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MIZE, JOHN WILLIAM, JR.

IMPACT OF FEMALE EMPLOYMENT ON MARITAL POWER AND MARITAL ADJUSTMENT

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IMPACT OF FEMALE EMPLOYMENT ON MARITAL POWER
AND MARITAL ADJUSTMENT

Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of
The Ohio State University

by

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1980

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

An unprecedented rise in the employment rate of married American females has taken place in recent years. In 1977, forty-six percent of all married women participated in the labor force compared with twenty-four percent in 1950 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1978). The women's movement, originating in the 1960's and continuing through the 1970's has altered significantly the perceptions of women's social and economic functioning (Sconzoni, 1975). As a result of this increasing role diversification, the view of the American woman has evolved primarily from one of mother and homemaker to also that of wage earner and career person. This proliferation of married, female wage-earners is likely to continue and have considerable impact on the social structure.

Evidence exists to suggest that, as a consequence of the emergence of the employed wife, significant modifications have been occurring in the family constellation. Major areas of research have been explored as a consequence of increasing numbers of employed wives. One result of women's apparently greater commitment to work and access to economic benefits is likely to be a reorganization in the marital dyad. Women's employment has had an effect on the marital power structure. This, in turn, affects marital adjustment.
Sweet (1968) found that shifts in the family power structure because of the wife's outside employment were accompanied by a dramatic upsurge in divorce rates. Conversely, Mott (1972) noted a strong positive correlation between levels of marital satisfaction and employment of both spouses. This discrepancy can perhaps be attributed to sampling differences in each study. Sweet's subjects were drawn from the working class, whereas Mott's were middle class couples. Although these trends cannot be definitively related to the changed economic status of women and the accrued social advantages, data does exist to support the relationship of these factors (Vacha, 1974). Continuing sophistication of household appliances, establishment of professional child care facilities, acceptance of alternative lifestyles, and the advent of egalitarian ideologies have led researchers to conclude that the dual-work, dual-career family will become a commonly occurring phenomenon in our society (Ruminsky, 1976).

One possible explanation is provided by the resource theory of Robert Blood and Wolfe (1958), which states:

The sources of marital power in so intimate a relationship as marriage must be sought in the comparative resources which the husband and wife bring to the marriage, rather than in brute force. A resource may be defined as anything that one partner may make available to the other, helping the latter satisfy his needs or attain his goals... The partner who may provide or withhold resources is in a strategic position... Hence, power accrues spontaneously to the partner who has the greater resources at his disposal.

From this perspective, it is logical to view employed women as possessing more resources and, thus, more power within the marital dyad than their unemployed counterparts. Employed wives not only augment the family income, they also acquire valuable information and contacts within the occupational milieu. Conversely, they may experience a slight loss of
power if they are required to seek the husband's assistance with household tasks. This includes petitioning his acceptance of a traditionally female responsibility for which there is no acceptable substitute (Komarovsky, 1967). If one accepts Blood and Wolfe's (1958) resource theory, however, as more women enter the labor force and acquire a greater number of resources, they tend to acquire additional rights. As a concomitant, they also increase their relative power within the marital relationship. Wives who once required the husband's approval in domestic matters, not only acquired freedom in decision-making, but also obtain the higher status accorded wage-earning adults.

Marital power, sometimes defined operationally as decision-making, is only one area of the family processes affected by the wife's employment. The traditional role of the male as protector and sole provider is being challenged as women begin to share, and occasionally assume, these functions. Researchers have recognized the threat female competence poses for males. This is particularly noticeable among the lower socioeconomic classes (Kello, 1978; Komarovsky, 1967; Scanzoni, 1975; Walshok, 1978). Marriage with a woman of independent income, external relationships, and non-family responsibilities may generate a significant degree of insecurity and confusion for some husbands. The husbands also may become involved in activities such as cooking, cleaning, and housekeeping (Burke and Weir, 1976). For men with a narrow definition of masculinity, the performance of these traditionally female chores indicates a loss of status.

Concern over the impact of wives' employment has led researchers to investigate its effects on the dyad. Positive and/or negative
consequences appear to involve a significant number of additional variables including: socioeconomic status; attitudes correlated with social class; length of the marriage; number of children residing with the parents; the point in the marriage when employment was assumed; and the level of satisfaction with the job. Although other factors may merit attention, these appear particularly germane to the present study.

Control of the aforementioned variables is a prerequisite to determining the impact of the employed wife, as related to the marital power structure and levels of marital satisfaction. Generally speaking, distinctive patterns begin to emerge when the enumerated variables are taken into account. Specifically, definite differences between social classes become apparent in their perceptions of decision-making and power. Early studies conducted by Essig and Morgan (1946) and Kohr (1948) demonstrated that working wives reported higher levels of competence and equality in decision-making than did their non-employed counterparts. By the same token, employed wives in higher socioeconomic brackets reported significantly higher levels of equality than did those in the working class.

These studies have generated a considerable amount of similar research, among middle class dual-work families (Blood and Hamblin, 1958; Dyer, 1958; Hoffman, 1960; Nye, 1959). These researchers concluded that assignment of role functions and decision-making were completed in a relatively democratic fashion. Blood and Hamblin (1958) particularly noted that in these two areas the principle criteria were availability and competence rather than traditional authority patterns. Hoffman (1960) observed that while the democratic process tends to be typical of the middle class as a whole, it was more significant for the employed wife.
In examining the decision-making processes of the middle and upper middle class family, Gillespie (1971), Mahoney (1966), Middleton (1960), and Scanzoni (1975) have noted the predominance of democratic ideals and norms. Educated, white-collar families not only incline toward egalitarian sex-role norms, but also support the idea of wife seeking employment. Scanzoni (1975) found that white-collar husbands generally tend to disagree with the exclusion of wives in decision-making. Higher levels of formal education, accompanied by sophisticated thought processes, are usually correlated with higher socioeconomic status and white-collar occupations. These two factors weigh heavily in the arrangement of the family power pattern. In addition, the interpretation of work per se for this class is distinctive. For the husband, a wage-earning spouse poses no threat either to his authority in the home or role as provider. On the contrary, he views the wife's employment not only as augmenting the family income, but also as an opportunity for her personal fulfillment. Apparently, there is a significant linkage between educational level, occupational status, and type of decision-making within the family (Yankelovich, 1974).

A number of cross-cultural studies appear to support this hypothesis, i.e. that the employed middle class wife maintains a greater degree of involvement in the family decision-making than her unemployed counterpart (Michel, 1970; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970). These studies, however, focused on middle class families in industrialized nations. The results may not be generalizable to rural or agrarian societies or other classes. A further limitation of the external validity may be the lack of a control group. Nevertheless, the results appear consistent with the
hypothesis that female employment may often precede or accompany the equalization of power within the dyad.

Assignment and completion of household duties also appears to be related to marital power among the middle class (Blood, 1967; Well, 1961). Many of Well's female respondents felt that the income and status derived from employment helped to equalize the relative positions of husband and wife and lead to higher levels of marital cohesiveness. Blood (1965) came to similar conclusions, and noted that the criteria for involvement of a spouse in household activities were talent and expertise rather than a traditionally assigned role. Evidently, the benefits of the wife's employment extend beyond the economic sphere.

These findings suggest that a democratic power structure within the family is positively correlated with the higher educational and occupational status of the husband (King, McIntyre, and Axelson, 1968; Remington, 1966). His attitude could be anticipated as highly favorable to the wife's employment. Self-expression, both inside and outside of the home, would be emphasized. These conditions indicate that the middle and upper middle class families are conducive to, and require slight modification upon, the wife's entry into the labor force (Hershey and Warner, 1975).

A considerable amount of literature examining female employment and decision-making in working class families arrives at similar conclusions. Employment and its accompanying resources usually modify the power structure from the traditional patriarchal entity to a more egalitarian one. The fundamental distinction, however, is the threat posed by these changes to the blue-collar husband, whereas his higher class equivalent perceives less threat (Kemarovsky, 1967). Within the working
class, also, there are further individual variations. In general, the lower status, blue-collar husband tends to be more patriarchal than the higher-status, blue-collar male. The former is usually more threatened by a working wife than is the latter. Often, this may be a result of differences in the relative levels of education existing among particular subgroups within the class (Komarovsky, 1967). Nevertheless, the majority of blue-collar men incline toward ambivalence in this area. While additional income and opportunities are welcomed, they are balanced by the reduction in power resulting from the wife’s employment. There appears to be a lack of cohesiveness, not only within the family itself, but also within this social group.

The lower-class family tends toward an unintegrated structure, characterized by sharp role demarcation regarding household tasks, child-rearing responsibilities, and financial management (Scanzoni, 1975). Each family member functions primarily in one specific context with little or no crossover. Rigid lines of authority reinforce psychological and emotional isolation. Frequently, the emotional distance maintained by the spouses places limitations on the channels of communication (Komarovsky, 1971).

This difference in the distribution of responsibility and power between spouses suggests that the working class male considers himself as the primary authority (Leighton, Stollak, and Ferguson, 1971). He also sees his chief function as earning and managing money. This self-perception is frequently threatened by his wife’s employment and the corresponding increase in resources. Blue-collar men often hold highly negative views about a wife entering the job market (Scanzoni, 1975). Possibly
peer pressure within the group, interpreting the wife's work as indicative of the husband's inadequacy as a provider, reinforces this threat. As a result, these men are reluctant to relinquish the privileges associated with the traditional male role (Hitter and Philliber, 1978; Whitehurst, 1963). Yankelovich's (1975) comments that feminine status changes render the male's contributions of less importance are undoubtedly appropriate here.

Studies of subcultural groups in the United States also confirm some of the effects of wives' employment on the power structure of working-class families (Lewis, 1968; Murillo, 1969; Meller, 1968). In San Juan, Puerto Rico, working wives in lower class families were noted as having increased influence in marital decision-making. This was particularly evident in the area of family planning, since the women's participation in the labor force was negatively correlated with fertility (Meller, 1968). The cultural dictate of machismo (manliness), characteristic of Latin societies, prohibits a husband's acceptance of a wife's employment, even in cases of economic necessity. A wife's increased freedom in decision-making and personal management is frequently resented by Hispanic-American husbands (Lewis, 1968). In a male-dominated culture, conflicts in the spouse relationship intensify as greater numbers of wives become less willing to accept the subservient role traditionally assigned to them.

Although abundant research on marital power exists, this variable is not the sole factor which bears scrutiny. Marital adjustment, or the degree of fulfillment attached to the partnership for each spouse, is an equal consideration. The earliest research on this topic is somewhat
contradictory (Locke, 1949). Comparisons of employed and unemployed middle class wives revealed no significant differences in marital adjustment. The findings were identical to the subjects' husbands. Conceptual and descriptive flaws, specifically a limited sample, lack of controls in occupational descriptions, educational levels, and prior employment history make these conclusions somewhat tenuous. Although this study appeared vague and somewhat indefinite, it defined an area for additional research.

Later studies (Nye, 1951, 1957, 1958) contradict Locke's (1949) data. In his earliest one, Nye hypothesized that marital adjustment would be greater among employed wives than among the unemployed. He also hypothesized that white-collar husbands of employed women would experience significantly greater marital adjustment than their blue-collar equivalents. These hypotheses were confirmed in his 1951 and 1957 studies. A follow-up study in 1958 re-confirmed the data. An additional conclusion was that marital conflicts were usually balanced by other benefits, including augmental income and extended social contacts (Nye, 1958).

More contemporary research points up the fact that both working wives and their spouses viewed employment as less threatening to the marital dyad than non-working women and their spouses. This conclusion remained stable among respondents of all social classes studied, but had greater significance among those in the middle and upper middle classes. Blue-collar husbands of employed wives appeared more threatened than the white-collar ones (Aksel, 1961). Later data demonstrated that men in dual-work dual-career families held more liberal views than those who were the sole wage-earners. A further conclusion indicated that, in general, middle class husbands as a group had a higher level of positive
attitudes and perceptions than working class males. Evidence also exists to suggest that these data may be generalizable to all middle-class groups, transcending racial and ethnic subdivisions (Ajtelson, 1963).

Attitudes toward the wife's employment have considerable impact on marital adjustment. Working women reported receptive and supportive responses as well as involvement in household tasks from their spouses. Husbands of the former also felt that inconveniences resulting from the wife's employment were counterbalanced by the accrued benefits (Blood, 1965). Positive attitudes occurred more frequently among white-collar marriages than among blue-collar ones. More recent research indicates similar conclusions. In Miyashara's study (1975), the husbands in the sample not only showed identical favorable dispositions, but actually felt a higher level of marital adjustment. Slightly divergent results were obtained by Burke and Heir (1976). Although working wives reported more adjustment than the non-workers, the husbands of the former experienced lower levels of marital adjustment than those of the latter. Bootha (1977) attributes these results to a non-representative sample, whereas Gianopoulos and Howard (1977) opine that unmentioned situational conflict factors confounded the findings.

