

MARITAL RELATIONS IN THE CONTEXT OF
THE UNEMPLOYMENT OF THE HUSBAND

by



Tim D. Aubry

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts

Department of Psychology
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Abstract

Based on a social exchange model of marriage (Scanzoni, 1972), the present study investigates the impact of unemployment on marital relations. A comparison of 30 married and 1 common-law blue collar couples where the husband is unemployed with 31 married and 1 common-law blue collar couples where the husband is working full-time is undertaken with respect to micro-relationship variables specified by the conceptual model. The methodology involved in-home completion of survey questionnaires by both spouses in the married couple. Findings only partially confirm a dyadic exchange model of marriages as adequately explicating the dynamics of marital relations in the context of short-term, involuntary unemployment within a blue-collar sample. As predicted by the theoretical model, couples in which the husband is unemployed showed lower levels of marital satisfaction being experienced by both spouses and viewed wives as making smaller contributions in the household task area in comparison to couples where the husband is working full-time. Level of psychological well-being of the spouses was the sole variable identified as having a significant relationship with marital satisfaction in the direction specified by the model. Findings are discussed with respect to the nature of the sample, methodological issues, and practical relevance. Future directions in research for this area are proposed.

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Introduction

Unemployment and the Individual

Research conducted during the Great Depression of the 1930's and following economic recessionary periods in the 1970s has shown consistently that unemployment is associated with a decrease in individual's psychological well-being and overall health. Specifically, findings in this area have demonstrated involuntary joblessness to be associated with losses in self-esteem (Cohn, 1978; Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld, 1938; Komarovsky, 1935); stress-related physiological changes (Cobb, 1974); the onset of depression (Feather & Barber, 1983; Viney, 1983; Warr, 1983) and higher levels of psychiatric symptomatology (Fineman, 1979; Finlay, Jones & Eckhardt, 1981; Stafford, Jackson & Banks, 1980; Warr, 1983).

A few longitudinal studies strongly suggest a causal relationship between unemployment and ensuing individual difficulties (e.g., Banks & Jackson, 1982; Cobb, 1974; Stafford, 1982). Some macro-level correlational studies are often cited as further evidence of the deleterious effects associated with unemployment. These studies examine the relationship between aggregate economic indicators and specific population health measures of the U.S.A. and of other western industrial countries. Their findings showed a positive lagged relationship between the rate of unemployment and mortality (Brenner, 1979), homicide (Brenner, 1976), suicide (Boor, 1980; Brenner, 1976), cardiovascular mortality (Brenner & Mooney, 1982), fetal, infant

and maternal mortality (Brenner, 1973), total state imprisonment (Brenner, 1976) and psychiatric hospital admissions (Brenner, 1976).

Other macro-level research findings included significant correlations between the monthly unemployment rate of a metropolitan area and the presence of depressed mood in it's population (Catalano and Dooley, 1977), the change in an urban community's employment rate and the presence of stressful life events (Catalano and Dooley, 1979), as well as between numerous economic indicators and stress symptomatology for low-income individuals (Dooley and Catalano, 1979).

Unemployment and Families or Marriages

Until now, there has been relatively little research examining the impact of involuntary joblessness on families or marriages. Anecdotal evidence (e.g., Kirsh, 1983) and journalistic feature stories (e.g., McGrath, Manning & McCormick, 1983) present a bleak picture of individuals and their families struggling with unemployment. The popular assumption seems to be that the unemployment of a husband/father consistently leads to marital and family problems. However, research examining this issue presents mixed findings. Descriptive studies of families experiencing unemployment make up the largest segment of this research. For example, Komarovsky (1935) conducted interviews with 59 families who were living on government economic relief during the Great Depression and whose male household head was unemployed. Negative effects deemed related to unemployment for

some of the families included loss of husband's authority, heightened conflict in the household, increased social isolation of the family, decreased sexual activity between the spouses, and an overall deterioration in marital relations. These problems were by no means uniform across all the interviewed families, as some of them reported no changes following unemployment, while a few others perceived the unemployment of the husband/father as a positive experience. In these latter cases, joblessness encouraged improvement in already good family relationships because of increased contact between husband and family members.

In attempting to further differentiate these diverse reactions to unemployment by families in his study, Komarovsky used retrospective interview data to categorize the pre-unemployment marital relations into three types according to the grounds of acceptance of their marital authority structure. These included instrumental, primary and mixed grounds of acceptance. Instrumental marital relationships described those marriages whereby a husband's authority was based on utilitarian considerations. A husband's authority within family circles was traded for instrumental resources. On the other hand, within those marital relationships categorized as primary, a husband's authority was derived from primary affectional sources (e.g., love, respect, devotion) and from a wife's traditional outlook towards family authority patterns. Mixed marital relationships involved those marriages where a husband's authority was

maintained on the basis of both instrumental and primary grounds of acceptance.

Komarovsky reported marital difficulties being especially prevalent in those relationships with instrumental attitudes. It was interpreted that the inequity in the marital exchanges in these relationships, particularly surrounding authority, prompted the marital problems. Meanwhile, those families categorized as having primary relationships showed much stability in the face of unemployment, with much less marital conflict in comparison to those designated instrumental couples. In these primary type relationships, a wife's affection remained consistent despite the joblessness of their husbands.

It is interesting that Komarovsky presented the inequity of exchanges concerning a husband's authority as being a major component of unemployed families experiencing marital difficulties. Marriages which remained fairly stable subsequent to the unemployment of the husband were considered qualitatively different to these, in that the exchange framework determining a husband's authority was not an integral part of the relationship. This would appear to be only a partial explanation of differences in marital reactions to unemployment, as further mediating variables were not investigated.

Komarovsky's findings were limited by restricted sampling criteria, rudimentary methodology and the era of the study. The sample was restricted to families on relief with wage-earning having been exclusively the task of the husband/father. In

addition, families interviewed in the study were for the most part older, averaging 15 to 20 years of marriage. Methodologically, the design of the study was cross-sectional without controls, relying on retrospective qualitative data for ascertaining causal relationships between unemployment and family difficulties. As well, with the study having been undertaken during the Great Depression close to 50 years ago, it is difficult to estimate the generalizability of findings to today's unemployed.

A more recent example of a descriptive study investigating families and marriages is the interview research of Marsden and Duff (1975). They purposively sampled 16 jobless men from a wide variety of work backgrounds, coming from different parts of England and reflecting a diversity of family situations. Negative reactions to joblessness in these families included increased household conflict, role strain, and diminished communication in families, especially between spouses. Again, a few families showed unemployment enhancing an already positive family environment.

The Marsden and Duff study was journalistic and consciously attempted to present observation of families experiencing unemployment without interpretations of their reactions or comparisons with each other. Their methodology included a combination of passive observation and in-depth interviews with the unemployed and their families, conducted at different times over a several month period. Interviews involved open-ended questions on work attitudes, job search, ways of coping, financial

needs, and personal and family responses to unemployment. The small size and diversity of the sample does not allow for determining any mediating variables contributing to the varying responses of families to unemployment.

A few quantitative studies are worthy of mention in reviewing the relatively small literature in this area. Miao (1974) conducted a macro-level investigation of the relationship between the unemployment rate and marital instability (i.e., separation and divorce) in both the U.S. white and non-white populations between 1950 and 1970. Findings indicated a positive lagged correlational relationship for both these populations between 1950 and 1960. However, for the period of 1960 to 1970, no consistent association was present between short-term changes in overall rates of marital instability and unemployment for either of the populations. In fact, the marital instability rates for both populations showed a steady increase, while respective unemployment rates showed no meaningful pattern of fluctuations over the course of the decade. It was speculated that a normative decreasing value of family life along with a decade (1960-1970) of relative economic prosperity were the major reasons behind finding no relationship between the variables during this time period.

More recent macro-level research showed an individual's joblessness associated with a higher likelihood of ensuing marital separation. Sawhill, Peabody, Jones and Caldwell (1975) reported that among white men in economically deprived families in the United States who became unemployed, the probability of suffering

from marital separation during the next four years rose from 7.6% to 24%. For similar low SES black men experiencing joblessness, the probability increased from 12% to 30%. Ambert (1980), in an analysis of the characteristics of divorced individuals, found that unemployed persons in Canada had a divorce rate seven times greater than that of employed persons.

Thomas, McCabe and Berry (1980), using pencil and paper questionnaires, queried 90 middle-aged unemployed men concerning the effects of their joblessness on their families. Their length of unemployment varied from one month to a little over a year. Prior to their job loss, these men had all worked in professional or managerial positions. Family areas explored through the questionnaire included financial situation, the husbands' relationships with their wives, their relationships with their children, and the quality of emotional support they received from their families.

Respondents reported that, despite significant drops in income, they were still able to subsist without major financial sacrifice or severe loss of status. Concerning relationships with their wives, 37% reported unemployment having a negative effect on their marital relations, while 15% reported improved relations with their wives since job loss and 48% reported no change in marital relations. With regard to relationships with their children, 17% of the respondents felt their joblessness had a negative effect, 11% perceived an improvement since their unemployment and 53% indicated no change. The level of emotional

support received from their families was considered adequate by 78% of the respondents.

Interestingly, a comparison of families suffering the greatest loss of income with those having the least loss showed no significant differences on any of the measures of family relationships. Nevertheless, as previously mentioned, most respondents perceived minimal financial difficulties being associated with their unemployment. The white-collar socioeconomic status of these respondents prior to their unemployment likely warded off or at least delayed the onset of financial problems.

In discussing their results, Thomas et al. suggested that unemployment may not be as disruptive of family relationships in the current era as it appeared to be in earlier decades (i.e., during the Great Depression). They identified three social trends which may be contributing to neutralizing some of the impact of unemployment on families: a) improved financial safety nets for the unemployed (e.g., unemployment insurance, welfare); b) changes in the psychological importance of work, whereby alternatives to work are becoming more viable; c) changes in sex-role stereotyping, allowing role changes in families more readily. However, these were speculative interpretations of the results, since potentially important mediating variables such as sex-role attitudes, previous experience of unemployment, household task allotment, and marital power structure were not investigated in the study.

Some obvious weaknesses in the Thomas et al. study diminish the overall validity of the results. The cross-sectional, retrospective nature of the data base allowed for the possibility of distortion by respondents. With respondents consisting solely of the unemployed father/husband in the household, reliability of the results remains tentative at best. The homogeneity of the sample concerning age (i.e., 35-54 years of age) and type of work (i.e., professional or managerial) limits the generalizability of the findings.

A second significant quantitative study in the area was undertaken by Liem (1983). Their study examined the reactions of 40 blue-collar families and 40 white-collar families experiencing the involuntary job loss of the father of the household. These families were matched for comparison with control families in which the husbands were fully employed on the variables of work status of the wife, locality, family life-cycle stage, and occupation of the husband. All families had at least one child under 18 years of age living at home. Data was collected longitudinally over a one-year period by means of four lagged interviews involving both husbands and wives.

Results showed both blue-collar and white-collar unemployed husbands to have significantly higher levels of psychiatric symptoms following both one and four months of joblessness. Those individuals who were re-employed by the fourth month following initial job loss regained comparable levels of psychological well-being as those continuously employed.

Wives from both blue-collar and white-collar unemployed families showed a delayed negative reaction to their husband's job loss in that they appeared initially supportive of their husbands, reporting similar low levels of psychiatric symptoms as the control wives immediately following job loss by their husbands. However, at the second interview stage, following four months of joblessness by their husbands, wives reported suffering from significantly more depression, anxiety and interpersonal difficulties than control wives or those wives whose husbands had become re-employed. In addition, by the fourth month of husband/father unemployment, families showed decrements in overall cohesion, and organization and increases in conflict.

It appeared that the husband's functioning diminished shortly after job loss while the wife's functioning deteriorated over time if the husband remained unemployed. The unemployed husband's difficulties would seem to have changed the family environment, affecting both individuals within it, along with family system dynamics.

Liem (1983) interprets his findings as evidence of a "ripple effect" of unemployment within the family, whereby a husband's joblessness contributes to both negative interactions within the family system and stress-based difficulties to lateral family members. The results and interpretation of this study are fairly credible given the longitudinal nature of the research design. In particular, the return to pre-morbid levels of functioning by the re-employed group allows for some causal inference that

unemployment leads to emotional strain for spouses and stress on the family system. However, it should be noted that the study did not specifically examine marital dyadic relationship variables nor any mediators of the dependent measures.

Similarly, Cochrane and Stopes-Roe (1981) conducted intense interviews with 150 men and 109 women in urban areas of England using the Symptom Rating Test as one of their measures. Wives with unemployed husbands reported higher levels of psychiatric symptomatology in comparison to wives whose husbands were employed. Depressive and anxiety symptomatology appeared especially prevalent in these wives of unemployed husbands. This increased symptomatology was interpreted as being partially due to the material hardship and status decline experienced by a marital couple once the husband becomes unemployed. However, this interpretation remains speculative, as the cross-sectional nature of the design leaves some ambiguity as to the direction of causal influence. Again, this study did not investigate dyadic reactions within the marital relationship associated with the unemployment of a husband.

Correlational research by Brinkerhoff and White (1978) compared husbands' income and employment history with marital dyadic properties in a marginally employed white population. Their sample was drawn from two communities in northwestern U.S.A. which relied heavily on the seasonal industries of fishing and logging. It consisted of 89 couples whose male members had a history of underemployment or unemployment. Most of these

individuals worked for part of the year at manual type jobs and 38% of them were employed full-time at the time of the study.

Husbands and wives were interviewed separately. Interviews consisted of a series of Likert-type questions about marital role performance and marital satisfaction. A husband's economic role performance was operationalized by measures involving income (i.e., total family income in the year preceding the study) and employment status (i.e., number of months of unemployment in the year prior to the study). A wife's household role performance was examined by measuring the extent of her participation in household tasks and her satisfaction with the division of labor. The degree of social integration or expressive exchange was measured by a cumulative score on nine questions asking about the extent of husband-wife participation in a variety of activities together (e.g., eating meals, going to movies). The marital satisfaction measure consisted of seven items from Bowerman's (1957) General Evaluation of Marriage.

Brinkerhoff and White found that the husband's economic role performance had no significant correlation with marital satisfaction or with the organization of marital roles. In addition, no significant relationship between marital role performance and marital satisfaction existed, even when economic variables were controlled. Given these findings, it was suggested that a husband's income and unemployment was not significantly related to marital satisfaction, nor were they mediated through the marital role variables. Finally, an interaction effect

indicated that, among the economically marginal couples in the study, subjective economic satisfaction was significantly related to marital satisfaction. On the other hand, regarding more economically stable couples, economic perceptions did not appear to play a substantial role in their marital satisfaction.

Brinkerhoff and White's conclusion that a husband's level unemployment over the course of one year does not appear to have a direct, additive effect on either marital satisfaction or the organization of marital roles may be somewhat misleading, given the sample and employment status variable used in the study. Specifically, the sample consisted of couples whose lifestyle included frequent unemployment. The nature of their communities, with the heavy economic reliance on seasonal industries (i.e., fishing, logging), can be expected to promote a cyclical form of unemployment, with work availability being determined by the time of the year. It would seem likely that after living in these communities for awhile and experiencing these fluctuations in work availability, couples would adjust to some extent to the economic circumstances of the location. In essence, over time they would attempt to build a lifestyle congruent with their situation. Therefore, the findings are not likely generalizable to married couples living in communities where unemployment is not an expected part of the lifestyle. Furthermore, the study's conclusion concerning unemployment and marital satisfaction is misleading in that it's design did not involve a comparison between couples with working husbands and couples with jobless

husbands. It can be argued that the employment status variable (i.e., number of months of husband's joblessness in the year prior to the study) did not sufficiently discriminate the couples in terms of the employment status of the husband. The immediate work situation of a husband would seem to be more critical than employment history in terms of investigating unemployment and marital satisfaction.

Unemployment and Social Support

Up to this point, the literature review has focused on studies investigating the impact of an individual's unemployment on families, marriages, and spouses. Yet spouses, families and friends can in turn exert their own counter influence on the unemployment experience of an individual by supplying them with what is commonly known as "social support".

Cobb (1976) defined social support as "information leading the subject to believe that he is cared for and loved..., esteemed" and a member of "a network of communication and mutual obligation" (p. 300). Social support is generally conceptualized as including both instrumental and emotional dimensions. Instrumental forms of support would include the direct provision of material resources, services, information and advice. Emotional support would consist of such things as the expression of positive affect (e.g., liking, empathy, encouragement), the affirmation of attitudes and values, and the communication of acceptance.

In depth case studies of unemployed workers and their families during the Great Depression provide some evidence that interpersonal relationships with family members and peers can moderate the negative effects of unemployment. Once again, Komarovsky (1935) provided qualitative data regarding this issue, noting that the nature of the pre-unemployment marital relations seemed to play some part in the degree of deterioration of individuals and families facing unemployment. A section of his structured interviews examined retrospectively the quality of the pre-unemployment marital relations. Specifically, he reported that positive marital relations based on love and respect appeared to promote better coping on the part of unemployed husbands and their families.

