equal in her marriage. In addition, when the children grow up and leave home, a working woman is less likely to be overcome by the empty nest syndrome (Glenn, 1975).

The advantages for the husband include: freedom from bearing the total economic responsibility for the family and having the opportunity to involve himself in parenting (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987). Since the working woman is not dependent on her husband for outside contact with the world, the husband does not have to worry about meeting all of her emotional or social needs. He can worry about meeting some of his own without feeling guilty (Delage-Kaufhold, 1983). The relationship between dual-career spouses can be one of mutual respect and support, rather than one way dependency.

Satisfaction accruing to both spouses include: "increased family income, the opportunity to develop beyond sex-role stereotypic proscriptions and the opportunity to be part of an intimate relationship based on equal sharing of power and initiative" (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987, p.27). Two incomes also provide a possibility for purchasing the special

things that may not be necessary, but make life considerably more enjoyable for dual-career couples.

Married Women's Employment and Marital Satisfaction

Results of studies investigating the effects of married women's employment on marital satisfaction have been inconclusive. Several of the earlier studies (Axelson, 1963; Gover, 1963; Nye, 1961; Nye & Hoffman, 1963; Orden & Bradburn, 1969; Scanzoni, 1970) indicated that the wife's employment had mostly negative effects on marital satisfaction. Alternatively, more recent studies have found a neutral or a positive correlation between wives' employment and marital satisfaction (Booth, 1977; Campbell et al., 1976; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Locksley, 1980; Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989; Wright, 1978).

Nye (1959) compared employed mothers with housewives on self-rated measures of marital satisfaction and happiness as single items and on a Guttman-type scale. This scale included conflict items in addition to the happiness and satisfaction items. The two groups of women were matched by occupation of the husband, education of the wife, number of children, presence of preschool children and previous marital status of the spouses. Nye (1959) found no significant difference between the two groups using the single items of marital satisfaction and happiness. However, when the Guttman-type scale was used as the criteria, a small but significant association was found between employment and marital satisfaction, with a larger proportion of the employed mothers reporting lower levels of marital satisfaction.

Feld's (1963) results are consistent with those found by Nye (1959). Feld (1963), using data from a national probability sample of mothers aged twenty-one or older, investigated the effects of maternal employment on marital satisfaction. In her initial comparison of full-time employed women and housewives, she found only slight and insignificant differences between the two groups. However, when she standardized the

two groups of women on education and family income, the negative relationship between employment and marital happiness became significant. The adverse effects of employment on marital satisfaction were much greater in her subsample of wives with no more than grade school education compared with wives who had high school or college education. These results, and those found by earlier studies (i.e., Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Nye, 1959), suggest that for wives the level of education is directly related to marital satisfaction. Married women with higher levels of education seem to be happier with their marriages, compared with women who have lower levels of education.

Although much more interest has been shown in the effects of women's employment for the wife, there are consequences for the husband as well. Axelson (1963) is one of the few researchers to concern himself primarily with the effects of wives' employment on marital satisfaction for the husbands. He collected data from a random sample of 122 husbands who were residing with their wives in a small western town. He used mailed questionnaires. Forty-five of the men in his sample were married to women who were employed in the work force and seventy-seven of the men were married to housewives. Axelson found that a larger proportion of the husbands, whose wives were working, evaluated their marriages less positively compared with husbands whose wives were not employed in the work force. Axelson, however, did not match the two groups by socio-economic status and other social variables.

Bean et al. (1977), using data collected from the 1969 Austin Family Survey of 325 Mexican American couples, found that marital satisfaction was greater among couples where the wife was a housewife compared to couples where the wife was employed in the work force. They conclude that this result is similar to the one found among lower class families. However, in the case of the Mexican American couples, the question arises: is this pattern culturally-based, reflecting a familial preference for the wife's staying at home, or is it class-related, indicating an inclination among working class women to favour

staying at home? To test this hypothesis, Bean et al. divided the sample into two groups (i.e., white and blue-collar occupational groups) and repeated the analysis for the two groups. The occupational status of the husbands was used as a crude measure of socio-economic class. Their results show that higher levels of marital satisfaction when the wife was unemployed appeared only among the blue collar group. This finding suggests that socio-economic status is probably an important mediating factor for marital satisfaction when married women are employed in the work force.

Research (i.e., Nye, 1963b; Gover, 1963) provides support for the hypothesis that the wife's employment has negative effects on marital satisfaction among lower class families, with almost no differences among the middle class families. In explaining these results, Nye (1963b) speculated that marital adjustment of employed wives may be affected by the nature of the wife's employment. He suggests that among the lower class families, women are more likely to have jobs that are boring, tiring, unsatisfying and lacking in prestige.

Orden and Bradburn (1969) provide a thorough and carefully designed study on marital happiness. Using a random sample of 903 wives and 748 husbands, these researchers explored the effect of the wife's preference for work on marital happiness. They differentiated between women who were in paid employment by choice and those who worked out of necessity. The distinction between the two groups was made according to the participants' responses to the following question: "Would you [or your wife, if the respondent was a man] work if you [or she] didn't need the money?" (Orden & Bradburn, 1969, p. 393). The authors inferred that those who answered "yes" to this question probably enjoyed their work.

The men and women surveyed by Orden and Bradburn (1969) were chosen randomly from four communities, two within the Detroit metropolitan area and one each from the Chicago and the Washington metropolitan areas. These authors found a consistent

relationship between the wife's enjoyment of work and her evaluation of her marriage. Among women who are free to choose to work there is no evidence that their choice to work creates a strain in the marriage either for the wife or for the husband.

Orden and Bradburn's (1969) findings confirm the results found in an earlier study by Locke and MacKeprang (1949). Locke and MacKeprang (1949) studied the marital adjustment of 41 couples in which the wife was employed full-time and 51 in which the wife was not employed. Husbands and wives were matched by age, education, length of time married and husband's income. The participants were administered two self-rating marital happiness scales (i.e., Burgess-Cottrell and Burgess-Cottrell-Terman-Locke scales). Locke and MacKeprang noted that, for each of these measures, there appeared to be no significant difference in marital happiness between women who were housewives and those who were employed in the work force. Equally, on both measures of marital happiness, the mean scores of husbands married to housewives were not significantly different from the mean scores of husbands married to working women .

More recent studies investigating the effects of married women's employment on marital satisfaction also indicate that wives' employment has neutral effects on marital satisfaction (Booth, 1977; Campbell et al., 1976; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Locksley, 1980; Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989; Wright, 1978). Locksley (1980), using a random sample of 1,194 married men and women, found no evidence that wives' employment affects marital satisfaction for the husbands or the wives. Likewise, Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989), using a random sample of 489 couples chosen from Ohio metropolitan area, found that husbands and wives did not differ in their perception of the quality of their marriages, whether or not the wife was employed in the work force. These results suggest that the negative effects of wives' employment found in many of the earlier studies are not replicated by more recent studies on marital satisfaction.

The inconsistencies between earlier and more recent studies on the effects of wives' employment on marital satisfaction may be partly explained by better research designs. The earlier studies (e.g., Axelson, 1963; Bean et al., 1977; Feld, 1963; Nye, 1959; Orden & Bradburn, 1969) used a variety of measures of marital satisfaction. Typically, no evidence is presented concerning the reliability and validity of the measures used. Additionally, some of the earlier studies (i.e., Locke & MacKeprang, 1949) were based on small samples which were not always representative of the target population. Hicks and Platt (1970) indicate that many of the earlier studies on marital satisfaction have utilized accidental samples. They claim that "only rarely have probability samples been drawn from specified populations. Often when probability samples were used the groups from which they were drawn (i.e., church or university groups) have been notably atypical" (Hicks & Platt, 1970, p.555). Therefore, the generalizability of the results of the earlier studies is greatly limited due to the sampling deficiencies. More recent studies on marital satisfaction, are based on larger samples and have used multiple measures to assess marital satisfaction, thus providing a more reliable assessment for this construct.

The discrepancy between earlier and more recent studies on the effects of wives' employment on marital satisfaction may also be explained by the changes in social attitudes towards married women's employment (Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989). Employment among married women has become more accepted in contemporary society. Results of the General Social Survey conducted by the National Opinion Research Center (1986) show an increased support for married women's employment from 64% in 1972 to 75% in 1982 (Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989). These changes in social attitudes towards working wives and the accompanying adaptive arrangements (i.e., preprocessed foods and child-care alternatives) may have reduced the stresses associated with wives' employment.

In contemporary society, the wife's employment *per se* may not be important in determining marital satisfaction. Rather, her reasons for seeking work might moderate the effect of her employment on marital satisfaction (Greenstein, 1990; Hodgson, 1984; Rallings & Nye, 1979). Possible mediating factors are choice versus necessity, stage of the family life-cycle (specifically in relation to the age of children who are present in the home), occupational achievements of the spouses and the husband's support for the wife's employment.

Nye (1959) found, as had Gianopoulos and Mitchell (1957), that married women whose husbands supported their decision to work reported positive evaluation of their marriage more often than those whose husbands disapproved. Subsequently, Orden and Bradburn (1969) found that the negative effects of married women's employment on marital satisfaction were evident only for the wives who worked out of necessity rather than choice. In reviewing earlier studies on marital satisfaction, Nye (1974) suggests that a married woman's employment is likely to have positive effects on marital satisfaction if she is employed in a job or career that she enjoys if her husband is supportive of her employment and if both spouses have higher levels of education.

Effects of Education on Marital Satisfaction

Most of the relevant literature seems to suggest that formal education has a direct positive effect on the success of a marriage and an indirect positive effect via economic and social status (Glenn & Weaver, 1978). Glenn and Weaver (1978) suggest that "the direct effect presumably results from a generally greater flexibility, ability to communicate, and ability to cope with the problems of living of well-educated persons" (p. 277). Highly educated individuals are believed to be less traditional and, therefore, more capable of adjusting to new situations (Vannoy-Hiller, 1989).

A number of the earlier studies (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Gurin et al., 1960; Luckey, 1966; Renne, 1970; Terman, 1938) demonstrate that the level of education is directly

related to marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives. Luckey (1966), using a sample of 80 married couples, reports a positive correlation between marital satisfaction and education. Her results indicate that college educated individuals are more satisfied with their marriages than individuals with lower levels of education.

Luckey's (1966) results are consistent with those found by Renne (1970). Renne (1970), using an area probability sample of 6,928 individuals, reports that college educated Caucasian men and women aged 44 years or younger are happier with their marriages compared to men and women in the same age group but with lower levels of education (i.e., grade school education).

Renne's (1970) findings also indicate that among older men (i.e., those who are 45 years old or older) the level of education has little effect on marital satisfaction. Among this group, while the difference of means is not significant, there appears to be an inverse relationship between education and marital satisfaction. In other words, in this group, men who had grade eight or fewer years of education reported slightly higher levels of marital satisfaction than men who were high school or college graduates.

Although most of the earlier studies investigating the relationship between education and marital satisfaction have consistently found a positive correlation between education and marital satisfaction, more recent research on this topic provides conflicting reports. A study by Staines, Pleck, Sheppard and O'Connor (1978), based on a national survey, shows that working wives with lower educational attainment (i.e., less than a high school diploma) report significantly lower levels of marital satisfaction than married working women who have higher levels of education. These results, although corroborating the results found by many of the earlier studies, are contradictory to those found by Campbell et al. (1976).

Campbell et al. (1976) report that marital satisfaction varies inversely with the level of education among both husbands and wives, the least satisfied spouses being the college

graduates. Alternatively, a more recent study designed to investigate the effects of education on marital satisfaction has demonstrated that there is no association between education and marital satisfaction (Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989). Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989) report that the quality of marriage does not vary with the level of education of either spouse. Their results indicate that men and women are equally satisfied with their marriage regardless of whether they are high school, college or university graduates. These authors noted that for men the variance in satisfaction explained by education was 0% and for women the variance in marital satisfaction explained by education was 1.2%. These results indicate that the level of education is not a strong predictor of marital satisfaction for men and women in dual-earner marriages.

The relationship between education and marital satisfaction seems inconclusive. Earlier studies report significantly different results from the more recent studies. It is not clear whether this difference between the earlier and more recent studies reflects a change in the relationship between education and marital satisfaction or a difference in the designs of the studies. Glenn and Weaver (1978) suggest that a change in the relationship between education and marital satisfaction seems at least as likely.

Work Orientation of the Spouses and Marital Satisfaction

The dual-career marriage is a new prototype that reflects the increasing educational and career aspirations of women. Highly educated women, who in the past worked only until marriage, are now choosing to continue their careers throughout their married lives (Tryon & Tryon, 1982). Career aspirations of married women have attracted considerable attention from a number of contemporary scholars.

Some scholars speculate that the wife's occupational success relative to that of her husband's may have adverse effects on the marriage (Becker, 1973; Hicks, & Platt, 1970; Santos, 1975). However, empirical results do not support this prediction (Richardson, 1979; Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber, 1989). Richardson (1979), using a random sample of

1,533 married men and women, explored the relationship between married women's occupational achievements and marital happiness of dual-career couples. The sample was divided into three groups: wives with higher, equal, or lower occupational prestige than that of their husbands. Richardson found no significant association between wives' occupational achievements and marital adjustment for the husbands (i.e., $\gamma=.01$; $p >.4$). Equally, there was no significant association between wives' occupational success and marital adjustment for the wives (i.e., $\gamma=.12$, $p >.2$).

Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989), replicating results found by Richardson (1979), noted that the wife's occupational achievements relative to those of her husband had no effect on the quality of marriage as perceived by either spouse. These authors found that although marital quality seems to be higher when the husband's occupational status surpasses that of his wife's, the differences are not large enough to be significant.

Clearly, empirical results do not support the claim that marital satisfaction diminishes when married women's occupational achievements exceed those of their husbands. Richardson (1979) suggests that the proposition that the wife's occupational superiority would engender marital troubles may be maintained, in part, because this viewpoint seems "congruent with the more widely held sex-role orientation which anticipate the occupancy of superior status positions by males" (p. 70).

Family Income Level and Marital Satisfaction

Low-income marriages are prone to a number of problems, ranging from lack of communication between spouses (Komarovsky, 1962) to financial problems. Earlier studies indicate that, for a variety of reasons, marital satisfaction increases with family income level (Cutright, 1971; Goode, 1951; Locke, 1951). Alternatively, more recent research has shown that the family income level is not strongly associated with marital satisfaction for men or women (Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989). Glenn and Weaver (1978), using data collected by the National Opinion Research Center

between 1973 to 1975, found no strong positive correlation between the family income level and marital satisfaction for husbands or wives. Equally, Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989) report no association between the family income level and marital satisfaction for men or women. These authors found that 0% of the variance in marital satisfaction was explained by the predictor variable family income for both husbands and wives.