There is a paucity of research on female employment and marital adjustment among cross-cultural groups. One study revealed that middle class French working women reported more marital adjustment than unemployed ones. The latter attributed lower levels of adjustment to corresponding levels of power determined by their lack of status (Safili- os-Rothschild, 1970). No data was derived from the husbands' viewpoint as is typical in marital adjustment studies.
The social and political milieu of the current decade has had myriad implications not only for the rate of female employment, but also for marital adjustment. Within the recent era, the feminist movement, the mandates of Title IX, legislation prohibiting sex discrimination and advocating equality in hiring practices have wrought many attitudinal changes in diverse segments of the male population. Younger men, especially those recently married, are receptive to emerging social trends. Consequently, of all age groups, this one is generally most favorable to female employment and experiences fewest adjustment problems (Arnott, 1972; Fengler, 1973; Martin, Berry, and Jacobson, 1975). Younger married couples also have a greater degree of consensus as to the relative importance of the wife's employment as a facet of their marriage life (Roll, 1973).

Minimal investigative literature exists on female employment and marital adjustment in the working class. In certain cases, the focus has been on samples which deviate from the dual-work couple, thereby limiting the external validity (Booth, 1967; Burke and Heir, 1976; Collette, 1969). Other findings are contradictory. Wife's employment had been reported as increasing adjustment (Ferce, 1976a, 1976b; Renne, 1970), lowering adjustment (Sonnenstein, 1976), or having no effect at all (Ridley, 1973). Possibly, these studies indicate a need for additional data gathering.

In addition to female employment, social variables, and types of decision-making, other significant factors influence the degree of marital adjustment. Researchers have noted that adjustment tends to be negatively correlated with the length of the marriage (Urdry, Nelson and
Nelson, 1961). This is especially noticeable after the first five years and continuing through the second decade. Declines in the quality of companionship, consensus, and demonstration of affection are particularly obvious (Burgess and Wallin, 1953). Rollins and Feldman (1970) reported that, although adjustment decreased dramatically following the birth of the first child, it increased slightly after the departure of the youngest. The pressures of childrearing are usually sufficient to influence, at least partially, a decline in companionship, accompanied by a reduction in marital adjustment (Clayton, 1975).

**Significance of the Problem**

In view of the progressively increasing numbers of married women entering the labor force, an examination of the interrelationship between their employment and marital power and adjustment has considerable import both for researchers and for laymen. This phenomenon is not restricted solely to middle class females seeking careers, but extends to all segments of the population regardless of socioeconomic status (Scanzoni, 1975). The main body of existing research on these issues has focused primarily on middle and upper middle class women, their spouses, and the complexities introduced into the marital dyad. Research on blue-collar families has been less comprehensive. This paucity is apparent particularly in the area of marital adjustment, a territory which has not been explored extensively. Although some studies have been conducted, sampling flaws render the results incomparable; these investigations were atypical family situations in which unemployed husbands were supported by working wives (Burke and Weir, 1976; Collette, 1969). Others examined
specific ethnic and racial groups, whose cultural and subcultural norms may have introduced intervening variables (Feree, 1976; Sonnenstein, 1976). Under these circumstances, the results are hardly generalizable to all segments of the working class.

Data regarding the consequences of the wife's employment on marital power have indicated that the decision-making processes tend toward equalization upon the wife's assuming paid employment. This parallel exercise of power in the dual-work family is found in all social classes (Anelson, 1961; Bartel and Gross, 1952; Gillespie, 1971; Kenkel, 1961; Middleton, 1960; Scanloni, 1970; Yankelovich, 1975). In a majority of studies, however, comparisons have been restricted to those between white-collar and blue-collar dual-work families or dual-work/single-work families in the same social class. No current research presents a comprehensive comparison of marital power among the following family situations: white-collar, dual-work dyads; white-collar dyads, with only the husband employed; blue-collar, dual-work dyads; blue-collar dyads, with only the husband employed. This type of design would not only increase but also clarify a considerable amount of the existing research.

Recent research on the issue of marital adjustment indicates a need for more comprehensive perspectives and clearer definitions. Results of existing investigations show a higher degree of consensus among women. The findings demonstrate that employed wives, regardless of socioeconomic status, experience higher levels of marital adjustment than do non-working wives (Fengler, 1973; Hitter and PhUliber, 1978; Nye, 1951, 1957). Among males, the evidence is not clear-cut. Responses of husbands in these cases vary thus: white-collar men not only experience no loss in
their adjustment levels, but may actually experience an increase. Lack of evidence derived from working class husbands, however, renders the data both skewed and contradictory. Furthermore, the samples are restricted, similar to those in the area of marital power; only dual-work families in different social strata, or dual-work/single-work couples in the same class have been compared. Comprehensively designed studies would provide research which is applicable and generalizable to other segments of the population which are becoming involved in the phenomenon of the working wife and its effects.

Although researchers have reviewed the attitudinal relationships between female employment as it affects both decision-making and adjustment, a lack of data exists concerning the causal or correlational linkage between marital power and marital adjustment. Is a spouse’s perceived power in the marital dyad the principle factor determining marital adjustment or are there intervening variables involved? If intervening variables do exist, can these relationships be determined? Additional critical issues which merit consideration are the relevant characteristics of the respondents, i.e. gender, age, educational level, length of marriage, number and age of offspring residing at home, the point at which the wife assumed employment, and satisfaction with the job. One of the critical aspects of most research dealing with marital power is the fact that, typically, more wives than husbands respond (Safilios-Rothschild, 1970). Consequently, not only more thorough procedures in the sampling and data gathering process, but also more stringent controls are needed.
From the foregoing review, the need is manifest for systematic studies which investigate the effects of a dual-work marriage on both marital power and marital adjustment. Rigorously defined variables and specifically designated control groups are needed. In particular, a clear identification of the family's social status must be made. Research abounds with findings on the interaction of social class and family decision-making processes. Middle class families are prone to egalitarian norms (Hoffman, 1961; Mahoney, 1966, Middleton, 1960). A wife's employment tends to further democratize the structure of the dyad (Essig and Morgan, 1966; Mohr, 1966). The limited amount of research on blue-collar families suggests that in strong contrast to this pattern stands the working class family, in which the male tends to view himself as the ultimate authority (Komarovsky, 1967) over jealous of his prerogatives in decision-making (Leighton, Stollard and Ferguson, 1971). This particular power pattern also tends to become equalized when the wife becomes employed (Scanzoni, 1975).

Social class factors have a partial effect on marital adjustment as well in the dual-work family. White-collar husbands married to employed women experience higher levels of marital adjustment than do the males in blue-collar dyads (Axelson, 1963; Blood, 1965; Alyahara, 1975; Nye, 1951, 1957, 1958). Working class men involved in dual-work marriages, however, have more liberal attitudes than their same status peers married to non-working women (Axelson, 1961). Specific sampling characteristics, i.e. ethnicity, race, unemployment, limit the external validity of the research findings (Burke and Heir, 1976; Collette, 1969; Force, 1976; Sonnenstein, 1976).

As previously noted, the duration of time a couple has been married affects marital adjustment. Levels of adjustment tend to be inversely correlated with the length of the marriage. Especially noticeable is a decline following the first five years and continuing into the second decade (Burgess and Wallin, 1953). This decrease, reported as occurring usually after the birth of the first child, is reversed slightly following the departure of the youngest from the home (Rollins and Feldman, 1970). The lowered level of adjustment is generally attributed to the pressures of childrearing on the marriage relationship (Clayton, 1975).

The typical study usually focuses on only three variables: the female's employment; the socioeconomic status of the family; and either marital power or marital adjustment. Although the length of the marriage and the presence and number of children residing at home are relevant variables, they are measured infrequently if at all (Rallings and Nye, 1979). The focus of this study, therefore, is the impact of female employment on both marital power and marital adjustment. Interactive effects of socioeconomic class, length of marriage, and children living with the parents will be examined in relationship to adjustment. This study will also investigate the effects of the nature of the employment and the point in the marriage that the employment began.

Research Hypotheses

The purpose in this study is to investigate the effect that wives' employment has on marital power and marital adjustment in middle and working class families. The following hypotheses have been developed for this study:
1. Employed wives, regardless of socioeconomic status, will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than unemployed wives.

2. Employed wives, regardless of socioeconomic status, will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital power than do unemployed wives.

3. Middle class employed wives will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital power than do working class employed wives.

4. Middle class employed wives will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than do working class employed wives.

5. Working class employed wives will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than do working class unemployed wives.

6. Working class employed wives will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than do working class unemployed wives.

7. The husbands of employed women, regardless of socioeconomic status, will not perceive themselves as having less power than will the husbands of unemployed women.

8. Middle class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves as having less power than will working class men married to employed women.

9. Middle class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves as having less power than will middle class men married to
unemployed woman.

10. Middle class man married to employed women will not perceive themselves as having higher levels of marital adjustment than will middle class men married to unemployed women.

11. Working class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves as having less power than will working class men married to unemployed women.

12. Working class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves as possessing lower levels of marital adjustment than will working class men married to unemployed women.

Within these parameters, certain predictors or intervening variables may determine or influence the impact of female employment on marital power and adjustment. As a consequence of the importance of these factors, the following research question has been developed:

Do any of the following influence the relationship between wives' employment and the dependent measures of marital power and adjustment:

a) Length of years of marriage,

b) The reason the wife was employed,

c) The wife's satisfaction with her job,

d) The percentage of the marriage the wife had worked.

**Definition of Terms:**

For the purpose of this study:

1. **Marital power** is limited to decision-making solely between husband and wife as measured by the Blood and Wolfe Decision-Making Scale of Marital Power.
2. **Socioeconomic status** of the family is determined by the husband's occupation. Men employed in professional, entrepreneurial or managerial capacities are considered middle class; those performing skilled or unskilled labor, working class (Hollingshead, 1951).

3. **Marital adjustment** is an evaluation of a spouse's personal satisfaction, plus the pair's mutual satisfaction. Included in this definition is a perception of the way both spouses are performing a number of discrete tasks related to marital interaction as measured by the Spanier Dyadic Adjustment Scale.

4. **Egalitarian patterns** imply a relatively equal division of decision-making.

5. **Marital dyad** is synonymous with the husband and wife.

6. **Single-work family** is one in which only the husband is involved in outside employment.

7. **Dual-work family** is one in which both husband and wife are involved in outside fulltime employment (thirty-five hours or more per week). In addition, both assume household activities, although not necessarily in equal proportions.

8. **Length of the marriage** refers to the number of years the couple has been married.

9. **Job satisfaction** refers to the degree of happiness the wife experiences with her employment.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The second chapter reviews literature investigating research on the dual-work family. The first section reports early studies of the dual-work dyad. Following this is a definition of marital power, and then an examination of marital power in white-collar and blue-collar families. A definition of marital adjustment follows, with an examination of marital adjustment in white-collar and blue-collar dyads. The literature review is concluded with an examination of the length of the marriage as a factor affecting marital power and adjustment.

Dual-Work Families

A considerable amount of the early literature dealing with the dual-work family suffers from a decidedly negative bias. The positive effects derived from a wife's employment were seen as being nullified by the negative consequences that the work experience would have upon the family. Boothe (1932), for example, in investigating the causes and consequences of women's entering industry and the professions, concluded that the disadvantaged far outweighed the advantaged obtained from such a situation. In particular, he felt that any economic rewards acquired would be more than counteracted by increasing levels of family disorganization and maladjustment. Under these circumstances, necessary adjustments would include taking the female into account on a basis more comparable to that of the male. This was a perspective that Boothe clearly found distasteful. Several other studies (e.g., Matthews, 1933, 1934) investigating husband and offspring's perceptions of the effects of the female's employment on the family structure and conditions reached conclusions. The undesirable aspects of the wife-mother's entrance into the occupational market were perceived to outweigh the desirable features. It was Matthew's finding that the husband's authority and satisfaction in the marital dyad would be diminished greatly. These circumstances were to
be avoided if at all possible.

Several studies conducted over a decade later arrived at similar conclusions. Scrutinizing the effects that employment in industry had on the family lives of young wives and mothers, Menzies (1944) felt that...

...in spite of the lessons learned in the last war, young married women and the mothers of young children are encouraged to take full-time employment.

The financial gains were minimal, Menzies judged, when compared with the results that affected the family. These included less time spent on child care, and undermining the dual role of husband and the major decision-maker and provider. It was that author's conclusion that wives should seek only part-time employment, and only if this was absolutely essential for the family's economic survival.