Bakke (1940), in a further case study, investigated economic support as an important mediator for individuals adjusting to joblessness. In focusing on family conditions encouraging optimal functioning during prolonged job loss, Bakke found that families suffering the least disruption were those in which family members assumed some economic responsibilities in the wake of the job loss of the primary breadwinner.

In describing the varied responses to job loss in an economically troubled English community gathered from observations and interviews of families experiencing unemployment, Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel (1972) suggested that both family and social relationships helped buffer the potential negative effects for some of the individuals examined. Both Bakke (1940) and Jahoda et

al. (1972) noted that, in some of the cases they investigated, prolonged unemployment seemed related to the deterioration of supportive relationships which had served as buffers in the earlier stages of job loss.

Again, in reviewing these case studies addressing social support as a moderating influence of the impact of unemployment, the methodological limitations of retrospective data with no control groups has to be taken into account. Furthermore, the construct of social support as a particular quality of interpersonal relationships was inferred in these studies, not measured directly.

The most significant quantitative contemporary research on the role of social support as mediating the consequences of unemployment involves a longitudinal study of blue-collar factory workers losing their jobs due to plant closings (Cobb & Kasl, 1977; Kasl, Gore & Cobb, 1975). Gore (1978) specifically examined findings from this study regarding social support. The experimental sample consisted of 54 rural and 46 urban, married, unemployed blue-collar workers involved in two plant shutdowns. A control group was made up of 74 individuals continuously employed in similar occupations as the experimental sample.

Data were collected by public health nurses who visited both experimental and control subjects five times over the course of a two year period. Social support was measured using a 13-item index examining the extent of supportive and affiliative relations with wife, friends, and relatives. Dependent health measures

included level of depressive affect, somatic symptoms, and cholesterol levels. Depression was measured by a 26 item index of anxiety-tension, self-esteem and sadness. This index was formed through an item analysis of scales used by Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960) and by Langner and Michael (1963). The measure of somatic symptoms involved counting the number of complaints out of a list of 13 physical symptoms which respondents reported for a two-week period. Cholesterol levels were taken from obtained blood samples. Other variables measured were weeks unemployed, economic deprivation, and perceived economic deprivation.

Overall, Gore's findings showed the negative health consequences of job loss as being least severe for those workers perceiving spouses, friends, and relatives as supportive during their unemployment. Specifically, during their periods of joblessness, the supported subjects in comparison to the unsupported subjects appeared to be experiencing lower levels of stress, as indicated by lower elevations and less change in measures of cholesterol, somatic symptoms, self-blame, and perceived economic deprivation.

Gore (1978) concluded that social support is a potent provider of self-esteem separate from instrumental accomplishments such as work. On the other hand, the loss of work combined with a low level of social support exacerbates the stress associated with joblessness by removing an individual's major source of self-esteem.

The measures of social support in this study were fairly global, making it difficult to ascertain and identify the nature of the support being provided. Given that both supported and unsupported groups of subjects had similar unemployment experiences, as evidenced by their reported number of weeks unemployed and levels of economic deprivation, it seems likely that the support was emotional in nature rather than instrumental. However, differentiating the relative contributions of the sources of social support (i.e., spouse, children, relatives or friends) cannot be accomplished from the data at hand.

It would seem likely that at least some of the socially supported, married, unemployed individuals in this and other studies (Bakke, 1940; Jahoda et al., 1972) experienced stable marital relations as an important source of social support in the face of their joblessness. In essence, these studies provide more indirect evidence for varying marital responses (i.e., supportive vs. non-supportive) to unemployment.

However, the differences between the supportive and non-supportive marriages in the face of unemployment in these studies were, for the most part, not determined. Gore's (1978) findings did indicate that rural men consistently reported higher levels of social support than urban men. This would suggest that the social milieu is somehow associated with social support. It was explained that possibly the rural subjects experienced stronger social ties because of their ethnic and cultural background.

Summary of Unemployment Literature and Statement of Proposed Research

In summary, numerous studies on unemployed individuals has determined the high likelihood of involuntary joblessness resulting in lowered physical and psychological well-being. Overall, the size of the literature on involuntary unemployment and marital relations is quite small, fragmented and lacking in conceptual direction. Given the changing cultural norms in North America surrounding marital roles over the past two decades, many of the reviewed studies would be somewhat dated and not necessarily generalizable to the current situation.

Intuition, anecdotal evidence presented in the media (e.g., McGrath et al., 1983) and macro-level research findings (e.g., Ambert, 1980; Sawhill et al., 1975) suggest that unemployment is associated with marital problems. In addition, some micro-level empirical studies report a spread of negative effects and lowered well-being from unemployed husbands to their wives (Liem, 1983; Cochrane & Stopes-Roe, 1981). Nonetheless, some descriptive and empirical studies call into question the uniformity of negative effects associated with the unemployment of a husband (Brinkerhoff & White, 1978; Komarovsky, 1935; Marsden & Duff, 1975; Thomas, McCabe & Berry, 1980). Research focusing on social support and the unemployed individual would appear to further corroborate the diversity of marital responses to unemployment, as some individuals were the recipient of social support from their wives while others were not (Bakke, 1940; Gore, 1978; Jahoda et al., 1972; Komarovsky, 1935).

Table 1 illustrates this variability in research findings concerning marital relations in the context of the unemployment of the husband. Despite the presence of variability in marital reactions to unemployment within and across studies, there has been no systematic attempt to identify the significant variables which serve to mediate these different responses within a marital relationship. This would appear to be an issue worthy of investigation.

Conclusions in this area concerning the effects of unemployment on marital relations have been largely determined from descriptive research (Bakke, 1940; Komarovsky, 1935; Marsden & Duff, 1975), and macro-level investigations (Ambert, 1980; Miao, 1980; Sawhill et al., 1975). While these forms of research can be useful in the early stages of the investigation of an area, they tend to be limiting in formulating a conceptual model. Some micro-level empirical research has been undertaken (Brinkerhoff & White, 1978; Cochrane & Stopes-Roe, 1980; Liem, 1983; Thomas, McCabe & Berry, 1980) and more of this genre of research is necessary to examine in a more specific manner the relationship between unemployment and marital relations.

As outlined in the above review, a large proportion of the undertaken studies examining unemployment and marriages suffer from methodological flaws such as small sample size (Komarovsky, 1935; Marsden & Duff, 1975), retrospective data (Komarovsky, 1935; Thomas et al., 1980), imprecise definition of unemployment (Brinkerhoff & White, 1978) and the lack of controls or a

Table 1

Summary of Research Findings: Type of Influence of Unemployment
of Husbands on Marital Relations

<u>Type of Study</u>	<u>Type of Influence</u>		
	<u>Positive</u>	<u>Negative</u>	<u>Neutral</u>
<u>Descriptive Studies</u>			
Kamarovsky (1935)	X	X	X
Marsden and Duff (1975)	X	X	
<u>Macro-Level Studies</u>			
Ambert (1980)		X	
Miao (1974)		X (1951-1960)	X (1961-1970)
Sawhill, Peabody, Jones and Caldwell (1975)		X	
<u>Micro-Level Studies</u>			
Brinkerhoff and White (1978)			X
Cochrane and Stopes-Roe (1980)		X	
Liem (1983)		X	
Thomas, McCabe and Berry (1980)	X	X	X

comparison group of "employed" couples (Brinkerhoff & White, 1978; Cochrane & Stopes-Roe, 1980; Thomas, McCabe & Berry, 1980). This latter methodological concern would seem particularly salient. A fundamental issue for this research area would involve determining the differences between "unemployed" couples and "employed" couples in terms of the interactive characteristics or dyadic action patterns of marital partners.

Therefore, the intent of the proposed research is to extend previous equivocal research findings by utilizing a fine-grained model of marital relations. In this manner, marriages with husbands involuntarily employed can be compared with marriages with employed husbands in terms of micro-relationship variables. As well, it will explore variables which may mediate the varying reactions of unemployment within a marriage.

More specifically, the proposed research will use a social exchange model of marriages which delineates dyadic exchanges within marital relationships. Within this framework, a husband's employment is considered to play a significant part in these exchanges. As a result, the model will allow for an investigation of the effects of the husband's unemployment within the context of these exchanges. The marital reciprocity role model of Scanzoni (1970, 1972) has been chosen as the marital exchange framework for the proposed research. The nature of this model and the development of research hypotheses will be discussed in the following section.

Marital Role Reciprocity Model

Scanzoni (1970, 1972) developed a conceptual model for marriages based on the social exchange theory of Thibault and Kelly (1959). The model defines marriage as an agreement where two persons share instrumental and expressive interdependencies through a reciprocal process of ongoing transactions and exchanges. Instrumental components of the marital exchange would include economic contributions, decision-making behaviors, and performance of household tasks (e.g., childcare, cleaning, cooking, etc...). Expressive parts of the marital exchange refer to the diversity of primary interactions between husbands and wives (e.g., companionship, communication, understanding, sexual behaviors).

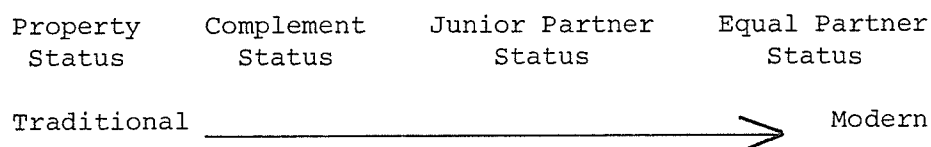
In differentiating the roles of husbands and wives in the instrumental and expressive areas of marriages, Scanzoni presented them as making specific contributions to each other according to the marital exchange agreement. Within the separate instrumental and expressive dimensions, husband and wife roles have specific obligations they are asked to fulfill according to an agreed upon marital exchange structure.

More specifically, Scanzoni presented marriages as exhibiting a range of possibilities in terms of the sex-role differentiation associated with spousal instrumental and expressive exchanges within the relationship. As delineated in Figure 1, this range of possibilities constitutes a continuum with a marriage's position on it determined by a wife's status in relation to her husband's

in the overall marital exchange structure. This status is defined according to the types and ratios of contributions attached to husband and wife roles within both instrumental and expressive dimensions.

Figure 1

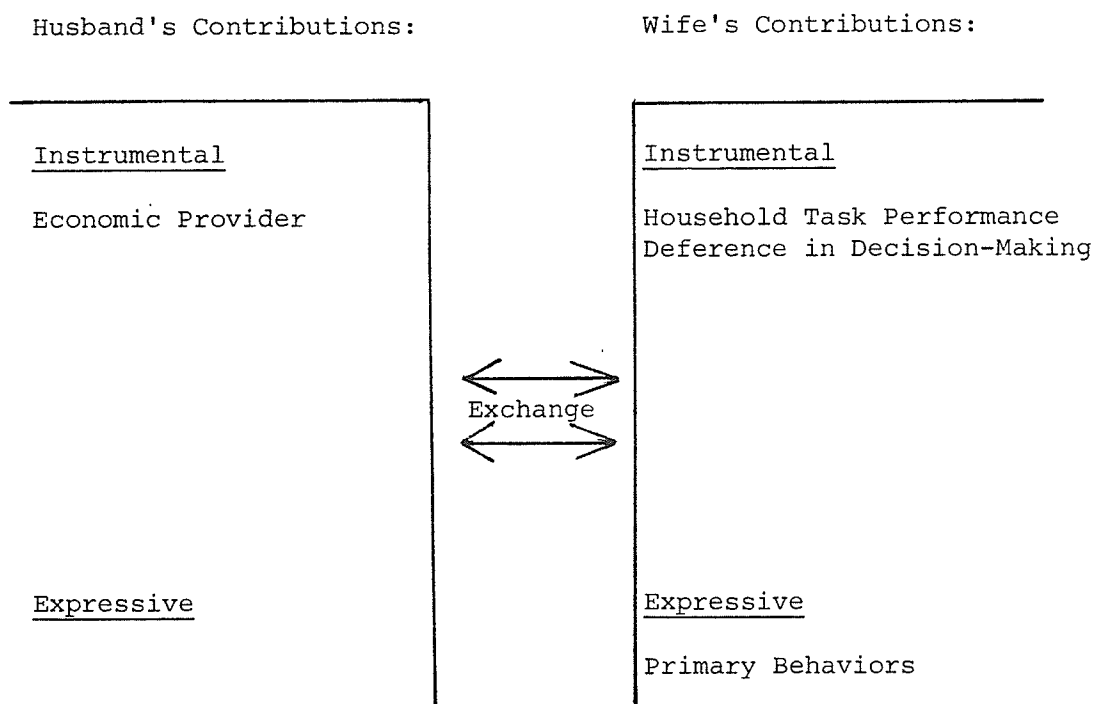
Continuum of Marital Arrangements Based on Wife's Status
in Relation to her Husband's (Scanzoni, 1970, 1972)



As can be seen in Figure 1, the continuum extends from marriages with wives having "Property" status at one end to marriages with wives of "Equal Partner" status at the other end. Wives having "Complement" and "Junior Partner" statuses fall in between these two endpoints.

For those wives with "Property" status (Figure 2), instrumental and expressive contributions are numerous while what they receive in return consists primarily of economic support emanating from the husband's work. Husbands within this status arrangement correspondingly perform negligible expressive obligations while receiving much in return in both the instrumental and expressive areas. Scanzoni argues that the increase of women's rights over the course of this century has led to an extinction of these kinds of marriages in modern day North America.

Figure 2
Exchanges in Marriages with Wife Having
"Property" Status (Scanzoni, 1970, 1972)



In comparison, a wife with "Complement" status in relation to her husband receives significantly more from him, particularly in the expressive realm. As outlined in Figure 3, the husband's expressive contributions in this marital arrangement have increased to equal his wife's in quantity and kind. However, differences in spousal contributions remain in the instrumental area with husbands assuming exclusively the role of economic provider while wives define their role to complement their husband's work, making instrumental contributions as a homemaker and major child care agent, and by deferring in decision-making. At the same time, husbands are expected to make some further instrumental contributions by occasionally helping with household responsibilities and sharing some of their authority, even though these remain relatively minor.

The wife with "Junior Partner" status can be applied to the increasing number of married women who engage in paid work outside of the household. In these kinds of marriages (Figure 4), the wife's instrumental receipts from the husband increase in that, as a result of her contribution to family economic resources through work, the husband reciprocates by giving her greater authority and bargaining power regarding family decisions. However, wives within this arrangement do retain a subordinate status, as the husband is continued to be defined as the major family provider and wives are expected to assume both work responsibilities and a high level of household duties.

The wife with "Equal Partner" status in relation to husbands characterizes marriages where role interchangeability exists

Figure 3
Exchanges in Marriages with Wife Having
"Complement" Status (Scanzoni, 1970, 1972).

Husband's Contributions:

Instrumental

Economic Provider

Expressive

Primary Behaviors

Wife's Contributions:

Instrumental

Household Task Performance
Deference in Decision-Making

Expressive

Primary Behaviors



Figure 4

Exchanges in Marriages with Wife Having
"Junior Partner" Status (Scanzoni, 1970, 1972)

Husband's Contributions:

Instrumental

Major: Economic Provider

Minor: Household Task
Performance
Some Sharing of
Decision-MakingExpressive

Primary Behaviors

Wife's Contributions:

InstrumentalMajor: Household Task
Performance
Deference in
Decision-Making

Minor: Economic Provider

Expressive

Primary Behaviors



rather than role differentiation. Equal marital partners would be both providers and homemakers in an interchangeable sense. As demonstrated in Figure 5, both husbands and wives make equitable economic contributions, share decision-making influence, and perform similar levels of household obligations.

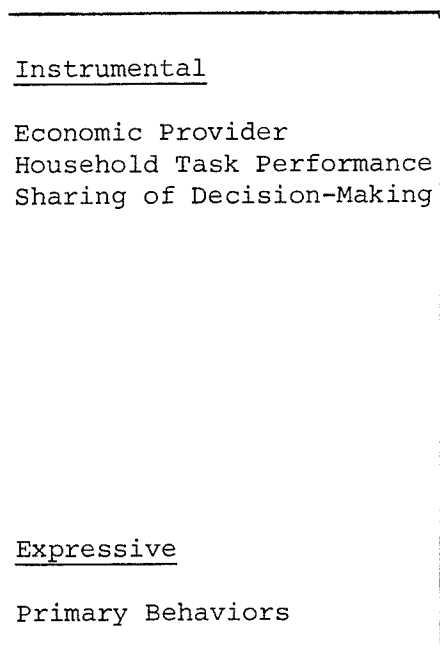
Overall, within all the marital arrangements explicated, a husband's economic support forms a major contribution in the marital exchange, for which the wife trades both instrumental and expressive contributions in return. On the continuum of possible marital arrangements, a husband's contributions go from being exclusively economic in "Property" status marriages to being more diverse as one moves down the continuum towards "Equal Partner" status marriages. Nonetheless, a husband's economic performance remains a substantial contribution even in "Equal Partner" types of marriages. However, one of the fundamental aspects of these latter types of marriages involves the presence of interchangeability and flexibility within spousal roles, so that economic support can potentially be replaced by other contributions.

