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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Sandra Shoun entitled "A Comparative Investigation of Selected Attitudes of Dual Career Couples in Which the Wife Earns More/Earns Less Than the Husband." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Psychology and Guidance.

Siegfried C. Dietz, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

# A COMPARATIVE INVESTIGATION OF SELECTED ATTITUDES OF DUAL CAREER COUPLES IN WHICH THE WIFE EARNS MORE/ EARNS LESS THAN THE HUSBAND

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Education

Degree

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Sandra Shoun

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## DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated with love and respect to my mother, Frances S. Snyder, whose achievements, wisdom, and courage inspired me.

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## ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this study was to investigate attitudes of dual career couples in which the wife earned a higher income than the husband compared to couples in which the wife earned a lower income than the husband. The sample was comprised of dual career couples in the East Tennessee area: 79 couples in which the wife earned the higher income and 105 couples in which the wife earned the lower income.

The dependent variables used in the study included self-esteem, marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, and three dimensions of gender roles. The independent variable, income, was used to classify couples into the nontraditional and traditional groups. Selected demographic variables were also analyzed. These variables were explored via the following instruments: the Self-Esteem Scale, the Marital Satisfaction Scale, the Job Satisfaction Scale, the Sex-Role Inventory, and a demographic information inventory.

Independent samples $t$ tests were used to compare mean scores on the dependent variables between nontraditional and traditional dual career couples. Pearson product-moment correlations were used to analyze relationships among the variables. Independent samples chi square analyses were used to determine differences in annual income and occupational prestige of wives, husbands, and couples in the nontraditional and traditional groups. Stepwise discriminant analysis determined the variables that, in combination, significantly contributed to separation of cases into the two groups. All statistical tests were made at the .05 level of significance.

The findings indicated by the present study include:

Attitudes toward self, marriage, and job were not significantly different for couples in which the wife earned the higher income and for couples in which the wife earned the lower income.

Dual career couples in which the wife earned the higher income held significantly more egalitarian attitudes toward the roles of wife and mother, the roles of husband and father, and the situations pertaining to occupational pursuits of wife and husband than dual career couples in which the wife earned the lower income.

Amount of support husbands provided their wives who earned the higher income and these husbands' attitudes toward the three dimensions of gender roles were significantly related. More support was related to more egalitarian attitudes.

The more the wives' incomes exceeded the husbands' incomes, the more egalitarian were the husbands' attitudes toward the roles of wife and mother.

TABLE OF CONTENTS


| CHAPTER | | PAGE |
|---|---|---|
| I. | INTRODUCTION. . . . . | 1 |
| | Theoretical Framework . . . . . | 5 |
| | Statement of the Problem. . . . . | 7 |
| | Purpose of the Study. . . . . | 8 |
| | Definition of Terms Used in the Study . . . . . | 9 |
| | Organization of the Study . . . . . | 11 |
| II. | LITERATURE REVIEW . . . . . | 12 |
| | Organization of the Literature Review . . . . . | 12 |
| | Attitude Formation and Change . . . . . | 12 |
| | Women's Roles . . . . . | 16 |
| | Men's Roles . . . . . | 18 |
| | Self-Esteem . . . . . | 20 |
| | Marital Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction. . . . . | 22 |
| | Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction. . . . . | 26 |
| | Income: Symbolic Success . . . . . | 28 |
| | Summary . . . . . | 31 |
| III. | METHODOLOGY . . . . . | 32 |
| | Procedure . . . . . | 32 |
| | Subjects. . . . . | 33 |
| | Nontraditional group of dual career couples . . . . . | 34 |
| | Traditional group of dual career couples. . . . . | 35 |
| | Instrumentation . . . . . | 37 |
| | Analysis of Data. . . . . | 40 |
| | Limitations of the Study. . . . . | 41 |
| IV. | FINDINGS. . . . . | 43 |
| | Overview of Findings. . . . . | 43 |
| | Means and Results of $t$ Tests for the Nontraditional and Traditional Groups of Dual Career Couples . . . . . | 43 |
| | Hypothesis one. . . . . | 44 |
| | Hypothesis two. . . . . | 47 |
| | Hypothesis three. . . . . | 48 |
| | Hypothesis four . . . . . | 48 |
| | Correlation Analysis of Relationships Among Study Variables and Demographic Variables . . . . . | 50 |
| | Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional, Traditional, and All Wives and Husbands. . . . . | 51 |
| | Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional or Traditional Wives and/or Husbands and All Wives and/or Husbands. . . . . | 54 |

CHAPTER PAGE

IV. (Continued)

Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional or Traditional or All Wives and/or Husbands. . . . . 58
Relationships of Income and Occupational Prestige Between Nontraditional and Traditional Dual Career Couples . . . . . 62
Discriminant Function Analysis. . . . . 66
Perceived Advantages and Disadvantages of Spouse Earning More. . . . . 68
Nontraditional husbands' responses. . . . . 70
Traditional wives' responses. . . . . 71
Reasons for Providing Support to Spouse Who Earns More. . . 72
Nontraditional husbands . . . . . 72
Traditional wives . . . . . 73

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS. . . . . 75

Discussion. . . . . 75
Conclusions . . . . . 77
Implications. . . . . 82
Directions for Future Research. . . . . 84

BIBLIOGRAPHY. . . . . 86

APPENDICES. . . . . 96

A. CORRESPONDENCE. . . . . 97
B. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ON NONTRADITIONAL AND TRADITIONAL DUAL CAREER COUPLES . . . . . 100
C. SURVEY UTILIZED IN THE STUDY. . . . . 104
D. OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES AND OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE SCALES. . . 112
E. CORRELATION MATRICES. . . . . 124

VITA. . . . . 127

LIST OF TABLES


TABLE PAGE

1. Means and Standard Deviations and Results of t Tests for the Nontraditional and Traditional Groups of Dual Career Couples . . . . . 45

2. Means and Standard Deviations and Results of t Tests for the Nontraditional and Traditional Wives and Husbands. . . . 46

3. Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional, Traditional, and All Wives and Husbands . . . . . 52

4. Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional or Traditional Wives and/or Husbands and All Wives and/or Husbands . 55

5. Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional or Traditional or All Wives and/or Husbands. . . . . 59

6. Means and Standard Deviations for Annual Income and Occupational Prestige of Wives, Husbands, and Wife-Husband Couples in Nontraditional and Traditional Groups . . . . . 63

7. The Relationship of Annual Income Between Nontraditional and Traditional Wives, Husbands, and Couples . . . . . 64

8. The Relationship of Occupational Prestige Between Nontraditional and Traditional Wives, Husbands, and Couples. . . . . 65

9. The Univariate F of Each Study Variable Utilized in Discriminant Function Analysis. . . . . 67

10. Classification Function Coefficients of Each Study Variable. . 69

# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

With the advent of the women's liberation movement, questions regarding the concepts of "femininity" and "masculinity" have emerged as salient issues for public discussion as well as academic inquiry. Traditional gender roles and attitudes are being examined, and their suitability in today's society is being questioned by women and men alike. The assumption that career and family roles need to be based solely on gender is no longer functional for some wives and husbands.

Traditional roles and behaviors of women and men in today's society represent remnants of "primitive" socialization practices developed for survival (Freeman, 1976). Technology has reduced largely the need for great physical strength; however, the concept of male superiority survives. According to Goode (1965), even in modern society jobs are consistently assigned by gender. Goode further stated that "whatever the strictly male tasks are, they are defined as more honorific . . ." (p. 70). The division of labor between the sexes which originated as a method of survival has been perpetuated in other behavioral and attitudinal areas.

Sawyer (1976) concluded that societal expectations regarding gender-specific roles impede freedom of women and men alike. According to Sawyer, adherence to these roles stifles full human development and curtails one's choices of activities and behaviors. However, traditional roles have carried over into the occupational area and unwritten mandates have essentially required the wife to subordinate

her occupational and income levels to those of her husband. Even if the wife does not choose to subordinate her occupational and income levels to those of her husband, she very likely will receive a lower salary and a lower job position because of the traditional societal attitude that the woman's participation in the work force is non-essential.

A review of economic trends indicates that today's inflationary economy necessitates two paychecks for the family's survival. According to recent statistics (Johnson, 1981), the percentage of married women participating in the labor force rose from 40.8% in 1970 to 49.4% in 1979, whereas the percentage of married men decreased from 86.6% in 1970 to 81.4% in 1979. In 1979 45.7% of both spouses worked, an increase of more than 9% since 1970. The full-time working wife contributed approximately 38% to the family income in 1977 and earned a median income of $8,600 (Johnson, 1979).

Although earnings tend to increase as the amount of education increases, income levels based on level of education for women and men are disproportionate. Powell (1978) reported that the average working woman has the same level of education as the average working man (12.5 years), yet in 1979 the average income for the woman working full time was 58% of the average income of the man working full time: $8,570 for women and $14,850 for men (Young, 1980). One out of every ten women workers earns as much as the average male worker, whereas only one out of every six men earns less than the average female worker. In fact, in 1978 the median income of a fully employed woman with a college degree was less than the income of a fully employed man with an eighth

grade education: $11,866 for women with four years of college and $13,322 for men with an eighth grade education (Powell, 1978).

The income differential between women and men in general and between wives and husbands is related to stereotypic attitudes; that is, society has traditionally viewed the man/husband as "breadwinner" and the wife's income as "extra and/or luxury" income. Many wives and husbands cannot accept the condition of wives earning higher incomes than their husbands (Pogrebin, 1976; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971). In fact, the wife may be unwilling to earn a higher income for fear of damaging the husband's ego (Safilios-Rothschild and Dijkers, 1978). Stereotypic attitudes which advocate that women pursue only the roles of wife and mother or work in jobs which are extensions of domestic work have hindered advancement and success of women in the work force.

Typically, wives and women in general are not encouraged to prepare for or seek high-level and high-paying careers/occupations. Most women (80%) end up in low-level and/or closed positions. On the other hand, men learn that success is their most important goal. The norm for women is to pursue the goal of wife/mother. The norm for men is that they pursue a career/occupation (Fogarty, Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971). In reality, however, in 1977 only 34% of all wife-husband families represented the stereotypic pattern of wife as homemaker and husband as breadwinner (Powell, 1978).

Gender role attitudes of individuals are created and influenced by certain societal expectations which predetermine an individual's tendency to act in one way rather than another. Despite the obvious inequities between the sexes in income, it is apparent that more

flexible gender roles are becoming increasingly acceptable. For example, companies have begun to offer paternal leave to male employees and to re-examine rules which previously prohibited hiring both wife and husband. In addition, some wives and husbands are choosing to reverse roles in the home environment. The husband is pursuing the role of househusband and the wife's role is that of breadwinner. Likewise, dual career couples in which the wife earns a higher income than the husband have assumed alternative and more flexible gender roles. Some wives and husbands are not adhering to traditionally acceptable roles and behaviors.

The fact that role reversals are occurring seems to indicate that couples are beginning to create their own life styles based on individual preferences and economic needs rather than stereotypic norms. Since income is regarded by some researchers (Blood, 1963; Brenton, 1966) as the major indicator of career success, it is noteworthy that at least 8% of working wives earn incomes higher than their husbands (Pogrebin, 1976). In 1980 over three million working wives were employed in professional fields (Johnson, 1981). Many wives in the dual career marriage are striving for career success equal to or exceeding the husband's. According to Voss and Skinner (1975, p. 213), "Women today seem to feel more comfortable about expressing self-achieving orientation than did women in years past."

The role reversal involving the wife as major income earner has been subtle and investigated only in a peripheral way. The present study was designed to examine certain attitudes of dual career couples in order to explore the effects of the more flexible gender roles and

alternative behaviors which appeared to be gaining acceptance in the early 1980s.

## Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the present study is provided by social comparison theory which focuses on an individual's need to evaluate the self in comparison with others, especially significant others (Festinger, 1954). Self-evaluation or comparison with significant others can influence one's affiliations, i.e., similarity with another can lead one to select that person as a partner (Miller and Suls, 1977). Similarity of attitudes, even more than similarity of abilities, is an important indicator of partner selection (Miller and Suls, 1977). In addition, similarity of attitudes is more important in situations where cooperation is emphasized than in situations where competition is desired. Therefore, wives and husbands tend to select as partners those whom they perceive to have attitudes similar to their own. Further, social comparison theory postulates that attitudes of some individuals may be dissimilar to those of society in general. Allen and Wilder (cited in Suls and Miller, 1977) provided evidence that persons who are involved in similar situations of nonconformity and are aware that each is subject to similar group pressure may provide the support necessary for each to maintain their nonconformity.

Cavan (1962) maintained that one's portrayal of social roles is an extension of self-perception. Attitudes toward self develop through and exhibit themselves during one's interactions with others.

According to Sherif (1948), however, one may be involved in an "unsimilar" reference group whose attitudes she/he rejects. This reference group may be used as a model to develop different or opposing attitudes while at the same time another similar reference group or significant other may be used to develop and/or strengthen attitudes. Further, negative feedback from dissimilar and "irrelevant" others does not reduce "self-evaluation uncertainty" or lower self-esteem because dissimilar others lack "negative affective potency" (Mettee and Riskind, 1974). Thus, those who have positive self-esteem may hold atypical attitudes toward and engage in atypical social roles, social roles which do not fit the stereotypic social or group norm. According to Korman (1970), individuals participate in behavior that is consistent with their self-esteem.

Festinger (1954) postulated that an individual may choose a reference group or significant other in an attempt to establish or confirm identity rather than to be liked. In addition, an individual may choose one partner or social supporter which enables her/him to resist conformity to norms of a reference group. The selective choice of a significant other helps the individual maintain the social position that she/he perceives as positive. The social comparison process indicates that an individual will choose a similar significant other in order to acquire an authentic and stable self-image (Berger, 1977). Further, self-esteem tends to rise when social comparisons are restricted to a small group as opposed to a large group (Purkey, 1970).

Nontraditional dual career couples in which the wife's income is higher than that of her husband may hold atypical values and attitudes compared with the present values and attitudes of society in general. These couples may have higher self-esteem. Dittes (1959) found that individuals who have high self-esteem are not as concerned with the reference group's norms and attitudes as individuals who have low self-esteem. Nontraditional dual career couples have chosen a different mode of behavior which may be indicative of their evolving attitudes. Further, nontraditional dual career couples who are perceived positively may, in the future, serve as a reference group for self-evaluation and attitude formation and set a trend of behavior for traditional dual career couples.

## Statement of the Problem

Interest is increasing in research related to the impact of the working wife on the marital relationship (Bird, 1979; Rapoport, Rapoport, and Bumstead, 1978; Rice, 1979). Although attitudes toward income of wives and husbands and women and men in general have been investigated, researchers have not investigated potential differences between attitudes of dual career couples in which the wife earns more than the husband and those of couples in which the wife earns less.

Attitudes are determined largely by cultural or group standards (Festinger, 1957) and attitudes in turn affect behaviors (Sherif and Sherif, 1967). Since the traditional cultural standard is for

the husband to be the major wage earner, couples in which the wife earns a higher income than the husband--defined for the purposes of this study as nontraditional couples--probably hold different attitudes from traditional couples in which the wife's income is lower than the husband's. Nontraditional couples may not adhere to cultural norms governing gender roles because these norms are antithetical to their own lifestyle preferences.

Researchers have found that attitudes toward self, marriage, and job are affected by the amount of income earned (Komarvosky, 1973; Scanzoni, 1975; Wernimont and Fitzpatrick, 1972). Although the findings are somewhat tenuous, income levels also may reflect gender role attitudes, with nontraditional dual career couples espousing more egalitarian attitudes than traditional dual career couples. However, studies of attitudes of dual career couples in which the wife is the major income earner are virtually nonexistent. An investigation of two groups of dual career couples distinguished by income level of the wife in relation to that of the husband will help to determine if satisfaction with self, marriage, and job and gender role egalitarianism are influenced by the gender of the spouse who earns the higher income.

## Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study was to determine if there were differences in attitudes toward self, marriage, job, and gender roles of two groups of dual career couples in East Tennessee, one in which the wife earned a higher income than the husband and one in which

the wife earned a lower income than the husband. To achieve the purpose of the study, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Couples in which the wife earns a higher income than the husband will have higher self-esteem than couples in which the wife earns less.

Hypothesis 2: Couples in which the wife earns more will have higher marital satisfaction than couples in which the wife earns less.

Hypothesis 3: Couples in which the wife earns more will have higher job satisfaction than couples in which the wife earns less.

Hypothesis 4: Couples in which the wife earns a higher income than the husband will have more egalitarian gender role attitudes than couples in which the wife earns a lower income than the husband.

## Definition of Terms Used in the Study

Attitude. A state of readiness to act in one way rather than another in reaction to a stimulus. An attitude is the organization of experience and data with reference to an object and is comprised of three major components: a consistent belief system with reference to that object, a strong emotional component, and a directive for taking action.

Dual career couple. A couple in which both spouses are committed to a career.

Egalitarian. A belief or participation in a role behavior without regard for gender. Both spouses share in career and household responsibilities.

Gender role. A role expected of a male or female because of gender.

Income. Salary/wages along with overtime pay, bonuses, commissions, before taxes and other deductions.

Job dissatisfaction. Aspects of a job such as co-workers, salary, environment that do not fulfill one's needs, desires, expectations.

Job satisfaction. Aspects of a job such as co-workers, salary, environment that fulfill one's needs, desires, expectations.

Marital dissatisfaction. Aspects of a marriage such as companionship, understanding, love that do not fulfill one's needs, desires, expectations; an ungratifying interaction.

Marital satisfaction. Aspects of a marriage such as companionship, understanding, love that fulfill one's needs, desires, expectations; a gratifying interaction.

Nonegalitarian. A belief or participation in gender-specific role behavior. Wives are more family oriented and husbands are more career oriented.

Nontraditional. Attitudes and roles and behaviors which are atypical of societal norms.

Nontraditional dual career couple. A couple in which both wife and husband are committed to their careers, and the wife earns a higher income than the husband.

Reference group. A group who holds certain values and standards after which an individual models her/his behavior and attitudes; a measure of social influence.

Self-esteem. An individual's evaluation of self--a positive or negative self-attitude; how one feels about what she/he perceives her/himself to be.

Significant others. Persons who are important in one's life and who may serve as role models; for example, parents, peers, educators. Persons who may represent a reference group.

Traditional. Attitudes and norms and behaviors which are based on established societal norms.

Traditional dual career couple. A couple in which the wife and husband are committed to a career, and the wife earns a lower income than the husband.

## Organization of the Study

The reporting of this study is organized into five chapters with bibliography and appendices.

Chapter I introduces the problem, presents the theoretical framework, states the problem and the purpose, proposes the hypotheses, defines terms relevant to the study, and describes the organization of the study.

Chapter II presents a review of the literature.

Chapter III describes the methodology employed in the study and states limitations of the study.

Chapter IV presents the findings of the study.

Chapter V consists of the discussion, conclusions, and directions for future research.

The appendices include a reproduction of the instrument, the National Opinion Research Center's prestige rating scale (Vaughn, 1971), the cover letter, follow up postcards, and tables.

# CHAPTER II

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## Organization of the Literature Review

The literature review is comprised of eight sections. Section one describes processes involved in attitude formation and change. Sections two through six discuss nontraditional and traditional attitudes toward the dependent variables: gender roles (women and men), self-esteem, marital satisfaction, and job satisfaction. Section seven presents the nontraditional and traditional attitudes toward the independent variable, income. Section eight consists of a summary.