Several years later the attitudes regarding the impact of female employment on family adjustment appear to have changed somewhat. Essig and Morgan's (1966) study of marital adjustment in rural and urban families in Missouri, found that there were no significant differences in marital adjustment scores between those families in which wives were employed and families in which the female functioned only as homemaker. One of the strongest aspects of this study was the large sample of families (N = 3002) randomly selected from a number of different communities in the state. Although the families of working wives did not report any significantly higher levels of marital adjustment than did the control groups, it is interesting to note that the working wives reported higher levels of personal accomplishment, competence, and equality in decision-making regarding domestic affairs. The writers also found that those husbands who were employed in white-collar occupations (i.e. professionals, managerial) reported higher levels of marital adjustment when wives were
employed than did their blue-collar counterparts.

A similar study, conducted by Mohr (1948), examined the homemaking aspects of working wives and mothers. The working women involved in this study sought employment for economic reasons rather than for personal growth or self-fulfillment. Any personal problems and attitudes encountered by these women were interpreted by Mohr as not being qualitatively different than those held by women who did not seek employment outside of the home. There were pressures in daily living and in the home that could be traced to the working situation and a concomitant absentee home management, but these were seen as being no more stressful than those encountered by the fulltime homemaker. Interestingly enough, although the marital relationship of the employed wives reported greater pressures than those of the control group, the subjects felt that the pressures did not seriously interfere with marital adjustment. The advantages derived from being employed (higher income, increased social contact, sense of accomplishment) appeared to have more than compensated for the loss of companionship, higher levels of fatigue, and reduction in time formerly allocated for housekeeping activities and domestic tasks. Similar to the findings of Essig and Morgan, those wives in the higher socioeconomic brackets, particularly among the more highly educated, reported significantly greater levels of marital adjustment and equality in decision-making than did their working class equivalents.

Marital Power

Marital power is a multidimensional concept that is measured indirectly through behavioral acts in which varying degrees of power are tested. In this manner, familial power can be measured through the results...
of decision-making, the forms of conflict resolution and tension management, or the type of prevailing division of labor. It is the total configuration of these particular behavioral patterns that tends to reflect the prevailing model of power. Decision-making in and of itself is a multiphasic process (Safillos-Rothschild, 1971).

There have been a number of methodological criticisms to the use of defining marital power in terms of decision-making. The degree of specificity of decisions in questions asked has varied considerably in different studies (Safillos-Rothschild, 1967). In addition, in many studies only one member of the marital dyad has been interviewed, thus limiting the entire picture of a particular family power structure. Nevertheless, despite these flaws, decision-making is the best current operational definition for marital power, and probably will continue to be in the future (Broderick, 1971).

**Marital Power: White-Collar Families**

There have been many studies examining the effects of a wife's employment on the power structure of white-collar families. In one of the earliest, Dyer (1958) focused on the manner in which the wife's employment affected other family roles. In his sample of 129 upper middle class families in which both spouses were employed, he noted a general trend toward a more democratic assignment and evaluation of role performances. This was especially evident in the areas of decision-making and task performance. Dyer suggested that the higher socioeconomic strata, in particular the upper class and upper middle class, were becoming more estranged from traditional patriarchal family authority patterns. Blood and Hamblin (1958), in examining some of Dyer's data, elaborated on a
number of his findings. It was their opinion that, although employment resulted in a more egalitarian ideology for the wife, her greater control over economic resources would not always be used as a source of bargaining power with the spouse. Important decisions, it was felt, would be made on a give-and-take basis. Each set of circumstances would be judged and treated solely on its own merits. Blood and Hamblin also felt that divisions of labor in a home with this egalitarian foundation would be arranged on the basis of the relative availability and competence of each partner in the performance of necessary household tasks.

Lois Hoffman’s (1960) investigation of 328 middle class families in Detroit concurred with the conclusions of Dyer and Blood and Hamblin. In all of the family units, each of which had at least one child in grade school, Hoffman found that working mothers participated less in the completion of household tasks than did their non-working counterparts. Conversely, the husbands of the former group shared more of the domestic chores than did those of the latter. Working wives and mothers made fewer decisions about routine domestic assignments, and their husbands assumed greater responsibility in that area. In addition, those wives who were employed had greater power in decision-making than did the non-working wives. It is important to note that these patterns are typical of the middle class in general, with the needs of the family usually being satisfied through cooperative planning and sharing of domestic and social functions. Nevertheless, even within the same socioeconomic class, Hoffman did discover significantly greater patterns of egalitarianism and shared power when the wife was employed outside the home. Mies (1954) also reported similar interpretations.
Scanzoni (1975) notes that well educated husbands who held white-collar occupations (i.e., managerial and professionals) were more inclined to hold egalitarian sex role norms and were more likely to support wives' employment than were blue-collar husbands. Scanzoni also found that white-collar husbands tended to disagree with the notion that wives should not have equal decision-making power in the family structure. Scanzoni's data were based on information reported by Middleton (1960), who studied forty husbands, comparing marital attitudes according to the respondents' occupation. Middleton found that husbands who were college professors and those employed as skilled craftsmen viewed themselves as possessing significant differences with regard to the relative dominance of husband and wife involving family decision-making. There appeared to be a higher level of egalitarian decision-making among professorial families than those of skilled workers. While the views of the wives were not investigated in this particular study, and self reports of family decision-making may be subject to various distortions, the findings do appear to support a theory linking educational level, occupation, and types of power structure within the family constellation.

Vankelovich (1974), in interpreting the meanings that work can have for individuals in different social levels, suggests that for the white-collar worker, an employed wife poses no threat, either to his role as provider or as the authority in his home. A wage-earning spouse would not appear to make his work and contributions to the maintenance and upkeep of the family any less valuable. In addition, the middle and upper status male is more likely to view a spouse's employment as an aid in increasing family financial resources, and enabling further opportunities
for personal growth, development, and self actualization. Traditional patterns, which view the husband as a patriarchal figure, are not as prevalent or as pervasive among the white-collar male as among his blue-collar equivalent. Undoubtedly, the higher levels of formal education attained and the more sophisticated thought processes correlated with higher socioeconomic status and white-collar education have much to do with these patterns. Mahoney (1966) also reported a significant positive relationship between the social status of the family (defined by the husband's occupation), the educational level achieved by the husband, the husband's attitude toward his spouse's employment, and the distribution of marital power, as defined by decision-making. Gillespie (1971), however, found fewer differences in the sharing of marital power among white-collar families as a function of wives' employment as compared to blue-collar families.

There have been several studies of a cross-cultural nature which tend to support the hypothesis that the employed spouse of the middle class husband maintains a greater degree of involvement in the family decision-making processes than her unemployed equivalent. In a study comparing French and American families on family interaction and wives' employment status, Michel (1970) examined the marital structure of a number of middle class families in both countries. Michel found the results to be the same in both cultures: wives who were employed shared decision-making to a greater degree than unemployed wives. The employed wives in Michel's sample were also assisted more in the performance and execution of household and domestic tasks than were those who functioned primarily as homemakers. Soffillos-Rothschil (1970), in examining other aspects of
Michel's findings, concluded that the working wives also were more satisfied with their marriages than were those who were unemployed. It must be remembered that the families under investigation were found in western, urban, industrialized cultures; the findings could possibly be quite different in more rural or agrarian societies. The lack of a working class control group also prevents these findings from being definitive. Notwithstanding these limitations, however, the data appear to support the thesis that among the higher socioeconomic strata, family power patterns do become more egalitarian when the wife assumes employment.

The assignment and completion of domestic chores has also been found to be significantly related to marital power and decision-making in middle class and upper class families. Blood (1965) saw that the middle class husbands of working wives were usually more involved in doing housework than the husbands of non-working wives. The needs of the family were usually satisfied through cooperative planning and sharing of domestic and social functions. Individual talents and areas of expertise, rather than a formal traditionally defined role assignment per se, determined the partner's functioning in different household activities. Blood (1965) also saw that significantly more of the employed wives were able to confide in their husbands on a wider number of topics and reported helpful and supportive responses from their spouses with regard to their everyday experiences. It would seem, then, that the equalization of power is accompanied by greater cohesiveness in the marital dyad.

Blood's results concur with earlier findings reported by Well (1961). Well investigated factors influencing a wife's actual or planned work participation by interviewing 200 middle class married women. All
of the subjects were either employed or were planning to enter the labor market at some time in the near future. Veil found that among the vital factors influencing actual or planned work, the husband's favorable attitude toward such activities and his willingness to assume responsibilities in managing household affairs assumed significant importance. Working wives also reported being involved in a happier marriage than those who remained only in the role of homemaker. In addition, the employed females interviewed by Veil felt that the additional income and stimulation received from outside employment helped to equalize the relative positions in their marriages. The more equal balance of resources that each partner managed to contribute to the relationship not only established a certain equilibrium in the marital structure, but also appeared to contribute to higher levels of marital cohesiveness.

Remington (1966) suggests that the higher educational and occupational status of the husband are expected to be positively associated with female labor force participation. One usually expects to find a strong, positive relationship between these factors and attitudes favorable to the employment of women. These men, who value self expression in work, are usually ambitious and sympathetic with their wives' desire to fulfill the potentials of their training, education, and competence. Similar conclusions were reached by King, McIntyre, and Axelson (1968). Ard (1971) feels that the rational communication patterns, tolerance for differing points of view, and the ability to articulate a variety of perspectives, characteristics typical of the middle class, all contribute to this relaxed attitude on the part of the husband. Hershey and Werner (1975), studying decision-making in the families of "liberated" and
"non-liberated" women, noticed that the former were seen as more dominant and self-reliant by themselves and by their families than the latter. Not surprisingly, the "libbers" were more prone to report being employed and being married to a white-collar husband than were the "non-libbers". In addition, their husbands reported a greater desire for an egalitarian marital pattern than did those married to "non-libbers".

**Marital Power: Blue-Collar Families**

Much of the literature examining wives' employment and decision-making in the blue-collar family arrives at conclusions similar to those studies of the white-collar family. Female employment, including the additional resources the female obtained from her occupation, is inclined to change the family structure to a more egalitarian one. The primary difference is that the lower status husband is more likely to feel threatened by the changes in decision-making than is his higher status equivalent. The working class husband, according to Komarovsky (1967), is more inclined to a patriarchal view of the family than is the middle class male. There are, of course, individual variations. Lower status blue-collar workers, such as unskilled and semi-skilled workers, are prone to be more patriarchal than higher status blue-collar workers, i.e. skilled craftsmen. Komarovsky feels that this is a result of relative levels of education attained among the various subgroups of the working class. The majority of blue-collar workers are inclined to feel that the wife's primary function is in the home and are often uncomfortable with the prospect of a spouse's employment. When a wife is employed, the male is often overcome by high levels of ambivalence. They welcome the additional income and the accruing advantages and opportunities derived from it, but
they don't like the reduced status and power in decision-making that accompanies a wife's entering the labor market.

Rather than being a tightly unified structure, the lower class family tends to be a relatively loose structure (Sanzoni, 1975b). Responsibilities appear to be formally divided between each of the marriage partners. Each is a specialist who relates to the other in a similar manner. For example, there is a sharp demarcation of roles according to whether the household chores are performed inside or outside of the home.

The finer lines of authority drawn in the lower class home serve not only to reinforce a pattern of psychological and emotional isolation, but also to maintain an emotional distance between spouses by limiting possible channels for communication (Komarovsky, 1967).

Available information (Leighton, Stoller, and Ferguson, 1971) suggests an inverse relationship between social status and the degree of responsibility assumed by the wife. Specifically, the lower class wife assumes relatively more duties than either the middle or upper status wife or the lower class husband. This becomes readily apparent in the area of family financial management. As socioeconomic status decreases, there is an increasing tendency to believe that earning money and deciding the manner in which it is spent is the man's responsibility. The wife's function is the actual purchasing. The husband's role in finances thus ends after delivery of his paycheck. It is certainly understandable that when a large portion of the income is expended on routine necessities (and this is often the case in lower income families), there is less need for joint functioning and egalitarian patterns in decision-making.
The great differential in the distribution of responsibilities and decision-making powers between the husband and the wife suggests that the husband in the lower income, blue-collar family tends to see himself as an undisputed authority whose decisions are to be obeyed without question. The male seems to conceive of his chief function within the marital dyad as providing financial support and directing the expenditure of the aforementioned funds. Obviously, when this self perceived position of authority is challenged by the female's entry into the labor force and her corresponding increase in resources, the blue-collar male will be threatened. Indeed, according to Scanzoni (1975b), blue-collar men are extremely likely to hold negative views about a wife's employment. One interpretation of this phenomenon is that the husband is likely to feel that the spouse's working can be interpreted by peers as a failure on the husband's part. Very often many of these men are reluctant to give up the status that has been associated with the traditional male role.

