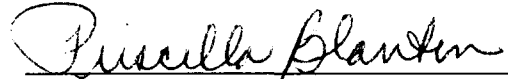
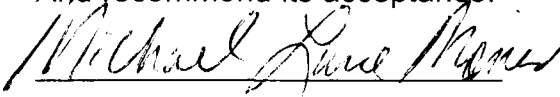


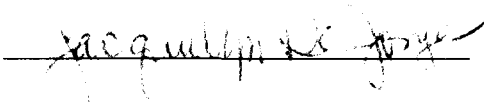
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Rachael Noelle Hawley entitled "Work satisfaction among women in dual-earner marriages." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Child and Family Studies.


Dr. Priscilla Blanton, Major Professor

We have read this thesis
And recommend its acceptance:





Accepted for the Council:


Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of The Graduate School

WORK SATISFACTION AMONG WOMEN
IN DUAL-EARNER MARRIAGES

A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Science
Degree
University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Rachael Noelle Hawley
May 2000

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to the most patient,
kind, and wonderful person-
my late father
William Leslie Hawley.

ACKNOWLEDGENTS

I must first and foremost thank my committee chair, Dr. Priscilla Blanton, for her never-ending patience and support. Her guidance and help in editing facilitated the completion of this thesis. Many thanks to Dr. Lane Morris, as well, for his availability and constructive criticism. Ann Reed, a UT statistical consultant, was amazingly helpful and really spent time working with me with this data set. I must also express my deep appreciation for Deanna Parker who was so kind to review each thesis draft with her perfection, enthusiasm and encouragement.

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On a more personal note I would like to thank my Aunt and Uncle, Helen and Frank Skinnell, for their consistent love and unconditional support through the years. Each of my accomplishments will forever be shared with them, because it is upon that foundation of love and support that I stand to reach my goals. I would also like to thank Gordon Pettigrew for his daily support in the pursuit of my goals and dreams. His continual encouragement to think outside the box and fulfill my greatest potential has been invaluable and deeply

appreciated. I would finally like to thank Dr. Keila Thomas, of Berea College, for believing in me when I may not have believed in myself. Thanks Everyone.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to explore the work satisfaction among women in dual-income marriages. Two different predictive models of women's work satisfaction were explored. The first model investigated marital, parental, and life satisfaction as possible predictors of women's work satisfaction. The second model focused on demographics variables (personal income, educational level, and hours worked outside the home) as possible indicators of women's work satisfaction. The women in this sample ranged in age from 22 to 62 years of age and were residents of the Knox County area.

Both models proved to be significant and one strong predictor variable emerged from each model, life satisfaction and educational level. Personal income did contribute to the explanation of the variance in the demographic model, but marital satisfaction, though marginal, was not significant in the satisfaction model. Parental satisfaction did not significantly correlate with women's work satisfaction. Suggestions for employers were given for possible practical applications to increase women's work satisfaction.

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Chapter One

Introduction

BACKGROUND

With the close of the Twentieth century, it is interesting to look back and see the dramatic changes that have occurred for women and their families in the latter part of the twentieth century. The roles women have played in both the paid work force and in their families have changed significantly, especially over the last few decades, and continue to do so (Carter & McGoldrick, 1989). Until the 1970's, a woman's contributions to the family had been primarily in fulfilling her roles as a wife, mother, and a homemaker and rarely involved paid employment outside the home. Today, many women are first pursuing their educational and career goals and then establishing families, where in the past many women postponed personal goals and dedicated themselves wholly to their families (Carter & McGoldrick, 1989). These changes, perhaps, have less to do with the woman's motivations and more to do with recent social changes and the multitude of opportunities available to the woman in the paid work force. In his book, "The New American Reality," Reynolds Farley (1996) clearly discusses how America's perceptions of the roles of women are changing. A few of the most significant attitude changes are based on the acceptance of women in academic and occupational fields that were before closed to women and the

growing approval of women combining their paid work with their family obligations (Farley, 1996).

In the United States, during the 1950s, traditional gender roles and the idealized nuclear family were the social norm. Men were the breadwinners, working outside the home, supporting the family, buying a house, and putting food on the table for their wives and children. Women, regardless of their talents or abilities, were generally expected to stay home, maintain the house, care for the children, and support their husbands, leaving many women frustrated, isolated, and discouraged (Farley, 1996). At the time, these types of role definitions were seen as critical for support of the demands of society. These separate roles have also been called the "separate spheres," meaning that the husband and wife lived in two separate worlds that rarely overlapped. However, not all women of the 1950's stayed home. Twenty-five percent of married women were in the paid labor force and 16% of women with children were in the paid labor force (Farley, 1996).

It is also important to note that although the 1950's household is seen as the "traditional" household, it was only the social norm for a relatively short period. For example, mothers in the hunting and gathering era contributed just as much, if not more, to providing for the family, as did men. In the late 1800s and before the shift from "home-based production" to "wage-labor industry," all family members worked together to support the family, because family farms and small cottage industries were still prevalent (Coontz, 1997). Therefore, the

concept of men and women working separately and having different responsibilities was only a derivative of a phase through which society moved fairly quickly, in comparison with the length of time that women and men shared both household and providing responsibilities (Coontz, 1997).

In contrast with the 1950's, by 1991..."more than 58 percent of all married women, and nearly two-thirds of all married women with children, were in the labor force" (Coontz, 1997). In addition, out of all the children in the United States (including preschoolers) fifty-nine percent of their mothers worked outside the home currently (Coontz, 1997). Forty-five percent of the United States' current workforce is women and women's work force behavior is growing increasingly similar to that of men (McKenry & Price, 1994). The main reason given for this trend is simply that the financial well-being of more and more families is contingent on the additional contribution of the mother's income. This is evident in the trend of women's entrance into the work force. Between the late 1980s and the year 2000, it is predicted that out of all people entering the workforce for the first time, two-thirds will be women (McKenry & Price, 1994).

Because of these changes, dual-earner families, in which both partners are gainfully employed outside the home, are quickly becoming the norm. What was once considered the "traditional family," with the male provider and the female homemaker, now constitutes barely three percent of all American families (Barnett & Rivers, 1996).

The number of two-income couples has sky-rocketed in the last decade from 20.5 million to about 31 million. By the mid-1990's, about 60 percent

of all married couples were two-earner couples. In 1990, 40 percent of families had full-time-employed husbands and wives, up from 32 percent in 1980 (Barnett & Rivers, 1996).

With this shift came concerns about the effects that maternal employment might have on children's development or even on employed women's health. However, concerns were assuaged after studies investigating maternal employment showed a consistent result that "minimal effects on children's development were found" (Harvey, 1999). The concerns about the possible negative health effects employment could have on women were also discarded once study after study showed that married women with careers and families had

The highest levels of self-esteem and psychological well-being and were less likely to be depressed – even though they faced more time pressures and had fewer social supports than single women (Barnett & Rivers, 1996).

Working women generally appeared to be healthy both physiologically and psychologically.

However, working women today do have a great deal on their plates, and have to fulfill multiple roles, such as those of employee/manager, wife, and mother. This has led to concerns about women's ability to successfully manage all these roles. Employers worry if women are able to leave family issues at home and society is worried that working mothers are not dedicating enough time to their children. Many employers had, and perhaps some still do, the mentality that women with children should be put on a different, slower career track called the "Mommy Track", because their interests were more diversified than their male or childless female counterparts (Barnett & Rivers, 1996). Now, organizations

are trying to become more “family friendly” by “adapting organizational policies and structures to enable people to manage multiple demands in work and family with maximum satisfaction and minimum stress” (Lewis & Lewis, 1996).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study explored two different predictive models of women's' work satisfaction. One focused on satisfactions in major life domains and the other focused on demographic variables (See Figure 1 & 2). The first objective of this study was to test the goodness of fit of a model comprised of the variables of marital, parental, and life satisfaction for predicting variation in women's work satisfaction. The second objective of this study was to see if there were any demographic variables that predicted variation in women's' work satisfaction (education attained, income, and numbers of hours worked outside of the home).

