PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND FEMALE CLERICAL WORKERS

by

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Abstract

This study was conducted to discover the influence of marital and parental status on the psychological well-being of women working in clerical and secretarial occupations. The research is based on Warr and Parry's (1982a) conceptual framework which suggests that occupational involvement (i.e., desire to work), the quality of the nonoccupational environment and the quality of the employment relationship are the three most important clusters of variables influencing the psychological well-being of working women.

Subjects selected for the study were female clerical and secretarial employees of the University of British Columbia. Each participant completed a short questionnaire containing two sections: the first pertained to the recruitment of demographic and personal background information; the second consisted of instruments designed to isolate and measure the above-named dependent variables identified by Warr and Parry (1982a).

The study found that all women, irrespective of life cycle stages, were highly committed to the concept of paid employment. Related to this was the finding that while economic considerations are important
motivators, women's desire to work for personal needs is strong and exists irrespective of factors related to economic gains.

The study also found that, as expected, marital and parental status are important determinants of the psychological well-being of working women. While nearly all women were highly committed to the concept of paid employment, married working women revealed the highest psychological well-being, and also were the group most satisfied with family and social life. By contrast, as expected, previously married women showed the lowest psychological well-being, and were significantly less satisfied with family and social life. Furthermore, the issue of multiple roles as a detriment to psychological well-being does not appear to hold true for this study.

In conclusion, the study found that marriage and family continue to be, as they have been historically, factors of central importance in the psychological well-being of women, while the commitment to paid employment is at the same time stronger than ever before.
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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of Donna Mary Morgan whose determination and courage remain an inspiration to me.
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Women have dramatically transformed the composition of the labour force in the post war era. Since 1941, when only 22.9% of all Canadian women worked for pay, (Ostry & Denton, 1967), women's participation rates have climbed steadily. By 1971 the figure had risen to 39.4% (Labour Canada, 1983). The most current census data of 1981 reveals that for the first time more than 50%, precisely 51.6%, of all women fifteen years of age and older are in the labour force (Statistics Canada, 1984). A recent Canadian survey of labour force trends based on 1983 figures reported a participation rate of 53.7 for women in comparison to 79.0 for men (Financial Post, 1984). The emerging trend is clear and is expected to continue. It is projected that by 1990, fully 75% of Canadian women aged 24-54 will be in the paid labour force (Labour Canada, 1983).

While the sheer numbers are striking, the changing composition of the labour force may be even more significant. A generation ago the act of marriage for women usually meant withdrawal from the work place. Typically, only the single and divorced were to be found in or seeking paid employment. Today the trend
has shifted with the sharpest incline in women entering the labour force among those married. In the case of divorced women the probability of their entering the labour force has not risen. But what has increased dramatically in the past 20 years is the divorce rate. These two factors - that today married women are more likely to engage in paid employment and that more women are divorced or separated - means that more children have working mothers. In fact, one of the most important changes in the female labour force in Canada has been the number of mothers, and especially those with preschool children, working outside the home. Thus the past forty years have seen a significant growth and diversification of the female work force.

Statement of the problem

The impact of employment on women's psychological well-being is dependent on such factors as education, occupational level, marital and socioeconomic status. It is expected, for example, that the experience of employment and more particularly its effect on psychological well-being will differ for the highly successful lawyer married to an equally successful dentist compared with the single mother working as a
clerk typist struggling to eke out an existence for herself and her children. Moreover, highly paid professional women married to men with similar positions are the least likely to be threatened by domestic overload. Such women are more likely to have financial resources to pay for home help and child care and are more likely to have employee benefit packages covering such areas as extended medical/dental plans and additional paid maternity leave. Lower paying jobs rarely provide such extensive fringe benefits. Women in these positions, and in particular single mothers, must rely on government economic policies such as family allowance and child tax credits.

Yet, surprisingly, much of the research undertaken to date has failed to make such kinds of distinctions among working women. The framework most frequently utilized has been that of the dual career couple or professional career woman (Burke & Weir, 1976a; Faver, 1984; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a; Houseknect & Macke, 1981; Hunt & Hunt, 1982, Rapoport & Rapopport, 1976; Yogev, 1982, 1983).

This focus is problematic for it rests on the assumption that women in general have easy access to higher education and consequently to professional and managerial positions. The professional career
characterization is not representative of most working women and is clearly inadequate for explaining the experiences of non-professional women. Indeed, this depiction is skewed counter to basic realities. The majority of working women are to be found in female dominated, low paying, low status jobs. The 1981 Canadian census showed that more than 60% of all employed women were in clerical, sales or service occupations (Labour Canada, 1983). The largest population of female employees by a considerable margin was concentrated in the clerical sector - more than 1/3 of the female labour force (Labour Canada, 1983).

Studies investigating the role of work in the lives of women engaged in non-professional jobs frequently discount the existence of personal rewards associated with such employment. Instead, economic need is considered to be the most important reason for employment in lower status jobs. As Wright (1978) points out, the relevant literature suggests that women who "have to work" are assumed not to like their jobs. This is in direct contrast to the frequently espoused view that women in professional careers are primarily motivated to work for personal gain and that monetary rewards are secondary.
While it may be true that women in non-professional jobs report lower job satisfaction than professional women it would be erroneous to suggest that employment therefore hinders life satisfaction for this group of women. The psychological benefits associated with having a job cannot be dismissed. For example, at the very least a job makes available an additional social network. But of still greater importance, work provides one with a sense of participation, purpose in society as well as pride in one's accomplishments both on the job and as a contributor to the family's maintenance (Astin, 1985; Ferree 1976, 1984; Komarovsky, 1962; Oakley, 1974; Rubin, 1976).

A second shortcoming of previous research has been the tendency to treat women as a monolithic category without regard to distinction on the basis of life cycle. The life cycle is here defined as the progress of the individual through a series of stages from adolescence through adulthood to old age, and entailing the presence or absence of a partner as well as the arrival and departure of children. It can be expected that for women role demands will vary with stages of the life cycle and this variance will have a salient effect on both employment status and employment
satisfaction. Since, for example, the roles and obligations of a single woman without children will most definitely vary from those of a married woman with children, it is expected that their attitudes and satisfactions derived from paid employment will differ as well (Baruch, Barnett & Rivers, 1983). While single women report a high commitment to the paid labour force (Agassi, 1982; Warr & Parry, 1982a), the presence of young children is negatively associated with employment (Armstrong & Armstrong, 1983; Barnett, 1982; Paver, 1984, Ferber, 1980, 1982; Hiller & Philliber, 1980). Mothers of young children, especially preschool children, are very much emotionally as well as physically involved in the task of parenting and, in general, this task takes priority for them over paid employment (Campbell, Converse & Rodgers, 1976). The question of the relationship of life cycle stages to the psychological well-being of working women becomes even more pertinent when we bear in mind that the recent increase in women's labour force participation has been for married women with children, that group which studies have traditionally shown to be least committed to paid employment.
Purpose of the study

This research is set within a conceptual framework that views a series of important variables beyond mere employment status as contributing to the psychological well-being of working women. Specifically, this study sets out to examine Warr and Parry's (1982a) theory that a woman's occupational involvement (i.e., desire to work), the quality of her nonoccupational environment and the quality of her employment relationship (or, more generally, job satisfaction) are the three most important clusters of variables influencing the psychological well-being of working women.

The primary objective of this study is to investigate the aforementioned cluster of dependent variables with relation to the independent variables of marital and/or parental status. In a question, will there be significant differences with regards to a woman's desire to work (occupational involvement), the quality of her nonoccupational environment and the quality of her employment relationship depending on her current marital and parental status?

A second objective is to expand on previous research by drawing a sample from the group of women most underrepresented in the literature and most
overrepresented in the workplace: the pink collar worker.

In summary, the question which this study will address is how do marital and parental status relate to the quality of life of women working in secretarial and clerical jobs?

Significance of the study

The purpose of work in men's lives has been an important subject of inquiry for both psychologists and sociologists. It has been established that for men being unemployed is associated with low psychological well-being (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965; Campbell et al., 1976; Gove & Geerkin, 1977; Levinson, 1978; Tamir, 1982; Warr, 1978, 1982a). As a result of the substantial increase in women's labour force participation researchers are now beginning to investigate the impact of paid employment in women's lives.

The importance of psychological well-being is self-evident. Satisfaction with one's life is an integral aspect of the overall health of every individual. Life satisfaction has long been a concern of philosophers, religious thinkers, and psychologists.
Increasingly it is becoming a concern of medical practitioners as well, as witnessed, for example, in the growing appreciation of a "holistic health" perspective. Since work is an integral aspect of everyday life, it seems appropriate to investigate its relevance in a population for whom work is presently of increasing importance.

As yet the relationship between psychological well-being and women's paid employment remains unclear (Baruch, et al, 1983 Warr & Parry, 1982a). One reason for this is the fact that research remains in the formative stage. Historically, "women's work" has been viewed only as occurring within the boundaries of the home, while paid employment has been considered "men's work". Contemporary analytical theories and models have also operated within the parameters of these hidden assumptions imbedded within long standing traditions. For example, previous studies have focused largely on comparisons between the psychological well-being of full time homemakers and women engaged in paid employment. While a single variable focus (i.e. considering only employment status) may have been useful at the initial stage of research, recent changes in women's labour force participation patterns require multivariable investigations to identify relationships
that are hidden or obscured at the level of single variable analysis.

Psychological well-being is influenced by many factors of which employment is just one. Moving beyond the single variable approach the significance of this study is to investigate the role of paid employment within the context of the "bigger picture" of women's lives, including not only psychological factors but additionally sociological and economic factors.
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

To understand the full picture of women's labour force participation this section will commence with a historical framework outlining the economic and social factors which have contributed to the steady increase in women's work involvement in the post war period. This will be followed by a review of the literature on psychological well-being and its relationship to women's paid and unpaid work.

Historical View of Women's Paid Employment

Women have always worked. However, the patterns of their work involvement have changed considerably over the past two centuries. During the preindustrial period the family was the economic unit and the home was a woman's true center of industry. The advent of the industrial revolution drew women away from the private domain of the home and into the wage economy of the factory. The first women to enter factories were typically young and single (Tilly & Scott, 1978). Yet it was always understood that a woman's real work began with matrimony when she would return to her primary responsibilities of child care and housework. Women
who were unfortunate in their quest for a husband, and those who were deserted or widowed, remained in the labour force permanently. However, this lifestyle was considered deviant by most sectors of society.

During the two world wars and especially during the Second World War, large numbers of women were enticed into the labour force in response to the pressures of war production and the shortage of male workers. Governments portrayed factory work as women's patriotic duty. Consequently the typical working woman was no longer young, single and poor. Women of all social backgrounds and in all stages of the life cycle went to work to contribute to the war effort (Crosby, 1982; Weiner, 1985). Daycare was readily available on the work site for mothers. Women engaged in nontraditional jobs. Women welders, crane operators, and riveters became the norm rather than the exception.

At war's end and with the return of the forces from abroad, women were urged by their governments to return to the home. In fact, just as they were enticed out of the home and into the factory, women were similarly enticed to return to the home. The concept of enticement is important here. Government policies as well as the private sector advertised and provided incentives to women who took up the traditional roles
of spouse and mother. The government provided tax incentives in the form of family allowances in an effort to encourage women to rebuild the nation through a replacement population scheme.

Private industry also targeted women as prime consumers and to this end launched a massive advertising campaign extolling the new technologies of the home (Friedan, 1963). In order to make new domestic products desirable private companies, or, more specifically, the advertising industry first had to make the roles of housewife and mother appear attractive.

Yet, despite these various incentives for women to choose a career in the home rather than in the labour market, women's labour force participation has increased steadily since 1951 (Statistics Canada, 1984). Even more importantly, the greatest increase in labour force participation has occurred for married women (Labour Canada, 1983, Statistics Canada, 1984).

Throughout the past century a large proportion of single women have sought paid employment. However the most striking fact about women's labour force participation in the post war period has been the dramatic and continued increase in the numbers of married women seeking employment. Whereas in 1951,
22.5% of Canadian women participated in the labour force, by 1983 this figure had jumped to 52.6% (Connelly, 1978; Labour Canada, 1983; Statistics Canada, 1984). This new development is related in complex fashion to the wholly unprecedented economic prosperity and accompanying transformations of social structure, norms and values that has occurred in all modern western industrial societies over the past three decades.

In terms of women's employment the single most important economic fact has been the unprecedented growth of the tertiary or service producing industries, such as trade, finance and public administration, since 1950 (Statistics Canada, 1980; Connelly, 1978). Between the years 1951-81 the occupational category, clerical, expanded from 11.1 to 19.2 of the labour force - and most of these newly created positions went to women (Armstrong, 1984; Phillips & Phillips, 1983; Statistics Canada, 1980). In 1971, the tertiary sector was the most important employer, accounting for almost three quarters of all female workers and one half of all male employees in the country (Statistics Canada, 1980).

Coupled with this swelling expansion of demand for labour in traditional female occupations came the
appearance on the North American consumer market in the 1950's of a vast new array of domestic appliances. Initially luxuries available only to the wealthy, refrigerators, televisions and the like were gradually looked upon increasingly as, if not absolute necessities, at least "affordable luxuries" by North America's rapidly burgeoning middle class (Armstrong & Armstrong, 1983; Friedan, 1963). The new consumerism was indeed nurturing the emergence of the 'affluent society' described so aptly by John Kenneth Galbraith in his book of the same title (Galbraith, 1958).