## Attitude Formation and Change

Individuals tend to evaluate their attitudes and abilities with some objective criteria or "physical realities;" however, in the absence of objective criteria, subjective criteria or reference groups are used (Festinger, 1954). Sherif (1948, p. 162) conducted autokinetic experiments in which subjects were placed in a dark room and asked to describe the movement of a single point of light. The light was stationary; however, in a dark room "a single point of light cannot be localized definitely because there is nothing in reference to which you can locate it." The subjects perceived movement of the point of light and each established distances and parameters within which the light moved. Sherif concluded that an individual who is singly involved in an "unstable" situation will structure a norm that

is characteristic of her/his own individuality. However, when the individual is placed in a group that is also experiencing the "unstable" situation, norms "peculiar to the group" will be established.

In an attempt to accurately identify the self, individuals tend to associate with similar others; however, one may also choose similar others as a means of receiving positive reinforcement. Newcomb (1963) found that persons tend to associate with those who hold similar opinions and attitudes because of the expected positive reinforcement. In addition, Deutsch and Gerard (1955) indicated that in order to receive positive reinforcement, persons may change their present attitudes and take on attitudes that are similar to those of a reference group. Teichman (1973) found that subjects who felt their self-esteem was being threatened chose to seek "self enhancement," rather than "self evaluation." Instead of wanting to compare themselves with others on an attribute, these individuals wanted to feel that they possessed a desirable attribute.

Significant others play a large part in influencing one's attitudes. Significant others are persons who direct the socialization process (Sullivan, 1940) and may act as representatives of the reference group (Mead, 1934). The extent to which an individual adopts the norms of the group largely depends upon the "affection and consideration" transmitted by the significant others; i.e., individuals who perceive the "sentiments" of the significant other to be positive are more prone to comply with the group norms (Shibutani, 1962).

Conformity to group norms is contingent on the influence of the representative significant other as well as the attractiveness of the group. Festinger (1954) concluded that when an individual finds a group strongly attractive, i.e., has status or some other desired characteristic, then she/he may give up a discrepant attitude in order to remain in the group. Asch (1952, pp. 576-577), however, maintained that attitudes "are of the nature of 'commitments,' upon which depends the individual's solidarity with the human element in (her)/his surroundings." Individuals may hold onto an attitude because of the "bond of social unity" and the "mutual dependence" of the group members. Lazarsfeld, Berelson, and Gaudet (1944), by having prior knowledge of the individual's socio-economic orientation, were able to predict behavior of individuals in specific social situations.

Others' attitudes and behaviors, however, may pose threats to some individuals. Hakmiller (1966) and Friend and Gilbert (1973) found that individuals avoid groups or persons who engage in behaviors or espouse attitudes that are threatening to the individual's self-esteem. Further, research indicates that an individual can resist conformity to group pressures when she/he compares her/himself with a similar significant other (Allen, 1975; Asch, 1951), even in the significant other's absence (Newcomb, 1957). In addition, Byrne and Blaylock (1963) found that married couples tend to espouse similar attitudes. Perhaps those who are involved in a marital relationship tend to compare with each other more than with others outside the relationship.

Couples involved in a dual career marriage tend to have similar attitudes. However, some evidence suggest that a woman's attitudes may change more frequently than do a man's and that her attitudes help determine his attitudes. Farrell (1974) provided evidence, from a sample of 240 men, that the major influence affecting men's attitudes and behavior change has been a woman's attitude and behavior. According to Farrell, "If he feels his (wife) and children like it the way it is, he is unlikely to risk that security by rearranging the entire balance of power in the family" (p. 190). In addition, Spitze and Waite (1981) reported that husbands' attitudes do conform to wives' attitudes, especially when first married.

Although women's attitudes tend to influence men's attitudes, studies indicate that there is a disparity between attitudes of nontraditional and traditional wives. In a study conducted on wives who scored both high and low in autonomy, i.e., nontraditional and traditional, Arnott (1972) found that low autonomous wives achieved cognitive consonance by misperceiving their husbands' role preference; they perceived him to prefer the same role they did. High autonomous wives expected their husbands who were experiencing cognitive dissonance to adjust their role preference to that of the wives.

Many wives, however, in order to preserve the feelings of self-worth and in some cases to save the marriage, may continue to follow the stereotypic guidelines of the nonthreatening woman. In addition, women may marry men who espouse the same or similar attitudes toward women's participation in the work force and toward gender roles.

## Women's Roles

Traditionally, husbands have been unwilling to consent to their wives participation in the paid work force because of the societal "expectation" that husbands pursue the role of breadwinner/protector and wives pursue the role of housewife/mother. More recently, however, the inflationary economy has prompted husbands to accept their wives' employment as long as job prestige, salary, or commitment remained subordinate to their own (Pleck, 1974).

Some researchers have found that among dual career spouses, wives and husbands see the wife's career as having secondary status to that of the husband's. For example, Bryson, Bryson, Licht and Licht (1976) reported that career wives were willing to move with their husbands to another job location; however, the wives did not expect the husbands to do the same. A study by Heckman, Bryson, and Bryson (1977) indicated that wives were willing to give the needs of the family and the husband's career first priority. The socialization process has taught wives that their careers should be pursued only if they do not interfere with the traditional roles of wife and mother. Women and men both believe that the successful career woman is unfeminine (Epstein, 1970). Hoffman (1975) provided evidence that the woman who is too achieving and successful in terms of her academic work or career will feel unfeminine and will be rejected by men. In addition, Hoffman (1972) contended that women are not socialized to be independent or encouraged to develop academic and career skills necessary for high level job positions. Achievement for a woman is based on pleasing others by succeeding in domestic tasks rather than succeeding in a career.

Women who do achieve high educational and occupational levels, however, marry at a lower rate compared to males with similar educational and occupational levels, and to women in the general population. Astin (1969) found only 55% of the women who had received doctorates in 1957-58 were married ten years later. Another study of doctoral graduates between 1958 and 1963 reported that 50% of the women were married in contrast to over 95% of the men (Simon, Clark, and Galway, 1967).

Wives who are involved in a dual career relationship, however, still bear major responsibility for household chores. Blood and Hamblin (1958) found that 75% of household chores were done by the wife in the dual career relationship. Kreps and Leaper (1976) reported that the number of hours spent in household chores increased by 13 hours per week for working wives while their husbands' amount of time spent in household chores decreased by 1.5 hours per week. Bryson, Bryson, Licht, and Licht (1976) studied wife and husband psychologists and found that husbands married to career wives performed the same amount of household chores as husbands married to housewives. Both career wives and housewives had the major responsibility of cooking, marketing, caring for preschool and school age children, and doing laundry. Husbands had only one major responsibility--household repairs.

There are some women, however, who are pursuing atypical academic and career areas. Tangri (1975) found that role innovative daughters aspired to higher career goals than those achieved by the mother and to similar career goals as those attained by the father. Characteristics of dual career wives, according to Rapoport and

Rapoport (1976) include: coming from a small family, being an only child or a first born, experiencing some tension with a significant relative, and having a warm relationship with a "strong" family member. The Rapoports have described the "dual career wife" as having an "only-lonely child pattern" and developing a "social insecurity" which developed their desire for financial independence.

## Men's Roles

The socialization of men has restricted their options too. Men have been socialized to be career or work oriented, to provide and to protect as head of the family. The norms state that, as husband, the man should earn the larger income and have a more prestigious career than does the wife (Fasteau, 1974). Men are discouraged from developing traits such as sensitivity, nurturance, noncompetitiveness (Bem, 1975). Bem (1975) administered the Bem Sex-Role Inventory to 1500 college students and found that males who perceived themselves as "masculine" were less likely to play with small animals, with small children, or to respond to people's problems. In addition, Bem found that "masculine men" as well as "feminine women" consistently performed gender appropriate activities. According to Farrell (1974) little boys see male role models who strive for success--economic, intellectual, and physical--suppress sentimental expressions, make all major decisions, perceive themselves as family providers, and seek to be more successful than most other men and all women.

Research indicates that a boy's apprehension of exhibiting feminine behavior increases with age (Women on Words and Images, 1972).

As a boy gets older his expectations generally exceed his achievements (Hartley, 1974). High masculine expectations, in turn, produce anxiety. Gray (1957) found that boys who exhibited high gender-specific behaviors also exhibited high levels of anxiety. In addition, Gray reported that high gender-specific behavior was related to "high social acceptance." In order to be popular with peers, boys were expected to participate in "masculine" activities and exhibit "masculine" behavior. Thus, a boy learns that a man's "success" is contingent on acquiring gender-specific behaviors, for example, attaining a work/career status higher than that of women.

In support of the males' work orientation, Silverman (1976) found that 76% of high school males named a specific career objective as their major goal, whereas 67% of females indicated plans for marriage and children. Among the males, 42% specified career aspirations such as job prestige and monetary rewards as important to their career futures; only 8% of females mentioned these factors.

Many men experience a "double bind"; that is, men may fear failure because their masculinity and self-worth are largely determined by career success and, at the same time, may also fear this success because they realize that it is not always synonymous with happiness and satisfaction (Horner, 1972). Therefore, some men experience career "burn out" by the time they reach mid-40's. Tired of striving for societal success, they leave unsatisfying careers in order to enter other occupational areas that are personally

satisfying and rewarding (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976). Typically, men still live under the auspices of traditional norms. However, Berman (cited in Meyers, 1976) notes that some men may seek assertive, successful women just as women traditionally have sought strong successful men. In fact, Garland (1972) studied dual career couples and found no support for the proposition that the husbands felt inferior or resentful toward their wives who were employed in prestigious careers.

According to Rapoport and Rapoport (1976), middle-class husbands experienced a camaraderie with their mothers. Thus, these husbands were particularly sensitive to and supportive of their wives' needs and desires.

## Self-Esteem

Sex role stereotypes may determine the sex role behaviors and expectations which, in turn, influence the self-concept of the individual. Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, and Broverman (1968) found that stereotypic expectations substantially influence a person's self-perceptions.

Society has projected men and their roles into first-class status. On the other hand, society has typically viewed women as second-class citizens who perform menial work. Rosenkrantz et al. (1968) found that women perceive themselves and their roles more negatively as compared with men. Sherriffs and Jarrett (1953) and McKee and Sherriffs (1957) have provided evidence that most women and men value males more highly than females. In addition, stereotypic masculine behaviors are more socially acceptable than stereotypic feminine

behaviors (Rosenkrantz et al., 1968). Farrell (1974) reported that "women can put 'Dr.' on their resume and gain society's respect; men cannot put '1972-1974 I took care of children' and earn respect." Since feminine traits are negatively valued as compared to masculine traits, women tend to have more negative self-esteem than do men (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz and Vogel, 1970).

Macke, Bohrnstedt, and Bernstein (1979) found that housewives married to husbands in high-status jobs had lower self-esteem than married professional women. However, studies examining working and nonworking wives' self-concepts revealed that working wives had higher self-esteem and self-confidence (Birnbaum, 1971). In a major review of literature pertaining to organizational entry, Wanous (1977, p. 608) concluded that research indicates a relationship between occupational and organizational choice and self-esteem. Individuals tend to choose "those organizations with images similar to their own."

Anxiety about gender roles tends to cause difficulty for both women and men; anxiety may produce gender role confusion or inflexibility in stereotyping one's own behavior as well as the behavior of others. After reviewing studies and conducting interviews, Hartley (1974, p. 187) determined that anxiety and sex role identification were related. She concluded that males "give evidence of anxiety centered in the whole area of sex-connected role behaviors, an anxiety which frequently expresses itself in an overstraining to be masculine." In addition, Pleck (1974) found that males who felt threatened by competent females had low esteem. Studies have shown that gender-specific inclinations are associated with high anxiety, low social

acceptance, and low self-esteem (Cosentino and Heilbrun, 1964). Further, research indicates that sex stereotypes shape the self; i.e., stereotypes serve as standards that individuals attempt to imitate. Bem and Bem (1970) concluded that the constraints resulting from adhering to traditional gender role stereotypes lower the self-esteem of both women and men and suggested that taking on nontraditional gender role attitudes would assist in raising self-esteem for females and males.

## Marital Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction

Given that men are supposed to be the family "breadwinner" the amount of income earned by the husband tends to be a major factor in determining marital satisfaction. Scanzoni (1970, 1975) indicated that the less money the husband makes, the less satisfying the marriage. Hicks and Platt (1970) supported Scanzoni's theory when they found that the husband's earnings were related to marital disruption. A study of husbands of both working and nonworking wives provided evidence that husbands would feel threatened if the wives earned more money than they (Axelson, 1963).

Further support for the wife's secondary status in the traditional dual career relationship was given by Epstein (1971). Epstein studied women lawyers and found that the wife is not expected to pursue or achieve a higher occupational level than her husband, and that the subordinate position is preferred by both wife and husband. Safilios-Rothschild and Dijkers (1978, p. 71) concluded that the wife's educational superiority was not problematic to the marital relationship; however, "it seems that it is the wife's income superiority that

may be the most 'touchy,' since at all educational levels when the wife earns as much or more money than her husband, it is pooled together so as to lose the 'identification tags.'" Further, Bailyn (1970) reported that middle-class couples experienced marital satisfaction when the husband's income as well as his career ambition was high.

Dual career couples also state that a frequent problem revolves around others' expectations. Others (relatives, friends, colleagues) expect behaviors consistent with the traditional norms (Heckman, Bryson, and Bryson, 1977). This finding is similar to that of Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) who reported an incongruity between the norms that dual career couples would like to establish for themselves and the norms of those around them. Holstrom (1972) found in her study of dual career couples that the wives stressed the importance of the husbands' attitude and support in the wives' career pursuits and accomplishments. These wives felt that their husbands' attitudes more than <u>others</u>' attitudes, were instrumental in career achievements. In addition, Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) found that dual career couples avoided others who reacted negatively to their lifestyle. The dual career couples tended to associate with supportive others.

Another problem cited by dual career couples is the inability of wife and husband to integrate family and career roles. Bailyn (1970) found that a couple's marital satisfaction hinges heavily on both wife and husband being able to integrate career and family. In addition, Glasser and Glasser (1966) and Hurvitz (1965) noted that marital happiness/satisfaction is viewed by each spouse as the satisfaction with the role performance of the other spouse.

Traditionally, wives have been cast in the secondary role; however, research indicates that the wife's occupational superiority may not be disadvantageous to the marital relationship. Richardson (1979) found, in a study of 841 females and 691 males, no support for the proposition that marital dissatisfaction arises in dual career families in which wives are equal to or higher in occupational prestige than their husbands.

Dual career couples who form their own lifestyles, regardless of tradition, tend to develop their own unique patterns of sharing. Rapoport and Rapoport (1976) studied dual career couples with unconventional lifestyles and reported that the husbands felt comfortable and unthreatened when the wives' career success was equal to or surpassed theirs. Perhaps, as indicated by Hopkins and White (1978), dual career couples in which wives have had premarital career success experience higher marital satisfaction than those couples in which wives have not had premarital career success. In addition, contrary to the attitudes of traditional dual career couples, the nontraditional dual career husbands expect and even desire a change in their lifestyle. Lein, Durham, Pratt, Schudson, Thomas, and Weiss (1974) found that these husbands devoted a large amount of time to domestic work and reported that they enjoyed their child care and household responsibilities. In drawing conclusions about the "symmetrical" family, Young and Wilmott (1973, p. 264) indicated that "husbands are more at work inside the home, wives more outside."

Some dual career couples espouse an interdependent relationship, i.e., mutually supporting and cooperating with each other.

During 1973, Weingarten (1978) interviewed 54 two-profession couples who reported their relationship as an interdependent one, and found their divorce rate was 7.4% as compared with 15% for dual career couples in general. Weingarten points out that these couples, although strongly committed to their careers, maintained a high level of quality in their marital relationships. Lidz (1968, p. 122) concluded that interdependence involves partners who "have each achieved an individual identity, have shown themselves capable of intimacy, and have rescinded independence for the benefits of interdependence and its security of knowing that one's welfare is as important to the partner as (her)/his own." Further, marital satisfaction is positively related to job satisfaction (Bailyn, 1970). Walster, Walster, and Berscheid (1978) found that couples in which one spouse perceives her/his career to be more important and/or perpetuates her/his career at the expense of the other spouse's career experience marital dissatisfaction.

Modern dual career couples attempt to optimize each spouse's involvement in both work and marriage (Weingarten, 1978). Further, Rapoport and Rapoport (1973) and Epstein (1970) found that even if there is greater strain on the relationship, the marital-work partnership can create a potential for greater communication and sense of purpose within the marital relationship. In fact, Bebbington (1973) reported that stress can positively stimulate the marriage. Nontraditional couples who integrate career and family roles and who espouse interdependence may work together to "optimize stress" by creating a lifestyle consistent with their ideals, attitudes, and behavior rather

than adhering to traditional standards that are inconsistent with their ideals, attitudes, and behavior (Bebbington, 1973). According to Bebbington (1973, p. 536), within the dual career family "the resultant level of stress is acceptable, balanced between underinvolvement and boredom (low stress) and excessive strain (high stress) of the members of the system." Further, Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) and Staines, Pleck, Shepard, and O'Connor (1978) found that dual career couples who experienced high stress also reported high marital satisfaction.

## Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction

One's job satisfaction has been related to various external factors such as autonomy, coworkers, environment, and so on. In addition, level of income, age, and education are positively correlated with job satisfaction. Scanzoni (1979) provided evidence that a positive correlation existed between education and egalitarian gender role attitudes and that both tended to facilitate women's job positions and income levels.

Income has been found to be a prime determinant of job satisfaction. Flanagan, Strauss, and Ulman (1974) analyzed objective indicators of job satisfaction and concluded that age and occupation are the primary factors of job satisfaction; however, the analysis suggested that occupations were used to represent income. According to Wernimont and Fitzpatrick (1972), job status or esteem "are associated with the concept of money." In their study of 533 employed and unemployed individuals, Wernimont and Fitzpatrick (1972) found that money acted as an incentive to employed individuals. Regardless of

the occupational level, amount of income tended to be important. However, a low amount of income has been associated with job dissatisfaction. Renwick and Lawler (1978) administered a work attitude survey to 23,008 persons and found that one of the three groups of workers who expressed the most dissatisfaction earned an annual income between $5000 and $10,000. Of those who were employed in professional careers, 43.4% indicated that a major source of job dissatisfaction was not enough pay. Managers and executives who earned high incomes, however, indicated that they would not leave their positions because of the financial rewards received.

In support of Renwick and Lawler (1978), London, Crandall, and Seals (1977) found that amount of salary earned was a major factor in determining satisfaction. Researchers (Morse and Weiss, 1955) provided evidence that a positive relationship exists between occupational prestige, which includes income level, and job satisfaction. Weaver (1974) analyzed national surveys and reported that income and job satisfaction as well as satisfaction with income and job satisfaction were strongly related.

Rapoport and Rapoport (1969, p. 16) conducted a study on autonomous dual career couples and concluded "The occupational world is used by all of our women as the area in which they develop their separate personal identities. This makes it possible for both husband and wife to relate as two individuals, each having a separate identity as a person." Researchers (Epstein, 1970; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971) indicate that some dual career couples do not feel pressured to achieve work status as defined by traditional work roles

and characteristics. According to the Rapoports (1969, p. 3), middle-class dual career couples who espouse new or nontraditional values "are likely to emphasize self-expression, personal development and rewarding interpersonal relationships in place of individual achievement and the capacity to endure distress while continuing to perform competitively as an individual. . . ."