Impact of Children on Marital Satisfaction

The birth of the first child and the changes that accompany the transition to parenthood have been portrayed by some authors as a "crisis event". LeMasters (1957) was the first to point out the "crisis" aspects of having a child, followed by Dyer (1963). The earlier studies (i.e., LeMasters, 1957; Dyer, 1963), although based on retrospective accounts of the changes that accompany the transition to parenthood, laid the groundwork for much subsequent research concerned with the effects of children on the marital satisfaction of the couple.

Several studies have shown that marital satisfaction decreases with arrival of children (Belsky, Lang & Rovine, 1985; Belsky & Rovine, 1984; Belsky, Spanier & Rovine, 1983; Cowan et al., 1985; Feldman, 1965; 1971; Feldman & Nash, 1984; Goldberg, Michaels & Lamb, 1985; Miller & Sollie, 1980; Renne, 1970; Rollins & Feldman, 1970; Ryder, 1973; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Rhyne, 1981; Waldron & Routh, 1981). Glenn and McLanahan (1982), using data collected for General Social Surveys by National Opinion Research Center, examined the effects of children on marital happiness for different subgroups of the population. They found that children have small, but consistently negative effects on marital happiness for husbands and wives of all races, educational levels and employment status. These results have been substantiated by Belsky et al. (1983).

Belsky et al. (1983) examined marital satisfaction before and after the birth of a child. Replicating earlier results reported by Miller and Sollie (1980), Waldron and Routh (1981) and Glenn and McLanahan (1982), these authors found that satisfaction with marriage

tends to decrease following the birth of the child. This decline in satisfaction is more pronounced for women than for men (Belsky et al., 1983).

Interestingly, Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989) report that the number of children born to a couple has little bearing on marital quality. Rather, the number of children living at home is important for marital satisfaction. Men and women who have children living at home are less content with their marriage compared to men and women who do not have any children living at home. Their results also indicate that couples with only one child living at home perceive their marriage as being slightly lower in marital quality than do couples without any children living at home. However, marital quality is much lower for couples who have two or more children living at home. Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989) point out that "although child rearing brings its own rewards, it reduces the time the partners can spend together. The relationship between the parents tends to be secondary to the children's demands" (p. 99). Children demand much of their parents' attention and energy which spouses might otherwise direct toward each other.

Houseknecht and Macke (1981) suggest that the negative effects of children on marital satisfaction for mothers do not necessarily apply to women at all stages of the family life cycle. These authors, using a sample of 663 professional women, found that mothers of young children on average reported lower levels of marital adjustment compared to women who have never had any children. However, their results also indicate that mothers whose children were 18 years old or older reported the highest level of marital adjustment. Houseknecht and MacKe (1981) point out that this finding cannot be explained by women's age or duration of marriage since both of these variables were controlled in the regression equation. They suggest that the higher scores for the former mothers (i.e., mothers whose children are 18 years old or older) may be related to frequency of companionship activities. These authors speculate that :

It is conceivable that being relieved of the heavy responsibilities associated with child rearing represents a dramatic change for former mothers. The higher marital adjustment that they perceive may be in part a reaction to their newly found freedom to participate more extensively in companionship activities with their spouses.

Women who have never had children would not experience this feeling of relief.

(Houseknecht & Macke, 1981, p. 659)

Several models have been developed to help explain the negative effects of children on marital satisfaction. These models seem to suggest that the negative effects of children on marital satisfaction may be the result of interference with the companionship and intimate interaction of the spouses (Miller, 1976; Houseknecht & Macke, 1981; Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989), role strain (Rollins & Galligan, 1978), decreased time for spousal discussion and communication (Anderson et al., 1983) and loss of privacy (Hoffman & Manis, 1978).

More recently, a number of researchers, using longitudinal study designs, have shown that changes in marital satisfaction often attributed to children may be related to the duration of marriage instead. McHale and Huston (1985) collected data from 168 couples two months after their wedding and again about a year later. These authors found that marital satisfaction declined from Time1 to Time2 for both groups (i.e., parents and non-parents) and the degree of changes was about the same for both groups.

Another important longitudinal study with a control group of nonparents was conducted by White and Booth (1985b). These authors interviewed (by phone) a national sample of married individuals at three-year intervals, first in 1980 and then again in 1983. Of the 220 respondents who were childfree in 1980 and who met other conditions for inclusion in the study, 107 of them had a child by 1983 while 113 were still childfree. Marital satisfaction, as indicated by six measures, tended to decline from Time1 to Time2 for both groups. However, the degree of decline in marital satisfaction was about the same

for couples with children compared with couples who were childfree. These results challenge the results of many of the earlier studies that have concluded that children tend to have negative effects on marital satisfaction of the couple. White and Booth (1985b) conclude that the absence of a nonparent control group in many of the earlier studies on the transition to parenthood may have resulted in attributing normative changes in the marriage (i.e., those that take place over time irrespective of parental status) to the arrival of children and the onset of parenting responsibilities.

In another longitudinal study, MacDermid, Huston and McHale (1990) collected data from 98 couples over a three year period. Twenty-nine of the couples made the transition to parenthood by the beginning of the second year, 23 couples became parents between the second and third year, and 46 couples were still childfree at phase 3. Their results indicate that parents and non-parents did not differ in their evaluation of their marriage. Marital satisfaction declined over time but the two groups (i.e., parents and non-parents) were equivalent at all three phases.

The evidence from these longitudinal studies seems to suggest that the changes in marital satisfaction which are often attributed to the transition to parenthood may instead be explained by the changes that usually occur over the course of the marital career. Research concerned with duration of marriage and marital satisfaction is reviewed in the following section.

Duration of Marriage and Marital Satisfaction

Several researchers have investigated the relationship between marital satisfaction and duration of marriage (Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Miller, 1976; Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989). Miller (1976) collected data from 140 married individuals (57 men and 83 women). His results indicate that duration of marriage has no direct effect on marital satisfaction for men or women. These results are contradictory to those found by Glenn and Weaver (1978).

Glenn and Weaver (1978), using a national sample, found that duration of marriage has a positive effect on marital happiness for men and a negative effect for women. These results suggest that men are happier in their marriage the longer they have been married whereas the women are less happy with their marriage in the later years. These results are consistent with those found by Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989). Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989) report that marital quality is the highest for men and women who have been married for less than five years and lowest for individuals married for five to ten years. The decline in marital satisfaction is about the same for men and women. However, for men who have been married longer than ten years marital happiness begins to rise again while for women it continues to deteriorate.

These results seem to indicate that duration of marriage has different effects on the marital satisfaction for men and women. For women the relationship between marital satisfaction and duration of marriage appears to be linear whereas for men this relationship appears to be curvilinear. Glenn and Weaver (1978) speculate that this male-female difference could be the result of an indirect effect of age on propensity to end an unsatisfactory marriage. They indicate that "among young adults, the marriage market seems to be about equally favorable for males and females (or perhaps more favorable for females at the very youngest ages), but with increasing age, the market becomes progressively more favorable for men and less favorable for women" (p. 278). Therefore, older men who are unhappy with their marriage are more likely to end their marriage than older women. If so, the gender differences in the propensity to divorce could account for the male-female differences in the net effects of duration of marriage on marital satisfaction for men and women (Glenn & Weaver, 1978).

Summary

The review of the literature suggests that there is controversy and lack of definitive evidence concerning the effects on marital satisfaction of such variables as presence of

children and duration of marriage. Some authors have shown that the presence of children, particularly young children, has negative effects on marital satisfaction of men and women (Miller & Sollie, 1980; Rhyne, 1981; Waldron & Routh, 1981). While other authors, using longitudinal study designs, have argued that the changes often attributed to children may be related instead to the duration of marriage (McHale & Huston, 1985; White & Booth, 1985b; MacDermid, Huston & McHale, 1990). Currently, the results of studies investigating the relationship between children and marital satisfaction are inconclusive.

Equally, research on duration of marriage and marital satisfaction provides conflicting results. Some researchers (e.g., Miller, 1976) have found no direct effect of duration of marriage on marital satisfaction for husbands or wives, while other researchers have found a positive correlation between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction for the husbands and a negative correlation between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction for the wives (Glenn & Weaver, 1978).

The effects of demographic variables (i.e., children, duration of marriage, family income, education and work orientation of spouses) on marital satisfaction have not been systematically studied using samples of dual-earner couples. Moreover, a number of earlier studies on marital satisfaction of single-earner couples have controlled for only one or two of these demographic variables. This may have had a suppressor effect or produced spuriousness in relationships (Glenn & Weaver, 1978). Therefore, many of the important questions regarding these independent variables and marital satisfaction of dual-earner couples remain unanswered. This research explores the relationship between these demographic variables and marital satisfaction for men and women in dual-earner marriages.

CHAPTER 3

Method

This chapter describes the research design. The general characteristics of the sample are briefly described and the dependent and independent variables are outlined. The sampling procedure is discussed as well as the instruments used to measure the dependent and independent variables. Finally, the procedures used for coding the data are summarized.

Design

Data were collected in the participants' homes using self-administered questionnaires which were completed separately by each spouse. The dependent variable, marital satisfaction, was assessed using the Marital Satisfaction Scale (Roach, Frazier & Bowden, 1981) and the Global Distress Subscale of the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (Snyder, 1979). Two instruments were used to measure marital satisfaction in order to achieve a more reliable assessment for this construct.

The effects of five independent variables on marital satisfaction were explored:

- (1) Duration of marriage: This variable was defined as the reported number of years the couple had been married or lived in a common-law relationship.
- (2) Presence (or absence) of children: This variable was assessed by the response of the spouses to the question "Do you have any children?" For the purposes of this study, a childfree couple is one in which both spouses answered "no" to this question.
- (3) Career versus job orientation of the spouses: This variable was derived by the participants' responses to the questionnaire entitled Work Orientation (see Appendix D). The Work Orientation Questionnaire (WOQ) was developed by the author to assess career versus job orientation of the participants. The possible scores on this questionnaire range from 10 to 40 with higher scores indicating a career-orientation and lower scores indicating a job-orientation. The midrange score (i.e., 25) on the

WOQ was used as the cut-off point to distinguish individuals with a job-orientation from those with a career-orientation. This procedure is described more thoroughly in a subsequent section of this chapter.

- (4) Level of education: This variable was defined as the highest level of education completed by the participant as reported on the demographic sheet (see Appendix C).
- (5) Family income level: This variable was calculated by totalling the annual income of the husband and wife.

Participants

The participants for this study were chosen randomly from the general population of the Fairview and Kitsilano district of Vancouver, Canada. This is an urban area which represents a variety of neighbourhood living conditions ranging from highrises to single family dwellings. This geographical area was selected because of the high proportion of two-income couples living in this region. Dual-earner couples were the target population for this research.

Sampling Procedure

Data were collected over a four month period from March 1991 to June 1991. Initial contact with potential participants was made by random dialing of telephone numbers in the 73-exchange. To ensure equal probability of listed and unlisted numbers, all the possible telephone numbers within the 73-exchange were generated and placed in a pool of numbers to be sampled. A total of 60,000 telephone numbers were written on small pieces of paper and were placed in a large cardboard box for sampling. Sampling was done without replacement. The researcher continued dialing telephone numbers until 101 couples were obtained.

When a person answered the call, the researcher introduced herself by saying "Hello, my name is Pindy. I am a graduate student at Simon Fraser University. I am conducting a research study on the quality of relationship among two-income couples. I am wondering

if you and your partner would be willing to participate in this research." Individuals who expressed interest in participating in the study were screened for the following characteristics:

- (a) Individual was either married or had made a commitment to a common-law relationship with his/her current partner.
- (b) Both partners were employed, with each spouse working a minimum of fifteen hours per week.
- (c) Both spouses were willing to participate in the study.

Response rate.

The researcher made a total of 1,097 telephone calls. Three hundred and twelve of these calls resulted in non-functional numbers (i.e., numbers were not in service). Contact was made with a total of 785 households. Five hundred and fifty of the households contacted by phone did not qualify for the study (i.e., 175 were retired, 195 were single, 85 were single parents, 15 were involved in homosexual relationships, and 80 were involved in relationships where only one partner was working). Fifty individuals terminated the call by hanging-up as soon as the researcher introduced herself. Therefore, only 185 of the households contacted by random dialing were eligible for the study and 101 of these households volunteered to participate in the study. The response rate among the eligible participants was 55%. However, if all the fifty individuals who terminated the call before their eligibility for the study could be assessed were eligible and chose not to participate, then the estimated response rate among eligible participants would be reduced to 43%.

Data Collection

A 30 minute appointment was scheduled at a time and in a location that was convenient for the couple. Suggested places for meeting were: researcher's home, participant's home, or a neighbourhood cafe in the Kitsilano area. Most couples chose

their home as a place to meet. The researcher met with the couple at the scheduled time. After initial introductions and instructions, each individual was given a consent form (see Appendix A), a letter of introduction (see Appendix B), a demographic sheet (see Appendix C) and the questionnaires. The husband and the wife were instructed to work on the questionnaires independently. Following the completion of the questionnaires, the participants were instructed to put their completed questionnaires in a manila envelope and to seal the envelope. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured verbally and in writing.

The researcher supervised the completion of the questionnaires to ensure that spouses worked on the questionnaires independently. Following the completion of the questionnaires the couples were debriefed about the purpose of the study. Couples were also invited to ask questions and to make comments about the study. Most of the couples expressed interest in receiving a summary of the results. These individuals were told that the summary of the results would be mailed to them upon completion of the study. Mailing addresses of these participants were collected.

Instrumentation

A number of instruments have been designed to measure marital satisfaction. This study employed two of the more respected measures. Specifically, Roach, Frazier and Bowden's (1981) Marital Satisfaction Scale (MSS) and Snyder's (1979) Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI) were used as measures for marital satisfaction. Both of these instruments have been based on careful research and are thoughtfully constructed measures of marital satisfaction (Burnett, 1987; Sabatelli, 1988).

Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI)

The MSI was developed in 1979 by Douglas Snyder. Items for the MSI were collected from the various scales and instruments found in the literature on assessment of marital relationships. Some items were taken directly from existing scales and other items

were modified in structure to fit a true-false format. A total of 440 true-false items were generated and were divided into 11 scales (Snyder, 1981).

The initial version of the inventory was administered to 42 couples from the general population and 13 couples from therapy groups. Scales on the MSI were correlated with a therapy criterion using 13 couples in marital therapy and 13 matched control couples. Results from the study revealed that the MSI profiles significantly distinguished between couples in therapy (i.e., dissatisfied couples) and the matched control group (i.e., satisfied couples) (Snyder, 1981).