Scanzoni (1980) examined the validity of classifying modern marriages into the above-described schema. A sample of 435 young white wives living in the eastern part of the U.S.A. were categorized according to Scanzoni's marital types, by their responses to the question: "Would you say it is mostly your husband's duty, mostly your duty, or do you and your husband share equally the duty to provide the family's financial support?" Women in the three resultant contemporary marital categories

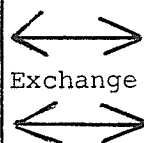
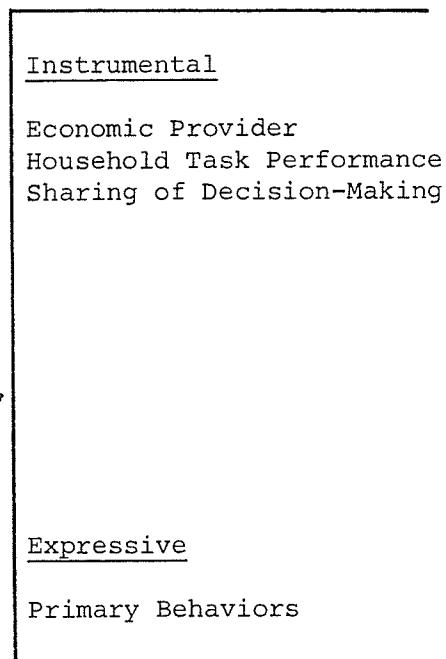
Figure 5

Exchanges in Marriages with Wife Having
"Equal Partner" Status (Scanzoni, 1970, 1972)

Husband's Contributions:



Wife's Contributions:



(i.e., wife as Equal Partner, Junior Partner or Complement) were then compared on five clusters of variables which are theorized to differentiate the three types. These included occupational commitment, income, household task performance, fertility control and sex role preference.

Findings in the study showed Equal Partner wives as displaying greater labor force commitment, earning higher income, experiencing more help from their husbands with household tasks, having more control over family planning so as to enhance occupational participation, and expressing less traditional sex roles than Junior Partner wives. Similarly, the Junior Partner wives were significantly different from Complement wives on all five variables (i.e., more work commitment, higher earnings, more sharing in household tasks, more fertility control rigor, and less traditional in sex role attitudes). It was concluded from these findings that the classification schema was valid in differentiating modern marriages. Findings would also suggest that marriages could be placed on the theorized continuum of marital types (i.e. wife with "Complement" status to wife with "Equal Partner" status), according to the expressed sex-role preference of the partners in the marital relationship.

Historically in Western countries, the highly traditional role differentiation contained in marriages where wives assumed the described "Property" status developed out of the industrial revolution of the early 1800s, where husbands were clearly expected to be the family breadwinner while wives reciprocated as

homemakers and childcare agents. It is only recently, in the wake of women obtaining expanded legal rights, the raising of public consciousness concerning the equality of individuals, and women's entry into the outside workforce that a transition in marital roles is taking place.

Research conducted in the 1970's has documented this gradual transition in sex-role norms within marriages, from traditional differentiation towards the more modern egalitarianism (Duncan & Duncan, 1978; Iglehart, 1978; Mason, Czajba & Arber, 1976; Scanzoni, 1978; Thornton & Freedman, 1979). Specifically, in relation to the Scanzoni model of marital types, women would appear to have moved from having "Property" status within marriages to "Complement", "Junior Partner" and "Equal Partner" statuses (Scanzoni, 1980; Bernard, 1981). In fact, with the current prevalence of working wives, a majority of marriages would seem to reflect wives with "Junior Partner" and "Equal Partner" statuses. Recent statistics show the percentage of married women participating in the labor force in Canada has increased from 20% in 1951 to 60% in 1981 (Labour Canada, 1983).

This increasing economic contribution of women in marriages has encouraged a concomitant change in the husband's role in both the instrumental and expressive areas of the relationship. Bernard (1981) commented that this transition in husband's roles in contemporary marriages has involved a lessening of economic provider obligations, offset by an increase in expressive contributions and greater sharing of household responsibilities

and childcare. While husbands appear receptive of the change in expectations in the expressive area of marriage, they appear to be slower in adopting household responsibilities as a significant part of their redefined role.

An examination of time budget studies of household task allocation in marriages with working wives suggest that a husband's performance of household duties did not change initially subsequent to wives entering the workforce in the 1960s and only started to show small increases in the late 1970s (Berk & Berk, 1979; Pleck, 1979; Pleck & Lang, 1979; Robinson, 1977; Vanek, 1974; Walker, 1970; Walker & Woods, 1976). In a review of research in this area, Scanzoni and Fox (1980) concluded that:

- a) working wives continue to have the primary responsibility for household and family functioning;
- b) employment status of wives has minimal effects on a husband's contribution to domestic tasks;
- c) working wives assume both work and domestic responsibilities at the expense of leisure and sleep time;
- d) cumulative family time devoted to housework decreased following the employment of the wife; and
- e) older children show increased performance of household tasks in families with working wives.

In sum, while there seems to be some movement towards more equitable and interchangeable marital roles as defined in Scanzoni's "Equal Partner" status marriages, the data on working wives and research on household task performance would suggest that many current day marriages adopt an exchange agreement which approximates that described with the wife as "Junior Partner". At

the same time, there continues to be marriages with wives having the described "Complement" status while those with wives as "Property" status have been virtually extinct. This is likely to be the marital pattern in the large percentage of marriages in which the wife is not working. As well, it is expected that a significant number of dual-career couples have an "Equal Partner" arrangement (Scanzoni, 1980).

Atkinson and Boles (1984) proposed a fourth contemporary marital arrangement, termed wives with "Senior Partner" status. In these marriages, the wife's occupation is perceived as more important than the husband's, such that the marital relationship and family life is organized around the wife's career. In addition, wives in these marriages have occupational superiority over their husbands in terms of occupational status and income. Based on income data, the prevalence of these kinds of marriages is surprisingly significant, as figures from the 1982 Current Population Survey (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983) showed wives earning more than their husbands in 12% of all U.S. couples.

Of interest in terms of marital exchanges, Atkinson and Boles examined the division of household labor in these kinds of marriages and found that the wife spent at least as much and at times slightly more time on household chores than their husbands. No data was collected on decision-making power or expressive forms of exchanges in these marriages, so it remains difficult ascertaining a complete picture of the marital exchange pattern in them.

Marital Satisfaction.

From the presented model of potential marital arrangements, conjugal satisfaction and stability in the marriage is dependent on the degree to which equitable exchanges take place between the spouses. It is expected that as long as the reciprocal dynamics are continued in both the instrumental and expressive areas of the relationship, a certain maintenance and stability of the husband-wife association will be present.

A major contribution of husbands in all the presented marital arrangements involves that of economic provider through work performance. This contribution also conveys social status upon the family. Scanzoni (1972) perceived the foundation of the exchange processes in marriages as resting heavily on a husband's ability to fulfill this provider role:

In simplified form, we may suggest that the husband in modern society exchanges his status for marital solidarity...Specifically, the greater the degree of the husband's integration into the opportunity system (the more his education, the higher the job status, the greater the income), the more fully and extensively is the interlocking network of marital rights and duties performed in reciprocal fashion. The economic rewards he provides motivate the wife to respond positively to him, and her response to him in turn gives rise to a continuing cycle of rectitude and gratitude (p. 65).

Numerous studies have shown a strong positive relationship between a husband's socioeconomic status (i.e., occupation, education, income) and both levels of marital satisfaction (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Scanzoni, 1970; 1975), and marital stability (Glick & Norton, 1971; Monahan, 1962). The findings of these studies are consistent with the presented model, as it predicts that greater instrumental benefits in a marriage, especially of an economic type, will generate greater expressive satisfactions within that marriage.

Given the saliency of a husband's job as an instrumental contribution to the contracted exchange agreement within marriage, it is expected that a husband's unemployment could significantly reduce significantly his contribution towards the overall exchange. The resultant dynamics following a husband's job loss would likely involve significant imbalance in the exchange process between spouses. Corresponding decreases in a wife's contributions can be expected and dissatisfaction on both the spouse's part is likely to ensue. Therefore, at a global level based on the presented theory of marital role reciprocity, it is hypothesized that marriages in which the husband is unemployed will present lower levels of marital satisfaction being experienced by both husband and wife when compared with those in which the husband is employed.

At a more specific level, the model would predict that the loss of a husband's economic and status contributions to a marriage through unemployment would result in diminution of a

wife's contributions in household task performance and decision-making deference, and in the expressive area of the marital relationship. Furthermore, it is expected that the degree of diminution of these contributions in the household task and decision-making areas would serve to mediate the level of a wife's marital satisfaction associated with the husband's job loss.

Household Task Performance.

The presented marital reciprocity role model conceptualizes the spousal exchanges as involving both instrumental and expressive contributions. In the instrumental realm in contemporary marriages, a husband's contribution can involve primarily serving as economic provider or include both economic and household task performance. In return, the wife's instrumental duties can comprise primarily of assuming household and childcare responsibilities as well as showing deference to the husband in the family decision-making process or involve a combination of employment and household contributions.

Given the prominence of a husband's work performance in the overall marital exchange regardless of the type of marital arrangement, it can be expected that a husband's loss of work will result in some diminution in the wife's household task performance in response to the imbalance in exchanges.

Therefore, based on the marital reciprocity role model, it is hypothesized that marriages in which the husband is unemployed will show lower levels of household task performance by wives than those in which the husband is employed.

Furthermore, given the described instrumental exchange which takes place between spouses, it would be expected that a husband's involvement in household and childcare task areas will mediate to some extent the relationship between a husband's unemployment and marital satisfaction. Specifically, the degree to which a husband takes on household and childcare duties would serve as an instrumental contribution in the marital exchange which might offset losses in the husband's instrumental contribution incurred through job loss.

Therefore, based on the marital reciprocity role model, it is hypothesized that household task performance will mediate the level of a wife's marital satisfaction in marriages where the husband is unemployed, such that the greater the husband's involvement in household tasks, the greater the level of her marital satisfaction.

Marital Decision-Making Power.

Rollins and Bahr (1976) defined marital decision-making power as "the relative ability of the two marriage partners to influence the behavior of each other" (p. 619). The marital reciprocity role model presents marital decision-making power as being an integral component of the instrumental exchanges in a marital agreement. Specifically, in marriages in which a wife assumes a "Junior" partner or "Complement" role in relation to her husband, a husband's fulfillment of economic duties is exchanged for compliance by the wife in marital decision-making. On the other hand, in "Equal Partner" types of marriages, marital

decision-making is expected to involve similar levels of input from both spouses as other instrumental contributions are more or less equitable between them.

Scanzoni (1972) terms the authority granted to husbands through this exchange process as "legitimate power" in that it is based on the level of economic rewards husbands are able to supply to their wives. Findings from numerous studies investigating marital decision-making power are consistent with the expected instrumental exchange of a husband's economic contributions for a wife's deference in marital decision-making (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Centers, Raven & Rodrigues, 1971; Fox, 1973; Safilios-Rothschild, 1976). Basically, these studies showed that the greater the economic resources (i.e., income, occupational status, education) a husband brought to a marriage, the more decision-making he was accorded in the marital relationship. The findings confirmed the notion, contained in the presented marital model, that husbands in modern day marriages must bargain for legitimate power.

In addition, according to Scanzoni's marital model, a situation of inequity would develop in those marriages where the level of a husband's marital decision-making power exceeds in perceived worth his instrumental contribution to the marriage. In these situations, some of the power would be non-legitimate. Lowered marital satisfaction can be expected since a wife is likely to be dissatisfied with a husband's exercise of non-legitimate power, as it represents an unfair, inequitable exchange.

Given the exchange within marriages of economic resources for decision-making power, some resolution of the inequitable marital situation following a husband's job loss might involve having the wife assume more marital decision-making power. Therefore, based on the marital reciprocity role model, it is hypothesized that the level of a husband's decision-making power in those marriages in which he is unemployed will be less than in those in which he is employed.

Similarly, as a result of these exchange dynamics, it is hypothesized that the level of a husband's decision-making power will mediate the level of marital satisfaction experienced by wives in marriages where the husband is unemployed, such that the greater the unemployed husband's level of decision-making power, the lower the wife's level of marital satisfaction.

Expressive Exchanges.

According to the presented model, a further significant part of the marital exchange network is the expressive exchanges which take place between spouses. As previously mentioned, these include such primary behaviors as companionship, communication, understanding and sex. Performance of expressive duties combines with those in the instrumental area to make up the overall contribution a spouse makes in the marital relationship. Scanzoni's model conceptualizes both husbands and wives in the various contemporary marital arrangements as contributing similar levels and types of expressive behaviors to the relationship. At the same time, he also specifies that expressive exchanges between

spouses are generated in part from the instrumental exchanges. In particular, the husband's performance as an economic provider is considered a salient catalytic factor to expressive exchanges.

Given this relationship between instrumental and expressive exchanges, it is expected that the loss of a husband's job will result in some diminution of a wife's expressive contributions. Therefore, based on the marital reciprocity role model, it is hypothesized that marriages in which the husband is unemployed will show lower levels of expressive behaviors between spouses than those in which the husband is employed.

Other Potential Mediating Variables

As explicated in the previous section, the proposed model would predict that household task performance and decision-making power are mediating variables of the level of a wife's marital satisfaction in marriages in which the husband is unemployed. Further mediators worthy of consideration from the presented model would include sex-role preference, perceived level of financial difficulties and level of psychological well-being.

Sex-Role Preference.

Sex-role preference refers to the degree of role-interchangeability spouses will allow within their marital system. This construct places marriages on a continuum from "traditional" to "modern" depending on the perspectives concerning sex-roles within a marriage (Scanzoni, 1980). A traditional perspective towards marital roles holds the division of labor in home and society to be regulated by gender. It calls for rigid

sex-role differentiation within the instrumental and expressive areas of marital functioning. Some stratification is expected in this perspective, with a husband's occupational goals taking precedence over the goals of his wife.

A modern perspective of marital roles allows for role-interchangeability between spouses within the instrumental and expressive areas of marital functioning. It is highly flexible concerning potential marital roles for spouses, with gender not being a factor in marital role definition. Moreover, the interests of the wife are equal in significance to those of the husband.

As explained in the previous section delineating the marital reciprocity role model, Scanzoni (1972) conceptualizes marriages falling on a continuum depending on a wife's status in relation to her husband, with wife as "Complement" status at one end and wife as "Equal Partner" status at the other end. The wife with "Property" status is presented as having highly rigid sex-role specialization within the marriage while the wife with "Equal Partner" status has maximum role interchangeability. The construct of sex-role preference has been shown to be a discriminator as to where marriages fall on this latter continuum of marital types (Scanzoni, 1980).

It would be expected that the sex-role preference within a marriage would be an important mediating variable of the relationship between the unemployment of the husband and marital satisfaction. A marriage experiencing the unemployment of the

husband in which marital partners hold a traditional perspective of sex role preference, with fairly rigid role specialization, may not be flexible enough to allow for the necessary negotiation, and re-structuring of exchange agreements between spouses in order to reach a new consensus. Expectations surrounding the husband's contribution to the marriage remain in the provider-economic realm and no amount of negotiation between spouses would enable the husband to find an adequate replacement for these contributions.

On the other hand, in marriages experiencing the unemployment of the husband in which marital partners hold a more modern perspective of sex roles, allowing for some role interchangeability, there would likely be some room for negotiating a new reciprocity agreement or a new balance in exchanges. In these types of marriages, husbands would be more likely to justly contribute to marital exchange agreements in other realms following job loss.

For example, some role reversal might be accomplished in modern marriages experiencing unemployment, whereby the wife works and makes economic contributions while the husband reciprocates by performing more household and childrearing duties. Although this may illustrate an extreme case of role interchangeability, it could play an important part in a couple's ability to reach a new reciprocal arrangement of rights and duties following a husband's job loss.

Therefore, based on the marital role reciprocity model, it is hypothesized that sex role preference of spouses will mediate the

marital satisfaction of both husbands and wives in marriages experiencing the unemployment of the husband, such that the more "modern" the marital gender role perspective, the higher the marital satisfaction.

Perceived Level of Financial Difficulties.

As previously mentioned, a husband's job provides both financial and status rewards as significant instrumental contributions to the marital system. There are mixed findings in the literature concerning a framework of marriage such as Scanzoni's (1972), which contends that socioeconomic rewards such as income and social prestige levels are causally linked to favorable marital outcomes. Numerous studies support this contention, as they have shown family socioeconomic status, usually measured by both a husband's occupational prestige and income level, to have significant positive associations with marital cohesiveness (Levinger, 1965), marital satisfaction (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Scanzoni, 1970; 1975), the development of positive interpersonal exchange within the marriage (Komarovsky, 1962; Scanzoni, 1970; 1975), and marital stability (Bernard, 1966; Cutright, 1971; Glick & Norton, 1971; Kephart, 1955; Monahan, 1962).