Traditionally "fear of success" for women and "fear of failure" for men have accounted for a woman's low profile and a man's high profile in the world of work (Horner, 1972). However, nontraditional dual career couples may not view their success or failure as being contingent on their occupational prestige or amount of income earned.

Presently, women are seeking success in the work force more than in the recent past (Voss and Skinner, 1975). Further, Ellis and Bentler (1973) provided evidence that women who are interested in achieving their own status, i.e., career, perceive themselves as more nontraditional than women in general.

## Income: Symbolic Success

In an analysis of success, Santayana (1967) stated that there is a strong tendency to value money as symbolic evidence of success and, therefore, personal worth. Santayana pointed out that money is the symbolic standard that the American society uses for measuring "success, intelligence and power." In support of Santayana's postulation, Gould (1976) maintained that income is the easiest and most cursory measure of success. He further emphasized that the amount

of income earned by the male is the American culture's method of measuring "masculinity." A high income represents "masculinity" and high self-esteem, whereas a low income puts masculinity and self-esteem in a position of jeopardy. Weber postulated that money is the symbolic indicator of success in that a person's worth, power, and social esteem are measured by the amount of money earned. One's success and "score in the game of life" are contingent on receiving a high income (Eldridge, 1975).

Income may be an even greater indicator of success than occupation. Blood and Wolfe (1960) found that the husband's success and power were measured by his level of income rather than his occupation. Sociologist Helen Lopata reported that 65% of 600 wives perceived their husbands' roles in order of importance as: breadwinner, father, husband (Brenton, 1966). Income, as the symbolic indicator of a man's success, may falsely enhance his feelings of masculinity. The question now, as implied by Rapoport and Rapoport (1971), is whether society can accept wives earning an equal or greater success, as distinguished by income, than their husbands.

Eight percent of working wives (approximately 1.8 million) earned higher incomes than their husbands, according to Carl Rosenfeld of the government's Division of Special Labor Force Studies (Pogrebin, 1976). Some women, however, have indicated that they have refused raises or have concealed their actual salaries for fear their husbands will feel threatened (Pogrebin, 1976). Osipow (1975, p. 156) stated:

> Men are still often ambivalent about their wives' work; the men like the paycheck, and some men enjoy the status

> and achievement of their working wives, but at the same time, most men are understandably disinclined to give up their more favored position as primary wage earner, whose job comes first.

As indicated by Blood (1963) husbands may be disinclined to relinquish their position as major breadwinner because of the association of money with power. Blood reported that husbands typically have held more power, i.e., have had more influence in making decisions in the marital relationship because of their economic contribution to the family. Further, Blood found that wives employed in the labor force gained more power in the marital relationship while the husbands lost power.

Traditionally, the amount of income earned by the husband has been his "measure of success." Modern dual career couples, however, have been found to support each other's careers regardless of each spouse's income or education (Weingarten, 1978; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976). Further, Safilios-Rothschild and Dijkers (1978) reported that middle-class couples, unlike lower-class couples and couples who held traditional attitudes, were able to accept the wife's higher income and occupational prestige. In the modern dual career relationship, the wife's career is advantageous to the husband in that he does not feel restricted to his current career (Josefowitz, 1980). Thus, some men in the modern dual career marriage take advantage of the new freedom by changing jobs and/or by trying to enhance their personal development and quality of life. According to Farrell (1974), a wife who is economically independent frees the husband from the traditional "breadwinner" role and allows him the opportunity to pursue a fulfilling position that may be a low paying

one. Current implications of dual career lifestyles tend to indicate a transition away from the predominant status symbol "income."

## Summary

The previous research indicates that attitudes of women and men in our society reflect socialization processes, processes which are most salient in forming attitudes about gender roles. A child's attitudes which are initiated and developed through the influence of significant others, especially parents, via toys and games are carried over into the adult arenas of work and home. Typically, attitudes toward income reflect traditional patterns of husband as breadwinner, with both wife and husband measuring the husband's success by the amount of financial remuneration received from his job. Although both spouses may be highly involved in a career, research tends to indicate that traditionally the husband has perceived himself as unsuccessful if the wife earned more than he.

Studies focusing on dual career couples who do not adhere to traditional norms may indicate that some couples are primarily interested in quality of job and marriage rather than quantity as measured by income. Instead of vying for first place on an independent basis, these couples attempt to jointly optimize work and marriage. Income, although related to self-esteem, may give husbands who seek a high income because of "expectations" a false perception of self. Positive self-esteem tends to hinge more heavily on holding nontraditional gender role attitudes and seeking personal development external to restrictions proffered by traditional stereotypes.

# CHAPTER III

# METHODOLOGY

## Procedure

The subjects for the present study were dual career couples drawn from the East Tennessee area. Since a list of dual career couples *per se* was not available, names of potential subjects were obtained from various sources including: The University of Tennessee phone directory; a listing of women managers employed at the Tennessee Valley Authority; a listing of women employed in local and state government in Knoxville, Chattanooga, Nashville and surrounding areas; a listing provided by the Tennessee Commission on Women of women who owned their own businesses; and personal recommendations from colleagues of the researcher. Six months was spent in securing the sample of dual career couples. Since there was no way to determine in advance whether the wife earned more than the husband, subjects could be placed in the group with the wife earning the higher income or the group with the wife earning the lower income only after checking the responses to the income item on the completed surveys.

Two survey forms with a cover letter and two stamped, self-addressed envelopes were mailed to each dual career couple. The cover letter explained the purpose and procedure of the study, and each spouse was asked to respond to the survey independently of the other. Two follow-up postcards were mailed to respondents. (See

Appendix A.) A period of approximately two weeks elapsed between each of the three mailings.

A pilot study was conducted prior to the investigation to determine item clarity and willingness of respondents to answer items. Because of the highly personal nature of items in the demographic information section, and because responses to items in all other sections were based on responses to items in the demographic section, the pilot study was crucial to identify problems in obtaining appropriate responses.

## Subjects

Completed survey forms were returned by 184 dual career couples--31% of the total mailed. An additional 42% of the surveys were returned or accounted for in some way, but were not usable for one or more of the following reasons: 13% contained incomplete information; 18% of the couples were divorced, separated, or single; 5% gave no reason for not completing the survey, or one spouse was retired or deceased; 4% indicated that they did not wish to complete the survey; and 2% of the surveys could not be delivered due to change of address. Seventy-three percent of the surveys were accounted for by the researcher.

The dual career couples were divided into two groups: one group of 79 couples, defined as nontraditional, in which the wives earned a higher income than their husbands; and one group of 105 couples, defined as traditional, in which the wives earned a lower income than their husbands.

Wives' and husbands' age ranges, educational levels, occupational prestige ratings, and incomes are displayed below in categorical listings for both the nontraditional and traditional groups of dual career

couples. (See Appendix B for additional demographic information of non-traditional and traditional dual career couples.)

Nontraditional Group of Dual Career Couples

Ages of Wives and Husbands

| Husbands | Wives |
|---|---|
| Ages ranged from 23 to 69 | Ages ranged from 25 to 64 |
| Mean age was 41 | Mean age was 38 |

Education

| Husbands | Wives |
|---|---|
| 12% had a high school degree or less | 9% had a high school degree or less |
| 17% had an associate degree or some college | 9% had an associate degree or some college |
| 39% held a college degree | 28% held a college degree |
| 32% had a graduate degree | 54% had a graduate degree |

Occupational Prestige According to the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) Rating Scale

| Husbands | Wives |
|---|---|
| Occupational prestige ranged from 17 to 78 out of a possible 09-82 | Occupational prestige ranged from 38 to 78 out of a possible 09-82 |
| 68% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above | 92% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above |
| Mean occupational rating was 53 | Mean occupational rating was 59 |

Although all wives in the nontraditional group currently earned higher incomes than their husbands, only 37% of wives had earned higher incomes than their husbands prior to marriage. At the time of the study wives' incomes exceeded their husbands' by $500 to $20,000 or more. The following listing indicates the percentages of wives whose incomes exceeded their husbands by specific categorical amounts:

33% of wives earned between $500 and $3,999 more than their husbands;

23% of wives earned between $4,000 and $7,999 more than their husbands;

21% of wives earned between $8,000 and $11,999 more;

10% earned between $12,000 and $15,999 more;

6% earned between $16,000 and $19,999 more; and

7% earned at least $20,000 more than their husbands.

Mean Annual Income

| Husbands | Wives | Combined |
|---|---|---|
| $18,995 | $27,407 | $46,402 |

Husbands' Amount of Support of Wives Earning the Higher Income

55% of husbands said they "support enthusiastically--without qualification" their wives earning the higher income;

13% said they "support it";

13% said they "support it as long as it does not interfere with our homelife";

17% said "it does not matter one way or the other";

0% said "do not like it but I can live with it";

1% said "do not like it";

0% said "really opposed to it"; and

1% gave no response.

Traditional Group of Dual Career Couples

Ages of Wives and Husbands

| Husbands | Wives |
|---|---|
| Ages ranged from 25 to 65 | Ages ranged from 24 to 60 |
| Mean age was 43 | Mean age was 40 |

Education

| Husbands | Wives |
|---|---|
| 16% had a high school degree or less | 6% had a high school degree or less |
| 10% had an associate degree or some college | 22% had an associate degree or some college |
| 29% held a college degree | 28% held a college degree |
| 45% had a graduate degree | 44% had a graduate degree |

Occupational Prestige According to the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) Rating Scale

| Husbands | Wives |
|---|---|
| Occupational prestige ranged from 32 to 82 out of a possible 09-82 | Occupational prestige ranged from 43 to 78 out of a possible 09-82 |
| 74% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above | 84% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above |
| Mean occupational rating was 57 | Mean occupational rating was 56 |

Although none of the wives in the traditional group of dual career couples currently earned higher incomes than their husbands, 23% of traditional wives had earned higher incomes than their husbands prior to marriage. At the time of the study, however, husbands' incomes exceeded their wives' incomes by $500 to $20,000 and above. The following listing indicates the percentages of husbands whose incomes exceeded their wives' incomes by specific categorical amounts:

23% of husbands earned between $500 and $3,999 more than their wives;

23% of husbands earned between $4,000 and $7,999 more than their wives;

18% of husbands earned between $8,000 and $11,999 more;

12% earned between $12,000 and $15,999 more; and

24% earned at least $20,000 more than their wives.

Mean Annual Income

| Husbands | Wives | Combined |
|---|---|---|
| $34,046 | $21,146 | $55,192 |

Wives' Amount of Support of Husbands Earning the Higher Income

63% said they "support enthusiastically--without qualification" their husbands earning the higher income;

0% said they "support it";

0% said they "support it as long as it does not interfere with our homelife";

1% said "it does not matter one way or the other";

1% said "do not like it but I can live with it";

7% said "do not like it" or "really opposed to it"; and

28% gave no response.

## Instrumentation

The attitude survey utilized in this study consists of four separate scales: the self-esteem scale, the marital satisfaction scale, the job satisfaction scale, and the sex-role attitude scale. (See Appendix C.)

The Self-Esteem Scale developed by Morris Rosenberg (1965) consists of ten items. Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale has been used widely and information on reliability and validity are reported in Rosenberg (1979). The coefficient of reproducibility was .92 and the coefficient of scalability was .72. Test-retest reliability assessed by Silber and Tippett (1965) was .85. Four measures of validity were reported: content, construct, convergent, and discriminant. Respondents were instructed to select responses from a five-

point response scale: strongly agree, agree, mixed/uncertain, disagree, strongly disagree.

The Marital Satisfaction Scale developed by Lee (1978) includes five items. The scale asks respondents directly about satisfaction and avoids value judgments often found in marital adjustment scales. Reliability of the scale, assessed by Cronbach's alpha, was determined to be .902 for males and .942 for females. According to Lee, validity was assessed in two ways: one, the scale behaves as it is expected to behave and two, it is positively correlated with morale, education, health, income, and occupational prestige scales. Each of these relationships is predictable according to theory and the known behavior of other indices of marital satisfaction. The response format consists of a five-point response continuum of strongly agree to strongly disagree.

The Job Satisfaction Scale developed by Frank M. Andrews and Stephen B. Withey (1976) consists of six items. The scale was developed as part of a cross-national study on the life concerns of adults. Using a cluster analysis, Andrews and Withey combined items that measured the same underlying perceptions. Although no numerical coefficients were available, the authors assessed validity and reliability by clustering items. To the extent that certain items cluster together, they are positively correlated. The response format consists of a five-point response continuum of delighted, pleased, mixed/uncertain, unhappy, terrible.

The Sex-Role Attitude Scale was developed by Scanzoni (1975) and modified by Tomeh (1978). The scale consists of twenty-four items

and measures three dimensions of sex roles. The first dimension of wife-mother measures the importance of the wife and mother roles within the family context. The second dimension of husband-father measures the importance of the husband and father roles within the family context. The third dimension, situations pertaining to occupational pursuits, examines situations which wives and husbands must consider in conjunction with the wives' occupational pursuits. Scale scores indicate traditional or nontraditional attitudes toward the roles of wife and mother and husband and father as measured by the three dimensions of sex roles. Reliability was assessed by correlating each item with the total scores of each subscale. Cronbach's alpha was found to be .84 on the wife-mother dimension, .85 on the husband-father dimension, and .85 on the situations pertaining to occupational pursuits dimension. The highest intra-scale correlation, between the dimensions of husband-father and situations pertaining to occupational pursuits, was .62 and the lowest correlation (.59) was between the dimensions of wife-mother and situations pertaining to occupational pursuits.

The demographic information developed by the researcher was comprised of two sections, background and income. Eight independent judges reviewed the demographic items to confirm clarity. Items were designed to determine occupational and income levels and attitudes toward the amount of income earned by each spouse. Some items used a categorical response format and some items used an open-ended format. (See Appendix C.)

Occupational prestige was determined via the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) Occupational Categories and Occupational Prestige Scales. Occupational categories ranged from 09 (bootblacks) to 82 (physicians). (See Appendix D.)

## Analysis of Data

The major dependent variables in the study were: self-esteem, marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, and three dimensions of gender roles--roles of wife and mother, roles of husband and father, and situations pertaining to occupational pursuits. The independent variables included income and selected demographic characteristics of the respondents. Frequency distributions were generated in order to provide a descriptive picture of the nontraditional and the traditional groups of dual career couples.

To test the hypotheses, *t* tests for independent samples were used to analyze the differences between nontraditional and traditional couples on the four dependent variables. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to analyze relationships among the dependent, independent, and selected demographic variables.

Independent samples chi square analyses were used to determine differences between occupational prestige of husbands, occupational prestige of wives, and occupational prestige of couples in the nontraditional and traditional groups. Chi square analyses were also used to determine differences in husbands' total income, wives' total income, and couples' total income between the nontraditional and traditional groups.

Stepwise discriminant analysis determined the variables, in combination, that significantly contributed to separation of cases into the nontraditional and traditional groups of dual career couples.

## Limitations of the Study

1. Some surveys were not completed by potential respondents because of an unwillingness to respond. The findings are based on information provided by willing respondents only. It is possible that the potential respondents' unwillingness to participate is an indication that they may have been threatened by the items asked by the survey. In addition, these unwilling respondents may have held more negative attitudes. Thus, the sample may be biased toward the positive.

2. The sampling technique was mainly purposive sampling in its initial stage and respondents were self-selected in the final stage. This reduces the generalizability of results.

3. Self-report surveys have certain limitations as research techniques when compared with other methods of data collection. Using other measures such as conducting case studies may have increased reliability. Also, the researcher was not present during the time the surveys were answered.

4. The effect of previous marriages on the subjects of the study was not investigated. Some research indicates that husbands tend to lose power in the marital relationship at remarriage. In addition, length of time wives had been earning higher incomes than their husbands was not investigated. Single women tend to earn higher incomes than married women at all ages. Therefore, a recent

remarriage of men to previously single women may account for some instances in which wives earned more than their husbands.

5. The subjects utilized in the present study represent the middle and upper-middle class as indicated by income. Some wives in the lower income class may earn higher incomes than their husbands; however, these wives may earn more because of economic necessity. In the lower income class the spouse who earns the higher income may not be an important issue, whereas economic subsistence is. Financial considerations are a major factor for working wives in the upper, middle, and lower classes regardless of husbands' income (Klein, 1965). However, the degree of financial need varies by class. Wives in the middle and upper-middle income class who earn more than their husbands have most likely transcended the need to concern themselves with the economic function and are employed for reasons external to economic survival, e.g., personal development. A study of dual career couples by income class would assist the researcher in determining more definitive reasons for wives earning the higher income.

6. On the basis of the findings, nontraditional and traditional dual career couples took on new meanings because of the high mean incomes earned by each group. Nontraditional and traditional couples were originally defined and thus grouped via the wife's income. Wives in the nontraditional group earned higher incomes than their husbands and wives in the traditional group earned lower incomes than their husbands; however, wives in both groups earned high mean incomes. There is a possibility that these wives' high incomes may account for some attitudinal similarities between the nontraditional and traditional groups.

# CHAPTER IV

# FINDINGS

## Overview of Findings

Study findings are presented in five sections. The first section presents the hypotheses and the means and *t* values associated with each. The second section is comprised of Pearson product-moment correlations of the study variables and selected demographic variables for nontraditional, traditional, and all wives and husbands. The third section presents independent samples chi square analyses of the variables total income and occupational prestige for the nontraditional and traditional wives and husbands and couples. The fourth section consists of stepwise discriminant function analysis which determined the combination of variables that significantly contributed to separation of cases into the nontraditional and traditional groups of dual career couples. The fifth section is comprised of reasons for providing support to spouse who earns more and the perceived advantages and disadvantages of the spouse earning more.

## Means and Results of t Tests for the Nontraditional and Traditional Groups of Dual Career Couples

Attitudes of dual career couples in the nontraditional and traditional groups were examined on each of the dependent variables: self-esteem, marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, and three dimensions of gender role attitudes--attitudes toward the roles of

wife and mother, the roles of husband and father, and situations pertaining to occupational pursuits. The independent variable was amount of income earned.

The means and standard deviations for the study variables are presented in Table 1, along with the results of the independent samples *t* tests comparing mean scores for the nontraditional and traditional groups of dual career couples.

To further illustrate the differences between the nontraditional and traditional groups, mean scores and *t* values of nontraditional and traditional wives and husbands are presented in Table 2.

Some respondents did not answer all items in each of the four scales used to measure the dependent variables. Scales which contained items with no response were omitted from the analysis. Therefore, degrees of freedom differ for each variable.

## Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis predicted that nontraditional dual career couples would have higher self-esteem than traditional couples. Seventy-nine couples comprised the nontraditional group and 104 couples comprised the traditional group. Means for couples were calculated by summing responses to the ten items on the self-esteem scale for wives and for husbands in each group, then calculating a *t* test for independent samples. The lower the mean, the higher the self-esteem. The mean value of self-esteem was 35.47 for nontraditional couples and 35.93 for traditional couples. When these means were compared no significant difference was found ($t$ (181) = -0.38, $p > .05$). Thus, the hypothesis was rejected.