A second study entailed a revision of the MSI and administration of the revised instrument to new samples of 111 couples from the general population and 30 couples from therapy groups. Revision of the MSI was based primarily on item analyses of the first study. Results of the item-to-total correlations for the pilot study emphasized reduction of nonpredictive variance among items (Snyder, 1981). Revision of the inventory proceeded in a manner that allowed for the selection of items on the basis of item-to-total correlations while preserving heterogeneity of item-difficulty levels (Snyder, 1981). Through this revision process, the MSI was reduced by 36% in overall length, from 440 to 280 items, while retaining the 11 original scales.

Though the title implies that the MSI assesses satisfaction, this instrument does not provide a satisfaction score. Instead, the MSI is designed to assess: (1) Global Distress (overall dissatisfaction with the marriage) (2) Affective Communication (how well couples convey affect verbally and nonverbally) (3) Problem Solving Communication (effectiveness in resolving differences) (4) Time Together (level of common interests and dissatisfaction with the quality and quantity of leisure time together) (5) Disagreement about Finances (6) Sexual Dissatisfaction (7) Role Orientation (degree to which an individual adopts a traditional versus nontraditional orientation toward marital and parental sex roles) (8) Family History of Distress (9) Dissatisfaction with Children (10) Conflict

over Child Rearing and (11) Conventionalization (the degree to which an individual reports his/her marriage in a socially desirable manner (Sabatelli, 1983)).

The two subscales of the MSI used in this study were: the Conventionalization and Global Distress. The other 9 subscales of the MSI were not used. The Global Distress subscale (GDS) contains 43 items and is designed to measure the overall dissatisfaction with the marriage. This subscale is scored in the direction of discontent (i.e., a high score on the GDS suggests dissatisfaction with one's spouse and one's marriage). Snyder (1979) claims that the GDS comprises an excellent screening measure of marital dissatisfaction. Sample items for GDS are: "There are some serious difficulties with our marriage," "I have known very little unhappiness in my marriage" (Snyder, 1981).

The Conventionalization subscale (CNV) consists of 21 items and represents an abbreviated version of a 34-item conventionalization scale originally developed by Edmonds (1967). This scale was used as a validity scale to assess the degree to which participants in this survey may have reported their marriage in socially desirable terms. According to Snyder (1981), moderate scores on the CNV (i.e., 6-15) are frequently observed within the general population and, at the upper limit of this range, may reflect strong positive feelings within the marriage. High scores (i.e., 16-21) are obtained by 20% of the general population and reflect a naive, uncritical appraisal of the marital relationship (Snyder, 1981).

Reliability.

Cronbach's alpha coefficients of internal consistency for the CNV and GDS are .91 and .97 respectively. These Cronbach's alphas were derived from combined samples of 650 individuals from the general population and 100 persons in marital therapy (Snyder, 1981). Test/retest reliability coefficients for these subscales were computed by administering the MSI to thirty-seven couples from the general population. The time

interval between testing averaged six weeks. The test/retest reliability coefficients for the GDS and CNV subscales were ($r=.92$) and ($r=.89$) respectively (Snyder, 1981).

Validity.

To determine concurrent validity of the MSI, the Marital Adjustment Test (MAT) (Locke and Wallace, 1959) was used as a criterion variable. The correlation between the GDS and the MAT was ($r=.90$). The correlation between the CNV and the MAT was ($r=-.71$). These correlations were based on a sample of 111 couples from the general population and 30 couples in therapy (Snyder, 1981).

Three separate studies have confirmed the ability of the MSI to distinguish between satisfied and dissatisfied couples. Snyder (1979) administered the MSI to 30 couples from marital therapy groups and matched controls. Results from his study show that the nine of eleven subscales of the MSI discriminated between the two groups at the $p < .001$ level. The t-test for the difference between the means of the two groups as measured by the Global Distress Scale was significant ($t=16.16$, $p < .001$).

Snyder and Wrobel (1981) administered the MSI to 12 couples where one or both spouses had already filed for divorce. They found that couples filing for divorce (i.e., dissatisfied couples) had MSI profiles similar to couples entering marital therapy.

Scheer and Snyder (1984), using a sample of 50 couples from the general population, found that the MSI subscales could distinguish between satisfied and dissatisfied couples. The mean scores of the couples chosen from the general population were compared to mean scores of the previous clinical validation sample. The t-test for the difference between the means of the two groups as measured by Global Distress Scale was significant ($t=19.27$, $p < .001$).

Marital Satisfaction Scale (MSS)

The marital satisfaction scale (MSS) was developed in 1981 by Roach, Frazier and Bowden. The MSS is an unidimensional instrument designed to measure marital

satisfaction. The contents of the items on the MSS were generated mainly by reviewing the literature on marital relationships. Seventy-three items were collected and comprised the initial version of the scale which was entitled "Marital Satisfaction Inventory". The title of this instrument was changed in 1981, from Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI) to Marital Satisfaction Scale (MSS) to avoid confusion with the instrument developed by Snyder (1979).

Through a series of evaluative studies, the MSS was reduced to the final version consisting of 48 items. Revision of the MSS was based on item-to-total correlations, internal consistency and principal-component analysis. In the revised form of the MSS, items with less than ($r=.50$) item-to-total correlation have been eliminated. Four other items have been eliminated, three because they were quite similar to others and one because it seemed inconsistent with the definition of marital satisfaction as an individual perception (Roach et al., 1981).

The MSS is a Likert-Type attitudinal scale. The response format for each item consists of five categories (i.e., strongly agree, agree, neutral or undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree). Items are phrased positively and negatively in approximately equal proportions (Roach et al., 1981). Scoring on each item ranges from 1 to 5, with 5 signifying the most favourable attitude and 1 indicating the least favourable attitude towards one's marriage.

Reliability.

In an initial study, the original version of the Marital Satisfaction Scale was administered to 88 individuals. Most of these individuals were professionals in education. Results from this study confirmed a high internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha coefficient being (.98). Item analysis of the data obtained in this pilot study suggests that all but three items were correlated with the total score within the .05 level of confidence.

In a subsequent study by Frazier (1976), the revised version of the scale consisting of 70 items was administered to a sample of 309 individuals including the 88 subjects from the initial study. The internal consistency reliability, for this study as calculated by Cronbach's alpha, was (.97). Test/retest reliability was computed by administering the 70-item scale to twenty individuals. The time interval between testing ranged from three weeks to seven months. Correlation coefficient for test/retest reliability was (.76).

Validity.

To determine concurrent validity of the original version of the Marital Satisfaction Scale, the Marital Adjustment Test (MAT) (Locke and Wallace, 1959) was used as a criterion variable. The concurrent validity coefficient was reported to be (.79) (Frazier, 1976).

In a study by Bowden (1977), criterion-related validity for the MSS was assessed by contrasting data from satisfied and dissatisfied couples. The MSS was administered to thirty couples, fifteen of these couples had been married for at least one year (i.e., satisfied couples) and the remaining fifteen couples had been divorced for up to a year (i.e., dissatisfied couples). The t-test for the difference between means of these two groups was significant ($t=112.20$, $df=58$, $p < .0001$).

A measure of discriminant validity was calculated by correlating the scores on the initial version of the MSS with the scores on the Marriage Problem Checklist (MPC), an instrument used for identifying marital problems (Roach, 1977). The correlation coefficient for the MSS and MPC was (-.73) with satisfied individuals reporting fewer problems than dissatisfied couples.

Work Orientation Questionnaire (WOQ)

The Work Orientation Questionnaire (WOQ) was developed by the author to assess the career versus job orientation of the participants in this study. Items for this instrument were generated by reviewing the operational definitions of career and job found in the

literature. The questionnaire is comprised of ten items (see Appendix D). The scores on this measure range from 10 to 40 with higher scores representing a career-orientation and lower scores representing a job-orientation. The midrange score (i.e., 25) on the WOQ was used as the cut-off point to distinguish individuals with a career-orientation from those with a job-orientation. Since higher scores on the WOQ indicate a career-orientation, individuals with a score of 26 or higher were considered to be employed in careers, while the individuals with a score of 25 or less were considered to be employed in jobs. Using this procedure, the sample was divided into four groups (i.e., men employed in jobs, men employed in careers, women employed in jobs and women employed in careers).

The mean score on the WOQ for men employed in careers ($n=79$) was 32.18 and the standard deviation was 3.88. Similarly, for women employed in careers ($n=76$) the mean score on the WOQ was 32.71 and a standard deviation was 3.89. On the other hand, for men employed in jobs ($n=22$) the mean on the WOQ was 21.86 and the standard deviation was 3.13. Equally, for women employed in jobs ($n=25$) the mean score on the WOQ was 21.04 and a standard deviation was 3.76. These results indicate that the distribution of scores on the WOQ for this sample was slightly skewed in the direction of a career-orientation.

Results from this study confirmed a high internal consistency for the WOQ, with Cronbach's alpha coefficient being (.84). The item-to-total correlation coefficients for the ten items on the WOQ ranged from ($r=.33$) for item #9 to ($r=.72$) for item #3.

The WOQ offers face validity. For example, in a small number of cases (i.e., 20) the occupations listed by the participants on the demographic sheet were used as indicators of jobs and careers. Then the scores on the WOQ for these participants were calculated. In all cases, individuals scoring less than 26 had listed occupations which were considered to be jobs. For example, a sales clerk had a score of 23 on the WOQ, a transit operator had a score of 17, a bricklayer had a score of 25, a maintenance worker had a score of 23 and a

waitress had a score of 13. Conversely, individuals scoring 26 or higher had reported occupations which were considered to be careers. For example, a college professor had a score of 37 on the WOQ, an engineer had a score of 32, an office manager had a score of 31, consultant had a score of 33 and a counsellor had a score of 35.

Two t-tests were computed to assess whether the two groups (i.e., individuals employed in careers and those employed in jobs) scored differently on the WOQ. Seventy-nine men were employed in careers and twenty-two were employed in jobs. The results of the t-test show that the difference in means between these two groups is significant ($t=-11.46$, $df=99$, $p<.001$). Similar results were found for women. Seventy-six women were employed in careers and twenty-five were employed in jobs. The results of the t-test indicate that the difference in means for the two groups is significant ($t=-13.12$, $df=99$, $p<.001$). These results indicate that men and women employed in careers scored differently on the WOQ compared to men and women employed in jobs.

Data Coding

The data were coded using two separate data files. The original questionnaires from the participants were used to code the data into each of the data files. The two data files were then compared, using a computer program called "Compare", to check for error in coding. In case of differences between the two data files, the original questionnaires were used to determine error in coding. This procedure was continued until zero percent error in coding was accomplished.

CHAPTER 4

Results

The results are organized into five sections. The first section describes the demographic characteristics of the sample; the second discusses the reliability scores of the scales; the third provides the correlation between the MSS and the GDS; the fourth presents the results for each of the seventeen null hypotheses and the final section reports the results of Multiple Regression analyses.

Demographics of the Sample

The sample consisted of 101 couples, 63 dual-career and 38 dual-earner. In 9 cases among the dual-earner couples both spouses were employed in jobs and in 29 cases one spouse was employed in a job, while the other spouse was employed in a career. Careers among the participants included: physicians, lawyers, architects, social workers, consultants, journalists, computer programmers, librarians, writers, accountants, counsellors, physiotherapists, photographers, engineers, administrators, realtors, nurses, interior designers, entrepreneurs, teachers and university and college professors.

Ethnicity of the participants was predominantly British. For the purposes of this research, ethnicity refers to the cultural "roots" or ancestral origins of the individual and should not be confused with aspects of citizenship or nationality. Other ethnic groups represented by the respondents included: French, European, German, Dutch, Greek, Canadian, Chinese, American, Hispanic, Russian, Japanese, East Indian, Italian and Korean (see Table 1).

Table 1

Ethnicity of the participants

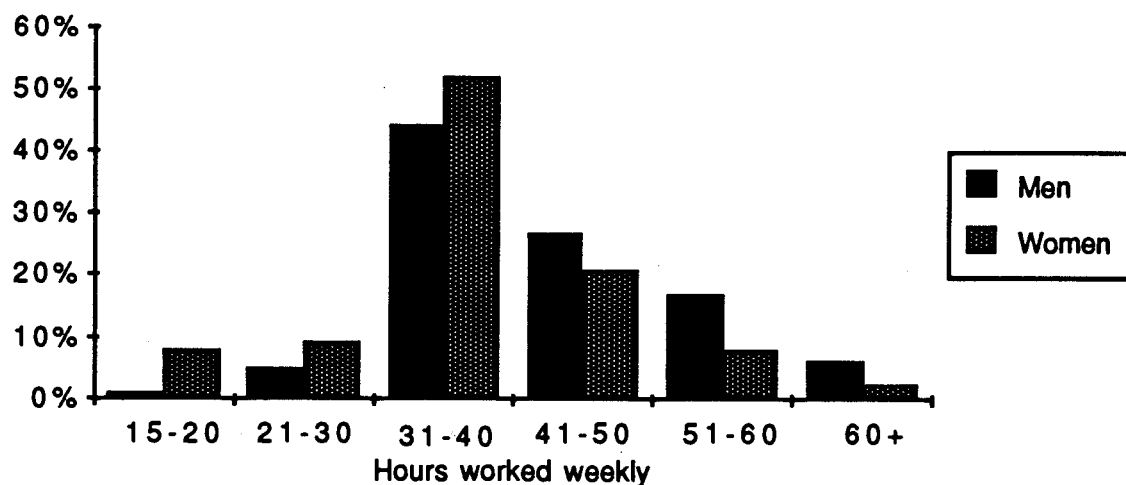
Ethnicity	Number	Percent
British	141	69.8%
Canadian	24	11.7%
French	8	4.0%
German	7	3.5%
Dutch	4	2.0%
Greek	4	2.0%
Chinese	2	1.0%
American	2	1.0%
Hispanic	2	1.0%
Russian	2	1.0%
Japanese	2	1.0%
East Indian	2	1.0%
Italian	1	.5%
Korean	1	.5%

The age for males ranged from 24 to 77 years with an average age of 39. For females, the average age 36 with a range of 21 to 71 years. Time worked weekly by women varied from 15 to 80 hours with an average of 39 hours (see Figure 1). Equally, the number of hours worked weekly by men ranged from 20 to 90 with an average of 46 hours (see Figure 1).

The average annual salary for women was \$33,267 with a range of \$7,000 to \$98,000. Most of the women (75%) earned between \$7,000 and \$40,000 per year. Among the men, the annual salaries varied from \$10,000 to \$190,000, with an average annual salary of \$47,475. Most of the men (75%) earned between \$10,000 and \$56,000 per year.

Figure 1

Time worked weekly



The educational levels for men and women in this sample were quite similar. As reported in Table 2, 26% of the men had completed no more than high school education, 13% had completed one to three years of college and 61% had graduated with a university degree. Similarly, 27% of the women had completed no more than high school education, 20% had completed one to three years of college and 53% had graduated with a university degree.