Thus increasing numbers of married women responded both to the demand for labour and the lure of new consumer products which employment earnings could buy. It may also be reasonably argued that this new consumerism had the effect of eroding the traditional social stigma attached to families with working wives. Whereas in the past a working wife was often interpreted as evidence of a family in dire straits, there was now a measure of respectability imparted to the working wife. Her employment could now be viewed in terms of positive contribution to the betterment of the family's standard of living (Weiner, 1985).

By the early 1960's it was also becoming clear that more and more women were expressing a desire to
work for reasons of personal fulfillment (Friedan, 1963). Economic and social prosperity in North America made possible and in fact encouraged a new interest in evaluating the quality of life (Bradburn, 1969; Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965; Cantril, 1965; Gurin, Veroff & Feld). Betty Friedan's (1963) book *The Feminine Mystique* was a landmark in identifying and presaging the social and attitudinal transformations of our time. In her book Friedan gave concrete identity to "the problem without a name", more commonly referred to by analysts and family physicians as "housewife's syndrome". The symptoms were described as feelings of boredom, uselessness and depression. Friedan's women reported that what they desired was to expand their lives, past the confines of home and the lives of their husbands and children, in order to develop their own identities (Friedan, 1963).

Friedan's book was the vehicle the women's movement needed. The women's movement has continued to grow since the 1960's, exerting an influence not only in women's attitudes towards work as a vehicle for personal development and fulfillment, but on governments as well. Reproductive technology, daycare funding, affirmative action programmes and the establishment of government occupational training
courses for women have since given women greater control and choice in planning families and lifestyles. So it is not surprising then that by the 1980's married women with preschool children have come to represent the fastest growing category of women entering the labour force (Armstrong, 1984; Phillips & Phillips, 1983; Statistics Canada, 1983).

It is also true that particularly since the recession of the late 1970's, married women, or at least the great majority of them, also work for reasons of economic necessity (Armstrong, 1984; Armstrong & Armstrong, 1983; Boyd, 1977; Connelly, 1978; Fox & Hess-Biber, 1984; Phillips & Phillips, 1983; Oppenheimer, 1977, 1982). For many contemporary families only one wage earner has become insufficient to maintain the family standard of living. Excessively high levels of unemployment recently in certain traditionally male sectors of the economy, for example natural resources and construction, have forced wives to find employment in order to supplement the husband's unemployment benefits or prevent the family from having to rely on social assistance.

Given then that the reasons women are working are numerous and complex, an important question arises: what is the impact of work on women's well-being? It

The Construct of Psychological Well-Being

Reflection upon the quality of life, or life satisfaction has been central to human thought throughout history. Over the centuries the "happiness problem" has been seen as an ethical, religious, political or economic concern. Within the last century however the focus has shifted from philosophical debate to a more scientific procedure of economic and demographic data collection, in an ongoing search to measure the quality of life. Economic measurements have gained widespread acceptance and legitimacy because of what most regard as their objective nature;
that is, the standardization of equal and interchangeable units.

In the 1950's and early 1960's however psychologists began to question the established practice of evaluating the quality of life on the basis of economic indicators alone (Bradburn, 1969; Bradburn & Capowitz, 1965; Cantril, 1965; Gurin, Veroff & Feld, 1960). It was argued that higher income, better housing and neighbourhoods etc. did not necessarily guarantee that individuals would subjectively feel their quality of life to be better than those living under poorer socioeconomic conditions. What was important was the interaction of the person and his/her environment. To assess psychological well-being researchers recognized a need to develop new instruments designed to measure perceptions, expectations, feelings and values (Bradburn, 1969; Bradburn & Capowitz, 1965; Cantril, 1965; Gurin et al., 1960).

Out of this concern for subjective well-being emerged a new branch of psychology, humanistic psychology. The founder of this new school was Abraham Maslow, who postulated the existence of a hierarchical classification of human needs (Maslow, 1954). According to his theory human needs arrange themselves
in order of potency. Physiological needs, need for safety and security, and thirdly, the need for love and belonging make up the lower order needs while the higher order needs include the need for freedom and independence and ultimately self actualization (Maslow, 1954). Central to the theory is the hypothesis that lower order needs must be satisfied before higher needs can be gratified. Maslow argued that as more needs were satisfied psychological well-being would be enhanced.

Maslow's hypotheses concerning psychological well-being were exploratory in nature. The fact that he tested his theories on small groups rather than representative samples makes generalization based on his findings questionable (Hall & Lindzey, 1978). A further criticism of Maslow's sampling techniques is the fact that he recruited his subjects exclusively from the "healthy and well adjusted" middle and upper classes (Hall & Lindzey, 1978). Although this group may constitute a numerical majority of the population, nevertheless it leaves a significant research gap in understanding how lower socioeconomic groups perceive their psychological well-being. Taken one step further the question naturally arises as to whether people who have inadequate resources to fully satisfy their basic
needs are therefore denied gratification of the higher needs of respect, self esteem and actualization.

Notwithstanding these criticisms Maslow's emphasis on the specific needs and satisfactions which contribute to the experience of life made a significant contribution to the later quality of life investigations (Campbell, et al, 1976).

Interest in the assessment of the quality of life has grown considerably since the 1950's, and so too has the diversity of measurement techniques. One of the first major studies to investigate the quality of life on a national scale was undertaken in the United States in 1957 (Gurin et al., 1960). This study utilized what could be described as a "mental health orientation". Drawing from psychiatry and using a medical model as their framework Gurin and his colleagues (1960) were particularly interested in psychological and emotional stress. The survey they developed included questions about worries, fears of a nervous breakdown, satisfaction with life, a happiness item and an item on optimism for the future. Subjects who displayed fewer signs of stress, anxiety, worry and depression were classified as healthy (moderate to high well-being) while those who reported a previous "breakdown" or felt a need for psychological counselling were diagnosed as
ill or maladjusted (low psychological well-being) (Gurin et al., 1960).

To measure the construct of happiness Gurin and colleagues (1960) used a single item measure. To the question "taking all things together how would you say things are these days?", respondents were asked to choose from the following options: "very happy", "pretty happy" or "not too happy". This item is important because it has subsequently been included in a number of public opinion polls to assess trends in American life over time (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Bradburn, 1969; Bradburn & Capowitz, 1965; Campbell et al., 1976).

It can be argued that reliance on a single item to measure a concept as complex as happiness suffers from psychometric weakness. For example, single item measures tend to be less reliable over time, providing no estimates of internal consistency. They have also been shown to have low convergent reliability (Andrews & Withey, 1976a; Campbell, et al., 1976; Diener, 1984; Larsen, Diener & Emmons, 1985). In addition subsequent research has shown that subject response to 3-step scales tends to gravitate towards the upper end (i.e. "very happy") of the continuum (Andrews & Withey, 1976a; Campbell et al., 1976).
Rejecting both the medical model and the use of a single item measurement to evaluate life as a whole a second research approach was initiated to the study of the meaning of psychological well-being (Bradburn, 1969; Bradburn & Capowitz, 1965). Unlike Gurin and colleagues (1960) who conceptualized psychological well-being as an enduring personality trait, Bradburn's theory defined psychological well-being as a day to day affective state fluctuating in accordance to one's environment (Bradburn, 1969; Bradburn & Capowitz, 1965).

One significant outcome of Bradburn's (1965) study was the development of a two dimensional model of psychological well-being, which provided a skillfully worked demonstration that it may be necessary to take account of positive and negative feeling states independently of one another, in order to determine a global sense of individual well-being (Bradburn, 1969; Bradburn & Capowitz, 1965). Moreover, Bradburn asserted that positive and negative dimensions were not only independent of one another but were related to quite dissimilar variables. In his studies and subsequent replications it has been demonstrated that positive affect is highly correlated with increased social contact, exposure to new experiences,

As a result of his investigations Bradburn (1965; 1969) postulated that an excess of positive over negative affect was positively related to greater happiness, while an excess of negative affect related to greater unhappiness or dissatisfaction with life. Based on these findings Bradburn developed his Affect Balance Scale which has since come to be one of the most widely used research instruments in assessing psychological well-being (Harding 1982).

Although Bradburn's finding regarding the independence of negative and positive affect is superficially convincing, it has not been without its critics. The low correlation between positive and negative affect may be both the result of the items Bradburn chose and his measurement technique. Looking first at the items it becomes clear that the positive
affect items allude to success and energy in relation to specific events while the negative events are more general in nature (Diener, 1984). For example, the positive item "pleasure over accomplishments" has no negative counter such as "disappointment over failure".

Bradburn's measurement technique also has been criticized for relying on a limited time frame of day to day experiences of affective feeling states rather than an account of the relative frequency, intensity and duration of such feeling states (Cherlin & Reeder, 1976). Reliance on such a short time frame could encourage a low correlation between positive and negative affect. It may be then that the relatively simple notion of the independence of positive and negative affect masks a complexity of underlying emotional feelings (Cherlin & Reeder, 1976).

Finally, another significant study undertaken during this same time period was Cantril's (1965) study of human concerns. Although Cantril used the terms "happiness" and "satisfaction" interchangeably, his emphasis was on the cognitive experience of life satisfaction rather than what Bradburn referred to as affective or feeling states. Cantril's satisfaction-dissatisfaction measure was defined as the discrepancy between where one aspires to be and one's
actual situation. On a continuum running from "1" through "11" with number "1" representing "the worst possible situation and number "11" the "best possible situation" individuals were asked to think about their present level of satisfaction and compare this with where they aspired, expected or deserved to be (Cantril, 1965). Subjects were then asked to rate their perceived levels of satisfaction across a number of major life areas by indicating where they fell on this scale compared with others. One potential drawback of Cantril's self anchoring scale is the emphasis placed on external standards of comparison. Unlike "happiness" which seems to evoke an emotional state, Cantril's measure of "satisfaction" implies a more cognitive judgement of one's current situation in relation to that of family, friends and acquaintances (Campbell et al, 1976). This accentuates the aspect of relativity in responses thereby making interpersonal comparisons of ratings problematic (Campbell et al., 1976).

What is significant about Cantril's satisfaction scale is the fact that unlike happiness, which has shown a downward trend in national surveys since Gurin's (1960) first study, reported satisfaction has remained constant when used in subsequent national
surveys (Campbell, 1976, 1980). Therefore, in measuring overall life satisfaction or psychological well-being it is imperative that the researcher incorporates both happiness and satisfaction measures.

To summarize, the early studies of psychological well-being fall into three general categories: a mental health approach which focused on "maladjustment" (Gurin et al., 1960); a general affect balance, based on emotional tone and feelings varying with the situation at a particular time (Bradburn, 1969; Bradburn & Capowitz, 1965); and finally a satisfaction measure of well-being based on the perceived relationship between standards and attainments (Cantril, 1965).

Interest in the quality of life continued to gain momentum throughout the 1970's. In 1974 the social indicators movement attained even greater stature with the founding of its own journal devoted to subjective measurement of the quality of life.

Two major studies were undertaken in the mid-1970's to assess the quality of life (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Campbell et al., 1976). Working at the same time period but independently of each other both researchers developed a similar conceptual model. While previous studies had defined well-being as a single pervasive quality of life experience, assessed
by a global "life as a whole" measure, these researchers now argued that subjective well-being should be measured at several levels of specificity. While not completely dismissing the existence of an overall general well-being factor capable of discriminating one individual from another, it was now theorized that the combination of specific facets or domains, for example marriage, family life, socioeconomic status, work etc. determined an individual's overall psychological well-being.

The rationale behind this approach was two-fold. First, an expression of satisfaction within specific domains of life experience would provide more information on the quality of life experience than would be forthcoming from any single measure. Second, it would highlight patterns of relationships between satisfaction within specific domains and the contribution of each domain to an overall measure of life satisfaction (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Campbell et al., 1976). It was hypothesized that the scope and centrality of the various domains would determine the relative contribution of each to overall well-being. In other words the closest and most immediate domains would be expected to have the greatest impact on subjective well-being (Andrews & Withey, 1976b;
Campbell et al., 1976).

The most important domains revealed by these two studies and subsequent research are: marital status, marital satisfaction, satisfaction with self, family life, friends, work and socio-economic status (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Barnett, et al., 1983; Bernard, 1972, 1974, 1975, 1981; Bradburn, 1969; Burke & Weir, 1976; Campbell et al., 1976; Freudiger, 1983; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1975). Other domains which have been identified as important contributors to overall quality of life include health, education, housing, community and nation (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Campbell et al., 1976; Cantril, 1965; Gurin et al., 1960, 1981; Hall, 1976; Pearlin & Johnson, 1975; Radloff, 1975).

In the 1980's research into the quality of life continues to be a prominent concern among social scientists and governments. The Canadian government has allocated a sum of $100,000 to a five year longitudinal research programme investigating the quality of life in Canada (Atkinson, 1976). Drawing on the work of Campbell and colleagues (1976) the goals of this study are twofold. First, to develop descriptive measures of subjective social indicators of the quality of life and their distribution within the Canadian population; and secondly, to determine those conditions that are
related to changes in the perceptual indicators over time (Atkinson, 1976).

