INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYMENT ON MARITAL RELATIONSHIP AMONG FEMALE EMPLOYEES OF AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY ZARIA, NIGERIA

BY

Shafi'u DANJAJI
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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND COUNSELING,
FACULTY OF EDUCATION,
AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY,
ZARIA

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DECLARATION

The researcher declare that this work entitled "INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYMENT ON MARITAL RELATIONSHIP AMONG FEMALE EMPLOYEES OF AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY ZARIA, NIGERIA," was carried out by me in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling. The information derived for the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and list of references provided. No part of this dissertation had previously been used for another degree or diploma at any University.

_____ _____

Shafi'u, DANJAJI, Date

CERTIFICATION

This dissertation entitled "INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYMENT ON MARITAL RELATIONSHIP AMONG FEMALEEMPLOYEES OF AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA, NIGERIA," by P15EDPC8075 Shafi'u, DANJAJI meets the regulations governing the award of Master's Degree (M. Ed) Guidance and Counselling of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

_____ _____

Prof. M. I. Abdullahi Date
Chairman Supervisory Committee

_____ _____

Dr. U. Yunusa Date
Member Supervisory Committee

_____ _____

Dr. Aisha I, Muhammad Date
Head, Department of Educational
Psychology and Counselling

_____ _____

Prof.S.Z. Abubakar Date
Dean, School of Postgraduate Studies

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late parents Mr. and Mrs. Danjaji Hassan who gave me the opportunity to be educated. It is also dedicated to my beloved wife; Hauwa Shafi`u and sons; Saminu, Bilyaminu, Mika and Mainasara. To my daughter; Bilkisu for their endurance during my frequent absence in the course of my programme.

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna state, Nigeria. The study was guided by six research questions and five hypotheses. The sample size of 240 was used in the study. The instrument tagged "Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship Questionnaire" (IEMRQ) was used. The reliability coefficient of the instrument was given at .76. The data collected were subjected to statistical analysis using mean, standard deviation and ranking order to answer the research questions and t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hypotheses test. The findings revealed that employment has significant influence on marital relationship among the respondents, with misunderstanding between couples, inability to care for children, reductions in sexual relationship and effective communication take the first, second, third and fourth positions respectively. Reduction in leisure time spent with family, persistent quarreling and teaching of loneliness ranked least with ranking position of 18th, 19th and 20threspectively. Hypotheses 1,2,3 and 5 showed no significant influence of employment on marital relationship based on nature of employment, length of marriage, Faculty and Cadre at working respectively while only hypothesis 4 shows that there exists a significant influence of employment on marital relationship based on number of children. Based on the findings of the study, it was recommended that counsellors should organize regular workshops and seminar for married female employees on how to maintain balance between presses of works and marital relationship. Government at all levels should formulate policies that are friendly, and free regular medical check-up should be encouraged among female married employees, and the more children couples have the more their welfare.

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OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms are operationally defined:

Employment: Academic, non-academic and non-staff works in the university by which salary is paid.

Female Employees: Workers in the university who are women.

Marital Relationship: Relationship between married female employees and their husbands, children and other members of their extended family.

Influence: A condition that employment brings to a marital relationship.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

As a result of the increase economic challenges facing couples, a woman whose traditional role was to take care of the house now has to go to work in order to assist the family. This situation is not peculiar to Nigeria as a nation or even the developing countries, but even developed nations. Over the past decades there has been a rapid increase in the labour force participation of married woman in order to improve family finances. Women have worked at agricultural tasks since ancient times, and continue to do so around the world. The Industrial Revolution of the late 18th and early 19th centuries changed the nature of work in Europe and other countries of the Western world. Working for a wage, and eventually a salary, became part of urban life. Initially, women were to be found doing even the hardest physical labor, including working as "hurries" hauling heavy coal carts through mine shafts in Great Britain, a job that also employed many children. This ended after government intervention and the passing of the Mines and Collieries Act 1842, an early attempt at regulating the workplace.

During the 19th century, an increasing number of women in Western countries took jobs in factories, such as textile mills, or on assembly lines for machinery or other goods. Women also worked as "hawkers" of produce, flowers, and other market goods, and bred small animals in the working-class areas of London. Piecework, which involved needlework (weaving, embroidery, winding wool or silk) that paid by the piece completed, was the most common employment for women in 19th century Great Britain. It was poorly paid, and involved long hours, up to 14 hours per day to earn enough wages to survive (Namkee & Pedro, 2002).

Working-class women were usually involved in some form of paid employment, as it provided some insurance against the possibility that their husband might become too ill or injured to support the family. Women could now be found in such places hitherto meant for men such as in iron and steel works, mines, sawmills, oil wells and refineries , gas works, and charcoal furnaces and held such surprising jobs as ship rigger, teamster, turpentine laborer, brass founder/worker, shingle and lathe maker, stock-herder, gun and locksmith, hunter and trapper (MacLean, 2009)".Many Nigerian women also have acquired formal education such that in every part of Nigeria toady, almost every extended family unit can boast of female graduate of one profession or the other such as teachers, nurse, lawyer, medical doctors, accountant or engineer with Diplomas, NCE, B.A, B. Ed, B. Sc. Masters and Ph. D degrees in these disciplines. Most of these qualified women are employed and working in various establishments, contributing their Quota not just to their immediate families but at local, state and National Levels. Many others are self-employed and also playing appreciable roles in the national development. The cost of raising children has increased in recent years, partly because of the expansion of opportunities for women in the labour market, and partly because of the longer time children spend in school. The lack of public support for parenting has also contributed to a worsening of the economic position of parents relative to non-parents (Bennett. Li, Song, Yang, 2000).

The benefits derived from employment by women cannot be over emphasized. Working women helping to run the family smoothly by earning some wages or salaries, she is the one who can save money for the future of the family, she get ample amount to run the family and she is moreover an independent woman, who can take decision of her life and a family on her vantage for men if their wives are working. They join hand with one another so as to get rid of financial problem facing their family. Employment help to change the boring atmosphere of being in the

house and employment helps to develop new skills that might come in handy in their lives (Coltrane, 2000).

Aside the gains derived from employment, the hectic demand and schedules of working couples have limited the amount of time and energy they have to devote for marital relationship or family life. Stresses from working activities by couples often have negative influence on family relationship, psychological wellbeing and marital satisfaction. The life of middle class Nigerian woman differs greatly from those of western woman. Since pre-colonial era women retain certain economic opportunities within the social system. Ayodeji Akinbode & Akinfola, (2003) reported that before the middle of the twenty century, certain Nigerian women played a more significant role in society than did western women. Traditional or tribal society in Nigeria expects women to be significant wage earners in the family. They labour in farming, fishing, herding and commerce (pottery, cloth making and craft working). Apart from that, the difficulties that working women face is quite common and that she is not able to provide enough time to her family and if she has a child of low age, then it affects the upbringing of the child as well.

Women working in the Universities go through a lot of difficulties like their male counterparts. There is students' population explosion that is over stretching the available facilities. Rather than respond to the quality issues resulting from overpopulation, federal and state governments resorted to the proliferation of universities. This goes a long way in compounding problems faced at the home front as a result of having to spend extra time at work to get things done which at times extends to the weekends due to increase in volume of work to be done (Udedibe, 2012). There is the need to investigate influence of employment, working hours; higher income, and length of marriage on the marital relationship among couples.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In Nigeria and the rest of African, a woman does all household chores such as cooking, taking care of the children and keeping the house tidy. In some cases, the husband close earlier than the wife from the office but the wife has to do the cooking, however late she comes' back home. The absence of the mother in the house throughout the day when she is at work leaves the children at the mercy of the house helps for those who could afford it.