This study contributed to the literature in this field in several ways. First, the literature in this area often focuses on the effects of the women's' employment outside the home on her family, husband, or most frequently her children. Very rarely does the literature discuss women's life, marital and parental satisfaction and how that might impact her work satisfaction. Second, Organizational development literature, which does explore work satisfaction, seems to focus mostly on men's work satisfaction. Third, family literature often discusses mother's parental, marital and life satisfaction, but seldom in terms of their influence on work satisfaction. Finally, in all bodies of scholarly literature

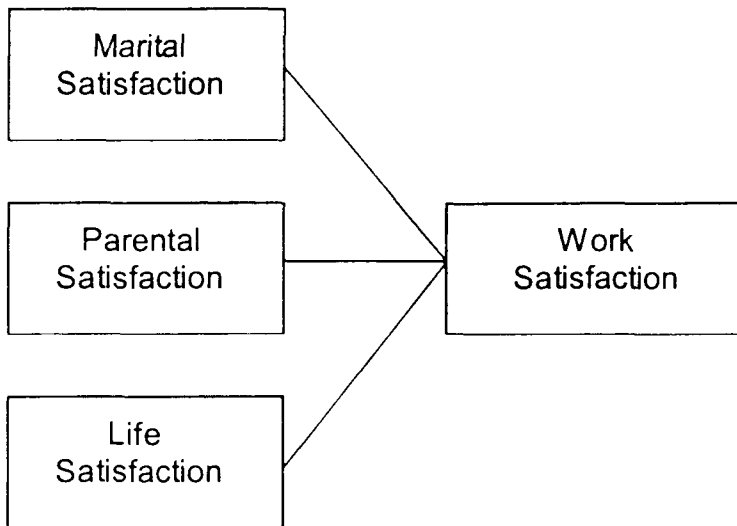


Figure 1: Satisfaction Model

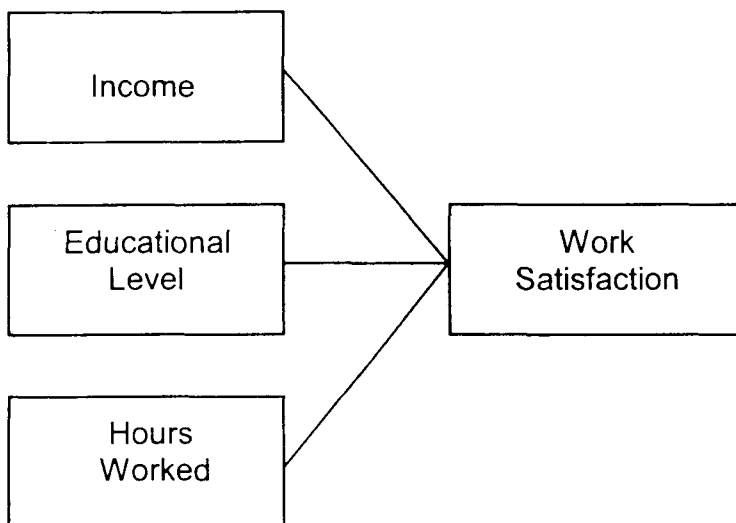


Figure 2: Demographic Model

the stressors of work, marriage, parenthood, and life are discussed, but rarely is literature found on “satisfactions.” It is difficult to find literature that focuses upon or defines what makes people satisfied with their lives, jobs, marriages and parenthood, which seems to be a gap in the literature that needs to be filled.

Exploring the interrelationships between variables is vital, because the majority of women in the United States today are participating in the paid labor force. The literature should reflect this trend and should help working women understand the roles these variables play in their daily lives and how they interact. Exploring women’s marital, parental, and life satisfaction and their relationships with work satisfaction is crucial from an organizational perspective as well. The work place is competitive and companies struggle to get good people and keep them. Understanding how other areas of a woman's life may effect work satisfaction could effect a company’s policies, strategic decisions, and overall understanding of their employees’ needs.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Symbolic Interaction

As women moved from only work inside the home into the paid labor force as well, they took on the realities of multiple roles. Many women had to think through this decision, weighing the pros and cons of that decision and the impact it might have on their families. Symbolic interaction theory addresses these issues as it “focuses on the process of defining and interpreting objects and

events in an external world” (Winton, 1995). This theory emphasizes that an individual’s behavior or action is a direct result of critical and analytical thinking, and the ability to make decisions about the objects, people, or circumstances around them. However, it is clear that employment is not a decision many women necessarily have a choice about, because they have to work to help feed and maintain the standard of living for their families. Therefore, it is not so much the decision about employment that this theory is applicable to, but instead her perceptions of work and other areas in her life. Other theories focus on the person’s inferiority to the structures and social forces that effect them directly. However, symbolic interaction focuses on the ability of a person to make logical decisions, which may conflict with general social assumptions. This notion supports the concept of spill-over; society expects that if women are unhappy at home they will be unhappy at work. However, according to this theory, working women have the ability to make the decision to leave marital or parental issues at home instead of bringing them to work or what is termed compartmentalization. People “interact with social structures, not just conform to them” (Winton, 1995). This study explored the interaction of these social forces with women.

Symbolic Interaction theory states that there is a dichotomy which people deal with, that of the mind and the self. The concept of self is linked to the idea that a person is able to step back and objectively look at themselves as an object within their greater environment. The concept of mind is a person’s ability to think before acting (Winton, 1995). Using the mind and the self, women must

define the situation in order to mold their perception of it, although this process is usually not a conscious one it is vital. The importance of perception was critical in this study, because the woman's perception ultimately effects how satisfied she is in all the areas of her life. Individual perceptions vary; several women may perceive an identical situation in many different ways, perhaps influenced by their available resources.

Roles are defined by symbolic interaction theory as "patterns of behavior that exist around some theme" (Winton, 1995). Women today, and certainly the women in this study, maintain multiple roles. Women fulfill the role of not only an individual person, but also that of a mother, an employee, and a wife. Behavior is seen as symbolic and as a choice. Women look at their roles and the objects and events in their lives and define or qualify them. Therefore, symbolic interaction theory becomes vital when looking at the interaction between the different roles in a woman's life. Are there links between women's marital, parental, and life satisfaction and their work satisfaction? This was the question that was explored in this study.

Family Stress Theory

Family stress theory examines the ways in which families and individuals deal with stress, taking into consideration the external and internal contexts of the family and how these contexts effect the perceptions of a stressful event. How the family perceives the stressful event ultimately effects how they decide to

cope with it (Boss, 1988). The external context includes many things, such as the culture, economy, history, heredity, and developmental issues that the family faces. It is evident that perception is greatly affected by these external influences. For example, a mother with very limited financial resources who is unhappy in her job will perceive the situation much differently than a woman for whom money is not a concern. The woman with limited finances may see herself as trapped in the job, where the other can quit and move on without concern. The internal context contains three dimensions: the structural (family boundaries, roles, and rules), the psychological (family's interpretation, definition, and feelings about the event) and the philosophical (family's morals, values, and general belief system) (Boss, 1988).

Family stress theory is clearly pictured in the ABC-X Model, which incorporates all of the above listed influences on how a family or family member copes with a stressful event. This theory is similar to Symbolic Interaction, because it too focuses on the interaction between people and systems and the importance placed on that interaction. Therefore, other areas of women's' lives, marriage and parenthood, may influence women's work satisfaction. For example, if a woman perceives her marriage to be an unhappy one, does this effect her perception of how satisfied she is at work? The goal of this study was to understand the relationship between the different roles in women's lives and their perceived satisfaction with these areas.

This theory was also salient to the present study in understanding the demographic model and how it influenced work satisfaction. The women's demographic characteristics (income, level of education, and number of hours worked) are descriptors of their external context in the ABC-X Model. The present study will explore these areas (by looking at demographics), because as family stress theory states, the external context may affect the woman's perceptions including her level of satisfaction with life, marriage, parenthood, and work.