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations and Results of *t* Tests for the Nontraditional and Traditional Groups of Dual Career Couples.

| Variable | Group | Mean | Standard Deviation | t | df |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Self-Esteem | Nontraditional | 35.47 | 7.88 | | |
| | Traditional | 35.93 | 8.40 | -0.38 | 181 |
| Marital Satisfaction | Nontraditional | 18.32 | 7.08 | | |
| | Traditional | 17.70 | 6.23 | 0.64 | 180 |
| Job Satisfaction | Nontraditional | 25.11 | 5.92 | | |
| | Traditional | 24.91 | 4.78 | 0.25 | 182 |
| Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Nontraditional | 40.51 | 7.99 | | |
| | Traditional | 43.42 | 7.87 | -2.47** | 181 |
| Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Nontraditional | 25.24 | 5.07 | | |
| | Traditional | 26.66 | 4.62 | -1.97* | 182 |
| Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Nontraditional | 21.09 | 4.93 | | |
| | Traditional | 23.19 | 5.52 | -2.68** | 182 |

Mean Values: Self-Esteem Scale range from 20 to 100.
Marital Satisfaction Scale range from 10 to 50.
Job Satisfaction Scale range from 12 to 60.
Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother range from 24 to 120.
Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father range from 12 to 60.
Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits range from 12 to 60.

Lower mean values indicate more positive or more egalitarian attitudes.

*$p < .05$ Nontraditional--Wives earn higher incomes than husbands.

**$p < .01$ Traditional--Wives earn lower incomes than husbands.

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations and Results of t Tests for the Nontraditional and Traditional Wives and Husbands.

| Variable | Group | Mean | Standard Deviation | t | df |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Wives' Self-Esteem | Nontraditional | 18.24 | 5.89 | | |
| | Traditional | 17.81 | 5.36 | 0.52 | 181 |
| Husbands' Self-Esteem | Nontraditional | 17.23 | 4.55 | | |
| | Traditional | 18.17 | 5.32 | -1.27 | 182 |
| Wives' Marital Satisfaction | Nontraditional | 9.71 | 4.12 | | |
| | Traditional | 8.89 | 3.73 | 1.42 | 182 |
| Husbands' Marital Satisfaction | Nontraditional | 8.56 | 3.94 | | |
| | Traditional | 8.81 | 3.24 | -0.47 | 180 |
| Wives' Job Satisfaction | Nontraditional | 12.48 | 3.69 | | |
| | Traditional | 12.13 | 3.46 | 0.66 | 182 |
| Husbands' Job Satisfaction | Nontraditional | 12.63 | 3.93 | | |
| | Traditional | 12.78 | 3.14 | -0.28 | 182 |
| Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Nontraditional | 19.51 | 4.88 | | |
| | Traditional | 20.92 | 5.01 | -1.92 | 181 |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Nontraditional | 21.00 | 5.26 | | |
| | Traditional | 22.50 | 5.18 | -1.93 | 181 |
| Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Nontraditional | 12.32 | 3.05 | | |
| | Traditional | 12.97 | 3.12 | -1.42 | 182 |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Nontraditional | 12.92 | 3.21 | | |
| | Traditional | 13.69 | 2.95 | -1.67 | 182 |
| Wives' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Nontraditional | 9.94 | 3.17 | | |
| | Traditional | 11.09 | 3.49 | -2.30* | 182 |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Nontraditional | 11.15 | 2.97 | | |
| | Traditional | 12.10 | 3.29 | -2.02* | 182 |

Mean Values: Self-Esteem Scale range from 10 to 50.
Marital Satisfaction Scale range from 5 to 25.
Job Satisfaction Scale range from 6 to 30.
Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother range from 12 to 60.
Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father range from 6 to 30.
Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits range from 6 to 30.

Lower mean values indicate more positive or egalitarian attitudes.

*$p < .05$ Nontraditional--Wives earn higher incomes than husbands.
Traditional--Wives earn lower incomes than husbands.

There were no differences between means on the self-esteem scale for nontraditional and traditional wives or for nontraditional or traditional husbands. The mean value for nontraditional wives was 18.24, and 17.81 for traditional wives ($t$ (181) = 0.52, $p$ > .05). The mean value for nontraditional husbands was 17.23 and for traditional husbands 18.17 ($t$ (182) = -1.27, $p$ > .05).

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis predicted that nontraditional couples would have higher marital satisfaction than traditional couples. Marital satisfaction was obtained by summing respondents' answers to the five items on the marital satisfaction scale. There were 77 couples in the nontraditional group and 105 couples in the traditional group. A lower mean indicates higher marital satisfaction. The mean value of marital satisfaction of nontraditional couples was 18.32 compared to a mean of 17.70 for traditional couples. The analysis showed no significant difference between the means of the nontraditional and traditional groups ($t$ (180) = 0.64, $p$ > .05). The hypothesis was rejected.

No difference was found between means on the marital satisfaction scale for nontraditional and traditional wives or for nontraditional and traditional husbands. The mean score for nontraditional wives was 9.71, and for traditional wives 8.99 ($t$ (182) = 1.42, $p$ > .05). The mean score for nontraditional husbands was 8.56, and for traditional husbands 8.81 ($t$ (180) = -0.47, $p$ > .05).

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis three stated that nontraditional couples would have higher job satisfaction than traditional couples. Mean responses of 79 nontraditional couples and 105 traditional couples were compared by summing responses to the six items on the job satisfaction scale. A lower mean indicates higher job satisfaction. The mean for the nontraditional group was 25.11 while the mean value for the traditional group was 24.91. The hypothesis was rejected because no significant difference was found between the means of nontraditional and traditional couples ($t$ (182) = 0.25, $p$ > .05).

Nontraditional wives had a mean of 12.48 and traditional wives had a mean of 12.13. Nontraditional husbands had a mean of 12.63 while traditional husbands had a mean of 12.78. Job satisfaction of nontraditional and traditional wives ($t$ (182) = 0.66, $p$ > .05) and of nontraditional and traditional husbands ($t$ (182) = -0.28, $p$ > .05) was not significantly different.

Hypothesis Four

Hypothesis four predicted that nontraditional couples would exhibit more egalitarian gender-role attitudes than traditional couples. Means were obtained by summing responses on the three dimensions of the 24-item sex-role scale. A lower mean indicates more egalitarian attitudes toward the three dimensions of gender roles. The first dimension (attitudes toward the roles of wife and mother) consists of the first twelve items and measures the wife-mother role behavior within the family context. Seventy-nine nontraditional couples and 104 traditional couples responded to these items. The mean value obtained by the nontraditional

group was 40.51 compared to 43.42 for the traditional group. When these means were compared statistically a significant difference was found ($t$ (181) = -2.47, $p$ < .05).

The second dimension of the attitudes toward sex roles scale (roles of husband and father) consists of six items and measures the husband-father role behavior within the family context. Seventy-nine nontraditional couples and 105 traditional couples responded to these items. Mean values were 25.24 for nontraditional couples and 26.66 for traditional couples. The analysis indicated a significant difference between these means ($t$ (182) = -1.97, $p \leq .05$).

The third dimension of attitudes toward sex roles (situations pertaining to occupational pursuits) consists of six items and measures the importance of the wives' occupational pursuits in relation to husbands' occupational pursuits and family needs/interests. Seventy-nine nontraditional and 105 traditional couples responded to these items. The mean score for the nontraditional couples was 21.09, and 23.19 for the traditional couples. A significant difference ($t$ (182) = -2.68, $p$ < .01) was found between these means. Thus, the hypothesis stating that nontraditional couples would have more egalitarian gender role attitudes was confirmed.

On the first dimension of gender roles (roles of wife and mother) mean values were 19.51 for nontraditional wives and 20.92 for traditional wives, whereas mean values were 21.00 for nontraditional husbands and 22.50 for traditional husbands. When means were compared using an independent samples $t$ test, no significant differences were found between nontraditional and traditional wives ($t$ (181) = -1.92,

$p > .05$), or between nontraditional and traditional husbands ($t$ (181) = -1.93, $p > .05$). On the second dimension of gender roles (roles of husband and father), nontraditional wives' mean value was 12.32 as compared to a mean of 12.97 for traditional wives. Nontraditional husbands' mean was 12.92 and traditional husbands' mean was 13.69. No significant difference was found between nontraditional and traditional wives' attitudes ($t$ (182) = -1.42, $p > .05$) or between nontraditional and traditional husbands' attitudes ($t$ (182) = -1.67, $p > .05$) toward the roles of husband and father. Mean scores on the third dimension of gender roles (situations pertaining to occupational pursuits) were 9.94 for nontraditional wives as compared to 11.09 for traditional wives. Mean scores were 11.15 for nontraditional husbands and 12.10 for traditional husbands. Nontraditional and traditional wives ($t$ (182) = -2.30, $p < .05$) and nontraditional and traditional husbands ($t$ (182) = -2.03, $p < .05$) had significantly different attitudes toward situations pertaining to occupational pursuits.

## Correlation Analysis of Relationships Among Study Variables and Demographic Variables

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to examine relationships among the variables of self-esteem, marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, the three dimensions of gender role attitudes, and income. (See matrices in Appendix E.) Demographic variables also were correlated. Relationships among variables for nontraditional wives and husbands, traditional wives and husbands, and for all wives and husbands are discussed and presented in tabular form in

this section. Although the correlations presented are significant statistically, causality cannot be assumed because only a moderate level of association is indicated and much variance is unexplained.

Correlations of variables that were significant for nontraditional, traditional, and all wives and husbands are presented first. Then, correlations of variables that are significant for only two of the groups, followed by correlations that are significant for only one of the three groups.

## Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional, Traditional, and All Wives and Husbands

The highest correlation among variables for nontraditional, traditional, and all wives and husbands (see Table 3) was that between nontraditional wives' education and their attitudes toward situations pertaining to occupational pursuits. The relationship of $r = -.47$ indicated a moderate negative association. Traditional husbands' self-esteem and marital satisfaction ($r = .39$) and traditional wives' self-esteem and job satisfaction ($r = .39$) were the next highest correlations followed by traditional husbands' self-esteem and job satisfaction ($r = .38$) These correlations had a moderate positive association.

Wives' education was related to the three dimensions of gender role attitudes, and wives' occupational prestige was related to their attitudes toward situations pertaining to occupational pursuits. Husbands' occupational prestige was not related to their gender role attitudes and only traditional and all husbands' education had a significant relationship with gender roles--situations pertaining to occupational pursuits. Further, the wives' ages were related to their

Table 3. Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional, Traditional, and All Wives and Husbands

| Variable | | Nontraditional | Traditional | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Self-Esteem and Marital Satisfaction | Husbands | $r = .23^{*}$ | $r = .39^{**}$ | $r = .32^{**}$ |
| | Wives | $r = .33^{**}$ | $r = .33^{**}$ | $r = .33^{**}$ |
| Self-Esteem and Job Satisfaction | Husbands | $r = .34^{**}$ | $r = .38^{**}$ | $r = .31^{**}$ |
| | Wives | $r = .30^{**}$ | $r = .39^{**}$ | $r = .35^{**}$ |
| Self-Esteem and Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Husbands | $r = .16$ | $r = .25^{**}$ | $r = .23^{**}$ |
| | Wives | $r = .26^{*}$ | $r = .30^{**}$ | $r = .27^{**}$ |
| Marital Satisfaction and Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Husbands | $r = .27^{*}$ | $r = .20^{*}$ | $r = .23^{**}$ |
| | Wives | $r = .27^{*}$ | $r = .05$ | $r = .13$ |
| Education and Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Husbands | $r = .02$ | $r = -.13$ | $r = -.06$ |
| | Wives | $r = -.28^{*}$ | $r = -.26^{**}$ | $r = -.29^{**}$ |
| Education and Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Husbands | $r = .01$ | $r = -.11$ | $r = -.05$ |
| | Wives | $r = -.32^{**}$ | $r = -.34^{**}$ | $r = -.34^{**}$ |
| Education and Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Husbands | $r = -.04$ | $r = -.24^{*}$ | $r = -.15^{*}$ |
| | Wives | $r = -.47^{**}$ | $r = -.29^{**}$ | $r = -.38^{**}$ |
| Occupational Prestige and Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Husbands | $r = .01$ | $r = -.17$ | $r = -.07$ |
| | Wives | $r = -.30^{**}$ | $r = -.28^{**}$ | $r = -.30^{**}$ |
| Age and Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Husbands | $r = .03$ | $r = .09$ | $r = .07$ |
| | Wives | $r = .23^{*}$ | $r = .26^{**}$ | $r = .26^{**}$ |

Table 3 (Continued).

| Variable | | Nontraditional | Traditional | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age and Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Husbands | $r$ = .17 | $r$ = .24* | $r$ = .21** |
| | Wives | $r$ = .29* | $r$ = .27** | $r$ = .28** |

*$p$ < .05

**$p$ < .01

Lower numbers indicate more positive or more egalitarian attitudes for the variables: self-esteem, marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, attitudes toward roles of wife and mother, roles of husband and father, and situations pertaining to occupational pursuits.

Higher numbers indicate a greater amount for the variables: education, occupational prestige, and age.

attitudes toward two dimensions of gender roles. Again, however, only traditional and all husbands' ages correlated with situations pertaining to occupational pursuits.

## Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional or Traditional Wives and/or Husbands and All Wives and/or Husbands

The highest correlations among variables of nontraditional or traditional wives and/or husbands and all wives and/or husbands (see Table 4) were those of nontraditional wives' annual income and their education ($r$ = .39) and nontraditional husbands who earned more income before marriage and age ($r$ = -.39).

Traditional and all wives' marital satisfaction was related to their husbands' job satisfaction. Traditional husbands' as well as all husbands' job satisfaction was related to their occupational prestige and education. These correlations were not significant for nontraditional wives and husbands.

The amount of support nontraditional husbands provided their wives who earned more income at present was significantly related to the husbands' attitudes toward the three dimensions of gender roles. In addition, the amount of support nontraditional husbands provided their wives who earned more income at present was significantly related to the nontraditional husbands' job satisfaction. Because traditional husbands earned more income than their wives at present, the "husbands' support" variable did not apply to them.

Table 4. Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional or Traditional Wives and/or Husbands and All Wives and/or Husbands.

| Variable | | Nontraditional | Traditional | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Self-Esteem and Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Husbands | | $r$ = .22* | $r$ = .20** |
| | Wives | | $r$ = .22* | $r$ = .19* |
| Self-Esteem and Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Husbands | $r$ = .15 | | $r$ = .18* |
| | Wives | $r$ = .26* | | $r$ = .14 |
| Wives' Marital Satisfaction and Husbands' Job Satisfaction | | | $r$ = .20* | $r$ = .18* |
| Job Satisfaction and Occupational Prestige | Husbands | | $r$ = -.25* | $r$ = -.17* |
| Job Satisfaction and Education | Husbands | | $r$ = -.22* | $r$ = -.22** |
| Job Satisfaction and Amount of Support Husbands Provide Wives Who Earn More | Husbands | $r$ = .25* | | $r$ = .25* |
| Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father and Occupational Prestige | Wives | $r$ = -.32** | | $r$ = -.25** |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father and Wives' Occupational Prestige | Husbands | | $r$ = .22* | $r$ = -.29* |
| Annual Income and Occupational Prestige | Husbands | | $r$ = .19 | $r$ = .24** |
| | Wives | | $r$ = .21* | $r$ = .22** |

Table 4 (Continued).

| Variable | | Nontraditional | Traditional | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Annual Income and Education | Husbands | $r$ = .08 | | $r$ = .18* |
| | Wives | $r$ = .39** | | $r$ = .28** |
| Husbands' Annual Income and Husbands' Fathers' Occupational Prestige | Husbands | | $r$ = .26* | $r$ = .22** |
| Who Earned More Before Marriage and Education | Wives | | $r$ = .23* | $r$ = .17* |
| Who Earned More Before Marriage and Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Husbands | | $r$ = -.23* | $r$ = -.15* |
| | Wives | | $r$ = -.20* | $r$ = -.12 |
| Who Earned More Before Marriage and Age | Husbands | $r$ = -.39** | | $r$ = -.27** |
| | Wives | $r$ = -.32** | | $r$ = -.20** |
| How Much More Income Husbands Earn than Wives at Present and Education | Husbands | | $r$ = .33** | $r$ = .20* |
| How Much More Income Wives Earn Than Husbands and Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Husbands | $r$ = -.32** | | $r$ = -.29** |
| Amount of Support Husbands Provide Wives Who Earn More and Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Husbands | $r$ = .31** | | $r$ = .31** |
| Amount of Support Husbands Provide Wives Who Earn More and Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Husbands | $r$ = .38** | | $r$ = .37** |

Table 4 (Continued).

| Variable | | Nontraditional | Traditional | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Amount of Support Husbands Provide Wives Who Earn More and Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Husbands | $r$ = .24* | | $r$ =.24* |

*$p$ < .05

**$p$ < .01

Lower numbers indicate more positive or more egalitarian attitudes or a greater amount for the variables: self-esteem, marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, attitudes toward roles of wife and mother, roles of husband and father, situations pertaining to occupational pursuits, and amount of support.

Higher numbers indicate a greater amount for the variables: occupational prestige, education, income, and age.

1 = Husband and 2 = Wife for the variable "who earned more income before marriage."

Annual income and occupational prestige were significantly correlated for traditional wives and for all wives and husbands, whereas annual income and education were significantly correlated for nontraditional wives and for all wives and husbands. Traditional husbands' annual income, however, as well as all husbands' annual income, correlated with husbands' fathers' occupational prestige.

## Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional or Traditional or All Wives and/or Husbands

The strongest relationships among variables for nontraditional or traditional or all wives and/or husbands (see Table 5) were those of all husbands' annual income ($r$ = .45) and all wives' annual income ($r$ = .36) which correlated with who earns more income at present. The next strongest relationship was that of nontraditional wives' annual income and their fathers' education ($r$ = .31).

Nontraditional husbands' marital satisfaction was related to their job satisfaction. Traditional wives' marital satisfaction was related to their husbands' attitudes toward gender roles. Traditional and all husbands' marital satisfaction was related to their own gender role attitudes. Traditional wives' marital satisfaction was related to their husbands' attitudes toward gender roles; however, nontraditional husbands' marital satisfaction was related to their wives' attitudes toward gender roles. In addition, nontraditional

Table 5. Correlations Among Variables for Nontraditional or Traditional or All Wives and/or Husbands.

| Variable | | Nontraditional | Traditional | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Marital Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction | Husbands | $r$ = .26* | | |
| Wives' Marital Satisfaction and Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Wives | | $r$ = .23* | |
| Wives' Marital Satisfaction and Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Wives | | $r$ = .22* | |
| Marital Satisfaction and Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Husbands | | $r$ = .19* | |
| Marital Satisfaction and Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Husbands | | | $r$ = .16* |
| Husbands' Marital Satisfaction and Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | | $r$ = .25* | | |
| Job Satisfaction and Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Husbands | $r$ = .26* | | |
| Occupational Prestige and Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Wives | | | $r$ = -.18* |
| Husbands' Mothers' Occupational Prestige and Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | Husbands | $r$ = .29** | | |

Table 5 (Continued)

| Variable | | Nontraditional | Traditional | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Husbands' Fathers' Occupational Prestige and Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Husbands | $r$ = .27* | | |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Wife and Mother and Wives' Education | Husbands | | $r$ = -.24* | |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father and Wives' Education | Husbands | | $r$ = -.24* | |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits and Wives' Education | Husbands | | $r$ = -.22* | |
| Annual Income and Job Satisfaction | Husbands | | | $r$ = -.17* |
| Annual Income and Who Earned More Income Before Marriage | Wives | | | $r$ = .15* |
| Annual Income and Who Earns More Income at Present | Husbands | | | $r$ = .45** |
| | Wives | | | $r$ = .36** |
| Annual Income and Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | Husbands | | | $r$ = .19* |
| | Wives | | | $r$ = -.18* |
| Wives' Annual Income and Wives' Fathers' Education | Wives | $r$ = .31** | | |
| Husbands' Annual Income and Husbands' Fathers' Education | Husbands | | $r$ = .21* | |

Table 5 (Continued)

| Variable | | Nontraditional | Traditional | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Who Earns More Income at Present and Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | Husbands | | | $r$ = .15* |
| | Wives | | | $r$ = .17* |
| How Much More Income is Earned by Husband at Present and Occupational Prestige | Husbands | | $r$ = .26* | |
| How Much More Income Wives Would Have to Earn Before it "Makes a Difference" to Husbands and Marital Satisfaction | Husbands | | | $r$ = .20* |
| How Much More Income Wives Would Have to Earn Before it "Makes a Difference" to Husbands and Education | Husbands | $r$ = .26* | | |

*$p$ < .05 **$p$ < .01

Lower numbers indicate more positive or more egalitarian attitudes for the variables: marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, attitudes toward roles of wife and mother, roles of husband and father, and situations pertaining to occupational pursuits.