There are instances where the children are subjected to so many forms of maltreatment by the house helps; some go to the extent of initiating the children into secret cult activities. To make matters worse, while some married women were at their working place, some men end up having affairs with their house helps leading to house help sending the wife of the house parking. For those that cannot afford to hire a house help, they have to do all the household chores alone in which some risk going to work late as they have to prepare the children to school, prepare breakfast for the family then prepare themselves for work. To this, women are discriminated upon at their places of work; some male chauvinists did not see anything good in the women. Some women have been alleged to be sexually harassed by their male superiors, denied promotion on the basis of not cooperating. Her views not considered as important however constructive, she is seen as a weaker person just because she has some natural phenomenon such as childbirth.

The researcher has observed so many problems regarding relationship among the couples which are related to the women employment. These include disagreement in such matters like handling the family finances, number of children to produce, friends and responsibilities of each partners. These would have been effectively resolved if the couples engage in constructive communication, unfortunately the couples hardly have time to engage in meaningful dialogue largely due to the work demand of the couples.

In view of the above issues raised; the study therefore, investigated the Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship among Female Employees of Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Nigeria.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study include:

1. To find out the influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.
2. To examine the influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on nature of employment.
3. To examine the influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on length of marriage.
4. To investigate the influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on Faculty type.
5. To determine influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on the number of children.
6. To find out influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on cadre at work.

1.4 Research Questions

The following are the research questions:

1. What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria?

2. What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on nature of employment?
3. What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on length of marriage?
4. What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on Faculty type?
5. What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on the number of children?
6. What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on cadre at work?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of confidence:

1. There is no significant influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on nature of employment.
2. There is no significant influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on length of marriage.
3. There is no significant influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on Faculty type.
4. There is no significant influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on the number of children.

5. There is no significant influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on cadre at work.

1.6 Basic Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, it is assumed that:

1. Employment may have influence on marital relationship among female married employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.
2. Employment may have influence of marital relationship among female married employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on nature of employment.
3. Employment may have influence on marital relationship among female married employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on length of marriage.
4. Employment may have influence on marital relationship among female married employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on Faculty type.
5. Employment may have influence on marital relationship among female married employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on number of children born.
6. Employment may have influence on marital relationship among female married employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on cadre at work.

1.7 Significance of Study

The study will be beneficial to marital counselors and psychologist by providing necessary theoretical knowledge, counselling techniques in order to help rebuild broken marital affairs and give new opportunities for working couples to explore high level of understanding that women's roles in the work force have increased and women's positions in the household have not changed greatly.

The findings of this study will be of significance benefits to couples because it will create awareness for working couples to have clear understanding on reasons why women decided to become employed, barriers they need to faced, benefits connected with being employed. The findings will also reveal to couples the relationship between employment and participation of women in a labour market which might overcome the stereotypical picture of women as a wife and mother. The findings of the study will go a long way to help married female workers aware of unequal gender relations on the labour market. This is because most women feel that hey are discriminated and perceived by their husband as worse wives, the main a reason for this are marital relationship and family responsibilities. Women are seen on the first place as a mothers and wives and then as an employees.

The significance of this study to the Nigerian educational system and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's)by sensitizing them on the gender inequality faced by married female workers. The reason is connected with biological factors. Only women can give a birth, but because of the maternity leave they are excluded from a market for couples of months or even years. There is a still very strong social pressure that only woman who has a child can be fulfilled in life. Very often, women decided to quit their jobs, because they feel like juggling work and family life is too difficult. Women which decided to keep their jobs after having a child have two occupations: the one at work and the one at home. Employment sex segregation, like discontinuous employment, is often portrayed as the product of rational choices by individuals seeking to balance work and family roles.

The study will be beneficial to the society because, it will reveal the substantive influence of employment on marital relationship irrespective of the gender, age and length of marriage. In essence, the findings of this study stands to establish the fact, that negative influence of

employment on marital relationship can-not ignored because it may lead to divorce with serious implications to children who burn the negative effects and the society will pay for it in terms of anti-social behaviour such as raping, armed robbery, kidnapping, cultism and so on that will be exhibited by the uneducated child from broken home.

The world will find the findings from this study useful as the findings from this study will bring to limelight the influence of employment on the their marital relationship and some of the counseling techniques to be adopted in resolving marital problem between working couple without experiencing divorce. Because, a working woman assists the husband financially and peaceful marital relationship lead to happy family life

The findings of this study will provide the platform for research community to give more priorities to this area of study and expand the scope of which this study is unable to cover in the nearest future. The findings of this study will also serve as reference point for further research to students who are ready to learn by providing a viable source of information to enhance learning and research in this area of study.

1.8 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

This study covered all married female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. The study is limited to academic, and non-academic and non-staff female employees of the Faculty of Education, Faculty of sciences, Faculty of Social Sciences and Faculty of Arts, Main campus, Samaru, Zaria. The study was also limited to influence of employment on marital relationship, working hour and length of marriage. The study is delimited to other faculties in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria such as: Faculty of agriculture, faculty of medicines and others.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews related literature to the influence of women's employment on marital relationship among women employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. It was discussed under the following sub-headings: concept of employment; correlation between employment and marital relationship and balancing work and family. Theoretical framework such as: Adam's Social Exchange Theory and Eric Erickson Psychosocial Theory were explained. Relevant empirical studies as well as summary were discussed.

2.2 Conceptual Framework

2.2.1 Concept of Employment

Beginning in the 1950s and continuing into the 1980s, women progressively increased their role in the labour force (Waldman, 1985). During the 1970s, women began to attend universities at increasing rates and began obtaining higher education (Rusoff, 1987). As women increased their skills, they also began to attain more professional positions in the work force such as secretarial and clerical employment. However, as women began to play a greater role in the work force, their roles at home did not change significantly (Lennon & Rosenfield, 1994). By 2005, 58% of women were a part of the labour force (Sauve, 2005). However as women became more dominant in the work force, they soon began to struggle with the combination of having a family and working outside of the home (Hochs child, 1989). Hochs child (1989) termed the struggle women were having between work and family as a second shift. The second shift was in reference to the situation where many women worked all day in paid positions only to return home to their family in the evening, a second unpaid position.

Tracy & Rolland (2003) define a woman as female adult that married or yet to be marry to a man. Employment on the other hand refers to a specific job that attracts rewards it may be financial of moral rewards. Therefore woman employee is a female working in a particular organizational setting: education, sport, banking and so on with wages or salary rewards. Couples' preferences toward wife employment play a pivotal role in determining the effects of employment on marital well-being. While the researchers of this study were interested in examining the effects of wives' employment on the mental well-being of couples, their findings may also shed light on the role that wives' employment has on marital quality. A key finding of their study was that both husbands and wives experienced higher levels of mental well-being if their preferences matched wives' employment status. In contrast, spouses whose preferences were inconsistent with the employment activity of the wife experienced lower levels of mental health. More recent work also speaks to the impact that discrepancies between attitudes and preferences on the one hand and behaviour on the other may have on marital quality(Karen & Jay 2003).

Ewa (2008)asserts that there are two main reasons why women decide to enter into employment: high women unemployment rate and lower than men chances to find a job. Women who decide to set up a company are usually about 40 years old or above, married, have one or two grown up children, with many years of experience working in a public sector. Ewa (2008) further enumerates factors which can explain why women prefer to become employed, such as financial and decision making independence, a way of escaping from a glass ceiling, opportunity of having higher income and those they can manage their time on they own. According to him, in 1989 only 3.7% of entrepreneurs were women, in 1993 it was 11%, in 1997 34% and in2002 up to 37% of all entrepreneurs were women. There are a few tendencies on the market which allows

predicting that women will be more successful in leading a company than man. First is that services are becoming more and more important economic sector and women are more diligently engaged in strategic and tactical facets of their business than men, and they are more proactively customer-focused. What is also crucial in conducting a business is how the owner treats employees, if she/he enables them to grow and develop their skills and abilities.