CONCEPTUAL DEFINITIONS

For the purpose of this study, the terms listed below are defined:

Dual-Earner Family is a married couple in which both the husband and the wife are earners, whether it be full or part-time employment. Both partners are contributing financially to the family (Aldous, 1982).

Dual-Work Family, a type of dual-earner family, in which both husband and wife find themselves in jobs with lower economic rewards and advancement opportunities regardless of job performance. Typically, jobs in this area also have little flexibility or autonomy. In this situation, most often, it is vital for the family's economic well-being that both partners are employed. Unlike dual-career couples, who see work as personally fulfilling and rewarding, dual-work couples may tend to have the "it's a paycheck" mentality.

Dual-Career Family is another type of dual-earner family in which “the woman and the man both pursued a lifelong career, relatively uninterrupted, and also established and developed a family that often included children” (Gilbert, 1993). Women in these families feel just as strongly about careers as a life goal as men and would continue working even if there were no need for their income to help support the family. Husbands in this scenario are relieved of a portion of the traditional “breadwinning” pressures (Gilbert, 1993).

Full-time Employment is based on the concept of the forty-hour work week in which thirty-five to forty hours is considered full-time.

Family is “a married couple...who cooperate economically and in the upbringing of children, and all or most of whom share a common dwelling” (Scholnick & Scholnick, 1994).

Occupational Status is the position title or job one holds in the paid work place, defined by titles such as; professional, clerical, machinist, or manager.

Work Satisfaction “The achievement of one’s job values in the work situation, which results in a pleasurable emotional state known as job satisfaction” (Locke & Henne, 1986), which affects job performance, absenteeism, turnover, and psychological distress (Davis, 1992).

Life Satisfaction is “overall happiness” with oneself and one’s position in life (Ball & Robbins, 1986).

Parental Satisfaction includes aspects of the context of the parent-child relationship that can be perceived either positively or negatively. In primarily

positive relationships there are “positive interactions and satisfactions associated with the relationship,” which lead to parental well-being (Umberson, 1989).

Marital Satisfaction is when a spouse perceives satisfied with their husband or wife, their marriage and their marital relationship. (Schumm, Paff-Bergen, Hatch, Obiorah, Copeland, Meens, & Bugaighis, 1986).

Role Strain is an "individual's appraisal of the level of conflict between roles and of the degree of overload experienced from attempting to meet multiple role demands" (Guelzow, Bird, & Koball, 1991).

Chapter Two

Literature Review

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

The entrance of women into the paid work force in the 1960s and 1970s was preceded by many social and historical events. Stephanie Coontz calls this trend "the revival of women's role as family coprovider" (1997). The beginning of the nineteenth century the United States witnessed open discrimination against women in the labor force. State laws were passed, which limited "the hours women might work and the conditions under which they might labor," because society was concerned that working outside the home could have detrimental effects on the woman (Farley, 1996). In 1908, the Supreme Court upheld a law such as this in their ruling on the *Mueller v. Oregon* case. The judge's commentary on the case is shocking to hear in the context of the late 1990s:

woman's physical structure and her performance of maternal functions place her at a disadvantage in the struggle for subsistence... as healthy mothers are essential to vigorous offspring, the physical well-being of women becomes an object of public interest and care (Farley, 1996).

Surprisingly, this law was not removed from the books until the 1960s.

There were also laws, spanning from the 1880s to the 1930s, which supported companies in their decisions to separate the sexes at work, their refusal to hire married women, and their decisions to force single women to leave their jobs when they married. These gender discrimination practices were supported by the widely held belief that women were so "devoted" to their

families they would make inferior and unproductive employees (Farley, 1996). Even teaching elementary through high school, a decent paying career open to women at the time, had restrictions according to marital status. In fact, sixty percent of public school systems in the United States, at the start of the Depression, would not hire married women and more than half would fire their single teachers once married (Farley, 1996). By 1941, these numbers had increased dramatically; eighty-seven percent of public schools would not hire married women and seventy percent forced single teachers to resign when they married or they would be fired (Farley, 1996). During the Depression, working women were laid off in great numbers to make room for unemployed men who had to support their families. Both local and state government agencies adopted this same sort of policy, in order to offer men the first shot at available employment.

These laws and general practices were overlooked, however, when the labor market needed women during World War II. Employment rates for women increased during this time as they took on jobs normally held by men, such as factory work. When World War II ended, women were pushed from their jobs to provide work for men returning home from military service, a push which many women greatly resented (Coontz, 1997). However, only a few years would pass before the labor market would again open their arms to women with the development of many secretarial and clerical jobs. In the late 1950s, women would begin seeking typically employment either when their children were old

enough to start school or had left for college. When the number of jobs available to women exceeded the number of single women without children, companies started accepting women with children, which created a small part of the shift (Coontz, 1997). Although jobs were appearing and the rules and limitations surrounding employment were fading, discrimination was still rampant mostly keeping women from better positions with higher salaries.

The Civil Rights Act, passed by Congress in 1964, opened the doors into the work force for women. This legislation prohibited employers from discriminating based on both gender and race. Congress followed with the Equal Pay Act, but passing a law is only the first step in getting employers to understand and abide by gender equity policies for compensation. Eventhough, at the time, an increasing number of women were achieving advanced degrees, getting their foot in the door was still difficult. Farley tells a story of a female graduate from Stanford Law School who reported that she applied for a job at the top law firm in Los Angeles. She was told that "women were not hired as lawyers, but that she was well qualified to be a legal secretary" (1996). At the time women were entering universities, seeking higher levels of education and specialized degrees, but they were still in the minority upon graduation. For a visual example of the female graduates in 1960 "it would have been possible to list on three sheets of paper the names of all who got degrees in" medicine, law, engineering, and business administration (Farley, 1996). This is a surprising fact when compared to 1990. Women represented 25 percent of full time employed

physicians, 27 percent of lawyers, 30 percent of college and university professors, and 36 percent of Ph.D. psychologists (Gilbert, 1993). The majority of undergraduate students today are female. This means that more and more women will be entering the work force and seeking employment in professional positions, which offers women financial independence and/or more money to contribute to their families.

By 1970, mothers entered the work force at a surprising rate and did not always wait until their children began school to work. There were several potential explanations for the initial increase of mothers into the work force; to respond to the increased availability of service based jobs, to help husbands through school, or to contribute to their children's college fund (Coontz, 1997). However, by 1973 shifts in the economy, which made men's wages drop, made it necessary for some women to work in order to help support their families. For so many families, the woman's income was no longer supplemental, but a clearly needed contribution to the family income, preventing a dip into poverty. By 1993, 41 percent of the average family's income was a contribution from the mother's full time employment (Coontz, 1997). Today in our work force there is no significant drop in employment levels for women of child-bearing age and "fewer and fewer women leave their jobs while their children are very young" (Coontz 1997).

In conclusion, it is clear that many reasons have influenced behind the increase of women in the paid work force. The most obvious results are the

increased number of dual career and dual work families and the number of roles to be performed by women. Discovering how these multiple roles affect women's work satisfaction was the goal of this study.

WOMEN'S ROLES

The effect of working women's marital, parental, and life satisfaction on work satisfaction is not directly explored in this body of literature. Most of the research in this area focuses on how work affects her family, children, or marital stability (Gelles, 1995; Greenstein, 1995), or how satisfied dual career couples are with their division of household labor. Though the division of household labor may contribute to the marital satisfaction of working women, it does not directly relate to her perceived job satisfaction (Blair, 1993). Literature investigating the multiple roles held by working women has focused on role strain and role overload, but seemingly only in relation to how this affects the family (Small & Riley, 1990). Unfortunately, researchers, like U.S. employers, have not thoroughly explored this vital relationship between family and work (Aldous, 1990).