On the other hand, some recent studies have reported little or no relationship between objective levels of income within a marriage and reports of marital quality and stability. Galligan and Bahr (1978) found that a husband's income showed no relation to marital stability when the level of family assets was

controlled (i.e. ownership of home, business, farm, real estate, stocks and bonds). However, family asset level did show a significant positive correlation with marital stability regardless of income level. It was concluded that a key factor to marital stability was the ability of spouses to effectively manage their economic resources.

Brinkerhoff and White (1978) found only a small association between income level and reports of marital satisfaction in a sample of working-class couples faced with economic uncertainty due to cyclical unemployment and underemployment. Nonetheless, there was a significant positive relationship between a measure of subjective economic satisfaction and marital satisfaction within the more marginal couples facing the highest levels of unemployment.

Glenn and Weaver (1978) performed a multiple regression analysis on data from three national surveys in the U.S., in order to investigate relationships between a number of variables including family income and marital happiness. Their results showed virtually no relationship existing between these two variables.

Using a stratified sample of 120 couples drawn from diverse levels of SES, Jorgensen (1978) examined the relationships between economic and social status contributions of both husband and wife to the marriage and a number of indicators of perceived marital quality, including perceived role competence of spouse, marital satisfaction and dyadic commitment. Findings showed a moderate

relationship between the socioeconomic rewards (i.e., income, occupational prestige, educational attainment) in a marriage and the two very specific marital quality measures as perceived by wives of: a) perceptions of husbands as competent providers, and b) reports of satisfaction with spouse's income. Interestingly, a husband's perceptions of marital quality appeared unaffected by varying socioeconomic reward levels.

Studies finding little or no relationship between objective levels of a husband's socioeconomic contributions and marital quality would not necessarily be inconsistent with Scanzoni's (1972) marital role reciprocity model. In this model, a marital system involving reciprocal exchanges is expected to be maintained and satisfying as long as expectations from negotiated agreements between marital partners are adequately met. Dependent on such variables as economic status aspirations and perceptions of how financially successful significant others are doing, expectations surrounding socioeconomic rewards would vary from marriage to marriage. Therefore, the level of socioeconomic contribution which would fulfill a husband's obligation and promote marital satisfaction can be expected to be relative to the marriage.

Scanzoni (1975) found in examining the relationship between objective socioeconomic indicator levels (e.g., husband's income, occupational status) and measures of marital role reciprocity (e.g., spousal empathy, expressiveness and companionship) that a spouse's subjective assessment of a couple's economic situation was an important mediating variable. A husband's fulfillment of

instrumental obligations emanating from the provider role and subsequent reciprocation on the wife's part in the form of instrumental and expressive duties can be expected to be mediated by the perceived level of financial difficulties which a marriage encounters. The perceived level of financial difficulties would serve as a barometer of the husband's performance of his primary instrumental duties (i.e., supply money).

For example, if a husband is able to rely on economic resources from non-job sources such as savings or unemployment insurance, he should be able to at least partially fulfill exchange agreements on which the marriage has been based by diminishing financial difficulties associated with joblessness. However, if subsequent to a husband's joblessness, significant financial difficulties are encountered by a married couple, the husband's perceived instrumental contribution will be severely diminished, thereby weakening the reciprocal network in the marital system and hence overall marital satisfaction experienced by the wife.

Therefore, based on the marital role reciprocity model of marriage, it is hypothesized that the level of perceived financial difficulties within the marriage will serve as a mediating variable between a husband's unemployment and associated marital satisfaction of the wife, such that the greater the level of perceived financial difficulties, the lower the level of marital satisfaction experienced by the wife.

Level of Psychological Well-Being.

Finally, the model should be extended to include psychological well-being of marital partners as a mediator of

marital satisfaction. Research on the unemployment of individuals shows involuntary joblessness to be a significant stressor resulting in anxiety and depression (Warr, 1983; Feather and Barber, 1983), lower life satisfaction (Banks and Jackson, 1982; Warr and Jackson, 1982; Warr and Payne, 1982) and a higher risk of developing a psychiatric illness (Warr, 1983; Banks and Jackson, 1982). In addition, some studies have shown the wives of unemployed husbands to also experience lowered psychological well-being (Liem, 1983; Cochrane and Stopes-Roe, 1982).

Marital research findings indicate that the personality adjustment of husband and wives correlates significantly with the quality of marital functioning (Barry, 1970; Cole, Cole and Dean, 1980; Dean, 1966). Given these latter findings and the determined lowered psychological well-being associated with unemployment, it can be expected that psychological well-being will serve as a mediator of marital functioning within unemployed couples' relationships such that the lower the level of psychological well-being experienced by the husband and wife, the lower their expressed levels of marital satisfaction.

Hypotheses:

In summary, based on the role reciprocity model of marriage, the predicted hypotheses of the proposed research are as follows:

1. Both husbands and wives in marriages in which the husband is unemployed will express lower levels of marital satisfaction when compared with marriages in which the husband is employed.
2. Wives in marriages in which the husband is unemployed will report lower levels of household task performance when

compared with those from marriages in which the husband is employed.

3. Unemployed husbands will have lower levels of marital decision-making power than employed husbands.

4. Marriages in which the husband is unemployed will show lower levels of expressive behaviors between spouses than those in which the husband is employed.

5-9. The variables of household task performance, marital decision-making power, sex-role preference, perceived level of financial difficulties and psychological well-being will serve as mediators of marital satisfaction within "unemployed" couples' relationships such that:

5. The greater the husband's involvement in household tasks, the higher the level of marital satisfaction experienced by the wife.

6. The greater the husband's level of decision-making power, the lower the level of marital satisfaction experienced by the wife.

7. The more "modern" the marital sex-role preference adopted by the spouses, the higher the level of marital satisfaction experienced by both spouses.

8. The greater the level of perceived financial difficulties, the lower the level of marital satisfaction experienced by the wife.

9. The lower the level of psychological well-being of husband and wife, the lower the level of marital satisfaction experienced by them.

Method

Participants

Inclusion Criteria. The design of the study called for two groups of married or common-law couples: a) Couples in which the husband is unemployed (index group); b) couples in which the husband is working full-time (control group). For the index group, husbands met the following criteria: a) Unemployed at the time of participation in the study; b) laid-off from usual full-time job for at least three months; c) reason for layoff from normal job was work shortage; d) not attending school/training course full-time; e) living in Winnipeg. A few of the husband participants from this index group engaged in casual forms of employment since their layoff but this was generally short-term in duration or involved irregular part-time hours.

It is expected that the criterion for duration of joblessness from normal occupation (i.e., three months) is suitable in defining the unemployed, based on Liem's (1983) findings that negative effects concerning wife and family associated with a husband's unemployment were present following three months of joblessness. The criteria of involuntary job loss and the lack of an educational or work substitute for full-time employment should result in the selection of married couples where the husband has assumed an unemployed role in the household.

For couples in the control group, husbands had all been working full-time for at least four consecutive months or more and they were living in Winnipeg. Liem (1983) reported

deleterious effects of the unemployment of husbands to have disappeared shortly following the re-employment of the husband. Overall, it is expected that the selection criteria for the two groups should differentiate them in terms of the role of the husband in the household and consequent pattern of exchanges within the married or common-law relationship.

Description of Recruitment Process

All the participants were recruited from Winnipeg union locals of skilled and semi-skilled blue-collar workers. It was necessary to recruit participants from several unions in order to ensure sufficiently large groups for the intended analyses. Specifically, the unemployed husbands were drawn from four union locals which had experienced a large number of layoffs in the past year due to work shortages: 1) United Steelworkers of America - Local 3960; 2) United Auto Workers - Local 2224; 3) International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers - Local 2085; 4) Sheetmetal Workers Union - Local 511. Table 2 provides a breakdown of index participants by the union membership of the husband. The locals of the United Steelworkers of America and United Auto Workers were involved in the manufacturing and assembly of farm machinery while members of the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers and Sheetmetal Workers Union locals were predominantly involved in the construction trades.

The control group husbands were recruited from three union locals whose members had experienced stable employment for the last two years or more. These union locals were: 1) United

Steelworkers of America - Local 7360; 2) Canadian Paperworkers Union - Local 830; 3) United Auto Workers - Local 2169. All three of these locals are involved in primary and secondary manufacturing. Table 2 also presents a breakdown of the number of control couple participants by the union local of the husband.

Depending on the union local, prospective participants were initially introduced to the study by either mailed letter contact (Appendices A, B) from the investigator or by direct contact from a fellow union member who briefly explained the nature and demands of participating in the study (Appendices C, D). This latter form of contact was utilized by those union locals who did not want to give out members' names to the investigator without their prior expressed consent. It also included giving prospective participants a letter from the investigator (Appendix E), which summarized the purpose and process of participation in the study.

A telephone contact by the investigator followed both forms of initial contact to determine those interested and eligible in participating (Appendices F, G). Individuals were screened with regard to inclusion criteria during this telephone contact and were given an opportunity to ask questions about the study prior to their agreement to participate. For those interested and eligible, an appointment time for the interview was also set during this contact.

Tables 3 and 4 present statistics on the participant recruitment procedure for the individual unions involved in the study. Only estimates were available from those union locals

Table 2

Union Local Membership of Husbands

Index

United Steelworkers of America (3960)	15
United Auto Workers (2224)	13
International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers (2085)	2
Sheetmetal Union (511)	1
	<hr/>
Total	31

Control

United Steelworkers of America (7360)	18
United Auto Workers (2169)	3
Canadian Paperworkers (830)	11
	<hr/>
Total	32

Table 3

Recruitment of Index Group

	United Steelworkers Of America (3960)		United Auto Workers (2224)		International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers (2085)		Sheetmetal Union (511)	
	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
Total Contacts	200		100		14		5	
Re-employed	60	(30%)	40	(40%)	5	(36%)	1	(20%)
Failed to Meet Other Criteria	4	(2%)	41	(41%)	2	(14%)	0	(20%)
Eligible Participants	136	(68%)	19	(19%)	7	(50%)	3	(60%)
Acceptances	15	(11%)	13	(68%)	2	(29%)	1	(33%)
Rejections	121	(89%)	5	(32%)	5	(71%)	2	(67%)

Table 4

Recruitment of Control Group

	United Steelworkers of America (7360)	Canadian Paperworkers Union (830)	United Auto Workers (2169)
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Total Contacts	26	105	9
Failed to Meet Inclusion Criteria	3 (12%)	54 (51%)	4 (44%)
Eligible Participants	23 (88%)	51 (49%)	5 (56%)
Acceptances	18 (78%)	11 (22%)	3 (60%)
Rejections	5 (22%)	40 (78%)	2 (40%)

which made the initial contact with their members. Some variability can be seen across union locals for both the index and control group in terms of the ratio of contacts to participants. Overall, for the index group, out of 319 contacts, 31 (9.7%) were included as valid participants. The reason most often given for non-participation was not interested (46%), followed by not qualifying because of being employed (37%), being single (10%) and, language limitations (4%).

Overall, for the control group, 32 (23%) participants were drawn from 139 contacts. The reason most often given for non-participation in the recruitment of this group was not interested (34%) followed by living outside of Winnipeg (24%) and, being single (22%).

Procedure

Questionnaires were personally delivered to the homes of the participants at a time when both spouses were available to fill them out. Informed consent was sought prior to participation (Appendix H). Husbands and wives were instructed to complete the questionnaires independently of each other and in separate areas to prevent any collaboration (Appendix I). The researcher guaranteed the participants confidentiality of their responses, including with respect to their marital partners. Questionnaires included an instructions page (Appendix J), items asking for demographic information related to inclusion criteria and group comparisons, along with measures of the variables being studied.

Respondents generally showed a high level of compliance with the demands of participation in the study. Questions by

participants during the course of filling out the questionnaire focused exclusively on clarification of measures. Only a small percentage of participants reported difficulties with understanding parts of the questionnaire, largely because of English being their second language. After a careful review of their responses on the questionnaire, it appeared that their data was valid. A specific validity check was performed on the household task measure as it proved to provide some difficulty to those demonstrating language and/or educational limitations. This validity check is explicated in the results section. The average time for completing the questionnaire was approximately 30 minutes, a range of 20 to 60 minutes. No observable differences were apparent in the manner of responding by husbands and wives from the two groups.

After the participants had completed the questionnaire, the researcher debriefed them by explaining the purpose of the study (i.e., design, variables, questions being investigated) and by dealing with any concerns they might have over participating in the study. No major concerns were expressed by any of the participants and, consequently, all data collected was utilized in the analysis. Participants were paid \$20 per couple upon completion of the debriefing segment.

Measures

Marital Satisfaction. This construct was operationalized using the Dyadic Satisfaction subscale from the Dyadic Adjustment Scale developed by Spanier (1976). This subscale consists of 10

items which address the level of satisfaction being experienced by a respondent with their marriage (Appendix K).

Spanier (1976) demonstrated empirically this subscale to have content, construct, and criterion-related validity. In addition, using a Cronbach's coefficient alpha, it has a high reliability, ranging from .85 (Spanier & Thompson, 1982) to .94 (Spanier, 1976).

The Dyadic Satisfaction subscale can be administered in either a structured interview manner or in a self-report, pencil and paper format. For the purpose of this study, it formed part of a self-report questionnaire. The score range for the subscale is from 0-50, with low scores deemed to reflect low marital satisfaction while high scores represent relatively high levels of marital satisfaction.

Household Task Performance. The measure used to assess this construct is a variation of an instrument developed and utilized by Bird and Bird (1984) to ascertain the extent of family task sharing. From a review of the literature on family time use and household task performance, Bird and Bird produced a list of tasks identified by researchers as being associated with the management and maintenance of the household. They asked their respondents how these tasks were divided between spouses. Factor analysis led to the clustering of tasks into seven categories involving: a) meal preparation tasks, b) child-care tasks, c) maintenance and repair tasks, d) management of family activities, e) financial management, f) cleaning tasks, and g) lawn-and-garden tasks.

For the purpose of this research, 13 items were developed from the Bird and Bird list on the basis that they were judged to constitute major work demands in the household. The items were presented in the self-report questionnaire (Appendix L). Husband and wife were asked to estimate for each of the following: a) total combined time spent on task by both partners; b) proportion (%) of total time spent on it by them; c) proportion (%) of total time spent on it by partner. From this information, an overall estimate of the proportion of household work undertaken by husbands and wives, respectively, was determined.

Decision-Making Power. An augmented version of the Blood and Wolfe (1960) Decision-Making Power Scale was used to measure this construct. This scale involves the presentation of 14 important decision areas in a household, with respondent wives asked how decisions in each of the areas are reached (Appendix M).

The original version was developed by Blood and Wolfe (1960) and included eight decision areas (i.e., last eight items in Appendix M). Centers, Raven and Rodrigues (1971) added six items to the original version in order to provide a better opportunity for the wife's power to manifest itself (i.e., first six items in Appendix M). These additional items were selected from a larger pool by polling university students concerning appropriateness of items as being universal, their effect on the family as a whole, and the likelihood that items presented matters in which the wife was likely to have substantial influence.

Relative conjugal decision-making power is inferred on this instrument from the degree to which husband or wife are reported

to make unilateral decisions in the various decision areas.

Cumulative scores across the 14 decision area items produce an index of relative authority with a range of 14 to 70. In essence, this range places couples on a continuum, whereby a score of 14 reflects a highly wife-dominant marriage, with all decision area items responded by "wife always," while a score of 70 indicates a highly husband-dominant marriage, with all decision area items responded by "husband always." Scores on this measure falling in the middle range (around 35) would be indicative of a balance of decision-making power between spouses.

Bahr (1973) conducted a psychometric evaluation of the internal consistency of Blood and Wolfe's (1960) measure of family power. Using both husbands ($n = 221$) and wives ($n = 258$), their data showed the scale to approach unidimensionality, with a coefficient of reproducibility of .86 and .88 for husbands and wives, respectively, while Cronbach's alpha for both husbands and wives was .62. Bahr concluded that the internal consistency of the measure was substantial, with the instrument appearing to tap one dominant factor. In terms of measuring the decision-making aspect of power, it was deemed a relatively efficient measure.

Expressive Behaviors. The degree of expressive behavior exchanged between husband and wife was measured using the Dyadic Cohesion subscale from the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. This subscale is made up of five items purported to measure the degree of joint primary activities in which marital partners engage (Appendix N).

Again, Spanier (1976) empirically found this subscale to have content, construct, and criterion-related validity. The

reliability coefficient estimate ranged from .86 (Spanier, 1976) to .90 (Spanier & Thompson, 1982).