The knowledge industry created a different workplace for women from the factory or the field. In the 1980's, access to better work, equanimity and a desire for personal achievement attracted more mothers into the workforce than in any previous generation. These women came to the workplace with expectations of a career and, over time, crafted solutions for balancing family with work. In 1989 The Harvard Business Review, (HBR), produced an article which argued employing women in management was more expensive than men, because of time and costs associated with maternity leave or abandoning their careers entirely in order to stay home with children (Schwartz, 1989). Several months later in the New York Times the author of the HBR piece wrote that it was "valuable" for companies to promote women on the "mommy track" into management positions, as they didn't require as much pay or benefits as their male counterparts because of women's willingness to trade dollars for values (Schwartz, 1989). Both articles prompted controversy and opened dialogue between women and their employers and among women themselves. For sure, there are many successful stories of women who didn't give up their jobs or their careers and learned to successfully manage their marital relationship or motherhood and a career. These women pioneered compartmentalization. Unlike their male counterparts, who became parents and continued to work, women didn't have the benefit of an attendant co-parent at home. Instead, they crafted shared childcare arrangements with other

working mothers, hired live-in nannies (giving rise to an entire industry heretofore virtually non-existent in the United States) and sometimes relied on their own mothers to help with childcare.

According to Ficham, Beach, and Finchman (2007) women's employment lowered marital quality; especially among men and couples where the wife entered the workforce out of economic necessity. Towbin, Haddock, Zimmerman, Lund, and Tanner (2008); McHale, Crouter & Bunpus (2008) observed that husbands and wives tend to evaluate their marriage negatively when sex-role attitudes do not match household arrangements. In contrast, couples whose attitudes are consistent with their household's division of labour evaluate their marriage more positively. These findings suggest that as couples come to terms with the reality of today's dual earner economy and lake steps toward building more equalitarian households, they benefit from wife's employment.

Bailyn, Drago & Kochan (2010) observed that women's household decision-making and freedom of movement are often used as indicators of women's empowerment. Before the word empowerment was used, women's autonomy, their independence, was often discussed as a goal for women's rights and equality in society. The ability to make decisions that affect one's life and the ability to move beyond the sphere of the home freely exemplify autonomy and were quickly adopted as basics to empowerment. Other aspects of women's lives have become important to empowerment as the concept has expanded to encompass power in a number of spheres and forms, and women's control over resources has become a particularly contested aspect of women's empowerment. What then does women's control over resources do for women's empowerment? Some scholars, like Blumberg (2005), go so far as to say that enhancing women's control over income and other key economic resources is a magic potion for gender equality, development and empowerment. By enhancing women's economic power in the

home in terms of control over resources gender inequality can be reduced, self-confidence increases, women have a greater voice in the household, women can begin to have control over life options and they can have a greater influence in community affairs (USA, Bureau of Statistics, 2005).

2.2.2 Women in the Workforce: History

Women have worked as long as men, as evidenced by cave drawings that show women toiling in fields and over fires. As well, the Old Testament describes stories of women collecting water at wells and tending flocks. In the modern era, the phenomenon of women in the workplace is closely tied to economic and social trends. When, for example, women were needed to support men in times of war, institutional childcare to support working mothers was created. Evidence of this type of institution exists from the Civil War, 1860, through World War II, 1945. These institutions survived, intermittently during that time for the sole purpose of caring for the children of widows who were forced to work (Grossman, 1981). The first of these federally-funded institutions was established in 1863, during the Civil War, in Philadelphia by Hanna Biddle (Prochner, 2003). She modeled the program after the French institutionalized childcare programs which began in 1844 called creches, which looked after the children of the poor to keep them off the streets of Paris. The crèche was funded through charities, the first being wealthy Social Catholics. The crèche looked after pre-school children and infants, freeing up older siblings for school. The crèche offered better care of the children than they received at home because there was formal training of employees, physicians attended to the care of the children, and education to the mothers was available (Prochner, 2003).

In the early 1900's there was a resurgence of interest in institutionalized childcare, this time, as a result of the influx of a working-poor, immigrant population to the United States. The

social benefit of institutionalized childcare was assimilation of immigrants' children into society. These childcare institutions continued during the first and second world wars and operated post-war to support working widows. The institutions often provided jobs for these women in the homes of wealthy patrons. The patrons would subsidize the care of the women with handouts of food and clothing. The social stigma for these women was difficult. Working women of this era, whose children required this type of federally subsidized care, were seen as victims and pitied by their communities (Prochner, 2003).The modern era also provides examples of professional working women, such as, Florence Nightingale, considered the founder of the nursing profession, who did not suffer the same indignities as most other young women. Since her father wanted all his children to receive an education, young Florence was provided a tutor at home who educated her in the classics and mathematics (Audain, 1998). This was not uncommon:

Many of the women professionals prior to the 1950's were guided through male dominated educational and work systems by esteemed, well-positioned fathers who believed their daughters warranted opportunities for careers. If not for their fathers' clout, these women may have become well-educated socialites (Horowitz, 1994).By the 1950's, the predominant profession for a college educated woman was teaching. Higher education was dominated until the 1990's by men (DaMetz, 1994).The only apparent purpose for educating women prior to the 1950's was to create an educated mothering population which in turn, it was hoped, would produce educated male offspring. Fathers who gave their daughters permission to receive a college education expected those daughters to marry well and produce male heirs who would, by virtue of an educated mother, enter school better prepared to achieve than their peers. The theory of educating for the purpose of producing educated progeny backfired somewhat. The first generation of college educated women typically married later, wanted a career and rejected

domesticity (Kaminer, 1998).Most work had been divided by gender until the advent of the knowledge worker, a phrase coined by the late Peter Drucker (Sullivan, 2005). The knowledge industry created greater access for women, resulting primarily from higher education and the ability to be evaluated based on knowledge performance rather than physical capabilities, as was previously required in factory or farm work. A more level playing field, coupled with factors such as changes in marital patterns and smaller families, has contributed greatly to an increase in the number of working women and, hence, working mothers (Grossman, 1981).

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in 1980 there were 17 million working mothers, representing a 44% increase from 1970. By 1990, the number of children with working mothers grew by 5 million, despite fewer children in the population (the result of a precipitous drop in birth rate between 1980 & 1990) (Grossman, 1981).

2.2.3 Organizations formed by Women for Rights

In the nineteenth century women became involved in organizations dedicated to social reform (MacLean, 2009)."In 1903 The National Women's Trade Union League (WTUL) is established to advocate for improved wages and working conditions for women. In 1920 The Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor was formed to create equal rights and a safe workplace for women *(*Kinnear, 2011). In 1956 a group called Financial Women's Association (FWA), was formed. It is an organization established by a group of Wall Street women. The goal was: to advance professionalism in finance and in the financial services industry with special emphasis on the role and development of women, to attain greater recognition for women's achievements in business, and to encourage women to seek career opportunities in finance and business. In 1966 the National Organization for Women (NOW) was founded by a group of feminists including Betty Friedan. The largest women's rights group in the U.S., NOW seeks to

end sexual discrimination, especially in the workplace, by means of legislative lobbying, litigation, and public demonstrations. NOW have 500,000 contributing members and 550 chapters in all 50 states and the District of Columbia(MacLean, 2009). Founded in 1972, the National Association of Female Executives (NAFE) provides education, networking and public advocacy to empower its members to achieve career success and financial security. Members are women executives, business owners, entrepreneurs and others who are committed to NAFE's mission: the advancement of women in the workplace. According to Kinnear, (2011) many of these organizations led to legal action and protecting women's rights as workers and empowered women in the workplace.