Marital Satisfaction

Marital satisfaction for working women is affected by many variables. One study focusing on perceived marital quality and employment found that the partners' gender role expectations predicted marital quality (Blair, 1993). Many

working women, because they are juggling complex and multiple roles, find egalitarian relationships more satisfying. Working women reported that egalitarian marital relationships made maintaining their multiple roles less difficult (Guelzow et al., 1991). Couples with these more flexible gender roles "report fewer destructive disagreements, higher accomplishment of necessary tasks, and higher expressiveness" perhaps making them more effective communicators as well (McKenry & Price, 1994). Societal attitudes and current research reflect the belief that women are vested in both their family and their work roles (Guelzow, Bird & Koball, 1991). Working women have multiple roles and expectations to fulfill; however, research has shown that multiple roles do not necessarily correlate with higher stress levels (Guelzow et al., 1991).

The study by Sampson Blair exploring the marital quality of working couples concluded that, "occupational factors have only a minimal effect "on how couples perceived marital quality (1993). These findings support the concept of compartmentalization. However, Blair does point out that more research is needed to investigate the relationship between marital and work roles (1993).

Many women take great pride in their role as coprovider. A study conducted to examine the relationships and stressors between work and family found that, for women, not only did breadwinning lead to a greater sense of marital equity and satisfaction, but also led to increased job satisfaction as well (Parasuraman et al., 1992). Women now contribute a sizable amount to the family income and "sharing the financial burden" together can also lead to marital

satisfaction and a sense of self-sufficiency for the working woman (Barnett & Rivers, 1996). Also, for many working women, marital quality is heightened when their partners are supportive of their careers and goals (Hothschild, 1989). A study by Rudd and McKenry (1986) supported this conclusion by confirming that the emotional support and encouragement of a working woman's spouse was a variable that positively influenced job satisfaction.

In contrast, the stereotype was, and perhaps still is, that men were able to "compartmentalize their work and their home lives, women could not" (Barnett & River, 1996). Employers continue to be concerned that women, unlike their male counterparts, were unable to leave their marital, parenting, or life concerns at the door and that this reality would make them poor, inefficient, and unfocused employees. This concept is often called "spillover" and one study investigating female health-care workers found surprising results. This study found that the women had no negative spillover from home to the work place. In fact, the women's pride and satisfaction from work accomplishments actually spilled-over into their family life (Barnett & Rivers, 1996).

Parental Satisfaction

Currently, over 60 percent of working women are also mothers and this presents both challenges and rewards, but does this necessarily affect a mother's satisfaction at work? (Chadwick & Heaton, 1992). Much of the literature in this area addresses how mothers' employment affects their child's

development or behavior (Harvey, 1999; Parcel & Menaghan, 1994). Research also tends to focus on how mothers manage the multiple roles and stressors of being an employed mother. However, there is a small body of literature that focuses on the impact of children and childbirth on work satisfaction. No matter how egalitarian the family unit, mothers are still identified as the primary provider of care for children even when they are working. Therefore, it makes looking at how parenthood may affect her work satisfaction imperative (Holtzman & Glass, 1999).

Some researchers in this area believe that women's job satisfaction is directly affected by the roles she plays within her family. However, studies examining this issue have yielded very conflicting results. One study addressing mothers' work satisfaction concluded that working mothers who had children under six years old were less satisfied at work than their co-workers without children in this age group (Hodson, 1989). In contrast, other studies discovered that women who were most satisfied at work were those who were married and had children. Working women who were single or married, but without children, were found to be less satisfied at work (Crosby, 1983; Bersoff & Crosby, 1984). It should be noted that both of these studies were criticized for their methodology. "Hodson's conclusions were based on findings significant only at the .20 level and Crosby's sample was not representative" (Holtzman & Glass, 1999). Yet, still another study exploring the affects of family responsibilities on job commitment and satisfaction of working women concluded "contrary to

expectations, women with younger children outperformed women with older children (Campell, Campell & Kennard, 1994).

A study conducted by Holtzman and Glass (1999) investigated how women's work satisfaction changed after childbirth. They found that women's work satisfaction did decline somewhat. Important to be noted is the fact that after childbirth the work place variables that contribute to job satisfaction changed also. These findings helped employers understand the changing needs of their employees with children both at home and work (Holtzman & Glass, 1999). Flexible work hours, availability of quality day care, reduction of hours, and the support and understanding of their supervisor are all determinants of job satisfaction that become more crucial once an employee becomes a mother (Holtzman & Glass, 1999). Difficulty finding quality day care was the most significant predictor of decline in work satisfaction for women who had become mothers.

A longitudinal study, spanning from the late 1970s to the late 1980s, was conducted to chart job satisfaction trends. The researchers pinpointed three times and used data from the General Social Survey. This study yielded results that conflicted with the prior findings. Results showed that there were no family variables that consistently affected the woman's job satisfaction over the three points of time. The researchers also noted that job satisfaction was not affected, at any time, by the presence of children (Hanson & Sloane, 1992).

Taking in to consideration the contradictory findings of all the relevant studies in the parenting literature, it is difficult to assess how motherhood significantly affects work satisfaction. The present study contributed to the existing literature by exploring whether or not parental satisfaction was a significant predictor of work satisfaction.

Life Satisfaction

Research on life satisfaction is fairly limited generally and then a focus on how life satisfaction predicts work satisfaction further limits it. Research on the broad topic of psychological well-being was also explored in order to find material relevant to the present study, though still in limited quantity. Most literature on this topic discusses the possible bi-directional relationship between psychological well-being and marital quality or parenthood (Mills, Grasmick, Morgan & Wenk, 1992). Only one article was found that directly investigated how life satisfaction affected work satisfaction. This article investigated the effects of social support and family on job satisfaction. The researchers determined "social support at home and at work are important predictors of both well-being and job satisfaction (Roxburgh, 1999).

Psychological well-being has been linked to role strain, stress, and level of social supports (Mills et al., 1992). Role strain has been significantly correlated with depression in some studies (Keith & Schafer, 1980). However, working women have been proven to have higher levels of well-being physically and

mentally and lower levels of depression, somatic complaints, and anxiety than women who do not work outside the home (Coontz, 1997; Barnett & Rivers, 1996). Social support, at home and at work, helps working women manage their multiple roles effectively, therefore leading to greater life satisfaction or well-being (Roxburgh, 1999). Spousal support also contributes to job satisfaction (Rudd & McKenry, 1986). In addition, coworker and supervisor support are also crucial to a working woman's ability to avoid role strain (Roxburgh, 1999). Women tend to find more social support in the work place than men, which may contribute to what researchers call the "paradox of the contented female worker" phenomenon (Phelan, 1994). The social support they get from coworkers and supervisors, which helps them effectively manage stress levels and role strain, also contributes to job satisfaction (Roxburgh, 1999).

A study exploring stress processes for dual career men and women concluded "when role strain is high, women apparently find it hard to focus on the positive aspects of their lives and to overlook the disadvantages (Guelzow et al., 1991). In contrast, researchers have found working women tend to feel less depressed, have better self images, and are generally more satisfied with life than women who are not in the paid labor force (Hothschild, 1997). Many women claim that "self-satisfaction, well-being, high spirits, and work were inextricably linked" (Hothschild, 1997). In conclusion, one researcher commented, when investigating life satisfaction, "there is no question that the

family remains the most significant contributor to individuals' feelings about the quality of their lives" (Mills et al., 1992).

Work Satisfaction

There are countless influences on work satisfaction, which vary across individuals. Working women, especially those with children, appear to have some common criteria for job satisfaction. However, the literature overwhelmingly shows, as stated previously, that flexible hours, availability of quality day care, reduction of hours, and support of supervisors, coworkers and spouses are all extremely significant predictors of work satisfaction (Ezra & Deckman, 1996; Holtzman & Glass, 1999; Roxburgh, 1999; Scandura & Lankan, 1997). The better the "balance between work and family, the more satisfied they are with their jobs because satisfaction with work and family balance is a substantial part of job satisfaction" (Ezra & Deckman, 1996).