Table 2

Educational levels of the participants

Educational level	Men (n=101) Percent	Women (n=101) Percent
Less than high school	5.0%	2.0%
High School diploma	21.0%	25.0%
College diploma	13.0%	20.0%
Bachelor degree	34.0%	29.0%
Masters degree	17.0%	18.0%
PhD	6.0%	3.0%
Medical degree	2.0%	1.0%
Law degree	2.0%	2.0%

Length of marriage among the participants varied from 1 to 31 years with most of the participants (52%) having been married for 1 to 4 years. A large majority of the individuals were involved in a first marriage with only 45 of the respondents (22%) being in a second or subsequent marriage.

There was a fifty-fifty split between individuals who had children and those who were childfree (50 couples had children and 51 couples were childfree). Out of the 51 couples who were childfree: 24% indicated that they were childfree by choice, 7% suggested that they were childfree due to medical or genetic reasons, 61% stated that they were childfree because they were postponing starting a family, 8% reported that they were trying to conceive. None of the wives was pregnant at the time of data collection.

Out of the 50 couples who had children: 41% reported having only one child, 41% reported having two children, 14% reported having 3 children and 4% reported having 4 or more children. Most of the couples had preschool-aged children. For example, 41% of the couples had children between the ages 1 and 6, 29% had children between the ages 7 and 11, 4% had children between the ages of 12 and 16, 12% had children between the ages 17 and 21 and 14% had children between the ages 22 and 50.

Couples whose children were between the ages of 1 and 6 indicated that they used child care services. The most frequently mentioned services employed by parents were daycares and after-school care. However, some parents had employed nannies to care for their children while others relied on relatives (e.g., a grandmother or an aunt).

The children ranged in age from 1 to 50 years. Forty-six were females and forty-nine were males. Most of the parents indicated that the children were planned; only 10% of the children were reported as being unplanned.

Census information.

It was possible to obtain an estimate of bias in the sample by comparing the demographics of the sample with the demographics of individuals living in the Kitsilano

and Fairview regions. Participants in the survey were compared with the 1986 Census data as reported in a local directory titled "Vancouver Local Areas 1986". The comparisons between the sample and the 1986 Census data indicate that the participants for this survey were of higher socio-economic status than the 1986 Census population, especially with respect to income and education.

In 1986, the average family income level for individuals living in the Kitsilano and Fairview district, as reported in the Census, was approximately \$45,000. The average family income level among the participants was \$81,000. Some of this difference is attributable to inflation between 1986 and 1991. The discrepancy in family income level can also be explained by the fact that the estimate of family income level as reported by the 1986 Census data represents single as well as double-income families. According to the 1986 Census, approximately 67% of the the married couples living in the Kitsilano and Fairview district (compared with 100% of participants in this survey) were dual-income couples.

The comparison between the sample and the 1986 Census data suggests that participants have higher levels of education than the 1986 Census population. The 1986 Census data indicate that approximately 32% of the residents of the Fairview and Kitsilano district had completed university degrees. This is lower than the educational levels of the participants in this sample, approximately 58% of whom had completed university degrees. The difference in the educational level between the participants and the 1986 Census population can be partly explained by the fact that the target population for this research was dual-earner couples. Educational level is correlated with female employment. As educational level of women increases, so does the likelihood of women's participation in the work force (Rallings & Nye, 1979). Research indicates that 24.8% of the women with less than grade 9 education were employed in the work force compared to 81.3% of women with a university degree (Connelly & MacDonald, 1990).

The ethnicity of the individuals in this sample is representative of the ethnic backgrounds of the population from which the sample was selected (see figure 2). Age of the subjects is also similar to the proportion of individuals in these age groups in the general population of the Fairview and Kitsilano district (see figure 3 and figure 4). Overall, the sample seems representative of the population from which it is selected.

Figure 2
Ethnicity of participants compared to the 1986 Census data

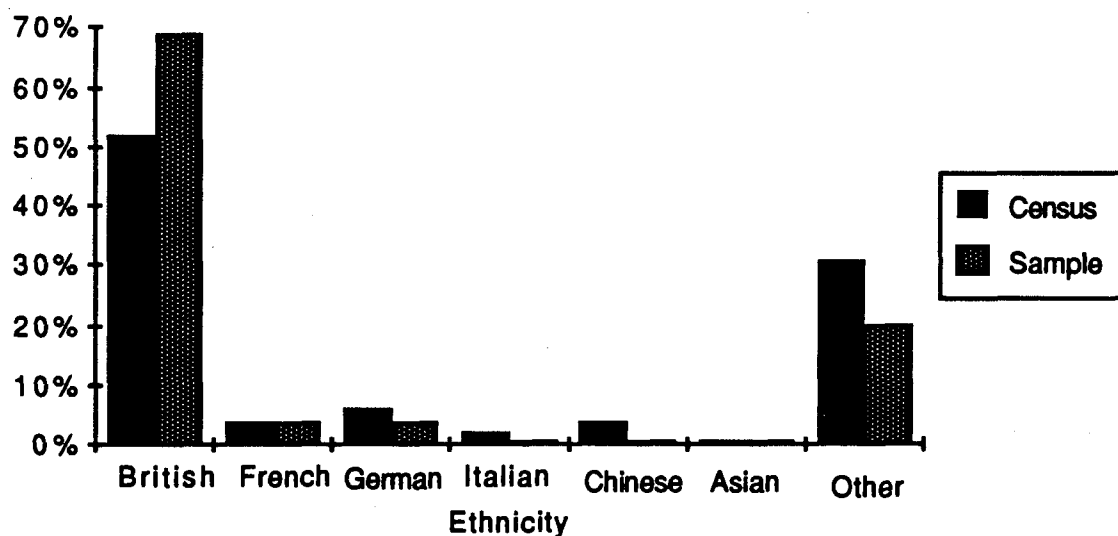


Figure 3
Age distribution of males in the sample & 1986 Census data.

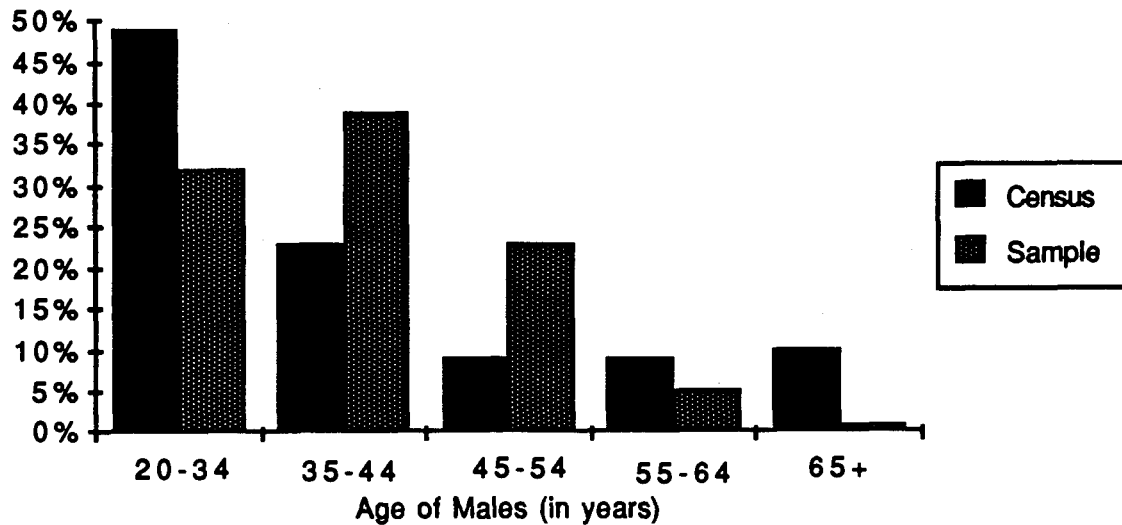


Figure 4
Age distribution of females in the sample & 1986 Census data

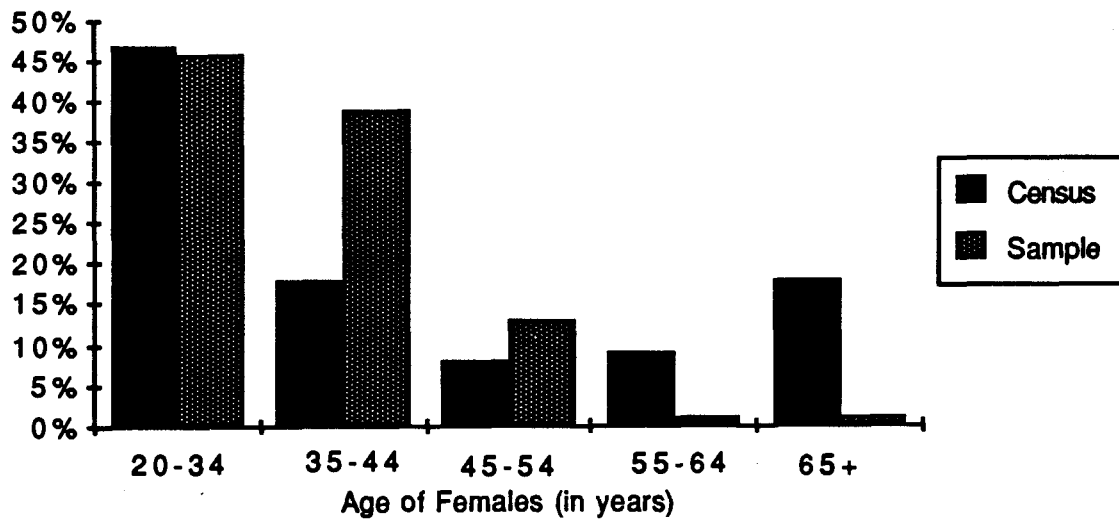


Figure 3 and Figure 4 indicate that men and women aged 65 years and older are under-represented in the sample. Most of these individuals had retired and were not eligible for this study. Men and women between the ages of 35 and 44 are over-

represented in the sample. Individuals in this age group are more likely (than younger men and women) to be married and be employed (two criteria used for inclusion in this sample).

Reliability Scores of the Scales

Marital Satisfaction Scale (MSS).

The internal consistency for the MSS was quite high. The Cronbach's Alpha was (.96) (n=191). The cases with missing data were excluded in calculating the Cronbach's Alpha. The possible minimum and maximum score on the MSS are 48 and 240 respectively. The higher scores represent satisfaction with one's partner and the relationship. The scores on the MSS for this sample ranged from 98 to 235. The mean was 197.82 and the standard deviation was 26.45. These scores indicate that the participants in this sample were highly satisfied with their relationships.

Global Distress Subscale (GDS).

The internal consistency for the GDS was also high. The Cronbach's Alpha for this scale was (.94) (n=180). The possible minimum and maximum scores for the GDS are 0 and 43. The range of scores on the GDS for this sample was 0 to 39 with a mean of 6.73 and a standard deviation of 8.0. According to Snyder (1981), low scores on the GDS are associated with closeness to one's spouse and the general absence of pervasive difficulties in the relationship. The low scores on the GDS for this sample suggest that most of the participants were highly satisfied with their relationships.

Conventionalization Subscale (CNV).

The internal consistency for the CNV was also quite high. The Cronbach's Alpha for this scale was (.91) (n=180). The possible minimum and maximum scores on the CNV are 0 and 21 respectively. The CNV, although not a true validity scale for measuring social desirability response set, was used in this study to assess the pattern of responses among the participants. The range of scores on the CNV for the participants in this study was 0 to 21 with a mean of 9.2 and a standard deviation of 5.9. These scores illustrate that most of

the individuals in the sample were reporting the actual state of their marriage, rather than reporting their marriage in a more socially acceptable manner.

According to Snyder (1979), moderate scores on the CNV are frequently observed within the general population. Snyder (1979) reports the mean for the CNV to be 8.4 and a standard deviation of 5.7 using a sample of husbands ($n=151$) and wives ($n=107$). The individuals in Snyder's sample were highly educated (all had completed a B.A. or an advanced university degree) and were recruited from the general population. Snyder's sample is comparable to the sample used in this study. The mean scores and standard deviations on the CNV for both samples are also quite parallel.

Correlation Between the MSS and the GDS

The MSS and the GDS correlated highly with each other. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for the MSS and the GDS was ($r = -.85$). The GDS is designed to measure the overall dissatisfaction with one's marriage whereas the MSS is designed to measure the overall satisfaction. Therefore, the correlation between these two measures is negative.

Research Hypotheses

The study investigated 17 null hypotheses. The hypotheses were based on the empirical findings of the previous research discussed in Chapter 2.

- H1 There will be no difference in marital satisfaction between men who are employed in jobs and those who are employed in careers.
- H2 There will be no difference in marital satisfaction between women who are employed in jobs and those who are employed in careers.
- H3 Among men who are employed in careers, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between those who have children and the ones who are childfree.

- H4 Among men who are employed in jobs, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between those who have children and the ones who are childfree.
- H5 Among women who are employed in careers, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between those who have children and the ones who are childfree.
- H6 Among women who are employed in jobs, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between those who have children and the ones who are childfree.
- H7 Among spouses who are employed in careers and have children, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between husbands and wives.
- H8 Among spouses who are employed in jobs and have children, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between husbands and wives.
- H9 Among couples who are employed in careers and are childfree, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between husbands and wives.
- H10 Among couples who are employed in jobs and are childfree, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between husbands and wives.
- H11 Among spouses who are employed in careers, there will be no association between education and marital satisfaction.
- H12 Among spouses who are employed in jobs, there will be no association between education and marital satisfaction.
- H13 Among spouses who are employed in careers, there will be no association between family income level and marital satisfaction.
- H14 Among spouses who are employed in jobs, there will be no association between family income level and marital satisfaction.
- H15 Among spouses who are employed in careers, there will be no association between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction.

H16 Among spouses who are employed in jobs, there will be no association between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction.

H17 The wife's occupational success relative to that of her husband will not affect marital satisfaction.

Occupational status and marital satisfaction.

The effects of occupational status on marital satisfaction were assessed using t-tests. Separate t-tests were computed for men and women on each measure of marital satisfaction. The results indicated that the differences in marital satisfaction between men employed in careers ($n=79$) and men employed in jobs ($n=22$) were not significant ($t=-.54$, $df=99$, $p>.59$) and ($t=1.84$, $df=99$, $p>.07$) for the MSS and the GDS respectively. Equally, the differences in marital satisfaction between women employed in careers ($n=76$) and women employed in jobs ($n=25$) were not significant ($t=-.54$, $df=99$, $p>.60$) and ($t=1.84$, $df=99$, $p>.07$) for the MSS and the GDS respectively. Therefore, the first and the second hypothesis can not be rejected.

Effects of children on marital satisfaction.