The European Union Commission has created a platform for all these networks. It also funded the Women to the Top program in 2003–2005 to bring more women into top management. Some organizations have been created to promote the presence of women in top responsibilities, in politics and business. One example is EWMD European Women's Management Development (cited above), a European and international network of individual and corporate members, drawn from professional organizations. Members are from all areas of business, education, politics and culture.

Women who are born into the upper class rather than the middle or lower class have a much better chance at holding higher positions of power in the work force if they choose to enter it.

2.2.4 Barriers to Equal Participation

As gender roles have followed the formation of agricultural and then industrial societies, newly developed professions and fields of occupation have been frequently inflected by gender. Some examples of the ways in which gender affects a field include:

- Prohibitions or restrictions on members of a particular gender entering a field or studying a field;
- Discrimination within a field, including wage, management, and prestige hierarchies;
- Expectation that mothers, rather than fathers, should be the primary childcare providers.

Note that these gender restrictions may not be universal in time and place, and that they operate to restrict both men and women. However, in practice, norms and laws have historically restricted women's access to particular occupations; civil rights laws and cases have thus primarily focused on equal access to and participation by *women* in the workforce. These barriers may also be manifested in hidden bias and by means of many micro inequities.

A number of occupations became "professionalized" through the 19th and 20th centuries, gaining regulatory bodies, and passing laws or regulations requiring particular higher educational requirements. As women's access to higher education was often limited, this effectively restricted women's participation in these professionalizing occupations. For instance, women were completely forbidden access to Cambridge University until 1868, and were encumbered with a variety of restrictions until 1987 when the university adopted an equal opportunity policy (*Goldin, 2006).* Numerous other institutions in the United States and Western Europe began opening their doors to women over the same period of time, but access to higher education remains a significant barrier to women's full participation in the workforce in developing

countries. Even where access to higher education is formally available, women's access to the full range of occupational choices is significantly limited where access to primary education is limited through social custom.

Women's access to occupations requiring capital outlays is also hindered by their unequal access (statistically) to capital; this affects occupations such as entrepreneur and small business owner, farm ownership, and investor. Numerous microloan programs attempt to redress this imbalance, targeting women for loans or grants to establish start-up businesses or farms, having determined that aid targeted to women can disproportionately benefit a nation's economy. While research has shown that women cultivate more than half the world's food - in sub-Saharan Africa and the Caribbean, women are responsible for up to 80% of food production - most such work is family subsistence labor, and often the family property is legally owned by the men in the family.

- **Discrimination within Occupations**

The idea that men and women are naturally suited for different occupations is known as horizontal segregation (*Goldin, 2006).*Statistical discrimination in the workplace is unintentional discrimination based on the presumed probability that a worker will or will not remain with the company for a long period of time. Specific to women; since employers believe that women are more likely to drop out of the labor force to have kids, or work part-time while they are raising kids, this tends to hurt their chances for job advancement. They are passed up for promotions because of the possibility that they may leave, and are in some cases placed in positions with little opportunity for upward mobility to begin with based on these same stereotypes. According to Namkee & Pedro, (2002) Women continue to earn less money than men, despite establishing equal pay laws.

- **Network Discrimination**

Part of the problem keeping women out of the highest paying, most prestigious positions is that they have historically not held these positions. As a result, recruiters for these high-status jobs are predominantly white males, and tend to hire similar people in their networks. Their networks are made up of mostly white males from the same socio-economic status, which helps perpetuate their over-representation in the best jobs (Edin& Kefalas, 2005).

- **Actions and Inactions of Women Themselves**

Through a process known as "employee clustering", employees tend to be grouped throughout the workplace both spatially and socially with those of a similar status job. Women are no exception and tend to be grouped with other women making comparable amounts of money. They compare wages with the women around them and believe their salaries are fair because they are average. Some women are content with their lack of wage equality with men in the same positions because they are unaware of just how vast the inequality is.

Furthermore, women as a whole tend to be less assertive and confrontational. One of the factors contributing to the higher proportion of raises going to men is the simple fact that men tend to ask for raises more often than women, and are more aggressive when doing so (*Hong Li, 2012).* Women, and men, are socialized at young ages into these roles. School-age boys and girls have been noted as enacting the same aggressive and passive characteristics, respectively, in educational settings that we see in adults in the workplace. Boys are more likely to be pushed competitively in school, and sports, to be dominant. The idea that “winning is everything” is not emphasized to the same extent for girls and therefore they are less likely to seek recognition for their work (*Goldin, 2006).*

An additional issue that contributes to income inequality by gender is that women are much more likely than men to take "breaks" in their careers to have children, often remaining out of the workforce for extended periods of time, while men in the same role or occupation (or other women who do not leave the workforce) most likely are continuing to earn promotions and/or merit-based salary increases. When a woman in this scenario re-enters the workforce, she may be offered a smaller salary or a lower position than she might have merited had she remained in the workforce alongside her colleagues (both male and female) who have not interrupted their careers

- **Gender Inequality by Social Class**

In the last 50 years there have been great changes toward gender equality in industrialized nations such as the United States of America. With the feminist movement of the 1960s, women began to enter the workforce in great numbers. Women had also had high labor market participation during World War II as so many male soldiers were away, women had to take up jobs to support their family and keep their local economy on track. Many of these women dropped right back out of the labor force when the men returned home from war to raise children born in the generation of the baby boomers. In the late 1960s when women began entering the labor force in record numbers, they were entering in addition to all of the men, as opposed to substituting for men during the war. This dynamic shift from the one-earner household to the two-earner household dramatically changed the socioeconomic class system of industrialized nations in the post-war period.

- **Effects on the Middle and Upper Classes**

The addition of women into the workforce was one of the key factors that have increased social mobility over the last 50 years, although this has stalled in recent decades for both genders. Female children of the middle and upper classes had increased access to higher education, and thanks to job equality, were able to attain higher-paying and higher-prestige jobs than ever before. Due to the dramatic increase in availability of birth control, these high status women were able to delay marriage and child-bearing until they had completed their education and advanced their careers to their desired positions. In 2001, the survey on sexual harassment at workplace conducted by women's nonprofit organization Sakshi among 2,410 respondents in government and non-government sectors, in five States recorded 53 per cent saying that both sexes don't get equal opportunities, 50 per cent women are treated unfairly by employers and co-workers, 59 per cent have heard sexist remarks or jokes, 32 per cent have been exposed to pornography or literature degrading women (Namkeea & Pedro, 2002).

In comparison with other sectors, IT organizations may be offering equal salaries to women and the density of women in technology companies may be relatively high but this does not necessarily ensure a level playing field. For example, Microsoft (US) was sued because of the conduct of one of its supervisors over e-mail. The supervisor allegedly made sexually offensive comments via e-mail, such as referring to himself as "president of the amateur gynecology club." He also allegedly referred to the plaintiff as the "Spandex Queen. E-harassment is not the sole form of harassment. In 1999, Juno Online faced two separate suits from former employees who alleged that they were told that they would be fired if they broke off their ongoing relationships with senior executives. Pseudo Programs, a Manhattan-based Internet TV network, was sued in January 2000 after male employees referred to female employees as

“bimbos ‘ and forced them to look at sexually explicit material on the Internet. In India HR managers admit that women are discriminated against for senior Board positions and pregnant women are rarely given jobs but only in private. Recently a sexual harassment suit against a senior member shocked the Indian IT sector. In addition to this, it has been suggested that there are less women in the IT sector due to existing stereotypes that depict the sector as male-orientated. Improvements in the education system could be the key to encouraging women to take up roles in this sector.