Women and Psychological Well-Being

Turning now to a review of research on women's psychological well-being it becomes clear that changes in the focus of research over the past three decades have mirrored the changing roles of women in contemporary North American society.

The first large scale survey of mental health in the general population was based on theories which adhered to the existence of a strict division between work and family life, a view prevalent among social scientists of the day. Personality theories underscored the sexual division of labour by describing women as nurturing, emotional and supportive - all qualities deemed ideal for the task of mothering and childrearing, while men's inherent aggressive nature was much better suited to the world of work (Freudiger, 1983). Sociological theories of this period were similar in their orientation. Proponents of the structural functionalist approach argued that family breakdown could be prevented when the dominant male
role was occupational and the dominant female role was that of housewife and mother (Parsons, 1942). The strength of this reigning paradigm is reflected in the first U.S. national survey of mental health, where male respondents were asked about their work lives and females about their home lives (Gurin et al., 1960). This approach should not surprise, given that men at work and women at home constituted the basic reality for a large segment of the population in the 1950's and 1960's.

As more and more women joined the labour force one of the first questions to arise was which lifestyle was psychologically more fulfilling - homemaker or paid employee? Early studies suggested that homemakers lived longer than working men because they were protected from the stressors of the world of work (Durkheim 1893/1984). Providing further evidence to support Durkheim's hypothesis is the fact that there has been a significant increase among working women of those diseases typically considered "men's diseases" such as coronary heart disease (Haynes & Feinleib, 1980).

However, this is not to say that the homemaker role is preferable to that of employee. Evidence suggests that overall, housewives suffer more symptoms
of psychological distress and mental illness than employed women (Bernard, 1972; Campbell et al., 1976; Cochrane & Stepes Roe, 1981; Ferree, 1976, 1984; Gove & Geerkin, 1977; Gove & Tudor, 1972; Kessler & McRae, 1982; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Radloff, 1975). The characteristics of their role that homemakers report dissatisfying include: lack of status and recognition, monotony, and social isolation. Earning a salary has been linked to women's decision making within the family and this provides one explanation as to why housewives frequently report feelings of powerlessness within their marriages (Ferree, 1976, 1984; Rapoport, 1980; Rubin, 1976).

How then does life differ for the working woman? In addition to the obvious economic benefits of employment, work provides social integration, a sense of recognition and self esteem, all of which are vital components of psychological well-being (Armstrong, 1984; Armstrong & Armstrong, 1983; Astin, 1985; Gove & Geerkin, 1977; Ingelhart, 1979). In a Canadian sample, Cumming, Lazer and Chisholm, (1975) found that employed women had lower rates of suicide than full-time housewives. One possible explanation of this significant finding is that employment provides a support network, thus underscoring the affiliative
benefits of having a job.

It also has been suggested that employment enhances well-being by acting as a buffer against stress experienced in other roles (Baruch et al., 1983; Betz, 1982; Brown & Harris, 1978; Crosby, 1984; Kessler & McRae, 1982). For example, employment may provide a welcome reprieve from the boredom of housework and the constant demands of childcare. Employment also may have positive psychological consequences for women who are facing life transitions (Brown & Harris, 1978; Richardson, 1981). Job involvement may offer some protection against feelings such as "loss of purpose" experienced as a result of grown children leaving home - commonly referred to as the "empty nest syndrome".

In summary, the focus of research has shifted over the years, from the structural-functionalist explanations of the 1950's and 1960's, which sought to express the functional stability (in terms of stability of the family, social stability, etc.) of the then prevailing sexual division of labour to a growing emphasis on the relative benefits of paid employment versus homemaking to women's psychological well-being. But by now this kind of either-or comparison is also reaching the point of becoming obsolete as the dual-earner family is rapidly becoming the most
prevalent family pattern (Mortimer & London, 1984). Accordingly, the focus of analysis must shift, to an examination of the multiplicity of variables which affect the psychological well-being of working women. The theoretical question of which is better no longer applies; instead the question now arises as to how the psychological needs - and hence the well-being - of working women can best be satisfied.

Psychological Well-Being of Working Women

As cited in the previous section, paid employment appears to have a positive effect on women's psychological well-being (Burke & Weir, 1976; Ferree, 1976; Wright, 1978). Nevertheless, the precise relationship between employment status and well-being remains both unclear and inconsistent (Warr & Parry, 1982b). A major reason for this lack of clarity is the fact that studies often fail to differentiate groups of women on the basis of life cycle stage, child care demands, socioeconomic status as well as type of employment. All these factors can be expected to mediate the influence of paid employment on women's psychological well-being.
One conceptual model which provides a framework for inclusion of important variables beyond mere employment status has been put forth by Warr and Parry (1982a). They suggest that the three most important clusters of variables which influence the effect of paid employment on women's psychological well-being are: occupational involvement; quality of the nonoccupational environment and quality of the employment relationship. Each of these variables will be discussed in turn.

**Occupational Involvement.**

Occupational involvement can be defined as one's degree of commitment to paid employment. What needs to be stressed here is that commitment to paid employment is not decided solely on the basis of one's present employment or employment status. In other words, one may be thoroughly dissatisfied with his/her current employment situation yet still be committed to work in general. Commitment, moreover, involves more than actual hours spent on the job. It includes the willingness to work overtime, take on additional responsibilities, enroll for job upgrading and/or retraining, as well as interest and investment in
advancement. Studies show that women's occupational involvement is largely dependent upon marital and/or parental status (Baruch et al., 1983; Campbell et al., 1976; Fine Davis, 1979, 1982; Faver, 1984; Freudiger, 1983; Parry & Warr, 1982; Waite, 1983; Warr & Parry, 1982a).

Single women without children spend more time on their career and are more interested in advancement than married women, both with and without children (Agassi, 1982; Campbell et al., 1976; Fine-Davis, 1983; Parry, 1982; Yogev, 1982). Being the principle wage-earner for themselves and having few family responsibilities, it is expected that this group of women will be strongly committed to paid employment. Similarly married women without children have a less demanding homemaker role and thus are expected to have a moderate attachment to the labour force (Warr and Parry, 1982a).

The degree to which married women with children are committed to paid employment is much more difficult to establish. Traditionally, care of the family and home have been considered women's primary obligation and employment has been viewed as an 'add-on' and generally hazardous role. It has been argued that the combination of paid worker, wife and mother leads to
role strain (overload and conflict) which in turn becomes a catalyst for stress and anxiety (Campbell et al., 1976; Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Gove & Tudor, 1973; Hall, 1975).

Research into the detrimental mental health effects of multiple roles is, however, inconsistent. Verbrugge (1983) concluded that multiple role involvement may be associated with better health. Involvement in multiple roles also may enhance mental health in as much as it acts as a buffer to stress by providing temporary relief from the constant demands of child care responsibilities and the tedium of housework (Barnett 1982; Baruch et al., 1983; Crosby, 1984; Richardson, 1981; Rubin, 1976).

It should be noted though that some of these studies have been problematic in their sampling and measuring techniques. For example, one study which suggested that involvement in multiple roles was beneficial to well-being defined paid employment as ten hours or more per week (Barnett, 1982). It could be argued, however, that part time work provides greater flexibility in as much as it leaves women with sufficient time to attend to household and family responsibilities. This is in direct contrast to full time employment which usually means a commitment of at
least 35 hours per week and frequently longer thus leaving much less time for home and family. It is expected, therefore, that women engaged in part time work would experience less role overload and subsequently less stress than women employed on a full-time basis.

Another shortcoming of previous research has been the failure to discriminate on the basis of occupational category (i.e. professional vs. nonprofessional). It could be argued that professional women have sufficient income to purchase assistance with both childcare as well as homemaking tasks, thus making it much easier to combine the roles of mother, wife and employee.

There is agreement that the pressure of juggling two full time jobs is mitigated to the extent that husbands share in the responsibilities of housework and childcare (Kessler & McRae, 1982; Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Warr & Parry, 1982a, 1982b). A recent study indicates that employed women are less depressed if their husbands share household responsibilities (Ross, Mirowsky, & Huber, 1983). Although attitudes are changing and more men are expressing their agreement in principle to egalitarian relationships, in reality women still continue to bear the bulk of the burden of
responsibility for both childcare and housework (Armstrong, 1984; Ferree, 1976, 1984; Huber & Spitz, 1983; Meissner, Humphrey, Meiss & Scheu, 1977, 1980; Pleck, 1982; Vanek, 1974, 1984). Therefore, until professed opinions regarding the importance of egalitarian relationships translates into a reality of actual sharing it is expected that married women with children will be less strongly committed than other groups of women to paid employment.

Occupational involvement is expected to be moderately high for separated and divorced women, especially those who are mothers. Being the sole provider is one of the most important concerns of single parents. Greater involvement at work is associated with less depression among single parents (Belle & Tebbets, 1982; Brown, 1982; Keith & Schaffer, 1980, 1982; Tcheng-LaRoche & Prince, 1981a). But it may be that besides greater income, status enhancement and the opportunity for achievement also contribute to lower depression.

In conclusion, on the basis of all the above factors it is hypothesized that women without children will have the highest degree of occupational involvement while married women with children will have the lowest level of occupational involvement.
Nonoccupational Environment.

Employment status is only one of a number of factors which determines well-being. The quality of a woman's nonoccupational environment is an essential variable in the study of psychological well-being. Women whose psychological, social and financial needs are met outside of employment are not expected to gain from taking a job (Warr & Parry, 1982a). In other words a ceiling effect on well-being is expected. Conversely, for women living in adverse environmental conditions, for example low socioeconomic status, marital disruption or breakdown, etc., a positive relationship between paid employment and psychological well-being is predicted.

Few studies have explored the relationship of women's nonoccupational environment and paid employment. Where measures have been utilized to assess the quality of women's nonoccupational situation these have generally been indices of socioeconomic status. Findings from these studies suggest that economic need as determined by husband's income is one of the most important variables in a wife's decision to engage in paid employment (Armstrong & Armstrong, 1983; Gordon & Kammeyer, 1980; Mortimer & London, 1984; Nieva
& Gutek, 1981; Shaw, 1975). This relationship is particularly strong when there are preschool children in the home. In an examination of 38 studies Warr and Parry (1982b) observed a stronger association between employment status and psychological well being in groups of working class women than in their middle class counterparts.

Satisfaction with marriage and family life are two of the major contributors to overall psychological well-being (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Bernard, 1981; Campbell et al., 1976; Fine Davis, 1983; Gove, 1972; Gove & Tudor, 1973; Gove, Hughes & Style, 1983). Compared with single women, especially those who are separated or divorced, married women are in better mental and physical health, happier, less inclined to suicide and less likely to be institutionalized for mental illness or other forms of maladaptive behaviour (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Bradburn, 1969; Burke & Weir, 1976; Campbell et al, 1976; Cochrane-Step Roe, 1981; Cummings et al., 1975; Gove, 1972; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1975; Tcheng-Laroche & Prince, 1983b).

Satisfaction with the nonoccupational environment is frequently reported as being adverse for separated and divorced mothers (Gutek, Nakamura & Nieva, 1981; Keith & Schafer, 1982; Pearlin & Johnson, 1977;
Tcheng-Laroche & Prince, 1983). This dissatisfaction has been found to be related to financial distress, task overload and social isolation (Campbell et al., 1976; Keith & Schafer, 1982). It is expected that paid employment will enhance psychological well-being for this group of women inasmuch as having a job provides economic independence, self-esteem and access to a major social network (Barnett et al., 1983; Keith & Schaefer, 1982) Tcheng-Laroche & Prince, 1979).

Drawing from the preceding discussion it is hypothesized that married women, both with and without children, will rate the quality of their non-occupational environment higher than their single counterparts.

Quality of the Employment Relationship.

A third variable which combines with occupational involvement and the quality of the nonoccupational environment in determining the relationship between well-being and women's paid employment is the quality of the employment relationship (Warr & Parry, 1982a). Despite extensive research into the meaning of work in people's lives, as with the measurement of life satisfaction the highly subjective nature of the
quality of working life makes this concept difficult to define (Near & Smith, 1983). Essentially, the quality of working life, or more specifically job satisfaction, refers to an overall affective orientation on the part of individuals toward work roles they are currently occupying. Since it would be unrealistic to expect employees to be either totally satisfied or totally dissatisfied with all aspects of their employment, job satisfaction can be described as the composite balance of satisfaction against dissatisfaction.

Paid employment satisfies many life requirements including extrinsic needs, for example, a comfortable standard of living, financial security and pension benefits as well as intrinsic needs such as a sense of pleasure and contribution (Astin, 1985; Kallenberg, 1977). It has been suggested earlier that one of the primary motivations for employment is financial gain. Therefore it seems reasonable to assume that income and job satisfaction would be positively related. Since income does appear to be positively related to job prestige it is also expected that challenge and stimulation are important contributors to job satisfaction. Most of such findings, however, have been based on the experience of work in men's lives. Studies of women's job satisfaction have shown

These findings suggest that although it may be true that many women enter the labour force out of economic need, many remain for other reasons, i.e. the intrinsic rewards associated with paid employment. Andrews and Withey (1976b) argue that one of the most important contributors to psychological well-being is satisfaction with self. Studies of working women show that employment fosters feelings of self-confidence, self-esteem, pride in accomplishments on the job, as well as pride in the role of family provider. All these aspects of work contribute towards a sense of well-being (Astin, 1985; Baruch, et al., 1983; Ferree, 1984; Fine-Davis, 1983; Radloff 1977; Walshok, 1981)

However, the quality of women's employment experience cannot be viewed in isolation since conflict with diverse life roles (i.e. family roles) will have a profound effect on job satisfaction (Barnett, 1982;
Beutall & Greenhaus, 1982, 1983; Hall, 1975, Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a, 1979b; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1980; Richardson, 1981; Warr & Parry, 1982a; Yogev, 1982). This is particularly true for wives and mothers. The combination of full time employment and the responsibilities of mothering and household tasks can readily constitute an overburdensome workload, with the net result being less time and energy for both roles — as well as increased stress and anxiety (Gove & Geerkin, 1977; Pleck, 1977; Pleck, Staines & Lang, 1980).