Higher numbers indicate a greater amount for the variables: occupational prestige, education, and income.

1 = Husband and 2 = Wife for the variable "who earned more income before marriage."
1 = Wife and 2 = Husband for the variable "who earns more income at present."

husbands' job satisfaction was related to their attitudes toward the roles of wife and mother.

Traditional husbands' attitudes toward gender roles were related to their wives' education and nontraditional husbands' gender role attitudes were related to both their mothers' and fathers' occupational prestige.

Annual income of nontraditional wives and traditional husbands was correlated with their fathers' education; however annual income of all wives and husbands was correlated with their attitudes toward gender roles.

## Relationships of Income and Occupational Prestige Between Nontraditional and Traditional Dual Career Couples

Six chi square analyses for independent samples were performed to determine whether the frequencies computed for the variables annual income and occupational prestige differed for the nontraditional and traditional groups of dual career couples. Means and standard deviations of annual income and occupational prestige of wives, of husbands, and of wife-husband couples are displayed in Table 6. Chi square analyses for annual income are presented in Table 7 and analyses for occupational prestige are presented in Table 8.

A statistical difference in annual income was found between the nontraditional and traditional groups of wives ($\chi^2$ (4) = 31.25, $p < .01$), of husbands ($\chi^2$ (4) = 54.04, $p < .01$) and of couples ($\chi^2$ (5) = 15.31, $p < .01$). Nontraditional wives, traditional husbands, and traditional couples had higher mean incomes than traditional wives, nontraditional husbands, and nontraditional couples.

Table 6. Means and Standard Deviations for Annual Income and Occupational Prestige of Wives, Husbands, and Wife-Husband Couples in Nontraditional and Traditional Groups.

| Variable | N | Mean | Standard Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Nontraditional Group | | |
| Wives' Annual Income | 77 | $27,406.81 | $ 7,508.42 |
| Husbands' Annual Income | 77 | $18,995.58 | $ 8,284.54 |
| Couples' Annual Income | 77 | $46,402.39 | $13,945.81 |
| Wives' Occupational Prestige | 79 | 58.95 | 9.83 |
| Husbands' Occupational Prestige | 77 | 52.64 | 12.78 |
| Couples' Occupational Prestige | 77 | 55.74 | 17.74 |
| | Traditional Group | | |
| Wives' Annual Income | 101 | $21,145.90 | $ 8,425.32 |
| Husbands' Annual Income | 101 | $34,045.77 | $18,205.39 |
| Couples' Annual Income | 101 | $55,191.67 | $23,027.66 |
| Wives' Occupational Prestige | 103 | 56.37 | 10.55 |
| Husbands' Occupational Prestige | 104 | 57.46 | 13.76 |
| Couples' Occupational Prestige | 102 | 57.00 | 19.12 |

Table 7. The Relationship of Annual Income Between Nontraditional and Traditional Wives, Husbands, and Couples.

| | Wives' Annual Income | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Group | Below $15,000 | $15,000 to $24,999 | $25,000 to $34,999 | $35,000 to $44,999 | $45,000 to $54,999 | Total |
| Nontraditional | 3 | 29 | 29 | 16 | 2 | 79 |
| Traditional | 25 | 54 | 19 | 4 | 3 | 105 |
| Total | 28 | 33 | 48 | 20 | 5 | 184 |

$\chi^2$ (4) = 31.25**

| | Husbands' Annual Income | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Group | Below $15,000 | $15,000 to $24,999 | $25,000 to $34,999 | $35,000 to $44,999 | $45,000 and Above | Total |
| Nontraditional | 24 | 40 | 12 | 2 | 1 | 79 |
| Traditional | 6 | 23 | 41 | 20 | 13 | 103 |
| Total | 30 | 63 | 53 | 22 | 14 | 182 |

$\chi^2$ (4) = 54.04**

| | Couples' Annual Income | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Group | Below $35,000 | $35,000 to $44,999 | $45,000 to $54,999 | $55,000 to $65,999 | $65,000 to $74,999 | $75,000 and Above | Total |
| Nontraditional | 16 | 24 | 24 | 4 | 8 | 3 | 79 |
| Traditional | 14 | 24 | 26 | 23 | 6 | 11 | 104 |
| Total | 30 | 48 | 50 | 27 | 14 | 14 | 183 |

$\chi^2$ (5) = 15.31**

**$p < .01$

Table 8. The Relationship of Occupational Prestige Between Nontraditional and Traditional Wives, Husbands, and Couples.

| Group | 09 to 38 | 39 to 48 | 49 to 58 | 59 to 68 | 68 to 82 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Wives' Occupational Prestige | | | |
| Nontraditional | 1 | 5 | 42 | 18 | 13 | 79 |
| Traditional | 0 | 16 | 61 | 8 | 18 | 103 |
| Total | 1 | 21 | 103 | 26 | 31 | 182 |
| $\chi^2$ (4) = 11.96* | | | | | | |
| | | | Husbands' Occupational Prestige | | | |
| Nontraditional | 9 | 15 | 34 | 8 | 11 | 77 |
| Traditional | 8 | 16 | 37 | 11 | 32 | 104 |
| Total | 17 | 31 | 71 | 19 | 43 | 181 |
| $\chi^2$ (4) = 7.08* | | | | | | |
| | | | Couples' Occupational Prestige | | | |
| Nontraditional | 3 | 9 | 41 | 17 | 7 | 77 |
| Traditional | 0 | 21 | 36 | 34 | 11 | 102 |
| Total | 3 | 30 | 77 | 51 | 18 | 179 |
| $\chi^2$ (4) = 11.41* | | | | | | |

*$p < .05$

An analysis of occupational prestige indicated a significant difference between the wives ($\chi^2$ (4) = 11.96, $p < .05$) and between the couples ($\chi^2$ (4) = 11.41, $p < .05$) in the nontraditional and traditional groups. Nontraditional wives, traditional husbands, and traditional couples had higher mean occupational prestige ratings than traditional wives, nontraditional husbands and nontraditional couples. Nontraditional and traditional husbands' occupational prestige did not differ significantly ($\chi^2$ (4) = 7.08, $p > .05$).

## Discriminant Function Analysis

Stepwise discriminant function analysis was used to determine what combination of the twelve discriminator variables included in the study significantly contributed to group separation. Nine variables formed a significant discriminant function which differentiated between nontraditional and traditional groups of dual career couples. The Wilks' Lambda Criterion, used to determine the overall significance of variables, was converted into an approximate F value. The F value ($F$ (9, 165) = 2.01, $p < .05$) revealed that all nine variables in combination significantly contributed to group separation.

Stepwise discriminant function analysis uses variables in combination in order to explain the amount of variance; however the univariate F depicts the relative importance of each variable when used by itself. Table 9 displays the univariate F of each of the nine study variables utilized in the discriminant function analysis.

The classification function equation,

$$C_i = c_{i1}V_1 + c_{i2}V_2 + \ldots + c_{ip}V_p + c_{i0} ,$$

Table 9. The Univariate F of Each Study Variable Utilized in Discriminant Function Analysis.

| Variables | F Value |
|---|---|
| Wives' Self-Esteem | 0.51 |
| Husbands' Self-Esteem | 1.81 |
| Wives' Marital Satisfaction | 2.50 |
| Husbands' Marital Satisfaction | 0.17 |
| Wives' Job Satisfaction | 1.39 |
| Husbands' Job Satisfaction | 1.03 |
| Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | 2.87 |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | 4.87* |
| Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | 1.61 |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband and Father | 3.05 |
| Wives' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | 4.01* |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | 5.07* |

$df$ = 1, 173

*$p$ < .05

was used to determine each individual's score and thus to classify each case into the nontraditional or traditional group. Table 10 presents the classification functions (c) which indicate the relative importance of each discriminating variable in classifying cases into the nontraditional or traditional group. Wives' job satisfaction and husbands' job satisfaction were the most important variables used in combination with the other study variables in classifying cases into the two groups of dual career couples.

The jackknifed classification procedure (Huberty, 1981) was used to test the efficiency of the discriminant function equation in predicting group membership. The jackknifed procedure forces independence of each case; i.e., with the classification function each case was excluded from the discriminant function analysis and a new discriminant function was derived from the remaining cases. The jackknifed classification procedure indicated that 59.4% of all cases were classified correctly into the nontraditional and traditional groups. The Goodness of Fit test (Hays, 1973) revealed the percentage to be significant ($\chi^2$ (1) = 13.87, $p < .01$).

## Perceived Advantages and Disadvantages of Spouse Earning More

In the nontraditional group of dual career couples the wife earned a higher income than the husband; therefore only husbands responded to the two open-ended items which asked the perceived advantages and disadvantages of the spouse earning more. Seventy-nine husbands responded. In the traditional group of dual career couples, the

Table 10. Classification Function Coefficients of Each Study Variable.

| Variables | Classification Function Coefficients: Nontraditional Group | Classification Function Coefficients: Traditional Group |
|---|---|---|
| Wives' Self-Esteem | 0.11 | 0.09 |
| Husbands' Self-Esteem | 0.18 | 0.24 |
| Wives' Marital Satisfaction | 0.17 | 0.07 |
| Husbands' Marital Satisfaction | -0.07 | -0.00 |
| Wives' Job Satisfaction | 0.84 | 0.78 |
| Husbands' Job Satisfaction | 0.96 | 0.87 |
| Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | 0.42 | 0.47 |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife and Mother | 0.21 | 0.25 |
| Husbands' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | 0.68 | 0.72 |
| Constant | -25.63 | -26.18 |

*df* = 1, 165.

husband earned a higher income than the wife; therefore only wives responded to the items which asked the perceived advantages and disadvantages of the spouse earning more. Percentages are based on answers given by 105 wives.

## Nontraditional Husbands' Responses

Advantages. The majority of nontraditional husbands (61%) said the main advantage of wives earning the higher income was economic, for example, having more family income, having a higher standard of living, and being able to afford more luxuries. Thirteen percent of these husbands said there were no advantages associated with the wives earning more, and 9% gave no response. Six percent said the wives were independent and "the need to rely on me is less," and 3% of husbands said the advantage of the wives earning more was to imbue them with the motivation to surpass their wives' earnings. Three percent indicated the wife's income was not viewed as "her" money because all income was pooled in a common fund. Other responses included: "We are each permitted to reach our own potential"; "Our prestige is increased"; "We each have the opportunity to discuss interesting subjects and meet interesting people through each others' jobs"; and "Her earning more income frees me from the breadwinner role."

Disadvantages. Most nontraditional husbands (62%) said there were no disadvantages associated with their wives earning the higher income, and 11% gave no response. Nine percent of these husbands indicated resentment or a feeling of inadequacy, and 8% said the wife had independence as well as control over the financial matters. Five

percent indicated the disadvantage was the amount of pressure and time required by their wife's job. Three percent of husbands indicated their wives had a higher standard of living than they, and 4% said their wives' higher income placed them in a higher income tax bracket. Other responses included: "Her earning more increases my dissatisfaction with my job situation," and "The children rely less on me for advice."

Traditional Wives' Responses

Advantages. Fifty-four percent of traditional wives responding to the item which asked perceived advantages of husbands earning more said that the advantage was an economic one. Other wives (15%) indicated that advantages of husbands earning the higher income included providing him with an ego boost, increasing his self-esteem, or making him feel more responsible. Ten percent of wives said there were no advantages associated with their husbands earning more, and 2% gave no response. Five percent of traditional wives indicated they could quit working anytime they wished, 3% said they had more freedom, and 3% said their husbands deserved a higher income. Other wives said, "It is the man's place to be the head of the household"; "It motivates me to perform better"; or "The money is pooled as 'our' income."

Disadvantages. Sixty-eight percent of traditional wives indicated there were no disadvantages associated with the husband earning the higher income. Eleven percent gave no response. Five percent said a disadvantage related to their husbands earning the higher income was that of being placed in a higher income tax bracket, and 4% said their husbands had greater decision-making control over financial and

household matters. Three percent of traditional wives indicated that they had experienced feelings of inferiority or regretted they did not earn more. Two percent said their husbands tended to feel egotistical and 2% of wives said they had greater responsibility for child care and housework. Other responses included "I spend money carelessly at times"; "He is not very understanding when I bring home work from the office"; "At times my job is considered less important"; "It bothers me that less experienced and less hard working colleagues earn more than I do"; and "I don't know of any disadvantage, it's always been this way."

## Reasons for Providing Support to Spouse Who Earns More

Nontraditional husbands and traditional wives were asked their reasons for being supportive, unsupportive, or experiencing neutral feelings related to their spouse earning the higher income. Percentages are based on responses by 79 nontraditional husbands and 105 traditional wives.

### Nontraditional Husbands

Many nontraditional husbands (30%) did not acknowledge a reason for being supportive, unsupportive, or feeling neutral toward their wives earning the higher income. Sixteen percent of these husbands, however, indicated their amount of support was related to economics, and 14% said both incomes were pooled which led to greater purchasing power for both wife and husband. Thirteen percent said they supported their wives earning more because the wives were well educated and highly qualified. Nine percent said "the more the better," and 8% indicated

that, as wife and husband, they were not competitive in their career ambitions. Three percent said they supported their wives because of love and respect, and 3% indicated ambivalence by saying that they supported the wives earning more, however, they felt resentment or inadequacy. Other responses included, "A person should earn what he/she is capable of, not what the spouse feels 'comfortable' with"; "We pool our money and encourage each other's careers"; "Money is probably the least important element in our marriage"; "I like spending her money"; and "I support it but as principal breadwinner I somehow resent it."

Traditional Wives

Twenty-six percent of traditional wives did not give a response to the item which asked for reasons for providing amount of support to spouse who earns more. Twelve percent said they supported their husbands earning the higher income because it was not an important issue, and 10% indicated their husbands deserved their high incomes because they were well qualified and their jobs required much responsibility. Nine percent of traditional wives indicated they were supportive because the money was "pooled," and 8% said they "expected" their husbands to be the primary wage earner. Six percent of these wives indicated they supported their husbands' higher income because they were not competitive and 4% said, "It is good for the husband's ego." Three percent indicated they supported their husbands earning the higher income because their husbands enjoyed their work. Other responses included, "I don't want the responsibility as the major breadwinner";

"The more money he makes the less pressure on me to have to work"; and "It's frustrating that we both have the same education but he earns 1-1/2 times what I do."

# CHAPTER V

# DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

## Discussion

Changing societal standards regarding gender roles have led researchers to examine these roles from several different perspectives. Much attention has been focused on current trends as compared with past trends of role behavior of wives and husbands in general, of husbands and "nonworking" wives, and of husbands and wives who are pursuing a career. Although the majority of research has been directed toward the study of "nonworking" wives and their husbands, more commonly called the one career couple, the concept of the "one career couple" is becoming obsolete. With the influx of married women into the labor force, dual career couples are becoming more prevalent. Further, more wives are earning incomes equivalent to or exceeding their husbands' incomes, approximately 22% according to Bird (1979).

In the recent past, the concepts of "femininity" and "masculinity" were powerful issues in the selection of careers and subsequent incomes. Therefore, the emergence of wives who are earning higher incomes than their husbands and are reporting it is of major significance. According to Pogrebin (1976) and Bird (1979), wives typically have tended to circumvent the issue because of the fear of threatening their husbands' egos and thus the marital relationship. However, a current trend among modern dual career couples is for both partners to seek to build a relationship that is mutually rewarding.

The careers and incomes of both partners are important.

Behavior change in roles of some women and men is indicative of evolving attitudes. Women and men are pursuing occupational roles and assuming household responsibilities that do not fit within the traditional definition of "gender specific." The new roles, however, are based on convenience, necessity, and/or desire.

Research indicates that married couples tend to share similar attitudes (Byrne and Blaylock). In addition, since an attitude is a predisposition to act (Sherif and Sherif, 1967), those couples who espouse nontraditional attitudes would be assumed to engage in nontraditional behavior, whereas couples who espouse traditional attitudes would be assumed to engage in traditional behavior.

Although the issue of wives earning the higher income has been tenuously examined by researchers, this research has not included investigations of couples in which the wife earns the higher income. Thus the present study is the first of its kind to examine attitudes of couples in which the wife earns more, and to compare these couples with couples in which the wife earns less than the husband.

The data which were collected from 79 nontraditional dual career couples and 105 traditional dual career couples in East Tennessee provide evidence for the following findings:

1. Attitudes toward self, marriage, and job were not significantly different for nontraditional and traditional dual career couples.

2. Nontraditional dual career couples' attitudes toward the roles of wife and mother, the roles of husband and father, and the situations pertaining to occupational pursuits of wife and husband were significantly more egalitarian than those of traditional dual career couples.

3. Amount of support nontraditional husbands provided their wives who earned the higher income and these husbands' attitudes toward the three dimensions of gender roles were significantly related. More support was related to more egalitarian attitudes.

## Conclusions

Using income to differentiate between the nontraditional and traditional dual career couples, the findings offered by the present study did not substantiate the first three of four hypotheses which guided the research. Attitudes toward self, marriage, and job were not significantly different for nontraditional and traditional dual career couples. This finding is contrary to reports by Bem and Bem (1970), Rapoport and Rapoport (1969, 1976) and Weingarten (1978) who have indicated that positive self-esteem, marital satisfaction, and job satisfaction are associated with egalitarian gender role behavior. However, both spouses in the nontraditional and traditional groups earned high mean incomes which may account for no significant differences in attitudes toward self, marriage, and job.

Attitudes toward gender roles were significantly different for nontraditional and traditional dual career couples. Thus, the postulation that the differential incomes earned by spouses in nontraditional and traditional marriages would be influenced by attitudes toward gender roles was supported by the present study. These nontraditional dual career couples, as posited by Rapoport and Rapoport (1976), appear to be more willing to accept egalitarian roles of a wife and mother. a husband and father, and are more accepting of the

wife's career pursuits than are traditional dual career couples. In addition, the present study supports the findings reported by Scanzoni (1979) that women who hold more egalitarian gender role attitudes attain higher occupational attainments--defined by the present study as income--than women who hold less egalitarian gender role attitudes. Previous research has indicated that modern dual career couples who hold egalitarian attitudes support each other's work regardless of income, occupation, or education (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1973; Weingarten, 1978). In addition, the wife's participation in a non-traditional role (i.e., earning the higher income) may influence the couples' attitudes toward gender roles.

Both nontraditional and traditional groups of dual career couples in this study earned high mean incomes. The mean income of nontraditional dual career couples was $46,402 and the mean income of traditional dual career couples was $55,192 as compared with the mean income of $26,520 for white American families in which both spouses work. However, the number of nontraditional dual career couples who earned high incomes was significantly lower than the number of traditional dual career couples who earned high incomes. Traditional husbands earned the highest mean income and nontraditional husbands earned the lowest mean income. Perhaps as Hall and Hall (1979) indicated, men with low career commitments and low incomes tend to marry women with high career commitments and high incomes. According to Safilios-Rothschild and Dijkers (1978), some married women pursue their careers as arduously as men traditionally have done. Traditional men, on the other hand, may tend to marry women with low career commitments and, thus, low incomes.

Income is frequently associated with occupational prestige (Flanagan, Strauss, and Ulman, 1974). The present study provided evidence of this association. A higher percentage of nontraditional wives and traditional husbands earned higher incomes and had higher occupational prestige ratings than traditional wives and nontraditional husbands. A larger percentage of traditional couples earned higher incomes and had higher occupational prestige ratings than nontraditional couples because nontraditional wives earned lower mean incomes than traditional husbands, and nontraditional husbands earned lower mean incomes than traditional wives.

The high rate of unemployment and high inflation that occurred during the 1970s may have necessitated the wife's working in order to help support the family. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the wife's income has helped lift some families from lower to middle class (Bird, 1979). Some research indicates that current lifestyles of dual career couples may necessitate a high combined income. Bird (1979) indicated that some dual career couples have developed an affluent lifestyle and that the wife's unemployment would reduce greatly the couples' spending capacity. Thus, the total income of both husband and wife may be more important than who earns more. The findings offered by the present study indicated that the majority of nontraditional husbands and traditional wives said the main advantage of their spouse earning more was economic. Some of these same wives and husbands revealed that the incomes were pooled in a common fund and, therefore, which spouse earned more was not a major issue.

Despite the fact that correlations were moderate, there was an indication that as the income differential increased between nontraditional wives and husbands, nontraditional husbands tended to hold more egalitarian attitudes toward the roles of their wives. These husbands tended to feel that wives should pursue individual interests, and that being flexible and sharing domestic responsibilities were important. In view of the fact that nontraditional wives already were earning higher incomes than their husbands prior to marriage, perhaps the husbands' attitudes, as indicated by Farrell (1974), had conformed to those of their wives. However, some self-assured men who have low career involvements are attracted to ambitious wives who attain high career success (Hall and Hall, 1979). Further, the issue of power has been associated with income, with the spouse who earns the higher income having more power in the marital relationship than the spouse who earns less (Bird, 1979). Therefore, husbands of wives who earn the higher income may be inclined to share the "wives' roles" because the wives are contributing a larger proportion of economic rewards to the family unit than they.

The findings of the present study indicated that the spouse earning the higher income prior to marriage was associated with wives' and husbands' attitudes toward gender roles. Traditional wives who earned higher incomes than their husbands before marriage tended to emphasize their own interests, including career interests, more than they emphasized their husbands' career interests and the family. Traditional husbands who earned higher incomes than their wives prior to marriage tended to emphasize the stereotypic roles of wife and mother,

and to place more importance on the husbands' career. Husbands who earned more prior to marriage may be inclined to perceive their career as the major one and the wives' career as secondary. Wives, however, may view their career as being as important as their husband's career. According to Bird (1979), the higher a husband's income the more he feels that he needs the support of a traditional wife. Conversely, the more income the wife earns, the less support she needs from the husband. In addition, Blood (1963) provided evidence that male dominance within the family is associated with their high economic contribution.

Although some wives pursue careers without support from their husbands (Hunt, 1968), Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) found that "a crucial element" in the wife's career progress was "husband's support." The findings of the present study indicate that nontraditional husbands who said they strongly supported their wives' earning the higher income tended to have egalitarian attitudes toward gender roles. These husbands indicated that the roles of wife and mother, husband and father need to be flexible and shared by both spouses. In addition, these husbands expressed the belief that the wife's career was as important as the husband's career.

The findings of this study indicate that high income earned by all husbands was associated with job satisfaction. Traditionally, income has been a major determinant of job satisfaction (Renwick and Lawler, 1978). In addition, traditional husbands' occupational prestige was related to their job satisfaction. Some studies (Flanagan, Strauss, and Ulman, 1974) indicate that there is a tendency for

occupational prestige to determine job satisfaction. Wives' job satisfaction, however, was not related to income. Perhaps the wives have not assumed the typical masculine orientation to associate income with satisfaction. As indicated by the Rapoports (1971, 1976) wives may receive satisfaction from the job because of the derived personal development.

High income earned by nontraditional wives was linked with their fathers' high educational attainment, and high income earned by traditional husbands was linked with both their fathers' high educational attainment and occupational prestige. According to Tangri (1975), daughters who achieve atypical academic and career goals are similar to their fathers. Sons also traditionally have aspired to academic and career goals similar to those of the father (Mortimer, 1974).

## Implications

Nontraditional dual career couples have taken a step beyond the traditional dual career couples and are engaging in a prominent role reversal, i.e., wives are earning higher incomes than their husbands. Nontraditional dual career couples hold more egalitarian gender role attitudes than traditional couples as may be indicated by the wives' income. However, attitudes toward self, marriage, and job are similar for both groups and this may be attributed to the fact that dual career couples are having to establish norms which facilitate their lifestyle. The concept "dual career couple" is relatively new in today's society (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969, 1971); therefore, dual career couples are having to revamp their orientations toward

their identities, marriage, and job. Dual career couples in general may be struggling with stereotypic expectations which typically have pressured the husband to pursue a career and the wife to work in the home. The additional atypical behavior of the wife as major "breadwinner" may be perceived by the couple as less important than the attempt to create a new lifestyle (Rice, 1979).

Both the nontraditional and traditional dual career couples who participated in this study earned high mean incomes. The combined income of spouses in each group of couples placed them in the middle or upper middle class. Further study of the relationship between attitudes and class as defined by income level is needed in order to provide a more representative view of dual career couples' attitudes.

Another finding that has research implications is the evidence that younger wives and older husbands in the nontraditional group earned high incomes before their marriage. There is a tendency for older men to marry younger women; however, previous research fails to indicate earnings of each spouse prior to and following their marriage. Thirty-seven percent of nontraditional wives in this study earned higher incomes than their husbands prior to their marriage, which could account for their earning the higher income at present. Prior knowledge of wives' income level may account for similar attitudes between nontraditional and traditional couples.

The similarity in age of nontraditional and traditional wives and husbands (mean ages were late 30s and early 40s) tend to indicate that spouses in the nontraditional and traditional groups experienced similar economic and historical influences. An investigation of

couples by age group, that is, those growing up in the 1940s as compared with the 1960s, might account for attitudinal differences.

Dual career orientation may be influenced by initial work experiences. One's first career or occupational situation could affect later career aspirations and attainments. By examining womens' and mens' attitudes toward early career experiences and toward career goals, researchers should be able to more fully explain differences in career orientation. In addition, the preference or orientation toward work or family or an integration of both may more effectively determine attitudinal differences.

The importance of studying the couple as a unit of analysis has been emphasized by several researchers. The dynamics of marital life and systematic change in the family structure are manifested in the couples' attitudes and behavior. Nontraditional dual career couples have been investigated only peripherally; thus more research is warranted in order to understand their interactions and lifestyles.

## Directions for Future Research

Both surveys and interviews need to be utilized in data collection on dual career couples. Interviews would assist the researcher in clarifying and qualifying the findings, whereas surveys provide quantitative data.

The inclusion of variables such as age at time of marriage, length of marriage, number of marriages, length of time in present career, spouses' orientation toward family, career, or both would provide the researcher with a more definitive rationale for the spouse

earning the higher income and in determining the influence of income on attitudes.

In order to generalize, a more representative group of dual career couples needs to be sampled. Class as determined by income would provide demarcations of couples in the working class, the middle class, and the upper middle class. In addition to demarcations, the use of income class would provide a clearer picture of reasons wives work as well as reasons for their pursuing nontraditional roles, i.e., economic or personal fulfillment.

In addition to categorizing dual career couples by wife earns more or wife earns less than the husband, nontraditional and traditional couples need to be categorized according to specific income levels. By using specific income levels, the possibility of both groups of couples earning similar incomes would be eliminated. Thus, differences may be more accurately identified.

A longitudinal study would allow the researcher to determine whether the higher income earned by the wife tends to be a temporary or a permanent behavior. The study may be initiated prior to a couple's marriage (i.e., couples who are dating steadily and/or are engaged), and may continue for a certain number of years following the marriage. Attitudinal surveys including specific demographic items may be administered at designated time intervals.

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# APPENDICES

# APPENDIX A

## CORRESPONDENCE

Cover Letter Explaining Survey to Potential Participants

Dear Husband or Wife:

I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Tennessee majoring in educational psychology. Because of my own personal experience and through my association with other dual career couples, I have become interested in studying dual career marriages for my doctoral dissertation research.

The purpose of the study is to examine attitudes of dual career couples. The enclosed survey asks you to provide information such as age and income and attitudes about job, marriage, self, and gender roles. If you currently are not involved in a dual career marriage, for example, if you are single or you do not consider your work involvement to be a career, please return the survey to me in the enclosed envelope.

Very little of your time will be required. The survey consists of 63 questions and takes only 10-15 minutes to complete. Two identical surveys are enclosed: one for the husband and one for the wife. If you choose to participate, please answer them individually. Individual answers are important in accurately reflecting attitudes of wives and attitudes of husbands.

Your participation in this study is purely voluntary. Through your participation, however, we hope to gather information to better understand the complexities of the dual career marriage. I would like to ask your help in an effort to provide a greater understanding. Please indicate your consent to participate by completing and returning the survey as soon as possible in the enclosed self-addressed envelope. Returning the survey will indicate your consent to participate.

A Note on Privacy

Your name was selected from a list of dual career couples. My doctoral committee members and I are vitally concerned about the importance of protecting your privacy. You will notice a number on your survey. This number will be used only to identify the husband and wife as a dual career couple and to assure that you are not bothered by reminder letters once you have completed and returned your survey. At no time will surveys be identified by name.

If you have any questions about the study, please call me at 615/974-4165 (office) or 615/588-8205 (home). Results of the study will be available after August 1981. You may obtain a copy of the results by completing and returning to me the name and address form at the bottom of the survey. If you have any doubts about the effect of this on the anonymity of your survey responses, detach the name and address form and mail to me under separate cover. However, rest assured that the results will remain confidential if you mail the name and address form along with your survey.

Thank you in advance for your time.

Sincerely,

Sandra Shoun
Doctoral Candidate

S. C. Dietz, Ed. D.
Professor

First Postcard Mailed to Nonrespondents

Just a reminder that I have not received your surveys regarding the study on dual career couples. You are probably intending to respond and have just put them aside for the time being. It would be most helpful, however, if I could have them as soon as possible. Because the research involves the dual career marriage, it is very important that I receive completed surveys from both husband and wife. If you did not receive the surveys or have misplaced them, please call me collect at 615/588-8205 after 5 P. M.

Thank you so much for your cooperation and participation.

Sincerely,

Sandra Shoun
Doctoral Candidate

Second Postcard Mailed to Nonrespondents

One last reminder that I have not received your survey regarding the study on dual career couples. Because I am working on a graduation deadline, I must receive your survey within the next two weeks. If you are presently involved in a dual career marriage, it is essential that both wife and husband complete and return the surveys. If you are not involved in a dual career marriage, I apologize for any inconvenience I may have caused you. I would appreciate, however, your letting me know by calling me at home 615/588-8205 (you may call collect if you live outside Knoxville) or you may leave a message at the office 615/974-4165.

Your promptness will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Sandra Shoun
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ON NONTRADITIONAL AND TRADITIONAL DUAL CAREER COUPLES

## Nontraditional Dual Career Couples: Demographic Information

### Total Number of Children from Previous and Present Marriages

| Husbands | Wives |
|---|---|
| 43% had one or two children | 48% had one or two children |
| 19% had three or more children | 14% had three or more children |
| 38% had no children | 38% had no children |

### Children's Age Ranges

| Husbands | Wives |
|---|---|
| 22% had children aged 6 and below | 22% had children aged 6 and below |
| 26% had children aged 7-12 | 24% had children aged 7-12 |
| 23% had children aged 13-17 | 23% had children aged 13-17 |
| 32% had children aged 18 and above | 32% had children aged 18 and above |

49% of nontraditional couples had children who currently lived in the home

### Husbands' Parents' Occupational Prestige According to the National Occupational Research Center (NORC) Rating Scale

| Fathers | Mothers |
|---|---|
| Occupational prestige ranged from 17 to 78 out of a possible 09-82 | Occupational prestige ranged from 17 to 78 out of a possible 09-82 |
| 35% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above | 16% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above |
| Mean occupational rating was 47 | Mean occupational rating was 36 |

Wives' Parents' Occupational Prestige According to the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) Rating Scale

| Fathers | Mothers |
|---|---|
| Occupational prestige ranged from 17 to 78 out of a possible 09-82 | Occupational prestige ranged from 17 to 78 out of a possible 09-82 |
| 48% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above | 16% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above |
| Mean occupational rating was 52 | Mean occupational rating was 36 |

Husbands' Parents' Education

| Fathers | Mothers |
|---|---|
| 51% had a high school degree or less | 72% had a high school degree or less |
| 27% had an associate degree or some college | 9% had an associate degree or some college |
| 8% held a college degree | 14% held a college degree |
| 14% had a graduate degree | 5% had a graduate degree |

Wives' Parents' Education

| Fathers | Mothers |
|---|---|
| 36% had a high school degree or less | 65% had a high school degree or less |
| 31% had an associate degree or some college | 11% had an associate degree or some college |
| 14% held a college degree | 19% held a college degree |
| 19% had a graduate degree | 5% had a graduate degree |

Traditional Dual Career Couples: Demographic Information

Total Number of Children from Previous and Present Marriages

| Husbands | Wives |
|---|---|
| 53% had one or two children | 51% had one or two children |
| 22% had three or more children | 21% had three or more children |
| 25% had no children | 28% had no children |

Children's Age Ranges

| Husbands | Wives |
|---|---|
| 20% had children aged 6 and below | 20% had children aged 6 and below |
| 26% had children aged 7-12 | 20% had children aged 7-12 |
| 28% had children aged 13-17 | 26% had children aged 13-17 |
| 34% had children aged 18 and above | 36% had children aged 18 and above |

53% of traditional couples had children who currently lived in the home.

Husbands' Parents' Occupational Prestige According to the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) Rating Scale

| Fathers | Mothers |
|---|---|
| Occupational prestige ranged from 16 to 82 out of a possible 09-82 | Occupational prestige ranged from 17 to 63 out of a possible 09-82 |
| 41% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above | 15% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above |
| Mean occupational rating was 50 | Mean occupational rating was 35 |

Wives' Parents' Occupational Prestige According to the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) Rating Scale

| Fathers | Mothers |
|---|---|
| Occupational prestige ranged from 16 to 78 out of a possible 09-82 | Occupational prestige ranged from 12 to 82 out of a possible 09-82 |
| 32% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above | 12% had an occupational prestige rating of 50 and above |
| Mean occupational rating was 48 | Mean occupational rating was 36 |

Husbands' Parents' Education

| Fathers | Mothers |
|---|---|
| 67% had a high school degree or less | 75% had a high school degree or less |
| 8% had an associate degree or some college | 9% had an associate degree or some college |
| 13% held a college degree | 13% held a college degree |
| 12% had a graduate degree | 3% had a graduate degree |

Wives' Parents' Education

| Fathers | Mothers |
|---|---|
| 69% had a high school degree or less | 70% had a high school degree or less |
| 12% had an associate degree or some college | 10% had an associate degree or some college |
| 9% held a college degree | 12% held a college degree |
| 10% had a graduate degree | 8% had a graduate degree |

APPENDIX C

SURVEY UTILIZED IN THE STUDY

A Study of Dual Career Couples

The following items help identify your attitudes about certain life situations. Please choose the response for each item that best fits you. There are no right or wrong answers. Recognizing the personal nature of the items, we wish to emphasize our committment to preserving your confidentiality in this study. Your responses will be used without any reference to you personally.

Part I. Background Information

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 gender?

____1. Male
____2. Female

2. What is your present occupation?_____
_____

3. What is your educational level? (highest degree)

____1. High school
____2. Associate degree
____3. Bachelor's degree
____4. Master's degree
____5. Master's degree + 60 hours
____6. Ed. S.
____7. Ed. D. or Ph. D.
____8. Other (Please specify)
_____

4. In what year were you born?_____

5. Your mother's occupation?_____
_____

6. Your mother's education (highest degree)

____1. High school
____2. Associate degree
____3. Bachelor's degree
____4. Master's degree
____5. Master's degree + 60 hours
____6. Ed. S.
____7. Ed. D. or Ph. D.
____8. Other (Please specify)
_____

7. Your father's occupation?_____
_____

8. Your father's education? (highest degree)

____1. High school
____2. Associate degree
____3. Bachelor's degree
____4. Master's degree
____5. Master's degree + 60 hours
____6. Ed. S.
____7. Ed. D. or Ph. D.
____8. Other (Please specify)
_____

9. How many children do you have?

____1
____2
____3
____4
____5 or more

10. How many of your children are in the following age ranges?

____1. 0-6 years old
____2. 7-12 years old
____3. 13-17 years old
____4. 18 years old or older

11. How many of your children presently live at home with you?

____0
____1
____2
____3
____4
____5 or more

Part II. Income

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

1. People sometimes earn more than their regular salary/wages from things like overtime pay, bonuses or commissions. Taking these things along with your salary how much do your total earnings from your job figure out to be a year before taxes and other deductions?_____

2. Before your present marriage did you earn a higher income than your spouse?

____1. Yes
____2. No

3. Does your spouse earn a higher income than you at present?

____1. Yes
____2. No

If yes, how much higher?

____1. $ 0 - 999
____2. $1,000 - 1,999
____3. $2,000 - 2,999
____4. $3,000 - 3,999
____5. $4,000 - 4,999
____6. $5,000 or more

If more than $5,000, how much more?

_____

4. If your spouse earned more than you, how much more than you would he/she have to earn before it made a difference to you?

___1. $ 0 - 999
___2. $1,000 - 1,999
___3. $2,000 - 2,999
___4. $3,000 - 3,999
___5. $4,000 - 4,999
___6. $5,000 or more

If more than $5,000, how much more?

_____

Answer the following three questions only if your spouse earns a higher income than you.

5. How do you feel about your spouse earning a higher income than you?

___1. Support it enthusiastically--without qualification
___2. Support it
___3. Support it as long as it does not interfere with our homelife
___4. Does not matter one way or the other
___5. Do not like it but I can live with it
___6. Do not like it
___7. Really opposed to it

Why do you say this?_____

_____

6. What are the advantages of your spouse earning a higher income than you?

7. What are the disadvantages of your spouse earning a higher income than you?

Part III. Attitudes

Please note that there are 4 sections and that each section uses a different response format. Circle only one answer for each question or statement.