The five items from this subscale formed part of the administered self-report questionnaire. Potential score range is from 0-24, with low scores representing minimal expressive behaviors being exchanged between spouses while high scores reflect a relatively higher level of expressive behaviors being shared.

Sex-Role Preference. This variable was measured by the sex-role preference index utilized by Scanzoni (1980). The index (Appendix O) provides a measure of attitudes on the roles of wives and husbands within marriages. The index places individuals on a continuum from "traditional" to "modern" concerning their perspective towards marital role structure.

Scanzoni (1980) showed this scale to have criterion-related validity, placing marital relationships on the continuum from traditional to egalitarianism and distinguishing between the previously described marriage types (i.e., wife as Equal Partner, wife as Junior-Partner, wife as Complement). A Cronbach's alpha of .81 and .68 was estimated for the wife-oriented and husband-oriented items, respectively. An overall internal reliability of .94 was reported for the entire scale (Haber, 1985).

As presented in Appendix O, the available responses to the items involved five choices, ranked from 0 to 4 depending on the direction of the items: Strongly Agree, Agree, Mixed Feelings,

Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. Scores were recorded so that a traditional response on an item is designated by "0" while a "4" reflects a nontraditional response. An individual's cumulative score on the 21 items from the two scales can range from 0 to 84, with a score of 0 representing a highly traditional outlook and a score of 84 indicative of a highly modern outlook toward marital roles.

Perceived Level of Financial Difficulties. Two different one-item measures were used to operationalize this construct. Husbands and wives responded to both measures. The first measure was developed and used by Warr and Jackson (1984) in a study on unemployed individuals. It is identified as assessing experienced financial strain by the respondent and consists of the question: "Thinking back over the past month, how often have you had serious financial worries?" Potential responses are: Never, Hardly Ever, Sometimes, Frequently, Nearly All The Time, and All The Time, scored 1 to 6, respectively.

A second item was used to measure a household's financial state as perceived by the spouses. It involved the following question: "Putting together all sources of income in your household, which phrase best describes your current financial state?" Possible responses were: Much Better Than Adequate, Better Than Adequate, Adequate, Less Than Adequate, and Much Less Than Adequate. These responses are scored 1 to 5, respectively.

Level of Psychological Well-Being.

This variable was measured by the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ), a self-report instrument designed for

identifying minor psychiatric morbidity in the general population. It has been shown to be sensitive to changes in employment status (Banks, Clegg, Jackson, Kemp, Stafford and Wall, 1980; Banks and Jackson, 1982) and found to be valid in terms of more comprehensive psychiatric interviews (Banks, 1982; Goldberg, 1972, 1978, 1981; Henderson, Duncan-Jones, Byrne, Scott and Adcock, 1979).

For the purpose of this research, the 12 item version of the GHQ (Appendix P) was presented to the respondents as part of the self-report questionnaire. Its alpha coefficient has been shown to be consistently high, ranging from 0.82 to 0.90 (Banks, Clegg, Jackson, Kemp, Stafford and Wall, 1980; Warr, Jackson and Banks, 1982). Items (Appendix P) consist of questions asking individuals about the current or recent presence of a symptom or behavior. Potential responses to these questions are scored 1 to 4 depending on frequency. The range of scores on this version of the instrument is from 12 to 48, with lower scores representing a relatively higher level of psychological well-being and higher scores reflecting a relatively lower level of psychological well-being.

Results

Characteristics of the Final Sample

The final sample consisted of 63 couples, with 30 married and 1 common-law couple in the index group and 31 married and 1 common-law couple in the control group.

Table 5 presents summary statistics on demographic characteristics of the husbands and wives from both groups. Statistical analyses (i.e., t-tests) show the two groups of both husbands and wives to be similar in terms of age, duration of current marriage and number of times married. In addition, statistical comparison indicate the index and control group of wives to be similar in terms of hours of work per week.

Table 6 presents the income levels for 1985 of husbands and wives in the two groups. As expected from the definition of the two groups and based on analysis by Mann-Whitney U test, significant differences ($Z = -5.95$, $n=63$, $p < .001$) are evident between the groups in terms of the husband's income for 1985, such that the control husbands had earned higher incomes. On the other hand, a comparison of earned income for 1985 for the two groups of wives showed no significant differences ($Z = -0.60$, $n=62$, $p > .05$). As the two groups of couples were exclusively sampled from blue-collar union locals of which the husbands were members, it is assumed that their SES levels are comparable.

Table 7 provides a summary of the work history of the husbands in both groups. Again, as expected from the definition of the two groups, control husbands report a more stable work history than index husbands.

Table 5

Demographic Characteristics of Husbands and Wives

	Index (N=31)		Control (N=32)		<u>t</u>	<u>p</u> ≤
	M	SD	M	SD		
Husbands						
Age	36.4	8.0	34.9	8.1	0.48	NS
Length of Marriage	9.3	7.5	10.8	8.1	0.62	NS
Number of Times Married	1.1	0.3	1.0	0.4	1.44	NS
Wives						
Age	33.0	8.0	32.4	8.1	0.48	NS
Length of Marriage	9.5	7.5	11.1	8.1	0.62	NS
Number of Times Married	1.1	0.3	1.1	0.2	0.53	NS
Hours of Work Per Week	27.8	19.1	26.9	14.6	0.07	NS

Table 6

Income Levels of Husbands and Wives

	Index N	(%)	Control N	(%)
Husbands				
Less than \$9,999	2	(6%)	0	(-)
\$10,000 - \$14,999	16	(52%)	1	(3%)
\$15,000 - \$19,999	9	(30%)	0	(-)
\$20,000 - \$24,999	2	(6%)	13	(41%)
\$25,000 - \$29,999	2	(6%)	16	(50%)
\$30,000 - \$34,999	0	(-)	1	(3%)
\$35,000 - \$39,999	0	(-)	1	(3%)
Wives				
Less than \$9,999	14	(45%)	14	(45%)
\$10,000 - \$14,999	10	(32%)	5	(16%)
\$15,000 - \$19,999	3	(10%)	7	(23%)
\$20,000 - \$24,999	4	(13%)	3	(10%)
\$25,000 - \$29,999	0	(-)	1	(3%)
\$30,000 - \$34,999	0	(-)	1	(3%)
\$35,000 - \$39,999	0	(-)	0	(-)

Table 7

Work History of Husbands

	Index (N=31)	Control (N=32)
Nearly Always Employed	15 (49%)	31 (97%)
Employed More Than Unemployed	12 (39%)	1 (3%)
Employed and Unemployed About The Same	2 (6%)	0 (-)
Unemployed More Than Employed	1 (3%)	0 (-)
Nearly Always Unemployed	1 (3%)	0 (-)

Table 8 is a breakdown of the two groups of wives in terms of their employment status. Based on a Mann-Whitney U test, the two groups are found to have a similar proportion of wives working full-time or part-time for income ($z = -0.99$, $n=63$, $p > .05$).

Table 9 reveals differences between the two groups with regards to the birthplace of the husbands and wives. Specifically, most of the control group of husbands (97%) and wives (90%) were born in Canada while a significant number of husbands (39%) and wives (32%) from the index group were born outside of Canada. However, immigrant participants in both groups had all been living in Canada for at least 10 years.

Finally with respect to family make-up, the two groups of couples appear comparable, with no statistical differences ($t = 0.06$, $df=61$, $p > .05$) being found regarding the mean number of children (index = 1.6; control = 1.6). In addition, statistical analysis show no significance between the two groups ($t = -0.37$, $df=61$, $p > .05$) in terms of the age of the oldest child.

Overall, it would appear that the two groups of both husbands and wives are fairly well matched in terms of major demographic variables. As expected, unemployed husbands report a lower level of income for 1985 and less job stability in their work history. The index group also has a larger number of participants born outside of Canada, although these individuals had lived in Canada for 10 years or more.

Description of Statistical Analyses and Data Preparation

A one way repeated measures MANOVA was performed to test for overall group differences on the dependent measures as predicted

Table 8

Employment Status of Wives

	Index (N=31)	Control (N=32)
Full-Time	17 (54%)	22 (69%)
Part-Time	7 (23%)	4 (13%)
Not Working	7 (23%)	6 (18%)

Table 9

Birthplace of Participants

	Index (N=31)	Control (N=32)
Husbands		
Canada	19 (61%)	30 (94%)
Phillipines	7 (23%)	0 (-)
Other	5 (16%)	2 (6%)
Wives		
Canada	19 (61%)	30 (94%)
Phillipines	7 (23%)	0 (-)
Other	5 (16%)	2 (6%)

by hypotheses 1-4. A marital couple was considered the basic unit of analysis in this MANOVA, with husband and wife scores on the dependent measures treated as repeated measurements for each dyadic unit. In addition, as shown in Table 10, the significant correlations between husband and wife responses on the dependent measures make a repeated measures MANOVA design more appropriate than a 2 X 2 MANOVA. A repeated measures design should result in lowered error variance and, therefore, a more powerful test of multivariate comparisons (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983). Univariate F-tests were utilized to make specific comparisons between the two groups of husbands and wives on the individual dependent measures. Bivariate correlations (Pearson r) were performed to examine the relationship between variables specified in hypotheses 5-9.

In terms of missing data, cumulative scores on additive scales were estimated by prorating the existing data, if less than 20% of items from a scale were missing. Otherwise, for the dependent measures examined in the MANOVA, missing values were replaced by the mean (\bar{X}) of an individual's subgroup membership defined by spousal identification (husband or wife) and the employment status of the husband (employed or unemployed). Missing values were left as missing for the bivariate correlations. Univariate outliers on variable measures were identified as scores which were larger than 3.00 on the standardized (Z) curve. Three univariate outliers were found and these were recorded as 3.00 on the standardized curve, as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (1983).

Table 10

Inter-Correlations and Probabilities Between Husbands and Wives on
Dependent Variables

Variable	n	r	<u>p</u> \leq
Marital Satisfaction	62	.55	.001
Wife's Contribution to Household Work	55	.51	.001
Decision-Making Power	63	.50	.001
Expressive Behaviors	62	.35	.005

Estimates on items from the household task performance measure were judged as being valid if the sum of percentage contribution of husbands and wives on the item was 100%. Otherwise, responses on an item were treated as missing. Overall, 90% of index participants and 93% of control participants were judged as having valid data on this measure. The maximum estimate of total time per week allowable for any household work items on this measure was 112 hours based on a maximum of 16 hours per day X 7 days.

The alpha level for the performed tests of significance was set at .05. As comparisons and correlations undertaken were planned according to the specified hypotheses based on a theoretical model, this level of significance is not assumed to be overly liberal in terms of experiment-wise Type I error (Harris, 1975; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983). The post-hoc analyses also relied on an alpha level of .05 for significance, with the intention of using post-hoc findings to suggest future research directions.

Between Group Analyses

With regard to performing a MANOVA, it appears that the underlying assumptions of multivariate normality, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, multicollinearity, and linearity were satisfactorily met.

In terms of the assumption of multivariate normality, no significant skewness is evident in distributions of dependent measures after outliers were adjusted and each cell of the MANOVA

has greater than the suggested 20 df for error to assure multivariate normality of the sampling distribution of means (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983). A Box's M test of homogeneity of covariance matrices produces an $F(36,12493) = 1.22, p > .05$, suggesting no significant deviation from homogeneity of covariance matrices. Bivariate scatterplots of the dependent measures show no gross deviations from linearity. Finally, the determinant of the within-cell correlation matrix is significantly different from zero (.50) indicating that multicollinearity is not present.

Using Pillai's criterion, the one-way repeated measures MANOVA shows dyadic units from the index group to be significantly different, $F(4,58) = 3.17, p < .05$ than the control group on the combined dependent measures of marital satisfaction, a wife's household task contribution, decision-making power, and expressive behaviors.

Tables 11, 12 and 13 present the mean and standard deviations for the dependent measures of husbands, wives and couples respectively. As well, they show the results of univariate F-tests of comparisons delineated in hypotheses 1-4.

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 predicted that both husbands and wives from the unemployed group would report lower levels of marital satisfaction than those from the employed group. As shown in Tables 11(a) and 11(b), unemployed husbands are found to have significantly lower levels of marital satisfaction than employed husbands ($F = 4.26; df=1,61; p < .05$). Similarly, as reported in Tables 12(a) and 12(b), wives from the unemployed

Table 11(a)

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Husbands on DependentVariables

Variable	Index		Control	
	M	SD	M	SD
Marital Satisfaction	37.0	6.4	39.7	3.7
Wife's Contribution to Household Work	0.5	0.2	0.6	0.1
Decision-Making Power	41.7	4.4	40.8	3.6
Expressive Behaviors	15.4	3.5	16.0	2.7

Table 11(b)

Between Group Comparisons of Husbands on Dependent Variables

Variable	Source	df	SS	MS	F	$p \leq$
Marital Satisfaction	Between	1	114.57	114.57	4.26	.05
	Within	61	1641.66	26.91		
	Total	62	1756.23			
Wife's Contribution to Household Work	Between	1	0.09	0.09	4.66	.05
	Within	61	1.28	0.02		
	Total	62	1.37			
Decision-Making Power	Between	1	12.56	12.56	0.77	NS
	Within	61	995.12	16.31		
	Total	62	1007.68			
Expressive Behaviors	Between	1	5.32	5.32	0.55	NS
	Within	61	592.32	9.71		
	Total	62	597.64			

Table 12(a)

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Wives on DependentVariables

Variable	Index		Control	
	M	SD	M	SD
Marital Satisfaction	36.8	6.8	40.4	4.5
Wife's Contribution to Household Work	0.6	0.2	0.6	0.1
Decision-Making Power	40.7	3.8	40.8	4.8
Expressive Behaviors	14.9	3.7	15.2	4.0

Table 12(b)

Between Group Comparisons of Wives on Dependent Variables

Variable	Source	df	SS	MS	F	$p \leq$
Marital Satisfaction	Between	1	196.62	196.62	5.90	.05
	Within	61	2034.39	33.35		
	Total	62	2231.01			
Wife's Contribution to Household Work	Between	1	0.04	0.04	1.85	NS
	Within	61	1.17	0.02		
	Total	62	1.21			
Decision-Making Power	Between	1	0.29	0.29	0.02	NS
	Within	61	1148.01	18.82		
	Total	62	1148.30			
Expressive Behaviors	Between	1	1.80	1.80	0.12	NS
	Within	61	896.87	14.70		
	Total	62	898.67			

Table 13(a)

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Couples on Dependent
Variables

Variable	Index		Control	
	M	SD	M	SD
Marital Satisfaction	36.9	6.5	40.0	4.1
Wife's Contribution to Household Work	0.6	0.2	0.6	0.1
Decision-Making Power	41.2	4.1	40.8	4.2
Expressive Behaviors	15.1	3.6	15.6	3.4

Table 13(b)

Between Group Comparisons of Couples on Dependent Variables

Variable	Source	df	SS	MS	F	p \leq
Marital Satisfaction	Between	1	305.69	305.69	6.74	.05
	Within	61	2767.66	45.37		
	Total	62	3073.35			
Wife's Contribution to Household Work	Between	1	0.13	0.13	4.37	.05
	Within	61	1.76	0.03		
	Total	62	1.89			
Decision-Making Power	Between	1	4.51	4.51	0.17	NS
	Within	61	1606.65	26.34		
	Total	62	1611.16			
Expressive Behaviors	Between	1	6.67	6.67	0.41	NS
	Within	61	997.95	16.36		
	Total	62	1004.62			

group report lower levels of marital satisfaction than wives from the employed group ($F = 5.90$, $df=1,61$, $p < .05$). Overall, as evident in Tables 13(a) and 13(b), the marital couples from the unemployed group are shown to have significantly lower levels of marital satisfaction in comparison to marital couples from the control group ($F = 6.74$, $df=1,61$, $p < .05$). All undertaken comparisons confirm hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 held that wives in the unemployed group would perform less household work than wives in the employed group. As shown in Tables 11(a) and 11(b), husbands from the unemployed group report significantly lower levels of household work being performed by their wives than those from the employed group ($F = 4.66$, $df=1,61$, $p < .05$). However, as presented in Tables 12(a) and 12(b), no significant differences are found between the wives from the unemployed group and those from the employed group on estimates of their household work contribution, ($F = 1.85$, $df=1,61$, $p > .05$). As evident in Tables 13(a) and 13(b), the unemployed group of married couples show significant differences in the predicted direction from the employed group ($F = 4.37$, $df=1,61$, $p < .05$). In sum, the results only partially confirm hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 stated that unemployed husbands would have lower levels of decision-making power than employed husbands. As reported in Tables 11(a) and 11(b), there are no significant differences between index husbands and control husbands in perceptions of decision-making power in marital

relationships ($F = 0.77$, $df=1,61$, $p > .05$). Similarly, as evident in Tables 12(a) and 12(b), index wives show no differences in perceptions of decision-making to control wives ($F = 0.02$, $df=1,61$, $p > .05$). Overall, as presented in Tables 13(a) and 13(b), no significant differences in decision-making power are apparent between index couples and control couples in terms of decision-making power, ($F = 0.17$, $df=1,61$, $p > .05$). All comparisons between the two groups fail to support hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 predicted that marriages in which the husband was unemployed would show lower levels of expressive behaviors between spouses, than those in which the husband is employed. As outlined in Tables 11(a) and 11(b), index husbands show no significant differences relative to control husbands on perceptions of level of expressive behaviors being exchanged in their marriages ($F = 0.55$, $df=1,61$, $p > .05$). Similarly, as presented in Tables 12(a) and 12(b), index wives exhibit no significant differences to control wives on perceptions in this area ($F = 0.12$, $df=1,61$, $p > .05$). As evident in Tables 13(a) and 13(b), using the combination of husbands and wives' data, comparisons between index couples and control couples also indicate no significance between the groups ($F = 0.41$, $df=1,61$, $p > .05$). In sum, comparisons consistently fail to confirm hypothesis 4.