As with occupational involvement, role conflict will vary with life cycle stage (Herman & Gyllstrom, 1977; Warr & Parry, 1982a). For example, single women without children are expected to have fewer demands placed on them by others than are married women with children. The effect of role strain is expected to be related to attitudes and expectations of employment, both of which indirectly affect job satisfaction. In other words, a married woman with a number of family responsibilities may be more satisfied with a less demanding job offering limited advancement than a single woman for whom a job may be the central focus of her life. In this example we would expect that an already overburdened mother and wife may be reluctant
to assume additional responsibilities while a woman unencumbered by family or husband would have more time and energy to invest in her job (Baruch et al., 1983; Fine-Davis 1983; Thomson, 1980).

Following from the preceding discussion on the quality of the employment relationship several hypotheses are proposed. First, that married women will experience greater demands on their time than their single counterparts. Secondly, women with children will report demands in excess of those women without children. Finally, since work roles are generally reported to be secondary to roles of wife, homemaker and mother (Bernard, 1974, 1975, 1981; Campbell, et al, 1976) it is expected that married women with children will be more satisfied with clerical jobs which, although lower in status and pay, allow time and energy for a woman to accommodate her family.

In summary, this review of the literature leads to six propositions:

1. Women without children will report the highest occupational involvement while married women with children will be the least committed to paid employment.
2. Married women, both with and without children, will report greater satisfaction with the quality of their nonoccupational environment than never married and previously married women.

3. Married women will report significantly more demands on their time and energy than their single counterparts.

4. Women with no children will report fewer demands on their time and energy than women with children.

5. Married women with children, employed in clerical and secretarial positions, will report greater job satisfaction than both single mothers and women who do not have children.

6. Married women will report greater life satisfaction and rate their perceived psychological well-being higher than their single women. (Single includes the categories of never married, separated, divorced and widowed.)
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Sample

The subjects selected for this study are female clerical and secretarial workers employed by the University of British Columbia. This sample was chosen because it appeared to be a typical representation of the clerical work force. Subjects were approached on the campus during the summer of 1983. The nature of the study was explained and the women were asked if they would be interested in participating by completing a short questionnaire, involving about fifteen minutes of their time. In addition, letters outlining the study and questionnaire were left in selected campus offices encouraging women to participate and completed questionnaires were picked up several days later. Participation rates were exceptionally high, of the 180 questionnaires distributed 163 or 90.5% were returned to the researcher.

Materials

The questionnaire format was decided upon because this method allows the researcher access to a large
number of subjects, it generates a substantial data base and is relatively low in cost. For the statistical purposes of this study these benefits outweigh the main disadvantage of the questionnaire format, namely its relative superficiality (compared to the interview technique).

The original questionnaire was pre-tested in June 1983 in a pilot study of five U.B.C. clerical employees. Following a few minor changes the final version of the questionnaire (Appendix A) was distributed in July and August of 1983.

The questionnaire contains 63 items. The first section covers background and demographic information such as age, marital status, number and ages of children, work experience, hours devoted to the job, level of education and income level.

The next section contains the dependent variables which measure overall life satisfaction or well-being, job involvement, quality of the nonoccupational environment, demand or role overload, job satisfaction and a happiness measure. An elaboration of each of the dependent measures follows.
The Measures

Psychological Well-Being.

The psychological construct of well-being or overall life satisfaction was measured by two different scales, the Bradburn Affect Balance Scale (Bradburn, 1969) and the Index of Well-Being (Campbell et al., 1976). Bradburn's measure of psychological well-being codes subjects' experiences in terms of their affective tone of feeling. The Index of Well-Being attempts to measure the same underlying construct from a different perspective; that is, along a continuum of satisfaction-dissatisfaction.

Campbell (1976) favoured this latter approach of measurement because of its cognitive and judgemental element. Subjects in his major study on the Quality of American Life (Campbell et al., 1976) were asked to consider how satisfied or dissatisfied they were overall with their lives. One important reason Campbell chose the cognitive over the affective scale has to do with the response patterns he found in other studies employing various well-being measures. For example, on affective measures of well-being he found that younger subjects consistently rated their level of
happiness higher than older subjects. On the other hand, older subjects report higher levels of satisfaction with their lives while younger respondents report lower levels of overall life satisfaction. In other words, older subjects may report a sense of satisfaction when looking back on their lives as a whole while most younger subjects having not yet arrived at many of their life goals may not feel as satisfied with their lives. It would appear that questions addressing one's perception of overall life satisfaction may be measuring more enduring qualities rather than short term feelings.

Despite Campbell's preference for a more cognitive measure of well-being there are also many cogent reasons to employ an affect scale. One advantage of Bradburn's Affect Balance Scale is his conceptualization of well-being as a day-to-day experience rather than an enduring personality trait. Using a time frame of feeling states experienced over "the past few days" the focus becomes one of environmental cause of well-being rather than enduring personality traits. In a 1971 study a correlation of 0.50 was calculated between the measures of happiness (affective feeling state) and perceived satisfaction (a judgemental experience) indicating a high probability
that the two items are tapping a similar state of mind, yet one could argue that they may be different nuances of this state. In the present study Campbell's Index of Well-Being was used to measure respondents' sense of life satisfaction or psychological well-being and Bradburn's Affect Balance scale will be used as a parallel measure. That is, scores on Bradburn's Affect Balance Scale will be compared with those on The Index of Well-Being in an attempt to ascertain whether subjects who rate themselves as extremely satisfied also rate themselves as very happy and conversely whether subjects whose scores fall towards the dissatisfied end of the Well-Being Scale also have a score indicating a sense of unhappiness on the Affect Balance Scale.

The Index of Well-Being.

The first method of approaching the measurement of the perceived quality of life employs the Index of Well-Being Scale developed by Campbell et al., (1976) for the landmark study The Quality of American Life. This scale is in the format of the Semantic Differential first developed by Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (cited in Campbell et al, 1976). It is
comprised of a number of bipolar scales which tap a wide range of qualities characteristic of a person's life as a whole.

In developing this instrument a pool of items were compiled from a list of adjectives that deal with a sense of gratification or disappointment in life (Campbell et al., 1976). This assumption was that respondents who view their lives in more pleasurable terms are the same people who also would report a higher level of happiness or satisfaction in response to the question "taking all things into consideration how happy would you say you were these days"? The latter question has, in past studies, been a popular method of measuring well-being or overall happiness. The advantage of the semantic differential items is the fact that they give the researcher a more differentiated picture of how subjects view their overall life satisfaction (Campbell et al., 1976).

Campbell's (1976) scale is composed of eight pairs of adjectives. The respondent is asked to indicate his/her perceived position with an 'X' in one of the seven boxes along a continuum measuring pleasurable and disappointing experiences of life.

Internal Consistency
Both Cronbach's alpha and omega (a reliability measure developed by Heise and Bohrnstedt (cited in Campbell et al, 1976) were calculated and found to be 0.89. This figure indicates a very high estimate of reliability.

Inter-item Correlation

The eight semantic differential scales are intercorrelated at a rather high level; ranging from 0.40 to 0.61 with an average over .50. Such relationships suggest that these scales are tapping slightly different nuances of the same general perspectives toward the pleasurable features of life (Campbell et al., 1976). Additionally it was found that these correlations remained stable across various subgroups of the sample. (Campbell et al., 1976).

Reliability

Campbell and colleagues (1976) interviewed a small subsample of 285 subjects eight months after the initial contact. Stability correlations of the responses of these individuals on the two separate occasions were calculated in order to determine
tendencies to respond in the same manner. Correlations of this kind are similar to estimates of reliability drawn from "test-retest" data. However, they do differ in terms of the interval time between contact allowing subjects an opportunity to experience substantial change in their life situation. The stability correlation over this period was a precariously low .43. However, Campbell (1976) argues that some real changes had in fact occurred in the lives of some of these respondents (e.g., marital separation, death within the family) and thus the stability coefficient of .43 is thought to be an under-estimation of the true reliability.

The Affect Balance Scale.

The second method of approaching the measurement of the perceived quality of life employs the Affect Balance Scale (ABS) developed by Bradburn (1969) and Bradburn and Capowitz (1965).

The Affect Balance Scale was developed in the mid-1960's in an attempt to construct operational measures for problems in living. The underlying conceptual framework takes as its fundamental dependent variable avowed happiness, which was defined as being
synonomous with psychological well-being. The scale is composed of 10 items drawn from a pool of items which are in turn based on a wide range of positive and negative experiences. Such experiences would be considered common in a heterogeneous population such as the United States or Canada, as indicated by social indicator studies already undertaken during that period (Gurin et al., 1960; Cantril, 1965; Bradburn and Capowitz, 1965). With the underlying assumption that the major determinant of well-being is psychological rather than economic or demographic, an attempt was made to avoid any reference to specific domains of an individual's life. Items were made as general as possible with the common theme of pleasurable versus unpleasurable experiences and a focus on the affective tone of feelings rather than the particular experiences themselves.

Based on a cluster analysis of the pilot study results (Bradburn & Capowitz, 1965) two independent dimensions emerged, one being a positive affect cluster and the other a negative affect cluster. In analysing these two dimensions it was found that the positive items were intercorrelated with one another as were the negative items, however, the items in one cluster were not correlated with those in the other. In other
words these two aspects of well-being are not extreme poles of one underlying dimension but rather two separate dimensions (Bradburn, 1969; Harding, 1983). Additionally, positive affect and negative affect were found to relate to different sets of variables. Positive affect correlated highly with increased social contact, higher socioeconomic status and exposure to new experiences; whereas negative affect correlated with physical symptoms of ill health and anxiety (Bradburn, 1969; Warr, 1978). Following from the independence of the positive and negative subscales as well as the fact that they relate to different variables, Bradburn concluded that a score derived from summing total scores on the positive and negative affect scales is a better predictor of happiness and life satisfaction than either of the two scales taken separately.

Harding's (1983) analysis of a British probability sample using the Affect Balance Scale (ABS) will be combined with Bradburn's original findings. The reason for using Harding's (1983) data is the fact that he employed more powerful statistical techniques in his analysis than the non-parametric procedures adopted by Bradburn. According to Harding (1983) the Affect Balance Scale offers a short, reliable measure of
psychological well-being.

Internal Consistency

The coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was computed separately for the positive and the negative scale and both were reasonably high at 0.65 for the positive affect scale and 0.59 for the negative affect scale (Harding, 1983). Based on these correlation coefficients the ABS appears to be a reliable measure.

Inter-item correlation

The inter-item correlation was 0.38 for the positive scale and 0.39 for the negative scale (Harding, 1983). Warr (1979) found inter-item correlations of 0.47 and 0.48 for the positive and negative respectively.

Inter-scale correlation

Results from both Bradburn's (1969) as well as Harding's (1983) normative samples reveal the two scales to be empirically independent with a non-significant Pearson's correlation of $r = 0.002$. 
(Harding, 1983) and a Q-value ranging from an average of .02 for men and .09 for women. These studies support the independent nature of the positive and negative subscales. Yet, given that other studies have found the two scales to show a significant correlation, caution must be exercised in interpreting any results. In a study of predominantly male employees Warr (1978) observed an intercorrelated value between the two scales of -0.21 and in Parry's (1980) study of "working-class mothers" a significantly high intercorrelation of $r = -0.38$ was observed.

Reliability

The results from a test-retest experiment (three day interval) show a moderately high level of reliability. Coefficients of association between the two time periods using the gamma statistic were: Positive Affect = 0.83; Negative Affect = 0.81 and Affect Balance = 0.76. The Q-values for the individual items were uniformly high, with all except one being over 0.90. These scores are considerably higher than the corresponding coefficients between scores over much longer periods of time. Scores compared over a three and nine month period were significantly lower. Thus
we can interpret these results to be stable over a short period only. It must also be remembered that the purpose of the ABS is to measure feeling states over the past few weeks and therefore it may not necessarily be sensitive to enduring personality traits.

Convergent Validity

All three scales of Bradburn's measure of psychological well-being were correlated with indices of happiness and satisfaction (Bradburn, 1969; Harding, 1983). The correlation between items questioning happiness/satisfaction (positive scale) ranged from $r = 0.21$ and $r = 0.25$, while the correlation for the negative scale ranged from $r = -0.24$ to $r = -0.38$. The relation between the happiness items and the Affect Balance was higher ($r = 0.32$ to $r = 0.45$) than either the positive or negative scale taken separately, thus showing it to be a better predictor of happiness and life satisfaction.