It was hypothesized that among men who are employed in careers, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between those who have children and the ones who are childfree. The results indicated that men with children ($n=40$) were significantly less satisfied with their marriages compared to men who were childfree ($n=39$) ($t=-2.17$, $df=77$, $p<.03$). Marital satisfaction in this case was measured using the MSS. Alternatively, when marital satisfaction was measured using the GDS, there appeared to be no significant difference in marital satisfaction between men who had children and those who were childfree ($t=1.55$, $df=77$, $p>.12$). Therefore, the third hypothesis can not be rejected.

The fourth hypothesis states that for men who are employed in jobs, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between those who have children and the ones who are

childfree. The results indicated that the differences in marital satisfaction between men who had children ($n=9$) and those who were childfree ($n=13$) were not significant ($t=-.11$, $df=20$, $p>.91$) and ($t=.25$, $df=20$, $p>.80$) for the MSS and the GDS respectively. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis can not be rejected.

For women who were employed in careers, those who had children ($n=33$), reported significantly lower levels of marital satisfaction than women who were childfree ($n=43$) ($t=-2.85$, $df=74$, $p<.01$). Similarly, for women who were employed in jobs, those who had children ($n=11$), were less satisfied with their marriages than women who were childfree ($n=14$) ($t=-2.32$, $df=23$, $p<.03$). Marital satisfaction in these two cases was measured using the MSS.

Alternatively, when marital satisfaction was measured using the GDS, there appeared to be no significant difference in marital satisfaction between women who had children and those who were childfree ($t=1.46$, $df=74$, $p>.15$). Equally, for women employed in jobs, there appeared to be no significant difference in marital satisfaction between those who had children and the ones who were childfree ($t=1.72$, $df=23$, $p>.10$). Therefore, the fifth and the sixth hypothesis can not be rejected.

The seventh hypothesis states that for spouses who are employed in careers and have children, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between husbands and wives. Forty husbands and 33 wives reported having children. Some of these individuals had been married before. Therefore, in some cases one spouse had children from the previous relationship, while the other spouse was still childfree. The results indicated that the differences in marital satisfaction between men and women were not significant ($t=-.01$, $df=71$, $p>.99$) and ($t=-.65$, $df=71$, $p>.52$) on the MSS and the GDS respectively. Therefore, the seventh hypothesis can not be rejected.

The eighth hypothesis states that among spouses who are employed in jobs and have children, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between husbands and wives.

The results indicated that the differences in marital satisfaction between men ($n=9$) and women ($n=11$) were not significant ($t=.80$, $df=18$, $p>.44$) and ($t=-.48$, $df=18$, $p>.63$) for the MSS and the GDS respectively. Therefore, the eighth hypothesis can not be rejected.

Childfree couples and marital satisfaction between spouses.

The ninth hypothesis states that among couples who are employed in careers and are childfree, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between husbands and wives. The results revealed no significant differences in marital satisfaction between men and women ($t=-.83$, $df=80$, $p>.41$) and ($t=-1.38$, $df=80$, $p>.17$) for the MSS and the GDS respectively. Therefore, the ninth hypothesis can not be rejected.

The tenth hypothesis states that among couples who are employed in jobs and are childfree, there will be no difference in marital satisfaction between husbands and wives. The results revealed no significant differences in marital satisfaction between men (13) and women (14) ($t=-1.21$, $df=25$, $p>.24$) and ($t=.96$, $df=25$, $p>.35$) for the MSS and the GDS respectively. Therefore, the tenth hypothesis can not be rejected.

Education and marital satisfaction.

The association between education and marital satisfaction was assessed using the Pearson product-moment correlations. The data were plotted to check for curvilinear relationships. None of the scattergrams showed a curvilinear relationship. The correlations between education and marital satisfaction for women varied widely and were nonsignificant (see Table 3). Similarly, for men the correlations between education and marital satisfaction ranged from ($r=-.25$) to ($r=.32$) and were non-significant (see Table 4). Therefore, the eleventh and the twelfth hypothesis can not be rejected.

Table 3

Correlations between demographic variables and marital satisfaction for women.

VARIABLES	Women in careers (n=76)		Women in jobs (n=25)	
	GDS	MSS	GDS	MSS
Education	-.10	.10	.26	-.18
Family income	-.15	.13	-.05	.06
Years married	.06	-.09	.10	-.26

Note: None of these correlation coefficients were significant for $\alpha = .05$.

Table 4

Correlations between demographic variables and marital satisfaction for men.

VARIABLES	Men in careers (n=79)		Men in jobs (n=22)	
	GDS	MSS	GDS	MSS
Education	.02	.05	-.25	.32
Family income	-.08	.14	-.28	.17
Years married	.10	-.01	-.14	.13

Note: None of these correlation coefficients were significant for $\alpha = .05$.

Family income level and marital satisfaction.

The association between family income level and marital satisfaction was assessed using the Pearson product-moment correlations. The correlations between family income level and marital satisfaction for women ranged from ($r = -.15$) to ($r = .13$) and were nonsignificant. Similarly, the correlations between family income level and marital satisfaction for men varied from ($r = -.28$) to ($r = .17$) and were non-significant. Therefore, the thirteenth and the fourteenth hypothesis can not be rejected.

Duration of marriage and marital satisfaction.

It was hypothesized that among spouses who are employed in careers, there will be no association between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction. The results revealed that there were no significant associations between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction for women (see Table 3). Equally, for men the correlations between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction were not significant (see Table 4). Similar results were found for individuals who were employed in jobs. The associations between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction were not significant for men (see Table 4) and women (see Table 3). Therefore, the fifteenth and the sixteenth hypothesis can not be rejected.

Wife's occupational status and marital satisfaction.

The final hypothesis states that the wife's occupational status relative to that of her husband will not affect marital satisfaction. To test this hypothesis, four one-way ANOVAs were performed. Separate ANOVAs were performed for men and women for the dependent variable marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS and the GDS.

The independent variable contained three levels (i.e., wife's occupational status being higher, lower or equal to that of her husband). The wife's occupational status was coded to be higher if her personal income was higher than her husband's by \$3,000 or more. The wife's occupational status was coded to be lower if her personal income was lower than her husband's by \$3,000 or more. The wife's occupational status was considered to be equal to that of her husband if her income was within the range of \$3,000 of that of her husband.

There were 13 cases where the incomes of the spouses were equal, 68 cases where the wife's income was lower and 20 cases where the wife's income was higher. The results of the one-way ANOVA with the dependent variable marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS indicate that for men the main effects ($F(2, 100) = .31, p > .74$) were not significant (see Table 5). Equally, the results (see Table 6) indicate that for women the main effects on marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS were not

significant ($F(2, 100)=1.03, p>.36$).

Table 5

Men's marital satisfaction: MSS by wife's occupational status

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Occ. stat.	437.71	2	218.85	.31	.74
Residual	6947.78	98	710.69		
Total	70085.49	100	700.86		

Table 6

Women's marital satisfaction: MSS by wife's occupational status

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Occ. stat.	1436.5	2	718.25	1.03	.36
Residual	68645.72	98	700.47		
Total	70082.22	100	700.82		

The results of the one-way ANOVA with the dependent variable marital satisfaction as measured by GDS indicated that for men the main effects on marital satisfaction were not significant ($F(2,100)=.15, p>.86$) (see Table 7). Similarly, the results revealed that for women the main effects on marital satisfaction were not significant ($F(2, 100)= .312, p>.73$) (see Table 8) .

Table 7

Men's marital satisfaction: GDS by wife's occupational status

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Occ. stat.	8.55	2	4.28	.15	.86
Residual	2821.66	98	28.79		
Total	2830.22	100	28.30		

Table 8

Women's marital satisfaction: GDS by wife's occupational status

SOURCE	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Occ. stat.	9.38	2	4.69	.31	.73
Residual	1473.86	98	15.04		
Total	1483.25	100	14.83		

To check for gender differences, six separate t-tests were performed for each of the three categories (i.e., wife's occupational status being higher, lower or equal to that of her husband). The first two t-tests were calculated for cases where the wife's occupational status was considered to be lower. The results indicated that the differences between the two groups were not significant ($t=-1.23$, $df=67$, $p>.22$) and ($t=-.95$, $df=67$, $p>.19$) for the MSS and the GDS respectively.

The second set of t-tests was computed for cases where the wife's occupational status was considered to be higher than that of the husband. Again, the results indicated that the differences in marital satisfaction between men and women were not significant ($t=.09$, $df=19$, $p>.93$) and ($t=-.10$, $df=19$, $p>.92$) for the MSS and the GDS respectively.

The third set of t-tests was calculated for cases where the wife's occupational status was considered to be equal to that of the husband. The results indicated that the differences in marital satisfaction between men and women were not significant ($t=-1.02$, $df=12$,

$p > .33$) and ($t = .85$, $df = 12$, $p > .41$) for the MSS and the GDS respectively. Therefore, the final hypothesis can not be rejected.

Results of Multiple Regression

A series of hierarchical regression analyses were computed to determine contributions of each of the predictor variables on marital satisfaction for men and women. Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals for the independent variables were evaluated. Scatterplots for each of the independent variables were produced using the SPSS. The overall shape of each of the scatterplots appears to be rectangular which indicates that the assumptions regarding distribution of residuals are not violated by any of the independent variables entered in the regression equation.

The order of entry in the equation for each of the predictor variables was specified according to the empirical observations discussed in Chapter 2. The following regression equation was proposed: Could Y (marital satisfaction) be predicted by the independent variables X1 (presence of children) + X2 (years married) + X3 (family income) + X4 (education) + X5 (occupational status).

The predictor variables entered the equation in the following order: children was entered at step 1, years married was entered in step 2, family income was entered in step 3, education was entered in step 4, and occupational status was entered in step 5. Two of these variables were continuous (i.e., years married and family income), two were dichotomous (i.e., children and occupational status), and one was discrete (i.e., education). This variable was dummy coded into 0 and 1, 0 represented non-university education and 1 represented university education.

Separate regressions were conducted for the husbands and the wives. The results revealed that for the husbands the predictor variables explained only 9% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the GDS (see Table 10) and 8% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS (see Table 9).

Table 9

Factors influencing men's marital satisfaction (MSS)

PREDICTOR VAR.	BETA	SIG. T	ΔR^2
Children	.18	.07	.03
Years married	.11	.32	.00
Family Income	.18	.08	.03
Education	.00	.97	.00
Occ. stat.	.06	.60	.02

Table 10

Factors influencing men's marital satisfaction (GDS)

PREDICTOR VAR.	BETA	SIG. T	ΔR^2
Children	-.19	.06	.03
Years married	-.02	.83	.00
Family Income	-.17	.10	.03
Education	-.02	.82	.00
Occ. stat.	-.19	.08	.03

For the wives the five predictor variables accounted for 7% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the GDS (see Table 12) and 14% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS (see Table 11).

Table 11

Factors influencing women's marital satisfaction (MSS)

PREDICTOR VAR.	BETA	SIG. T	ΔR^2
Children	.35	.0004	.12
Years married	.03	.76	.00
Family Income	.13	.18	.02
Education	.04	.68	.00
Occ. stat.	-.02	.86	.00

Table 12

Factors influencing women's marital satisfaction (GDS).

PREDICTOR VAR.	BETA	SIG. T	ΔR^2
Children	-.21	.03	.05
Years married	-.05	.65	.00
Family Income	-.15	.12	.02
Education	-.05	.65	.00
Occ. stat.	-.01	.89	.00

The variables contributed differently for men and women on each measure of marital satisfaction. The strongest predictor variable of marital satisfaction for the wives was children. This variable accounted for 12% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS and 5% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the GDS. For the husbands, this predictor variable explained only 3% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS and the GDS.

The results indicated that none of the five predictor variables was strongly associated with marital satisfaction for men and women in this sample. The weak relationships between the dependent and the independent variables could be partly explained by the fact that this sample was very homogeneous. Perhaps the restricted range of variability for the

dependent and independent variables may have contributed to the weak association between the dependent and the independent variables.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

In the preceding chapter, results of statistical analyses were reported. This chapter provides interpretations of the findings. The discussion of the results is organized into nine sections. The first section provides a brief review of the research objectives. The next five sections discuss the major study variables with reference to the initial research questions, results of previous studies and other related issues. The final two sections examine the limitations of the study and provide recommendations for further research. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the main findings.

Research Objectives

The major objective of the study was to provide information regarding factors related to marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages. The study focused on the relationship between education, family income level, duration of marriage and marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages. The occupational status of the spouses was also explored for its influence on marital satisfaction. As well, the effects of children on marital satisfaction were examined. An in-depth discussion of the principal findings of this research is provided in the following five sections.

Education and Marital Satisfaction

Several studies have examined the relationship between education and marital satisfaction (e.g., Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Gurin et al., 1960; Luckey, 1966; Renne, 1970; Staines et al., 1978; Terman, 1938). All of these studies have found a positive association between education and marital satisfaction of men and women. Renne (1970), using a sample of 6,928 Caucasian men and women, reported that individuals with a college education were considerably happier in their marriages than individuals with lower levels of education (e.g., grade school education). Similarly, Staines et al. (1978) found a positive relationship between the educational level and marital happiness for women. Campbell et

al. (1976), on the other hand, noted that marital satisfaction varies inversely with the educational level, the least satisfied spouses being the college graduates.

Contrary to the findings of the previous research, the results of the present study reveal no significant association between the educational level and marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages. In other words, the individuals in this sample evaluated the quality of their marriage in much the same way, regardless of whether they were high school, college or university graduates. This finding seems somewhat counterintuitive as it is generally expected that individuals with higher educational level would be happier in their marriages. Highly educated individuals are believed to be open-minded, resourceful and less traditional (Glenn & Weaver, 1978). Therefore, it would seem that such individuals would be more able to access the resources that they may require to resolve conflicts and improve communication and companionship in their marriages.

The lack of association between the educational level and marital satisfaction observed in this study may be explained, in part, by the fact that a large majority of the participants were highly educated. For example, 53% of the women and 61% of the men were university graduates. The restricted range of variability may have affected the association. Another possibility is that the educational level of the spouses may not be directly related to marital satisfaction; rather, it may have an indirect effect by way of socio-economic status. The following section provides a detailed discussion of the results concerning family income level and marital satisfaction.

Family Income Level and Marital Satisfaction

There appeared to be little association between family income level and marital satisfaction of men and women in this sample. These results, although inconsistent with the findings of many of the earlier studies (e.g., Cutright, 1971; Goode, 1951; Locke, 1951), confirm the findings of the more recent studies (e.g., Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989). Glenn and Weaver (1978) found no significant

association between family income level and marital satisfaction. Equally, Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989) noted that couples with lower level of family income perceived the quality of their marriages in much the same way as more affluent couples. These results suggest that family income level is not strongly associated with marital satisfaction of dual-earner spouses.