Within Group Analyses of Unemployed Couples

As mentioned, bivariate correlations (Pearson r_s) were calculated to examine the strength of the relationship between

variables specified in hypotheses 5-9. Pearson r bivariate correlations assume that the sample distributions of the measures approximate normality and that homogeneity of variance exists between correlated measures. An examination of individual variables showed skewness levels falling within the acceptable range, suggesting that the assumptions have been met. Bivariate scatterplots of the measures in the predicted relationships were examined for outliers and highly significant outliers were removed from the analyses.

Table 14 presents inter-correlations between marital satisfaction of wives and variables as predicted in hypotheses 5-9. Table 15 shows inter-correlations between marital satisfaction of husbands and variables as delineated in hypotheses 7 and 9.

Hypothesis 5. Hypothesis 5 predicted that the greater the husband's involvement in household tasks, the higher the level of marital satisfaction experienced by wives in the unemployed group. As indicated in Table 14, results fail to show a significant relationship in the predicted direction between wife's marital satisfaction and husbands' household task performance, as estimated either by the wives, $r(24) = -.32, p > .05$, by husbands, $r(28) = -.04, p > .05$, or by wives and husbands together, $r(22) = -.24, p > .05$. Correlations of predicted relationships consistently fail to support hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 6. According to hypothesis 6, the greater a husband's level of decision-making power, the lower a wife's level

Table 14

Pearson r Correlations of Apriori Relationships Within Index Group

Variable	Marital Satisfaction of Wife		
	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u> \leq
Husband's Contribution to Household Work as Estimated by			
Wife	24	-.32	NS
Husband	28	-.04	NS
Couple	22	-.24	NS
Decision-Making Power as Estimated by			
Wife	29	.16	NS
Husband	31	-.24	NS
Couple	30	-.14	NS
Sex-Role Preference as Estimated by			
Wife	31	-.49	NS
Husband	30	-.05	NS
Financial State as Estimated by			
Wife	30	-.09	NS
Financial Stress as Estimated by			
Wife	30	-.20	NS
Psychological Well-Being as Estimated by			
Wife	31	-.46	.01
Husband	31	-.46	.01

Table 15

Pearson r Correlations of Apriori Relationships Within Index Group

Variable	Marital Satisfaction of Husband		
	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u> ≤
Sex-Role Preference as Estimated by			
Husband	30	.19	NS
Wife	30	-.44	NS
Psychological Well-Being as Estimated by			
Husband	30	-.43	.01
Wife	30	-.28	NS

of marital satisfaction. As presented in Table 13, no significant relationships in the predicted direction are found between marital satisfaction of the wife and decision-making power as perceived by either the wife, $r(29) = .16, p > .05$, or the husband and wife together, $r(30) = -.14, p > .05$. A trend between lower marital satisfaction of the wife and greater decision-making power as reported by the husband, $r(31) = -.24, p < .10$ is the sole confirmatory evidence of hypothesis 6.

Hypothesis 7. Hypothesis 7 held that the more modern the marital sex-role preference adopted by spouses, the higher the level of marital satisfaction experienced by both marital partners. Results fail to show a significant relationship in the predicted direction when considering the marital satisfaction of the wife and either her sex-role preference, $r(31) = -.49, p > .05$ or that of her husband, $r(30) = -.05, p > .05$ (Table 14). Similarly, no significant correlations in the hypothesized direction are found between the husband's marital satisfaction and either his sex-role preference, $r(30) = .19, p > .05$ or that of his wife, $r(30) = -.44, p > .05$ (Table 15). Overall, results fail to confirm hypothesis 7. In fact, a two-tailed test show the relationship between both spouse's joint marital satisfaction and the wife's sex-role preference to be significant at $p < .05$ in the direction opposite the hypothesis. In other words, a wife's sex-role preference is associated with marital satisfaction such that the more modern the sex-role preference of wives the lower the marital satisfaction of both her and her husband.

Hypothesis 8. Hypothesis 8 predicted that the greater the family financial difficulties as perceived by the wife, the lower her marital satisfaction. As evident in Table 14, the relationship between a wife's marital satisfaction and perceived financial state $r(30) = -.09$, $p > .05$ is not significant. A weak trend in the hypothesized direction is indicated between the marital satisfaction of the wife and financial stress, $r(30) = -.20$, $p < .15$.

Hypothesis 9. According to hypothesis 9, the lower the psychological well-being of husband and wife, the lower their marital satisfaction. As predicted, the wife's marital satisfaction has a significant negative relationship with both her psychological well-being $r(31) = -.46$, $p < .01$ and that of her husband $r(31) = -.46$, $p < .01$ (Table 14). Similarly, the husband's marital satisfaction shows a significant negative relationship with his psychological well-being $r(30) = -.43$, $p < .05$ (Table 15). As well, a strong trend is found between the husband's marital satisfaction and his wife's psychological well-being $r(30) = -.28$, $p < .10$. Overall, results confirm hypothesis 9.

Post-hoc Analyses

Between Group Differences.

Some analyses of differences between the groups of spouses on individual based areas might help further identify the difficulties of married individuals experiencing unemployment. Within this in mind, univariate t-tests were performed to examine

between group differences of husbands and wives on the variables of psychological well-being, financial stress and financial state. Table 16 presents the means, standard deviations and results of t-tests between the two groups of husbands and wives on these variables. T-tests indicate index husbands reporting lower levels of psychological well-being ($t(61) = 3.66, p < .01$), higher levels of financial stress ($t(61) = 5.93, p < .001$) and less adequate financial state in their households ($t(61) = 3.52, p < .01$) than the control husbands. Similarly, index wives are found to report higher levels of financial stress ($t(61) = 3.36, p < .01$) and a less adequate financial state in their household ($t(61) = 4.28, p < .001$) than control wives. However, no significant differences are apparent between the two groups of wives on the variable of psychological well-being ($t(61) = 1.27, p > .05$).

Within Group Analyses of Unemployed Couples.

Further correlational analyses were conducted to interpret the reported significant relationship between the sex-role preference of wives with both the marital satisfaction of husbands and wives. Specifically, analyses of the relationship between the disparity of spouses with respect to sex-role preference and marital satisfaction were performed to help clarify these unexpected relationships. The disparity of spouses on sex-role preference was determined by subtracting a husband's score on the sex-role preference measure from the wife's score. Table 17 shows the bivariate correlations of the differences between spouses' sex-role preference with both the marital satisfaction of husbands and wives.

Table 16

Post-hoc Between Group Comparisons of Husbands and Wives

Variable	Index (N=31)		Control (N=32)		df	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u> ≤
	M	SD	M	SD			
Husbands							
Psychological Well-Being	24.94	6.30	20.49	2.69	61	3.66	.01
Financial Stress	3.45	0.93	2.09	0.89	61	5.93	.001
Financial State	3.37	0.81	2.72	0.63	60	3.52	.01
Wives							
Psychological Well-Being	24.67	6.50	22.72	5.72	61	1.27	NS
Financial Stress	3.27	1.17	2.31	1.06	61	3.36	.01
Financial State	3.60	0.77	2.88	0.55	60	4.28	.001

Table 17

Pearson r Correlations of Post-hoc Relationships Within IndexGroup

Variable	Sex-Role Preference Disparity Between Spouses		
	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u> \leq
Marital Satisfaction of Husband	30	-.44	.05
Marital Satisfaction of Wife	31	-.42	.05

Results from this analysis show a significant relationship between sex-role preference differences of spouses and the marital satisfaction of wives, $r(31) = -.42$, $p < .05$, such that the more modern the wife's sex-role preference relative to the husband's, the lower the level of marital satisfaction of the wife.

Similarly, a significant relationship is found between sex-role preference differences of spouses and the marital satisfaction of husbands, $r(31) = -.44$, $p < .05$, such that the more modern the wife's sex-role preference relative to the husband's, the lower the marital satisfaction of husbands. In other words, these relationships suggest that couples with wives holding more modern sex-role preferences than their husbands tend to have the lowest levels of marital satisfaction, while couples with husbands showing more modern sex-role preferences than their wives tend to have the highest levels of marital satisfaction. Those couples with minimal or no disparity in sex-role preference can be expected to fall somewhere in between these two extremes.

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to examine unemployment in marriages by utilizing a dyadic exchange model of marital relationships (Scanzoni, 1970, 1972). Marriages in which the husband is unemployed are compared with marriages in which the husband is employed with regard to marital satisfaction. The exchange between spouses of the elements of household work, decision-making power and expressive behaviors are also investigated. In addition, marriages experiencing unemployment are examined to identify mediators of a married couple's response to the husband's joblessness.

Overall, the pattern of results only partially supports the dyadic exchange model of marriages as adequately explicating the dynamics of marital relations in the context of short-term, involuntary unemployment within a blue-collar sample. As predicted, couples in which the husband is unemployed show lower levels of marital satisfaction by both spouses, and wives are viewed as making smaller contributions in the household task area in comparison to couples where the husband is working full-time. However, no differences are apparent between the two groups of couples in terms of patterns of decision-making power and expressive exchange. With regard to identifying mediators of marital satisfaction within the unemployed group, level of psychological well-being of the spouses is the sole variable found to have a significant relationship in the predicted direction. Other mediators predicted from the theoretical model are not shown

to elucidate varying marital responses to a husband's unemployment.

Between Group Comparisons

The finding that both husbands and wives from the index group experience lower levels of marital satisfaction in comparison to the control group spouses is consistent with the proposed dyadic exchange theory of Scanzoni (1970, 1972). Specifically, it was expected that the loss of instrumental contributions by a husband caused by his unemployment would result in a weakening of the reciprocity process between spouses and an ensuing decrease in marital satisfaction being experienced by both partners.

However, a comparison of the means of husbands and wives from the two groups in the present study on the marital satisfaction measure (Table 18) with the married and divorced samples used in the validation study (Spanier, 1976) suggests that while there is a significant difference between the index and control groups, it represents only a minor slippage in marital satisfaction and does not reflect a level comparable to the dyadic satisfaction expressed by divorced individuals. Specifically, as shown in Table 18, husbands and wives from the control group show similar levels of marital satisfaction as the married sample in the Spanier validation study. The index group of husbands and wives appear much closer to the married sample in the standardization study than to the divorced sample of husbands and wives. Overall, it appears that lowered satisfaction with the relationship is obtained in situations where the husband is unemployed which is

Table 18

Comparison of Marital Satisfaction Scores of Spanier (1976) Sample
With Present Study Sample

	<u>n</u>	M	SD
Married Couples (Spanier, 1976)	218	40.5	7.2
Divorced Couples (Spanier, 1976)	94	22.2	10.3
Index Husbands	31	37.0	6.4
Index Wives	31	36.8	6.8
Control Husbands	32	39.7	3.7
Control Wives	32	40.4	4.5

consistent with the marital exchange theoretical model, but without suggesting a level of dissatisfaction concomitant with marital disintegration.

Results comparing the two groups on estimates of the wife's household task performance are partially consistent with a dyadic exchange model of marital relations. As predicted, the wife's level of household task performance as estimated by both spouses and by the husband alone is significantly lower within index couples in comparison to control couples. According to the dyadic exchange framework, a diminution in the wife's household task performance can be expected in response to the imbalance in overall exchanges associated with a husband's joblessness.

On the other hand, the above results may reflect changes in a husband's behavior pattern because of his increased free time. Warr (1984) reported finding unemployed working-class men to have increased activity in a number of areas, including domestic work (i.e., household chores, children, shopping, meal preparation), home repairs, social outlets, recreation and personal hobbies. Decrease in the wife's household task performance may simply be the result of the husband's activities modified to include more domestic work when faced with the situation of joblessness. Given the nature of the current study's household task performance measure focusing on percentage contributions by spouses, a wife's contribution in this area would decrease in accordance with an increase in the husband's contribution. A close examination of estimates of a wife's household contribution in the two groups

suggests that, while a husband's unemployment has some effect on the household division of work, a major re-organization in this area is not indicated. In fact, only a relatively small shift in the household division of labor is indicated, and it appears that wives continue to assume the larger proportion of household work even when the husband is unemployed.

These findings are consistent with previous research which shows work allotment in households to be relatively stable across numerous domestic arrangements including those related to the unemployment of the husband (Shamir, 1986), the time available to both spouses (Lee, 1983; Perrucci, Potter, & Rhoades, 1978), work demands of the husband (Farkas, 1976) and wife's employment (Peres & Katz, 1983). Even those time budget studies which indicate some movement in North American homes towards a more egalitarian distribution of household work still show wives to hold the primary responsibility for household work (Pleck, 1979; Robinson, 1977; Walker & Woods, 1976). In general, the distribution of household work does not appear as a readily flexible area in the marital exchange process, although the results in the present study suggest some movement in the expected direction.

Comparisons between the two groups on the decision-making power measure fail to show differences between wives, husbands or both spouses taken together. According to the social exchange model of marital relations, it was expected that a husband's decision-making power would diminish in response to his job loss. Research in this area term the described exchange dynamics

the "resource theory" of power. The theory holds that decision-making power in a marriage is allocated as a function of resources (e.g., education, income, occupational prestige) contributed by spouses to a marriage. Findings from numerous studies substantiate this resource theory of power (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Centers, Raven, & Rodrigues, 1971; Fox, 1973; Kandel & Lesser, 1971; Lupri, 1969; Safilios-Rothschild, 1976), suggesting an exchange process behind power distribution in marital relationships.

The present results could suggest that, in terms of overall resources exchanged in a marital situation, the husband's job loss in our sample is seen as a temporary state, with minimal effect on decision-making in the household. Longstanding patterns of power based on the long-term history of resources supplied by the husband remain in place. A more chronic situation of unemployment might result in the predicted alteration.

A further consideration in explaining the lack of differences between the index and control groups are normative elements within our sample concerning the distribution of power in marriages. Rodman (1970, 1972), in interpreting some research findings, posited a normative-resource theory of power in marriages. According to this theory, the balance of power in a marital relationship is determined by a combination of comparative resources of marital partners and the cultural/subcultural norms concerning the distribution of marital power. Normative definitions in households can serve to prescribe the distribution

of power and in certain contexts influence the effect of resources on power. In particular, resources show only minimal association with decision-making power in marital situations in which norms are considered patriarchal and husbands are granted power by virtue of their position. On the other hand, in more egalitarian normative settings concerning marriage, power is negotiable according to a resource exchange process. Cross-cultural research provides some empirical evidence for this theory (Blood, 1967; Buric & Zecevic, 1967; Kandel & Lesser, 1972; Turk & Bell, 1972). Komarovsky (1962) and Blood (1967) specifically reported patriarchal norms influencing the power distribution in blue-collar marriages. Komarovsky found that the power in households of an American sample of blue-collar marriages was distributed such that the higher the socioeconomic status of the husbands the lower their power. In similar fashion, Blood's results showed that within a sample of Japanese married couples with varying socioeconomic levels, blue-collar husbands had more power than white-collar husbands. Findings in both studies were interpreted as being the result of the presence of greater adherence to patriarchal authority in lower economic status level families.

Research findings have indicated sex-role attitudes being a function of level of education (Scanzoni, 1975; Sidel, 1978). These would suggest that blue-collar marriages generally have traditional or patriarchal norms. Data from the present study could be consistent with a normative-resource theory, as norms

concerning decision-making power in our blue-collar sample may be sufficiently patriarchal to attenuate the influence of resource contributions by husbands on decision-making patterns. With respect to the power distribution in marriages, the proposed dyadic exchange model may only apply to relatively egalitarian marriages. Strong patriarchal norms would possibly render the distribution of power as inflexible to contextual factors such as exchange elements. Marital couples from both groups would then be expected to show similar patterns of decision-making.

The finding that both groups of couples show similar levels of expressive behaviors being exchanged between spouses also fails to support the dyadic exchange model of marital relations. Unemployment of the husband does not appear to diminish the sharing of pleasant activities between spouses. Again, long-term patterns of exchanges in this area seem to remain in place even in the context of a husband's joblessness. The unemployment experienced by husbands does not appear to break the overall exchange process to the extent of affecting this area.