Occupational Involvement Scale.

The demographic data collected included both martial and parental status. The possible combinations
of being married or not as well as having children at home or not will permit separate analyses for four family life cycles. These will be: (a) single without children at home; (b) single with children at home; (c) married without children at home; and (d) married with children at home. Given these four categories, the underlying assumptions based on Warr and Parry's (1982) research will be that: 1. single women with no children at home will have the strongest occupational involvement; 2. married women with no children at home will have a moderate or intermediate occupational involvement; 3. single women with children at home will have a moderate to high occupational involvement; and 4. married women with children at home will have a relatively low occupational involvement, especially if the children are of preschool age.

To test these assumptions an Occupational Involvement measure was administered to all subjects. Occupational involvement can be viewed as a global measure which assesses attitudes towards work in general rather than to a job in particular. Work or occupational involvement appears to be factorially independent of other job attitudes such as job performance and job satisfaction (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Therefore, the basic definition of work
involvement is the extent to which a person wants to be engaged in work. The questions on the work involvement scale tap the concept of the importance of work to a person's sense of worth.

Normative and Psychometric Data on the Occupational Involvement Scale

Warr, Cook and Wall's (1979) Work (Occupational) Involvement Scale was developed in an attempt to understand some correlates of psychological well-being and work. The scale was tested on a population of 590 blue collar male workers. Since no known replication has been undertaken on his findings the psychometric properties of this scale are not well established.

Warr's (1978) findings are a result of two studies, the first which took place in February 1977 and the second in November 1977. The internal homogeneity of the Work Involvement Scale as represented by the alpha coefficient for the two studies was 0.63 and 0.64 respectively. The mean corrected item-whole correlation (desired to be high) was 0.38 and 0.48 respectively, showing a significant relationship between all six items in the scale. In a test-retest (six month interval) of 60 participants
from Study 2 who were reinterviewed and matched with the earlier group in terms of region, age and skill level a stability coefficient of 0.56 for work involvement was found.

Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale.

The quality of the nonoccupational environment presents the variable most difficult to measure since no standardized measure is available. Prior studies have relied on socioeconomic status as a indicator of overall satisfaction, however, this measure used on its own is a rough index at best. The quality of the nonoccupational environment includes more than perceived financial security. In addition a measure assessing the nonoccupational environment needs to address whether or not a woman's environment outside of the workplace is meeting her social and psychological needs. Bradburn's Affect Balance Scale (1969) and the Index of Well-Being (Campbell, et al., 1976) make no reference to specific domains of life but rather aim to measure an overall sense of happiness/satisfaction. Therefore, it is imperative to obtain a measure of satisfaction-dissatisfaction with specific domains of a
woman's life (i.e. home and community; standard of living; leisure time; health; education; social life and family life).

The eight questions included in the Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale attempt to measure perceived satisfaction with these particular life domains. This measure was adapted from the Life Satisfaction Scale developed by Warr, Cook and Wall (1979). Cluster analyses of items on the Life Satisfaction Scale yielded an interpretable three component structure: 1. standards and achievements within one's life; 2. satisfaction with lifestyle and 3. satisfaction with personal life. In this study only the latter two subscales were employed.

Since this particular Life Satisfaction Scale has only been used in one study there is little normative data on this measure. In the aforementioned study a coefficient alpha 0.60 for satisfaction with life style was reported and for satisfaction with personal life the coefficient alpha was 0.59.

Quality of the Employment Relationship.

For women in all four categories the quality of the employment relationship will be determined by a job
satisfaction scale. Since the roles of mother and housewife also are expected to have a salient effect on how women perceive the quality of their employment relationship a role demand scale also was administered. The purpose of this measure is to determine the degree to which marital and/or parental status relate to the number of demands experienced by women.

The Hoppock Job Satisfaction Scale

Job satisfaction has been measured a number of ways since the original work of Hoppock (1935). Some measures are long and cumbersome, both for the researcher as well as the subject, while other measures rely only on the response to a single question eliciting perceived overall job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The latter method of evaluating job satisfaction has the obvious limitation of low reliability as no reliability check may be made of a single item measure. In an attempt to circumvent this problem of low reliability, while at the same time avoiding the lengthy sophisticated job satisfaction instruments, the four item Hoppock Job Satisfaction Scale was chosen.
An additional advantage of Hoppock's scale is the fact that it assesses only subjects' satisfaction with the job itself. In a study which sets out to measure the various domains which combine to provide a perceived sense of one's overall life satisfaction there is a real risk to the researcher of confounding the variables which measure life satisfaction. This potential problem occurs with many of the job satisfaction scales. A job satisfaction scale which rates a subject's perceived quality of interpersonal relations on the job is measuring essentially the same concept as satisfaction with one's social life which has already been asked on the Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment scale. Therefore, the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Scale was selected because it offers the researcher a reliable measure which taps overall job satisfaction without absorbing an extensive number of survey items.

Although this measure was developed in 1935 a recent validation study was undertaken by McNichols, Stahl, and Manley (1978). In this replication the authors normed Hoppock's scale over a wide range of occupational categories which included both clerical and secretarial workers.
The Hoppock Job Satisfaction scale consists of four questions rated on a scale ranging from 1 (extreme dissatisfaction) to 7 (extreme satisfaction). The score is derived by summing the responses. Each question is weighted equally yielding a score between 4 and 28. Although developed over forty years ago, Hoppock's job satisfaction measure appears to perform well (McNichols et al., 1978).

Internal Consistency

The coefficient alpha was calculated to estimate the reliability of Hoppock's four-item job scale for four target samples across a wide range of occupational levels, N = 29,094. The alpha values across these samples range from 0.758 to 0.890. These correlation coefficients are sufficiently high to provide further evidence of the effectiveness of Hoppock's measure.

Construct validity

Factor analysis was used to evaluate the correlation structure to ascertain whether all items were in fact measures of a single factor thus presenting a univariate measure of job satisfaction
(McNichols et al., 1978). The basic purpose of factor analysis involves a search for clusters of variables that all correlate with one another. The first principal component explained from 58% to 76% of the total variance in the four samples. All loadings on the first factor, labelled general job satisfaction, were also high across the samples, ranging from 0.65 to 0.92.

**Convergent validity**

Convergent validity requires that Hoppock's Job Satisfaction measure and other maximally different types of measures in the same area be significantly similar in their evaluations. Hoppock's Job Satisfaction was found to be significantly correlated with all five scales of the JDI (Job Description Index) (McNichols et al., 1978). Additionally, when Brayfield and Rothe (1951) developed their index of job satisfaction they computed a product-moment correlation of \( r = 0.92 \) between the scores on the Hoppock scale and the Brayfield-Rohe scale.

**Role strain**
Women with children are entering the work force in record numbers and are in fact the fastest growing group of working women (Statistics Canada, 1984). Yet, little research has been undertaken to discover how these women cope with and/or juggle their multiple roles.

As with occupational involvement it is expected that the degree of interrole strain experienced by working women will vary with life cycle stage. For example, the presence of dependent children in the home has been found to be positively associated with role strain (Baruch et al., 1983; Warr & Parry, 1982a, 1982b). Role strain is also positively related to the number of roles a woman occupies (Baruch et al., 1983). Therefore, in this study it is predicted that role strain will be highest among wives and mothers.

Little research has been undertaken to discover how women cope with their multiple roles. As a result few research instruments are available to measure this construct (Parry & Warr, 1980). This study will employ a five item measure developed by Gove (1972).

Demand Scale
The scale is composed of five items which aim to determine whether or not the respondent feels she is constantly confronting demands from others. An analysis of the items in the demand scale shows that three of the items refer specifically to demands in the home and two of the items refer to demands in general. The scale was developed as one component of a face to face interview studying the combined effects of children, employment and marriage on the mental health of both men and women. Psychometric properties of reliability and validity have not been established. However, this instrument does appear to have face validity in the measurement of role overload. The 7-point Likert scale used in this study was provided by the researcher. Prior to interpreting the findings based on the Demand Scale, Hoyt's estimate of internal reliability will be determined using Nelson's (1974) Lertap procedure.

Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Mean scores on the Occupational Involvement Scale will be higher, statistically ($\alpha = .05$), for single childless women, when compared with married childless women, single mothers and married
mothers.

The first hypothesis will be tested by analysis of variance using the independent variables of marital and parental status and the Occupational Involvement Scale as the dependent variable.

**Hypothesis 2:** Mean scores on the Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale will be higher statistically ($\alpha = .05$), for married women both with and without children, when compared with never married women, previously married women and single mothers.

The second hypothesis will employ the same experimental design using the same independent variables as hypothesis 1. The dependent variable will be the Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale.

**Hypothesis 3:** Mean scores on the Demand Scale will be statistically ($\alpha = .05$) higher for married women, compared with women in the categories of never married women, separated, divorced and widowed.

The third hypothesis will be tested by the one-way analysis of variance procedure. The three independent variable levels are: 1) never married; 2) married or living with a partner; 3) previously married but now
single as a result of separation, divorce or death.

Hypothesis 4: Mean scores on the Demand Scale will be statistically \((a = .05)\) higher for mothers when compared with childless women.

As with hypothesis 3, hypothesis 4 will also employ the one-way analysis of variance procedure with the independent variable levels being: 1) no children and 2) with children.

Hypothesis 5: Mean scores on the Job Satisfaction scale will be statistically \((a = .05)\) higher for married women with children when compared with childless women and single mothers.

As with the first two hypothesis, hypothesis 5 will employ the same experimental design using the independent variables of marital and parental status.

Hypothesis 6: Mean scores on Bradburn's Affect Balance Scale and Campbell's Well-Being Index will be statistically \((a = .05)\) higher for married women when compared with never married and previously married women.

The sixth hypothesis will be subjected to a one-way analysis of variance. The three independent
variable levels being: 1) never married; 2) married or living with a partner and 3) previously married.

Duncan's multiple comparisons will be performed on the first three hypotheses and hypotheses five and six following significant effects to assess the differences among individual means.
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

This chapter describes the results of the statistical analysis of the data and discusses them according to the hypotheses proposed in Chapter Two. Data were gathered, tabulated and analyzed according to the procedures outlined in the previous chapter. Frequency tables were produced for all variables; means and standard deviations were calculated for the continuous variables. Six null hypotheses were advanced and the results of the analysis are presented.

Description of Sample and Demographic Statistics

The sample used in this study consisted of women employed in clerical and secretarial positions at the University of British Columbia. A total of 190 questionnaires were distributed; 163 (85.7%) were returned. The average age of the women who responded to the survey was 35 years. More than one half (55.8%) of the sample fell between the ages of 26 - 44 years. Thirty-eight women (23.3%) were 25 years or younger while 20 (12.2%) were in the age group 45 - 54 years and 14 (8.5%) were older than 55 years of age. These numbers come very close to matching the percentage
distribution by age groups of women 15 years and older in the Canadian labour force. According to 1981 census figures just under one half (46.7%) of women between the ages of 25-44 were in the Canadian labour force while 29.9% were 25 years or younger; 13.9% were 45 to 54 and 9.5% were older than 55 years of age (Statistics Canada, 1984).

Over one half (54.6%) of the women surveyed indicated they were married or living with a partner. The largest group of single women were those who had never been married, 45 or 27.6%. Fifteen women (9.2%) were divorced, 9 (5.5%) separated and 5 (3.0%) widowed.

The presence of children in the home has been found, in other studies, to be negatively correlated to women's labour force participation (Barnett, 1982; Campbell et al, 1976; Gove & Tudor, 1973; Hiller & Philiber, 1980; Warr & Parry, 1982a). This effect is even more pronounced when there are more than two children in the home and when the children are of pre-school age. The results of this study seem to support these findings. Only four women had three children and no one had more than three. The majority (111) were childless, 21 had one child and 27 had two children. Moreover, only 29 women had children under the age of six.
Current research indicates that there seems to be a trend toward delayed parenthood in married couples (Faver, 1984; Wilkie, 1981). The findings of this study would tend to support this trend as only two women in the age category 25 years or younger had children.

The national average of educational attainment of working women was far surpassed by the respondents of this survey. While 10.7% of Canadian working women have less than high school completion only one subject in this study had less than grade 12. The majority of women in the Canadian labour force (53.5%) have completed high school; 26.5% have some post-secondary education and a relatively small percentage (9.3%) have a university degree. In this study twenty-nine (17.8%) had completed grade twelve and another 29 (17.8%) had obtained technical or vocational training beyond grade 12. Sixty-two (38%) had some university education and 40 (25.5%) were university graduates. Education levels were equally high across all age groups. Twenty-two (65%) out of a total of 34 members in the age groups 45 years and above had either taken university courses (17) or graduated from university (5). In the younger age groups >25 to 45 years, eighty (62%) of the 129 respondents had attended university - 35 of whom had
graduated.

These figures for educational attainment coupled with the fact that all the jobs occupied by these women required only high school graduation highlights the exceptionally high levels of education for this sample and the probability of widespread underemployment.

Since the time and energy committed to full time work differs substantially from part time employment only respondents who worked full time were asked to complete the survey. In answer to the question "how many hours per week do you work only 7 (4.2%) worked 10 hours or less per week. Five (3.0%) worked between 10 - 20 hours, 9 (5.5%) worked between 20 - 30 hours per week and 8 (4.9%) said they worked more than 40 hours each week. The overwhelming majority (82.4%) worked 40 hours per week.

Studies differ in the degree to which income and psychological well-being are correlated. While some researchers have found a surprisingly low correlation between the domain of financial well-being and psychological well-being (Campbell, et al, 1976) still others argue that economic stability is an important component of psychological well-being. In particular, income level is a real concern in the lives of single parents (Keith & Schafer, 1982; Pearlin & Johnson,
1977; Tcheng-Laroche, & Prince, 1983a, 1983b). The presence of two incomes can make a very real difference in the overall perception of well-being. Of the 87 women who were married 67 (77%) had a family income above $25,000. Of this group a further 32 (47.7%) had a family income in excess of $40,000. As Table 3 indicates, single women, were found to be predominantly at the lower end of the income scale. It is thought that the large discrepancy in the income levels of single and married women is the result of a second income earner. In the case of the single mother, relying on only one income is associated not only with financial vulnerability but additionally psychological distress (Pearlin & Johnson, 1977).

Internal Reliability of the Instrument

Previous research has shown that most of the dependent measures used in this study have high internal reliability. Nevertheless, the Lertap computer program (Nelson, 1974) was used to ascertain whether or not high internal reliability would be maintained with respect to the population surveyed in this study. The Lertap program employs Hoyt's (1941) estimates of reliability. The estimate of internal
reliability ranged from .71 to .93 confirming the findings of earlier research. A complete breakdown showing the reliability for each of the dependent measures can be found in Table 1.

Testing the Hypotheses

The SPSS:X (1983) Analysis of Variance and One-way Analysis of Variance programs were used to test the hypotheses. The purpose was to investigate the dependent variables of occupational involvement, quality of the nonoccupational environment, quality of the employment relationship and psychological well-being with relation to the independent variables of marital and/or parent status. To test for significant differences six null hypotheses were advanced. The F Ratio was employed to determine whether or not to reject each hypothesis. The level of significance was set at .05. Following significant effects Duncan's Multiple Comparison post hoc test was performed to assess the differences among individual means.

Testing Hypothesis 1
It is hypothesized that no statistical difference \((a = .05)\), exists between the mean scores of single childless women, married childless women, single mothers and married mothers on the Occupational Involvement Scale.

An analysis of the two-way ANOVA results from Table 2 indicated an \(F\) Ratio of 7.09 \((1,154)\) for marital status, significant beyond the .05 level. There was no significant effect for parental status and no interactive effect, Table 2. Since there was no significant effect on the basis of marital status and parental status the null hypothesis was upheld.

However, since a main effect for marital status was observed a one-way analysis of variance test was undertaken to determine the differences on the Occupational Involvement Scale among women on the basis of marital status. The mean for group 1, (never married) was 32.7; for group 2 (married or living with a partner) was 30.7; and for group 3 (separated, widowed or divorced) was 33.4. The higher the score the greater the commitment to paid employment thus indicating that for previously married women (separated, widowed or divorced) having a job is significantly more important than it is for both single and married women. See Table 3.
Duncan's procedure for multiple comparisons indicated that group 3 (previously married) differed significantly ($\alpha = .05$) from group 2 (married or living with a partner). See Table 4.

An item analysis of the Occupational Involvement Scale revealed some clues as to why the null hypothesis was upheld and the expected outcome of higher scores for single childless women was not found. Looking at specific items on the Occupational Involvement Scale it is apparent just how important having a job is in women's lives. Seventy-two percent of the respondents either "agreed strongly" or "agreed quite alot" to the statement "having a job is very important to me"; 50% also "strongly agreed" or "agreed quite alot" that they would continue to work even if they won a lottery. Eighty-three percent felt they would still prefer to work even if U.I.C. benefits were higher and fully 80% strongly agreed they would hate to be on welfare. These figures suggest that overall marital and parental status do not act as a deterrent to women's commitment to the paid labour force.

When women's commitment to employment was compared on the basis of marital status alone it was revealed that single women report somewhat higher scores, particularly those who were previously married. This
finding is understandable as potential poverty is much more real for unattached females, a fact which is compounded by the presence of children. In this sample fully one half of the previously married women were single mothers.

Testing Hypothesis 2

It is hypothesized that mean scores on the Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale will be no different statistically \((a = .05)\) when single childless women, married childless women, married mothers and single mothers are compared.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) results on the Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale (Table 5) indicated a main effect for marital status. There was no effect for parental status and no interactive effect. The results, therefore, failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Secondary analysis using a one-way analysis of variance test on the Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale was undertaken following a main effect for marital status. However, this test indicated no significant differences overall between mean scores for Group 1 (never married \(M = 42.2\)); Group
2 (married or living with a partner M = 43.5); and Group 3 (separated, divorced or widowed M = 41.4). This difference was significant only at the 0.08 level.

The Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale is composed of two subscales, the first measuring perceived satisfaction with lifestyle and the second satisfaction with personal life. Since no differences, on the basis of parental and marital status, were discovered on the overall scale further analysis was carried out on the two component subscales.

The lifestyle subscale is composed of four items. They are perceived satisfaction with one's house or apartment, local district, standard of living and finally leisure time activities. These domains have been found by others to explain very little of the variance in predicting overall life satisfaction (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Campbell et al., 1976). In Campbell's landmark survey entitled The Quality of American Life the mean importance of these four items fell far below the domains of health, marriage and family life (Campbell et al., 1976). Given the relative unimportance of these domains it is not surprising then that no significant differences were detected among the respondents on the basis of parental or marital status.
The second subscale of the Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale, satisfaction with personal life, measures perceived satisfaction within the domains of health, education social life and family life. Analysis of the data revealed significant differences on this scale among the various categories of respondents. What is most interesting and significant is that married women scored highest on the items relating to satisfaction with family life, social life and present state of health. With regard to satisfaction with family life the mean of married women was 5.8 (out of a possible 7). This score puts them on the verge of being "very satisfied" with their family life. Previously married women by contrast scored significantly lower than both married women and never married women. On the social life item the mean score of married women was 5.5. Previously married women again scored the lowest of the three groups with a mean of 4.5 (in between "I am not sure" and "I am moderately satisfied"). Single women reported a mean score of 5.1 on this item.

These findings are in accord with the view of many that the domains associated with personal life are most central in determining life satisfaction (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Bernard, 1981; Campbell et al., 1976;
Gove, 1972; Gove & Tudor, 1976; Gove, Hughes & Style, 1983). If satisfaction with personal life is accepted as being the most central domain in assessing overall life satisfaction then it also can be concluded that never married and previously married women do not find their lives as pleasant or as satisfying as their married counterparts.

**Testing Hypothesis 3**

It is hypothesized that mean scores on the Demand Scale will not differ statistically \((\alpha = .05)\) when married women, never married women and previously married women are compared.

A one-way analysis of variance indicated a significant difference on the Demand Scale on the basis of marital status. The \(F\) Ratio from Table 6 of 5.58 (2,160) was significant beyond the .01 level. Hypothesis three was therefore rejected.

The Duncan Multiple Comparison test was utilized to discover where the differences lay. Women who were never married (Group 1) reported the least demands \((M = 25.5)\) while married women (Group 2) reported the most demands \((M = 22.5)\). As Table 7, indicates the mean difference on the Demand Scale between never married
and married women is significant at the .05 level.

Testing Hypothesis 4

It is hypothesized that mean scores on the Demand Scale will not differ statistically \( (\alpha = .05) \) when women with children and women without children are compared.

One-way analysis of variance indicated a significant difference between women with children and women without children on the demand scale. The F Ratio from Table 8 of 38.78 was significant beyond the .001 level. Hypothesis four was therefore rejected.

The five item Demand Scale has a range of scores from 5 (I am constantly confronted with these demands) to 35 (I never encounter demands). Women without children indicated that they encountered significantly fewer demands \( (\overline{M} = 25.1) \) compared with those who did have children \( (\overline{M} = 20.4) \).

Testing Hypothesis 5

It is hypothesized that mean scores on the Job Satisfaction Scale will not differ statistically \( (\alpha = .05) \) when single childless women, married childless women, single mothers and married mothers are compared.
The ANOVA results on the Job Satisfaction Scale (Table 9) indicates there is no main effect and consequently no interaction effect. In other words, the results show that there are no significant differences between the means of single childless women, married childless women, single mothers and married mothers. The null hypothesis that no significant differences exist on the Job Satisfaction Scale between the aforementioned groups was upheld.

The majority of women, regardless of current marital and/or parental status, reported moderately low job satisfaction (single without children 4.30; married without children 4.67; single with children 4.51; married with children 4.58 - all scores out of a possible 7). Just over 50% of the respondents said they were satisfied with their job about half of the time or less. Almost half the women would change their job if they could get a better job and a further 31% would like to change both their job as well as their occupation. However, age was a significant variable in measuring job satisfaction. Older women (over the age of 45) showed significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than younger women, particularly those in the 25-35 year old age bracket. See Table 10 and 11. Additionally, it was found that women who reported
higher family incomes ($40,000 plus) also were significantly more satisfied with their jobs. See Table 12.

Testing Hypothesis 6

It is hypothesized that mean scores on Bradburn's Affect Balance Scale and Campbell's Index of Well-Being Scale will be no different statistically ($\alpha = .05$), when never married women, married women and previously married women are compared.

A one-way analysis of variance on the independent variable of marital status by the dependent variable as measured by the Affect Balance Scale showed no overall significant difference between the aforementioned groups of women. See Table 13. However, when the Duncan Multiple Comparison Procedure was applied a significant difference ($\alpha = .05$) between group 2 (married) and group 1 (never married) was revealed. The mean score for married women was 2.10 and for never married women 1.17 with the higher score indicating a greater sense of happiness or well-being. See Table 14. As indicated by these results the hypothesis that no significant differences exist on the Affect Balance Scale between women of different marital status is
rejected.

Psychological well-being also was tested using Campbell's Index of Well-Being as the dependent measure and the three levels of marital status previously mentioned as the independent variable. A one-way analysis of variance revealed an overall significant difference ($\alpha = .05$) between never married women, married women and previously married women (Table 15).

The Duncan Multiple Comparison Procedure agreed with the findings on psychological well-being as measured by the Affect Balance Scale, that is, married women with a mean score of 42.39 (out of a possible 56) rate their overall happiness or well-being higher than both women who have never married, whose mean score was only 38.44 as well as previously married women whose mean score was 38.79. See Table 16. As with the findings on the Affect Balance Scale, the hypothesis that mean scores on Campbell's Index of Well-Being will not differ statistically when never married women, married women and previously married women are compared is rejected.
Summary

To summarize, null hypotheses three, four and six were rejected by the results of a one-way analysis of variance. The findings of hypothesis three, in which three groups of women were compared, never married, married and previously married, were that never married women reported the least demands on the time while married women reported the most demands on their time. Previously married women fell about the mid-point between those who were never married and those who are currently married. Hypothesis four also tested the degree to which demands from others impinge on a woman's time and energy. This time women were compared on the basis of parental status. The findings of hypothesis four were that women without children encountered significantly fewer demands on their time than their counterparts who did have children. Hypothesis six tested the reported psychological well-being of women across three marital categories - never married, currently married and previously married. The findings were that on both the Bradburn Affect Balance Scale and Campbell's Index of Well-Being married women rated their overall happiness or well-being higher than those who have never been
married as well as previously married women.

The results failed to reject hypotheses one, two and five. These three hypotheses were tested by a two-way analysis of variance. It was proposed in each of these three hypotheses that a significant interaction between marital status and parental status would be observed. The findings of hypothesis one which compared mean scores of women on the Occupational Involvement Scale showed no significant interaction between parental status and marital status. A main effect for marital status was found and the results of secondary analysis were that both previously married and never married women reported a higher commitment to paid employment than currently married women. Hypothesis two compared mean scores of women on the Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale. The findings of this hypothesis were that regardless of marital and/or parental status the women surveyed did not differ statistically on the perceived quality of their nonoccupational environment. Finally, the results of hypothesis five were that reported job satisfaction did not differ statistically on the basis of marital and/or parental status.

The significance and interpretation of these results are discussed in the following chapter.
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study was conducted to discover the influence of marital and parental status on certain psychological and sociological factors related to paid employment for women working in clerical and secretarial jobs. The research focused on the following factors: occupational involvement, quality of the nonoccupational environment, quality of the employment relationship and overall psychological well-being.

Characteristics of the Sample

The age spread of the women sampled was similar to the Canadian average i.e. just under one half of the women were between the ages of 25 and 44 years (see Chapter 4). Over half of the women were married and of those not married most had never been married. The majority of the respondents were childless and only a few women reported three or more children. Most children were over six years of age.

In terms of educational attainment the women sampled ranked much higher than the national average. The majority had some post secondary education and fully one quarter were university graduates. It is
difficult to generalize regarding income levels because the sample included both married women (with combined family incomes) as well as single women.

Initially only full time workers were asked to complete the survey; however seven part-time workers were also included in the results.

**Occupational Involvement**

With respect to occupational involvement most of the women reported relatively high levels i.e. all were highly committed to the concept of working outside the home.