Some literature would suggest that childbirth and children lead to a decline in work satisfaction (Holtzman & Glass, 1999). However, other studies found that children did not effect mother's work satisfaction at all (Campbell et al., 1994; Hanson & Sloane, 1992; Hodson, 1989). The presence of children may lead to a significant decline in work satisfaction if the mother is having a hard time finding quality day care (Holtzman & Glass, 1999). It is in this way that women's job satisfaction is very closely tied with organizational flexibility and their commitment to the organization (Hanson & Sloane, 1992). Women also seem to enjoy jobs

where they can express themselves, be creative, work with people, help others, and have a comfortable working environment (Holtzman & Glass, 1999).

Literature on how hours worked per week effect a woman's work satisfaction also have produced somewhat contradictory findings. One study concluded that there was a negative correlation between number of hours worked per week and work satisfaction (Campbell et al., 1992). However, another study found that "hours worked had no significant relationship to distress" except for highly committed female professionals who tend to work extended hours (Guelzow et al., 1991). These women reported higher levels of role strain and "time pressure" (Guelzow et al., 1991). Yet another study concluded that the number of hours worked did not affect work satisfaction, in fact, as number of work hours increased so did levels of job satisfaction (Roxburgh, 1999).

Occupational status is found to affect work satisfaction levels. Women who work in professional careers typically have reported the highest levels of work satisfaction. Blue collar or working class women were far less satisfied overall, including work satisfaction (Secret & Green, 1998). Researchers believe these results are due to the fact that blue collar or working class jobs offer lower pay, less flexibility, and are less complicated, which may lead to low self-esteem, less control, and higher levels of job dissatisfaction (Hessing, 1993; Secret & Green, 1998). However, these jobs may also offer less responsibility and therefore less stress, in contrast to the time demands of professional careers.

The women that were the most satisfied at work (professionals) also had higher levels of both income and education than their working class counterparts (Secret & Green, 1998). For professional women, salary and advancement opportunities were important influences on job satisfaction.

Chapter Three

Methods

SAMPLING

The data used for this study involved a secondary analysis of data collected for a larger project on work and family conducted by Dr. Priscilla Blanton. The study's population of interest was dual earner married men and women. Eligibility for this study was limited to employees that were currently married and had lived with their spouses for the last five years, were employed in the paid work force, and had one or more children at home at least half of the time. The present study, in addition to the original study's participation requirements, narrowed the unit of analysis to women only and included only women who worked 20 hours or more in the paid labor force per week.

The original project solicited participation in two local facilities; a university medical center and a clothing manufacturing company. At the university medical center, employing 4,500 people, a description of the study and a self-addressed stamped postcard were distributed with pay-checks. If employees wanted to participate, they returned the postcard and consequently were mailed a packet, which included a letter of introduction to the study, informed consent form, questionnaires, and a self-addressed stamped envelope. At the clothing manufacturing company, employing approximately 600 people, descriptions of the study, questionnaires, letters of informed consent, and self-addressed

stamped envelopes were distributed by the researchers in the employee's cafeteria. Upon completion, all participants were asked to mail the informed consent and the questionnaires, which made the participants eligible for a drawing for four University of Tennessee football tickets. The drawing was intended to encourage participation.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

The sample pulled from the larger data set for completion of this secondary data analysis included 70 employed women residing in Knoxville, Tennessee and the surrounding counties. From a sociodemographic perspective, this sample is fairly representative for this geographic region. The average age of the women in this study was 42 years old with a standard deviation of 9.78 years. The ages of participants ranged from 22 to 62 years of age. The ethnic backgrounds of this sample were not very diverse, but that is fairly consistent with the approximate regional ethnic distribution. Out of the sample of 70 women, 93% were Euro-American and the other 7% was comprised of Asian, African American, and Native American.

All participants in this study were currently married, 90% of the women were still in their first marriage, and the remaining 10% had been divorced and were in their second marriage. The average length of marriage, in this sample, was 19 years with a standard deviation of 17.9 years. Years married ranged

from one to 42 years. For the women in this sample, there were a total of 108 children, 52 daughters and 56 sons.

The women in this sample were fairly well educated. 26% of the women had high school degrees, 29% had some college, while 29% of the women had completed bachelors degrees. Graduate degrees, of any kind, had been completed by 11 (14%) women.

Work related demographics used are number of hours worked per week, occupational status, and personal income. The women worked on average of 40.1 hours per week in the paid work force with a standard deviation of 7.13 hours. Hours worked per week ranged from 24 to 78 hours. These women had an average personal income of about \$17,450 per year, with a salary range from \$5,000 to \$35,000 or more per year. Occupational status also varied a great deal, but when looking at the variance of the two employers where surveys were distributed (a clothing manufacturing company and a university medical center) this variance is understandable. The number of women in each occupation are listed below: 3 -service workers, 3 -managers and officials, 12 -machinists, 10 -clerical and sales, and 42 -professional and tech.

MEASURES

Four scales from the self-report questionnaire utilized in the larger study were used for this secondary analysis. A copy of the entire questionnaire can be acquired by contacting Dr. Priscilla Blanton at The University of Tennessee. The

four scales measure marital, parental, life, and work satisfaction. Demographic characteristics were also used in predicting work satisfaction.

Marital Satisfaction

Marital satisfaction was assessed using the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (KMSS, Mitchell, Newell, & Schumm, 1983, Appendix A), which is a three-item, 7-point Likert-type scale. The three items on the instruments are (1) "How satisfied are you with your marriage?" (2) "How satisfied are you with your husband/wife as a spouse?" and (3) "How satisfied are you with your relationship with your husband/wife?" (Grover, Paff-Bergen, Russell, & Schumm, 1984). This instrument was designed to measure a person's satisfaction with their own marriage, their spouse in general and the relationship they have with their spouse. This scale has proven to have "excellent psychometric properties" (Morris & Blanton, 1994). On the KMSS, the higher the total score the higher the satisfaction level. The Cronbach's alpha for the KMSS in this particular study was a strong .98.

Parental Satisfaction

Parental satisfaction was measured with the Parental Satisfaction Scale (PSS, Umberson, 1989, Appendix B). This instrument is a three item, four-point, Likert -type scale, which measures the quality of the relationship between parent and child and how competent parents feel in their parental role. One of the

questions in the scale is "All in all, how well would you say you get along with your children" (Umberson, 1989). Again, on this scale the higher the score the higher the level of satisfaction. This scale, in previous research, has also proved to have strong internal consistency (Morris & Blanton, 1994), and the Cronbach's alpha in the present study was .74. It should be noted that this scale was re-coded, so that a higher mean would indicate a higher satisfaction level.

Life Satisfaction

Life Satisfaction was assessed with the Life Satisfaction Scale (LSS, Spanier & Thompson, 1984, Appendix C), which is a five-item, three point Likert-type scale. Questions on this instrument address five broad domains of life experience. Like the previous instrument, the higher total score indicated higher satisfaction levels with their life, after the re-code was complete. Cronbach's alpha on this instrument in the present study was .66.

Work Satisfaction

Work satisfaction was measured using the Blanton Work Satisfaction Scale (WSS, Blanton, 1993, Appendix D), which is a three –item, four point Likert-type scale. The three questions on the scale are: (1) "How satisfied are you with your job?" (2) "How happy are you with your job environment?" and (3) "All in all, how well do you get along with your supervisor?" (Blanton, 1993). In contrast with the other scales, on this scale a lower score indicated a higher

satisfaction level, which called for the need to re-code the scores to facilitate numerical parsimony among satisfaction variables. For this study, the Cronbach's alpha on this instrument was .76.