Overall, only small differences are indicated between the index and control groups in our study. In general, the unemployment of the husband does not appear to be associated with major changes in the overall exchange process in a marital relationship. The minor level of differences in marital satisfaction and the lack of differences in the expressive realm suggests that marital relationships are relatively intact and stable even in the context of difficulties associated with a

husband's unemployment. Similarly, the minimal differences in the division of household work and the lack of differences in the decision-making area between the two groups connote an unaltered household structure in the face of a husband's joblessness.

The findings are consistent with those of some previous micro-level studies (Brinkerhoff & White, 1978; Thomas, McCabe & Berry, 1980) which reported minimal negative consequences to a marriage resulting from the husband's joblessness. The nature of the unemployed sample in the present study could partially explain its findings. Specifically, the unemployment experienced by the participants is generally short-term (i.e., less than a year) and involuntary, and might still be viewed by most couples as being a temporary state. Therefore, longstanding exchange patterns remain in place and the predicted changes based on the theoretical model have not occurred yet.

It would also appear that the index group of couples have not experienced serious financial hardship as the result of the unemployment. An examination of the mean of index husbands and wives (Table 16) on the subjective financial measures shows them to be perceiving their financial state as "adequate" to "less than adequate" and to be reporting the presence of financial worries "sometimes" to "frequently". While it was determined that the control group of couples acknowledge a higher level of financial satisfaction on the subjective financial measures, major economic difficulties are not yet present in the index group. In addition, as shown in Table 6, a large percentage of the husbands (94%)

report their 1985 income as being greater than \$10,000.

Presumably, most of the husbands would be collecting unemployment insurance and, thereby, would at least partially fulfill expected financial contributions in the marital exchange network. As well, a high percentage of index wives (78%) are working at least part-time. The combination of these factors guarantees a basic level of existence for the index couples, softening somewhat the economic consequences of a husband's joblessness.

Financial factors may serve to account for differences in the findings of the present study which reports minor changes in marital functioning in the context of unemployment and those from the Liem (1983) study which showed deleterious consequences to wives and families after three months of a husband's joblessness. The dissimilarity of the financial support schemes for the unemployed in Canada and the United States might account for some of these differences. A plausible hypothesis is that the Liem sample of American unemployed families experienced a quicker and more pronounced economic slide than the Canadian unemployed in the present study who were able to rely on the federal unemployment insurance plan for some temporary economic relief.

Another important factor which may explain attenuated effects of unemployment as marital functioning in the present study relative to the Liem study could involve the optimistic forecast for re-employment of the index group based on relatively positive economic conditions in Winnipeg at the time of the study. In fact, index husbands from the U.A.W. local (2224) were jobless as

the result of a plan slowdown with a high probability of being recalled to work, although the date of the recall was unknown. On the other hand, the Liem sample experienced unemployment as the result of layoffs and cutbacks during a period of economic decline in Boston, U.S.A.

The recruitment process might also serve to account for the results. Given the high refusal rate of contacted eligible prospective participants in the index group (81%) and the inability to determine differences between those selected and those not agreeing to participate, it is possible that higher functioning couples showed a greater tendency to volunteer for the study as those couples feeling most stressed by unemployment may have been uncomfortable in participating in a survey focusing on marital issues. This selection bias could serve to underestimate differences between the two groups.

Finally, although marital relationship problems appear minimal in the index group, some individual difficulties are indicated. Specifically, unemployed husbands report lower levels of psychological well-being in comparison to employed husbands, which is consistent with previous research on individuals experiencing unemployment (Fineman, 1979; Finlay et al., 1981; Stafford et al., 1980; Warr, 1983). On the other hand, wives of unemployed husbands show comparable levels of psychological well-being to wives with working husbands, which deviates from previous research showing some spread of negative individual consequences from an unemployed husband to his wife (Cohn, 1978;

Liem, 1983). This finding is further evidence that the index group is not as yet experiencing serious problems as a result of the husband's joblessness. Nonetheless, both index spouses do report more frequent financial worries than the control spouses.

Within Group Findings

An investigation of the strength of a priori prediction fail for the most part to confirm a dyadic exchange model as explaining varying marital responses to unemployment. In fact, the psychological well-being of husbands and wives is the sole variable showing a significant relationship with marital satisfaction in the hypothesized direction. In addition, trends in the predicted direction are suggested between financial stress and marital satisfaction as well as decision-making power and marital satisfaction.

More specifically, results indicate the lower the psychological well-being of husbands or wives, the lower the marital satisfaction of the wife. Similarly the data indicates the husband's psychological well-being varying positively with his marital satisfaction. Further, a strong positive trend was found between the wife's psychological well-being and the husband's marital satisfaction. These relationships are consistent with previous research showing marital functioning being related to the individual functioning of spouses (Barry, 1970; Cole et al., 1980; Dean, 1966).

Given the cross-sectional nature of the study, it is difficult clearly interpreting these findings. A possible

explanation is that both the psychological well-being and marital satisfaction of spouses covary with a third variable which is experienced to varying degrees by marital partners exposed to unemployment (e.g., economic stress). A second interpretation is that the psychological well-being of partners in a marriage serves as a mediator to marital responses to unemployment. Individuals who experience lowered psychological well-being in the context of the husband's joblessness tend to encounter marital difficulties as a result of the lowered individual functioning. A third possibility would reverse the causality, with lowered marital satisfaction contributing to lowered well-being of spouses. Research indicating lowered individual functioning being associated with joblessness (Cohn, 1978; Feather & Barber, 1983; Stafford et al., 1980; Warr, 1983), regardless of marital status would suggest the second possibility being more likely than the third one.

The suggested relationship between the financial stress experienced by index wives and their level of marital satisfaction is consistent with an exchange model of marriages. Essentially, it was expected that subjective economic difficulties of the wife reflect directly on her evaluation of the husband's performance as an economic provider in the exchange process. In this study, higher levels of financial stress are suggested as being related to lower levels of marital satisfaction such that this evaluation of the husband's contribution in the exchange process may be taking place for the index wives.

The indicated trend in the index group between decision-making power as estimated by the husband and the marital satisfaction of wives is also in accordance with the proposed exchange model of marriages. It was predicted that decision-making power could be exchanged by husbands to offset losses in instrumental contributions due to unemployment, such that the lower their decision-making power the higher the marital satisfaction of wives. While a trend in this direction is present with decision-making power patterns as perceived by husbands, results based on perceptions of wives or of both spouses together surrounding dyadic patterns of decision-making does not suggest these dynamics as being present. The lack of correspondence between husbands and wives on perceptions of decision-making power based on the measure used in the present study has been documented (Brinkerhoff & Lupri, 1978; Cromwell & Cromwell, 1978; Douglas & Wind, 1978; Meyer & Lewis, 1976; Turk & Bell, 1972) and makes it difficult to interpret the present results. Therefore, evidence in this study supporting this aspect of the exchange network can only be considered tentative at best.

Findings regarding the sex-role preference of wives and marital satisfaction of spouses run counter to the proposed model of marriages. Based on Scanzoni's (1980) findings regarding the association between marital types conceptualized in the exchange model of marriages (Scanzoni, 1972) and the sex-role preference of spouses, it was decided to utilize the expressed sex-role preference of spouses as a means of identifying where a marriage

fell on the continuum from traditional (i.e. wife as Complement) to modern (i.e. wife as Equal Partner). It was predicted that the more modern the sex-role preference of spouses facing unemployment, the higher the level of marital satisfaction. According to the model, it was theorized that spouses with more modern or egalitarian attitudes concerning marital roles would possess greater flexibility in adjusting to the new exchange patterns between spouses associated with a husband's joblessness. However, in the present study results show the more modern the sex-role preference of index wives, the lower the marital satisfaction of both spouses, while no clear relationship emerges between the sex-role preference of index husbands and marital satisfaction.

These results cannot necessarily be viewed as disconfirming the hypothesized relationship between the sex-role preference of spouses and marital satisfaction in the context of unemployment. The lack of major differences between the two groups indicates a relatively intact exchange and role structure within those marriages encountering the joblessness of husbands. Therefore, the presence of modern or egalitarian sex-role preference promoting flexible marital roles would not be a crucial factor for index spouses in terms of encouraging marital adjustment to unemployment. The predicted relationship might be present in more dysfunctional marital situations where the husband is unemployed.

Post-hoc analyses of the differences between the sex-role preference of husbands and wives in relationship to marital

satisfaction might help explain the results which run counter to the theoretical model. Two different marital situations have to be considered to fully understand the relationship of the disparity between spouses on sex-role preferences and marital satisfaction. Specifically, in situations where wives have more modern preferences relative to their husbands, the larger the disparity between spouses, the lower the level of marital satisfaction for both spouses. In reverse marital situations where husbands are more modern relative to wives, results suggest that the larger the disparity between spouses, the higher the level of marital satisfaction of both spouses.

Scanzoni and Szinovacz (1980) pointed out the important nature of disparity between spouses in the area of sex-role attitudes with respect to marital functioning. The results from the present study fit with their theoretical explanation of the role of this important factor in the marital process. Specifically, Scanzoni and Szinovacz hypothesized that marital dynamics involving modern or nontraditional wives with traditional husbands seems a precursor for disagreements surrounding marital arrangements as wives attempt to negotiate a more egalitarian relationship. Therefore, in these situations, the disparity of spouses on sex-role attitudes tends to encourage lower levels of marital satisfaction.

On the other hand, Scanzoni and Szinovacz argue that in marriages where the husband holds more modern sex-role preferences than the wife, there is less potential for conflict as husbands

tend to be more flexible to a wife's needs and open to requests for change. In these instances, the disparity between spouses on sex-role preference tends to promote higher levels of marital satisfaction. Overall, these post-hoc findings suggest a continuum of marital types based on the direction and degree of disparity between spouses with regard to their sex-role preference. This continuum can be seen to differ from that proposed by the Scanzoni (1972) model of marital types which seemed to assume a consistency between spouses in terms of sex-role preference. In general, it can be seen that the sex-role preference of husbands and wives may have to be considered simultaneously to fully understand it's relationship with marital satisfaction.

Directions for Future Research

In the present study, marital relationships faced with unemployment did not appear as being significantly altered. Findings are consistent with Thomas et al.'s (1980) review of select studies on unemployment and families conducted during the 1970's showing minimal adverse consequences accompanying a husband's joblessness. It was concluded that unemployment may not be as disruptive now as it was during the Great Depression. Three cultural trends in North America were posited as explaining these results: a) The diminishment in the centrality of work in people's lives (Ginzberg, 1971; Little, 1976); b) movement towards more flexible sex-roles in marriages (Richardson, 1979; Scanzoni, 1980); c) the minimization of severe economic deprivation of the

unemployed through financial support systems (Estes & Wilensky, 1978; Root & Maryland, 1978).

The latter trend may be particularly relevant in the present study. The lack of fit between the results and the proposed theoretical model may be a function of the nature of the sample rather than the invalidation of the model. Although the index couples report lower marital satisfaction and a small change in the division of household work, findings suggest a relatively intact exchange arrangement within their relationship. Based on the subjective financial measures and the reported income of index husbands and wives (Table 6), it would appear that couples faced with unemployment are only experiencing minor economic deprivation. The monetary contribution of unemployed husbands through unemployment insurance compensation and the short-term nature of their joblessness would encourage some continuation of the longstanding exchange network.

In order to properly test the proposed model, an index sample reflecting a larger violation of the exchange agreement is necessary. For example, couples experiencing the long-term unemployment of the husband, such that they are forced to rely on social welfare for subsistence, or couples suffering from both significant debt problems and the joblessness of the husband would more likely provide a sufficient breach of the exchange agreement to investigate the model and corresponding hypotheses.

In addition to testing the model with a different sample of unemployed, a number of theoretical issues have been raised in the

current study which are worthy of further exploration. As previously mentioned, the interpretation of the significant relationship between the psychological well-being of spouses and marital satisfaction could involve a number of alternatives which further research may help clarify. Longitudinal research using a cross-lagged panel correlation design might help determine the presence of causality between these two variables (Cook & Campbell, 1979).

The sex-role preference variable shows an unexpected relationship with marital satisfaction and further analyses indicate that examining exclusively the sex-role preference of a marital partner as being misleading in terms of its relationship to marital functioning. As suggested by Scanzoni and Fox (1980), Kingsbury and Scanzoni (1983), and Haber (1984), marital types involving the sex-role preference of both spouses may be a key mediator to marital adjustment. Using the same proposed model with a larger and more diverse sample, it would be worthwhile to compare the marital adaptation to unemployment between marriage types defined by the sex-role preference of both spouses (e.g. modern-modern, traditional-traditional, modern-traditional, traditional-modern).

The noted trend between financial stress and marital satisfaction should also be further investigated. The use of more comprehensive financial measures could help clarify this relationship. For example, such areas as actual loss in income, assets and debts, and the extent of lifestyle restriction

associated with unemployment might be some of the financial issues surrounding the relationship between the variables.

The other indicated trend in the predicted direction between decision-making power and marital satisfaction could also use elucidation through further research. The problems of the utilized measure of power are well documented and discussed in literature reviews regarding power (Gray-Little & Burks, 1983; MacDonald, 1980). The reported incongruency of responses on this measure between husbands and wives in some studies (Brinkerhoff & Lupri, 1978; Douglas & Wind, 1978; Olson & Rabinsky, 1972) and the limitations of relying on decision-making as the operational definition of marital power (Gray-Little, 1982; Olson & Rabinsky, 1972) are concerns particularly relevant to the present study. The use of multitrait-multimethod procedures including observational techniques is recommended for subsequent research in the area.

While the present study indicates no differences between the two groups in the area of power outcomes (i.e., degree of ultimate influence of spouses in decision-making), some research regarding power processes as conceptualized by Cromwell and Olson (1975) may be of theoretical relevance to the proposed model. Power processes refer to the strategies which marital partners utilize to gain influence in the decision-making processes. Changes in power processes are expected to precede changes in power outcomes. Research comparing unemployed couples with employed couples in terms of power processes would allow for investigating subtle

shifts in power dynamics in the context of unemployment not apparent in the present study.

Further research is also recommended on the expressive area of marriages in the context of unemployment. The measure used in the present study to examine expressive behaviors is fairly global in nature, focusing on the amount of time dyadic members interact. It is assumed that the frequency of interaction between spouses translates into the extent of expressive behaviors being shared. Further research concerning marriages and unemployment should look at more specific expressive areas of functioning as global measures may hide actual changes in such distinct areas as sexual behaviors, communication, self-disclosure and conflict.

Several methodological improvements to the present study are suggested for subsequent research in this area. These would include undertaking longitudinal studies, augmenting sample size, increasing the heterogeneity of participants, and improving some of the measures. The use of a cross-sectional design is acceptable as an initial mechanism to test a theoretical model but for more interpretable results a longitudinal design is recommended. The cross-sectional design used in the present study involving non-equivalent groups allows for the possibility that differences between the groups are attributable to either unemployment or to selection differences between them (Cook & Campbell, 1979).

A longitudinal analysis with pre and post unemployment measures for both groups would enhance the interpretability of the

findings. Unfortunately, the unpredictable nature and short lead-up to work layoffs make it difficult to carry out this design. However, short-term longitudinal comparison studies beginning with unemployment of husbands in index couples as an initial time point and examining couples following the resumption of work is amenable and would lessen threats to internal validity.

A larger sample is recommended for future studies in order to increase statistical power particularly with regard to examining relationship between variables within unemployed couples. In the present study, correlation coefficient tables (Glass & Stanley, 1970) show an $r > .34$ as being necessary for significance at

$= .05$ with an $n = 30$. As can be seen, Type II error is inflated for the within group analyses and a larger sample would allow for identifying weaker significant relationships between variables.

The specificity of the sample, involving exclusively members from blue-collar unions, ensures some homogeneity between index and control group and thereby lessens selection threats to internal validity. It has already been argued that the particular situation of the index participants may not allow for an adequate test of the theoretical model and a sample of couples suffering from long-term unemployment and/or incurring greater financial difficulties is suggested for future investigation to test the model. In addition, it would be worthwhile looking at the model in the context of middle-class couples experiencing unemployment. This would allow for some generalizability of research as well as increase the variability on such variables as household division

of labour, decision-making power and sex-role preference which have been shown to be influenced by SES norms (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Scanlon, 1975).

Measurements in the present study were chosen for both their fit with a construct and their psychometric properties. Earlier discussion noted the theoretical restrictiveness of the measures of decision-making power, expressive behaviors and financial difficulties and accordingly made suggestions for amelioration. A further measurement concern involves the household task performance measure, as some participants encountered problems such that their data could not be used. The major difficulty for these individuals seems to involve calculating percentage contributions by each partner. The replacement of percentages by estimates of hours for each spouse might alleviate this difficulty while allowing for a similar level of accuracy. Other alternatives involve a forced-choice format or having participants complete a diary of their household work. The forced choice format would have to be validated psychometrically before being used while a diary makes the highest demands on participants although it likely gives the most accurate assessment of the division of household labour.