There was no difference on the occupational involvement scale between women who had children and those who did not. At first sight, this finding appears to contradict Warr and Parry's (1982a) proposition that children are an important determinant of occupational involvement for women and that the presence of children impedes commitment to paid employment. There are several factors which could explain this finding. This may be due in part to the idiosyncracies of the sample. It was noted earlier, for example, that professional women with high income levels may remain committed to the labour force in
spite of the presence of children because they have motivation and the financial resources to provide childcare and home help thereby reducing the amount of role overload they experience. In this sample the women were not professionals, however the majority had high educational levels (indicating the probability of current underemployment) and furthermore a large percentage had relatively high combined family incomes (40% had family incomes between $25,000-$40,000 and 37% had incomes in excess of $40,000). For these women, like professional women, high educational levels and high family income may indicate a strong motivation for occupational involvement. The ability to afford childcare and home help also may be a factor accounting for the high level of expressed commitment to the labour force. In terms of their financial and educational attributes it appears that the women sampled in this study resembled professional women more than they did the average clerk typist, and this may account for their unusually high occupational involvement, despite the relatively low status of the positions they currently occupy.

Despite overall high occupational involvement, as expected, mean scores of single women were higher than those of married women. Women who were separated,
divorced or widowed showed significantly higher commitment to paid employment than women who were married. This is understandable because the issue of potential poverty is in general much more real for unattached females than for those who are married. The separated, divorced and widowed generally have only themselves to depend on financially. Canadian Status of Women (1983) figures report a very high rate of default on alimony and support payments, and for those women who are widowed, few receive substantial benefits from the husbands' pensions. Moreover, 89% of the previously married women in this study (of whom 50% had children) earned less than $25,000 per year while 40% of the married women had family incomes of between $25,000-$40,000 and a further 37% had a family income in excess of $40,000.

Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment

There was no overall difference on the overall scale measuring the quality of the nonoccupational environment. On a separate analysis of the two component subscales (satisfaction with lifestyle and satisfaction with personal life) there was again no difference on the lifestyle satisfaction subscale.
However, on the personal life satisfaction subscale married women scored much higher on three out of four items. What is most interesting and significant is that married women scored highest on the items relating to satisfaction with family life, social life and present state of health.

These findings lend support to the view of many that satisfaction with marriage and family life are two of the major contributors to overall psychological well-being (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Bernard, 1981; Campbell et al, 1976; Fine Davis, 1983; Gove, 1972; Gove & Tudor, 1973; Gove, Hughes & Style, 1983). Compared with single women, especially those who are separated or divorced, married women are in better mental and physical health, happier, less inclined to suicide and less likely to be institutionalized for mental illness or other forms of maladaptive behaviour (Andrews & Withey, 1976b; Bradburn, 1969; Campbell et al, 1976; Cochrane-Step Roe, 1981; Cummings et al, 1975).

These findings for the quality of the nonoccupational environment subscale of satisfaction with personal life are also in accordance with previous research which shows that satisfaction with the nonoccupational environment is frequently reported as

Quality of the employment relationship

The difference in the level of job satisfaction was found to be not significant, with the majority of women, regardless of current marital and/or parental status reporting moderately low job satisfaction. Just over half of the respondents said they were satisfied with their job about half of the time or less. Almost half the women would change their job if they could get a better job and a further third would like to change both their job as well as their occupation. However, age appeared to be an intervening variable in measuring job satisfaction. Older women (over the age of 45) showed significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than younger women, particularly those in the 23-35 year old age bracket.

This supports the research of Fine-Davis (1982) who found in her study of women employed in non-professional jobs that older women were much
happier with the content of their work than their younger counterparts. Additionally, it was found that women in higher income brackets ($40,000 plus) were significantly more satisfied with their jobs. This finding also agrees with the study mentioned above; that socioeconomic status was a significant determinant of work satisfaction, with women of higher socioeconomic status reporting significantly higher levels of job satisfaction (Fine-Davis, 1983).

There is no evidence then to support the hypothesis that married women with children would experience higher satisfaction with clerical jobs. One good reason for this may be the fact that virtually all of the women sampled were highly educated. That is, all were underemployed and for this reason all exhibited the same level of job dissatisfaction. Education level therefore may act as an intervening variable that can modify or perhaps even override the effects of marital and parental status on job satisfaction, especially in the case of underemployment. However further research would be required to fully determine this relationship.

Demand Scale
Warr and Parry (1982a) hypothesized that role conflict will vary with life cycle stage. The findings of this study tend to support this view. With regard to the demand scale, both hypotheses were confirmed. That is, both women who were married and women with children showed significantly higher demands than did their counterparts ie. unmarried women and women without children.

Since 39 of the 89 married respondents had children it may be that the high demand level reported by married women was due primarily to the presence of children and not the marital status factor. This supports earlier findings that the presence of children may result in higher stress levels for working women (Brown & Harris, 1978; Pearlin, 1975).

Psychological Well-Being

The hypothesis regarding psychological well-being was confirmed. Married women reported significantly higher scores on the Life Satisfaction measure (Index of Well-Being) and the happiness measure (Affect Balance Score).

These findings are in accord with nearly all previous research which shows that married women report
a higher degree of avowed happiness and life satisfaction than other groups of women (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Bernard, 1972, 1974, 1975, 1981; Bradburn, 1969; Cambpell et al., 1969; Freudiger, 1983; Gurin et al, 1960; Spritzer & Snyder, 1975; Tcheng-LaRoche & Prince, 1983b). Even though these women occupied low status jobs and exhibited low levels of job satisfaction they nevertheless reported higher levels of psychological well-being than their single counterparts who also shared low job satisfaction.

This finding is subject to more than one interpretation. The factor of self selection may explain the results in that it may be that women who choose to work outside the home are psychologically healthier individuals. No doubt some women who work outside the home would prefer not to, as is true for some men, however the women in this study indicated that even if economic conditions were such that their employment was unnecessary they would continue to be committed to paid employment. Therefore, it can be assumed that they derive some psychological benefit from work. Additionally these findings could indicate that marriage, family and the financial benefits of a combined income can compensate for a low status job and low job satisfaction in terms of psychological
well-being.

Limitations

As with all research this study has certain limitations. Firstly, the subsample sizes were uneven; specifically, married women represented slightly more than 50% of the subsample whereas never married occupied 28%. The category of previously married was around 18%. The larger the sample, of course, the more likely is its mean and standard deviation to be representative of the mean and standard deviation of the general population. In addition the larger the sample the less likely is it for the researcher to fail to reject the null hypothesis when it is actually false.

Secondly a limitation of this study is the fact that respondents were voluntarily recruited. A number of characteristics have been found to occur in research studies utilizing volunteer subjects. For example volunteers tend to be better educated than non-volunteers, have higher social class status, tend to express higher needs for social approval and so on.

Thirdly, a small percentage of women who worked fewer than 35 hours per week were included in the
analysis. Since full time employment requires greater commitment in terms of time and energy it may be that this part time group responded somewhat differently to the questionnaire.

Finally, this group of clerical workers was somewhat atypical in that they were unionized. Thus it may be assumed that their level of income and fringe benefits are considerably higher than those of the non-unionized who make up the bulk of the female clerical work force in the private sector.

Theoretical Implications

The findings of this study have several theoretical implications. These relate to women's commitment to full time paid employment, the centrality of marriage and family in the lives of working women and the controversy surrounding multiple roles in women's lives. It must be stressed at the outset however, that the theoretical implications derived from these findings apply only to full time employment. The situation for part time workers may well be quite different - but that is a subject for further research (see below).
First with regard to the issue of women's commitment to the labour force, the findings of this study were that all women, irrespective of the life cycle showed a high commitment to the concept of paid employment. Fully 75% of the women surveyed replied that having a job was "very important" to them.

Second, there has been a great deal of debate surrounding the question of whether women seek paid employment primarily to fulfill personal needs, (Astin, 1984; Baruch et al., 1983; Ferree, 1976; Friedan, 1963; Krause, 1983, 1985; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Parry & Warr, 1980; Wright, 1978), or, primarily in response to economic necessity and employer demands, i.e. structural factors (Armstrong, 1985; Armstrong & Armstrong, 1984; Boyd, 1977; Connelly, 1978; Oppenheimer, 1977, 1982; Phillips & Phillips, 1983). While economic gain is a motivation for seeking employment, the findings of this study with respect to the occupational involvement scale suggest that women's desire to engage in paid employment can exist independently of factors related to economic gain. For example, 80% of the respondents indicated a preference for paid employment even if U.I.C. benefits were substantially higher. Fully half said they would continue to work even if they won a lottery. Moreover,
80% of the women agreed they would be bored if they did not work.

Researchers who use models that measure only economic variables therefore are neglecting an important dimension in the total picture of the meaning of work in women's lives. In addition to the economic gain of paid employment, work provides women with a sense of participation, purpose, accomplishment, both on the job as well as a contributor to family maintenance (Astin, 1984; Betz, 1982; Ferree, 1976, 1984; Komarovsky, 1962; Oakley, 1974; Rubin, 1976; Wright, 1978). In other words, the psychological benefits women associate with paid employment extend considerably beyond, and in some cases, may be even more salient than economic considerations alone. Researchers concerned with the issue of women's occupational involvement must therefore adopt models which recognize psychological aspects of work as well as the economics of employment.

One such model is that proposed by Astin (1984), who sees three primary motivations underlying women's desire to work, namely: survival needs (largely economic in nature); pleasure needs (intrinsic pleasure of work activities and the intellectual and emotional pleasure that derives from the performance and
accomplishment of some task); and finally contribution needs (knowledge that work benefits someone else).

The present study found that marriage and family were important determinants of the psychological well-being of working women. Although most women surveyed reported a high degree of commitment to paid employment, married working women reported the highest psychological well-being and also were the group happiest with their family and social life, and with their overall health. By contrast, previously married working women reported the lowest psychological well-being, and were much less satisfied with their family and social life. This supports the views of many researchers who have argued that marriage and family are among the most important domains comprising women's psychological well-being (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell et al, 1976; Cochrane & Stepes-Roe, 1981; Near, Rice & Hunt, 1978; Near & Smith, 1983).

This finding of the continuing centrality of marriage and family in women's lives is not surprising. Despite the growing numbers of women in the last few decades who have chosen work and careers over marriage and family the weight of our historical heritage is still very much a reality. The majority of women in contemporary society, it seems, want to combine work
with marriage and family.

This study therefore supports the use of family life cycle theories - not to explain, as some researchers have claimed (Glick, 1977; Hanson, 1983) women's participation in the labour force (all women were highly committed to paid employment, irrespective of the family life cycle) - but rather in explaining overall life satisfaction among working women. There is however a need to incorporate events which do not fit into current definitions of the family life cycle - such as divorce, remarriage and single parenting - since these were shown to be important determinants in women's psychological well-being.

The continuing centrality of marriage and family in the psychological well being of working women, combined with the high degree of commitment to paid employment reported by all women, leads directly to the third major theoretical implication, which has to do with the important question of multiple roles and role strain/role overload. There is a great deal of controversy concerning the mental health effects of multiple roles.

Some researchers argue that multiple roles clearly have a detrimental effect on mental health causing stress and anxiety (Gove & Geerkin, 1977; Pleck, 1977;
Pleck, Staines & Lang, 1980), while others have maintained that multiple roles actually enhance psychological well-being by acting as a buffer to stress (Baruch, et al., 1983; Betz, 1982; Brown & Harris, 1978; Crosby, 1984; Kessler & McRae, 1982; Richardson, 1981). To take the example of working women, work outside the home can provide relief from the tedium of housework and the constant demands of childcare.

In this study, married women (including those with children) reported the highest level of demands, yet they also reported the highest levels of psychological well-being. This would appear to support the view that multiple roles are not necessarily detrimental to women's psychological well-being. Of course, it is impossible to know, for example, whether the husbands of these women shared in the housework and childcare responsibilities. Studies also have shown that working women whose husbands share in household responsibilities are less depressed.

Counselling and Practical Implications

The fact that women show considerable interest in working for pay combined with their steadily growing
participation rates since the early 1950's underscores the practical significance of this study.

One very significant finding was that most women were highly committed to paid employment yet at the same time the majority were largely dissatisfied with their jobs. Job dissatisfaction is in fact not unusual among clerical workers (Benet, 1972; Glenn & Feldberg, 1977; Grandjean & Taylor, 1980; Howe, 1977; Lowe, 1980). Clerical jobs are "dead end", they are associated with "status panic", and the combination of the division of labour and technological replacement have left clerical workers with little sense of autonomy and room for creativity.

Since it is well established "being where you want to be" is an important component of mental health and general psychological well-being (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Baruch et al., 1983; Campbell, et al., 1976; Hall & Gordon, 1976; Kessler & McRae, 1982), it appears therefore that the above finding would be of particular relevance for vocational counsellors. Beginning at as early an age as possible, women need to be encouraged by vocational counsellors to broaden the horizons of their vocational interests and strive to avoid falling into traditional stereotyped female jobs. All too often vocational counsellors, even today, tend to
discourage girls from pursuing math and science courses that are the necessary prerequisites to this expansion of occupational horizons (Science Council of Canada, cited in Boulet & Lavalle, 1984).