It is interesting to note that a large majority of the participants in the present study are affluent. The restricted range of variability may have affected the association between family income level and marital satisfaction. It is also possible that a "good enough" family income level may be required for marital bliss but beyond that point higher family income level may not be as important for marital satisfaction as other variables. For example, variables such as interpersonal communication, equity in the relationship and the level of social and leisure activities shared by the couple may be important mediating factors for marital satisfaction among dual-earner spouses. Further research using more heterogeneous samples is needed to determine the true relationship between family income level and marital satisfaction among dual-earner spouses.

Occupational Status of the Spouses and Marital Satisfaction

The occupational status of the spouses was explored for its influence on marital satisfaction. The main research question of interest was: "Does career versus job-orientation of the spouses have an effect on marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages?" The results revealed no significant differences in marital satisfaction of men who were employed in jobs compared with men who were employed in careers. Equally, there appeared to be no significant differences in marital satisfaction between women who were employed in jobs and those who were employed in careers. These results indicate that the occupational status of the spouses has no direct effect on marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages.

However, it should be noted that a large majority of the participants in this study were employed in careers. For example, 77% of the individuals were employed in careers and 23% were employed in jobs. Perhaps a more heterogeneous sample may have produced more pronounced differences between the two groups (i.e., individuals employed in careers compared with individuals employed in jobs) on their scores of marital satisfaction.

It is also possible that the distinction between jobs and careers may not be a strong predictor variable of marital satisfaction among dual-earner spouses. Rather, one's preference for work might be an important mediating factor of marital satisfaction among these individuals. Previous studies on marital satisfaction of dual-earner spouses have not made systematic comparisons between spouses employed in jobs and those employed in careers (Tryon & Tryon, 1982). Therefore, further replication using more heterogeneous samples is required to substantiate the findings of this study.

The study also addressed the research question: "Does the wife's occupational success relative to that of her husband affect marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages?" The results revealed no consistent relationship between the wife's occupational achievements and marital satisfaction of either spouse. In other words, the men and women in this sample evaluated their marriage in much the same way regardless of whether the wife's occupational status was higher, lower or equal to that of her husband. These results closely parallel the findings of Richardson (1979) who found no consistent relationship between the wife's occupational achievements and marital adjustment of either spouse. Equally, Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989) noted that the wife's occupational success relative to that of her husband does not affect marital quality as perceived by either spouse. Therefore, the results of the present study, combined with the findings of Richardson (1979) and Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber (1989), support the conclusion that the wife's occupational success relative to that of her husband has little or no bearing on marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages.

These results challenge Parsons' theoretical perspective. Parsons (1942, 1949) proposed that the wife's occupational success relative to that of her husband would be disruptive to the marriage. This proposition was not supported by the results of the present study. Perhaps the occupational status of the spouses was an important variable for marital satisfaction during the 1950s when the dual-earner lifestyle was initiated. However, over the years, men and women may have adjusted to the new interpersonal realities. Therefore, the distinction between the breadwinner and the homemaker roles may not be important for marital stability in contemporary society.

Duration of Marriage and Marital Satisfaction

Previous research has shown that the initial honeymoon phase of a marriage dissolves after a period of time and differences between the couple begin to impede the quality of the relationship. The first few years of a marriage are usually regarded as the honeymoon phase, a time when partners are fascinated with each other and are involved in discovery (Vannoy-Hiller & Philliber, 1989). However, as the newness of the relationship wears off, conflicts emerge and marital satisfaction begins to decline. The decline in marital satisfaction over the course of a marriage appears to be different for men than for women. For men the association between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction appears to be positive, whereas for women it seems to be negative (Glenn & Weaver, 1978). Stated differently, men appear to be happier in their marriage the longer they have been married, while women tend to be less happy with their marriage in the later years of the relationship.

The present study revealed no significant association between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction. This finding is of particular interest as a point of comparison with previous studies which have generated inconsistent conclusions regarding the relationship between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction. Although a number of studies using cross-sectional designs have shown that marital satisfaction appears to be lower during the middle than the early years of marriage (Anderson, Russell & Schumm, 1983; Gilford &

Bengtson, 1979; Hudson & Murphy, 1980; Rhyne, 1981; Rollins & Cannon, 1974), the issue of what happens to marital satisfaction from the middle to later years of marriage is hotly debated and remains unresolved (Lee, 1988). In addition, the speed and intensity of the decline in marital satisfaction, reported by a number of the earlier studies, varies from study to study. Some researchers suggest a continual decline (i.e., Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Pineo, 1961; Paris & Luckey, 1966), while others propose a leveling off followed by an increase in the later stages. Clearly, there seems to be a lack of consensus on the issue of what happens to marital satisfaction from the middle to later years of marriage.

Miller (1976) reports that duration of marriage has no direct effect on marital satisfaction of both men and women. On the other hand, Vannoy-Hiller and Philliber (1989) found that the association between duration of marriage and marital quality appears to be different for men than for women. These authors noted that couples who perceive their marriages as best have been married less than five years; those who perceive their marriages as poorest in quality have been married six to ten years. The decline in marital satisfaction after five years appears to be about the same for both men and women. However, for men who have been married longer than ten years marital happiness begins to rise again, whereas for women it continues to decline. Therefore, the relationship between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction appears to be linear for women and curvilinear for men. Several other studies have also shown a curvilinear relationship between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction (Anderson et al., 1983; Schram, 1979; Spanier & Lewis, 1980).

One possible explanation for the curvilinear relationship between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction has been provided by Lee (1988). He speculates that the possibly conflicting demands of multiple roles (i.e., parent, spouse, worker, friend, etc.) are likely to peak in the middle years of marriage, thereby having negative effects on marital satisfaction. In the later years of marriage, the size and complexity of role sets tend to

decrease due to events such as departure of children from the home and retirement from work among the parents. These changes may allow the couple to invest more time and energy in their relationship, thereby increasing marital satisfaction in the later years of marriage (Lee, 1988).

Several other competing explanations have also been offered for the changes in marital satisfaction from the middle to later years of marriage. The first of these is known as the "empty-nest syndrome." This perspective views the later years of marriage as a lonely, depressing time, especially for the mother, wherein the role of the parent is no longer centrally salient for the couple (Bart, 1970; 1971). The second viewpoint regards the later years of marriage as a time of greater freedom and independence for the couple who no longer need to be concerned with the responsibilities of children in the home (Deutscher, 1964). The third perspective views the later years of marriage as a benign event, representing not so much a crisis as a normal aspect of the sequence and rhythms of the life cycle (Neugarten, 1968).

Contrary to the conceptual and empirical position of previous research, the results of the current research indicate that duration of marriage is not strongly associated with marital satisfaction for both men and women. Husbands and wives in this sample appear to perceive the quality of their marriage in much the same way regardless of the length of time they have been married. The gender differences in marital satisfaction observed in many of the earlier studies are also not evident among men and women in this sample. In other words, men and women in this sample appear to perceive the quality of their relationship in much the same way regardless of whether they have been married for ten, twenty or thirty years.

One possible explanation for the lack of association between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction, among the participants in this study, may be that a large majority of these individuals had been married for only 1 to 4 years. The restricted range of variability

may have affected the association. The lack of association may also be attributable to the gradual attrition of the unhappily married couples from this sample by way of divorce. Another possibility is that men and women in dual-earner marriages in contemporary society may be viewing their marriages more similarly than their predecessors. Therefore, some of the gender differences observed in many of the earlier studies may be diminishing. The potential strength of these competing explanations remains to be empirically validated.

Effects of Children on Marital Satisfaction

The results of this study reveal that among women who were employed in careers, those who had children, reported significantly lower levels of marital satisfaction than women who were childfree. Similar results were found among women who were employed in jobs. Marital satisfaction, for these two groups of women, was measured using the MSS. On the other hand, when marital satisfaction was measured using the GDS, there appeared to be no significant difference in marital satisfaction between women who were employed in careers and had children and those who were childfree. Likewise, among women who were employed in jobs, there appeared to be no significant difference in marital satisfaction between women who had children and those who were childfree. One possible explanation for this difference in results between the MSS and the GDS, may be that the MSS is a more sensitive measure of marital satisfaction. It is also possible that since the effects of children on marital satisfaction are fairly small, some measures (i.e., the GDS) may fail to find evidence for them.

The effects of children on marital satisfaction for men were different depending on whether the men were employed in jobs or careers. Among men who were employed in careers, those who had children, reported significantly lower levels of marital satisfaction than men who were childfree. Marital satisfaction in this case was measured using the MSS. Conversely, when marital satisfaction was measured using the GDS, there appeared

to be no significant difference in marital satisfaction between men who were employed in careers and had children and those who were employed in careers and were childfree.

Curiously, for men employed in jobs, there appeared to be no significant difference in marital satisfaction between those who had children and the ones who were childfree, regardless of whether marital satisfaction was measured using the MSS or the GDS. These results suggest that children appear to have no impact on marital satisfaction for men employed in jobs. Perhaps, these men are less likely to be involved with child care responsibilities. It seems possible that the men who are employed in jobs may participate in parenting, but they may not be involved with child care and household chores. Therefore, the possibly different styles of parent participation may explain the differences in marital satisfaction between men employed in jobs compared with those who are employed in careers. Further replications are required to determine the true relationship between styles of parenting and marital satisfaction of men.

The results of the present study seem to indicate that children have small but negative effects on marital satisfaction of men and women who are employed in careers. These results are consistent with the voluminous research that has shown that children adversely affect marital satisfaction of the couple (Belsky, Lang & Rovine, 1985; Belsky, Spanier & Rovine, 1983; Feldman, 1965; 1971; Renne, 1970; Rollins & Feldman, 1970; Ryder, 1973; Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Millier & Sollie, 1980; Rhyne, 1981; Waldron & Routh, 1981; Glenn & McLanahan, 1982; White, Booth & Edwards, 1986).

Several explanations may be possible for the negative effects of children on marital satisfaction of dual-earner spouses. One possible explanation may be that the presence of children in the home may interfere with the spousal communication and companionship. Children may create the potential for jealousy as well as competition for affection, attention and social activities. Another possible explanation may be that the presence of children, especially young children, may deter unhappily married couples from divorcing. Although

the belief that unhappily married individuals should stay together "for the sake of the children" is rare in contemporary society, the presence of children may serve to introduce economic and affectional considerations that raise the threshold at which family breakdown may be contemplated. If this is true then families with children may contain a disproportionate number of unhappily married couples. Therefore, the relationship between marital satisfaction and the presence of children may be partially spurious.

Limitations of the Study

In reviewing the results of this study, several general limitations of the sample should be taken into account. The homogeneity of the sample is a critical limiting factor. Although the participants for this research were selected randomly from the general population of the specific regions of metropolitan Vancouver, the demographic information reveals that the sample is very homogeneous with regards to education, family income level and duration of marriage. The educational and family income level of the participants indicate that these individuals represent the upper-middle class families. Therefore, the results of this study may not be generalizable to dual-earner couples in the middle or lower class families. Additional research using more heterogeneous samples from various socio-economic groups is required to determine if similar results would be found among dual-earner couples from the different socio-economic groups.

Another limitation of the sample is that the participants for this research were predominantly Caucasian. Therefore, the results of this study may be considered relevant only for this group and may not be generalizable to men and women in dual-earner marriages from other ethnic groups. Much further research using samples of various ethnic groups is required to determine if similar results regarding the association between demographic variables and marital satisfaction would be found among dual-earner couples from other ethnic backgrounds.

The generalizability of the results may also be limited by the number of analyses performed on the data. The large number of t-tests and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients performed on the data may have increased the likelihood of Type I error. Therefore, the results of this research should be viewed tentatively as they may prove to be somewhat too liberal.

Recommendations for Further Research

Consistent with the findings of many of the earlier studies, this research indicates that the presence of children, especially young children, has negative effects on marital satisfaction. It would be interesting to know whether the age, gender and number of children moderate the impact of children on marital satisfaction of men and women. Moreover, it would be valuable to know whether the quality and the availability of child care services moderate the impact of children on marital satisfaction of dual-earner spouses. Studies using longitudinal designs could also provide valuable information regarding the association between duration of marriage and marital satisfaction among dual-earner spouses.

In addition, further research based on samples from various ethnic cultural groups is needed to widen the scope of the research on marital satisfaction of dual-earner spouses. For example, research using samples from different ethnic groups would provide valuable data upon which comparisons could be made about factors that are intrinsic and factors that are common to all cultures. Similarly, research based on samples from different socio-economic groups could provide valuable information about factors which are specifically related to marital satisfaction in particular socio-economic groups and factors that are generally related to marital satisfaction among individuals from all different socio-economic groups.

The effects of the demographic variables examined in the present research may have been integrated given the characteristics of the community from which the sample was

selected. Therefore, repeating the study with larger and more heterogeneous samples would lend further support to the results of this study. Clearly, there are many possible avenues to be explored.

Summary

Data from 101 couples who participated in this research provide some insight about factors related to marital satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner marriages. Socio-economic variables appear to have no effect on marital satisfaction of dual-earner spouses. Neither the family income level nor the educational level of the participants in this sample had any effect on marital satisfaction. The occupational status of the participants also had no effect on marital satisfaction of dual-earner spouses. For example, men employed in careers reported similar levels of marital satisfaction as men employed in jobs. Equally, women employed in careers perceived the quality of their marriage in much the same way as women employed in jobs.

The wife's occupational success relative to that of her husband also had no significant effect on marital satisfaction of both men and women in this sample. The participants provided similar reports of marital satisfaction regardless of whether the wife's occupational status was higher, lower or equal to that of her husband. As well, duration of marriage had no significant effect on marital satisfaction of dual-earner spouses. This predictor variable explained 0% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS and the GDS for both men and women in this sample.

The presence of children, however, did make a difference in participants' perceptions of their marriages. The effects of children on marital satisfaction of women appeared to be negative. For example, among women who were employed in careers, those who had children reported significantly lower levels of marital satisfaction compared with women who were childfree. Similarly, among women who were employed in jobs, those who had children reported lower levels of marital satisfaction compared with the ones who were

childfree. Marital satisfaction in this case was measured using the MSS. However, when marital satisfaction was measured using the GDS, there appeared to be no significant differences in marital satisfaction between women who had children and those who were childfree.

The effects of children on marital satisfaction for men were slightly different depending on whether the men were employed in jobs or careers. Among men who were employed in jobs, there appeared to be no significant difference in marital satisfaction between those who had children and the ones who were childfree. However, for men who were employed in careers, those with children reported lower levels of marital satisfaction than men who were childfree. These results seem to suggest that men who are employed in careers may be more likely to be involved with parenting their children compared with men who are employed in jobs. The potential strength of this inference remains to be empirically validated.