There have been other studies conducted that suggest Blood and Wolfe's resource theory. Gelles (1976), in investigating wife abuse in the New York City area, interviewed a number of women who had reported being beaten by their spouses and yet remained with them. In almost every instance, the wife admitted that a lack of personal resources (i.e., finances, employment) constituted the primary reason for staying in an unhappy and potentially destructive arrangement. All of the women interviewed were married to blue-collar men.

Whitehurst's (1963) study of eighty-three blue-collar couples in West Lafayette, Indiana, indicated that the husbands, in general, disapproved of a wife working outside of the home although the husbands of
employed women were not significantly more negative than those of unemployed wives. The working wives expressed greater power in decision-making at home in a greater number of areas. The working wives and their husbands were more inclined to agree that democratic procedures were used more frequently in their homes than in the other households being studied. Hitter and Philliber (1978), commenting on these data, remarked that the working wives in this sample managed to derive status benefits from their own occupational attainments independently of their husband's occupation. One is reminded of Yankelovich's (1974) comments that the wage earning wife's increases in power and status could appear to make the working class male's contributions less significant. For such a man, the spouse's changes often deprive him of the unique breadwinning function that is bound up in his concept and definition of masculinity.

There have been several studies of marital power conducted among subcultural groups in the United States. Robert Weller's (1968) survey of lower class neighborhoods in San Juan, Puerto Rico, found that female participation in the labor force was associated with the wife having increased influence in family decision-making. This increase in decision-making was also associated with lower fertility among working females. There also appeared to be a strong negative relationship between actual participation in the labor force and the woman's fertility. This relationship was seen by Weller as being closely related to an egalitarian family structure. One might conclude that the added resources and increased power that the female obtained from outside employment were extended to a wide number of areas, including that of family planning.
Oscar Lewis (1968) found in his survey of low-income Puerto Rican families living in New York City that the notions of machismo, or manliness characteristic of Latin cultures, make it difficult for husbands to accept the idea of a wife's seeking employment outside of the home. This was the case even when such income might be sorely needed. The husband in Lewis' sample were accustomed to being in control of the family in general and the finances in particular. The working wives involved in this study had obtained considerable freedom, both in decision-making and in arranging personal activities. The husbands resented this increased level of independence whereas the wives demanded a greater percentage of equal rights in the household. Murillo's (1969) study of the Mexican-American family also supported this trend. Murillo saw strains in family relationships occurring in male dominated Chicano society as greater numbers of wives become less willing to accept the traditional roles assigned them.

Marital Adjustment

The area of marital adjustment has suffered from a certain amount of confusion, often because of the unsystematic interchange of a variety of terms used to describe this phenomenon. These terms include: 1) marital success; 2) marital happiness; 3) marital satisfaction; and 4) marital adjustment. Some justification does exist for the overlap of these descriptions. Nevertheless, a certain amount of clarification is necessary in order to untangle a rather muddled situation.

Marital success has been assigned traditionally by the permanence of the marriage, the continued affection and companionship experienced
by both spouses, and the presence of well adjusted, happy children. Success is usually defined in terms of long term relationship measures. Marital happiness, by way of contrast, describes a couple's marital situation at a given point. As such, it is influenced to a high degree by transitory events, some of which may be of central importance to the marital relationship and others of which may be peripherally related. Marital satisfaction occurs in relation to categories of marital events rather than to highly specific areas of interaction and negotiation. It is possible, with this definition, to be satisfied with one area of married life and dissatisfied with another. Marital adjustment, the most specific term of the four, describes an evaluation of the individual's personal adjustment in addition to the pair's adjustment. This explicitly entails a perception of the manner in which both spouses perform on a number of tasks related to the marital situation.

Most couples are actively involved in achieving individual and pair adjustment on a variety of marital tasks throughout their married life. The adjustment that occurs includes a number of specific conditions or techniques. These include: a) agreement on the salience of each of the tasks; b) agreement on the intensity of each spouse's adjustment; c) agreement on the degree of flexibility each spouse is permitted in performance of his role in the adjustment process; and d) agreement on the priorities of each task relative to the others, as seen by each spouse (Clayton, 1975).

Marital Adjustment: White-Collar Families

Early studies of marital adjustment among white-collar, dual-work families are marked by a certain amount of ambivalence. Locke (1969),
for example, did not find any significant differences between the marital adjustment of wives who were occupied in fulltime employment and those engaged in fulltime homemaking. In addition, there were no significant differences found in levels of marital adjustment among the husbands of the two groups of wives. The small number of subjects in the study and the lack of details in describing and analyzing the data make the findings somewhat less than conclusive. Women engaged in professional capacities, for example, were not compared to those involved in clerical or paraprofessional activities. Educational level and a prior work history, both of which can influence marital adjustment and desire to seek employment, were not controlled. In addition, relevant characteristics of the husbands in the study were not examined.

Later studies tended to contradict the findings obtained by Locke. Nye (1957) found much higher levels of marital adjustment among working wives than among non-working wives. Nye also found significantly higher levels of marital adjustment among white-collar husbands of working wives than among blue-collar husbands of working wives. This supported an earlier hypothesis (Nye, 1951) that there would be higher marital adjustment among employed wives than among those who were unemployed. He also felt that the wives of men engaged in professional and managerial occupations would have significantly fewer problems in the area of marital adjustment than would their counterparts in the blue-collar family. A follow-up study performed a year later (1958) indicated that overall marital happiness among the working wives in the sample was greater than among those who were unemployed. Any conflicts in marital relations were usually balanced by other satisfactions, such as self-actualization, added income, and
Increased social contact outside of the family situation.

Perceptions of the working wife in white-collar families and their effects on marital adjustment have also been studied. Axelson (1961), investigating responses obtained from a large number of married couples, noted that working wives saw their employment as less threatening to the marital dyad than did non-working wives. The husbands of these employed women had perceptions similar to those of their wives. A significant number of both spouses in marriages in which the wife was unemployed viewed working women as a threat to the stability and the adjustment of the family. While this last point was found to be true among all social classes, it was less pervasive among the upper and middle class respondents, and more commonly found among the blue-collar families found in the sample. A later study (1963) by Axelson, gave further support to these findings. The husbands of employed women held more liberal views and were significantly less threatened by spouse's occupations than the husbands of non-working wives. Again, the white-collar husbands were found to have a significantly higher level of positive attitudes and perceptions than the blue-collar husbands. There is also evidence to show that these findings apply to different elements within the middle class. Axelson (1970), gathering data in Brevard County, Florida, examined the attitudes of sixty-seven black and 565 white males, all of whom were married to working women. A significantly higher proportion of the black males felt that the wife's employment and the ensuing advantages it brought was more necessary for marital adjustment than was true of the white males.

The husband's attitude toward his wife's employment status often determines the level of marital adjustment and satisfaction that the
couple will experience. Minahara (1975) found this to be true even among career oriented wives. One might expect to find the middle class husband, with his relatively sophisticated thought processes and relative freedom from stereotypical sex role norms, to be more favorably disposed toward his wife's employment (Renne, 1970). In addition, the white-collar husband might even be expected to report higher levels of marital adjustment with the wife being employed. This has been found to be true in a number of studies. Blood (1965) observed that significantly more employed wives were able to confide in their husbands and reported helpful or supportive responses from their husbands with regard to their everyday experiences. These results were found to be more true of the wives of white-collar than blue-collar husbands. The white-collar husbands of working wives were usually seen as being more involved in household activities than were their blue-collar equivalents. Those included the performance of housekeeping, such as shopping, cleaning, and child care duties. The middle and upper class husbands in Blood's study reported that they found very high levels of satisfaction within the marital relationship, and felt that any inconveniences occasioned by their spouses' employment were balanced by the accruing benefits.

Some slightly differing results were reported by Burke and Heir (1979). In their study, 109 couples separately completed lengthy questionnaires, examining: a) satisfaction with life; b) satisfaction with marriage and with their job; and c) the ability to communicate with the spouse. Fifty-three of the wives in the study were employed either full or part-time. All of the husbands were employed and acted in professional capacities. In general, the working wives were more satisfied with their
marriages and reported performing more effectively than did the non-working wives. The husbands of the working wives reported less marital adjustment and less effective performance than the husbands of non-working wives. Unfortunately, there was no analysis performed within the groups; the reader has no idea if the husbands of wives employed full-time experienced significantly different levels of adjustment than the husbands of those wives employed only on a part-time basis. In addition, there was no information reported on the occupational status of the wives; professionals and non-professionals were categorized together. Perhaps if these distinctions had been made, different conclusions would have been reached.

Orden and Bradburn (1969), in discussing the effects of a woman's work status on her marriage, suggest that the freedom to choose whether to seek employment is an important predictor of marital happiness; 781 husbands and 952 wives were interviewed. It was believed that there were usually three alternatives open to the wives: a) working in the home; b) working in the labor market; and c) engaging in leisure and/or volunteer activities. These researchers concluded that with opportunities being available and with preschool-age children absent from the home setting, the labor market choice was generally associated with higher levels of marital adjustment between husbands and wives. Gannon (1973), in reviewing this literature, was of the opinion that the level of job involvement of the wives was related both positively and significantly to the marital adjustment of the couple.

Ginnopulos and Howard (1977) also examined the ways in which the husband's attitudes toward a wife's employment affected the level of marital satisfaction. This study, conducted in Philadelphia, consisted of
three types of middle class married couples: a) wife employed with the husband approving; b) wife employed with the husband disapproving; and c) wife not being employed. The second group where the husband disapproved of this wife's employment status perceived the greatest amount of marital conflict and consequently, the lowest level of marital adjustment. Interestingly enough, this group could not even agree on the area of conflict to be discussed. The researchers concluded that in this category the feelings of the individuals involved were more important than the situational conflict factors.

There has been only one study of a cross-cultural nature involving marital adjustment and the employed female. Safilios-Rothschild (1970) studied a large number of middle class French families with the intent of gathering data on this subject. In her sample of 896 middle class families, 347 of the wives were employed whereas the remaining 549 served in the homemaking capacity only. The working females reported more satisfaction with their marriages, seeing them as more egalitarian. The non-employed wives reported less satisfaction with their marriages, and were of the opinion that lower levels of power in marital decision-making was partially responsible for these feelings of dissatisfaction. Unfortunately, none of the spouses were interviewed; the results of the wife's employment on the couple's level of marital satisfaction are, therefore, incomplete.

Arnott (1972) investigated some of the social norms that influenced the female's entrance into the labor market, and the ensuing effects on marital adjustment. Arnott contended that two trends were responsible for challenging the traditional role of wife-homemaker. These included
the fact that the dual role of homemaker and wage-earner was becoming more popular. The feminist movement also stressed the concept of autonomy for women. In both instances, Arnott contended that the husband's attitude is crucial in making adjustments required by the wife's employment. In the survey, 235 white-collar couples completed questionnaires evaluating attitudes regarding employment and marital adjustment. The results supported the hypothesis that husband-wife consensus on work leads to significantly greater adjustment when the wife sought employment. These same findings also proved to be true in a study conducted by Martin, Barry, and Jacobson (1975).

Individual needs, differences, and expectations will often influence both the anticipated and obtained levels of marital adjustment. Fengler (1973) found that youthful married couples, especially those just entering the married state, were more favorably inclined toward a wife's employment. This held constant regardless of educational or socioeconomic class factors. Fengler also found that among older couples, those who were more educated and occupied higher socioeconomic brackets were inclined to be more in favor of a wife seeking employment than older, less educated lower status couples. Age, obviously, is often crossed with other relevant variables. Roll (1973) suggests that couples who have less disparity in occupational role perceptions and the effects that these can have on marital expectations would probably have less difficulty in obtaining marital adjustment. Educational level and socioeconomic status are, according to Roll, both positively correlated with marital adjustment of a couple and the wife actively involved in employment.
Both full-time employment and the full-time housewife roles have costs and benefits. Wright (1976) feels that a control for the type of job and the wives’ educational level is necessary. Education creates competencies valued by employers, providing more job opportunities, more stimulating types of employment, and opportunities for better pay. The more highly educated women, involved in a career or a profession, would have the opportunity to use resources from outside employment to enhance and enrich current levels of marital adjustment. Hitter and Philliber (1978) concur with these conclusions, feeling that wives involved in careers derive significant amounts of status benefits from their own occupational attainments independently of their husbands’ occupations.

Marital Adjustment: Blue-Collar Families

There has been a minimal amount of research investigating marital adjustment in dual-work, blue-collar families. What does exist suggests that employed wives experience higher levels of marital satisfaction than do the non-employed, whereas the husbands of the former experience lesser levels of satisfaction than do the spouses of the latter (Nye, 1957). These findings were confirmed by more recent research conducted by Feree (1976, 1977), Collette (1969), Ridley (1973), and Booth (1977).

Several studies have indicated, however, that blue-collar employed wives can experience lesser levels of marital adjustment. Hurvitz (1964) noted significant levels of stress in dual-work, blue-collar families. Employed wives, in his opinion, often adopted middle class as a result of media exposure and then developed a number of self-deprecating and husband-deprecating attitudes. In addition, blue-collar husbands of employed women vary in their supportiveness and sharing in child care and
housework (Lea, 1974). Particularly interesting data were reported by Sonnenstein (1976). Wives' employment in this study was associated with higher levels of financial resources, but did not lead to increased levels of marital adjustment. Contributing to these low levels of adjustment were the limitations of blacks to use the added finances in purchasing better homes, the lack of assistance females obtained from their spouses in performing household tasks, and the male's perception of female employment as a threat to their masculine roles as providers. Evidently, a change in female employment status and the resultant increased income can have certain disruptive influences in the blue-collar home.

Length of the Marriage

The duration of time a couple has been married affects marital adjustment. Levels of adjustment tend to be inversely correlated with the length of the marriage. Especially noticeable is a decline following the first five years and continuing into the second decade (Burgess and Wallin, 1953). This decrease, reported as occurring usually after the birth of the first child, is reversed slightly following the departure of the youngest child from the home. It is felt that this negative relationship between marital adjustment and length of the marriage is a result of the pressures and strains that childrearing places on the couples (Feldman and Wallin, 1970).
CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

This study is designed to investigate the relationship of wives' employment to marital power and adjustment in dual-work families. Although marital power and adjustment are present in both dyadic types, specific variables may influence the effect of perceived levels of marital power and adjustment. Consequently, this investigation also is designed to assess marital power and adjustment as a function of these variables, wives' employment, socioeconomic status, and sex. Intervening variables in the study were length of the marriage, stage of the family life cycle in which wives' employment began, and the presence of children living at home. Essentially, the focus in this study was in assessing the role of female employment, or its absence, on both members of the dyad's responses to marital power and marital adjustment inventories.

The independent variables were the following: female employment status, family socioeconomic status, and sex. The dependent variables were the aforementioned perceived factors, marital power and marital adjustment. Responses were measured by two inventories which address the specific objectives defined for this study.

Sample

The sample for the study consisted of 240 married persons contacted in public places over a six-week period in November and December, 1979, in Columbus, Ohio, and Cleveland, Ohio.
Criteria

In order to control selected extraneous variables, the following criteria were used to select subjects for this investigation:

1) The subjects were a member of an intact marital dyad.
2) All husbands currently were employed fulltime.
3) In one-half (120) of the couples chosen for the study, the wife was employed fulltime; on the other hand, the wife was not employed.
4) At least one dependent child must have been living with the subject and spouse at the time of the wedding.
5) All subjects and their current spouses must have been married at least five years.

Selection

Public places selected for contacting subjects for this study were chosen on the basis of access to large numbers of subjects, and availability for the researcher. Potential subjects were first identified through visual observation, i.e. gold band on the ring finger of the left hand indicating a married individual. Individuals who refused to participate indicated either a general lack of interest or time to answer the questionnaires. Subjects who agreed to participate, conversely, indicated a certain degree of interest and felt they had sufficient time to participate.

Design of the Study

This investigation was designed as an ex-post-facto, descriptive, and correlational study. The purpose was to investigate the effect of wives' employment on perceived levels of marital power and marital
adjustment. The independent variables in the study were female employment status, family socioeconomic status, and sex of the respondent. The dependent variables in the study were perceived levels of marital power and marital adjustment. The intervening variables in the study were length of the marriage, percentage of the marriage the wife had worked, the reason the wife was employed, and the wife's level of job satisfaction.

For the purpose in this investigation, marital power was measured by the subjects' responses on a marital power scale, while marital adjustment was measured by the responses on a marital adjustment scale.

Procedures

Two hundred and forty married persons participated in this study, one hundred and twenty males and one hundred and twenty females. The subjects were equally divided into one of the following family categorizations: white-collar, dual-work dyads; white-collar dyad in which only the husband was employed; blue-collar, dual-work dyads; blue-collar dyads in which only the husband was employed. In this study all of the working female participants were employed on a fulltime basis and, in their opinion, all were pursuing careers. The data were collected over a six-week period, from mid-November to late December, 1979, in Columbus and Cleveland, Ohio. Subjects for participation were solicited in a number of public places, e.g. three parks, three city halls, two libraries, one state government building, three shopping centers, two courthouses, two bus terminals, two bars, three laundromats, two community centers, one fire station, and one barber shop.
Five hundred and eighty-two individuals were contacted to participate in the study; two hundred and forty volunteered. The subjects were approached by the researcher, who identified himself as a student at The Ohio State University, confirming this by showing his student identification card. The purpose of this survey, specific attitudes of married persons, was explained to the subjects. If any reluctance or discomfort became obvious, the subjects were informed that they were not required to reveal particular information. If they then indicated a willingness to participate, they read copies of the cover letter, signed the consent form, responded to verbal inquiries verifying criteria for inclusion in the study, and proceeded to respond to the two scales. The time for completing the scales was approximately ten minutes per subject. The researcher sat near the subjects, affording them privacy in answering the questionnaires while being close enough to assist in interpreting any questions. All subjects responded in an independent fashion; at no time did individuals married to one another answer the questionnaires in a joint fashion. Upon completion, subjects were thanked for participating in the study.

**Instrumentation**

The following two data collection instruments were used in this study: the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) and the Blood and Wolfe Decision-Making Scale of Marital Power (1958). These scales are described in the following section.

**Dyadic Adjustment Scale**

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale is a relatively new instrument of measurement. It is used to assess the quality of marriage and other
similar dyads. Subscales measure dyadic consensus, affectional expres-
sion, dyadic satisfaction, and dyadic cohesion. The tests were hand scor-
ed and the results recorded.

Nature and Purpose of the Test. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale, de-
veloped by Spanier at the Pennsylvania State University in 1976, has a
number of advantages. As an overall measure of dyadic adjustment, the
thirty-two-item scale has the following characteristics: it can be com-
pleted in a relatively short time; is only two pages in length; it can
be incorporated easily into a self-administered questionnaire; it can be
adapted for use in interview studies.

The scale is useful additionally since it permits researchers with
limited needs to use one of the subscales alone without losing confi-
dence in the validity or reliability of the measure. It has been struc-
tured to encourage the respondent to think about each of the items being
presented. The scale has a range of 0-151. Score of 0-75 indicate low
levels of adjustment; scores of 75-151 indicate high levels of adjust-
ment. There is a direct relationship between the scores and marital ad-
justment.

Validity of the Test. The items on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale
were evaluated by three judges for content validity. Items were includ-
ed only if the judges deemed the topics: (1) pertinent measures of dyad-
ic adjustment for current relationships; (2) consistent with nominal de-
finitions for adjustment; and (3) properly worded with appropriate fixed-
choice responses.
Fundamental emphasis was placed on the criterion-related validity. The scale was administered to a sample of ninety-four divorced persons and a married sample of 218. Each of the thirty-two items in the scale correlated significantly with the external criterion of marital status. Using a t-test for assessing differences between sample means, the divorced sample differed significantly from the married sample (p < .001) on each item. In addition, the mean total scores for the married and divorced samples differed significantly at the .001 level (Spanier, 1976).

In establishing construct validity, the Dyadic Adjustment Scale was correlated with other adjustment scales. The correlation between the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale was .06 among married respondents and .08 among divorced respondents (p < .001). Construct validity was further established through a factor analysis of the final scale. Four interrelated components, three of which had been hypothesized as components of adjustment, were found to exist. Thus, the scale appeared to measure the theoretical construct defined by Spanier.

Reliability of the Test. The reliability of the scale was determined for each of the component scales as well as for the total scale. This was established through the use of Cronbach's Coefficient alpha. The correlation for the Dyadic Consensus Subscale was .90; for the Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale was .94; for the Dyadic Cohesion Subscale was .86; and the correlation for the Affectional Expression Subscale was .73. The correlation for the total Dyadic Adjustment Scale was .96. These high correlations indicate satisfactory reliability.
The Blood and Wolfe Decision-Making Scale of Marital Power

The Blood and Wolfe Decision-Making Scale of Marital Power is used to assess which member of a marital dyad makes the final decision in each of eight specific topics in four major areas. Tests were scored and the results recorded. Scores range from eight to forty. Scores of eight to twenty indicate the wife possessing significantly greater power. Scores of twenty to twenty-eight indicate equal sharing of power. Scores of twenty-eight to forty indicate husband having greater power. There is a direct relationship between the scores and marital power.

Nature and Purpose of the Scale. The Blood and Wolfe Decision-Making Scale of Marital Power is an instrument designed for measurement, evaluation, and analysis of marital power. Marital power is ascertained by the subject's responses in four areas: family purchases; employment; choice of residence and recreation; and handling emergencies. The test is hand scored and may be answered in a period of several minutes.

Validity of the Test. Robinson and Shaver, in Measures of Sociological and Psychological Attitudes (1973), noted that the items in the test are based on four basic areas covered by most married couples—purchases, spouse employment, choice of residences, and medical emergencies. These topics were designated as adequate when marital power is defined as decision-making. However, specific validity data has not been established. Boros' Mental Measurements Yearbook (1972) does not list validity data for the Decision-Making Scale of Marital Power. The relationship between the test areas covered and the operational definition of marital power is an important criterion of validity. Therefore, the
assumption was made that the subjects' responses on the scale would be appropriate for the marital dyads participating in this study.

Reliability of the Test. Bahr (1972) reported reliability scores for both husbands and wives. The reliability scores for husbands was .86; the score for wives, .88. This indicated satisfactory reliability. Bahr did not report how reliability was established.

Data Analysis

The primary focus in this study was the systematic difference between dual-work versus single-work families on two dependent variables, marital power and marital adjustment. The female employment status, family socioeconomic status, and sex were the independent variables. The dependent variables were perceived levels of marital power and marital adjustment. Intervening variables were length of the marriage, the presence of children, and the stage of the family life cycle in which wives' work began.

The independent variable socioeconomic status was coded 1, white-collar or 2, blue-collar. The independent variable wives' employment status was coded 1, wife employed or 2, wife unemployed. The independent variable sex was coded 1, male or 2, female. The intervening variable, length of the marriage, was coded by a number varying from 5-25, indicating the number of years married. The intervening variable percentage of the marriage worked was expressed as a percentile. The intervening variable, reason worked, was expressed as 1, self interest; 2, financial need; or 3, need to get out of the house. The intervening variable, presence of children, was expressed as a raw score. The dependent variable
marital power was expressed through the appropriate number of marital power scale scores, while the dependent variable marital adjustment was expressed through the appropriate number of adjustment scores.

A three-way analysis of variance was performed on the data. This allowed the researcher to see whether there were overall differences among the levels of each independent variable, and whether there were any interaction between the independent variables effecting the dependent variables (Nuck, 1976). Correlations were run on three of the intervening variables. An analysis of covariance was also run on the one intervening variable shared by all cells, i.e. length of marriage.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study include the following:

1. The representativeness of the subjects chosen for the sample was restricted. Particular stipulations, e.g. age bracket, length of marriage, presence of children at home are the criteria for inclusion. Consequently, the subjects were selectively drawn. External validity, therefore, is limited to similar populations.

2. Design approach is cross-sectional rather than longitudinal. As a result, data is reported for only one time segment of the life span. Excluded may be other intervening factors or life events which modify the conclusions.

3. Generalizability is possible only to populations in communities with similar demographic characteristics.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF INVESTIGATION

In this chapter, the statistical findings of an investigation of differences in married persons' perceptions of marital power and marital adjustment as a function of female employment status, socioeconomic status, and sex are presented. The purpose in this investigation was fourfold: 1) to investigate the effect of female employment on perceptions of marital power and marital adjustment; 2) to investigate possible differences in perceptions among members of different socioeconomic classes; 3) to investigate possible differences in perceptions between the sexes; and 4) to investigate interactions between and among these three variables.

The independent variables in this study were wives' employment status, family socioeconomic status, and sex. Socioeconomic status was determined by the husband's occupation (Hollingshead, 1951). The intervening variables were the length of the marriage, the reason the wife was employed, the wife's reported level of job satisfaction, and the percentage of the marriage the wife had worked. The dependent variables were perceptions of marital power and marital adjustments.

Perceptions of marital power and marital adjustment were measured by the subject's performances on scales designed to measure these variables and were expressed in internal level numerical scores.
The data concerning perceptions of marital power and marital adjustment were analyzed by analysis of variance three-way classification to determine the correlation of the independent variables (wives' employment status, family socioeconomic status, sex) with the dependent variables (numerical scale scores measuring individual perceptions of marital power and marital adjustment). All analyses were run using Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS) computer programs. The .05 level of statistical significance was used to reject null hypotheses.

To present the results of this study, this chapter is divided into four sections: 1) descriptive data; 2) data analysis; 3) correlations on the intervening variables; 4) hypotheses tested; and 5) discussion.

Descriptive Data

Descriptive data concerning the mean ages, mean lengths of marriage, and mean numbers and ages of children residing with the subjects are provided in this section.

All subjects' ages were calculated as age attained during the period interviewed, November and December, 1979. The mean age for white-collar husbands married to working wives was 37.6 years. The mean age for white-collar husbands married to unemployed wives was 45.5 years. Blue-collar husbands married to employed wives averaged 38.6 years, while blue-collar husbands married to unemployed wives averaged 32.1 years of age. The mean age for employed wives of white-collar husbands was 38.0 years. The mean age for unemployed wives of white-collar husbands was 35.9 years. Employed wives of blue-collar husbands averaged 40.4 years of age (Table 1).
## TABLE 1

### Husbands Demographic Data

(N=120)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEMOGRAPHIC CATEGORIES</th>
<th>White-Collar Wives</th>
<th>White-Collar Wives</th>
<th>Blue-Collar Wives</th>
<th>Blue-Collar Wives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employed (N=30)</td>
<td>Unemployed (N=30)</td>
<td>Employed (N=30)</td>
<td>Unemployed (N=30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean   SD</td>
<td>Mean   SD</td>
<td>Mean   SD</td>
<td>Mean   SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average age (in years)</td>
<td>37.6   8.1</td>
<td>45.5   9.2</td>
<td>38.6   7.4</td>
<td>32.1   7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average length of marriage (in years)</td>
<td>12.6   6.8</td>
<td>13.7   7.2</td>
<td>14.7   6.5</td>
<td>14.6   5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of children at home</td>
<td>1.8   0.67</td>
<td>1.8   0.82</td>
<td>2.3   0.91</td>
<td>2.3   0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average age of children at home (in years)</td>
<td>10.7   5.2</td>
<td>11.4   5.6</td>
<td>10.9   5.7</td>
<td>11.5   4.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Wives Demographic Data

(N=120)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEMOGRAPHIC CATEGORIES</th>
<th>White-Collar Wives</th>
<th>White-Collar Wives</th>
<th>Blue-Collar Wives</th>
<th>Blue-Collar Wives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employed (N=30)</td>
<td>Unemployed (N=30)</td>
<td>Employed (N=30)</td>
<td>Unemployed (N=30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean   SD</td>
<td>Mean   SD</td>
<td>Mean   SD</td>
<td>Mean   SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average age (in years)</td>
<td>38.0   6.2</td>
<td>35.9   4.1</td>
<td>34.1   5.3</td>
<td>40.4   6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average length of marriage (in years)</td>
<td>15.5   2.4</td>
<td>14.0   4.1</td>
<td>11.0   3.7</td>
<td>14.9   4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of children at home</td>
<td>1.2   0.85</td>
<td>2.6   0.92</td>
<td>1.9   0.87</td>
<td>1.2   0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average age of children at home (in years)</td>
<td>12.6   2.3</td>
<td>11.1   4.3</td>
<td>10.8   3.3</td>
<td>12.1   2.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All subjects' lengths of marriage were calculated as length attained during the period interviewed, November and December, 1979. The mean length for white-collar husbands married to working wives was 12.6 years. The mean length for white-collar husbands married to unemployed wives was 13.7 years. Blue-collar husbands married to employed wives averaged 14.7 years, whereas blue-collar husbands married to unemployed wives averaged 14.6 years. The mean length for employed wives of white-collar husbands was 15.5 years. The mean length for unemployed wives of white-collar husbands was 14.0. Employed wives of blue-collar husbands averaged eleven years, whereas unemployed wives of blue-collar husbands averaged 14.9 years (Table 1).

The average number of children currently living with the couple was calculated during the period interviewed, November and December, 1979. The average number of children living with white-collar husbands of employed wives was 1.8. The average number of children living with white-collar husbands of non-employed wives was 1.8. Blue-collar husbands married to employed wives had an average of 2.3 children living with them, whereas the average number of children living with blue-collar husbands of non-employed wives was 2.3. The average number of children living with working wives of white-collar husbands was 1.2. The average number of children living with the unemployed wives of white-collar husbands was 2.6. Working wives married to blue-collar husbands had an average of 1.9 children living with them, while unemployed wives married to blue-collar men had an average of 1.2 children residing at home.

The average age of the children currently living with the parents was calculated during the period interviewed, November and December, 1979. The average age of the children living with white-collar husbands
of employed wives was 10.7. The average age of the children living with white-collar husbands of unemployed wives was 11.4 years. The average age of the children living with blue-collar husbands of employed wives was 10.9 years, whereas the average age of the children living with blue-collar husbands of unemployed wives was 11.5. The average age of the children living with employed wives of white-collar men was 12.6 years. The average age of the children living with the unemployed wives of white-collar men was 11.1 years. The average age of the children living with the employed wives of blue-collar men was 10.8 years, whereas the average age of the children living with the unemployed wives of blue-collar men was 12.1 years (Table 1). Based on these descriptive findings, the subgroups in the study are comparable.

Data Analysis

This section includes the analysis of the independent variables, sex, socioeconomic status, and wives' employment, to the dependent variables marital power and marital adjustment. Two separate Three-Way Analyses of Variance (Anova) were performed to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

A Three-Way Anova indicated that all three main effects were significant with respect to the dependent variable, marital power. Examination of the means indicated that the males had significantly higher power scores than females, and blue-collar had significantly higher power scores than did white-collar, but this accounted for little of the variance ($\eta^2=.266, p<.01$). Also, power scores were significantly higher when the wife was employed than when the wife was unemployed ($\eta^2=.266, p<.01$). In the two-way interactions investigated only the interaction between sex,
socioeconomic status, and wives' employment status proved to be significant, but accounted for little of the variance.

A Three-Way ANOVA indicated that of the three main effects (sex, socioeconomic status, wives' employment status), none were significant with regard to the dependent variable, marital adjustment. In the two-way interactions investigated, only the interaction between sex and wives' employment status was found to be significant, but this accounted for little of the variance ($\eta^2=.016$). In the three-way interaction investigated, the interaction between sex, socioeconomic status, and wives' employment status proved to be significant, but accounted for little of the variance ($\eta^2=.01$, $p<.01$).

Two separate Three-Way Analyses of Covariance (ANCOVA) were then performed. The Three-Way ANCOVA investigating the effects of the intervening variables on the relationship of marital power indicated that no relationship existed between the length of the marriage and marital power, whereas the second Three-Way ANCOVA indicated that only a weak relationship existed between the length of the marriage and marital adjustment. The effects of the intervening variables on marital power and marital adjustment were the same as in the ANOVA, indicating that the intervening variables had little effect on marital power and marital adjustment. For these reasons, only the Three-Way ANCOVA results will be presented.

**Correlations in the Intervening Variables**

Correlations were performed among the intervening variables in this study that applied only to the employed wives' groups. Briefly stated, only moderately significant, positive correlations were found
between socioeconomic status and marital power and levels of job happiness and marital power.

The moderate positive correlation between socioeconomic status and marital power indicates that the higher socioeconomic classes have higher levels of marital power than do the lower classes. The significant positive correlations between levels of job happiness and marital power indicates that those with a high level of job happiness experience higher levels of marital power.

Hypotheses Tested

This section includes the research hypotheses tested in the investigation and the significant statistical findings related to each hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: Employed wives, regardless of socioeconomic status, will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than unemployed wives.

Data analyses of group mean scores on the dependent variables by analysis of variance did not provide statistical support for Hypothesis 1 (Table 2). The F value was significant ($F=4.19$, df=1, $p<.04$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was rejected. Employed wives perceived themselves as having higher levels of adjustment than did unemployed wives on one of the dependent variables of the study (perceived levels of marital adjustment).

Hypothesis 2: Employed wives, regardless of socioeconomic status, will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital power than unemployed wives.
## Table 2
### Analysis of Covariance
#### Marital Adjustment

| Source of Variation          | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F     | Significance of F | $\eta^2$ | $\%

| Source of Variation          | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F     | Significance of F | $\eta^2$ | $\%

| Sex                          | 24.06          | 1  | 24.06       | .01   | .90               | .00      | .00 |
| Socioeconomic Status         | 660.01         | 1  | 100.01      | .39   | .53               | .00      | .00 |
| Wife's Employment Status     | 2954.01        | 1  | 2954.01     | 1.73  | .18               | 5.2      | .0029 |

| Source of Variation          | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F     | Significance of F | $\eta^2$ | $\%

| Sex - Socioeconomic Status   | 2760.81        | 1  | 2760.81     | 1.62  | .20               | 4.4      | .0025 |
| Sex - Wife's Employment Status | 7150.41       | 1  | 7150.41     | 4.19  | .04               | 22.68    | .012 |

| Source of Variation          | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F     | Significance of F | $\eta^2$ | $\%

| Sex-Socioeconomic Status - Wife's Employment Status | 3652.33       | 2  | 3652.33     | 1.07  | .04               | 16.23    | .009 |

**ERROR**                  | 1704.68           | 1704.68 | 1704.68 | 1752.75 |
Data analyses of group mean scores on the dependent variable by analysis of variance did not provide support for Hypothesis 2 concerning wives' employment status and perceived levels of marital power (Table 3). The F value was significant ($F = 4.304$, $df = 1$, $p < .039$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was rejected. Employed wives perceived higher levels of power than did unemployed wives.

Hypothesis 3: Middle class employed wives will not perceive themselves as not possessing higher levels of marital power than do working class employed wives.

Data analysis was performed by analysis of variance on the dependent variable (marital power). Results were non-significant and provided support for Hypothesis 3 (Table 3) ($F = 6.366$, $df = 1$, $p < .012$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 failed to be rejected. Middle class employed wives did not perceive themselves as having greater power than working class employed wives.

Hypothesis 4: Middle class employed wives will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than do working class employed wives.

Data analysis was performed by analysis of variance on the dependent variable (marital adjustment). Results were non-significant and provided support for Hypothesis 4 (Table 2) ($F = 1.07$, $df = 2$, $p < .04$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 failed to be rejected for middle class employed wives did not perceive themselves as having greater adjustment than working class employed wives.

Hypothesis 5: Working class employed wives will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital power than do working class
unemployed wives.

Data analysis was performed by analysis of variance on the dependent variable (marital power). Results were significant and provided support for Hypothesis 5 ($F = 4.304, \, df = 1, \, p < .039$) (Table 3). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was rejected. Working class employed wives perceived themselves as possessing higher levels of marital power than did working class unemployed wives.

**Hypothesis 6:** Working class employed wives will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than do working class unemployed wives.

Data analyses of group mean scores on the dependent variable (marital adjustment) by analysis of variance provided statistical support for Hypothesis 6 ($F = 4.19, \, df = 1, \, p < .04$). Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was rejected (Table 2). Working class employed wives perceived themselves as possessing significantly higher levels of marital adjustment than did working class unemployed wives.

**Hypothesis 7:** The husbands of employed women, regardless of socioeconomic status, will not perceive themselves having less power than will the husbands of unemployed women.

Data analyses of group mean scores on the dependent variable (marital power) provided statistical support for Hypothesis 7 (Table 3). The $F$ value was significant ($F = 4.304, \, df = 1, \, p < .039$). Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was rejected. The husbands of employed women perceived themselves as possessing significantly lower levels of marital power than did the husbands of unemployed women.
### Table 3

**Analysis of Covariance**

**Marital Power**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance of F</th>
<th>$\eta^2$</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Main Effects</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>196.204</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>196.204</td>
<td>16.449</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>.7678</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socioeconomic Status</td>
<td>319.704</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>319.704</td>
<td>26.803</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wives' Employment Status</td>
<td>2835.937</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2835.937</td>
<td>237.758</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>11.763</td>
<td>.30</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Two-Way Interactions</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex - Wives' Employment Status</td>
<td>51.337</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>51.337</td>
<td>4.304</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>.00</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Three-Way Interactions</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex - Socioeconomic Status - Wives' Employment Status</td>
<td>75.937</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>75.937</td>
<td>6.366</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>.266</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ERROR** 11.93  

**SUM** 38.103
Hypothesis 8: Middle class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves having less power than will working class men married to employed women.

Data analysis of group mean scores on the dependent variable (marital power) by analysis of variance did not provide statistical support for Hypothesis 8 (Table 3). The F value was significant ($F = 6.366, df = 2, p < .012$). Therefore, Hypothesis 8 was rejected. Middle class men married to employed women perceived themselves as having significantly less power than working class men married to employed women.

Hypothesis 9: Middle class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves having less power than will middle class men married to unemployed women.

Data analysis of group mean scores on the dependent variable (marital power) by analysis of variance did not provide statistical support for Hypothesis 9 (Table 3). The F value was significant ($F = 4.306, df = 1, p < .039$). Therefore, Hypothesis 9 was rejected. Middle class men married to employed women did see themselves as having less power than middle class men married to unemployed women.

Hypothesis 10: Middle class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves as having higher levels of marital adjustment than will middle class men married to unemployed women.

Data analysis of group mean scores on the dependent variable (marital adjustment) by analysis of variance did not provide statistical support for Hypothesis 10 (Table 2). The F value was significant ($F = 4.19, df = 1, p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 10 was rejected. Middle class men married to employed women saw themselves as having higher levels
of marital adjustment than middle class men married to unemployed women.

Hypothesis 11: Working class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves having less power than will working class men married to unemployed women.

Data analysis of group mean scores on the dependent variable (marital power) by analysis of variance did not provide statistical support by Hypothesis 11 (Table 3) \( (F=4.304, df=1, p<.039) \). The F value was significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 11 was rejected. Working class men married to employed women perceived themselves as having less power than working class men married to unemployed women.

Hypothesis 12: Working class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves as possessing lower levels of marital adjustment than will working class men married to unemployed women.

Data analysis of group mean scores on the dependent variables (marital adjustment) by analysis of variance did not provide statistical support for Hypothesis 12 (Table 3). The F value was significant \( (F=4.19, df=1, p<.04) \). Therefore, Hypothesis 12 was rejected. Working class men married to employed women perceived themselves as possessing lower levels of marital adjustment than working class men married to unemployed women.

Discussion

Exploring the possibility of existing relationships between the wife's employment and marital power as well as marital adjustment had provided the impetus not only for the development of theory, but also empirical studies. Social exchange theory, specifically Blood and Wolfe's
resource theory, is particularly useful in explaining the reasons for the relevance of the wife's employment to these variables. Briefly, Blood and Wolfe state that through employment, a wife can increase her capabilities for additional economic, social, and emotional contributions to the marital dyad. Consequently, this would increase her level of power. Bahr's (1974) examination of the research in this area concurs and elaborates on the implication that the employment of the wife also may provide additional opportunities and significant alternatives which would be unavailable to the housewife.

Scanzoni (1970) has noted that there appears to be a gradual shift away from preferences for traditionally accepted gender differentiation in many marital dyads. In contemporary society, greater numbers of women view employment as a right, as well as a necessity, rather than merely an option as they did previously. This change in female status often stimulates increased participation in household duties on the part of the husband. As a result, an alteration in the male's marital adjustment level may occur.

In this study, there were three major independent variables in which significant differences were noted among the various married subjects. The research involving these variables, the family's socioeconomic level and the wife's employment status and gender of the respondent, provide a considerable number of insights into the diverse perceptions of marital power and marital adjustment that exist among dual-work and single-work marital dyads. The existing literature on marital power and marital adjustment is principally demographic. It offers considerable research support and insight into both the analysis and interpretation germane to the impact of these variables.

A significant proportion of the extant research indicated that varying norms relative to marital power and decision-making processes exist among different socioeconomic groups (Middelton, 1960; Yankelovich, 1974;
Seanzoni, 1975). In general, wives of higher status husbands (white-collar occupations) tend to possess greater amounts of negotiating power than do the wives of lower status husbands (Seanzoni, 1978). By the same token, upper and middle class families appear to be more equalitarian prior to the assumption of female employment than do the lower class (Seanzoni, 1975).

Blue-collar families, by contrast, are inclined to be considerably more patriarchal in structure than are those of the middle class (Komarovsky, 1967). Responsibility appears to be somewhat rigidly divided between the marriage partners, each being a specialist who tends to perceive the other in a similar fashion (Komarovsky, 1967). Under these circumstances, one can readily understand the absence of mutual functioning and egalitarian patterns in decision-making.

The wife's entrance into the labor market has a significant effect on these decision-making patterns in both classes. The equalitarian patterns already existing in the white-collar dyad become even more pronounced. This is also true in blue-collar families. As the wife increases her personal resources by entering the labor market, her influence is increased dramatically. Democratic procedures become used more frequently in the home than was previously the case (Whitehurst, 1963). Marital power appears to be positively correlated with marital adjustment for wives and for blue-collar husbands.

Bohr (1974) suggests that the effects of female employment on marital decision-making processes are particularly noticeable among the lower classes. Blue-collar wives have a tendency to gain significantly greater amounts of power via employment than do white-collar wives. While this conclusion may appear incongruous, it should be noted that, prior to
employment, blue-collar wives possessed little or no power. On the other hand, their upper class equivalents have always had marital power in significant amounts. It follows, therefore, that any gain for the former should be significant, while those of the latter simply represent an increment. In this study, these conclusions were not validated. While employed wives reported significantly higher levels of power than unemployed wives, no significant differences were reported in levels of marital power between the white-collar and blue-collar employed wives in this sample. Perhaps the impact of employment and the accruing benefits derived thereof are more influential in affecting perceptions of marital power than are socioeconomic class norms.

The wife’s entrance into the labor force, and the accompanying increase in marital power accruing to her, has an effect on the husband’s perception of his role in decision-making. The husband’s level of marital power tends to be negatively correlated with the wife’s level; as hers increases, his diminishes (Bahr, 1974). This is particularly noticeable among the lower classes. Blue-collar husbands have a tendency to lose significantly greater amounts of power when their wives are employed than do white-collar husbands. It follows logically, therefore, that any decrease in power for the blue-collar should be significant, whereas for the white-collar this represents a slight diminution of little importance. This conclusion, however, was not validated in the study under discussion. Evidently, socioeconomic class norms regarding the male’s role in family decision-making influence blue-collar husbands in this study to a greater degree than does female employment.

Investigative research indicates that generally female employment and marital adjustment are positively correlated for wives. Nye (1951,
1957, 1958) found higher levels of marital adjustment among working wives than among non-working wives. Socioeconomic class traits have some influence in these situations. White-collar employed wives report higher levels of marital adjustment than do their blue-collar counterparts (Nye, 1957; Axelson, 1961; Blood, 1965; Renne, 1970). It appears that the attitudes of the husbands toward the wives' employment are of considerable importance in this respect. White-collar husbands tend to hold more liberal views and are significantly less threatened by a spouse's employment than are their blue-collar equivalents (Blood, 1965). Under these circumstances, one would logically expect the wives of the former to possess significantly higher levels of adjustment than would the wives of the latter. Blue-collar husbands, whose wives are employed, are prone to be more supportive of their wives than are the blue-collar husbands of non-working women (Blood, 1965).

In this study, several of the conclusions listed in the preceding paragraph were supported. The employed wives in the sample did perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital satisfaction than did the unemployed wives. Furthermore, in a comparison of employed versus unemployed wives in the same socioeconomic strata, the former reported higher levels of adjustment than did the latter. This is consistent with the existing literature.

The influence of socioeconomic class attitudes is evident in the examination of the relationship between female employment and the husband's perceived level of marital adjustment. Nye (1950) felt that marital adjustment was higher among white-collar husbands of working wives than among their blue-collar counterparts. Axelson concurred with these findings (1961). In addition, the white-collar husband has also been
found to report higher levels of marital adjustment than his blue-collar counterpart when the wife has been employed. Blood (1965) observed that significantly greater numbers of white-collar men married to working women reported greater involvement in housekeeping activities. On the other hand, although blue-collar husbands welcome the additional economic benefits derived from the wife's employment, they are frequently ambivalent about the apparent reduction in status and power in decision-making that accompanies a wife's entrance into the labor market. Nye (1978) has confirmed these findings.

All the findings cited in the preceding paragraph were supported in this research. Middle class men married to employed women did perceive themselves as experiencing significantly higher levels of marital satisfaction than did men of the same class whose wives were not employed. In the lower class sample, those men whose wives were employed indicated lower levels of marital adjustment than did the lower class men married to unemployed wives.

Socioeconomic class norms regarding marital power and marital adjustment appear to have little influence upon the perceptions of the employed females in this study. The advantages, benefits, and opportunities obtained through employment appear to be more important for these women than are social class mores. These differences, however, do appear to be significant for the male participants in this study. Egalitarian principles, typical of the middle class, appear to have influenced the perception of the white-collar husbands, while the patriarchal norms espoused by the lower classes possibly had a strong influence on the responses of the blue-collar husbands. Thus, this study might indicate a need to examine class-sex differences in examining the impact of wives.
employment.
CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose in this investigation was four-fold: 1) to investigate the effect of female employment on perceptions of marital power and marital adjustment, 2) to investigate possible differences in these perceptions among members of different socioeconomic classes, 3) to investigate possible differences in these perceptions among members of different sexes, and 4) to investigate interactions between and among these variables.

Therefore, the independent variables in the study were family socioeconomic status, wives' employment status, and sex. Family socioeconomic status was determined by the husband's occupation. The dependent variable in the study was perceptions of marital power and of marital adjustment. The intervening variables in the study were the length of the marriage, the reason for the wife's employment, the wife's reported level of job satisfaction, and the percentage of the total marriage timespan for which the wife had worked.

Two hundred and forty married persons participated in this study; one hundred twenty males and one hundred twenty females. An equal number of subjects were selected for each of the following categorizations: white-collar, dual-work dyads; white-collar dyads in which only the husband was employed; blue-collar, dual-work dyads; blue-collar dyads
In which only the husband was employed. All of the working female sub-
jects were employed on a fulltime basis, and in their opinion, all were
pursuing careers. One of the criteria was a marriage in existence for
a minimum of five years and a maximum of twenty-five years. An addition-
al criterion for selection was the presence of at least one child resid-
ing in the home. The data were collected over a six-week period, from
mid-November to late December, 1979, in Columbus and Cleveland, Ohio.
Subjects for participation were solicited in a number of public places,
e.g. parks, libraries, schools, laundromats, shopping centers, bus termi-
inals, and municipal buildings.

In this study, the perceptions of marital power were measured on a
Blood and Wolfe Decision-Making Scale of Marital Power, while perceptions
of marital adjustment were measured on the Spanier Dyadic Adjustment
Scale. The results were expressed as numerical scores which indicated
varying levels of power and adjustment. Relevant demographic data were
collected through a personal interview questionnaire designed specifical-
ly for the purposes of this study.

The data relevant to the marital power and marital adjustment
scores were analyzed by a three-way analysis of variance to determine the
relationship of the independent variables (family socioeconomic status,
sex, and wives' employment status) with the dependent variables (numerical
scores on marital power and marital adjustment). Two separate three-
way analyses were performed for each dependent variable. Correlations
were performed on the intervening variables. All analyses were run using
Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS) computer programs. The .05 level of
statistical significance was the criterion used to evaluate the data.
Results of the hypotheses testing and data analyses are presented below:

Hypothesis 1: Employed wives, regardless of socioeconomic status, will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than unemployed wives.

Significant differences were found on the dependent variable.

Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was rejected. Employed wives perceived themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than unemployed wives.

Hypothesis 2: Employed wives, regardless of socioeconomic status, will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital power than do unemployed wives.

Significant differences were found on the dependent variable.

Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was rejected. Employed wives perceived themselves as possessing higher levels of marital power than did unemployed wives.

Hypothesis 3: Middle class employed wives will perceive themselves as not possessing higher levels of marital power than do working class employed wives.

No significant differences were found on the dependent variable.

Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 4: Middle class employed wives will perceive themselves as not possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than do working class employed wives.
No significant differences were found on the dependent variable. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 5: Working class employed wives will perceive themselves as not possessing higher levels of marital power than do working class unemployed wives.

Significant differences were found on the dependent variable. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was rejected. Working class employed wives perceived themselves as possessing higher levels of marital power than did working class unemployed wives.

Hypothesis 6: Working class employed wives will perceive themselves as not possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than do working class unemployed wives.

Significant differences were found on the dependent variable. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was rejected. Working class employed wives perceived themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment.

Hypothesis 7: The husbands of employed women, regardless of socioeconomic status, will not perceive themselves as having less marital power than will the husbands of unemployed women.

Significant differences were found on the dependent variable. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was rejected. The husbands of employed women perceived themselves as having less marital power than the husbands of unemployed women.

Hypothesis 8: Middle class men married to employed women will not regard themselves as having less marital power than will working class men.
married to employed women.

Significant differences were found on the dependent variables. Therefore, Hypothesis 8 was rejected. Middle class men married to unemployed women perceived themselves as having less marital power than working class men married to employed women.