This problem however is not limited to the vocational aspirations of adolescent females. As shown by the high degree of underemployment among the women respondents in this study, it may be all too easy for women who find their higher career aspirations thwarted - by the vicissitudes of the economy, social and family pressures etc. - to lapse into clerical type positions because they are readily available to women and socially acceptable. If on the other hand women were encouraged to take greater risks, for example, by striving for non-clerical civil service positions, various business professions, trades or any nontraditional type occupation, they may find that not only is their commitment to paid employment satisfied but their job satisfaction and overall psychological well-being may be enhanced in the process. It is clear, that vocational counsellors will not likely aid women in terms of contributing to their psychological well-being by encouraging them either to pursue or to lapse into traditional clerical and secretarial positions.
The second major counselling implication has to do with the findings concerning the continuing importance of marriage and family in women's lives and the concomitant issue of multiple roles. Mothers and wives in this study reported significantly higher demands on their time than their single counterparts. This is congruent with the findings of other research which suggests that wives and mothers even when working still continue to bear the major responsibilities for household tasks (Boulet & Lavelle, 1984; Fox & Hess-Biber, 1984; Meissner, 1975; Pleck, 1977, 1980, 1982; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976, 1980; Vanek, 1974, 1984). Research has shown that multiple roles are alleviated to the extent that partners share in the burdens of home and childcare (Bailyn, 1970; Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Gordon & Hall, 1974; Gordon & Kammeyer, 1980; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a; Houseknecht & Macke, 1981). Counsellors therefore should work towards modifying and sustaining less conventional sex-role orientations. They can encourage the exchange of role performances among family members especially husbands and wives. This could be accomplished by advocating the kind of coping strategies outlined by Hall (1975) who suggests that effective methods of dealing with role overload are to change the structure of external
demands i.e. increased sharing, hiring of outside help etc. and also to restructure internal demands, i.e. reduce one's self-expectations and self imposed demands.

Further with regard to the high commitment to work and the continuing commitment to marriage and family, counsellors need to be cognizant and alert to the possibility of serious attitudinal conflicts among women who are highly committed to both family life and career. Counsellors cannot afford to discount one or the other automatically; rather they must facilitate decision making skills and help women to clarify their own values and life goals.

Finally, counsellors must remain ever cognizant of the fact that they and their clients live and operate in a larger social, economic and political milieu where extraneous forces and deliberate policy choices seriously impinge upon the freedom and the will of individuals to make choices and to actualize them. Governments and the private sector should be encouraged on the basis of these findings to promote changes and establish programs which have as their purpose the alleviation of stress upon dual earner families. This could be in the way of better allowances for maternity leave, shared maternity/paternity leave such as already
exists in Sweden (Kamerman, 1979) and daycare that is both accessible and affordable. Governments also can play a role in the educational system by promoting a more egalitarian and gender-free occupational outlook among our youth. The reality of women's increased participation in the labour force is here to stay; how we respond to the challenges will determine the kind of society we in Canada will have in the future.

Future Research

This study yields several possibilities for future research. In the first place the present study looked only at women in low status jobs.

It would be interesting to compare single women in low status jobs with single women in professional jobs in terms of their psychological well-being to see whether job status can compensate for the absence of marriage and family — two domains which are central to overall life satisfaction.

It also would be interesting to compare single mothers with married mothers in terms of their level of demands. Does the institution of marriage create greater demands for the mother by adding an additional role i.e. the combined roles of wife and mother. Of,
alternatively, can marriage work to alleviate demands through the sharing of household responsibilities and childcare? Previous research already shows that variations in spousal support may contribute to the extent to which married women with children experience role conflict (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a). A number of studies have found that women who are most likely to experience distress because of outside employment are those who receive the least amount of help with household chores (Bailyn, 1970; Gordon & Hall, 1974; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a; Houseknect & Macke, 1981).

As has already been mentioned this study surveyed only women who were employed in full time positions. Since full time employment requires greater commitment in terms of time and energy than part time employment it is expected therefore the part time workers may have responded in a very different manner. Since a large number of women are part time workers, either through choice or by necessity it would be valuable to have a study that compared full time and part time workers.
Conclusion

In conclusion, this study found that marriage and family continue to be, as they have been historically, important factors in the psychological well-being of working women. While at the same time, women's commitment to the concept of paid employment -- irregardless of stage in the life cycle -- is higher than ever before in recent history. If the findings of this study are applicable to the female population at large, it would appear that most women in contemporary society want to combine work with marriage and family.
REFERENCES


Sociological Review, 42, 124-143.


Larson, Diener & Edmonds,


Ross, Mirkowski & Huber


Tables
Table 1

Hoyt Estimate of Reliability Coefficients for Dependent Research Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Campbell's Index of Well-Being</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Involvement Scale</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonoccupational Environment Scale</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demand Scale</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction Scale</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affect Balance Scale</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2

Analysis of Variance for the Occupational Involvement Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main effect</td>
<td>275.82</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>137.91</td>
<td>3.95*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>247.47</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>247.47</td>
<td>7.09**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Status</td>
<td>84.96</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>84.96</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.S. x P.S.</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explained</td>
<td>276.71</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>92.24</td>
<td>2.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>5376.81</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>34.91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05
** p < .01
Table 3

One-way Analysis of Variance for Occupational Involvement Scale by Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>222.65</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>111.33</td>
<td>3.13*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>5699.47</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>35.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .05
Table 4
Mean Occupational Involvement Scores for Three Marital Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Never Married</th>
<th>Previously Married</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30.68*</td>
<td>32.71</td>
<td>33.42*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level
Table 5
Analysis of Variance for the Quality of the Nonoccupational Environment Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main effect</td>
<td>216.92</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>108.46</td>
<td>3.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>162.72</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>162.72</td>
<td>4.67*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Status</td>
<td>103.47</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>108.47</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.S. x P.S.</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explained</td>
<td>217.93</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>72.64</td>
<td>2.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>5367.01</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>34.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05
Table 6

One-way Analysis of Variance for Demands by Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>258.34</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>129.17</td>
<td>5.58*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>3701.45</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>23.13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .01
Table 7
Mean Demand Scores for Three Marital Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Never Married</th>
<th>Previously Married</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22.53*</td>
<td>25.46*</td>
<td>23.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level
Table 8

One-way Analysis of Variance for Demands by Parental Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>768.71</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>768.71</td>
<td>38.78*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>3198.08</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>19.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .001
Table 9

Analysis of Variance for the Job Satisfaction Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main effect</td>
<td>33.12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.56</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>9.72</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.72</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Status</td>
<td>14.93</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.93</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.S. x P.S.</td>
<td>10.27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.27</td>
<td>0.60</td>
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<tr>
<td>Explained</td>
<td>43.34</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14.45</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>2622.32</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>17.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10

One-way Analysis of Variance for Job Satisfaction by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>312.08</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>78.02</td>
<td>5.08*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>2396.18</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>15.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .001
Table 11
Mean Job Satisfaction Scores for Five Age Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25 years or younger</td>
<td>17.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 - 35 years</td>
<td>17.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 - 45 years</td>
<td>17.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 - 55 years</td>
<td>20.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 years and older</td>
<td>20.90*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note- groups sharing * do not differ significantly. All other groups differ significantly at the p. <.05 level.
Table 12

Mean Job Satisfaction Scores for Five Income Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>less than $15,000</td>
<td>18.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$15,000 - 25,000</td>
<td>17.31*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$25,000 - 40,000</td>
<td>17.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than $40,000</td>
<td>19.19*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the p. < .05 level.
Table 13

One-way Analysis of Variance for Affect Balance Scale by Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>24.74</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12.38</td>
<td>2.36*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>791.76</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P .1
Table 14

Mean Affect Balance Scores for Three Marital Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Never Married</th>
<th>Previously Married</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.10*</td>
<td>1.17*</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level
Table 15

One-way Analysis of Variance: Index of Well-Being by Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>582.53</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>291.26</td>
<td>3.92*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>11732.58</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>74.26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .05
Table 16
Mean Index of Well-Being Scores for Three Marital Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Never Married</th>
<th>Previously Married</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>42.39*</td>
<td>38.44*</td>
<td>38.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .05 level
Appendix A
C. How many adults are living in your household?
   1. I live alone
   2. I live with my husband or partner
   3. I live with another adult(s)
      (eg. roommate, parent, sister, etc.)

D. How many children do you have living with you?
   0. no children
   1. one child
   2. two children
   3. three or more children

E. If you have children living with you, what are their ages?
   Child one
   Child two
   Child three
   Child four

F. What is the highest grade level of education you have completed?
   1. less than grade 12
   2. completed grade 12
   3. technical training or vocational education beyond high school
   4. some college or university
   5. graduate from university
   6. other (please specify)

G. How many years total work experience do you have, including part-time and voluntary work?

H. Average number of hours per week you devote to your current job?

I. What would you estimate your total combined family income to be?
   1. less than $15,000
   2. $15,000 to $25,000
   3. $25,000 to $40,000
   4. more than $40,000
Here are some words and phrases which I would like you to use to describe how you feel about your present life. For example, if you think your present life is very "boring," put the number 1 in the box to the right of the line. If you think it is very "interesting," put the number 7 in the box to the right of the line. If you think it is somewhere in between, select the appropriate number and indicate your choice in the box provided. Please make a selection for every line.

BORING 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
ENJOYABLE 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
USELESS 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
FRIENDLY 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
FULL 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
DISCOURAGING 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
DISAPPOINTING 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
BRINGS OUT THE BEST IN ME 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
INTERESTING
MISERABLE
WORTHWHILE
LONELY
EMPTY
HOPEFUL
REWARDING
DOESN'T GIVE ME MUCH CHANCE

For some people work is just a means to get money, it is something they have to put up with. For others, work is the centre of their life, something that really matters to them.

I would like to ask you about your reactions to work in general, and whether actually doing work is important to you personally. By "work" I mean having a paid job.

Here are some statements which people have made about work and working, in general. Without limiting yourself to your present job would you indicate, in the box to the right - using the scale below - how strongly you agree or disagree with each comment? Select the number that most accurately reflects your choice. Remember, that I am asking about paid jobs in general, not simply your present job.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
No, I Strongly disagree No, I disagree I'm not sure about Yes, I Agree Yes, I Strongly Agree
Disagree Quite just this just Agree
A lot A little A little A lot

Even if I won a great deal of money in a lottery I would continue to work somewhere.

Having a job is very important to me.

I would hate to be on welfare.

I would soon get very bored if I had no work to do.

The most important things that happen to me involve work.

If unemployment benefit was really high I would still prefer to work.
Now consider some other aspects of your life at the present moment and indicate how satisfied you feel about each one in turn. Please use the scale below and indicate in the box to the right of each statement, the number which most accurately reflects your choice.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I am I am I am I am I am I am I am
Extremely Very Moderately not sure Moderately Very Extremely
Dissatisfied Dissatisfied Dissatisfied Satisfied Satisfied Satisfied

The house or apartment that you live in.

The local district that you live in.

Your standard of living: the things you can buy and do.

The way you spend your leisure time.

Your present state of health.

The education you have received.

Your social life.

Your family life.

Below are some statements concerning the number of demands you confront from others. Using the scale below, please indicate the number, in the box to the right, which most accurately reflects your personal situation.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
All of Most of A good deal About half Occasionally Seldom Never
the the of the of the time time time time

Does it seem as if others are always making demands on you?

Do you often feel it is impossible to finish anything?

At home does it seem as if you almost never have any peace and quiet?

At home does it seem as if you are always having to do something for someone else?

When you try to do something at home are you always interrupted?
Next, I would like to shift to another aspect of your life, your job. The following questions will give you a chance to tell how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel about your present job. Below you will find statements about your job, please choose the response that describes most accurately how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel about your current job. Please indicate your choice in the boxes provided.

Which one of the following shows how much of the time you feel satisfied with your job?

1. Never.
2. Seldom.
3. Occasionally.
4. About half of the time.
5. A good deal of the time.
6. Most of the time.
7. All of the time.

Choose the one of the following statements which best tells how well you like your job?

1. I hate it.
2. I dislike it.
3. I don't like it.
4. I am indifferent to it.
5. I like it.
6. I am enthusiastic about it.
7. I love it.

Which one of the following best tells how you feel about changing your job?

1. I would quit this job at once if I could.
2. I would take almost any other job in which I could earn as much as I am earning now.
3. I would like to change both my job and my occupation.
4. I would like to exchange my present job for another one.
5. I am not eager to change my job, but I would do so if I could get a better job.
6. I cannot think of any jobs for which I would exchange.
7. I would not exchange my job for another.

Which one of the following shows how you think you compare with other people?

1. No one dislikes her job more than I dislike mine.
2. I dislike my job much more than most people dislike theirs.
3. I dislike my job more than most people dislike theirs.
4. I like my job about as well as most people like theirs.
5. I like my job better than most people like theirs.
6. I like my job much better than most people like theirs.
7. No one likes her job better than I like mine.
Next I have some questions about how you have been feeling recently. Please indicate your choice in the box to the right by selecting the number 1 if your answer is "yes" and the number 2 if your answer is "no".

YES = 1
NO = 2

During the past few weeks did you feel ......

Particularly excited or interested in something?  

So restless that you couldn't sit long in a chair?  

Proud because someone had complimented you on something you had done?  

Very lonely or remote from other people?  

Pleased to have accomplished something?  

Bored?  

On top of the world?  

Depressed or very unhappy?  

That things were going your way?  

Upset because someone criticized you?