Section A. The following questions are designed to help us learn how you feel about your job. For each question indicate the extent you feel delighted or pleased, terrible or unhappy by circling the appropriate number.

| How do you feel about: | Delighted | Pleased | Uncertain/ Mixed | Unhappy | Terrible |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The people you work with--your co-workers? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. The work you do on the job--the work itself? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. What you have available for doing your job--meaning equipment, information, good supervision and so on? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. What it is like where you work--the physical surroundings, the hours, and the amount of work you are asked to do? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. The pay and fringe benefits you get, and the security of your job? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Your job as a whole? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

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

| | Strongly Agree | Agree | Uncertain/ Mixed | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7. I certainly feel useless at times. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. At times I think I am no good at all. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I feel I don't have much to be proud of. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I am able to do things as well as most other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. I wish I could have more respect for myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. I take a positive attitude toward myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | Strongly Agree | Agree | Uncertain/ Mixed | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 16. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Section C. The following questions ask about your marital relationship. C (1) asks the extent to which you agree or disagree, and C (2) asks the extent to which you are satisfied or dissatisfied. Circle the appropriate number.

| C (1) | Strongly Agree | Agree | Uncertain/ Mixed | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 17. If I had it to do over again, I would marry the same person. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| C (2) | Very Satisfied | Satisfied | Uncertain/ Mixed | Dissatisfied | Very Dissatisfied |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18. How satisfied are you with the love and affection you receive from your spouse? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. How satisfied are you with the amount of understanding of your problems and feelings that you get from your spouse? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. How satisfied are you with the amount of companionship you have--doing things with your spouse? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your marriage overall? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Section D. Some statements about how people feel about their work and family roles are written below. For each statement indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by circling the appropriate number.

| | Strongly Agree | Agree | Uncertain/ Mixed | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 22. In marriage, the wife and husband should share making major decisions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | Strongly Agree | Agree | Uncertain/ Mixed | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 23. | One of the most important things a mother can do for her daughter is to prepare her for both family life and work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. | In marriage, the major responsibility of the wife is not limited to keeping her husband and children happy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. | One of the most important things a mother can do for her son is to prepare him for both family life and work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. | A married woman's greatest satisfaction comes through a combination of family and work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. | If a woman works, she should try to get ahead the same way a man should. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. | A wife may want to work even if it sometimes inconveniences her husband and children temporarily. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. | A mother of young children may want to work if the family needs the money. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. | A mother of young children may want to work if it makes her personally happy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. | A working mother can establish just as warm and secure relationships with her children as a mother who does not work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. | A parent gets equal satisfaction when a daughter gets ahead in her occupation as when a son gets ahead in his occupation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. | A working mother may want to postpone having children in order to increase her opportunities in life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. | A married man's chief responsibility should be equally divided between his job and family. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. | The husband alone should not be the head of the family. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | Strongly Agree | Agree | Uncertain/ Mixed | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 36. | A man should not expect his family to adjust to the demands of his profession. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 37. | A married man should realize that his wife's career may interfere with his career. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 38. | In marriage, the major responsibility of the husband to his wife and children is more than economic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 39. | One of the most important things a father can do for his daughter is to prepare her for a working life and a family. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 40. | A wife should be able to take a job which requires her to be away from home overnight while her husband takes care of the children. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 41. | When a child of working parents is ill, the husband and wife should be willing to stay home and care for the child. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 42. | If the wife makes more money than her husband, it would not upset the balance of power. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 43. | A married man should be willing to have a smaller family so that his wife can work if she wants to. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 44. | As a matter of principle, a man and woman living together should share equally in housework. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 45. | Qualified women who seek positions of authority should be given such positions as equally qualified men. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

If you would like a copy of the results of the study, please fill in and return to:

Sandra Shoun
Bureau of Educational Research and Service
College of Education
The University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916

Name _____

Address _____

_____

_____

APPENDIX D

OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES AND OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE SCALES*

(Compiled by John Vaughn)

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Professional and technical workers: | |
| Accountants | 57 |
| Architects | 71 |
| Computer Specialists | |
| Computer programmers | 51 |
| Computer analysts | 51 |
| Computer specialists, n.e.c. | 51 |
| Engineers | |
| Aeronautical and astronautical engineers | 71 |
| Chemical engineers | 67 |
| Civil engineers | 68 |
| Electrical and electronic engineers | 69 |
| Industrial engineers | 54 |
| Mechanical engineers | 62 |
| Metallurgical and materials engineers | 56 |
| Mining engineers | 62 |
| Petroleum engineers | 67 |
| Sales engineers | 51 |
| Engineers, n.e.c. | 67 |
| Farm management advisors | 54 |
| Foresters and conservationists | 54 |
| Home management advisors | 54 |
| Lawyers and judges | |
| Judges | 76 |
| Lawyers | 76 |

*U. S. Bureau of the Census. 1970 Census of Population Alphabetical Index of Industries and Occupations. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1971.

n.e.c. = not elsewhere classified.

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Librarians, archivists, and curators | |
| Librarians | 55 |
| Archivists and curators | 66 |
| Mathematical specialists | |
| Actuaries | 55 |
| Mathematicians | 65 |
| Statisticians | 55 |
| Life and physical scientists | |
| Agricultural scientists | 56 |
| Atmospheric and space scientists | 68 |
| Biological scientists | 68 |
| Chemists | 69 |
| Geologists | 67 |
| Marine scientists | 68 |
| Physicists and astronomers | 74 |
| Life and physical scientists n.e.c. | 68 |
| Operations and systems researchers and analysts | 51 |
| Personnel and labor relations workers | 56 |
| Physicians, dentists, and related practitioners | |
| Chiropractors | 60 |
| Dentists | 74 |
| Optometrists | 62 |
| Pharmacists | 61 |
| Physicians, including osteopaths | 82 |
| Podiatrists | 37 |
| Veterinarians | 60 |
| Health practitioners, n.e.c. | 51 |
| Nurses, dieticians and therapists | |
| Dieticians | 52 |
| Registered nurses | 62 |
| Therapists | 37 |
| Health technologists and technicians | |
| Clinical laboratory technologists and technicians | 61 |
| Dental hygienists | 61 |
| Health record technologists and technicians | 61 |
| Radiologic technologists and technicians | 61 |
| Therapy assistants | 37 |
| Health technologists and technicians, n.e.c. | 47 |
| Religious workers | |
| Clergymen | 69 |
| Religious workers, n.e.c. | 56 |

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Social scientists | |
| Economists | 57 |
| Political scientists | 66 |
| Psychologists | 71 |
| Sociologists | 66 |
| Urban and regional planners | 66 |
| Social scientists, n.e.c. | 66 |
| Social and recreation workers | |
| Social workers | 52 |
| Recreation workers | 49 |
| Teachers, college and university | |
| Agriculture teachers | 78 |
| Atmospheric, earth, marine, and space teachers | 78 |
| Biology teachers | 78 |
| Chemistry teachers | 78 |
| Physics teachers | 78 |
| Engineering teachers | 78 |
| Mathematics teachers | 78 |
| Health specialists teachers | 78 |
| Psychology teachers | 78 |
| Business and commerce teachers | 78 |
| Economics teachers | 78 |
| History teachers | 78 |
| Sociology teachers | 78 |
| Social science teachers, n.e.c. | 78 |
| Art, drama, and music teachers | 78 |
| Coaches and physical education teachers | 78 |
| Education teachers | 78 |
| English teachers | 78 |
| Foreign language teachers | 78 |
| Home economics teachers | 78 |
| Law teachers | 78 |
| Theology teachers | 78 |
| Trade, industrial and technical teachers | 78 |
| Miscellaneous teachers, college and university | 78 |
| Teachers, college and university, subject not specified | 78 |
| Teachers, except college and university | |
| Adult education teachers | 43 |
| Elementary school teachers | 60 |
| Prekindergarten and kindergarten teachers | 60 |
| Secondary school teachers | 63 |
| Teachers, except college and university, n.e.c. | 43 |

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Engineering and science technicians | |
| Agriculture and biological technicians, except health | 47 |
| Chemical technicians | 47 |
| Draftsmen | 56 |
| Electrical and electronic engineering technicians | 47 |
| Industrial engineering technicians | 47 |
| Mechanical engineering technicians | 47 |
| Mathematical technicians | 47 |
| Surveyors | 53 |
| Engineering and science technicians, n.e.c. | 47 |
| Technicians, except health, engineering, and science | |
| Airplane pilots | 70 |
| Air traffic controllers | 43 |
| Embalmers | 52 |
| Flight engineers | 47 |
| Radio operators | 43 |
| Tool programmers, numerical control | 47 |
| Technicians, n.e.c. | 47 |
| Vocational and educational counselors | 51 |
| Writers, artists, and entertainers | |
| Actors | 55 |
| Athletes and kindred workers | 51 |
| Authors | 60 |
| Dancers | 38 |
| Designers | 58 |
| Editors and reporters | 51 |
| Musicians and composers | 46 |
| Painters and sculptors | 56 |
| Photographers | 41 |
| Public relations men and publicity workers | 57 |
| Radio and television announcers | 51 |
| Writers, artists and entertainers, n.e.c. | 51 |
| Research workers, not specified | 51 |
| Professional, technical and kindred workers--allocated | 51 |
| Managers and administrators, except farm: | |
| Assessors, controllers, and treasurers, local public administration | 61 |
| Bank officers and financial managers | 72 |
| Buyers and shippers--farm products | 41 |
| Buyers, wholesale and retail trade | 50 |
| Credit men | 49 |
| Funeral directors | 52 |
| Health administrators | 61 |

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Construction inspectors, public administration | 41 |
| Inspectors, except construction, public administration | 41 |
| Managers and superintendents, building | 38 |
| Office managers, n.e.c. | 50 |
| Officers, pilots and pursers, ship | 60 |
| Officials and administrators, public administration, n.e.c. | 61 |
| Officials of lodges, societies and unions | 48 |
| Postmasters and mail superintendents | 58 |
| Purchasing agents and buyers, n.e.c. | 48 |
| Railroad conductors | 41 |
| Restaurant, cafeteria and bar managers | 39 |
| Sales managers and department heads, retail trade | 50 |
| School administrators, college | 61 |
| School administrators, elementary and secondary | 60 |
| Managers and administrators, n.e.c. | 50 |
| Managers and administrators, except farm, allocated | 50 |
| Sales workers: | |
| Advertising agents and salesmen | 42 |
| Auctioneers | 32 |
| Demonstrators | 28 |
| Hucksters and peddlers | 18 |
| Insurance agents, brokers, and underwriters | 47 |
| Newsboys | 15 |
| Real estate agents and brokers | 44 |
| Stock and bond salesmen | 51 |
| Salesmen and sales clerks, n.e.c. | 34 |
| Sales representatives, manufacturing industries | 49 |
| Sales representatives, wholesale trade | 40 |
| Sales clerks, retail trade | 29 |
| Salesmen, retail trade | 29 |
| Salesmen of services and construction | 34 |
| Sales workers--allocated | 34 |
| Clerical and kindred workers: | |
| Bank tellers | 50 |
| Billing clerks | 45 |
| Bookkeepers | 48 |
| Cashiers | 31 |
| Clerical assistants, social welfare | 36 |
| Clerical supervisors, n.e.c. | 36 |
| Collectors, bill and account | 26 |
| Counter clerks, except food | 36 |
| Dispatchers and starters, vehicle | 34 |
| Enumerators and interviewers | 36 |

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Estimators and investigators, n.e.c. | 36 |
| Expediters and production controllers | 36 |
| File clerks | 30 |
| Insurance adjusters, examiners, and investigators | 48 |
| Library attendants and assistants | 41 |
| Mail carriers, post office | 42 |
| Mailhandlers, except post office | 36 |
| Messengers and office boys | 19 |
| Meter readers, utilities | 36 |
| Office machine operators | |
| Bookkeeping and billing machine | 45 |
| Calculating machine operators | 45 |
| Computer and peripheral equipment operators | 45 |
| Duplicating machine operators | 45 |
| Keypunch operators | 45 |
| Tabulating machine operators | 45 |
| Office machine operators, n.e.c. | 45 |
| Payroll and timekeeping clerks | 41 |
| Postal clerks | 43 |
| Proofreaders | 36 |
| Real estate appraisers | 43 |
| Receptionists | 39 |
| Secretaries | |
| Secretaries, legal | 46 |
| Secretaries, medical | 46 |
| Secretaries, n.e.c. | 46 |
| Shipping and receiving clerks | 29 |
| Statistical clerks | 36 |
| Stenographers | 43 |
| Stock clerks and storekeepers | 23 |
| Teacher aides, except school monitors | 36 |
| Telegraph messengers | 30 |
| Telegraph operators | 44 |
| Telephone operators | 40 |
| Ticket, station, and express agents | 35 |
| Typists | 41 |
| Weighers | 36 |
| Miscellaneous clerical workers | 36 |
| Not specified clerical workers | 36 |
| Clerical and kindred workers--allocated | 36 |
| Craftsmen and kindred workers: | |
| Automobile accessories installers | 47 |

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Bakers | 34 |
| Blacksmiths | 36 |
| Boilermakers | 31 |
| Bookbinders | 31 |
| Brickmasons and stonemasons | 36 |
| Bulldozer operators | 33 |
| Cabinetmakers | 39 |
| Carpenters | 40 |
| Carpenter apprentices | 40 |
| Carpet installers | 47 |
| Cement and concrete finishers | 32 |
| Compositors and typesetters | 38 |
| Printing trades apprentices, except pressmen | 40 |
| Cranemen, derrickmen and hoistmen | 39 |
| Decorators and window dressers | 37 |
| Dental laboratory technicians | 47 |
| Electricians | 49 |
| Electrician apprentices | 41 |
| Electric power linemen and cablemen | 39 |
| Electrotypers and stereotypers | 38 |
| Engravers, except photoengravers | 41 |
| Excavating, grading, road machine operators except bulldozer | 33 |
| Floor layers, except tile setters | 40 |
| Foremen, n.e.c. | 45 |
| Forgemen and hammermen | 36 |
| Furniture and wood finishers | 29 |
| Furriers | 35 |
| Glaziers | 26 |
| Heat treaters, annealers, and temperers | 36 |
| Inspectors, scalers, and graders, log and lumber | 31 |
| Inspectors, n.e.c. | 31 |
| Jewelers and watchmakers | 37 |
| Job and die setters, metal | 48 |
| Locomotive engineers | 51 |
| Locomotive firemen | 36 |
| Machinists | 48 |
| Machinist apprentices | 41 |
| Mechanics and repairmen | |
| Air conditioning, heating and refrigeration | 37 |
| Aircraft | 48 |
| Automobile body repairmen | 37 |
| Automobile mechanics | 37 |
| Automobile mechanic apprentices | 37 |
| Data processing machine repairmen | 34 |
| Farm implements | 33 |
| Heavy equipment mechanics, including diesel | 33 |
| Household appliance and accessory installers and mechanics | 33 |

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Score |
|---|---|
| Loom fixers | 30 |
| Office machines | 34 |
| Radio and television | 35 |
| Railroad and car shop | 37 |
| Mechanic, except automobile apprentices | 41 |
| Miscellaneous mechanics and repairmen | 35 |
| Not specified mechanics and repairmen | 35 |
| Millers: grain, flour, and feed | 25 |
| Millwrights | 40 |
| Molders, metal | 39 |
| Molders, apprentices | 39 |
| Motion picture projectionists | 34 |
| Opticians and lens grinders and polishers | 51 |
| Painters, construction and maintenance | 30 |
| Painter apprentices | 30 |
| Paperhangers | 24 |
| Pattern and model makers, except paper | 39 |
| Photoengravers and lithographers | 40 |
| Piano and organ tuners and repairmen | 32 |
| Plasterers | 33 |
| Plasterer apprentices | 33 |
| Plumbers and pipe fitters | 41 |
| Plumber and pipe fitter apprentices | 41 |
| Power station operators | 39 |
| Pressmen and plate printers, printing | 40 |
| Pressmen apprentices | 40 |
| Rollers and finishers, metal | 36 |
| Roofers and slaters | 31 |
| Sheetmetal workers and tinsmiths | 37 |
| Sheetmetal apprentices | 37 |
| Shipfitters | 36 |
| Shoe repairmen | 33 |
| Signpainters and letterers | 30 |
| Stationary engineers | 35 |
| Stone cutters and stone carvers | 33 |
| Structural metal craftsmen | 36 |
| Tailors | 41 |
| Telephone installers and repairmen | 39 |
| Telephone linemen and splicers | 39 |
| Tile setters | 36 |
| Tool and die makers | 42 |
| Tool and die maker apprentices | 41 |
| Upholsterers | 30 |
| Specified craft apprentices, n.e.c. | 41 |
| Not specified apprentices | 41 |
| Craftsmen and kindred workers, n.e.c. | 47 |
| Former members of the armed forces | 47 |
| Craftsmen and kindred workers--allocated | 47 |
| Current members of the armed forces | 47 |

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Operatives, except transport: | |
| Asbestos and insulation workers | 28 |
| Assemblers | 27 |
| Blasters and powdermen | 32 |
| Bottling and canning operatives | 23 |
| Chairmen, rodmen and axmen, surveying | 39 |
| Checkers, examiners and inspectors, manufacturing | 36 |
| Clothing ironers and pressers | 18 |
| Cutting operatives, n.e.c. | 26 |
| Dressmakers and seamstresses, except factory | 32 |
| Drillers, earth | 27 |
| Dry wall installers and lathers | 27 |
| Dyers | 25 |
| Filers, polishers, sanders, and buffers | 19 |
| Furnacemen, smeltermen and pourers | 33 |
| Garage workers and gas station attendants | 22 |
| Graders and sorters, manufacturing | 33 |
| Produce graders and packers, except factory and farm | 19 |
| Heaters, metal | 33 |
| Laundry and dry cleaning operatives, n.e.c. | 18 |
| Meat cutters and butchers, except manufacturing | 32 |
| Meat cutters and butchers, manufacturing | 28 |
| Meat wrappers, retail trade | 19 |
| Metal platers | 29 |
| Milliners | 33 |
| Mine operatives, n.e.c. | 26 |
| Mixing operatives | 29 |
| Oilers and greasers, except automobile | 24 |
| Packers and wrappers, n.e.c. | 19 |
| Painters manufactured articles | 29 |
| Photographic process workers | 36 |
| Precision machine operatives | |
| Drill press operatives | 29 |
| Grinding machine operatives | 29 |
| Lathe and milling machine operatives | 29 |
| Precision machine operatives, n.e.c. | 29 |
| Punch and stamping press operatives | 29 |
| Riveters and fasteners | 29 |
| Sailors and deckhands | 34 |
| Sawyers | 28 |
| Sewers and stitchers | 25 |
| Shoemaking machine operatives | 32 |
| Solderers | 29 |
| Stationary firemen | 33 |

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Textile operatives | |
| Carding, lapping, and combing operatives | 29 |
| Knitters, loopers and toppers | 29 |
| Spinners, twisters, and winders | 25 |
| Weavers | 25 |
| Textile operatives, n.e.c. | 29 |
| Welders and flame cutters | 40 |
| Winding operatives, n.e.c. | 29 |
| Machine operatives, miscellaneous specified | 32 |
| Machine operatives, not specified | 32 |
| Miscellaneous operatives | 32 |
| Not specified operatives | 32 |
| Operatives, except transport--allocated | 32 |
| Transport equipment operatives: | |
| Boatmen and canalmen | 37 |
| Bus drivers | 32 |
| Conductors and motormen, urban rail transit | 28 |
| Deliverymen and routemen | 28 |
| Fork lift and tow motor operatives | 29 |
| Motormen: mine, factory, logging camp, etc. | 27 |
| Parking attendants | 22 |
| Railroad brakemen | 35 |
| Railroad switchmen | 33 |
| Taxicab drivers and chauffeurs | 22 |
| Truck drivers | 32 |
| Transport equipment operatives--allocated | 29 |
| Laborers, except farm: | |
| Animal caretakers, except farm | 29 |
| Carpenters' helpers | 23 |
| Construction laborers, except carpenters' helpers | 17 |
| Fishermen and oystermen | 30 |
| Freight and material handlers | 17 |
| Garbage collectors | 17 |
| Gardeners and groundskeepers, except farm | 23 |
| Longshoremen and stevedores | 24 |
| Lumbermen, tattsmen, and woodchoppers | 26 |
| Stockhandlers | 17 |
| Teamsters | 12 |
| Vehicle washers and equipment cleaners | 17 |
| Warehousemen, n.e.c. | 20 |
| Miscellaneous laborers | 17 |
| Not specified laborers | 17 |
| Laborers, except farm--allocated | 17 |