Recognizing the invisible nature of power structures that marginalize women at the workplace, the Supreme Court in the landmark Vaishaka versus High Court of Rajasthan (1997) identified sexual harassment as violative of the women's right to equality in the workplace and enlarged the ambit of its definition. The judgment equates a hostile work environment on the same plane as a direct request for sexual favors. To quote: "Sexual harassment includes such unwelcome sexually determined behaviour (whether directly or by implication) as: physical contact and advances; a demand or request for sexual favours; sexually coloured remarks; showing pornography; any other unwelcome physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct of sexual nature". The judgment mandates appropriate work conditions should be provided for work, leisure, health, and hygiene to further ensure that there is no hostile environment towards women at the workplace and no woman employee should have reasonable grounds to believe that she is disadvantaged in connection with her employment.

This law thus squarely shifts the onus onto the employer to ensure employee safety but most mid-sized Indian service technology companies are yet to enact sexual harassment policies. Admits K Chandan, an advocate from Chandan Associates, "I have a few IT clients. When I

point to the need for a sexual harassment policy, most tend to overlook or ignore it. It's not high on the agenda." An HR Manager of India's premier technology companies rues: "I am going to use the recent case to push the policy through. Earlier the draft proposal was rejected by the company." Yet another HR manager from a flagship company of India's leading business house, oblivious to the irony of her statement, admitted that the company had a grievance redress mechanism but no sexual harassment policy in place. The lax attitudes transgress the Supreme Court judgment wherein the Court not only defined sexual harassment, but also laid down a code of conduct for workplaces to prevent and punish it, "Employers or other responsible authorities in public or private sectors must comply with the following guidelines: Express prohibition of sexual harassment should be notified and circulated; private employers should include prohibition of sexual harassment in the standing orders under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946." As for the complaint procedure, not less than half of its members should be women. The complaint committee should include an NGO or other organization that is familiar with the issue of sexual harassment. When the offense amounts to misconduct under service rules, appropriate disciplinary action should be initiated. When such conduct amounts to an offense under the Indian Penal Code, the employer shall initiate action by making a complaint with the appropriate authority. However, the survey by Sakshi revealed 58 per cent of women were not aware of the Supreme Court guidelines on the subject. A random survey by AssureConsulting.com among hundred employees working in the IT industry revealed startling results: Less than 10 percent were familiar with the law or the company's sexual harassment policy. Surprisingly, certain HR managers were also ignorant of the Supreme Court guidelines or the Draft Bill by the National Commission of Women against sexual harassment at the workplace.

Not surprisingly many cases go unreported. However, given the complexities involved, company policy is the first step and cannot wish away the problem. Says Savita HR Manager at Icelerate Technologies, "We have a sexual harassment policy that is circulated among employees. Also the company will not tolerate any case that comes to its notice. But the man at home is no different from the person at the office," thus implying the social mindset that discriminates against women is responsible for the problem. Considering sexual censorship and conservative social attitudes emphasizing “woman’s purity," the victim dare not draw attention for fear of being branded a woman with "loose morals". Women would rather brush away the problem or leave jobs quietly rather than speak up, even in organizations that have a zero tolerance policy. Says Chandan, "I do not have exact statistics but from my experience as an advocate one in 1,500 cases are reported." The problem cannot be resolved till more women speak up but the social set-up browbeats women into silence. The social stigma against the victim and the prolonged litigation process for justice thwarts most women from raising their voice. Purports K Chandan "It may take between three and five years to settle a case, and in a situation where the harassment is covert, evidence is hard to gather and there is no guarantee that the ruling would be in favour of the victim. In one of the rare cases I handled a Country Manager was accused and the plaintiff opted for an out of court settlement."

2.2.5 Laws Protecting Women's Rights as Workers

International laws protecting women's rights as workers exist through the efforts of various international bodies. On June 16, 2011, the International Labour Organization (ILO) passed C189 Domestic Workers Convention, 2011, binding signatories to regulations intended to end abuses of migrant domestic workers. It was anticipated that the Convention would put pressure on non-ratifying countries to support changes to their own laws to meet the change in

international standards protecting domestic workers (MacLean, 2009). Also in 2011, Hong Kong's High Court struck down a law preventing domestic workers from having residency rights granted to other foreign workers, a move that affected an estimated 100,000 domestic workers in Hong Kong (Edin& Kefalas, 2005).

The ILO has previously ratified the Equal Remuneration Convention in 1951, which came into force in 1953, the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, which went into force in 1960 and the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000, which went into force in 2002. In 1966, the United Nations General Assembly adopted the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which went into force in 1976. UNESCO also adopted the Convention against Discrimination in Education in 1960, which came into force in 1962 (*Goldin, 2006).* The International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, adopted by the United Nations General Assembly, went into force in 2003. The Home Work Convention, adopted by the ILO, went into force in 2000; the Convention protects the rights of persons doing paid work out of their home, which is frequently women workers. It offers equal protection regarding working conditions, safety, remuneration, social security protection, access to training, minimum age of employment, and maternity protection.

Human trafficking often targets young women who are abducted and sent outside their own country to work as domestic workers, often in conditions of extreme exploitation. A number of international laws have been ratified to address human trafficking of women and children. But these laws are not being put in effect.

2.2.6 Women in Workforce Leadership

Female decision-makers from around Europe are organized in several national and European wide networks. The networks aim to promote women in decision-making positions in politics and the economy across Europe. These networks were founded in the 1980s and are often very different from the "service clubs" founded in the early days of the century, like Soroptimist and Zontas.

"Women in Management" is about women in business in usually male-dominated areas. Their motivation, their ideas and leadership styles and their ability to enter into leadership positions is the subject of most of the different networks. Hong Li, (2012) observed that as of 2009, women represented 20.9% of parliament in Europe (both houses) and 18.4% world average. As of 2009, 90 women serve in the U.S. Congress: 18 women serve in the Senate, and 73 women serve in the House Women hold about three percent of executive positions. In the private sector, men still represent 9 out of 10 board members in European blue-chip companies. The discrepancy is widest at the very top: only 3% of these companies have a woman presiding over the highest decision-making body

2.3 Causes of Conflict in Marital Relationship

According to Herbert (2014) conflict is inevitable in human relationships. Often clashes occur more over perceived differences than real ones. People anticipate blocks to achieving their goals that may or may not be there. To him conflict occurs when:

There is a lack of communication. Failure to share ideas and feelings (between wife and husband for example) allows the other person to fill in the gap. We read in what we think the other person will say or anticipate how the other person will respond. Then, we often suspect

negative things which provoke anxiety, leading us to look for the worst. If this continues, trust becomes lower and we may become suspicious and defensive.

There is a value conflict in which two people have different attitudes, beliefs and expectations. These differences may interfere in making decisions if we are inflexible and hold rigid, dogmatic beliefs about the "right way" to do things. Different values and beliefs predispose two people to choose different goals or different methods to achieve the same goals. And, since each goal requires an investment of time, effort and some sacrifice, we cannot pursue one goal without sacrificing the other to some extent.

There is a lack of effective leadership or decision-making. Lack of agreement about who's in charge" or "how we are going to get things done" in any situation can be a source of conflict. For example, if one parent in a family expects democratic decision-making (all members have input) and the other wants to be the boss (do it my way), they may not be able to resolve honest differences of opinion. Then when differences exist, they become sidetracked into a hassle over who will decide or whose opinion is going to be accepted as the "right" one. The resulting conflict becomes a win-lose struggle.

There are discrepancies in role performances. Difficulties can arise if two people see their own and each other's roles differently. For example, if the wife's concept of her role and the husband's concept of her role are very different, conflict may arise. But, if the man's role as a male and husband meshes well with the woman's role as female and wife, conflict will be minimal.