Practical Relevance of the Findings

The present study suggests that short-term unemployment in a blue-collar population is associated with small decreases in marital satisfaction, the presence of financial stress for both spouses, and diminished psychological well-being for the husband. Findings from this particular study do not point to specific dyadic interventions for marriages undergoing the joblessness of the husband.

Future research investigating married couples in the midst of longer-term unemployment may clarify the role of such financial support schemes as unemployment insurance in promoting stability in marital functioning as well as identify groups in need of family intervention. Findings in the present study do join numerous other studies (e.g. Cohn, 1978; Feather & Barber, 1983; Finlay-Jones & Eckhardt, 1981; Stafford et al., 1980; Warr, 1983) in showing some need for interventions targeted at increasing diminished functioning of individuals experiencing joblessness. Although the most effective intervention for the jobless is the return to work, some interim help with the situational stress of being unemployed would be helpful to those individuals open to it. A combined stress management and occupational training approach are recommended as being more relevant and effective than programs centered on individual psychotherapy (Fortin, 1984; Powell, 1973; Smith & Hershenson, 1977). Fortin (1984) argues that interventions with unemployed individuals should focus concretely on the specific problems being encountered allowing for some expression of negative feelings (e.g. anger, sadness) and helping them find ways of countering major sources of stress while being jobless (e.g., isolation, loss of rewards supplied by work, rejections in job search). Unions, social service agencies and other organizations involved with the unemployed would do well in initiating unemployment preparation courses and stress management programs for those unfortunate enough to experience a period of joblessness.

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APPENDIX A

Letter to Index Group



THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, CANADA
R3T 2N2

March 24, 1986

Dear Union Member:

You are being invited to participate in a research project on married situations where the husband is unemployed. This research is being conducted through the Department of Psychology at the University of Manitoba where I am a graduate student under the supervision of Dr. Bruce Tefft.

Participating in this project will require about 30 minutes of you and your spouse's time in your home to fill out separate multiple choice and fill in the blank questionnaires. No one other than myself will have access to your answers.

The direct benefits for participating in this research will include being paid \$20 per couple for filling out questionnaires. As well, you would also receive a summary of the findings, which could help you further understand marital situations facing unemployment.

In a short while, I will be phoning you to determine if you and your wife would be interested in participating in this survey study. At this time, I would be pleased to answer any inquiries you might have about this project.

Sincerely,

Tim Aubry
Graduate StudentBruce Tefft, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Research Supervisor

APPENDIX B

Letter to Control Group



THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, CANADA
R3T 2N2

January 16, 1986

Dear Union Member:

You are being invited to participate in a research project on married couples in the community. This research is being conducted through the Department of Psychology at the University of Manitoba where I am a graduate student under the supervision of Dr. Bruce Tefft.

Participating in this project will require about 30 minutes of you and your spouse's time in your home to fill out separate multiple choice and fill in the blank questionnaires. No one other than myself will have access to your answers.

The direct benefits for participating in this research will include payment of \$20 per couple for filling out questionnaires. You would also receive a summary of the findings, which could help you further understand marital situations in the community.

If you are interested in participating in this study, please leave your name with either myself or Dan Will tonight or you can phone me at 786-1990.

Sincerely,

Tim Aubry
Graduate Student

APPENDIX C

Initial Contact Protocol for Union Representative - Index Group



THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, CANADA
R3T 2N2Unemployment Research Project

Initial Telephone Contact: (provided by union local President to prospective participants)
Information:

1. Invitation to participate;
2. Survey research on household and marital situations where the husband is unemployed;
3. Demands involve husband and wife filling out separate questionnaires which take approximately 30 minutes;
4. Part of thesis research being conducted through the Department of Psychology at the University of Manitoba;
5. Participation and responses will be held strictly confidential;
6. Questionnaires involve multiple choice and fill in the blank questions;
7. Participants will be paid \$20 per couple for filling out questionnaires.

Screening

If interested in participating, union members are asked if they meet the following criteria:

- a.) Married or common-law;
- b.) Unemployed for at least 3 months and less than one (1) year;
- c.) Are not attending work-training or a school program full-time;
- d.) Have not retired from the workforce.

If union members are interested and meet screening criteria, an appointment time is set.

APPENDIX D

Initial Contact Protocol for Union Representative - Control Group



THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Winnipeg, Manitoba
Canada R3T 2N2Unemployment Research Project

Initial Telephone Contact: (provided by union representative to prospective participants)

Information:

1. Invitation to participate;
2. Survey research on household and marital situations where the husband is working full-time;
3. Demands of participation involve husband and wife filling out separate questionnaires which take approximately 30 minutes;
4. Part of thesis research being conducted through the Department of Psychology at the University of Manitoba;
5. Participation and responses will be held strictly confidential;
6. Questionnaires involve multiple choice and fill in the blank questions;
7. Participants will be paid \$20 per couple for filling out questionnaires.

Screening:

If interested in participating, union members are asked if they meet the following criteria:

- a) Married or common-law and living with their spouse;
- b) Employed full-time for at least 3 consecutive months;
- c) Both husband and wife are willing to participate;
- d) Both husband and wife are able to read english.

APPENDIX E

Letter Accompanying Initial Contact by Union Representative



THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, CANADA
R3T 2N2

March 18, 1986

Dear Union Member:

You are being invited to participate in a research project on married situations where the husband is unemployed. This research is being conducted through the Department of Psychology at the University of Manitoba where I am a graduate student under the supervision of Dr. Bruce Tefft.

Participating in this project will require about 30 minutes of you and your spouse's time in your home to fill out separate multiple choice and fill in the blank questionnaires. No one other than myself will have access to your answers.

The direct benefits for participating in this research will include being paid \$20 per couple for filling out questionnaires. As well, you would also receive a summary of the findings, which could help you further understand marital situations facing unemployment.

If you are interested in participating in this study, please leave your name at the union office or you can phone me at 786-1990 or 474-8264.

Sincerely yours,

Tim Aubry
Graduate Student

APPENDIX F

Telephone Protocol for Prospective Unemployed Participants

APPENDIX F

Telephone Protocol for Prospective Unemployed Participants

Protocol: Hello, This is Tim Aubry from the Department of Psychology at the University of Manitoba. Mr. _____ (union contact) has informed me that you are interested in participating in the research study I am conducting. The study is a questionnaire survey of households and marital situations in which the husband is unemployed. You and your wife will be asked to fill out separate questionnaires which take about 30 minutes. You will be paid \$20 for participating. Did you have any questions about the study, before participating?

Screening:

1. How long have you (your husband) been unemployed?
2. Are you (your husband) going to school or involved in work training?
3. Can both you and your wife (husband) read english?

If participant continues to be interested and meets screening criteria, then appointment time is set.

APPENDIX G

Telephone Protocol for Prospective Employed Participants

APPENDIX G

Telephone Protocol for Prospective Employed Participants

Protocol: Hello, This is Tim Aubry from the Department of Psychology at the University of Manitoba. I recently sent you a letter explaining details of a research project I am conducting on marital situations in the community. Did you receive it? The study is a questionnaire survey in which husbands and wives fill out separate questionnaires which take about 30 minutes. Married couples are paid \$20 for participating. Would you and your wife be interested in participating in this study? Did you have any questions before participating?

Screening:

1. How long have you (your husband) been employed full-time?
2. Can both you and your wife (husband) read english?

If participant is interested and meets screening criteria, then appointment time is set.

APPENDIX H
Informed Consent Form

APPENDIX H

Informed Consent Form

Date _____

I _____ voluntarily agree to serve as a
name
respondent in the questionnaire study examining marital relations
in the community. In consenting to participation, I have been
advised that all my responses will be kept strictly confidential
and any presentation or publication of results will be in
group/aggregate format guaranteeing anonymity of the individual
respondents.

signature of participant_____
witness

APPENDIX I

Verbal Instructions to Participants

APPENDIX I

Verbal Instructions to Participants

Have you both seen a copy of the letter summarizing the nature and demands of participating in the study? (If not, show a copy of letter) I am currently in the process of visiting up to 80 households in Winnipeg and having both husbands and wives complete a questionnaire which takes 20-30 minutes. The questionnaire is very straightforward and involves a series of fill-in-the-blank and multiple choice questions. In completing the questionnaire, I would ask you to work in separate areas to prevent any discussion or collaboration. The instructions for filling out the questionnaire are contained on the first page of the questionnaire. Before beginning, please note the following:

- 1) You are always free to discontinue your participation at any time even while in the process of completing your questionnaire. If you should choose this option, your data would not be used in the study;
- 2) If you encounter difficulty in understanding the instructions, please feel free to ask me to clarify them for you;
- 3) Finally, try to answer all the questions.

APPENDIX J

Questionnaire Instructions to Participants

APPENDIX J

Instructions Page for Questionnaire

Dear Respondent:

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this study. The following confidential questionnaire focuses on personal information, your household situation and marital relations.

Questions in this booklet are arranged so that you either fill in the blanks or circle the response that best describes your situation. Some of the questions are factual and ask you to give an answer that is true for you. Other questions ask for your opinion on an issue. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions as I am only interested in your opinions about things.

PLEASE READ QUESTION QUESTION CAREFULLY BEFORE ANSWERING

Please note that I guarantee no one other than myself will know you participated in the research or have access to your answers. Not even your husband will find out how you responded.

You should also realize that at any time during the course of taking part in this study, you are free to discontinue your participation.

If the instructions are not clear to you, please feel free to ask for assistance. However, I am unable to help you answer individual questions. Please try to answer all the questions in the booklet.

Thank you! I hope you find it worthwhile participating in the study.

Tim Aubry

APPENDIX K

Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale

Appendix K

Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale

Read the following items carefully and circle the responses which best describe your marital relationship.

- | | <u>All</u>
<u>the time</u> | <u>Most of</u>
<u>the time</u> | <u>More</u>
<u>often</u>
<u>than not</u> | <u>Occa-</u>
<u>sionally</u> | <u>Rarely</u> | <u>Never</u> |
|--|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| 1. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Do you confide in your mate? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Do you ever regret that you married? (or lived together) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. How often do you and your partner quarrel? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?" | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship. | | | | | | |

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
.
Extremely	Fairly	A little	Happy	Very	Extremely	Perfect
<u>Unhappy</u>	<u>Unhappy</u>	<u>Unhappy</u>		Happy	Happy	

9. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?
- 5 I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does.
- 4 I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does.
- 3 I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.
- 2 It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed.
- 1 It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.
- 0 My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

		Almost			
	<u>Every Day</u>	<u>Every Day</u>	<u>Occasionally</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
10. Do you kiss your mate?	4	3	2	1	0

APPENDIX L

Household Task Performance Measure

APPENDIX L

Household Task Performance Measure

The following items are household tasks performed in most homes. For each listed task, estimate:

- a) Total combined time per week spent on it by you and your wife (husband);
- b) Proportion (%) of the total time which you spend on it;
- c) Proportion (%) of the total time which your wife spends on it.

	Total time per week in household	% of total time performed by you	% of total time performed by your wife
Example:			
Laundry	3 hrs.	50 %	50 %
a. Shopping for food	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
b. Food preparation	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
c. After-meal cleanup	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
d. Laundry	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
e. Vacuuming and house cleaning	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
f. Repair and maintenance of the house	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
g. Gardening and lawn care	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
h. Minor car repairs and maintenance	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
i. Attending functions with child(ren)	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
j. Daily care of child(ren)	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
k. Paying bills and balancing the checkbook	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
l. Co-ordinating day to day family activities	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %
m. Organizing social activities	_____ hrs.	_____ %	_____ %

APPENDIX M

Decision-Making Power Scale

APPENDIX M

Decision-Making Power Scale

In every family somebody has to decide such things as where the family will live and so on. Many couples talk things over first, but the final decision has to be made by the husband, or the wife. Who makes the final decision about the following areas in your marriage. (Circle one for each listed area.)

	Wife Always	Wife More Than Husband	Husband and Wife Exactly The Same	Husband More Than Wife	Husband Always
a. What people you will invite to the house or go out with.	1	2	3	4	5
b. How to decorate or furnish the house.	1	2	3	4	5
c. Which TV or radio program to tune in.	1	2	3	4	5
d. What the family will have for dinner.	1	2	3	4	5
e. What clothes you will buy.	1	2	3	4	5
f. What types of clothes your wife should buy.	1	2	3	4	5
g. What car to get.	1	2	3	4	5
h. Whether or not to buy life insurance.	1	2	3	4	5
i. What house or apartment to take.	1	2	3	4	5
j. What job you should take.	1	2	3	4	5
k. Whether or not your wife should go to work or quit work.	1	2	3	4	5

	Wife Always	Wife More Than Husband	Husband and Wife Exactly The Same	Husband More Than Wife	Husband Always
l. How much money the family can afford to spend per week on food.	1	2	3	4	5
m. What doctor to have when someone is sick.	1	2	3	4	5
n. Where to go on vacation.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX N

Dyadic Cohesion Subscale

APPENDIX N

Dyadic Cohesion Subscale

Read the following items carefully and circle the response which best describes your marital relationship:

	<u>All of them</u>	<u>Most of them</u>	<u>Some of them</u>	<u>Very few them</u>	<u>None of them</u>
1. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	4	3	2	1	0

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

	<u>Never</u>	<u>Less than once a month</u>	<u>Once or twice a month</u>	<u>Once or twice a week</u>	<u>Once a day</u>	<u>More often</u>
2. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	0	1	2	3	4	5
3. Laugh together	0	1	2	3	4	5
4. Calmly discuss something	0	1	2	3	4	5
5. Work together on a project	0	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX O

Sex-Role Preference Index

APPENDIX O

Sex-Role Preference Index: Husband

What is your opinion about each of the following statements for a married man? Think about married men in general. Please circle whether you strongly agree, agree, have mixed feelings, disagree, or strongly disagree about each of the following statements:

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Mixed</u> <u>Feelings</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
1. A married man's chief responsibility should be his job.	0	1	2	3	4
2. If his wife works, he should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning and washing.	4	3	2	1	0
3. If his wife works, he should share equally in the responsibility of child care.	4	3	2	1	0
4. If <u>her</u> job requires her to be away from home overnight, this should not bother him.	4	3	2	1	0
5. If a child gets sick and his wife works, he should be just as willing as she to stay home from work and take care of the child.	4	3	2	1	0
6. If his wife makes more money than he does, this should not bother him.	4	3	2	1	0
7. The husband should be the head of the family.	0	1	2	3	4
8. On the job, men should be willing to work for women supervisors.	4	3	2	1	0
9. A married man should be willing to have a smaller family, so that his wife can work if she wants to.	4	3	2	1	0

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Mixed</u> <u>Feelings</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
10. A married woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her husband and children.	0	1	2	3	4
11. She should realize that a woman's greatest reward and satisfaction come through her children.	0	1	2	3	4
12. Having a job herself should be just as important as encouraging her husband in his job.	4	3	2	1	0
13. If she works, she should <u>not</u> try to get ahead in the same way that a man does.	0	1	2	3	4
14. She should be able to make long-range plans for her occupation, in the same way that her husband does for his.	0	1	2	3	4
15. A wife should <u>not</u> have equal authority with her husband in making decisions	0	1	2	3	4
16. If she has the same job as a man who has to support his family, she should <u>not</u> expect the same pay.	0	1	2	3	4
17. If being a wife and mother isn't satisfying enough, she should take a job.	4	3	2	1	0
18. There should be more day care centers and nursery schools so that more young mothers could work.	4	3	2	1	0
19. A wife should realize that, just as a woman is not suited for heavy physical work, there are also other kinds of jobs she is not suited for, because of her mental and emotional nature.	0	1	2	3	4

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Mixed</u> <u>Feelings</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
20. A wife should give up her job whenever it inconveniences her husband and children.	0	1	2	3	4
21. If a mother of young children works, it should be only while the family needs the money.	0	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX P

General Health Questionnaire

APPENDIX P

General Health Questionnaire

We would like to know how your health has been in general, over the past few weeks. Please answer all questions below by circling the answer which you think most nearly applies to you. Remember we want to know about present or recent complaints not those you had in the past. It is important you try and answer all the questions.

HAVE YOU RECENTLY:	1	2	3	4
1. been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing?	Better than usual	Same as usual	Less than usual	Much less than usual
2. lost much sleep over worry?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
3. felt that you are playing a useful part in things?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less useful than usual	Much less useful
4. felt capable of making decisions about things?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less capable
5. felt constantly under strain?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
6. felt that you couldn't overcome your difficulties?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
7. been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual
8. been able to face up to your problems?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less able than usual	Much less able
9. been feeling unhappy and depressed?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
10. been losing confidence in yourself?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
11. been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
12. been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?	More so than usual	About the same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual