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DUAL-EARNER MARRIAGES: THE FAMILY SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT AND DYADIC ADJUSTMENT AMONG COUPLES WITH VARYING PATTERNS OF OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT

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Becky Thomas Heath

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ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this study was to examine differences in dyadic adjustment and the family social environment among four groups formed on the basis of husband-wife patterns of occupational commitment. A secondary purpose of the study was to examine relationships among selected sociodemographic characteristics and differences among groups. The sample was composed of 92 marital dyads living together with at least one child under the age of 18. Both husband and wife worked outside the home 35 or more hours per week.

The independent variable of occupational commitment was measured by the Occupational Commitment Scale developed by the researcher. On the basis of occupational commitment scores, each dyad was classified into one of the following groups: (a) wife high and husband high; (b) wife low and husband low; (c) wife high and husband low; and (d) wife low and husband high. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) and the Family Environment Scale (Moos, 1974) were used to measure the dependent variables. Sociodemographic information was collected by using a Personal History Inventory developed by the researcher. Multivariate analysis of variance with spouse as a repeated measure was used to examine differences among groups, and multivariate analysis of covariance was used to control possible sources of variance attributable to sociodemographic characteristics.

Groups that were formed on the basis of husband-wife patterns of occupational commitment differed on dyadic adjustment and the family social environment. Although groups differed on the composite of dependent variables, differing emphasis in the family environment on achievement of individual family members was instrumental in accounting for overall differences among groups. In addition, groups differed on dyadic adjustment and the family social environment even when sociodemographic variables reflective of the stage of the family life cycle (age, years married, number and ages of children) were held constant; in this analysis, differing emphasis on achievement of family members and on family system organization were important contributors to overall differences among groups. The group in which both husband and wife scored high on occupational commitment, the dual-career couples, placed greater emphasis on both achievement and organization than did the other three groups.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Although work and family traditionally have been treated as separate arenas of research (Ridley, 1973), the interface between the working lives and the personal lives of people in this society is of growing concern to families, researchers, managers, and policymakers. One reason for this concern is that the proportion of married women in the labor force has increased substantially in the last several decades, indicating that many women expect to combine family life with work outside the home. Recent statistics reveal that the majority of working women are married and that approximately 1/3 of all employed women have children under the age of 18 (Smith, 1979).

Research which is focused on the interactive nature of the work-family relationship should increase understanding of women's ability to exercise their fullest capacities in career roles. Despite the increased number of women in the labor force, the proportion of women in the highest ranking professions has remained static and in some cases declined (Theodore, 1971). Although women constitute almost half of the work force (Glick, 1979), only about 6% occupy management or administrative jobs; at the executive level, men outnumber women 600 to 1 (Biles & Pryatel, 1978). Paloma,

Pendleton, and Garland (1981) concluded that, given our contemporary cultural habits, marriage and children create a dysfunctional situation for career women. For example, in a study of women with doctorates, family role demands were found to be associated inversely with professional status. Married women with children were found in lower ranking professional positions more often than single or childless women (Broschart, 1978). Similarly, Epstein (1971) pointed out that the incidence of single women who have advanced to the top of their professions has been significantly greater than the incidence of married women. Coser and Rakoff (1971) suggested that "the small representation of women in the professions and in high-status positions is a logical consequence of women's cultural mandate which prescribes that their primary allegiance be to the family" (p. 535).

The perceived effects of women's career involvement on family relationships also has generated widespread controversy. The media have reflected popular concern over the possible relationship between rising divorce rates and the increased employment of wives. Although factors such as greater economic independence probably are instrumental, the higher divorce rate for females occupying professional positions relative to the general population rate (Berman, Sacks, & Lief, 1975) may reflect the difficulties involved when couples attempt to maintain a viable family life while

pursuing careers that require a high degree of professional commitment. In contrast, advocates of women's rights have argued that women's labor force participation can improve conditions within the nuclear family that have been viewed as particularly oppressive to women. Although Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) suggested that attempting to optimize self-interest in both work and family spheres need not be analyzed in psychopathological terms, more specific descriptions of families which combine high work commitment with family life are needed.

The dual-career family represents one of several family types which can be identified when describing work-family patterns; Young and Willmont (1975) referred to the dual-career lifestyle as the "symmetrical" family pattern; Scanzoni (1976) described it as the "equal partner" marriage; and Fogarty, Rapoport, and Rapoport (1971) classified it as "continuous." Rapoport and Rapoport (1972) defined the dual-career family as one in which both husband and wife hold jobs which are highly salient, have a developmental sequence, and require a high degree of professional commitment. Rapoport and Rapoport (1972) pointed out that in postindustrial society, the emphasis increasingly is on partnership in family life; in addition, dual-career families seek to maximize the sharing of benefits external to the family. In contrast to dual-worker families, dual-career families are distinguished by the high commitment

of both husband and wife to work and a life plan that involves relatively full participation and advancement in work (Fogarty, et al., 1971). Rather than working primarily for added income, both husband and wife have high achievement aspirations and seek to exercise their fullest capacities in their respective occupations (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1981).

Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1981) pointed out that the goal of the dual-career arrangement is not to destroy marriage but instead to "change marriage so that the partners can fulfill individual aspirations unhindered by gender-role stereotypes and traditional ideas about divisions of labor" (p. 358). Even though dual-career families currently are a minority, "it is an emerging form--a life-style that may very well represent the wave of the future" (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1981, p. 359).

Rationale

Rapoport and Rapoport (1978) pointed out that the concept of the dual-career family has "theoretical significance and empirical validity in three contexts: the relationship between family and occupation, variant patterns in the social change process, and sex-role issues in contemporary society" (p. 44). According to Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1981), out of all the new varieties of marital arrangements, the dual-career marriage is the one most

likely to replace traditional marriage as we have known it. However, "past research hardly has touched these populations or addressed the structure and relationships in these families" (Rallings & Nye, 1979, p. 223). Because of the enormous implications for family life and the larger society, it seems important that greater research efforts be devoted to the dual-career family (Berardo, 1981).

Traditionally, researchers in the field of family studies have been interested in studying the quality of marital relationships. Because marital satisfaction has been found to be a highly significant component of life satisfaction for married men and women (Glenn, 1975), investigation of the quality of marriage seems logical. However, results of studies designed to examine the relationship of employment of the wife and the marital relationship largely have been inconclusive. Discrepant findings reported in the literature may be explained, in part, by several conceptual and methodological deficiencies which become apparent upon careful analysis of previous research.

First, there has been a frequent lack of attention to variables such as attitudes and perceptions of family members which may serve to mediate the relationship between the dual-career structure and family relationships. Although commitment of both husband and wife to career roles is an integral part of the definition of the dual-career family, most investigators have failed to differentiate

between families in which work is highly salient to both husband and wife and families in which work is viewed simply as a job. There is some evidence that career salience and the ability to choose whether or not one will work is related to the quality of the marital relationship. For example, Lewis and Spanier (1979) suggested that "job satisfactions give wives a sense of meaning and worthiness which may generalize to greater satisfactions with their marriages" (p. 280). In addition, Aldous, Osmond, and Hicks (1979) pointed out that women's level of occupational commitment must be specified in order to determine the relationship of female employment to women's acceptance of their husbands' occupational performance.

On the limited occasions when researchers have attempted to make the important distinction between dual-career and dual-work families, it usually has been done by specifying occupational categories or educational groupings of participants, thus failing to assess the personal salience of work. Methodological weaknesses such as using a single item to measure commitment to work and classifying couples as either dual-work or dual-career solely on the basis of information obtained from wives also are common in the literature.

The frequently used single-variable approach to the study of dual-career families also partly may account for the inconclusive research findings which have been generated.

Recently, there has been growing interest in a multidimensional approach to the study of marriages and families as researchers seek to develop a more comprehensive and realistic picture of the complexity of family life; the goal is to move beyond simplistic descriptions using single variables. Moos and Moos (1976) developed a typology of family social environments which can be described by common sets of dimensions. According to this typology, each family system varies in the emphasis given to (a) relationships among members, including emphasis on cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict; (b) personal growth, including emphasis given to independence, achievement, intellectual-cultural orientation, recreational orientation, and moral-religious orientation; and (c) system maintenance, including the emphasis given to organization and control. Moos and Moos (1976) suggested that "the extent to which the family's personal growth goals will be realized probably depends, in part, on the extent to which relationship and system-maintenance dimensions are emphasized" (p. 368). It seems reasonable to assume that certain family environments may be more conducive to successful enactment of the dual-career lifestyle than others.

Statement of the Problem

The primary purpose of this study was to examine relationships among patterns of husband-wife occupational

commitment, dyadic adjustment, and the family social environment. Specifically, the objective was to determine if there was a difference in dyadic adjustment or the family social environment in relation to occupational commitment and/or spouse. A secondary purpose of the study was to investigate possible relationships of sociodemographic variables to differences among groups formed on the basis of various patterns of husband-wife occupational commitment. Sociodemographic variables of age, years married, number of children, ages of children, education, hours worked per week, years spent in present type work, and salary were selected for examination.

Theoretical Framework

The symbolic-interaction framework served as the theoretical basis for this study. Burgess (cited in Nye & Berardo, 1966) defined the family as a unity of interacting personalities; the family is conceived of as a network of interrelated roles and intimate communication. According to Schvaneveldt (1966), "nearly all of the concepts in the interactionist approach refer to the action and/or interaction in relation to the internal processes in the family" (p. 109). The term "interaction" describes a process, and family members are viewed as active, rather than passive, in adapting to situations in which they are placed. Although a great deal of previous research on dual-career families has been

focused upon the difficulties families face as a result of meshing career and family demands, such difficulties are not inevitable if family members are viewed as being capable of actively changing their internal environments in response to external situations. Berardo (1981) suggested that the emphasis in future research on families should move toward "an investigation of how they manage, or sometimes even thrive, on life's hardships" (p. 252).

Because dual-career families defy normative gender-role prescriptions by expressing strong equalitarian attitudes, the symbolic-interaction concepts of "role-making and "role-taking" seem especially applicable. Although interactionists view societal norms as influencing attitudes about appropriate and inappropriate role behaviors for husband and wife, these norms are not viewed as being culturally determined. Instead, role relationships are viewed as evolving primarily out of interaction with significant others. During the process of interaction, a person anticipates how a particular behavior will be viewed by the other and alters his/her behavior accordingly (role-taking). When these behaviors become patterned and recurrent, changes in role-expectations (role-making) can be said to have occurred. Because each person defines him/herself in a social context with significant others, changing gender-role relationships would be expected and would be viewed as functional if these new relationships resulted in greater individual satisfaction.

Within the symbolic-interaction framework, perceptions of the individual are considered to be of primary importance because each person interprets the actions of each other and of him/herself in relation to his/her definition of the situation. According to Rallings and Nye (1979), "the truly significant data in any consideration of human activities are the subjective assessments of the meaning of that activity to the persons involved" (p. 209). In the present investigation it was assumed that feelings about one's work, specifically perceptions that both husband and wife have about commitment to their occupations, may have more influence on marital adjustment and the family environment than the dual-work family structure per se.

From the perspective of symbolic-interactionists, it is assumed that an effect on one partner in the relationship always will influence the other; in addition, it is assumed that the relationship is something more than the personalities that comprise it (Schvaneveldt, 1966). Out of varying patterns of husband-wife commitment to occupational roles, families may evolve different types of family environments and different perceptions of their marital relationships. In this study, <u>patterns</u> of husband-wife occupational commitment were the focus.

Nominal Definitions

In this study, the dual-career marriage is defined as one in which both husband and wife exhibit high occupational commitment. This definition differs from previous research in which investigators classified dual-career couples on the basis of occupational position or educational level.

Occupational commitment is defined as the degree to which a person considers paid employment outside the home as a central life interest and the degree to which job performance is viewed as central to self-esteem. Expectations of future employment, career aspirations, perceptions of occupational competence, and satisfaction with present employment are viewed as being components of occupational commitment.

Dyadic adjustment is defined as an individual's perception of the quality of the marital relationship which involves satisfaction, cohesion, consensus, and affectional expression. It is conceptualized as a changing process with a qualitative dimension that can be evaluated at any point in time on a dimension from well-adjusted to maladjusted (Spanier, 1976).

Family environment is defined as the social milieu of a family which involves differing emphasis on relationships among members, system maintenance, and directions of personal growth. The relationship dimension of the family

environment is conceptualized as the extent to which family members feel that they belong to and are proud of their family, the extent to which there is open expression within the family, and the degree to which conflictual interactions are characteristic of the family. System maintenance involves the structure or organization within the family as well as the degree of control exerted by family members. Personal growth is conceptualized as the emphasis within the family on certain developmental processes which may be fostered by family living. Specifically, these processes include independence, achievement orientation, active recreational orientation, moral-religious emphasis, and intellectual-cultural orientation (Moos, 1974).

Sociodemographic characteristics are defined as factors in a person's background or present situation that are viewed as being unique to the individual. In this study, the sociodemographic variables include age, gender, length of marriage, number and ages of children, years spent in present type work, number of hours worked per week, education, and salary.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Occupational involvement and family life often have been conceptualized as important but segregated domains of life. For example, Skolnick (1973) described how the family has become idealized as the haven of intimacy, affection, and expressiveness, whereas the world of work is characterized as instrumental, competitive, and impersonal. Partly as a result of this conceptual dichotomy, work groups and the family generally have been treated as separate areas of research interest (Ridley, 1973). Although there seems to be agreement that family and work are linked in broad ways, "the specific intersections and transactions . . . between occupations and families as connected organizers of experience . . . are virtually ignored" (Kanter, 1977, p. 7).

From a broad historical perspective, ideas concerning the separation of work and family may be a relatively recent phenomenon. Rapoport and Rapoport (1965) pointed out that prior to industrialization, work and family life were far less segregated than they are today. Because dual-career families seek to merge the expressive and instrumental domains of life, they are "enabled in a contemporary way to recreate, in a sense, the feeling of coparticipation found in the preindustrial family" (Orthner, 1981, p. 192). The

concept of the dual-career family as one in which both husband and wife pursue careers and also maintain a family life together first was introduced into the literature in 1969 by Rapoport and Rapoport. Since that time, there has been a growing interest in linkages between occupational and family spheres as investigators seek to understand more about ways in which members of this new and significant family form function to facilitate career pursuits of both husband and wife.

The Rapoports' (1969) descriptive study of British dual-career couples heavily influenced later research and probably still stands as the most encompassing research in the area. The couples in their sample were found to manifest a strong egalitarian ideology and a high degree of partnership in family life. Advantages of the lifestyle, such as increased income, stimulation afforded the wife, and a closer relationship between father and children, were found to accrue; however, numerous and complex stresses of the lifestyle also were identified. The Rapoports examined motivational factors influencing adoption of the lifestyle as well as management strategies which allowed successful maintenance of the pattern. The Rapoports' research was followed closely by several other exploratory studies which helped to advance understanding and stimulate research on the variant dual-career pattern (Epstein, 1971; Garland, 1972; Holmstrom, 1972; Paloma, 1972; Paloma & Garland,

1971). More recently, research has been focused on testing certain hypotheses derived from the early exploratory studies; a major emphasis in these studies has been on stresses experienced and management strategies employed by dual-career couples. Satisfactions and dissatisfactions with the lifestyle, division of labor in the household, power relationships between husband and wife, sex-role attitudes, role conflict among women, and occupational constraints on successful maintenance of the lifestyle have been additional areas of research interest.

Two general areas of research have been identified as being particularly relevant to the present study. Particular attention is devoted to variables which may serve to moderate the relationship between the dual-career family structure and the quality of marriage. The second general area includes research on the personal, interpersonal, and family system characteristics which may affect adoption and successful maintenance of the lifestyle.

Relationships Among Marital Quality, Sociodemographic Variables, and Occupational Commitment

Although satisfaction in both work and family spheres has been identified as an important component of overall life satisfaction for men and women, the estimated contribution of marital happiness seems to be far greater than the contribution of work (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell,

Converse, & Rodgers, 1976; Glenn & Weaver, 1981). Therefore, it seems reasonable that a substantial number of investigations reported in the literature have been concerned with the relationship between occupational involvement, particularly employment of the wife, and the marital relationship.

The Relationship Between Wives' Employment and Marital Relationships

Spanier (1976) pointed out that the concept of marital adjustment probably has been the most frequently studied variable in the field of family studies. However, there is a lack of clarity concerning the meaning and use of terms such as satisfaction, adjustment, happiness, and success. Lewis and Spanier (1979) suggested that the term "marital quality" be employed to encompass terms which represent qualitative dimensions and evaluations of the marital relationship. In addition to the fact that terms such as satisfaction, happiness, and adjustment have conceptual overlap, they also are highly correlated at the empirical level. Although the term "marital stability" generally refers to whether or not the marriage remains intact, Lewis and Spanier argued that the quality of the marriage relationship is the primary determinant of whether or not a marriage will remain intact. The majority of studies in the dual-career literature have been focused on the concept of "marital satisfaction," which generally has been used to refer to

the subjective emotional responses of the individual concerning his/her marital relationship.

Based upon published research, few definitive conclusions can be reached concerning the relationship between wives' employment and marital relationships. According to Scanzoni and Fox (1980), "there has been continuing uncertainty whether or not the wife's employment has positive, neutral, or negative effects on the husband's and the wife's satisfaction levels" (p. 752). A comparison of Burke and Weir's study (1976a) and a later replication by Booth (1977) illustrates discrepant research findings reported in the literature. Burke and Weir concluded that although employment contributed to women's sense of personal growth and fulfillment, their husbands were in poorer health and were less content with marriage, work, and life in general than were husbands of housewives. Booth criticized Burke and Weir's study on the basis of procedural and methodological difficulties and obtained very different results, especially for the husbands of employed wives; in Booth's study, husbands of working wives evidenced no more signs of marital discord and stress than did spouses of housewives.

The elusive nature of the concept of satisfaction may help to account for the discrepancies found in the literature. According to Spanier and Lewis (1980), one of the most significant developments in marital research in the

70's was the recognition that the quality of marriage is a multidimensional phenomenon. Hofferth and Moore (1979) suggested that the concept of satisfaction probably incorporates both positive and negative aspects, allowing for the possibility that working women may experience both greater tensions and greater satisfactions that nonworking women. Lending empirical support to this hypothesis, Orden and Bradburn (1969) concluded from their investigation that the dual-career lifestyle is associated with both satisfactions and strains. Similarly, McNamara and Bahr (1980) found marital role satisfaction and marital role stress to be separate dimensions. According to Rapoport and Rapoport (1972), "each family works out for itself whether the 'costs' of pursuing the variant life career of a dual-career family--in any of its various forms--is worth it to them in relation to the 'benefits' they derive" (p. 238).

Potential Moderating Effects of Socioeconomic Variables

The failure of some researchers to consider variables other than the employment/nonemployment dichotomy may have contributed to the lack of comparability of findings as well as to methodological and conceptual difficulties encountered when studying marital quality. Bebbington (1973) concluded that when marital unhappiness is experienced, it is not because it is an inherent property of the dual-career family structure. Some evidence exists that variables such as stage of the family life cycle (with the correlates of age,

ages of children, and duration of marriage); educational level of the wife; and employment level (part-time or full-time) of the wife may moderate the relationship between employment status of the wife and marital satisfaction.

It seems important to distinguish between part-time and full-time employment of women when studying the relationship between employment and indicators of the quality of the marital relationship. Women who are employed part-time have been found to have higher satisfaction with marriage than those who are employed full-time or those who are not employed; in addition, husbands of these part-time employed women also have been found to experience higher marital satisfaction (Orden & Bradburn, 1969). Based upon a review of research findings, Rallings and Nye (1979) advanced the following theoretical propositions: (a) "the relationship between employment and marital satisfaction for the wife-mother is curvilinear, with the highest level for the part-time employed" (p. 211); and (b) "part-time employment of wives positively influences marital satisfaction of husbands" (p. 214). Because a large percentage of employed women work only part-time (Rallings & Nye, 1979), researchers who have failed to control adequately for level of employment of the wife may have obscured important findings which would help to advance understanding of the relationship between wives' employment and the marital relationship.

The relationship between employment of wives and marital quality also has been confounded by lack of attention to sociodemographic variables other than the wife's level of employment. For example, Nye (1974) concluded that in early studies, slightly more marital problems were found when the mother was employed; however, most of the differences reported occurred at lower socioeconomic levels. Staines, Pleck, Shepard, and O'Connor (1978) summarized 13 studies and concluded that "the decrement in marital adjustment of dual wives relative to housewives is greater among less educated than among better educated wives" (p. 92). Based upon examination of data from two national surveys, Staines et al. (1978) found that although working wives displayed lower marital adjustment on two of four global measurements (wishing they had married someone else and having thought about getting a divorce), the difference was constricted when controls for family life cycle and education were introduced. Specifically, the negative effects of wives' employment were restricted to wives with less than a high school education and to mothers of preschool children. Similarly, Orden and Bradburn (1969) found that the decision of the wife to work strained the marriage only if there were preschool children in the family. Recently, Faver (1981) concluded that women who were young, single, childless, or beyond the preschool family stage were more likely to express high career values.

The Relationship Between Occupational Commitment and Marital Quality

Because the crucial element distinguishing the dual-career family from other family structures is the high commitment of both husband and wife to work (Fogarty et al., 1971), some of the discrepancies reported in previous research can be eliminated partly by a clearer differentiation between families in which work occupies a central place in the lives of both husband and wife and families in which work is viewed primarily as paid employment. Although Locksley (1980) failed to find any differences in the marital adjustment of couples in which the wives were highly interested in their work and those in which wives worked solely for added income, other investigators have suggested that level of commitment to work may be a crucial variable for understanding the impact of employment on family life. Safilios-Rothchild (1970) found that there was no general difference in the degree of marital satisfaction between working and nonworking women. However, those women with high work commitment reported higher marital satisfaction than women who were not employed outside the home. Holohan and Gilbert (1979b) distinguished between "job" and "career" women on the basis of a question concerning commitment to their work. In this study, life satisfaction scores indicated that the career group received comparably high satisfaction from the four roles of worker, spouse, parent, and

self as a self-actualizing person. Similarly, several authors have speculated that full career participation and satisfaction with work may enhance positive aspects of the couple's relationship. For example, Kemper and Reichler (1976) pointed out that satisfaction with his occupation may increase a husband's satisfaction with his marriage partly because he does not demand so much from it. Similarly, lessened demands on the wife may increase her marital satisfaction.

It also has been suggested that over-involvement in individual career pursuits at the expense of family obligations may be related negatively to marital quality (Bailyn, 1970; Ridley, 1973). Aldous et al. (1979) proposed a curvilinear influence of husband's occupational success and marital satisfaction; based upon this "success constraint theory," too much or too little occupational success will result in lower satisfaction with marriage. Apparently, men in middle-level occupations have enough income to legitimate their family participation without having so many competing time demands to limit this participation.

Although most of the research reviewed here was concerned only with the career involvement of either husband or wife, examining patterns of husband-wife occupational commitment may be crucial in determining the relationship between work involvement and the marital relationship. For example, when discussing the effects of women's employment

on men's work and families, Aldous et al. (1979) suggested that wives' employment may modify the relationship between husbands' success and marital satisfaction. Further, these authors suggested that the commitment of women to their work must be specified to determine their acceptance of husbands' occupational participation and the effects of this participation on the marital relationship.

Several investigators have pointed out that the marriage-work partnership of couples who both have high career commitment can enhance a sense of purpose within the marriage and create the potential for greater communication between husband and wife (Epstein, 1971; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1972). According to Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1976),

> the mere fact of their both being active in the economic-opportunity systems can result in . . . common intellectual interests, associates . . . plus the exchange of counsel, advice, criticisms, and suggestions in the empathic spirit that can occur between persons equally involved in career achievement goals. (p. 291)

Although high commitment to work offers the opportunity for enhancing marital relationships, greater instability also may result. Aldous et al. (1979) pointed out that although women's career involvement may make women more accepting of the husband's preoccupations with work, these women probably would not be satisfied with marriages in which their husbands left them with the majority of the family responsibilities. Implied in this line of reasoning is the idea that different patterns of husband-wife commitment

to work may have important implications for successful family functioning.

Occupational commitment should be considered as a crucial intervening variable when examining the relationship between work and quality of the marital relationship. Further, there is some evidence that it is not sufficient to consider only the wife's commitment or only the husband's commitment; instead, patterns of husband-wife commitment to their work must be examined. These patterns of occupational commitment may have significant implications for the quality and stability of the marital relationship as well as for the types of family environments which are created.

Need for the Study of the Dual-Career Family Social Environment: Theoretical and Empirical Literature

Many of the early studies reported in the dual-career literature were focused upon the stresses uniquely associated with maintenance of this particular lifestyle. Rapoport and Rapoport (1978) noted that these stresses have been conceptualized in varying ways by different researchers;

> these concepts include dilemmas, overload, normative, cycling, network, and identity; conflicts between earlier and later norms, home and work expectations, ideals and feelings; barriers, domestic isolation, sex-role prejudices and stereotypes; and problems such as the wife finding an appropriate job, getting a work situation with flexibility to accommodate to domestic requirements, competing with members of the opposite sex . . . , keeping personal aspirations within limits that the marriage can tolerate, and arranging domestic help and child-care services. (p. 47)

More recently, investigators have been interested in why people adopt the stressful dual-career pattern and ways in which different families cope with the inevitable strains which arise. Why some families are able to cope successfully and others are not remains a question worthy of future research efforts.

In an attempt to understand the stress experienced by dual-career families, Bebbington (1973) reexamined the Rapoports' data and compared these data with information obtained from couples in traditional partnerships. Bebbington stated, "given the fact that contemporary families experience considerable strains but that they nevertheless choose voluntarily to live this way . . . the basic question arises as to why they do so" (p. 539). Consistent with the interactionist view of the processional nature of family life, Bebbington postulated that maintenance of the dual-career lifestyle depends on the acceptability of stress which continually is under review as the lifestyle progresses. In contrast to popular connotations of the word "stress," Bebbington argued that stress is not inevitably undesired. He made the distinction between two different types of stress: (a) that arising from an unsatisfactory resolution of conflict between ideals and behavior and (b) that arising from intrinsic properties of the lifestyle though ideals and behavior may be consistent. This distinction is important because dissonance would be present in the first type

of experienced stress but not in the second; consequently, the necessity for minimizing the second type of stress would not necessarily be salient. In other words, for some families, a certain level of stress (excitement) may be desired and in fact sought in preference to low levels of stress (boredom).

Bebbington's theory is consistent with other family literature in which it is suggested that the family's definition of the situation is influential in determining the impact of stress on the family (Burr, 1973). Hansen and Johnson (1979) pointed out that a "crisis" for some families may resemble more closely "regenesis" for others as they view disruptions less as problems and more as opportunities to renegotiate their relationships. Similarly, Porter (1981) stated that "in some instances, stress may be the spice of life, and in others it may have seriously damaging effects" (p. 89).

Pervin (1974) emphasized the importance of individual-environment "fit" which is based on the assumption that for each person there are interpersonal and noninterpersonal environments which match the characteristics of his/her personality. A "best fit" of individual and environment would result in high performance and satisfaction and little stress in the system. The freedom to choose the dual-career lifestyle has been hypothesized as an important predictor of marital happiness (Fogarty et al., 1971). Orden and

Bradburn (1969) compared marriages in which the woman worked out of necessity, those in which she worked by choice, and those in which she did not work. Wives who worked by choice rather than because of economic necessity had higher marital adjustment scores, whereas no differences were found between those who chose to work and those who chose not to work. In a study conducted by St. John-Parsons (1978), having the opportunity to pursue a career was considered to be important in affective and subjective ways even though working was not essential for economic reasons. The freedom to choose whether or not one will participate in a career may be important primarily because the element of choice makes it more likely that families can achieve congruence between actual and desired lifestyles. Scanzoni and Fox (1980) pointed out that instead of being solely dependent on whether or not the wife works, high stress and low satisfaction result primarily from the inability of persons to achieve their preferences.

Certain personal factors and properties of interpersonal relationships within the family as well as family system characteristics may be more conducive to successful enactment of the dual-career lifestyle than others. When it is possible to achieve individual-environment "fit," it also might be expected that greater satisfaction with the lifestyle would follow.

Family Characteristics

Adaptability as a characteristic of the family system probably is a crucial variable for successful maintenance of the dual-career family pattern. It has been suggested that flexibility is a necessary prerequisite for achieving a balance with respect to the frequently changing needs of dependence and independence (Weingarten, 1978) and for the unconventional role enactment necessary in the dual-career situation (Holohan & Gilbert, 1979a). Olson, Sprenkle, and Russell (1979) hypothesized that a balance between change and stability is crucial for system viability. Constant change would preclude development of a set of common meanings, values, and expectations essential for communication and survival of an intimate family group (Wertheim, 1975). However, the family system also must be capable of adjusting its role relationships and rules of relating to one another to be responsive to internal and external environmental changes.

System adaptability also may be important for helping the dual-career family establish and maintain a balance between individual autonomy and group cohesion. Although it generally is assumed that when multiple roles compete for scarce time, family interaction will be restricted, Carisse (1975) pointed out that it is possible to have high cohesion while autonomy also is valued. At the extreme positions characterized by couples who cannot lead separate

lives and by those who avoid being together, malfunctioning and discomfort could be expected. Similarly, Olson et al. (1979) concluded that a balanced degree of family cohesion is most conducive to family functioning and individual development; further, they hypothesized that when family cohesion is balanced, the family system will deal more effectively with situational stress.

Personal Factors

Some studies have been focused upon familial characteristics of the family of orientation which may predispose individuals to seek either the dual-career or the traditional marriage relationship. In summarizing results of these studies, Rapoport and Rapoport (1978) concluded that for women, factors such as being an only child, experiencing parental conflict during childhood, or having a mother who felt unfulfilled in the domestic role, when combined with elements in the husband's background, such as having a close relationship with his mother, predisposed couples to adopt the dual-career pattern in their families of procreation.

Huser and Grant (1978) suggested that personality characteristics which allow two people to combine careers and family life are measurably different from personality characteristics of those choosing the one-career pattern. These investigators found dual-career husbands and wives to be more inner-directed and flexible in applying personal values than one-career couples; in addition, dual-career

men scored higher than husbands in traditional families on self-acceptance. Similarly, dual-career wives have been found to report high levels of self-esteem (Holohan & Gilbert, 1979a). Based upon in-depth interviewing of 10 dual-career couples, St. John-Parsons (1978) concluded that the men studied manifested a strong self-image. Huser and Grant (1978) postulated that "it would seem that for a man to choose a career-oriented woman for a wife marks him as being quite different, in self-actualized direction, from other men as a group" (p. 87).

Based upon their study, Rapoport, Rapoport, and Thiessen (1974) underscored the importance of congruence between attitudes and behavior for satisfactory outcomes. In this investigation, husbands whose wives' attitudes and practices were integrated (i.e., had favorable attitudes toward women working and also worked themselves) were most likely to enjoy everyday activities. However, husbands whose wives' attitudes and practices were mixed were less likely to enjoy these everyday activities than those husbands of wives who did not work and also were against wives working. Congruence between actual and desired behavior patterns also was found to be important in a study conducted by Burke and Weir (1976b) in which the interpersonal need structures of husband and wife in one- and two-career families were examined. Members of dual-career families were found to be more self-reliant and self-sufficient

individuals. Whereas the employed wife demonstrated more assertiveness than her nonworking counterpart, the husbands in dual-career families were less concerned with dominance, power, and authority than husbands in one-career families. The authors concluded that varying need preferences may be more compatible with either the traditional marriage relationship or the partnership dual-career marriage.

Interpersonal Factors

Lending further support to the thesis of the importance of individual-environment "fit" for satisfactory outcomes, Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) found that the dual-career husbands did not view their wives' employment as antithetical to their own or their family's interests; in fact, it was important to the husbands themselves that their wives pursued careers. In addition, the family's emphasis on achievement and independence extended to encouragement of children to aspire to a high level of accomplishment. One might speculate that for these dual-career husbands, having wives without a strong career orientation might prove to be dysfunctional for the marital relationship. When the behavior of women is congruent with the values and attitudes of other family members, it could be expected that fewer tensions and greater satisfactions with the lifestyle would result. Bailyn (1970) found that although other patterns, such as "you go your way and I'll go mine," emerged as "workable" for maintenance of the dual-career lifestyle,

persons exhibiting such patterns were notably lower in marital satisfaction when compared to persons demonstrating more positive forms of facilitation.

In discussing guilt and anxiety experienced by working women, Rallings and Nye (1979) pointed out that the level of approval of employment by significant others appears to be an important contingent variable. Holohan and Gilbert (1979b) studied differential conflicts experienced by similarly educated married mothers holding careers versus jobs. Conflicts between pairs of major life roles (worker, spouse, parent, and self) were reported by the career and job groups. Greater role conflict was reported by the noncareer group than the career group. However, when spousal support was controlled in the analysis, these differences no longer were found. The authors concluded that spousal support is a crucial variable for the reduction of role conflict for working women. Further, it was suggested that if noncareer women received the same level of support from their spouses as do career women, they would not experience greater conflict. To carry the analysis one step further, attitudes of husbands also may be a crucial variable in determining whether or not women will give their jobs the necessary commitment for their occupational role to become a "career." In support of this line of reasoning, several investigators have found a high level of spousal support to be related to the professional success of women (Bailyn, 1970; Gordon &

Hall, 1974; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969). In addition, Kundsin (1974) found that the majority of her sample of successful women in the sciences attributed a large portion of their ability to function successfully to the support of their husbands.

Combining Personal, Interpersonal, and Family Characteristics in Research

Researchers have identified various personal, interpersonal, and family characteristics which may be significant in helping to explain why some couples choose the dual-career lifestyle. However, multidimensional approaches are needed in future research to provide more information. Bebbington (1973) suggested that the dual-career family pattern can be regarded as a behavioral system which exists as an expression of the chosen relationship of the dual-career couple with each other in the context of contemporary society. The word "system" implies that the whole somehow is different from the sum of the parts. Similarly, Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) stated that

> each dual-career family is produced by a constellation of forces--personal, interpersonal and social--not only in relation to the woman but in relation to her husband, how they fit together as a couple and the social environment in which they live. (p. 521)

No attempt to examine systematically the interaction among these personal, interpersonal, and social forces to determine whether or not certain combinations are associated with different work-family patterns has been identified.

Moos and Moos (1976) developed a typology of family social environments which can be described by three common dimensions. These dimensions include relationship, personal growth, and system maintenance and are described in Table 1. Although the Moos typology has not been used for describing different patterns of work-family relationships, this particular type of multidimensional analysis might be a particularly useful approach for advancing understanding of stresses and satisfactions experienced by the dual-career family.

To maximize performance and satisfaction and to minimize stress, the dual-career couple may create a type of family environment which would support the high husband-wife commitment to work. In contrast, certain types of family environments may be important prerequisites for development of the dual-career pattern. Whatever the direction of influence, families with different patterns of commitment to work also may emphasize different dimensions of the family social environment.

Conclusion

Many researchers interested in exploring the work-family linkage have concentrated on identifying potential relationships between maternal employment and the marital relationship. Based upon an employment/nonemployment dichotomy of wives, few consistent differences in the quality of marital

Table 1

Family Environment Scale Subscale Descriptions

Subscale labels		Subscale descriptions
	Relationship dimensions	
1.	Cohesion	The extent to which family members are concerned and committed to the family and the degree to which family members are helpful and supportive of each other
2.	Expressiveness	The extent to which family members are allowed and encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly
3.	Conflict	The extent to which the open expression of anger and aggression and generally conflictual interactions are characteristic of the family
	Personal growth dimensions	
4.	Independence	The extent to which family members are encouraged to be assertive, self-sufficient, to make their own decisions and to think things out for themselves
5.	Achievement Orientation	The extent to which different types of activities (i.e., school and work) are cast into an achievement oriented or competitive framework
6.	Intellectual-Cultural Orientation	The extent to which the family is concerned about political, social, intellectual and cultural activities
7.	Active Recreation Orientation	The extent to which the family participates actively in various kinds of recreational and sporting activities

Table 1 (Continued)

Subscale labels		Subscale descriptions
	Personal growth dimensions (continued)	
8.	Moral-Religious Orientation	The extent to which the family actively discusses and emphasizes ethical and religious issues and values
	System maintenance dimensions	
9.	Organization	Measures how important order and organization is in the family in terms of structuring the family activities, financial planning, and explicitness and clarity in regard to family rules and responsibilities
10.	Control	Assesses the extent to which the family is organized in a hierarchical manner, the rigidity of family rules and procedures and the extent to which family members order each other around

From Moos, R. Preliminary Manual for Family Environment Scale, Work Environment Scale, Group Environment Scale. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1974, p. 4.

relationships can be documented. Inconsistencies reported in the literature may be explained partly by the failure of researchers to consider other variables which may moderate the relationship between work-family patterns and marital quality. Although not definitive, based upon research findings, it can be concluded that varying levels of commitment to work as well as different patterns of husband-wife occupational commitment may be related to differential levels of satisfaction with the marital relationship.

In addition, certain sociodemographic variables, either in isolation or in combination, may moderate the effects of maternal employment on the marital relationship. Specifically, there is some indication that variables such as age, duration of marriage, number and ages of children, and educational levels of husband and wife should be controlled when studying the relationship between female employment and marital quality; further, level of employment of the wife (part-time or full-time) consistently has been found to have an important effect on this relationship. Apparently part-time employment allows women to combine the "best of both worlds" and typically has been associated with higher levels of marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives.

The idea that both husband and wife manifest a strong commitment to work consistently has been included in definitions of the dual-career family but frequently has not been incorporated into research designs. However, based

upon studies in which researchers have attempted to distinguish between dual-career and dual-work families by some method, a few tentative conclusions can be offered. It has been documented fairly consistently that the dual-career family structure is associated with various stresses and strains. However, dual-career families also have been found to experience some unique rewards; in addition, numerous satisfactions with the lifestyle frequently have been reported. From extrapolation of theoretical ideas and research findings reported in the literature, it is possible to conclude that personal factors, interpersonal relationships, and family system characteristics all may be instrumental in helping to explain how dual-career couples achieve a satisfactory balance with respect to stresses and satisfactions associated with the lifestyle.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The primary purpose of this study was to compare groups exhibiting various patterns of husband-wife occupational commitment on dyadic adjustment and the family social environment. It was hypothesized that there is no difference in dyadic adjustment or the family social environment in relation to occupational commitment and/or spouse. A secondary objective of the study was to determine possible relationships among various sociodemographic variables and the hypothesis under study. Sociodemographic variables of age, years married, number of children, ages of children, education, hours worked per week, years spent in present type work, and salary were selected for examination.

Design

Marital dyads were classified into four groups based upon the following patterns of occupational commitment: (a) both husband and wife exhibiting high levels of occupational commitment, (b) both husband and wife exhibiting low levels of occupational commitment, (c) wife high and husband low on occupational commitment, and (d) wife low and husband high on occupational commitment. A 4 x 2 factorial design was determined by four levels of occupational commitment and

two levels of spouse (repeated measure). Occupational commitment and spouse were the independent variables used in the study. Dependent variables were dyadic adjustment and the family social environment (cohesion, expressiveness, conflict, independence, achievement orientation, intellectual-cultural orientation, moral-religious emphasis, organization, and control.

Subjects

The subjects for this study were 92 married dyads residing in Tuscaloosa, Alabama. The sample included only married couples who were living together with at least one child under the age of 18 living at home. Other criteria for inclusion were participation of both spouses in the study and employment of both husband and wife outside the home 35 or more hours per week.

Over 90% of the subjects who participated in this study were Caucasian. Approximately 74% of the males and approximately 78% of the females were between 26 and 45 years of age (see Table 2). The majority of the couples had either one or two children (see Table 3), ranging in age from 1 month to 24 years. Most of the dyads had been married 6 to 25 years (see Table 3).

The sample was composed primarily of highly educated persons, with the majority of both males and females holding bachelor's degrees or higher (see Table 2). Over half

Table 2

Percentages of Males and Females on Selected Sociodemographic Characteristics

Variables	% Males	% Females
Age		
20-25	2	2
26-30	11	15
31-35	23	27
36-40	21	27
41-45	26	15
46-50	9	9
51-55	7	3
Over 55	2	1
Education		
Grade school	1	0
High school or G.E.D.	12	12
Vocational, technical, or certificate program	3	9
Some college work but no degree	16	14
Two-year college degree	1	0
Bachelor's degree or equivalent	14	14
One or two years of graduate or professional study	8	3
Master's degree or equivalent	23	33
Ph.D. or Ed.D.	16	11
Other	5	4
Employment position		
Professional, technical	41	50
Managerial, administrative	31	10
Sales	5	0
Clerical	3	38
Crafts	13	1
Operative	1	0
Labor	3	0
Service	1	1
Farm	1	0

Table 2 (Continued)

Variables	% Males	% Females
Salary		
Below $7,000	2	5
$7,000-9,999	2	26
$10,000-12,999	4	14
$13,000-15,999	11	21
$16,000-18,999	8	15
$19,000-21,999	17	8
$22,000-24,999	16	5
$25,000-27,999	13	2
$28,000 or more	27	3

Note. Totals may not equal 100% because of rounding.

Table 3

Years Married and Number of Children

Variables	% of couples
Years married	
0-5 years	11
6-10 years	23
11-15 years	25
16-20 years	18
21-25 years	15
26-30 years	8
Number of children	
1 child	40
2 children	50
3 children	9
4 children	1

of both males and females held professional and managerial positions. In addition, approximately 38% of the women were employed in clerical positions (see Table 2). Despite similarities in education and percentages employed in professional positions, men and women differed on both salary and hours worked per week (see Table 4).

Table 4

Differences Between Males and Females On Selected Sociodemographic Characteristics

Variable	χ^2	df	Level of significance
Age	5.79	7	<.56
Education	8.71	9	<.46
Hours worked per week	63.94	23	<.001
Salary	61.83	8	<.001
Years spent in present type work	5.56	6	<.47

Whereas approximately 72% of the men earned more than $19,000 per year, only 18% of the women studied earned this amount (see Table 2). Men in the sample worked an average of 51 hours per week and women worked an average of 43 hours per week.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire approach was chosen as the most practical means of obtaining the desired information. Prior to the investigation, a panel of judges was asked to review the questionnaire to ensure clarity of the items and the instructions. Instruments included in the questionnaire were presented in the following order: (a) Personal History Inventory, (b) Occupational Commitment Scale, (c) Family Environment Scale, and (d) Dyadic Adjustment Scale. Although they were not used in the present investigation, instruments to measure self-esteem, personal well-being, and child care arrangements also were included in the final questionnaire.

Personal History Inventory

Questions designed to collect sociodemographic and familial information such as gender, age, length of marriage, number and ages of children, occupation, salary range, and education were included in an inventory developed for this study. A copy of the Personal History Inventory is appended (see Appendix A).

Occupational Commitment Scale

Occupational commitment was measured by a 21-item scale developed by the researcher (see Appendix B). Some of the items included in the scale were selected from job involvement scales developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965), Davis

(1966), French and Kahn (1962), Iverson and Reuder (1956), and Vroom (1962). Additional items were selected from a questionnaire developed by Holohan and Gilbert (1979a), and other items were constructed by the researcher. The Occupational Commitment Scale is designed to measure whether or not the respondent considers his/her job as a central life interest and his/her perception of whether or not job performance is central to self-esteem. Items designed to tap dimensions of work commitment, such as expectations of future employment, career aspirations, perceptions of occupational competence, and satisfaction with present employment are included.

A panel of judges from the field of human resources management was asked to rate each item included in the Occupational Commitment Scale for content validity (see Appendix C). The judges disagreed only on one item, which subsequently was eliminated from the final scale. All other items were judged to be valid measures of occupational commitment. A Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .83 indicated a high level of internal consistency for items included.

Family Environment Scale

The Family Environment Scale (FES) was used to measure the family social environment (see Appendix D). The focus of this scale is on the "measurement and description of the interpersonal relationships among family members, on the directions of personal growth which are emphasized in the

family, and on the basic organizational structure of the family" (Moos, 1974, p. 1). The FES consists of 90 items that fall into 10 subscales designed to measure the respondent's perceptions of emphasis placed on different dimensions of the family environment. Cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict subscales are conceptualized as relationship dimensions and were designed to "assess the extent to which family members feel that they belong to and are proud of their family, the extent to which there is open expression within the family, and the degree to which conflictual interactions are characteristic of the family" (Moos, 1974, p. 5). The subscales labeled as independence, achievement orientation, active recreational orientation, moral-religious emphasis, and intellectual-cultural orientation are conceptualized as personal-growth dimensions and were designed to "measure the emphasis within the family on certain developmental processes which may be fostered by family living" (Moos, 1974, p. 5). The subscales of organization and control assess system maintenance and provide information concerning the "structure or organization within the family and about the degree of control which is usually exerted by family members vis-a-vis each other" (Moos, 1974, p. 5).

Using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20, Moos and Moos (1976) reported that the 10 subscales have

> adequate internal consistency (.64 to .79), show good eight-week test-retest reliability (.68 to .86), and show average subscale intercorrelations around .20 indicating that they measure distinct,

> though somewhat related, aspects of family social environments. (p. 359)

Although validity of the scale is not reported in the manual, reports on the capacity of the FES to discriminate among different populations of families (Moos, 1974; Moos & Moos, 1976) are some indication of good predictive validity (Scoresby & Christensen, 1976).

To yield greater explanatory variance, the FES was modified from the original true-false response format to a 4-point response continuum (true all of the time, true most of the time, true some of the time, true none of the time). Changes in the response choices necessitated rewording some of the items. For example, the original item "we fight a lot in our family" with possible responses of true or false was changed to "we fight in our family" to fit the revised response alternatives. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used as the reliability estimate for each of the subscales in this modified version of the FES. Item 54 was eliminated from the independence subscale to improve reliability. The final reliability coefficients for each of the 10 subscales are given in Table 5.

Table 5

Reliability Coefficients on Modified FES

Subscale	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Cohesion	10	.81
Intellectual-cultural orientation	10	.76
Conflict	10	.75
Moral-religious emphasis	10	.73
Active recreational orientation	10	.69
Organization	10	.68
Achievement orientation	10	.64
Expressiveness	10	.63
Independence	9	.60
Control	10	.54

Note. $n = 184$

Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Marital adjustment was assessed by using the Dyadic Adjustment Scale developed by Spanier (1976). The scale consists of 32 items representing four empirically verified components of dyadic adjustment (see Appendix E). These components include (a) satisfaction, (b) cohesion, (c) consensus, and (d) affectional expression. Spanier conceptualized marital adjustment as an "ever-changing process with a qualitative dimension which can be evaluated at any point in time on a dimension from well-adjusted to maladjusted" (p. 17). Spanier reported that the majority of the items are designed to assess the respondent's perception of adjustment of the relationship as a functioning group rather than the individual's adjustment to the relationship.

Using Cronbach's coefficient alpha as the reliability estimate, Spanier reported that "the data indicate that the total scale and its components have sufficiently high reliability to justify their use" (p. 24). Spanier reported a total scale reliability of .96. In the present study, the reliability was .90.

Three types of validity were reported by Spanier. These were measured as follows:

1. Items were evaluated by judges for content validity and included in the final scale only if they were judged to be relevant measures of contemporary dyadic relationships, consistent with nominal definitions of adjustment and its components, and carefully worded with appropriate responses.

2. Concurrent validity was established by administering the scale to a sample of 218 married persons and 94 divorced persons; the divorced sample differed from the married sample on every item.

3. Construct validity was established through comparisons with the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (correlation of .86 for married respondents and .88 for divorced respondents) and through factor analysis of the final scale.

Data Collection

Approximately 350 letters explaining the study and outlining the criteria for participation (see Appendix F)

were mailed to married women selected from the University of Alabama faculty-staff directory. A self-addressed, stamped postcard was enclosed for each couple to indicate their eligibility and willingness to participate (see Appendix G). Questionnaires then were mailed to those couples who had agreed to participate. A cover letter (see Appendix H), human subjects consent form (see Appendix I), and two self-addressed stamped envelopes for returning the questionnaires were included.

The second procedure involved meeting with groups, explaining the purposes of the study, and requesting participation. The investigator met with the following groups at regularly scheduled meetings: (a) Tuscaloosa Chapter of Delta Kappa Gamma honorary society for women educators, (b) University of Alabama Home Economics Society, (c) Tuscaloosa Chapter of the American Association of University Women, (d) Crestmont Elementary School P.T.A., (e) Eastwood Middle School P.T.A., (f) Tuscaloosa Red Cross class for parents of infants, and (g) students and staff of Shelton State Community College. Following the meetings, questionnaires with cover letters, human subjects consent forms, and self-addressed stamped envelopes were distributed to those persons who volunteered to participate.

With both procedures outlined above, follow-up letters (see Appendix J) and/or telephone calls were used in an effort to secure return of the questionnaires. A total of

292 questionnaires were distributed, and 210 were returned. Of these, 26 questionnaires were eliminated because the person did not meet requirements for participation or because the person's spouse did not return the questionnaire. In addition, a few questionnaires which were returned after data analysis was initiated were not included. The final sample consisted of 92 couples (184 persons).

Data Reduction, Transformation, and Analysis

The following operational definitions were used in this study:

Occupational Commitment: Respondent's total raw score on the 21 items comprising the Occupational Commitment Scale. Raw scores greater than 61 were classified as high and scores less than or equal to 61 were classified as low.

Marital Adjustment: Respondent's total raw score on the 32 items comprising the Dyadic Adjustment Scale with a higher score reflecting better adjustment.

Family Environment: Respondent's raw score on each of the subscales of the Family Environment Scale: (a) cohesion is measured by items 1, 11, 21, 31, 41, 51, 61, 71, 81; (b) expressiveness is measured by items 2, 12, 22, 32, 42, 52, 62, 72, 82; (c) conflict is measured by items 3, 13, 23, 33, 43, 53, 63, 73, 83; (d) independence is measured by items 4, 14, 24, 34, 44, 64, 74, 84; (e) achievement is measured by items 5, 15, 25, 35, 45, 55, 65, 75, 85;

(f) intellectual-cultural orientation is measured by items 6, 16, 26, 36, 46, 56, 66, 76, 86; (g) active recreational orientation is measured by items 7, 17, 27, 37, 47, 57, 67, 77, 87; (h) moral-religious emphasis is measured by items 8, 18, 28, 38, 48, 58, 68, 78, 88; (i) organization is measured by items 9, 19, 29, 39, 49, 59, 69, 79, 89; (j) control is measured by items 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90. A higher score on a given subscale reflects greater emphasis on that dimension of the family environment, whereas a lower score indicates less emphasis.

If items were missing on the Family Environment Scale or the Occupational Commitment Scale, the average score for items answered on the given scale was assigned to the missing item(s). If there were any items missing on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, the total score was multiplied by an index designed to convert the score to the same metric (i.e. total obtained score $\times \frac{\text{maximum score with no missing data}}{\text{maximum score with omitted item(s)}}$).

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was selected as the most appropriate statistical procedure because of the multiple dependent variables examined. Because the couple, rather than the individual, was the unit of analysis, it was necessary to use a repeated measures analysis. To remove possible sources of variance not controlled in the design, two separate multivariate analyses of covariance (MANOCOVAs) were used. In the first MANOCOVA, variance attributable to age, years married, number of children, age

of oldest child, age of youngest child, average age of children, education, hours worked per week, years spent in present type work, and salary was partialled out so that the relationships among patterns of occupational commitment and marital adjustment and the family social environment could be measured independently. In the second MANOCOVA, only age and family variables (years married, number of children, age of oldest child, age of youngest child, average age of children) were tested as covariates. Wilk's lambda was computed to test the null hypothesis, and the probability level of .05 was used as the criterion for significance.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for the MANOVA and MANOCOVA, and to obtain frequencies, measures of central tendencies, dispersion, Chi Square tests, correlations, and reliability coefficients. Analyses were done at The University of Alabama and The University of Tennessee computer centers.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Frequencies of all respondents' total raw scores on the Occupational Commitment Scale were calculated and a mid-point split was used to discriminate between high and low scores. Total scores on the Occupational Commitment Scale ranged from 49 to 82. Persons with raw scores greater than 61 were classified as high on occupational commitment, and those whose raw scores were 61 or less were classified as low. The occupational commitment score of each person's spouse then was examined so that each marital dyad could be classified into one of the following groups: (a) wife high and husband high on occupational commitment (HIGH-HIGH), (b) wife low and husband low on occupational commitment (LOW-LOW), (c) wife high and husband low on occupational commitment (WHIGH-HLOW), and (d) wife low and husband high on occupational commitment (WLOW-HHIGH). The number of couples in each group is shown in Table 6.

Differences Among Groups on Dyadic Adjustment and the Family Social Environment

The multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) test of the dependent variables did not reveal a significant occupational commitment by spouse interaction, $F(11, 78) = .77$,

$p < .82$. There was a significant main effect for occupational commitment, $F(11, 78) = 1.81$, $p < .01$, whereas the main effect for spouse was not significant, $F(11, 78) = 1.49$, $p < .15$. Consequently, the hypothesis specifying no difference in dyadic adjustment and the family social environment in relation to occupational commitment was rejected, whereas the hypothesis specifying no difference in dyadic adjustment and the family social environment in relation to spouse was not rejected.

Table 6

Patterns of Husband-Wife Occupational Commitment

Groups	Number of couples
Wife high and husband high (HIGH-HIGH)	28
Wife low and husband low (LOW-LOW)	25
Wife high and husband low (WHIGH-HLOW)	18
Wife low and husband high (WLOW-HHIGH)	21

The significant main effect for occupational commitment allows further consideration of possible sources of the difference. As recommended by Spector (1977) and Hummel and Sligo (1971), the significant main effect was followed by examination of the associated univariate analysis of variance. Because MANOVA accounts for possible correlations among variables while testing all dependent variables

simultaneously, it is possible that an overall test of multiple responses would show differences among groups when no univariate differences are found. In the present study, only one of the 11 univariate F's was significant. Univariate analyses for each dependent variable revealed that groups formed on the basis of husband-wife patterns of occupational commitment placed differing emphasis on achievement of family members, $F(3, 88) = 5.31$, $p < .002$. The variable of achievement made the greatest relative contribution to overall differences among the groups. Univariate tests for each of the dependent variables following the MANOVA are given in Table 11.

From examination of group means and standard deviations presented in Table 7, it can be concluded that the two groups in which wives scored relatively high on occupational commitment had greater perceived emphasis on achievement of family members than did the two groups in which wives scored relatively low on occupational commitment. The HIGH-HIGH group expressed the highest achievement orientation of the four groups. Subgroup means and standard deviations are presented in Appendix K.

Sociodemographic Differences Among Groups

Correlations between occupational commitment and selected sociodemographic variables for the total sample are given in Appendix L. As can be noted from Table 8,

Table 7

Group Means and Standard Deviations on Dyadic Adjustment and Subscales of the FES

Variables	Occupational commitment group							
	Wife high/ husband high (n = 56)		Wife low/ husband low (n = 50)		Wife high/ husband low (n = 36)		Wife low/ husband high (n = 42)	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Dyadic adjustment	69.17	10.06	72.61	5.95	68.27	10.92	71.38	7.12
Cohesion	28.27	3.87	28.99	2.82	28.64	3.47	27.65	4.52
Expressiveness	25.39	3.13	25.80	2.54	23.91	3.68	25.30	3.02
Conflict	18.59	3.46	17.94	2.55	18.44	4.20	18.46	3.81
Independence	24.85	3.31	24.73	2.27	24.05	3.05	24.20	2.40
Achievement orientation	26.87	3.18	24.28	3.07	25.10	3.35	24.61	3.06
Intellectual-cultural orientation	27.46	4.66	26.25	3.92	25.40	4.80	27.54	4.80
Active recreational orientation	24.57	4.44	24.84	3.16	23.96	3.83	24.13	4.52
Moral-religious emphasis	25.33	3.63	26.75	4.82	25.22	4.43	25.89	5.29
Organization	25.30	2.89	23.79	2.84	23.40	4.03	24.33	3.17
Control	21.76	3.39	20.72	2.52	20.88	3.17	21.94	3.03

Table 8

Differences Among Groups on Selected Sociodemographic Characteristics

Variable	χ^2	df	Level of significance
Age	36.77	21	<.02
Years married	28.96	15	<.02
Education	51.88	27	<.003
Salary	34.25	24	<.08
Years in present type work	14.42	18	<.70

the four groups formed on the basis of husband-wife patterns of occupational commitment differed with respect to age, years married, and education. However, there were no differences among groups on either salary or years spent in present type of work.

Examination of frequencies of persons in various age categories shown in Table 9 reveals more information on the nature of group differences. The two groups in which wives were high on occupational commitment were older than the two groups in which wives were low on occupational commitment. Whereas 40% of persons in the HIGH-HIGH group and 51% of persons in the WHIGH-HLOW group were over 40 years of age, only 30% of persons in the LOW-LOW group and 26% of persons in the WLOW-HHIGH group were over 40 years of age. From frequencies presented in Table 9, it also can be seen that the two groups in which wives had high commitment to their work had been married longer than groups in which wives had low commitment. Half of persons in the WHIGH-HLOW group had been married more than 15 years; this was a higher percentage than was found in any of the other three groups.

The four groups also differed with respect to education. From frequencies presented in Table 9, it can be seen that the two groups in which men scored high on occupational commitment also were the two groups that were higher on educational level. Whereas only 41% of the LOW-LOW group and 59% of the WHIGH-HLOW group had bachelor's

Table 9

Group Percentages on Selected Sociodemographic Characteristics

Variables	Occupational commitment groups			
	% Wife high/ husband high (n = 56)	% Wife low/ husband low (n = 50)	% Wife high/ husband low (n = 36)	% Wife low/ husband high (n = 42)
Age				
20-25	2	6	0	0
26-30	5	22	22	5
31-35	21	28	19	31
36-40	32	14	8	38
41-45	20	22	28	14
46-50	11	6	11	7
51-55	7	2	6	5
over 55	2	0	6	0
Years married				
0-5	14	12	6	10
6-10	25	24	22	19
11-15	18	28	22	33
16-20	18	12	14	29
21-25	18	24	14	2
26-30	7	0	22	7
31-35	0	0	0	0
36 or over	0	0	0	0

Table 9 (continued)

Variables	Occupational commitment groups: % wife high/ husband high (n = 56)	% wife low/ husband low (n = 50)	% wife high/ husband low (n = 36)	% wife low/ husband high (n = 42)
Education				
Grade school	2	0	0	0
High school or G.E.D.	9	20	19	0
Vocational, technical, or certificate program	2	10	8	5
Some college work but no degree	7	26	14	14
Two year college degree	0	2	0	0
Bachelor's degree or equivalent	20	14	14	7
One or two years of graduate study or professional study	4	0	6	14
Master's degree or equivalent	29	22	31	31
Ph.D. or Ed.D.	21	6	8	17
Other	7	0	0	12

Table 9 (continued)

Variables	Occupational commitment groups			
	% wife high/ husband high (n = 56)	% wife low/ husband low (n = 50)	% wife high/ husband low (n = 36)	% wife low/ husband high (n = 42)
Salary				
Below $7,000	0	2	8	7
$7,000-9,999	11	18	17	12
$10,000-12,999	4	14	11	10
$13,000-15,999	14	22	14	12
$16,000-18,999	5	14	14	14
$19,000-21,999	18	12	17	2
$22,000-24,999	13	10	8	12
$25,000-27,999	13	4	0	10
$28,000 or more	23	4	11	21

degrees or higher, 81% of the HIGH-HIGH group and 81% of the WLOW-HHIGH group had attained this level of education.

Group means for the sociodemographic variables of hours worked per week, number of children, and ages of children are shown in Table 10. Although the groups were similar with respect to the number of children, the two groups in which wives were high on occupational commitment had older children than did the two groups in which wives were classified as low on occupational commitment. In addition, from group means, it can be seen that persons in the HIGH-HIGH group worked more hours on the average than did persons in the other three groups.

Relationship of Sociodemographic Variables to Differences Among Groups on Dyadic Adjustment and the Family Social Environment

Because differences among groups were found on various sociodemographic variables, multivariate analysis of covariance (MANOCOVA) was used to investigate possible relationships of these extraneous sociodemographic variables to the hypothesis under study. Two separate MANOCOVAS were used. In the first MANOCOVA, variance associated with age, years married, number of children, age of oldest child, age of youngest child, average age of children, education, hours worked per week, years spent in present type work, and salary were removed in testing the hypothesis. In this

Table 10

Group Means and Standard Deviations on Selected Sociodemographic Characteristics

Variables	Occupational commitment groups							
	Wife high/ husband high (n = 56)		Wife low/ husband low (n = 50)		Wife high/ husband low (n = 36)		Wife low/ husband high (n = 42)	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Hours worked per week	50.53	10.31	43.88	6.17	45.80	5.85	46.81	9.74
Number of children	1.76	.63	1.54	.65	1.63	.64	1.90	.76
Age of oldest child	12.30	6.62	9.20	5.63	11.41	7.06	9.97	5.23
Age of youngest child	8.70	6.18	7.60	5.39	9.40	6.37	7.52	4.96
Average age of children	10.44	5.99	8.42	5.45	10.41	6.62	8.79	5.00

analysis, the occupation by spouse interaction was not significant, $F(11, 68) = .88$, $p < .65$; the main effect for spouse was not significant, $F(11, 68) = .92$, $p < .53$; and the main effect for occupational commitment was not significant, $F(11, 68) = 1.37$, $p < .10$.

In the second MANOCOVA, variance associated with age and the family variables of years married, number of children, age of oldest child, age of youngest child, and average age of children was partialled out so that the hypothesis could be tested independently of these variables. In contrast to the first MANOCOVA, variables that conceptually are related to the independent variable of occupational commitment (education, hours worked per week, years spent in present type work, and salary) were left uncontrolled. In this analysis, the occupational commitment by spouse interaction was not significant, $F(11, 72) = .89$, $p < .65$, and the main effect for spouse was not significant, $F(11, 72) = 1.82$, $p < .07$. However, a significant main effect for occupational commitment was found, $F(11, 72) = 1.60$, $p < .03$.

Comparisons of univariate analysis for the main effect of occupational commitment following each of the three multivariate approaches are given in Table 11. Even when variance associated with sociodemographic variables was removed, the groups still differed with respect to emphasis placed on achievement of family members. By comparing univariate F's for the main effect of occupational commitment,

Table 11

Comparisons of Univariate F[a] Statistics for Occupational Commitment Effect Following Three Multivariate Analyses

Variable	Univariate F following MANOVA	Univariate F following the first MANOCOVA[b]	Univariate F following the second MANOCOVA[c]
Dyadic adjustment	1.51	1.46	1.35
Cohesion	.66	.23	.32
Expressiveness	1.85	1.48	.84
Conflict	.22	.30	.04
Independence	.62	.51	.90
Achievement	5.31*	2.61*	4.57*
Intellectual-cultural orientation	1.36	1.00	2.10
Active recreational orientation	.27	.69	.32
Moral-religious emphasis	.66	1.61	.73
Organization	2.34	3.59*	2.82*
Control	1.27	.36	.45

[a] F based on Wilk's lambda criterion; df for each F = 3, 88; 3, 78; and 3, 82 .

[b] Sociodemographic variables of age, years married, number of children, age of oldest child, age of youngest child, average age of children, education, hours worked per week, years spent in present type work, and salary were used as covariates.

[c] Sociodemographic variables of age, years married, number of children, age of oldest child, age of youngest child, and average age of children were used as covariates.

*p <.05

it also can be seen that the sociodemographic variables probably obscured univariate differences between groups on the family system dimension of organization. As can be noted from group means on the dependent variables presented in Table 7, the HIGH-HIGH group placed greater emphasis on both achievement and organization than did the other three groups.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

Based upon data collected in this study, three general conclusions can be drawn. First, groups that were formed on the basis of husband-wife patterns of occupational commitment differed on dyadic adjustment and the family social environment (cohesion, expressiveness, conflict, independence, achievement orientation, intellectual-cultural orientation, moral-religious emphasis, organization, and control). These differences were associated with the independent variable of occupational commitment and were not affected by spouses, the repeated measure dimension. Because all variables were considered simultaneously in the model tested, groups differed on the composite of dependent variables; however, differing emphasis placed on achievement of family members was instrumental in accounting for overall differences among the groups.

Second, groups formed on the basis of husband-wife patterns of occupational commitment differed on dyadic adjustment and the family social environment even when sociodemographic variables reflective of the stage of the family life cycle (age, years married, number and ages of children) were held constant. Differing emphasis on achievement of family members again was an important differentiating

variable. In addition, differing emphasis on the family system dimension of organization emerged as an important contributor to overall differences among groups, indicating that sociodemographic variables related to stage of the family life cycle previously had obscured differences among groups in terms of family organization. The group in which both husband and wife had high occupational commitment, the dual-career couples, placed greater emphasis on both achievement and organization than did the other three groups.

Third, based upon the husband-wife pattern in which both spouses had high occupational commitment, approximately 30% of couples in the sample were classified as dual-career marriages. This is a smaller percentage than would have been categorized as dual-career marriages by using more traditional methods of classification such as occupational categories or education level.

Discussion

Results of the present investigation are consistent with the conclusion formulated by previous investigators (Bebbington, 1973; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971) that the dual-career family pattern should be regarded as a system of personal, interpersonal, and social forces. Either the dual-career couple may create a type of family environment which would support high husband-wife commitment to work or certain types of family environments may be important

prerequisites for development of the dual-career pattern. Whatever the direction of influence, the conclusion that families with different patterns of commitment to work emphasized different degrees of dyadic adjustment and different dimensions of the family social environment probably has relevance for understanding the stresses and satisfactions experienced by working couples.

Emphasis on Achievement

Emphasis on achievement of family members was one of the variables that most clearly differentiated the dual-career family from other family types. In addition, there were differences among groups on achievement even when controls for relevant sociodemographic variables were introduced. This result is consistent with the writings of Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1981) who suggested that dual-career couples have high achievement orientations and seek to exercise their fullest capacities in career roles. Pervin's (1974) notion of the importance of individual-environment "fit" seems particularly relevant for the dual-career couples in this sample because they demonstrated congruence between high emphasis in the family environment on achievement and high commitment to work.

From examination of subgroup means (see Appendix M), it can be seen that women with high occupational commitment placed greater emphasis on achievement than did women with low occupational commitment. Although the career commitment

of married women increasingly is becoming more frequent and accepted, many achievement-oriented women face a conflict between their feminine image and their developing interests and abilities (Horner, 1972). Socialization for the female gender role begins at birth and continues throughout life. When women assume achieved roles that violate stereotypic expectations for feminine behavior, they are placed in a position that is potentially stressful for themselves and others. As Horner (1972) stated,

> the prevalent image of women found throughout history, amidst both scholarly and popular circles, has with few exceptions converged on the idea that femininity and individual achievements which reflect intellectual competence or leadership potential are desirable but mutually exclusive goals. (p. 157)

A basic incompatibility can be seen between the qualities of nurturance, emotionality, and responsiveness traditionally associated with women and the qualities of aggressiveness, rationality, and independence associated with the role of achiever in the professional world.

Darley (1976) pointed out that women who combine family and career roles are caught between two reference groups which have conflicting values and standards for behavior; consequently, hostility and negative evaluation are likely from both groups. Apparently, these conflicting societal and internalized expectations for women result in more stress and are more difficult to resolve when the husband withdraws or withholds his support (Paloma, 1972). According to

Perrucci and Targ (1978), a supportive husband can serve as a buffer between general societal expectations and his wife's enactment of her family roles.

In view of the fact that support of the husband frequently has been found to be critical for the successful functioning of dual-work marriages (Bailyn, 1970; Holmstrom, 1972; Holohan & Gilbert, 1979b; Rallings & Nye, 1979; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971), the relationship between achievement scores for husbands and wives in the present sample seems especially significant. As previously noted, the dual-career group had the highest mean for achievement of all four groups; in addition, from examination of subgroup means, it can be seen that both husbands and wives in this HIGH-HIGH group placed greater emphasis on achievement than did husbands or wives in any of the other groups. In contrast, although the WHIGH-HLOW group also placed relatively high emphasis on achievement, this result appears to be related primarily to high achievement scores of wives. The greatest discrepancy between husbands and wives on achievement was found in the WHIGH-HLOW group; in addition, husbands in this group had lower mean scores for achievement than did husbands in any of the other three groups.

The dual-career husbands studied by Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) did not view their wives' employment as antithetical to their own or their family's interests; it was important to the husbands themselves that their wives

pursued careers. In the present study, high career commitment of wives in the HIGH-HIGH group would seem compatible with their husbands' relatively high emphasis on individual achievement of family members. However, high career commitment of wives in the WHIGH-HLOW group would seem to be incongruent with their husbands' relatively low emphasis on achievement of family members. In summarizing the research of the early 1970's, Rapoport and Rapoport (1978) emphasized the importance of congruence between the husband's attitudes and his wife's aspirations. Similarly, Lewis and Spanier (1979) pointed out that marital quality is related more closely to congruence between expectations and the role performance of one's spouse than to any specific role pattern.