There is low productivity. Being able to accomplish tasks and achieve goals is a necessary ingredient in any work or family environment. And, if the task is not done, we may get angry. If

the other person responds to our anger by performing the task, a response pattern of anger is established in order to get results. Couples with low productivity in their marriage may try nagging, making trade-offs (I'll do this if you do that), and criticizing, but these tend to produce only short-term success.

Change causes disequilibrium. While change is considered to be a given for people working and living together, another "given" is that people prefer secure, predictable patterned responses to the unknown. When changes occur abruptly and unpredictably, conflict may follow (e.g. The wife comes home from her college class one night and says I want a divorce.). Forces may have been at work for a long time to cause such a change, but it appears suddenly and provokes anger, anxiety and confusion.

Unresolved prior conflict: As the number of past unresolved conflicts increases between people so does the possibility of future ones. Many people shy away from conflict management because memories of past conflicts still hurt. Probably the most lasting of those scars have been caused by conflicts with those we are closest to family, close friends, trusted colleagues and in work groups.

Fulltime Employment of Couple: Haddock, Zimmerman, Ziemba & Lyness (2006) opined that dual-earning or both partners are full-time employed, middle-class and professional couples with children that perceive themselves as successful in balancing family and work. He suggested that couples should strive for marital partnership to support balance in the relationship by the following: Sharing housework or negotiating equal division of labor; Mutual, active involvement in child care wives resist monopolizing and controlling, make room for equal contribution by husband; Joint decision-making (free expression of needs, negotiation and compromise wife

perceived to have slightly more influence); Equal financial influence and access based on joint decision-making, planning; Valuing both partners' work and life goals (husband's careers somewhat more prioritized, support for separate, individual time and activities); Sharing emotional work (primacy of marital relationship, time alone together.

Lack of Coping Mechanisms or adaptive Skills by couples: This is another cause of problem in marital relationship. Haddock, Zimmerman, Ziemba & Current (2001) observed that unless if couples could employ adaptive strategies, including: Valuing family as the highest priority over professional responsibilities and advancement; Deriving enjoyment and purpose from work; Actively setting limits on work by separating family and work and negotiating with employers; Focusing at work they experience limits as making them more productive at work ; Prioritizing family play and fun; Taking pride in dual earning; Living simply, giving up some material amenities in order to reduce financial pressures and work hours ; and Proactive decision-making: If you just define success as what you do at work, then that is all you will do. He concluded that if you define success as having a happy family and a happy marriage and being happy at work, then you make all those things happen. Recognizing the value of and protecting time for family, being present oriented. While this is not the only set of strategies for balance, it has the virtue of being one that is derived from the experience of satisfied couples. Whatever your work arrangements, experts recommend a range of coping strategies to enhance balance marital relationship.

2.3.1 Correlation between Employment and Marital Relationship

Tracy, Claire, & Rosalind (2003) opined that mothers regarded themselves as being responsible for meeting their family's needs. They largely saw their employment as supporting

this responsibility, but sometimes felt that it could make family relationships difficult. Most mothers thought that their employment had important beneficial effects on their relationships with their children and with their partner. They saw their employment as helping them to meet their children's emotional, developmental, social and material needs, and felt that their children largely appreciated this. Many mothers also stressed the importance of being a good role model for their children.

Gary (2010) added that there is a link between work, women and marital relationship. He explained that when the labour specialization in a marriage decreases if, for example, both spouses have careers the overall value of the marriage is lower for both partners because less of the total needed work is getting done, making life harder for both partners and divorce more likely. And, indeed, much of the reasoning is based on a lot of economic theory and a bit of common sense. In classic economics, a marriage is, at least in part, an exercise in labour specialization. Traditionally, men have tended to do market or paid work outside the home, and women have tended to do nonmarket or household work, including raising children. All of the work must get done by somebody, and this pairing, regardless of who is in the home and who is outside the home, accomplishes that goal.

Adrian (2003) observed that work environment is a host of potential partners that on many occasions lead to marital relationship problems. He further elaborated that highly educated women are more likely to have extramarital sex (those with graduate degrees are 1.75 times more likely to have cheated than those with high school diplomas). Additionally, individuals who earn more than $30,000 a year are more likely to cheat. It was also found that a career can hurt a marriage when your spouse works outside the home, chances increase that she will meet someone more likable than you and individuals frequently find themselves spending a great deal

of time with these individuals. And this cheating can leads to marital relationship problems or divorce.

2.4 Theoretical Frame Work

Two theories served as the theoretical framework for this study: The Adam's Social Exchange theory and Psychosocial Theory by Eric Erickson

2.4.1 Adam's Social Exchange Theory

According to Kendra, (2014) social exchange theory has its origins in Structural Anthropology (Levi-Straus), Behavioral Psychology (Skinner, Albert Bandura), Utilitarian Economics (D. Ricardo, Adam Smith, Mill), Sociology (George Homans, Peter Blau), and Social Psychology (Thibaut& Kelly).

Social exchange theory suggests that couple should weigh the benefits versus the costs of relationships. Social exchange theory proposes that social behavior is the result of an exchange process. The purpose of this exchange is to maximize benefits and minimize costs. According to this theory, people weigh the potential benefits and risks of social relationships. When the risks outweigh the rewards, people will terminate or abandon that relationship. Costs involve things that are seen as negatives to the individual such as having to put money, time and effort into a relationship. The benefits are thing things that the individual gets out the relationship such as fun, friendship, companionship and social support.

Social exchange theory also suggests that couples essentially take the benefits and minus the costs in order to determine how much a relationship is worth. Positive relationships are those in which the benefits outweigh the costs, while negative relationships occur when the costs are greater than the benefits. They believe that individuals interact for profit or the expectation of it.

Remember that behavioral psychology like operant conditioning and stimulus-response psychology, explains all behavior in terms of its reward seeking/punishment avoiding motivation. Out of a very basic desire to seek rewards and avoid punishments, individual organisms, subjects, units create sets of strategies that they believe will increase the odds in their favor. We learn what is rewarding by emitting an array of behaviors until one of them results in a positive reinforcement. Thus, throughout life, but beginning in infancy, we are trained (i.e., we learn, our behavior is modified) so that our behavior and thought processes are consistent with the goals of the persons doing the socializing. The fact that those socialization agents are working for the State (i.e., the society, the culture, the larger set of values) brings the psychology of this developmental theory into the social world.

Basic Assumptions of Social Exchange Theory

1. People who are engaged in interaction are rationally seeking to maximize profits (Could this be a selfish and hedonistic view of human nature?). Thus, Social Exchange (SE) theory is Subjective and Introspective.
2. Most gratification among humans is located in others. Dyads or small groups are the unit of analysis.
3. People have access to information about social, economic, and psychological aspects of interaction that allows them to consider alternative, more profitable situations relative to their present condition.
4. People are rational and calculate the best possible means to compete in rewarding situations. The same is true of punishment avoidance situations. SE is organismic mechanistic to the extent that the individual is not in control of the expectations for his/her behavior. Individual reactions are narrowly defined as acceptable.
5. People are goal oriented in a freely competitive system. SE is a Formal Theory.
6. Exchange operates within cultural norms.
7. Social credit is preferable to social indebtedness. SE is Nomothetic.
8. The more deprived the individual feels in terms of an act, the more the person will assign value to it. Again, SE is nomothetic--based on general laws.

The language of Social Exchange theory betrays its assumption that we are all in it for ourselves. The basic formula for predicting the behavior for any properly socialized individual in any situation is:

Behavior (Profits) = Rewards of interaction - Costs of Interaction.

1. **Costs:** Costs are any real or perceived debits resulting from a behavior. Rewards are the obvious perceived credits resulting from a behavior. Profits are short- or long run gains of interaction with others. Satiation occurs if rewards are given too often and become devalued. Scarcity and the perception of it, increase the value of rewards.
2. **Bargaining/Negotiation:** Bargaining/Negotiation is a process by which individuals may perceive a sense of power in their relationships. Each relationship stands on its own in SE theory.
3. **Reinforcement:** Reinforcement is a device by which behaviors are encouraged (positive reinforcement, rewards or absence of punishment), discouraged (negative reinforcement, punishments or lack of rewards).
4. **Power:** Power is the ability of one person to exert influence or control over the behavior of another. Proximity is the distance of the individual from the reward.
5. **Propinquity:** Propinquity is simply nearness in place, and refers to the human tendency to seek rewards from the closest possible source while removing themselves as far as possible from sources of punishment.
6. **Competition:** Competition is a cost factor in the perception of the reward structure. Individuals are all in competition for rewards, and will attempt to reduce competition by any means necessary, given the desire to be rewarded. Distributive Justice refers to an individual's perception of the reward structure and his/her rightful portion of it. Thus, it is possible for privileged individuals to feel slighted or punished because their rewards for behavior are smaller than another person.

In an academic setting, for example, salary raises are usually given according to job performance. These are all good things for a theory to possess. Social Exchange theory has all these Characteristics:

- The economic analysis is elegant, although, simplistic.
- Micro/macro level analysis is possible.
- SE considers value of interaction to all actors.
- SE is testable.
- SE has propositions
- SE is Parsimonious and heuristic.

Advantages of Social Exchange Theory in Marital Relationship

1. Mate selection research describes the process of finding a mate that meets our needs.
2. Marital stability research describes the state of having needs met with little cost. If we weren't happy, we'd leave.
3. Marital satisfaction, family violence, parenting, sexual scripting, role differentiation, and work and family relationships research all use SE theory tenets as guiding principles. You will remember that a theory is a general principle that interrelates a series of events allowing a broad range of predictions with a degree of accuracy not otherwise possible.

However, there are some disadvantages.

1. Social Exchange explains away all altruistic behavior or motives. Sweetness and kindness for their own sake are not possible.
2. Social Exchange would have us believe that love is simply a means to an end. SE is also a tautology in that a reward is defined as that which increases behaviors. Behavior is that which increases rewards (or cost avoiding).

2.4.2 Psychosocial Theory by Eric Erickson (1992)

Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages. Unlike Freud's theory of psychosexual stages, Erikson's theory describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan. One of the main elements of Erikson's psychosocial stage theory is the development of

ego identity. Ego identity is the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction.

According to Erikson (1992) our ego identity is constantly changing due to new experiences and information we acquire in our daily interactions with others. When psychologists talk about identity, they are referring to all of the beliefs, ideals, and values that help shape and guide a person's behavior. The formation of identity is something that begins in childhood and becomes particularly important during adolescence, but it is a process that continues throughout life. Our personal identity gives each of us an integrated and cohesive sense of self that endures and continues to grow as we age.

In addition to ego identity, Erikson also believed that a sense of competence motivates behaviors and actions. Each stage in Erikson's theory is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which is sometimes referred to as ego strength **or** ego quality**.** If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy.

In each stage, Erikson believed people experience a conflict that serves as a turning point in development. In Erikson's view, these conflicts are centered on either developing a psychological quality or failing to develop that quality. During these times, the potential for personal growth is high, but so is the potential for failure. Erickson is known for his work in developmental psychology. He coined the term identity crisis and described the human life cycle as comprising eight stages.

Psychosocial Stage 1: Trust vs. Mistrust

The first stage of Erikson's theory of psychosocial development occurs between birth and one year of age and is the most fundamental stage in life. Because an infant is utterly dependent,

the development of trust is based on the dependability and quality of the child's caregivers. If a child successfully develops trust, he or she will feel safe and secure in the world. Caregivers who are inconsistent, emotionally unavailable, or rejecting contribute to feelings of mistrust in the children they care for. Failure to develop trust will result in fear and a belief that the world is inconsistent and unpredictable.

Of course, no child is going to develop a sense of 100 percent trust or 100 percent doubt. Erikson believed that successful development was all about striking a balance between the two opposing sides. When this happens, children acquire hope, which Erikson described as an openness to experience tempered by some wariness that danger may be present.

Psychosocial Stage 2: Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

The second stage of Erikson's theory of psychosocial development takes place during early childhood and is focused on children developing a greater sense of personal control. Erikson believed that toilet training was a vital part of this process. However, Erikson's reasoning was quite different than that of Freud's. Erikson believe that learning to control one's bodily functions leads to a feeling of control and a sense of independence. Other important events include gaining more control over food choices, toy preferences, and clothing selection. Children who successfully complete this stage feel secure and confident, while those who do not are left with a sense of inadequacy and self-doubt. Erikson believed that achieving a balance between autonomy and shame and doubt would lead to will, which is the belief that children can act with intention, within reason and limits.

Psychosocial Stage 3 - Initiative vs. Guilt

During the preschool years, children begin to assert their power and control over the world through directing play and other social interactions. Children who are successful at this

stage feel capable and able to lead others. Those who fail to acquire these skills are left with a sense of guilt, self-doubt, and lack of initiative. When an ideal balance of individual initiative and a willingness to work with others is achieved, the ego quality known as purpose emerges.

Psychosocial Stage 4:Industry vs. Inferiority

This stage covers the early school years from approximately age 5 to 11. Through social interactions, children begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments and abilities. Children who are encouraged and commended by parents and teachers develop a feeling of competence and belief in their skills. Those who receive little or no encouragement from parents, teachers, or peers will doubt their abilities to be successful. Successfully finding a balance at this stage of psychosocial development leads to the strength known as competence or a belief our own abilities to handle the tasks set before us.

Psychosocial Stage 5:Identity vs. Confusion

During adolescence, children explore their independence and develop a sense of self. Those who receive proper encouragement and reinforcement through personal exploration will emerge from this stage with a strong sense of self and a feeling of independence and control. Those who remain unsure of their beliefs and desires will feel insecure and confused about themselves and the future. Completing this stage successfully leads to fidelity, which Erikson described as an ability to live by society's standards and expectations.

Psychosocial Stage 6: Intimacy vs. Isolation

This stage covers the period of early adulthood when people are exploring personal relationships. Erikson believed it was vital that people develop close, committed relationships with other people. Those who are successful at this step will form relationships that are committed and secure. Remember that each step builds on skills learned in previous steps.

Erikson also believed that a strong sense of personal identity was important for developing intimate relationships. Studies have demonstrated that those with a poor sense of self tend to have less committed relationships and are more likely to suffer emotional isolation, loneliness, and depression. Successful resolution of this stage results in the virtue known as love. It is marked by the ability to form lasting, meaningful relationships with other people.

Psychosocial Stage 7: Generativity vs. Stagnation

During adulthood, we continue to build our lives, focusing on our career and family. Those who are successful during this phase will feel that they are contributing to the world by being active in their home and community. Those who fail to attain this skill will feel unproductive and uninvolved in the world. Care is the virtue achieved when this stage is handled successfully. Being proud of your accomplishments, watching your children grow into adults, and developing a sense of unity with your life partner are important accomplishments of this stage.

Psychosocial Stage 8: Integrity vs. Despair

This phase occurs during old age and is focused on reflecting back on life. Those who are unsuccessful during this stage will feel that their life has been wasted and will experience many regrets. The individual will be left with feelings of bitterness and despair. Those who feel proud of their accomplishments will feel a sense of integrity. Successfully completing this phase means looking back with few regrets and a general feeling of satisfaction. These individuals will attain wisdom, even when confronting death.