The five predictor variables contributed differently to marital satisfaction for men and women in this sample. For women, the strongest predictor variable of marital satisfaction was children. This variable explained 12% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS and 5% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the GDS. The second strongest predictor variable for the wives was family income level. This variable accounted for 2% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS and the GDS. Years married, the educational level and occupational status did not predict any variance in marital satisfaction for women in this sample.

Curiously, for men, the predictor variables children and family income level were equally important. These two variables each explained 3% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS and the GDS. The variable occupational status also explained 3% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the GDS and 2% of the total variation in marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS. Years married and the

educational level did not predict any variance in marital satisfaction for men in this sample.

In conclusion, none of the demographic variables examined in this research appears to be strongly associated with marital satisfaction. The five variables together explained only 9% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the GDS for men and 7% for women. Similarly, these variables accounted for only 8% of the total variance in marital satisfaction as measured by the MSS for men and 14% for women. These results support the conclusion that, among upper-middle class families, demographic variables (i.e., education, family income level, duration of marriage, occupational status and the presence of children) are not strong predictors of marital satisfaction for dual-earner spouses. Perhaps other variables such as communication patterns, gender-role orientation, management of money and division of household and child care responsibilities may be better predictors of marital satisfaction among this group.

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

BURNABY, BRITISH COLUMBIA V5A 1S6
Telephone: (604) 291-3395

INFORMED CONSENT BY SUBJECTS TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

NOTE

The University and those conducting this project subscribe to the ethical conduct of research and to the protection at all times of the interests, comfort, and safety of subjects. This form and the information it contains are given to you for your own protection and full understanding of the procedures, risks and benefits involved. Your signature on this form will signify that you have received the document regarding the project described below, that you have received an adequate opportunity to consider the information in the document, and that you voluntarily agree to participate in this project.

Having been asked by **Pindy Badyal**, a graduate student in Counselling Psychology at Simon Fraser University, to participate in a study on marital relations among couples who are both working, I have read the procedures specified for this study.

I understand that my participation in this study requires me to complete a demographic sheet and three short questionnaires. As well, I understand that my participation in this study is completely **voluntary**. Finally, I understand that the data collected from me will be kept **confidential** and **anonymous** and that this data will be destroyed once the results for this study have been analyzed.

I agree to participate in this study by completing the demographic sheet and the three questionnaires which have been given to me.

Wife's name (please print) _____

Wife's signature _____

Husband's name (please print) _____

Husband's signature _____

Date(day/month/year) _____

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

BURNABY, BRITISH COLUMBIA V5A 1S6
Telephone: (604) 291-3395

Dear participant:

Thank-you for agreeing to participate in this study. The purpose of the study is to investigate factors which affect the quality of marital relationship among couples who are both working. With the increasing number of two-income couples in Canada, there is a growing need to understand the special challenges that exist in this type of marital relationship. Your responses to the attached questionnaires will provide a valuable source of information that will contribute to our understanding of the factors that affect the quality of the relationship between couples who are both working.

As a two-income couple, each of you are asked to complete the attached demographic sheet and the three questionnaires. **Please work on these questionnaires independently.** Remember there are no right or wrong answers to the questions, only personal choices.

Please do not sign your name anywhere on the questionnaires; it is important that anonymity be maintained.

It will take you approximately thirty minutes to complete the questionnaires. Full and complete responses from each of you who have agreed to participate in this research project are important for the accuracy of the findings of this study.

Please remember that participation in this study is completely voluntary.

Once you have completed the questionnaires, please put all the materials (i.e., the three questionnaires and the demographic sheet) in the envelope which is provided and seal the envelope. Please be assured that your responses will be kept completely **confidential**. While each individual is very important, findings will report overall patterns of response and will not single out individual responses.

Thank-you for your cooperation and your time.

Sincerely,

Pindy Badyal (graduate student in Counselling Psychology)
Simon Fraser University

Dr. Adam O. Horvath
Faculty of Education (Counselling Psychology Program)
Simon Fraser University

APPENDIX C
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Your gender (please check one)

Female Male

To which ethnic or cultural group do you belong to

- English French
 Chinese German
 Italian Greek
 Other (please specify) _____

Your age _____

Your occupation _____

Number of hours that you work per week _____

Your annual income \$ _____ .00

Your family annual income \$ _____ .00

Highest level of education that you received:

- Highest grade obtained _____
 High school diploma
 College diploma
 University degree
 Post graduate degree

Degrees or certificates obtained; specialized training received etc. _____

Number of years you have been married _____

Number of years that you have been a two-income couple _____

Is this your first marriage Yes No

Are you currently pregnant Yes No

Do you have any children Yes No

(if you have children please complete the following information about the children)

	Age	Gender	Child was planned	
Child number one	_____	M <input type="checkbox"/> F <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
Child number two	_____	M <input type="checkbox"/> F <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
Child number three	_____	M <input type="checkbox"/> F <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
Child number four	_____	M <input type="checkbox"/> F <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>

What kind of childcare services, if any, do you employ (please specify) _____

If you do not have any children please check one of the following:

You are a childfree couple because

- you wanted a childfree lifestyle
 you are postponing having children
 you are unable to have children due to medical reasons

DIRECTIONS

This questionnaire contains 10 statements concerning job conditions and work environment. Please read each statement carefully and circle the number which most accurately reflects your response to the statement. For each statement the numbers ranging from 4 down to 1 represent the following:

4 = strongly agree
3 = agree
2 = disagree
1 = strongly disagree

- 4 3 2 1 My job requires me to take job-related work home.
- 4 3 2 1 I frequently think about my job in the evenings and on weekends.
- 4 3 2 1 I read job-related material outside of normal working hours.
- 4 3 2 1 I frequently talk about my job with my family or friends after a normal working day.
- 4 3 2 1 The most important feature of my job is that it provides me with an income.
- 4 3 2 1 There are possibilities for advancement (or promotions) in my line of work.
- 4 3 2 1 My job requires me to keep up-to-date with the advancements in my line of work.
- 4 3 2 1 I would like to continue working in my current type of work for the next five years.
- 4 3 2 1 I have received specialized training to prepare me for my current job.
- 4 3 2 1 I enjoy my job.

APPENDIX E

Descriptive Statistics for the Sample

VARIABLES	Men		Women	
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD
Age in years	39	9.80	36	8.70
Years married	8	7.78	8	7.78
Hours worked weekly	46	11.50	39	11.30
Personal annual income	\$47,475	\$2800	\$33,267	\$1600
Family annual income	\$81,000	\$3600	\$81,000	\$3600
Caers				
MSS	197	24.99	200	25.01
GDS	5.1	1.86	6.1	1.91
Jobs				
MSS	193	31.74	196	30.93
GDS	8.2	2.49	8.2	2.51
Wife's income higher				
MSS	196	21.96	195	27.01
GDS	3.9	4.47	4.0	4.48
Wife's income equal				
MSS	202	36.94	209	20.54
GDS	3.9	5.88	2.9	3.10
Wife income lower				
MSS	195	25.66	199	27.24
GDS	3.6	4.52	2.8	4.25

REFERENCES

- Aldous, J. (1981). From dual-earner to dual-career families and back again. Journal of Family Issues, 2(2), 115-125.
- Aldous, J., Osmond, M.W., & Hicks M.W. (1979). Men's work and men's families. Pp. 227-256 in W.R. Burr, R. Hill, F.I. Nye, & I.L. Reiss (Eds.), Contemporary Theories about the Family (Vol. 1). New York: Free Press.
- Amatea, E. S., Cross, E. G., Clark, J. E., & Bobby, C. L. (1986). Assessing the work and family role expectations of career-oriented men and women: The life role salience scales. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 48, 831-838.
- Anderson, S. A., Candyce, S. R., & Walter, S. S. (1983). Perceived marital quality and family life-cycle categories: A further analysis. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 45, 127-139.
- Atkinson, M. P., & Boles, J. (1984). WASP (Wives as senior partners). Journal of Marriage and the Family, 46, 861-870.
- Axelson, L.J. (1963). The marital adjustment and marital role definitions of husbands of working and nonworking wives. Marriage and Family Living, 24, 189-195.
- Bean, F. D., Curtis, (Jr.), R. L., Marcum, J. P. (1977). Familism and marital satisfaction among mexican americans: The effects of family size, wife's labor force participation, and conjugal power. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 39, 759-767.
- Becker, G. S. (1973). A theory of marriage: Part I. Journal of Political Economy, 81, 813-846.
- Bell, D.H. (1981). Up from patriarchy: The male role in historical perspective. Pp. 306-323 in R. A. Lewis (Ed.), Men in difficult times: Masculinity today and tomorrow. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Belsky, J., Lang, M., & Rovine, M. (1985). Stability and change in marriage across the transition to parenthood: A second study. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 47, 855-865.
- Belsky, J., & Rovine, M. (1984). Social network contact, family support, and the transition to parenthood. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 46, 455-462.
- Belsky, J., Spanier, G. B., & Rovine, M. (1983). Stability and change in marriage across the transition to parenthood. Jouranal of Marriage and the Family, 45, 567-577.
- Blood, R. O., & Wolfe, D. M. (1960). Husbands and wives: The dynamics of married living. New York: Free Press.
- Blumstein, P., & Schwartz, P. (1983). American couples: Money, work, sex. New York: William Morrow.

- Booth, A. (1977). Wife's employment and husband's stress: A replication and refutation. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 39, 645-650.
- Borg, W.R., & Gall, M.D. (1983). Educational research: An introduction (4th Edition). New York: Longman.
- Bowden, S. R. (1977). An assessment of the validity of the marital satisfaction inventory. Doctoral dissertation, Texas A & M University. Dissertation Abstracts International, 38, 4671 A. (University Microfilm No. 77-32141, 74).
- Broverman, I., Vogel, S., Broverman, D., Clarkson, F., & Rosenkrantz, P. (1972). Sex-role stereotypes: A current appraisal. The Journal of Social Issues, 28(2), 59-78.
- Burgwyn, D. (1981). Marriage without children. New York: Harper & Row.
- Burnett, P. (1987). Assessing marital adjustment and satisfaction: A review. Measurement and evaluation in counselling and development, 113-121.
- Campbell, A., Converse, P., & Rodgers, W. (1976). The quality of american life. New York: Russell Sage.
- Conference Board. Corporations and families: Changing practices and perspectives. Report no. 868. New York: Conference Board, 1985.
- Connelly, P., & MacDonald, M. (1990). Women in the labour force. Ottawa: Statistics Canada.
- Cowan, C. P., Cowan, G. Heming, Carrett, E., Coysh, W., Curtis-Boles, H., & Boles, A. (1985). Transition to parenthood: His, hers, and theirs. Journal of Family Issues, 6, 461-481.
- Cuber, P., & Haroff, J. (1965). Sex and the significant americans. New York: Viking.
- Cutright, P. (1971). Income and family events: Marital stability. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33, 291-306.
- Degler, C.N. (1980). At odds: Women and the family in america from the revolution to the present. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Delage-Kaufhold, D. (1983). Two income marriage: a study of the impact of dual work roles on marriage and the family and implications for social work practice. Unpublished master's thesis, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C.
- Dyer, E. D. (1963). Parenthood as crisis: A restudy. Marriage and Family Living, 25, 196-201.
- Edmonds, V. H. (1967). Marital conventionalization: Definition and measurement. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 29, 681-688.
- Epstein, C. F. (1971). Law partners and marital partners: Strains and solutions in the dual-career family enterprise. Human Relations, 24, 549-563.

- Espenshade, T. (1977). The value of and cost of children. Population Bulletin, 32, 1-47.
- Feld, S. (1963). Feelings of adjustment. In F. I. Nye & Hoffman (Eds.), The employed mother in America. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Feldman, S. S., & Nash, S. C. (1984). The transition from expectancy to parenthood: Impact of the firstborn child on men and women. Sex Roles, 11, 84-92.
- Feldman, H. (1971). The effects of children on the family life cycle. In A. Michel (ed.), Family Issues of Employed Women in Europe and America. Leiden, The Netherlands: E. F. Brill.
- Feldman, H. (1965). Development of the husband-wife relationship. A research report of the National Institute of Mental Health (mimeographed). Ithaca, New York: Department of Human Development and Family Studies, Cornell University.
- Frazier, L. P. (1976). An Evaluation of the marital satisfaction inventory. Doctoral dissertation. Texas A & M University. Dissertation Abstracts International, 37, 5062 A. (University Microfilms No. 77-02620. 61.).
- Gianopoulos, A., & Mitchell, H.E. (1957). Marital disagreement in working wives: Marriages as a function of husband's attitude toward wife's employment. Marriage and Family Living, 19, 373-378.
- Gilbert, L., & Rachlin, V. (1987). Mental health and psychological functioning of dual-career families. The Counseling Psychologist, 15, 7-49.
- Gilbert, L. (1985). Men in dual-career families: Current realities and future prospects. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Glenn, N. D. (1990). Quantitative research on marital quality in the 1980s: A critical review. Journal of Marriage and the Family 52, 818-831.
- Glenn, N. G., McLanahan, S. (1982). Children and marital happiness: A further specification of the relationship. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 44, 63-72.
- Glenn, N. D., & Weaver, C. N. (1978). A multivariate, multisurvey study of marital happiness. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 40, 269-282.
- Glenn, N. (1975). Psychological well-being in the postparental stage: Some evidence from national surveys. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 37, 105-110.
- Glenn, N. D., & Keir, M. S. (1971). Divorce among sociologists married to sociologists. Social Problems, 19, 57-67.
- Goldberg, W. A., Michaels, G. Y., & Lamb, M. E. (1985). Husbands' and wives' patterns of adjustment to pregnancy and first parenthood. Journal of Family Issues, 6, 483-504.
- Goode, W. J. (1960). A theory of role strain. American Sociological Review, 25, 488-496.