Emphasis on Organization

Several investigators have identified role overload as a common source of strain experienced by dual-work couples (Epstein, 1971; Garland, 1972; Holmstrom, 1972; Paloma, 1972; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1972; St. John-Parsons, 1978). In this context, role overload generally refers to the necessity of carrying out tasks traditionally done by the full-time homemaker in addition to tasks related to the occupational performance of both husband and wife. Organization might be viewed as one coping strategy that could be used for dealing with strains arising from role overload. For example, Homstrom (1972) found that organization in the

allocation of time and effort was valued highly by career persons attempting to cope with pressures from overload. Similarly, organization may be necessary for some of the strategies identified by Paloma (1972) as used by professional women for coping with role-based stress. For example, some of the women in Paloma's sample tried to compartmentalize their work and family roles so that fewer guilt-producing situations would arise. It might be expected that effective compartmentalization would require greater organization in both work and family spheres.

Although all of the couples in the present study presumably would experience role overload and role stress, it might be expected that demands and stresses would vary depending on degree of commitment to and involvement in work roles and that a concomitant difference in the emphasis placed on family organization would be found. Consistent with these expectations, groups formed on the basis of patterns of husband-wife occupational commitment differed with respect to emphasis placed on family organization. The HIGH-HIGH group, the dual-career couples, placed more emphasis on family organization than did the other three groups.

Rice (1979) pointed out that dual-career couples show many behaviors, such as preference for organization, which are facilitative for both spouses with high achievement needs. Greater emphasis on organization also may be necessary because of the lack of established structural guidelines

for the nontraditional role enactment thought to occur in dual-career marriages. Rice (1979) pointed out that because of the relative newness of the lifestyle and shortage of role models, dual-career couples must create their own family structure over time. Perhaps greater organization is necessary as dual-career couples seek to create a lifestyle that is different from that which usually is found in traditional marriage relationships.

From examination of subgroup means (see Appendix M), it can be seen that the greatest discrepancy between husbands and wives for organization was found in the WHIGH-HLOW group; as was true for achievement, wives in this group perceived greater emphasis on organization than did husbands. This result may be viewed as highly significant if organization is seen as a means of facilitating expression of achievement needs as well as a method for managing overload and stress. It should be noted that although husbands and wives in the WLOW-HHIGH group did not share high commitment to work, they were congruent with respect to emphasis placed on both achievement and organization. Rice (1979) pointed out that in the traditional marriage oriented toward providing a facilitative domestic support structure for the husband's occupational achievement, wives may satisfy their needs for achievement vicariously through their husbands. In American society, it is less likely that husbands would be willing to provide a support structure for occupational

achievement of their wives unless this structure also met their own needs for achievement.

Occupational Commitment as the Independent Variable

Previous researchers generally have used either occupational groupings or educational levels to distinguish between dual-career marriages and other work-family patterns. For example, Aldous et al. (1979) defined career occupations as "those occupations requiring a period of systematic training in an institution of higher education, and where there is a gradation of positions in the occupation" (p. 243). Although the idea that both husband and wife manifest a strong commitment to work consistently has been incorporated into the definition of the dual-career marriage, researchers frequently have assumed that persons who were employed in professional, administrative, or managerial positions or those with advanced levels of education probably also would manifest high commitment to work. On the basis of occupational commitment, approximately 30% of couples in the present study were classified as dual-career marriages. If occupational categories or educational groupings had been used to classify subjects instead of occupational commitment, a much larger percentage of the sample would have been defined as dual-career marriages. Approximately 72% of men and 60% of women participating in the present study held professional, managerial, or administrative positions, and

approximately 52% of men and 51% of women had received some formal education beyond the bachelor's level.

A few researchers have asked subjects themselves to determine whether they had jobs or careers. For purposes of comparison, in the present investigation subjects were asked the question, "Do you consider your current employment position to be a job or a career?" It was found that 77% of men and 62% of women labeled their work as careers rather than as jobs. Again, this method of classification would have resulted in a larger percentage of the sample being classified as dual-career than were classified using occupational commitment as the independent variable.

Because of the widespread use of traditional methods of classification, the number of dual-career couples may have been overestimated in previous studies. If overestimation occurred because of the overlapping of dual-career and dual-work categories, unique characteristics of the groups likely would have been obscured.

Implications

Generalizability of the results of this study is limited primarily because of the method of securing the sample. In the initial stage of the research, a purposive sampling technique was employed and respondents were self-selected in the final stage. In addition, the sample was drawn from a single city at one point in time, and many of

the subjects were associated with the university community. Data were collected using self-report techniques, which have been found to have limitations such as distortion and conventionalization. Because the researcher was not present when subjects completed the questionnaires, it is conceivable that results could have been biased by subjects discussing the items with their spouses or with other persons.

Implications for Theory

One of the most important contributions of the present study was the development of a scale used to measure the theoretical construct of occupational commitment. It was demonstrated that using the variable of occupational commitment was a meaningful approach for differentiating among family types and probably should be considered more useful for assessing the nature and meaning of work for individuals than using type of occupation or educational level alone. However, it should be noted that when all sociodemographic variables including the work-related variables of number of hours worked per week, years spent in present type work, education, and salary were controlled in the analysis, no differences among groups were found for marital adjustment and the family social environment. It can be concluded that occupational commitment probably is a multidimensional concept involving both attitudinal and behavioral components. It appears that the Occupational Commitment Scale used in

the present study measured the attitudinal components of occupational commitment; however, the need for further study on the interrelationships of attitudinal and behavioral components seems to be indicated.

Houseknecht and Spanier (1980) pointed out that highly educated women may have a tendency to be committed more highly to their work than other women because of the emphasis in their long developmental training on personal involvement and commitment to an area of study. Similarly, Mannheim and Cohen (1978) suggested that level of education would be of considerable importance in establishing the centrality of work. However, Safilios-Rothchild (1970) pointed out that although the degree of work commitment is related closely to educational level and type of occupation, the relationship is by no means perfect. In the present study, occupational commitment was directly related to education, hours worked per week, salary, and age (see Appendix L). Although sociodemographic variables such as educational level probably are not adequate in isolation for assessing commitment and for identifying dual-career marriages, work-related sociodemographic variables probably should be viewed as behavioral components of occupational commitment.

Based upon the results of this study, it might be important to consider gender of the respondent when analyzing relationships among occupational commitment and

various sociodemographic variables. For example, the four groups formed on the basis of occupational commitment differed with respect to age (see Table 8). Because the older groups were those in which wives scored high on occupational commitment, it is likely that age differences among groups were reflective of differences among women rather than men. Women who scored high on occupational commitment were older than women who scored low on occupational commitment; the relationship for men seems less clear.

The four groups also differed with respect to education (see Table 8). The two groups in which men scored high on occupational commitment also were the two groups that had attained higher levels of education. The fact that differences among groups appears to be related to the educational level of men especially seems important in view of the fact that no general differences in the education of men and women were found for the total sample (see Table 4). Perhaps there is a more direct relationship between educational level and occupational commitment for men than there is for women.

In addition to viewing occupational commitment in relation to various sociodemographic variables, Safilios-Rothchild (1970) and Bailyn (1970) suggested that a conceptualization of work commitment should be based upon the relative distribution of time and emotional investment of work in relation to other life sectors. Safilios-Rothchild

(1970) and others have suggested that the degree of work commitment is reflective of the relative degree of importance accorded to work rather than familial obligations. It often is assumed that women pursue careers at the expense of their marriages. Although no univariate differences among groups were found for marital adjustment in the present study, highly educated women have an unusually high marital disruption rate (Houseknecht & Spanier, 1980). However, Safilios-Rothchild (1971) suggested that women who have low commitment to and involvement in work also may be equally alienated from their family roles. Perhaps understanding of the work-family link could be broadened if couples were categorized on the basis of commitment not only to work but to marriage as well. Dean and Spanier (1974) defined marital commitment as the "strength of an individual's desire and determination to continue a particular marital relationship" (pp. 113-114) and proposed that marital commitment has been an important variable overlooked in studies of marital success.

Implications for Research

Because high occupational commitment represents a departure from traditional stereotypes for women but not for men, most researchers have focused only on the measurement of women. Subjects often have been classified as members of dual-career marriages solely on the basis of information obtained from wives. This frequently-used procedure seems

to have been based on the assumption that men, particularly men who would be married to career women, would be career-oriented themselves. In the present study, 43 of 92 men were classified as low on occupational commitment. Because important differences were found between the two groups in which wives scored high on occupational commitment, it is imperative that future researchers be cognizant of the need for studying not only wives but also their husbands.

In this study, emphasis on individual achievement and family system organization were the two dimensions of the family environment that most clearly differentiated dual-career marriages from other marriage types. Research with larger samples representing more diverse backgrounds is needed to determine whether or not these results can be generalized. It is conceivable that emphasis on achievement and organization may be important for the successful enactment of dual-career marriages. In order to test this hypothesis, the relationships among marital quality, achievement, and organization need to be explored more fully. In addition, a longitudinal approach would allow comparisons of dual-career marriages that remain intact and those that end in divorce.

Recently, investigators in the field of family studies have become cognizant of the need for the study of the dynamics of family relationships. For example, Lewis and Spanier (1979) pointed out that marital quality is not

a static but a dynamic concept. Similarly, Bailyn (1978) defined accommodation as the "degree to which work demands are fitted into family requirements" (p. 159) and suggested that accommodation reflects a continuing process of response to the changing demands of work and family. Although the multidimensional approach used in the present study has helped to illuminate the complexity of the work-family relationship, understanding of the dynamics of this relationship probably would be enhanced by collecting interactional and observational data over time.

Implications for Intervention

Houseknecht and Spanier (1980) pointed out that in some cases the demands of full-time employment and children take so much time that there is not enough left over for a woman to sustain a quality relationship with her husband. Certainly if dual-career couples attempt to structure their marital relationship along traditional lines with the wife simply adding employment responsibilities to the already heavy demands of homemaking, Houseknecht and Spanier's assumption seems logical. However, Turner (1971) proposed that it is possible, though not necessarily easy, for dual-career couples to organize their lives in such a way as to permit a substantial commitment to both work and family.

Hopkins and White (1978) pointed out that traditional husband-wife role behaviors are not applicable for

dual-career couples. Although role behaviors per se were not studied in the present investigation, differences were found in the ways in which couples exhibiting various patterns of occupational commitment structured their family environments, perhaps indicating that some family environments may be more conducive to successful enactment of the dual-career lifestyle than others. It seems important that family practitioners and educators help couples develop family structures which support individual family needs and particular work-family orientations, even though these structures might deviate from traditional expectations. If couples can be helped to achieve greater congruence between their work orientations and family lifestyles, the corollary probably would be greater satisfaction in both work and family spheres.

Because dual-career couples likely are limited in anticipatory socialization experiences for their non-traditional role enactments, they probably would benefit from counseling services and educational programs designed to help them create new and individualized family patterns. Such intervention might include attention to the development of problem-solving skills, conflict management techniques, and decision-making abilities as well as to the development of greater personal and family system flexibility. Based upon the results of this study, services aimed at helping dual-career families to manage resources more

efficiently and to develop greater organizational abilities would seem important. In addition, services such as child care combined with a greater flexibility in the work environment might facilitate the development of a lifestyle that better would serve the needs of dual-career couples. Taken in combination, the intervention strategies discussed also might enable couples with low career commitment to become more involved in their work. Although dual-career marriages presently are few in number, more women are becoming employed outside the home for longer periods of their lives. It is likely that many of these women will not be content working for 30 or 40 years in jobs that have little personal salience.

As previously discussed, the combination of high achievement aspirations and high career commitment currently constitutes a deviant pattern for women in this society, often producing stress. Presumably greater societal acceptance would help women to become less anxious about their differing role behavior. Family life educators are in a unique position to serve as change agents as they foster greater awareness and understanding of the plurality of American family forms and styles.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PERSONAL HISTORY INVENTORY

This questionnaire is designed to collect information about you and your family. Recognizing the personal nature of the items, we wish to emphasize our commitment to preserving your confidentiality in this study. Your responses will be used without any reference to you personally. There are no right or wrong answers.

Please circle the number beside the most appropriate response or fill in the blank. Put only one answer for each question.

1. What is your sex?

   1. male
   2. female

2. How old were you on your last birthday?

1. under 20	4. 31-35	7. 46-50
2. 20-25	5. 36-40	8. 51-55
3. 26-30	6. 41-45	9. over 55

3. Are you presently married?

   1. yes
   2. no

4. If married, are you living with your spouse?

   1. yes
   2. no

5. How many years have you been married to your present spouse?

1. 0-5	4. 16-20	7. 31-35
2. 6-10	5. 21-25	8. 36 or over
3. 11-15	6. 26-30	

6. Please write the age of each child who is living with you.

1. ____	4. ____	7. ____
2. ____	5. ____	8. ____
3. ____	6. ____	9. ____

7. How would you describe your ethnic background or race?

   1. White American, Caucasian
   2. Black American, Negro
   3. Native American, American Indian
   4. Spanish Surnamed American, Chicano, Puerto Rican
   5. Oriental American, Asian
   6. Other (please specify) _____

8. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

   1. grade school
   2. high school or G.E.D.
   3. vocational, technical or certificate program
   4. some college work but no degree
   5. two-year college degree
   6. Bachelor's degree or equivalent
   7. one or two years of graduate or professional study
   8. Master's degree or equivalent
   9. Ph.D. or Ed.D.
   10. Other (please specify) _____

9. What is your current employment status?

   1. not employed
   2. employed part-time (less than 35 hours each week)
   3. employed full-time (35 hours each week or more)
   4. employed in more than one job (please specify the number of jobs and hours devoted to each) _____
      _____
   5. other (please specify) _____

10. What is your current employment position and title?

    _____

    Briefly describe the nature of your work. _____
    _____

11. Do you consider your current employment position to be a job or a career?

    1. job
    2. career

12. Approximately how many hours each week do you devote to your work (include work taken home, done outside the office, etc.)? _____

13. How many years have you spent in your present type of work (not including years spent in school)?

1. 0-5
2. 6-10
3. 11-15
4. 16-20

14. In what range did your salary fall during the past year (before taxes)?

1. below $7,000	4. $13,000-15,999	7. $22,000-24,999
2. $7,000-9,999	5. 16,000-18,999	8. $25,000-27,999
3. $10,000-12,999	6. $19,000-21,999	9. $28,000 or more

APPENDIX B

OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

The following questions are designed to help us learn how you feel about your job. Please circle the number that most closely reflects your feelings. Circle only one number for each question.

1. Do you wish to continue working during the next 10 years?

   1. definitely not
   2. probably not
   3. probably so
   4. definitely so

2. In general, how do you feel about your present work situation?

   1. very dissatisfied
   2. dissatisfied
   3. satisfied
   4. very satisfied

3. How committed are you to your work?

   1. no commitment
   2. little commitment
   3. some commitment
   4. complete commitment

4. How high are your aspirations in regard to occupational recognition and achievement?

   1. very low
   2. low
   3. high
   4. very high

5. How do you view your present level of competence in regard to your work?

   1. very low
   2. low
   3. high
   4. very high

Some statements about how people feel about their jobs are written below. For each statement, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by circling the appropriate number beside the statement.

	Agree Strongly	Agree	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
6. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.	1	2	3	4

		Agree Strongly	Agree	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
7.	I spend a great deal of time on matters related to my job both during and after working hours.	1	2	3	4
8.	I feel badly if I don't perform well on my job.	1	2	3	4
9.	I live, eat, and breathe my job.	1	2	3	4
10.	I would probably keep working even if I didn't need the money.	1	2	3	4
11.	To me, work is only a small part of who I am.	1	2	3	4
12.	How well I perform on my job is extremely important to me.	1	2	3	4
13.	Most things in life are more important than work.	1	2	3	4
14.	I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work.	1	2	3	4
15.	I enjoy my work more than anything else I do.	1	2	3	4
16.	I'll stay overtime to finish a job even if I'm not paid extra for it.	1	2	3	4
17.	Sometimes I lie awake thinking ahead to the next day's work.	1	2	3	4
18.	I am able to use abilities I value in the performance of my job.	1	2	3	4
19.	I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job.	1	2	3	4
20.	I feel good when I perform my job well.	1	2	3	4
21.	The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX C

LETTER AND RATING SCALE SENT TO JUDGES

Dear _____,

For my dissertation research, I am interested in studying the family environments of dual-career couples. Although commitment of both husband and wife to career roles is an integral part of the definition of the dual-career family, most investigators have failed to differentiate between families in which work is highly salient to both husband and wife and families in which work is viewed primarily as an "8 to 5" job. Consequently, I have developed an occupational commitment scale which I hope can be used to make this important distinction. Your assistance in helping me to determine whether or not the items I have included are valid measures of occupational commitment is greatly appreciated. In addition to rating the individual items, any suggestions you have would be considered most helpful.

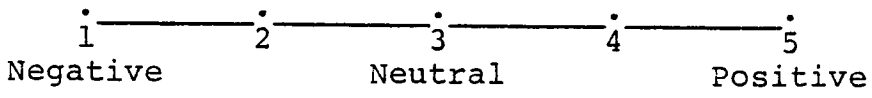
The Occupational Commitment Scale is designed to measure whether or not the respondent considers his/her job as a central life interest and his/her perception of whether or not job performance is central to self-esteem. Items designed to tap dimensions of work commitment such as expectations of future employment, career aspirations, perceptions of occupational competence, and satisfaction with present employment are included. For women participating in the study, an additional item will be used in order to assess the respondent's willingness to continue working even when it might be considered to be a socially deviant choice (i.e., when children are young). Some of the items included in the scale were selected from job involvement scales developed by Lodahl and Kejner, Davis, French and Kahn, Iverson and Reuder, and Vroom. Additional items were selected from a questionnaire developed by Holohan and Gilbert, and other items were constructed by the researcher.

Sincerely,

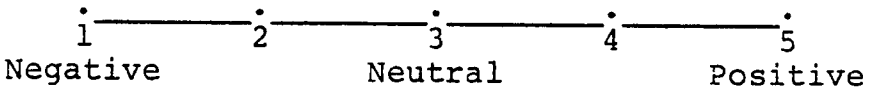
Becky Heath, Assistant Professor
Department of Human Development
and Family Life

Please rate the following items according to how positive, negative or neutral each statement is toward occupational commitment. Without consulting with anyone else, circle the numeral that most accurately describes your opinion.

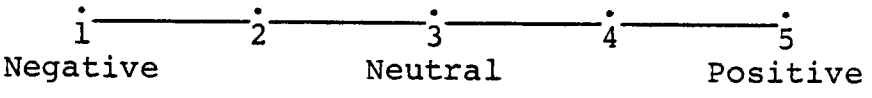
1. The most important things that happen to my involve my work (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



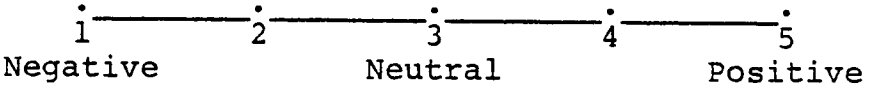
2. I spend a great deal of time on matters related to my job both during and after working hours (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



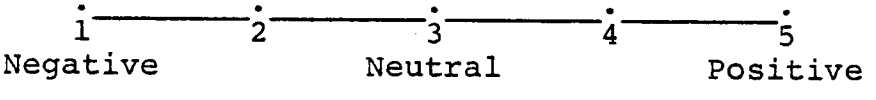
3. I feel badly if I don't perform well on my job (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



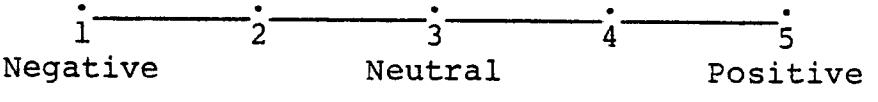
4. I live, eat, and breathe my job (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



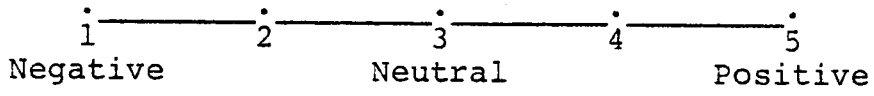
5. I would probably keep working even if I didn't need the money (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



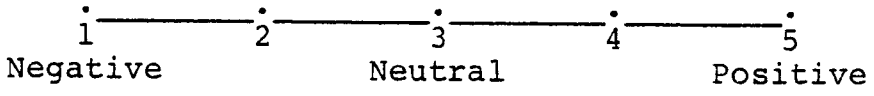
6. To me, work is only a small part of who I am (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



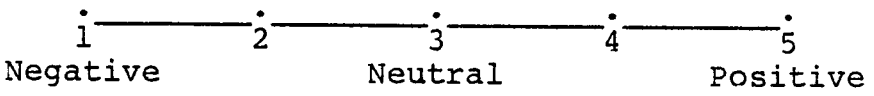
7. How well I perform on my job is extremely important to me (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



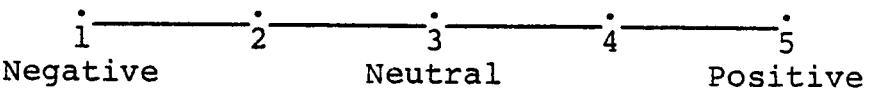
8. Most things in life are more important than work (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



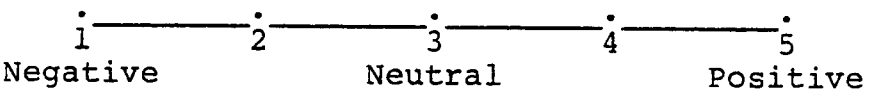
9. I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



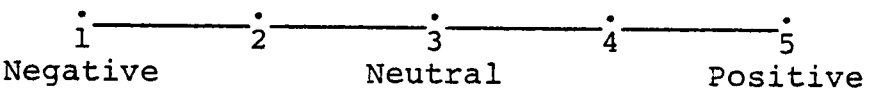
10. I enjoy my work more than anything else I do (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



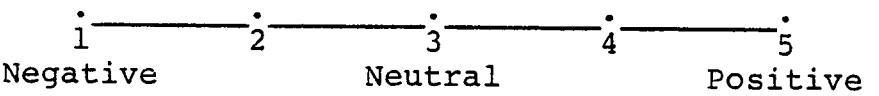
11. I'll stay overtime to finish a job even if I'm not paid for it (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



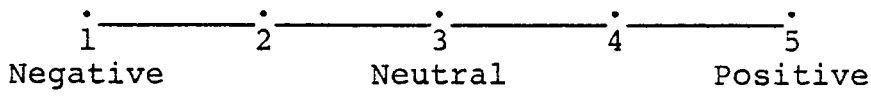
12. Sometimes I lie awake thinking ahead to the next day's work (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



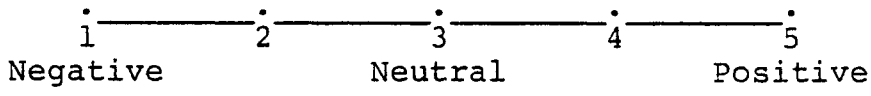
13. I am able to use abilities I value in the performance of my job (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



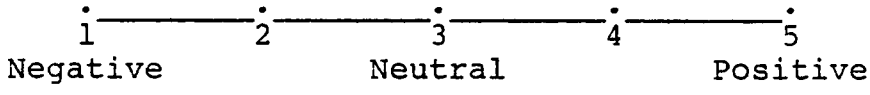
14. I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



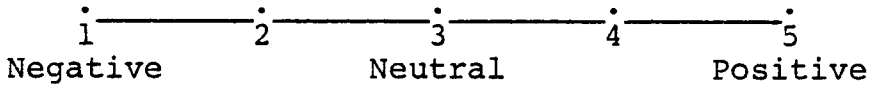
15. I feel good when I perform my job well (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



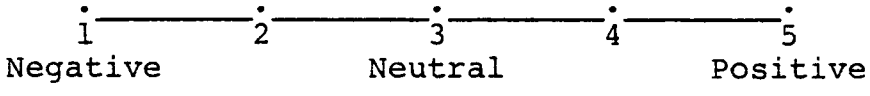
16. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job (strongly agree to strongly disagree).



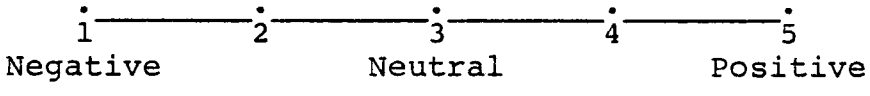
17. Do you wish to continue working during the next 10 years? (definitely not to definitely so)



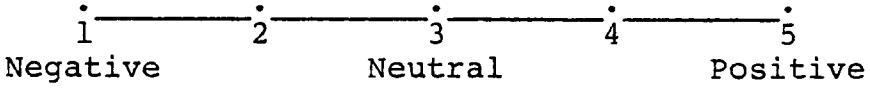
18. In general, how do you feel about your present work situation? (very dissatisfied to very satisfied)



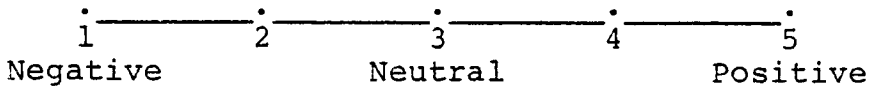
19. How committed are you to your work? (no commitment to complete commitment)



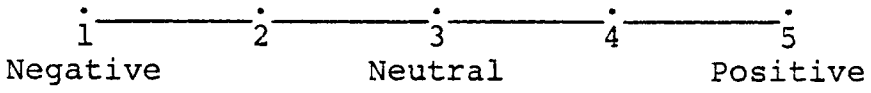
20. How high are your aspirations in regard to occupational recognition and achievement? (very low to very high)



21. How do you view your present level of competence in regard to your work? (very low to very high)



22. Would you continue to work if you had a preschool child? (definitely not to definitely so; <u>to be included in wives' questionnaire only</u>)



APPENDIX D

FAMILY ENVIRONMENT SCALE
(MODIFIED)

The questions below are statements about families. Please indicate whether you think they are true of your family (1) all of the time, (2) most of the time, (3) some of the time, or (4) none of the time.

Some of the statements may be true for some family members but not others. Mark the response that would be appropriate for most members of your family. If the members are evenly divided, decide what is your stronger overall impression and answer accordingly.

Remember, we want to know what your family seems like to you so don't try to figure out how other members of your family would respond. Please give us your general impression of your family for each statement.

		True all of the time	True most of the time	True some of the time	True none of the time
1.	Family members help and support one another.	1	2	3	4
2.	Family members keep their feelings to themselves.	1	2	3	4
3.	We fight in our family	1	2	3	4
4.	We don't do things on our own in our family.	1	2	3	4
5.	We feel it is important to be the best at whatever you do.	1	2	3	4
6.	We talk about political and social problems.	1	2	3	4
7.	We spend weekends and evenings at home.	1	2	3	4
8.	Family members attend church, synagogue, or Sunday School.	1	2	3	4

		True all of the time	True most of the time	True some of the time	True none of the time
9.	Activities in our family are carefully planned.	1	2	3	4
10.	Family members are not ordered around.	1	2	3	4
11.	We seem to be killing time at home.	1	2	3	4
12.	We say anything we want to around home.	1	2	3	4
13.	Family members do not become openly angry.	1	2	3	4
14.	In our family, we are encouraged to be independent.	1	2	3	4
15.	Getting ahead in life is important in our family.	1	2	3	4
16.	We do not go to lectures, plays or concerts.	1	2	3	4
17.	Friends come over for dinner or to visit.	1	2	3	4
18.	We don't say prayers in our family.	1	2	3	4
19.	We are very neat and orderly.	1	2	3	4
20.	There are few rules to follow in our family.	1	2	3	4
21.	We put a lot of energy into what we do at home.	1	2	3	4
22.	It's hard to "blow off steam" at home without upsetting somebody.	1	2	3	4
23.	Family members get so angry they throw things.	1	2	3	4

		True all of the time	True most of the time	True some of the time	True none of the time
24.	We think things out for ourselves in our family.	1	2	3	4
25.	How much money a person makes is not important to us.	1	2	3	4
26.	Learning about new and different things is important in our family.	1	2	3	4
27.	Nobody in our family is active in sports, Little League, bowling, etc.	1	2	3	4
28.	We talk about the religious meaning of Christmas, Passover, or other holidays.	1	2	3	4
29.	It's hard to find things when you need them in our household.	1	2	3	4
30.	There is one family member who makes decisions.	1	2	3	4
31.	There is a feeling of togetherness in our family.	1	2	3	4
32.	We tell each other about our personal problems.	1	2	3	4
33.	Family members do not lose their tempers.	1	2	3	4
34.	We come and go as we want to in our family.	1	2	3	4
35.	We believe in competition and "may the best man win."	1	2	3	4

		True all of the time	True most of the time	True some of the time	True none of the time
36.	We are not interested in cultural events.	1	2	3	4
37.	We go to movies, sports events, camping, etc.	1	2	3	4
38.	We don't believe in heaven or hell.	1	2	3	4
39.	Being on time is important in our family.	1	2	3	4
40.	There are set ways of doing things at home.	1	2	3	4
41.	We do not volunteer when something has to be done at home.	1	2	3	4
42.	If we feel like doing something on the spur of the moment we just pick up and go.	1	2	3	4
43.	Family members criticize each other.	1	2	3	4
44.	There is little privacy in our family.	1	2	3	4
45.	We strive to do things just a little better next time.	1	2	3	4
46.	We do not have intellectual discussions.	1	2	3	4
47.	Everyone in our family has a hobby or two.	1	2	3	4
48.	Family members have strict ideas about what is right and wrong.	1	2	3	4
49.	People change their minds in our family.	1	2	3	4

		True all of the time	True most of the time	True some of the time	True none of the time
50.	There is an emphasis on following rules in our family.	1	2	3	4
51.	Family members back each other up.	1	2	3	4
52.	Someone gets upset if you complain in our family.	1	2	3	4
53.	Family members hit each other.	1	2	3	4
54.	Family members rely on themselves when a problem comes up.	1	2	3	4
55.	Family members don't worry about job promotions, school grades, etc.	1	2	3	4
56.	Someone in our family plays a musical instrument.	1	2	3	4
57.	Family members are not involved in recreational activities outside work or school.	1	2	3	4
58.	We believe there are things you just have to take on faith.	1	2	3	4
59.	Family members make sure their rooms are neat.	1	2	3	4
60.	Everyone has an equal say in family discussions.	1	2	3	4
61.	There is little group spirit in our family.	1	2	3	4

		True all of the time	True most of the time	True some of the time	True none of the time
62.	Money and paying bills are openly talked about in our family.	1	2	3	4
63.	If there's a disagreement in our family, we try to smooth things over and keep the peace.	1	2	3	4
64.	Family members encourage each other to stand up for their rights.	1	2	3	4
65.	In our family, we don't try hard to succeed.	1	2	3	4
66.	Family members go to the library.	1	2	3	4
67.	Family members attend courses of take lessons for some hobby or interest (outside of school).	1	2	3	4
68.	In our family each person has different ideas about what is right and wrong.	1	2	3	4
69.	Each person's duties are clearly defined in our family.	1	2	3	4
70.	We can do whatever we want to in our family.	1	2	3	4
71.	We get along well with each other.	1	2	3	4
72.	We are careful about what we say to each other.	1	2	3	4
73.	Family members try to one-up or out-do each other.	1	2	3	4

		True all of the time	True most of the time	True some of the time	True none of the time
74.	It's hard to be by yourself without hurting someone's feelings in our household.	1	2	3	4
75.	"Work before play" is the rule in our family.	1	2	3	4
76.	Watching T.V. is more important than reading in our family.	1	2	3	4
77.	Family members go out a lot.	1	2	3	4
78.	The Bible is an important book in our home.	1	2	3	4
79.	Money is not handled carefully in our family.	1	2	3	4
80.	Rules are inflexible in our household.	1	2	3	4
81.	There is plenty of time and attention for everyone in our family.	1	2	3	4
82.	There are spontaneous discussions in our family.	1	2	3	4
83.	In our family, we believe you don't get anywhere by raising your voice.	1	2	3	4
84.	We are not encouraged to speak up for ourselves in our family.	1	2	3	4
85.	Family members are compared with others as to how well they are doing at work or school.	1	2	3	4

		True all of the time	True most of the time	True some of the time	True none of the time
86.	Family members like music, art and literature.	1	2	3	4
87.	Our main form of entertaining is watching T.V. or listening to the radio.	1	2	3	4
88.	Family members believe that if you sin you will be punished.	1	2	3	4
89.	Dishes are done immediately after eating.	1	2	3	4
90.	You can't get away with anything in our family.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX E

DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

Most persons have disagreements in their marriage relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your spouse for each item on the following list. On the scale of 1-6, circle the appropriate number.

		Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occasionally Disagree	Frequently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
1.	Handling family finances	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Matters of recreation	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Religious matters	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Demonstrations of affection	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Friends	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Sex relations	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Philosophy of life	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Aims, goals, and things believed important	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Amount of time spent together	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Making major decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Household tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occasionally Disagree	Frequently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
14.	Leisure time interests and activities	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Career decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6
		All the Time	Most of the Time	More Often Than Not	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
16.	How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation or terminating your relationship?	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	Do you confide in your mate?	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Do you ever regret that you married?	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	How often do you and your partner quarrel?	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves"?	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Every Day	Almost Every Day	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
23.	Do you kiss your mate?	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	1	2	3	4	5

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate?

		Never	Less Than Once a Month	Once or Twice a Month	Once or Twice a Week	Once a Day	More Often
25.	Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Laugh together	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	Calmly discuss something	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	Work together on a project	1	2	3	4	5	6

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks (circle 1 for yes or 2 for no).

29. 1 2 Being too tired for sex

30. 1 2 Not showing love

The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

31.

Extremely Unhappy	Fairly Unhappy	A Little Unhappy	Happy	Very Happy	Extremely Happy	Perfect
•	•	•	•	•	•	•

Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship? Circle only one answer.

32.

1. I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does.
2. I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does.
3. I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.
4. It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed.
5. It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.
6. My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

APPENDIX F

INITIAL LETTER EXPLAINING PROJECT
TO POTENTIAL PARTICIPANTS

Dear Faculty and Staff:

We are conducting a study in order to learn more about marriages, jobs, and raising children. Your name has been selected from The University of Alabama faculty and staff directory as a person who might be eligible to participate in our study. We are interested in families in which both husband and wife work 35 hours or more each week and have at least one child 18 years of age or younger living at home. Because we want to study married couples, we need persons to participate whose spouse also would agree to participate. We know that families who meet our criteria for eligibility are very busy; but your participation is extremely important as we seek to learn more about couples who are combining jobs and family life.

Your participation in this study would involve less than 45 minutes of your time to complete a written questionnaire. Any information you give us will remain strictly confidential. We are interested only in group data, not individual responses. Findings will be made available to those who choose to participate.

Please return the enclosed card through campus mail (no need for an envelope). If you agree to participate, we will send you a questionnaire to fill out and one for your spouse to complete.

Thank you for reading this letter. We hope you will join our study.

Becky Heath, Assistant Professor
Department of Human Development
and Family Life

APPENDIX G

POSTCARD INCLUDED WITH INITIAL LETTER
TO POTENTIAL PARTICIPANTS

_____ Yes, we would like to participate in this study

_____ No, we are not interested in participating in this study

_____ We are not eligible to participate in this study

Signature _____

APPENDIX H

LETTER INCLUDED WITH QUESTIONNAIRES

Dear Participant:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in our study of dual-working couples. Enclosed you will find two copies of the questionnaire; one is for you to complete and the other one is for your spouse. Without consulting with each other, please fill out the questionnaires sometime within the next week and mail them in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelopes. Thanks again for spending your time to help us with our study.

Sincerely,

Becky Heath, Assistant Professor
Department of Human Development
and Family Life

Enclosures

APPENDIX I

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

The purpose of this study is to learn more about the relationships among occupational involvement, marital relationships, and the emphasis given to different aspects of family living. Your participation in this study will involve less than 45 minutes of your time to fill out the enclosed questionnaire. Your spouse is being asked to fill out the same questionnaire independently. Although some of the questions may stimulate thinking about certain aspects of your life that are not particularly satisfying, it is hoped that such thought will prove to be constructive.

We would like you to understand our commitment to the following safeguards in your interest:

1. Your confidentiality as a participant will be maintained by the use of code numbers instead of names on all materials. The data gathered will be reported in summary form with no reference to you personally. Individual data and participant identities will not be shared with anyone, not even your spouse.

2. You are free to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation in this study at any time.

3. Answers to any questions you may have about the procedures of this study are available at any time. Contact Becky Heath, Department of Human Development and Family Life, The University of Alabama, 348-6158.

4. There are no specific risks or benefits associated with your participation in the study, but the group results may be of interest to you.

5. It will take less than 45 minutes of your time to complete the questionnaire.

I have read this form and on the basis of informed consent agree to participate in this study.

Date: _____ Signature: _____

I would be interested in receiving a copy of the group results.

Yes ____ No ____

APPENDIX J

LETTER SENT TO NONRESPONDENTS

Dear Participant:

We would like to thank you again for agreeing to participate in our study of dual-working couples. If you have not already done so, won't you please take a few minutes to fill out the questionnaire? If you didn't receive one or have misplaced the questionnaire, please call 348-6158, leave your name and address, and we'll be happy to send you another one. Again, we want to emphasize the importance of your participation as we seek to learn more about couples who are combining marriage, jobs, and raising children. We also would like to reaffirm our commitment to maintaining your confidentiality as a participant. We are interested only in group data, not individual responses. The information that you give us will not be shared with anyone. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Becky Heath, Assistant Professor
Department of Human Development
and Family Life

APPENDIX K

SUBGROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR DYADIC ADJUSTMENT AND THE FAMILY SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

Table 12

Subgroup Means and Standard Deviations for Dyadic Adjustment and the Family Social Environment

	Spouse			
	Husband		Wife	
Variables	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Wife high and husband high (n = 56)				
Dyadic adjustment	68.51	10.43	69.83	9.82
Cohesion	28.11	3.94	28.43	3.87
Expressiveness	24.96	2.94	25.82	3.30
Conflict	18.50	2.98	18.69	3.94
Independence	24.33	2.87	25.36	3.68
Achievement orientation	26.50	3.00	27.25	3.37
Intellectual-cultural orientation	26.85	4.24	28.07	5.04
Active recreational orientation	24.43	3.89	24.71	5.00
Moral-religious emphasis	25.45	3.44	25.23	3.87
Organization	25.10	3.11	25.50	2.69
Control	21.80	2.70	21.71	4.02
Wife low and husband low (n = 50)				
Dyadic adjustment	71.97	6.11	73.25	5.84
Cohesion	28.18	3.18	29.80	2.18
Expressiveness	25.44	2.53	26.16	2.54
Conflict	18.21	2.74	17.68	2.36
Independence	24.41	2.11	25.04	2.42
Achievement orientation	24.49	3.20	24.08	2.98
Intellectual-cultural orientation	25.83	3.99	26.68	3.88
Active recreational orientation	24.52	2.86	25.16	3.47

Table 12 (continued)

Variables	Spouse: Husband $\bar{X}$	Husband SD	Wife $\bar{X}$	Wife SD
Moral-religious emphasis	26.79	4.58	26.72	5.14
Organization	23.21	2.67	24.36	2.94
Control	21.15	2.04	20.28	2.91
Wife high and husband low (n = 36)				
Dyadic adjustment	66.51	11.77	70.03	10.01
Cohesion	28.00	3.93	29.28	2.93
Expressiveness	23.03	3.57	24.79	3.67
Conflict	18.88	4.21	18.00	4.26
Independence	23.83	2.73	24.28	3.41
Achievement orientation	23.86	3.08	26.34	3.21
Intellectual-cultural orientation	24.11	4.40	26.69	4.96
Active recreational orientation	23.24	3.43	24.68	4.17
Moral-religious emphasis	24.22	4.45	26.22	4.29
Organization	22.72	3.89	24.08	4.17
Control	20.94	2.86	20.81	3.53
Wife low and husband high (n = 42)				
Dyadic adjustment	71.57	7.06	71.18	7.35
Cohesion	27.67	4.70	27.64	4.45
Expressiveness	24.71	3.41	25.88	2.53
Conflict	17.96	3.95	18.96	3.70
Independence	23.68	2.53	24.71	2.19
Achievement orientation	24.81	2.66	24.41	3.48
Intellectual-cultural orientation	27.24	4.36	27.83	5.30
Active recreational orientation	23.67	4.91	24.59	4.15
Moral-religious emphasis	25.75	5.60	26.04	5.10
Organization	24.52	3.30	24.14	3.10
Control	22.14	3.21	21.73	2.90

APPENDIX L

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT AND SELECTED SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Table 13

Correlations Between Occupational Commitment and Selected Sociodemographic Variables

Variables	*r*	Level of significance
Education	.26	< .001
Hours worked per week	.51	< .001
Salary	.34	< .001
Age	.18	< .007

n = 184

VITA

Becky Thomas Heath was born on April 16, 1947, in Stillwater, Oklahoma. She attended elementary and secondary school in that city and was graduated from C. E. Donart High School in 1964. She attended Oklahoma State University and received a Bachelor of Science degree in Home Economics, majoring in family relations and child development, in 1968. In the fall of 1968, she accepted a graduate assistantship and began study toward a master's degree in the Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University. The Master of Science degree in Home Economics was awarded in 1970.

From 1970-73, she held the position of Instructor in Child Development and Family Relationships at The University of Illinois. In 1973, she accepted a position in the Department of Human Development and Family Life, School of Home Economics, The University of Alabama. In the spring of 1978, she took a one-year leave of absence from The University of Alabama to begin study in the interdisciplinary doctoral program in home economics, The University of Tennessee. Her major area of concentration was in the Department of Child and Family Studies. She currently is Assistant Professor of Human Development and Family Life at The University of Alabama.