DATA ANALYSIS

All data analyses were completed on a statistical package called SPSS, 1999 version. Descriptive statistics and stepwise multiple regression analyses were utilized. Two regression models were explored: a satisfaction model and a demographic model, both examined for their goodness of fit for the predictor variables for work satisfaction. The independent variables, or predictor variables, were marital, parental, and life satisfaction in the satisfaction model and income, educational level, and hours worked per week at a job in the demographic model. In both models, job satisfaction was the dependent variable.

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis One

This study's first hypothesis stated that the satisfaction criterion variables (marital, parental, and life satisfaction) predicted variance in women's work satisfaction.

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis of this study stated that the satisfaction criterion variables (hours worked outside the home, income, and educational level completed) predicted variance in women's work satisfaction.

Chapter Four

Results

OVERVIEW OF RESULTS

In the present study both models proved to be significant and one variable from each stood out as a strong predictor of women's work satisfaction. The strong predictor variables of work satisfaction were life satisfaction from the satisfaction model and educational level from the demographic model. Income did contribute to the explanation of the variance in the demographic model, but marital satisfaction, though marginal, was not statistically significant in the satisfaction model. Parental satisfaction did not significantly correlate with women's work satisfaction.

Description of Sample on Satisfaction Variables

In general, the working women in this study reported being slightly more than "somewhat satisfied" with their marriages. The mean on the KMS was 5.2 out of a maximum score of 7 with a standard deviation of 1.8 (see Table 1 for means, ranges, and standard deviations). It is significant to note that for 20% of the sample, the most frequently reported response was that they were "very satisfied" with their marriages. Satisfaction levels on parenthood were similarly positive.

For the facilitation of statistical interpretation the Parental Satisfaction Scale was reverse coded, therefore the higher the mean the higher the level of satisfaction. The working women in this study had a mean parental satisfaction level of 3.4 out of 4, with a standard deviation of .49. The mean reported by mothers was just shy of falling exactly in between “pretty happy” and “very happy” on the Parental Satisfaction Scale. The most frequent response was “very happy” which was the response of 27% of the participants.

Scores on the Life Satisfaction Scale were also reverse coded so the higher mean would indicate a higher level of satisfaction. The mean response was also very positive on this scale, with a mean of 2.4 out of 3 and a standard deviation of .42. A 2.4 falls in between “somewhat” and “extremely satisfied,” but is leaning closer to the “somewhat satisfied” point on the response scale. Responses ranged from 1.2 to a 3.0, but had a mode of 2.4, a response given by 24% of the participants (See Table 1).

Work satisfaction, the criterion variable, seemed to also lean toward the satisfied end of the response scale with a mean of 3.1 out of four (See Table 1). The average response of these working women was closest to “pretty satisfying.” The standard deviation was .56 and answers ranged from 1.3 to 4.0. The modal response was 3.3, reported by 26% of the participants. The Blanton Work Scale also had to be reverse coded so the higher mean would indicate greater levels of satisfaction.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Predictors Satisfaction Variables
(n = 70)

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Marital Satisfaction	5.24	1.80	1 – 7
Parental Satisfaction	3.44	.49	2.33 – 4.0
Life Satisfaction	2.36	.42	1.20 – 3.0

Inter-correlation of Satisfaction of Variables

A correlation matrix with a Pearsons R correlation coefficients was constructed in order to understand the interrelationships among variables. Redundancy among criterion variables was not a concern since no coefficients exceeded .5, which is a generally accepted level for determining redundancy (See Table 2). However, all three satisfaction variables (marital, parental and work satisfaction) correlated with one another in the anticipated direction. Parent satisfaction and marital satisfaction were correlated with a .4 coefficient which was significant at the .01 level. These two variables, however, were also correlated with life satisfaction (.44 for parental satisfaction and .36 for parental satisfaction) with both coefficients significant at the .01 level. However, neither parental nor marital satisfaction were significantly correlated with work satisfaction. Life satisfaction was significantly correlated with all three other variables (See Table 2). Therefore, the relationships between the variables in this model were strong, but only life satisfaction predicted work satisfaction.

ANALYSIS OF SATISFACTION MODEL

This model included marital, parental, and life satisfaction of working women as predictors of the criterion variable of work satisfaction. A stepwise multiple regression was used to test the model and to establish its goodness of fit with variation in work satisfaction. Parental satisfaction did not influence

Table 2: Intercorrelation Matrix for Satisfaction Model (n = 70)

Correlations

	W.SAT	P.SAT	M.SAT	L.SAT
Work Satisfaction				
Pearson Correlation	1.00	.09	.23	.38**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.46	.06	.001
Parental Satisfaction				
Pearson Correlation	.09	1.00	.40**	.44**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.46	.	.001	.000
Marital Satisfaction				
Pearson Correlation	.23	.40**	1.00	.36**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.06	.001	.	.002
Life Satisfaction				
Pearson Correlation	.38**	.44**	.36**	1.00
Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.00	.002	.

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

women's work satisfaction significantly. The relationship between marital satisfaction and work satisfaction was marginal, and not statistically significant at a .05. Life satisfaction was the only significant predictor of women's work satisfaction (See Table 3).

The only significant Beta weight was for life satisfaction predicting work satisfaction. It was .38 with a significance level of .008 (See Table 3). Acceptable tolerance levels were found for parental satisfaction (.81) and for marital satisfaction (.85). When looking at the model, including all three variables, the significance level of the ANOVA used to test the model was $p < .016$. The model as a whole accounted for 16% of the variance in women's work satisfaction.

When taking into consideration that life satisfaction was the only significant predictor of work satisfaction in the initial model of three variables, the regression was then run with life satisfaction as the only predictor variable. Without parental and marital satisfaction the model still accounted for 14% of the variance in women's work satisfaction. In conclusion, life satisfaction was the only significant predictor of work satisfaction out of the predictor variables in this model.

ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHIC MODEL

This model tested the demographic variables of personal income, educational level, and hours worked per week as predictor variables of the

Table 3: Summary of Stepwise Regression and Bivariate Correlation (n=70)
For Satisfaction Model

WORK SATISFACTION				
Predictor Variables	r	B	t	Sig.
Life Satisfaction	.38	.38*	.2.7*	.008
Marital Satisfaction	.23	.14	1.06	.29
Parental Satisfaction	.09	-.13	-.94	.35

Note: r = Pearsons correlation
B = Standardized Beta
Significance of F .018

R squared = .160
F value = 3.75*
* p<.05

criterion variable work satisfaction. Two of these predictor variables, educational level and income, were re-grouped in this model to simplify statistical analysis. For educational level, all graduate degrees were combined since there were only 10 masters and 1 Doctorate. Every woman, in the present study, had received at minimum a high school diploma. Income was recoded by combining \$5,000 to \$7,499 and \$7,500 to \$9,999 into one category from \$5,000 to \$9,999. The \$35,000 to \$49,000 and the \$50,000 or more categories were also combined into one category of \$35,000 or more. Both of these changes were made because there were too few respondents in some categories and these re-groupings made the intervals in both categories 1 to 3.

Stepwise multiple regression was also used to test this model. The model was significant and the predictor variables were related to the criterion variables in the anticipated direction. Educational level and work satisfaction had a correlation coefficient of .4. Education was clearly the strongest predictor of work satisfaction out of the three predictor variables tested in the model (See Table 4).

After testing the model, it was clear that hours worked per week was not contributing significantly to the model, so this variable was dropped from the final analysis. Dropping hours worked was a necessity because it was almost a constant variable with extremely low variance (80% of the sample working 40 hours a week). This change left two variables in the regression model, level of education and income level (See table 4). Nineteen percent of the variance was predicted when all three original variables were included, with hours worked per

Table 4: Summary of Stepwise Regression and Bivariate Correlation (n = 70)
for Demographic Model

WORK SATISFACTION				
Predictor Variables	r	B	t	Sig.
Educational Level	.35	.47*	.3.7*	.0001
Personal Income	.42	-.26*	-2.0*	.05

Note: r = Pearsons Correlation
B = Standardized Beta

R squared = .18
F Value = 6.95*
* p < .05

week excluded from the model, 18% of the variance was predicted.