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Farmers and farm managers: | |
| Farmers (owners and tenants) | 41 |
| Farm managers | 44 |
| Farmers and farm managers--allocated | 41 |
| Farm laborers and farm foremen: | |
| Farm foremen | 35 |
| Farm laborers, wage workers | 18 |
| Farm laborers, unpaid family workers | 18 |
| Farm service laborers, self-employed | 27 |
| Farm laborers, farm foremen, and kindred workers--allocated | 19 |
| Service workers, except private household: | |
| Cleaning service workers | |
| Chambermaids and maids, except private household | 14 |
| Cleaners and charwomen | 12 |
| Janitors and sextons | 16 |
| Food service workers | |
| Bartenders | 20 |
| Busboys | 22 |
| Cooks, except private household | 26 |
| Dishwashers | 22 |
| Food counter and fountain workers | 15 |
| Waiters | 20 |
| Food service workers, n.e.c., except private household | 22 |
| Health service workers | |
| Dental assistants | 48 |
| Health aides, except nursing | 48 |
| Health trainees | 36 |
| Midwives | 23 |
| Nursing aides, orderlies and attendants | 36 |
| Practical nurses | 42 |
| Personal service workers | |
| Airline stewardesses | 36 |
| Attendants, recreation and amusement | 15 |
| Attendants, personal service, n.e.c. | 14 |
| Baggage porters and bell hops | 14 |
| Barbers | 38 |
| Boarding and lodging house keepers | 22 |
| Bootblacks | 09 |
| Child care workers, except private households | 25 |

| Occupational Classification | NORC Prestige Scale |
|---|---|
| Elevator operators | 21 |
| Hairdressers and cosmetologists | 33 |
| Personal service apprentices | 14 |
| Housekeepers, except private households | 36 |
| School monitors | 22 |
| Ushers, recreation and amusement | 15 |
| Welfare service aides | 14 |
| Protective service workers | |
| Crossing guards and bridge tenders | 24 |
| Firemen, fire protection | 44 |
| Guards and watchmen | 22 |
| Marshals and constables | 46 |
| Policemen and detectives | 48 |
| Sheriffs and bailiffs | 55 |
| Service workers, except private household--allocated | 25 |
| Private household workers: | |
| Child care workers, private household | 23 |
| Cooks, private household | 18 |
| Housekeepers, private household | 25 |
| Laundresses, private household | 18 |
| Maids and servants, private household | 18 |
| Private household workers--allocated | 18 |

# APPENDIX E

## CORRELATION MATRICES

Correlation Matrix of Variables for Nontraditional Dual Career Couples

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Wives' Self-Esteem | | .13 | .33** | .11 | .30** | .05 | .26* | .16 | .16 | .05 | .26* | .21 | .02 | -.10 | -.10 | .14 | -.09 | -.11 | -.12 | .07 | .11 | -.03 | -.13 | .13 | -.05 |
| 2. Husbands' Self-Esteem | | | .15 | .23* | .10 | .34** | .03 | .16 | .02 | .14 | .18 | .15 | .05 | .13 | -.05 | .06 | -.00 | .10 | .09 | .16 | .09 | -.07 | -.09 | .02 | .12 |
| 3. Wives' Marital Satisfaction | | | | .52** | .18 | .14 | .27* | -.03 | -.03 | -.12 | .11 | -.04 | -.01 | -.03 | -.06 | .20 | .16 | .05 | -.08 | .07 | .05 | -.00 | -.10 | .11 | .06 |
| 4. Husbands' Marital Satisfaction | | | | | .21 | .26* | .25* | .27* | -.00 | .03 | .12 | .18 | .08 | -.14 | .17 | .13 | .21 | .17 | .13 | -.11 | -.14 | .07 | -.01 | .13 | .22 |
| 5. Wives' Job Satisfaction | | | | | | .21 | .06 | .17 | -.17 | -.03 | -.11 | -.03 | -.05 | .14 | -.08 | .14 | .03 | -.03 | -.04 | -.11 | -.08 | -.18 | -.12 | -.10 | .15 |
| 6. Husbands' Job Satisfaction | | | | | | | .16 | .26* | .01 | .01 | -.01 | .12 | .25* | -.01 | .03 | .13 | .01 | -.02 | -.07 | -.10 | -.12 | -.14 | -.15 | .05 | .09 |
| 7. Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife/Mother | | | | | | | | .24* | .64* | .30** | .73** | .34** | .17 | .09 | .05 | .13 | .08 | -.28* | .02 | .08 | .10 | -.06 | -.04 | -.02 | .05 |
| 8. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife/Mother | | | | | | | | | .10 | .65** | .14 | .65** | .31** | -.20 | .07 | .29** | .27* | -.07 | .02 | -.09 | -.13 | -.20 | .08 | -.32** | .15 |
| 9. Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband/Father | | | | | | | | | | .31** | .61** | .26* | .16 | -.32** | -.11 | -.08 | -.19 | -.32** | .03 | .23* | .25* | -.08 | -.07 | .03 | -.15 |
| 10. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband/Father | | | | | | | | | | | .26* | .72** | .38** | -.32** | .01 | .14 | .13 | -.13 | .01 | .06 | .03 | -.05 | .12 | -.20 | -.01 |
| 11. Wives' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | | | | | | | | | | | | .29* | .19 | -.30** | -.06 | .00 | .02 | -.47** | -.10 | .29* | .31** | -.11 | -.03 | -.06 | -.14 |
| 12. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | | | | | | | | | | | | | .24* | .01 | .02 | .15 | .18 | -.10 | -.04 | .18 | .17 | -.04 | .08 | -.17 | .03 |
| 13. Husbands' Amount of Support of Wives Who Earn More | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.16 | .11 | -.02 | .07 | -.09 | -.03 | -.05 | -.07 | -.15 | -.04 | -.15 | -.18 |
| 14. Wives' Occupational Prestige | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .23* | .04 | .12 | .67** | .29* | -.01 | -.10 | .17 | .09 | .15 | .26* |
| 15. Husbands' Occupational Prestige | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.00 | .24* | .28** | .62** | -.23* | -.23* | .17 | .22 | -.06 | .14 |
| 16. Husbands' Mothers' Occupational Prestige | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .41** | .07 | -.13 | -.09 | -.14 | -.12 | -.06 | -.02 | .02 |
| 17. Husbands' Fathers Occupational Prestige | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .11 | -.00 | -.02 | -.05 | .09 | .09 | .02 | .00 |
| 18. Wives' Education | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .44** | -.21 | -.26* | .39** | .21 | .18 | .20* |
| 19. Husbands' Education | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.20 | -.16 | .16 | .08 | .02 | .26* |
| 20. Wives' Age | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .91** | .02 | .06 | -.00 | -.13 |
| 21. Husbands' Age | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .06 | .03 | .04 | -.21 |
| 22. Wives' Annual Income | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .50** | .46** | .00 |
| 23. Husbands' Annual Income | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.31** | .10 |
| 24. How Much More Income is Earned by Wife at Present | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.09 |
| 25. How Much More Income Wives would have to Earn Before it "Makes a Difference" to Husband | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Variables 1-13: Lower numbers indicate more positive or more egalitarian attitudes or a greater amount.
Variables 14-25: Lower numbers indicate a smaller amount.

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

Correlation Matrix of Variables for All Wives and Husbands

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Wives' Self-Esteem | | .18* | .33** | .20** | .35** | .13 | .27** | .13 | .19* | .06 | .14 | .12 | .09 | .02 | -.07 | -.08 | -.10 | -.11 | .06 | .10 | .04 | .00 | .00 | .12 | -.04 | .12 | .12 | .06 | -.01 |
| 2. Husbands' Self-Esteem | | | .23** | .32** | .06 | .11** | .11 | .23** | .33 | .20** | .07 | .18* | .12 | .05 | -.11 | .01 | -.05 | -.03 | -.05 | -.04 | -.00 | .18* | .13 | .11 | .09 | .09 | .15 | .04 | .14 |
| 3. Wives' Marital Satisfaction | | | | .55** | .09 | .18* | .13 | .09 | -.05 | .03 | .05 | .09 | -.11 | -.01 | .07 | -.07 | -.03 | .01 | -.09 | .06 | -.14 | -.02 | -.02 | .08 | -.10 | .11 | -.05 | .07 | .04 |
| 4. Husbands' Marital Satisfaction | | | | | .17* | .17* | .09 | .23** | -.10 | .12 | .04 | .16* | -.03 | .07 | .00 | .05 | .05 | .07 | .06 | .04 | .09 | -.14 | -.15* | .09 | .04 | .13 | -.04 | -.00 | .20* |
| 5. Wives' Job Satisfaction | | | | | | .12 | .08 | .10 | -.13 | -.01 | -.09 | -.06 | .14 | -.05 | .14 | -.02 | -.08 | .01 | .05 | .03 | -.04 | -.12 | -.12 | .01 | -.05 | -.09 | .16 | .02 | .04 |
| 6. Husbands' Job Satisfaction | | | | | | | .19* | .02 | .08 | -.06 | .05 | .08 | .11 | .25* | -.08 | -.17* | -.12 | -.17* | -.22** | -.12 | -.17* | -.09 | -.08 | .12 | .02 | .04 | .03 | -.02 | -.01 |
| 7. Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife/Mother | | | | | | | | .23** | .64** | .18* | .68** | .22** | .16 | .16 | -.11 | .00 | -.05 | -.29** | -.02 | -.18* | .04 | .09 | .12 | -.08 | .14 | .02 | .03 | .08 | .08 |
| 8. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife/Mother | | | | | | | | | .13 | .66** | .16* | .67** | .06 | .31** | -.13 | .15 | .07 | -.13* | -.06 | -.10 | -.03 | .05 | .02 | .02 | .14 | -.29** | -.03 | -.00 | .06 |
| 9. Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband/Father | | | | | | | | | | .24** | .62** | .24** | -.01 | .15 | -.18* | .04 | -.01 | -.34** | -.10 | -.25** | -.04 | .26** | .25** | -.13 | .10 | .03 | .12 | .03 | -.06 |
| 10. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband/Father | | | | | | | | | | | .24** | .69** | -.06 | .37** | -.11 | .19* | .10 | -.20** | -.05 | -.29* | -.03 | .10 | .07 | -.07 | .12 | -.19 | .03 | .10 | -.06 |
| 11. Wives' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | | | | | | | | | | | | .33** | -.06 | .18 | -.18* | .06 | -.03 | -.38** | -.09 | -.30** | -.02 | .28** | .31** | -.12 | .17* | -.04 | .06 | .08 | -.01 |
| 12. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | | | | | | | | | | | | | .04 | .24* | -.10 | .19* | .11 | -.19** | -.15* | -.08 | -.07 | .21** | .21** | -.15* | .15* | -.18 | .02 | -.04 | -.01 |
| 13. Amount of Wives' Support of Husbands who Earn More | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .00 | -.05 | .04 | .01 | .12 | .10 | .02 | .05 | .01 | .06 | -.05 | .10 | .00 | .16 | -.02 | .10 |
| 14. Amount of Husbands' Support of Wives who Earn More | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.13 | -.04 | -.10 | -.09 | -.03 | -.16 | .11 | -.04 | -.05 | .18 | -.09 | -.15 | .13 | .07 | -.12 |
| 15. Wives' Annual Income | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .19 | .59** | .28** | .07 | .22** | .04 | -.02 | .04 | .15* | .36** | .36** | -.02 | .05 | -.03 |
| 16. Husbands' Annual Income | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .91** | -.01 | .18* | -.02 | .24** | .11 | .12 | -.08 | .45** | .22 | .25* | .01 | .13 |
| 17. Combined Annual Income | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.11 | .18* | .08 | .22** | .08 | .12 | -.00 | .22** | .06 | .19 | .04 | .09 |
| 18. Wives' Education | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .46 | .62** | .32** | -.14 | -.18 | .17* | -.16* | .16 | .15 | .09 | .07 |
| 19. Husbands' Education | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.19 | .63** | -.11 | -.10 | .10 | .10 | .01 | .20* | .09 | .18* |
| 20. Wives' Occupational Prestige | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .19** | .03 | -.03 | .07 | .12 | .12 | .09 | -.05 | .03 |
| 21. Husbands' Occupational Prestige | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .07 | -.10 | .01 | .13* | -.02 | .05 | .06 | .12 |
| 22. Wives' Age | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .92** | -.20** | .07 | -.03 | .21* | -.01 | -.05 |
| 23. Husbands' Age | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.27** | .06 | .03 | .17 | -.05 | .08 |
| 24. Who Earned More Income Before Marriage | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .16 | .03 | .05 | .08 | -.01 |
| 25. Who Earns More Income at Present | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .27* | -.33** | .06 | .24** |
| 26. How Much More Income is Earned by Wife at Present | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .09 | .02 | -.12 |
| 27. How Much More Income is Earned by Husband at Present | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .01 | -.04 |
| 28. How Much More Income <u>Would</u> Husbands Have to Earn Before It "Makes a Difference" to Wives | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .09 |
| 29. How Much More Income <u>Would</u> Wives Have to Earn Before It "Makes a Difference" to Husbands | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Variables 1-14 Lower numbers indicate more positive or more egalitarian attitudes or a greater amount.
Variables 15-23 Lower numbers indicate a smaller amount.
Variable 24 1 = Husband, 2 = Wife
Variables 26-29 Lower numbers indicate a smaller amount

*p < .05

**p < .01

Correlation Matrix of Variables for Traditional Dual Career Couples

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Wives' Self-Esteem | | .24* | .33** | .29** | .39** | .16 | .30** | .12 | .22* | .13 | .08 | .07 | .08 | -.10 | -.00 | .08 | -.15 | -.06 | .14 | .11 | -.12 | -.02 | -.05 | -.10 |
| 2. Husbands' Self-Esteem | | | .31** | .39** | .04 | .38** | .14 | .25** | .01 | .22* | -.02 | .19 | .12 | -.00 | -.09 | .03 | -.07 | -.07 | -.03 | .19 | -.12 | -.14 | .19* | .16 |
| 3. Wives' Marital Satisfaction | | | | .60** | -.02 | .20* | .05 | .23* | -.05 | .22* | .04 | .22* | -.11 | -.11 | -.17 | .04 | .06 | -.01 | -.18 | .02 | -.05 | -.09 | -.09 | -.09 |
| 4. Husbands' Marital Satisfaction | | | | | .13 | .13 | -.05 | .20* | .19 | .19* | -.03 | .14 | -.03 | -.05 | .01 | -.04 | -.00 | .05 | .08 | -.04 | -.01 | .01 | -.17 | -.18 |
| 5. Wives' Job Satisfaction | | | | | | .05 | .10 | .04 | -.09 | -.01 | -.09 | -.08 | .15 | .07 | -.01 | -.03 | -.17 | .04 | .16 | .03 | .05 | .12 | -.11 | -.15 |
| 6. Husbands' Job Satisfaction | | | | | | | .20* | .02 | .08 | -.04 | .03 | -.09 | .12 | -.14 | -.25* | -.03 | -.07 | -.18 | -.13 | .18 | -.17 | -.22* | -.04 | .00 |
| 7. Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife/Mother | | | | | | | | .19* | .63** | .05 | .63** | .10 | .15 | -.15 | -.01 | -.17 | -.08 | -.08 | .11 | -.00 | -.26** | -.06 | .08 | .12 |
| 8. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Wife/Mother | | | | | | | | | .13 | .66** | .14 | .64** | -.05 | -.14 | -.14 | -.02 | .02 | .09 | .09 | -.11 | -.24* | -.13 | .15 | .15 |
| 9. Wives' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband/Father | | | | | | | | | | .16 | .61** | .21* | .03 | -.18 | -.02 | -.14 | -.05 | .01 | .14 | .06 | -.34** | -.19 | .26** | .24* |
| 10. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Roles of Husband/Father | | | | | | | | | | | .21* | .67** | .05 | -.22* | -.10 | -.11 | -.06 | .13 | .14 | -.21* | -.24* | -.11 | .11 | .09 |
| 11. Wives' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | | | | | | | | | | | | .32** | -.08 | -.28** | -.04 | -.20* | -.15 | -.02 | .18 | -.16 | -.29** | -.11 | .27** | .30** |
| 12. Husbands' Attitudes Toward Situations Pertaining to Occupational Pursuits | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.04 | -.12 | -.17 | -.23* | -.04 | .15 | .15 | -.05 | -.22* | -.24* | .23* | .24* |
| 13. Wives' Support of Husbands' Earning More | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .05 | .05 | -.06 | -.06 | 02 | .16 | -.03 | .14 | .10 | -.00 | -.07 |
| 14. Wives' Occupational Prestige | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .22* | .05 | .21* | .03 | -.01 | .09 | 58** | .16 | .08 | .05 |
| 15. Husbands' Occupational Prestige | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .07 | .08 | .19 | .26** | -.04 | .42** | .64** | .01 | -.03 |
| 16. Who Earned More Before Marriage | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .14 | -.01 | -.19 | .07 | .23* | .14 | -.06 | -.12 |
| 17. Wives' Annual Income | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .42** | -.13 | .03 | .12 | .09 | .00 | .09 |
| 18. Husbands' Annual Income | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .56** | .26** | .09 | .18 | .09 | .14 |
| 19. How Much More Income is Earned by Husband at Present | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .18 | -.05 | .33** | .21* | .20 |
| 20. Husbands' Fathers' Occupational Prestige | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .03 | -.09 | .07 | .02 |
| 21. Wives' Education | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .53** | -.06 | -.09 |
| 22. Husbands' Education | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | -.07 | -.07 |
| 23. Wives' Age | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | .93** |
| 24. Husbands' Age | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Variables 1-13: Lower numbers indicate more positive or more egalitarian attitudes or a greater amount.
Variables 14-15, 17-24: Lower numbers indicate a smaller amount
Variable 16: 1 = Husband; 2 = Wife

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

# VITA

Sandra Shoun was born in Kingsport, Tennessee. She graduated from Dobyns-Bennett High School in 1964. In September 1964 she entered East Tennessee State University, and in August 1968 she received a Bachelor of Science degree in English.

From 1968 to 1976 Ms. Shoun was employed in the following positions: high school English teacher in both the Atlanta and Kingsport city school systems; substitute teacher in the Ft. Lauderdale school system; sales correspondent at Tennessee Eastman Company; and administrative assistant at E. B. Copeland and Company. In September 1976 she entered Graduate School at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville where she earned a Master's degree in Guidance and Counseling in August 1977. Following her graduation, Ms. Shoun was employed as an admissions counselor at Southern Benedictine College in Cullman, Alabama during the 1977-1978 school year.

In June 1978 the author re-entered the graduate program at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. She was a recipient of a graduate assistantship in September 1978, and in June 1979 she was awarded a fellowship for opportunities in educational research sponsored by the National Institute of Education. Ms. Shoun received the Doctor of Education degree with a major in Educational Psychology and Guidance in December 1981.

The author holds membership in Phi Delta Kappa, Pi Lambda Theta, Kappa Delta Pi, American Psychological Association, American Personnel and Guidance Association, American Educational Research Association,

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