- Goode, W. J. (1951). Economic factors and marital stability. American Sociological Review, 16, 802-812.
- Gover, D.A. (1963). Socio-economic differentials in the relationship between marital adjustment and wife's employment status. Marriage and Family Living 25, 452-456.
- Green, D. H., & Zenisek, T. (1983). Dual-career couples: Individual and organizational implications. Journal of Business Ethics, 2(3), 171-184.
- Greenstein, T.N. (1990). Marital disruption and the employment of married women. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 52, 657-676.
- Groat, H. T., Wicks, J. W., Neal, A. G., & Hendershot, G. E. (1982). Working women and childbearing: United States. Vital and Health Statistics, Series, 23, No. 9. Department of Health and Human Services, NCHS. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Gurin, G., Veroff, J., & Feld, S. (1960). How Americans view their mental health. New York: Basic Books.
- Hardesty, S. A., & Betz, N. E. (1980). The relationship of career salience, attitudes toward women, and demographic and family characteristics to marital adjustment in dual-career couples. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 17, 242-250.
- Harpell, C. (1985). An analysis of dual-earner families in Canada. Queen's University at Kingston: Industrial Relations Center.
- Hayghe, H. (1986). Rise in mothers' labor force activity includes those with infants. Monthly Labor Review, 109(2), 43-45.
- Hayghe, H. (1976). Families and the rise of working wives - An overview. Monthly Labor Review, 99(4), 12-19.
- Hicks, M., & Platt, M. (1970). Marital happiness and stability: A review of research in the sixties. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 32, 553-574.
- Hiller, D., & Philliber, W. W. (1982). Predicting marital and career success among dual-worker couples. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 44(1), 53-62.
- Hiller, D., & Philliber, W. W. (1980). Necessity, compatibility, and status attainment as factors in the labor-force participation of married women. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 42, 103-110.
- Hodgson, M.L. (1984). Working mothers: Effects on the marriage and the mother. Family Therapy Collections, 10, 40-55.
- Hoffman, L. W. (1989). Effects of maternal employment in the two-parent family. American Psychologist, 44, 283-292.
- Hoffman, L.W., & Manis, J. D. (1979). The value of children in the United States. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 41, 583-596.

- Hoffman, L. W., & Manis, J. D. (1978). Influences of children on marital interaction and parental satisfactions and dissatisfactions. In R. M. Lerner and G. B. Spanier (Eds.), Child influences on marital and family interaction. New York: Academic Press.
- Hoffman, L. W., & Nye, F. I. (Eds.). (1974). Working mothers. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Holmstrom, L. L. (1972). The two career family. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Schenkman Publishing Co.
- Houseknecht, S. K., & Macke, A. S. (1981). Combining marriage and career: The marital adjustment of professional women. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 43, 651-661.
- Houseknecht, S. K. (1979). Childlessness and marital adjustment. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 41, 259-265.
- Johnson, A. B. (1984). Professional risks: The payoffs for dual-career families. Unpublished manuscript.
- Kalbach, W. (1983). The Canadian family: A profile. In K. Ishwaran (Ed.), The Canadian Family. Canada: Gage Publishing Company.
- Kanter, R.M. (1977). Work and family in the United States: A critical review and agenda for research policy. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Kenney, S. (1982). Sex role orientation: Its possible impact on the marital satisfaction of dual career couples, Unpublished master's thesis, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C.
- Knaub, P. K. (1986). Growing up in a dual-career family. Family Relations: Journal of Applied Family and Child Studies, 35, 431-437.
- Komarovsky, M. (1962). Blue-collar marriage. New York: Random House.
- LeMasters, E. E. (1957). Parenthood as crisis. Marriage and Family Living, 19, 352-355.
- Levinger, C. (1965). Marital cohesiveness and dissolution: An integrative review. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 27, 19-28.
- Lewis, S.N.C., & Cooper, C.L. (1987). Stress in two-earner couples and stage in the life-cycle. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 60, 289-303.
- Lewis, R.A., & Spanier, G.B. (1979). Theorizing about the quality and stability of marriage. Pp. 268-294 in W.R. Burr, R. Hill, F.I. Nye, & I.L. Reiss (Eds.), Contemporary theories about the family (Vol. 1). New York: Free Press.
- Locke, H. J., & Wallace, K. M. (1959). Short marital adjustment prediction tests: Their reliability and validity. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 21, 251-255.

- Locke, H. J. (1951). Predicting adjustment in marriage: A comparison of a divorced and a happily married group. New York: Holt.
- Locke, H. J., & MacKeprang, M. (1949). Marital adjustment of the employed wife. American Journal of Sociology.
- Locksley, A. (1980). On the effects of wives' employment on marital adjustment and companionship. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 42(2), 337-346.
- Luckey, E. B. (1966). Number of years married as related to personality perception and marital satisfaction. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 28, 44-48.
- MacDermid, S. M., Huston, T. L., & McHale, S. M. (1990). Changes in marriage associated with the transition to parenthood: Individual differences as a function of sex-role attitudes and changes in the division of household labor. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 52, 475-486.
- McDonald, G.W. (1981). Structural exchange and marital interaction. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 43, 825-839.
- McHale, S. M., & Huston, T. L. (1985). A longitudinal study of the transition to parenthood and its effects on the marriage relationships. Journal of Family Issues, 6, 409-433.
- Michel, A. (1970). Wife's satisfaction with husband's understanding in Parisian urban families. Journal of Marriage and the Family 32, 351-360.
- Miller, B. C. (1976). A multivariate developmental model of marital satisfaction. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 38, 643-657.
- Miller, B. C., & Sollie, D. L. (1980). Normal stresses during the transition to parenthood. Family Relations, 29, 459-465.
- Nadelson, C. C. & Nadelson, T. (1980). Dual-career marriages: Benefits and costs. Pp. 91-109 in F. Pepitone-Rockwell (Ed.), Dual-career couples. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Nakamura, A., & Nakamura, M. (1984). A survey of research on the work behaviour of canadian women. Preliminary draft. Edmonton: Faculty of Business, University of Alberta.
- Nakamura, A., Nakamura, M. & Cullen, D., in collaboration with G. Ddwight & H. Orcutt, (1979). Employment and earnings of married females. Statistics Canada cat. no. 99-760. Ottawa: Supply and Services Canada.
- National Opinion Research Center. (1986). General social surveys 1972-1986 cumulative codebook. Chicago: National Opinion Research Center, University of Chicago.
- Neal, A. G., Groat, H. T., & Wicks, J. W. (1989). Attitudes about having children: A study of 600 couples in the early years of marriage. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 51, 313-328.

- Nye, F. I. (1974). Husband-Wife Relationship. Pp. 186-206 in L. W. Hoffman, F. I. Nye (Eds.), Working mothers. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Nye, F. I. (1974). Emerging and declining family roles. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 36, 238-245.
- Nye, F. I., & Hoffman, L.W. (1963). The employed mother in America. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Nye, F. I. (1963b). Marital interaction. In F. I. Nye and L. W. Hoffman (eds.), The employed mother in America. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Nye, F. I. (1959). Employment status of mothers and adjustment of adolescent children. Marriage and Family Living, 21, 240-244.
- O'Neil, J.N., Fishman, D.M. & Kinsella-Shaw, M. (1987). Dual-career couples' career transitions and normative dilemmas: A preliminary assessment model. The Counselling Psychologist, 15(1), 50-96.
- Oppenheimer, V. B. (1977). The sociology of women's economic role in the family. American Sociological Review, 42, 387-406.
- Oppenheimer, V. B. (1975). The sociology of women's economic role in the family. Unpublished paper.
- Orden, S.R., & Bradburn, N.M. (1969). Working wives and marital happiness. American Journal of Sociology, 74, 392-407.
- Parsons, T. (1955). The American family: its relations to personality and to the social structure. Pp. 3-33 in T. Parsons and R. F. Bales (Eds.), Family, Socialization and Interaction Process. New York: Macmillan.
- Parsons, T. (1949). The social structure of the family. Pp. in 173-201 in R. Anshen (Ed.) The family: Its function and destinay. New York: Harper & Row.
- Parsons, T. (1942). Age and sex in the social structure of the United States. American Sociological Review, 7, 604-616.
- Pepitone-Rockwell, F. (1980). Introduction. In Pepitone-Rockwell, F. (ed.), Dual-career couples. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Pleck, J. H. (1985). Working wives/ working husbands. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Pleck, J. H. (1979). Men's family work: Three perspectives and some new data. Family Coordinator, 3, 22-29.
- Poloma, M. M., Pendleton, B. F., & Garland, T. N. (1982). Reconsidering the dual-career marriage: A longitudinal approach. In J. Aldous (Ed.), Two paychecks: Life in dual-earner families. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Poloma, M. M. & Garland, T. N. (1971). The married professional woman: A study in the tolerance of domestication. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33(3), 531-540.

- Price-Bonham, S., & Murphy, D. C. (1980). Dual-career marriages: Implications for the clinician. Journal of Marriage and Family Therapy, 6, 181-188.
- Rallings, E. M., & Nye, F. I. (1979). Wife-mother employment, family and society, Pp. 203-226 in W.R. Burr, R. Hill, F.I. Nye, & I.L. Reiss (Eds.), Contemporary theories about the family (Vol. 1). New York: Free Press.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R.N. (1982). The next generation in dual-earner family research. In J. Aldous (Ed.), Two paychecks: Life in dual-earner families (p. 229-244). Beverly Hills, Ca: Sage.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. N. (1978). Dual-career families: Progress and prospects. Marriage and Family Review1(5), 1-12.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. N. (1976). Dual-career families re-examined. New York: Harper & Row.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. N. (1975). Men, women and equity. Family Coordinator, 24, 421-432.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. N. (1971). Dual-career families. Middlesex, England: Penguin Books.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. N. (1969). The dual-career family. Human Relations, 22(1).
- Ray, J. (1988). Marital satisfaction in dual-career couples. Journal of Independent Social Work, 3(1), 39-55.
- Renne, K.S. (1970). Correlates of dissatisfaction in marriage. Journal of Marriage and the Family 32, 54-67.
- Rhyné, D. (1981). Bases of marital satisfaction among men and women. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 43, 941-955.
- Richardson, J.G. (1979). Wife's occupational superiority and marital troubles: An examination of the hypothesis. Journal of Marriage and the family, 41, 63-72.
- Roach, A.J., Frazier, L.P., & Bowden, S. R. (1981). The marital satisfaction scale: Development of a measure for intervention research. Journal of Marriage and the Family 43, 537-546.
- Roach, A. J. (1977). Marriage problem checklist. Pp. 62-63 in S. R. Bowden. An assessment of the validity of the marital satisfaction inventory. Doctoral dissertation. Texas A & M University. Dissertation Abstracts International, 38, 4671A. (University Microfilms No. 77-32141, 74).
- Rollins, B. C., & Galligan, R. (1978). The developing child and marital satisfaction of parents. Pp. 71-105 in R. M. Lerner and G. G. Spanier (Eds.), Child influences on marital and family interaction. New York: Academic Press.

- Rollins, B. C., & Cannon, K. L. (1974). Marital satisfaction over the family life cycle. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 36, 271-282.
- Rollins, B. C., & Feldman, H. (1970). Marital satisfaction over the family life. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 32, 20-28.
- Ross, H., & Sawhill, I. V. (1975). Time of transition. Washington, DC: Urban Institute.
- Russell, G. (1982). Highly participant Australian fathers. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 28, 137-156.
- Ryder, R. (1973). Longitudinal data relating marital satisfaction and having a child. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 35, 604-607.
- Sabatelli, R.M. (1988). Measurement issues in marital research: A review and critique of contemporary survey instruments. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 50, 891-915.
- Sagi, A., & Sharon, N. (1984). The role of the father in the family: Toward a gender-neutral family policy. Children and Youth Services Review, 6, 83-90.
- Santos, R. (1975). The economics of marital status. Pp. 245-268 in C. Lloyd (Ed.), Sex discrimination and the division of labor. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Scanzoni, J. (1979). Social processes and power in families. Pp. 295-316 in W.R. Burr, R. Hill, F.I. Nye, & I.L. Reiss (Eds.), Contemporary theories about the family (Vol. 1). New York: Free Press.
- Scanzoni, J. (1970). Opportunity and the family. New York: Macmillan.
- Scheer, N. S., & Snyder, D. K. (1984). Empirical validation of the marital satisfaction inventory in a nonclinical sample. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 52, 88-96.
- Sekaran, U. (1986). Dual-career families. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Sekaran, U. (1982). An investigation of the career salience of men and women in dual-career families. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 20, 111-119.
- Simpson, I.H., & England, P. (1981). Conjugal work roles and marital solidarity. Journal of Family Issues, 2(2), 180-204.
- Snyder, D. K. (1981). Manual for the marital satisfaction inventory. Los Angeles: Western Psychological Services.
- Snyder, D. K., & Wrobel, T. (1981). Determinants of marital dissolution: An objective comparison of couples seeking divorce with couples entering marital therapy. Unpublished manuscript, Wayne State University, 1981.
- Snyder, D. K. (1979a) Marital satisfaction inventory. Los Angeles: Western Psychological Services.

- Spanier, G.B., & Lewis, R.A. (1980). Marital quality: A review of the seventies. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 42, 96-110.
- St. John Parsons, D. (1978). Continuous dual-career families: A case study. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 2, 30-42.
- Staines, G. L., Pleck, J. H., Sheppard, L. J., & O'Connor, P. (1978). Wives' employment status and marital adjustment: Yet another look. Pp. 90-120 in J. B. Bryson and R. Bryson (Eds.), Dual-career couples. New York: Human Sciences Press.
- Statistical abstract of the United States. (1981). Washington, D.C.: Bureau of the Census.
- Statistical abstract of the United States. (1980). Washington, D.C.: Bureau of the Census.
- Stephan, C. W., & Corder, J. (1985). The effects of dual-career families on adolescents' sex-role attitudes, work and family plans, and choices of important others. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 47, 921-930.
- Strober, M. (1988). Two-earner families. In S. M. Dornbusch, M. H. Strober (Eds.), Feminism, children, and the new families. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Sullerot, E. (1971). Women, society and change. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Terman, L. M. (1938). Psychological factors in marital happiness. New York: MCGraw-Hill.
- Trimberger, R., & MacLean, M. J. (1982). Maternal employment: The child's perspective. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 44, 469-475.
- Tryon, G. S., & Tryon, W. W. (1982). Issues in the lives of dual-career couples. Clinical Psychology Review, 2, 49-65.
- Udry, J. R. (1981). Marital alternatives and marital disruption. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 43, 889-897.
- U.S. Bureau of the Census. (1985b). Money income and poverty status of families and persons in the United States: 1984 (Current Population Reports, Series P-60, No. 149). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (1986). Labor force statistics derived from the current population survey: A databook. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (1982). Labor force statistics derived from the current population survey: A databook. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- Vannoy-Hiller, D. & Philliber, W. (1989). Equal partners: Successful women in marriage. Newbury Park: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Waldron, H., Routh, D. K. (1981). The effects of the first child on the marital relationship. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 43, 785-788.

- White, L. K., Booth, A., & Edwards, J. (1986). Children and marital happiness: why the negative correlation? Journal of Family Issues, 7, 131-147.
- White, L. K., & Booth, A. (1985b). The transition to parenthood and marital quality. Journal of Family Issues, 6, 435-449.
- Women's Bureau. (1990-1991). Women in the labour force (1990-1991 edition) Ottawa: Labour Canada.
- Wright, J.D. (1978). Are working women really more satisfied? Evidence from several national surveys. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 40, 301-313.
- Yogev, S., & Brett, J. (1985) Perceptions of the division of housework and child care and marital satisfaction. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 47, 609-618.