There was a correlation between personal income and educational level. In most cases, as educational level goes up, pay tends to increase as well (with exceptions such as clergy or social work). Education and income seemed to explain a great deal of the variance in common, but income did contribute as strongly to the prediction of work satisfaction as did education. When the regression was done with educational level as the only predictor variable, it predicted 12 % of the variance in women's work satisfaction. When income was included in the model, it predicted 17 % of the variance in women's work satisfaction.

Spearman's r was used to examine the relationships between the variable, because it does not require nominal level data and both education and income were comprised of ordinal data converted into interval level data for the regression model. This analysis revealed that work satisfaction, income, and educational level had a higher level of correlation than did education and work satisfaction or income and work satisfaction. The relationship between education and income seemed to explain similar parts of work satisfaction in common (See Table 2). In addition, it was found that as income rose, level of work satisfaction also increased.

SUMMARY

In conclusion, the two models revealed two strong predictors of work satisfaction, these variables being life satisfaction and educational level. Income did contribute to the explanation of the variance in the demographic model, but marital satisfaction, though marginal, was not statistically significant in the satisfaction model. Parental satisfaction and hours worked per week did not contribute to the models and did not correlate with work satisfaction significantly.

Chapter Five

Discussion and Implications

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The results of the present study led to several conclusions. First, in the satisfaction model it was discovered that life satisfaction was the only significant predictor variable of women's work satisfaction out of the three predictor variables tested in this model. Marital and parental satisfaction were correlated with not only each other, but also with life satisfaction, but not significantly (See table 2). However, they did not have significant Beta weights for predicting work satisfaction. The second conclusion was that education was the strongest demographic predictor of women's work satisfaction. Personal income did contribute to the explanation of the variance in women's work satisfaction, but it seemed to predict variation in women's work satisfaction in common with education. Number of hours worked per week outside the home was found not to be a predictor of women's work satisfaction, but was correlated with educational level. Both regression models tested identified a single, strong predictor of work satisfaction.

The influence of working women's marital, parental, and life satisfaction on work satisfaction has never been directly explored by any study in this body of literature. Most of the research in this area focuses on how maternal employment affects the family, children, or marital stability (Gelles, 1995;

Greenstein, 1995). This is perhaps the greatest contribution of the present study to this substantive body of research. The present study is a unique contribution to the body of literature spanning the relationships between both work and family.

The fact that this study focused on satisfaction levels is also a unique contribution, because many studies investigating the multiple roles of women focus on role strain, role overload, division of household labor, or other problems or frustrations that may come with multiple roles (Blair, 1993; Small & Riley, 1990). This study contributed to the body of literature and will, hopefully, help employers develop a greater understanding of the work-family relationship, for which there has been a need (Blair, 1993).

Another strength this study offered is that it focused on the dual-income family, due to the sample, in a body of literature where the dual-career family is usually over-represented. Dual-work families were purposefully over-represented in the present study to address this issue. This study will help increase understanding of and give a voice to the traditionally under-represented women of dual-work families. The present survey also benefited from the use of well-established measures that have proven reliability and validity. A final benefit of this study is the wide range of ages, marital statuses, and numbers and combinations of children (male and female). A fairly diverse, but representative, group of dual-earner families were represented by the women in the sample of the present study.

The results of the present study supported the concept of compartmentalization, which is the ability to keep family issues at home instead of allowing them to affect work performance and vice-versa. The present results strongly contradicted the stereotype, that has long existed, and which disqualified working women's ability compared to men to compartmentalize between home and work (Barnett & Rivers, 1996). Regarding the similar topic of "spillover" this study supported the findings of a previous study investigating female health-care workers and their family spillover into the workplace, which found no spillover effects of family life into the work place (Barnett & Rivers, 1996).

This study also supported the idea that working women are vested in both their work and their family roles, as reflected in the high satisfaction levels in both these arenas (Guelzow et al., 1991). The findings of this study clearly support the concept that the multiple roles and expectations placed on women today do not necessarily lead to higher stress levels and/or dissatisfaction (Guelzow et al., 1991). Therefore, the findings from the present study lend further support to the conclusion that women are capable of managing multiple roles, while maintaining positive satisfaction levels in both work and family domains (Barnett & Rivers, 1996).

The 70 women in this study, who among them had 115 children, seemed to be satisfied parents and their satisfaction with parenting did not directly influence their satisfaction in the workplace. These mothers, again, seemed to be able to compartmentalize their multiple roles. Exploring how parental

satisfaction may effect women's work satisfaction was imperative, because women are still traditionally considered the primary caregiver in most households (Holtzman & Glass, 1999). In the review of literature, a large number of conflicting results were discussed regarding the positive or negative effects of motherhood on work satisfaction. However, it is apparent that the present study offers some important clarification to these studies that either found motherhood's positive effects (Crosby, 1983; Bersoff & Crosby, 1984) or negative effects on work satisfaction (Hodson, 1989; Campbell et al., 1994; Holtzman & Glass, 1999). The present study found no significant predictive relationship, either positive or negative, parental satisfaction for work satisfaction among women for dual-earner families.

The research findings that this study strongly supported is that of Hanson and Sloane (1992), which found that there were no family variables that consistently affected woman's job satisfaction. These researchers also found that the presence of children did not, at any time, affect woman's work satisfaction (Hanson & Sloane, 1992). The present study contributes new findings to the existing contradictions of earlier research in this area of literature, by focusing specifically on satisfactions in both family and work domains.

As stated earlier, there is very little research on how life satisfaction may predict women's work satisfaction. The present study supported the idea that there is a bi-directional relationship between psychological well-being, marital quality, and parenthood found by Mills, Grasmick, Morgan, and Wenk (1992). It

was found in the present study that marital and parental satisfaction were associated with life satisfaction, supporting the above research findings. Though there was a great deal of literature that discussed what impacts life satisfaction, (Phelan, 1994; Guelzow, et al., 1991; Hothschild; 1997; Mills et al., 1992) the present study was focused on how life satisfaction predicts work satisfaction. Since there were no studies that directly explored this relationship, it should be noted that this again is an area in which the present study made a unique contribution to the body of literature on work satisfaction predictors for women.

Results supported the conclusion that in terms of demographic variables, work satisfaction was predicted only by educational level with a small contribution from income. Hours worked per week was not a predictor for women's work satisfaction in this study. These finding contradicted an existing study, which found that number of hours per week worked outside the home was negatively correlated with work satisfaction (Campbell et al., 1992). The present study would, on the other hand, support the findings of Guelzow, Bird, and Koball (1991), which stated that "hours worked had no significant relationship to distress" except for extremely committed female professionals who were not strongly represented in the present study's sample.

The present study did, however, support the idea that increased satisfaction is often correlated with increased pay (Hessing, 1993; Secret & Green, 1998). However, how educational level affects women's level of work

satisfaction still needs further examination in future research, since no clear trends emerged.

IMPLICATIONS

Further Research

It is clear that the present study made several unique contributions to the research in this body of literature. However, replicating this study with a larger, more diverse sample to increase the generalizability of the findings would be useful. The sample used was fairly representative of the Knoxville, Tennessee area. However, in terms of the demographic descriptions of the women sampled, including more minority group participants might prove to expose differences or similarities between groups or simply make the findings more nationally generalizable since minorities account for only 13% of the population in the metropolitan area of Knoxville.

With the present findings and current literature in mind, there are several ways in which expanding this study would benefit the body of scholarly literature. It would be interesting to see if work satisfaction predictors differ between dual-career families and dual-income women. The sample in the current study was not large enough to do such between-group analyses. Including men would create a terrific opportunity to compare and contrast work satisfaction predictors between the genders. Adding more demographic predictor variables might also produce new and valuable findings.

Finally, it would be interesting to repeat the present study, but to include women in the sample who do not work outside the home, which would provide an opportunity for comparisons between psychological well-being, marital, parental, and life satisfaction levels of women who work inside the home and women who are employed outside the home.