Hypothesis 9: Middle class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves as lower in marital power than will middle class men married to unemployed women.

Significant differences were found on the dependent variables. Therefore, Hypothesis 9 was rejected. Middle class men married to employed women perceived themselves as lower in marital power than middle class men married to unemployed women.

Hypothesis 10: Middle class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than will middle class men married to unemployed women.

Significant differences were found on the dependent variables. Therefore, Hypothesis 10 was rejected. Middle class men married to employed women perceived themselves as possessing higher levels of marital adjustment than middle class men married to unemployed women.

Hypothesis 11: Working class man married to employed women will not perceive themselves as lower in power than will working class men married to unemployed women.

Significant differences were found on the dependent variable. Therefore, Hypothesis 11 was rejected. Working class men married to employed women perceived themselves as lower in power than working class men.
married to unemployed women.

Hypothesis 12: Working class men married to employed women will not perceive themselves as possessing lower levels of marital adjustment than working class men married to unemployed women.

Significant differences were found on the dependent variable. Therefore, Hypothesis 12 was rejected. Working class men married to employed women perceived themselves as possessing lower levels of marital adjustment than working class men married to unemployed women.

Implications

Implications for family practitioners include the following:

1) Full-time employed appeared to enhance, rather than detract from, the marital adjustment of women in this study. Marital adjustment among lower income husbands, however, appeared to be affected negatively by wives' employment. Practitioners need to find new and better ways of integrating the career-oriented female role into the formal marital structure, particularly that of the lower socioeconomic class.

2) In the typical family, the wife's level of participation in household duties usually decreases upon entry into the labor market. The degree of job commitment is negatively correlated with her participation in household labor. Unless the other family members demonstrate a willingness to assist in this endeavor, either personally or through hiring outside help, greater stress will be incumbent on the female. As a consequence, the wife's level of marital or individual happiness may diminish. Socialization of the spouse and
children to contribute greater amounts of time and energy in the completion of household duties would help alleviate this problem.

3) Female entrance into the labor market has a greater effect on lower-class family structures than on those of the middle class. Specifically, full-time employment of the wife influences the marital adjustment of the husband. The lower status male, accustomed to a rigid definition of appropriate masculine role behaviors, find the assumption of traditional female roles stressful. Participation in housekeeping duties, child care, and child socialization could produce subsequent deleterious effects on the dyad's longevity. The use of quality day care facilities could alleviate some of this tension. The practitioner could also seek to demonstrate alternative methods of viewing the problem, i.e. doing housework does not make one any less male.

4) Differences in perceived levels of power and adjustment could lead to increases in stress and conflict for dual-career dyads. To alleviate such conditions, family practitioners can provide group experiences for dual-career couples. Dyads sharing common problems could come to feel a sense of commonality. Problem groups would also be helpful as a way to pool knowledge and systematize information on available resources. Groups could also be devised of couples at differing stages of the life cycle. These could provide anticipatory socialization experiences for younger couples. Mutual sharing of ideas can increase coping skills for all group members.

Suggestions for Future Research

Suggestions for future research include the following:
1) Increase the representativeness of the sample. The method of data collection utilized in this study, i.e., contacting and interviewing of subjects in a variety of public places, was selected for its obvious accessibility to respondents, speed of administration, and prompt return of the results. This stringent control over the acquisition of data, however, limits the representative nature of the sample. Married persons who do not frequent certain of the public places which served as survey areas, such as laundromats and bus terminals, had no opportunity to participate in this study. The use of random sampling procedures, such as the selection of subjects through census tracts, city directories, or telephone directories, would increase the likelihood that a more representative sample could be drawn for studies related to this type of investigation.

2) Longitudinal rather than cross-sectional study. One major limitation of this research, similar to many investigations in the behavioral sciences, was the use of cross-sectional rather than the longitudinal approach. In this research, the latter, while reflecting a more accurate report over a relatively longer time span, would have proved impractical; cost factors and the possible attrition of subjects through divorce, death, or mobility necessitated the use of the cross-sectional approach. Had a longitudinal research design been employed, a comparison of certain subjects on both dependent variables prior to the wife's entry and during employment could have been effected. Other subjects, moreover, could have been tested on those identical variables during the wife's
employed time and also the post-employed period. Had the opportunity for those types of studies been available, a more comprehensive set of conclusions could have been drawn. Other familial events, such as death, illness, national and local economic conditions that influence the family's fiscal standing and accompanying changes in employment status could be controlled for through the usage of the longitudinal approach.

3) Include part-time employment of the wife as one of the categories of subjects in the study. All the working wives who participated in this research were employed on a full-time basis. They perceived themselves as career oriented. The decision was made to restrict the sample only to those women who were pursuing a career in an effort to simplify the experimental design. Inclusion of marital dyads in which the wife works on a part-time basis, however, would further clarify the impact of female employment upon marital power and adjustment. In addition, this categorization would increase a further isolation of the effects of the independent variables.

4) Include childless couples among the categories in the study. The presence of one child residing at home was a requirement for participation in the study. The criterion was devised especially by the researcher as a control for the level of stress caused by the presence of children upon a marital dyad. The comparison of childless couples with those who have children could prove particularly insightful in determining the respective levels of marital adjustment characteristic of each group. Furthermore, couples in the postpar-
also with childless couples for the same purpose. Compilation of the sets of data derived from those parallel groups would represent a more comprehensive approach.

5) Limiting participation in future research to marital dyads in which the respondents for each cell are married to one another. The subjects participating in this study were not required to be married to other respondents. If this factor were controlled far more rigorously, researchers could not only compare and contrast the perceptions of different social classes, but also the perceptions, attitudes, and views of the spouses in each cell. These data would, in effect, reflect the comparative views of the husband and wife in a particular dyad, thereby adding a further dimension to the research.

6) Degree of generality of conclusions. The sample was drawn from two large metropolitan areas in a midwestern state. Factors controlled for were socioeconomic status; length of marriage; employment status of the wife; and the presence of children residing with parents. These findings, therefore, apply to that population from which the sample was selected. Insofar as the findings agree with similar studies of marital power and marital adjustment, they may be considered to have greater generalizability. Choosing respondents from a wider variety of residential areas, such as the suburbs, and rural districts might be indicative of the applicability of these results to other types of subjects, by regions. Future studies of this nature should focus on the derivation of data not only from varied groups, but also from less restrictive demographic areas.
7) The employed females participating in this study perceived themselves as pursuing a career. Wives who were employed for reasons other than a career orientation were excluded from participation in this study. Future research, therefore, could focus on comparisons between and among dual-work and dual-career dyads as well as dual-career and single-career dyads. A further dimension would thereby be added to the research.

8) Two socioeconomic classes, middle and working class, served as one of the primary subdivisions in this study. One might wonder as to the impact of female employment on lower class marital dyads. In addition, particular ethnic and/or racial subgroup norms regarding appropriate sex role behavior undoubtedly have an effect on perceptions of marital power and adjustment. Inclusion of these factors in a research design could further clarify the effects of female employment upon marital power and adjustment.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


APPENDIX A

HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE FORMS
1) In a sentence or two, briefly describe why the proposed project is of interest. The intent of this question is to give the reviewer a brief idea of the background and purpose of the research.

Women are entering the labor force in increasing numbers every year. Very little research has examined the impact this activity might have on marital power and adjustment. In fact, no research endeavor has examined this from the perspective of both spouses in different social classes.

2) Briefly describe each of the different conditions or manipulations to be included within the study.

Two groups of families will be surveyed. One group will have the wife working outside the home and the other will not have the wife working outside the home.

3) What is the nature of the measures or observations that will be taken in the study?

Paper and pencil questionnaires

4) If any questionnaires, tests, or other instruments are to be used, please provide a brief description and either include a copy or indicate approximately when a copy will be submitted to the committee for review.

The questionnaires investigate perceptions of marital power, marital adjustment, and gather demographic data on the participants.
5) Will the subjects encounter the possibility of either psychological, social, physical or legal risk? □ yes □ no If so, please describe.

Psychological: Pretesting has indicated that there are no questions that are upsetting to family members.

Legal: All information is anonymous.

Social: All subjects will be invited to participate. No family members will know how any other responds. All questions will be anonymous.

6) Will any stress be involved in the study? □ yes □ no If so, please describe.

See question 5.

7) Will the subjects be deceived or misled in any way? □ yes □ no If so, please describe and INCLUDE A STATEMENT REGARDING THE NATURE OF THE DEBRIEFING.

8) Will there be any probing for information which an individual might consider to be personal or sensitive? □ yes □ no If so, please describe.

Subjects will be informed that they may omit any questions that they do not wish to answer.

9) Will the subjects be presented with materials which they might consider to be offensive, threatening or degrading? □ yes □ no If so, please describe.

10) Approximately how much time will be demanded of each subject?
Twenty minutes.

11) Who will be the subjects in this study? How will the subjects for this study be solicited or contacted?

Residents of Columbus, Ohio. Subjects will be contacted in public places (i.e., stores, libraries, restaurants, laundromats) chosen in selected parts of the city.

12) What steps will be taken to insure that the subject's participation is voluntary?

The subjects will be invited to participate, and if they express an interest, a consent form will be provided. In no case will an subject be required to participate, and in every case, a consent form will be provided for the subject's signature.
It is important that a subject be informed regarding the general nature of what he will experience when he participates in a study, including particularly a description of anything he might consider to be either unpleasant or a risk. Please provide a statement regarding the nature of the information which will be provided to the subject prior to his volunteering to participate.

See attached "Instructions to Participants."

What steps have been taken to insure that the subjects give their consent prior to participating? Will a written consent form be used? □ Yes □ No. If so, please include it. If the subjects are minors, will their parents' consent be obtained? □ Yes □ No. If so, please include the form and if not, please indicate why not.

Written consent from be attached. See attached "consent form."

Will any aspect of the data be made a part of any permanent record that can be identified with the subject? □ Yes □ No.

Will whether or not a subject participated in a specific experiment or study be made a part of any permanent record available to a supervisor, teacher or employer? □ Yes □ No.

What steps will be taken to insure the confidentiality of the data?

All subjects will return their questionnaire immediately upon completion to the interviewer. Neither consent forms nor any identifying information will be attached to the questionnaires. The consent forms will be collected separately from the questionnaires.

If there are any risks involved in the study, are there any offsetting benefits that might accrue to either the subject or society?

Although there are no risks involved, these research findings should help policymakers in both the private and public sectors better integrate families with the world of work.

Will any data from files or archival data be used? □ Yes □ No.
APPENDIX B

CONSENT FORM
Parents Permission for Participation

I __________________ (name of parent) freely and voluntarily consent to participate in a research project concerned with husbands and wives' perception of family life. Specifically, the purpose of the study is to obtain information from husbands and wives concerning attitudes and behaviors in your family life. The research is to be performed under the direction of Dr. Jean Dickerscheid who is authorized to use the services of others in the performance of the research.

The procedure is as follows: I will complete a paper and pencil questionnaire (the questions will be multiple choice or fill-in-blank). I understand that I will not put my name on any material that is to be returned to the researchers.

I understand that my participation is completely voluntary and I have the privilege of not participating in the project or ceasing to participate at any time. However, due to the anonymity of the questionnaire, it will be impossible to withdraw the data once I have turned it in.

I understand that any further inquiries I make concerning this procedure will be answered. I understand my identity will not be revealed in any publication, document, recording, videotape, photograph, computer data storage, or in any other way which relates to this research.

Date ___________________________ Signature ___________________________
APPENDIX C

SPANIER DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE
PLEASE NOTE:

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These consist of pages:

95-97
APPENDIX D

THE BLOOD AND WOLFE DECISION-MAKING SCALE OF MARITAL POWER
The Blood and Wolfe (1960) Decision-Making Scale of Marital Power

In every family somebody has to decide such things as where the family will live and so on. Many couples talk such things over first, but the final decision often has to be made by the husband or wife.

5 = Husband always
4 = Husband more than wife
3 = Husband and wife exactly the same
2 = Wife more than husband
1 = Wife always

A. Who usually makes the final decision about what car to get?
   5 4 3 2 1

B. Who usually makes the final decision about whether or not to buy some life insurance?
   5 4 3 2 1

C. Who usually makes the final decision about what house or apartment to take?
   5 4 3 2 1

D. Who usually makes the final decision about what job the husband should take?
   5 4 3 2 1

E. Who usually makes the final decision about whether or not the wife should go to work or quit work?
   5 4 3 2 1

F. Who usually makes the final decision about how much money your family can afford to spend per week on food?
   5 4 3 2 1

G. Who usually makes the final decision about what doctor to have when someone is sick?
   5 4 3 2 1

H. Who usually makes the final decision about where to do on a vacation?
   5 4 3 2 1