Practical Applications

Several practical applications are suggested from the findings of this study. It was revealed that life satisfaction and educational level were the strongest predictors of women's work satisfaction in this study. Therefore, one important practical application that employers may take from this research is the importance of their employee's overall life satisfaction. This finding definitely supports the provision of Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs), which can assist employees with referrals to help them in any area that the employee may need assistance. For example, if an employee was suffering from depression, the availability of the EAP and expedited referrals may facilitate that employee getting the help she needs. In the long run, making sure employees are generally satisfied with their lives and work environments will pay off in their work satisfaction and job performance.

Returning to the Life Satisfaction Scale (See Appendix C) to understand what aspects of life satisfaction on which participants were measured, it is clear that several additional practical applications for employees can be made. This

scale, as discussed earlier, is made up of five questions, on which participants indicated their satisfaction level with their work, where they live, their way of life, leisure activities, and their health. Though employers may not be able to impact their employee's way of life or where they live, they can positively influence their health, the work they do, and may perhaps provide opportunities for enjoyable leisure activities. Employers could offer or offer better health and dental benefits so employees can see doctors preventatively to maintain optimal health. Not only would this give employees a better quality of life, but also employers might benefit from lower absenteeism.

Employers could offer employees options for enjoyable leisure activities, such as softball leagues, company picnics, golf tournaments, or other activities. They may also increase the employee's number of paid vacation days or flex-time work schedules, so they can have more time to participate in leisure activities. Employers can improve the environment in which their employees work by offering shift or area rotations to decrease potential boredom with the job. Perhaps offering new job openings and opportunities internally first, before advertising externally would also give the employees a feeling of opportunity. Since work satisfaction tends to increase as income level increases employers should also make sure that promotions and raises are timely and appropriate. Another suggestion to employers would be to ensure that female employees are getting paid equitably, because making sure their pay is fair might significantly affect their level of work satisfaction.

This study found that job satisfaction tended to increase as pay increased. Employers may want to consider training programs and a skill-based pay scale or pay-per-skill system, so that with each learned skill pay slightly increases (Orsburn, Moran, Musselehite & Zenger, 1990). Pay-per-skill tends to not only create a more skilled and better-trained labor force, but would also give employees the opportunity to increase both their knowledge and their income. In addition, employees whose job satisfaction is based on lower levels of responsibility and a less demanding work environment would be allowed to continue, without penalty, at their level of skill and pay (Orsburn et al., 1990). However, this approach offers ambitious employees the opportunity to learn and to have a greater sense of control over their income. Employers may be concerned about the expense of training, but they should reap benefits as their workforce becomes empowered, internally motivated, more skilled, more loyal, and finally more productive (Orsburn et al., 1990).

In addition, if increasing an employees educational level will increase their work satisfaction perhaps an employer should consider, not only internal training, but offering a college tuition reimbursement program or college scholarships. This might increase not only her education level and her work satisfaction, but may also lead to her being more dedicated to her employer, because she may not have similar benefits at another job. The employer benefits by potentially decreasing turnover.

Finally, employers need to be aware of the multiple roles that many of their female workers juggle. Offering them working hours flexibility, support systems, or mentoring programs can help employees with their overall job satisfaction and performance (Ezra & Deckman, 1996; Holtzman & Glass, 1999; Roxburgh, 1999; Scandura & Lankan, 1997).

LIMITATIONS

The first and probably most apparent limitation of this study is sample size. A larger sample size would better ensure capturing the variation of responses that would come from a nationally representative sample. Another concern is sample bias due to the fact that participation was on a voluntary basis. Volunteer bias impacts all research in the social sciences, but the extent of its influence on findings of research is not clearly acknowledged. It is possible that female employees, who chose to participate, were those who tended to be more satisfied and less stressed, thus having both time and motivation to complete the survey.

Another potential limitation is the limited number of occupations that were represented in the sample, making it difficult to draw distinctions in satisfaction levels between occupational groups, which limits the findings generalizability to woman in diverse occupational settings. Lack of equal representation of different occupational statuses is also a limitation of this study. Aggregating service workers, with machinist and managers, may be overlooking some potentially

existing natural differences. Future research may want to explore how occupational status effects works satisfaction.

Measures were used in this study that were well established and had high reliability and validity, but are fairly global in nature. These scales, which include only three questions, do not allow for detailed interpretation. Future research may consider using a more specific, refined, and psychometrically sound questionnaires.

As mentioned earlier, the lack of social diversity, though representative of the Knoxville area limits the generalizability to other more diverse populations or different geographical regions. It is possible that different findings might emerge with a more diverse sample. If nothing else, a more diverse sample would allow for inter- group comparisons.

SUMMARY

In conclusion, educational level and life satisfaction were the strongest predictors of work satisfaction for women in dual-income families. The findings from the present study made some unique contributions to the body of scholarly literature. This study strongly supported the concept of compartmentalization being used by employed women and reaffirms working women's ability to do so effectively. Women in today's work force appear to be able to establish boundaries around their home and work lives and keep them from "spilling over" into one another. This is an encouraging finding since current statistics suggest

that 67% of women in the United States are now working outside the home in paid employment. This study also suggests implications for practice to employers, as to how they may better meet the needs of their female employees who are managing multiple roles. Further research is needed to explore fully the relationship between women's work satisfaction and their satisfactions in their family lives.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extremely Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Mixed	Somewhat Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied

1. How satisfied are you with your marriage?
2. How satisfied are you with your husband/wife as a spouse?
3. How satisfied are you with your relationship with your husband/wife?

APPENDIX B

Parental Satisfaction Scale

1. How satisfied do you find being a parent is?

1	2	3	4
Very Satisfying	Pretty Satisfying	Not Too Satisfying	Not Satisfying At All

2. How happy are you with the way your children behave?

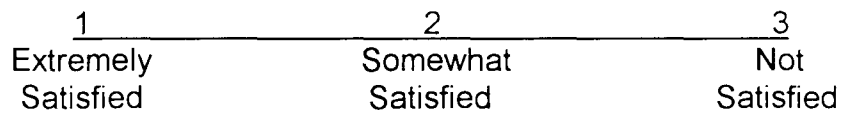
1	2	3	4
Very Happy	Pretty Happy	Not Too Happy	Not Happy At All

3. All in all, how well would you say you get along with your children?

1	2	3	4
Very Well	Pretty Well	Not Too Well	Not At All Well

APPENDIX C

Life Satisfaction Scale



1. The work you do.
2. Where you live.
3. Your way of life.
4. The things you do for enjoyment.
5. Your health.

APPENDIX D

Work Satisfaction Scale

1. How satisfied are you with your job?

1	2	3	4
Very Satisfying	Pretty Satisfying	Not Too Satisfying	Not Satisfying At All

2. How happy are you with your job environment?

1	2	3	4
Very Happy	Pretty Happy	Not Too Happy	Not Happy At All

3. All in all, how well do you get along with your supervisor?

1	2	3	4
Very Well	Pretty Well	Not Too Well	Not At All Well

VITA

Rachael Noelle Hawley was born August 20, 1974 in Danbury, Connecticut to William and Janice Hawley. After graduating from Farragutt High School in Knoxville, Tennessee in May of 1993 she attended Berea College in Berea, Kentucky. She received her B.A. in Child and Family Studies in May of 1997 and was also the Captain of Berea's Women's Soccer Team. After living in Corvallis, Oregon for a year and a half Rachael returned to Knoxville, Tennessee to begin the Masters program in Child and Family Studies at the University of Tennessee in August 1998. During her tenure at U.T., Rachael also received a Masters minor in Human Resource Development and had an assistantship in the Undergraduate Academic Advising office in the College of Human Ecology. On May 12, 2000 Rachael graduated with a Masters degree in Child and Family Studies and Human Resources. After graduation Rachael moves to Chicago, IL to begin a job as Regional Manager for Midwestern States for an international sales organization.