2.4.3 Relevance of Theories to the Study

1. The social exchange theory provides a broad framework for married couples to develop conflict resolution skills. .

2. Eric Erickson psychological theory emphasizes the social nature of human beings and the important influence that social relationships have on marital relationship.
3. It will assist the marital counselors to learn essential premarital counseling skills for managing conflicts that are inevitable in any long-term intimate relationship.

2.4.4 Background of Employment

Following the end of World War II, there was a surge of women entering into the labour force (Shank, 1988). From the 1950s to 1984, women increased their placement in the workforce from 34% to 54% (Waldman, 1985). There were a large number of women in the 20 to24 age range in the work force in the 1960s. However, by the time these women fit the 25 to 29age bracket (the peak period for women to start raising children), women began to work less (Shank, 1988).

The 1970s ushered in another change. Women began entering universities and receiving degrees in higher education, at a much faster rate than men (Rusoff, 1987). By 1982, 51% of the students enrolled in universities were women. With increasing knowledge, women began entering the workforce with a stronger force. Women 25 years of age and above made up 53.9%of the labour force in 1982 and by 2004, 77% of women between 25 and 54 years old were employed (Rusoff, 1987; Statistics Canada, 2006). Women were attaining clerical, managerial, and professional positions in the labour market, propelling women's stature in the paid workforce from 42% in the 1970's to 58% in 2005 (Sauve, 2005). The average number of house women put into paid work increased from 1986 to 2005 (Marshall, 2006). Women performed3.3 hours on average a day of paid work and 2.8 hours of household work in 1986, compared to4.4 hours of paid work and 2.4 hours of household work in 2005 (Marshall, 2006). Men were also found to have increased their hours in their paid work from 1986 to 2005. Approximately 6hours of paid work were performed by men in 1986, but that increased to 6.3 hours in 2005(Marshall, 2006). As for unpaid work, men's participation slightly increased from 1 hour in 1986 to an average of 1.4 hours in 2005. Even though women have increased their positions in the work

force, women are less likely to be hired for a position than men, within every province in Canada (Statistics Canada, 2006).

Of the women constituting the workforce, approximately 25% of them are single and have never been married (Waldman, 1985). However, the largest proportion of women in the workforce is women who are married, composing 56% of the female labour market. Some of these women also have children of the preschool age. Even though married women with children have increased their presence within the labour market, they are still the dominant caretakers of the home and family (Rusoff, 1987). However, this situation may be changing slightly as men have begun to increase their participation in daily household work activities from54% to 71% (Marshall, 2006).

Hochschild (1989) observed 50 couples in the 1970s who were struggling with work, family, and modernization. Data was also gathered on couples raising children under the age of six (Hochschild, 1989). Hochschild observed the behaviors and routines of the families on weeknights, weekends, and special occasions. The major topic that Hochschild proposed to the families was the question of who performs the household duties. The women being observed were married, employed, and were all raising children at the same time i.e., triple role women (Hochschild, 1989). These women were representatives of the 56% of married women in the labour market (Waldman, 1985).

The women considered themselves to be torn between their family and their work, as they were extremely busy trying to perform every job (Hochschild, 1989). One woman proposed the term second shift to represent the issues married, working women have to struggle with. This term was accepted by both the wives and husbands. However, this term was not to be interpreted as family as a job, as the woman believed the family portion of her life to be the most important.

Hochschild's definition of "second shift" represents women on duty at work who have a second shift when they arrive at home (Hochschild, 1989).Women have increased their participation in the labour force, but still have a deep interest in their home, regardless of how much their husbands participate (Hochschild, 1989).

Overall, women still believe the home is their responsibility and this includes child care, scheduling appointments, and other activities pertaining to the home. Since women have entered the work force, everything has increased in the domains of work and family life. Women feel more strain has been added to their lives as there is very little time left at the end of the day. Women attempt to meet these challenges by multi-tasking which tends to create more tension while men tend to only execute one task at a time (Hochschild, 1989). There are many different definitions used to encapsulate exactly what housework, household work, or unpaid work involves (Shelton & John, 1996). Eichler& Albanese (2007) define household work as encompassing all physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual tasks used to uphold one's daily activities and household. Numerous studies on household work have included child care and domestic work such as cooking, cleaning, and gardening (Hakim, 2004).

Others believe the definition of household work is dependent on individual households and the historical time frame being examined such that there is no one clear definition for everyone (DeVault, 1991). Due to the changing nature of society with women working and having an increased income, women are now able to purchase prepared food as opposed to cooking from scratch (DeVault, 1991). In the past, household work would include duties such as washing, ironing, and cooking but some women can now hire services to perform these duties. These conveniences are likely responsible for the decreased amount of time individuals spend on

household work in the past 20 years: 2.7 hours per day in 1986 to 2.5 hours per day in 2005 (Marshall, 2006).

While others believe the definition of household work is evolving into an entirely different definition, the most common definition of household work is seen as unpaid work performed in order to maintain a family and a home (Shelton & John 1996). This definition, although commonly used, does not describe any of the details involved in the work that is performed. Prior research has identified two different branches of household duties (Lennon &Rosenfield, 1994). Household work is made of typical female tasks that may include activities such as cooking, cleaning, and shopping while typical male responsibilities may include financial management and car maintenance. Existing definitions of household work also differ as some definitions include invisible work while other definitions do not. Invisible work is considered to be tasks that are performed but not acknowledged (Erickson, 1993; 2005). Another term used for this type of work is emotional work. Emotional or invisible work may include child care (Stewart & Joyce, 1999).

Supporting a spouse or child emotionally, being therapeutic, and being expressive are all included in the definition of emotional work (Erickson, 2005). The household work definition used in this study includes typical household work activities such as cooking and cleaning, but also includes emotional work. Women have increased their presence within the workforce; however, their role within the home has not changed dramatically (Lennon &Rosenfield, 1994). Household work or the home and family have been viewed as a woman's responsibility (Hochschild, 1989). As women have become busier, women have anticipated that their partners will help with the workload at home. However, significant differences can be found when contrasting daily contributions of household work between males and females (Marshall, 2006).

Studies on the Impact of Working Women on Marriage

According to Anne-Rigt (2005), Marital conflict is significantly more likely to occur within ten years of marriage when a couple during the first five years of marriage reverses traditional sex roles with the husband working less than the wife and the wife working more than the husband. The more hours the husband works, and the less hours the wife works, the less likely they were to divorce. This held true even when taking into account when a husband earned less than other men and when a husband worked overtime. Each $1,000 increase in wives' actual income or each percentage point increase in wives' income as a percentage of total household income increases the annual odds of divorce by approximately 2.5 to 3 percent. Increases in husbands' income were associated with lower odds of divorce. Married couples face the highest risk of divorce when the wife contributes 50-60 percent of overall earnings. Cohabiting couples face the reverse situation relationships are more stable when incomes are equal or the woman contributes more (Stacy 2004).

A thesis by Denise (2007) describes the impact of women entering the workforce after 1970 on work/life balance issues. I have argued that women entering the workforce after 1970 held a different perspective from their predecessors: they believed they could develop a career as robust as their male counterparts while sustaining active engagement in personal life. This perspective created a paradigm shift in organizations, which had previously precluded the family as a stakeholder. I have discussed the business environment from the 1960's to2006 by reviewing several well established business theories. Empirical data has been presented supporting my thesis, interspersed with collateral material in the form of anecdotes, which demonstrate the efforts of this new generation of working women to build a successful work/life balance model. Often, these women were motivated solely by their anger at a dysfunctional

system and resistant stakeholders, which compromised their success by seeing the world through a linear lens rather than as a dynamic reality. This thesis was written for women who participated in an experiment in change and, hopefully offers a cathartic evaluation of the inextricable link of work and family.

A study from the Netherlands by Anne-Rigt (2005) consistently found that the more hours the husband works, and the less hours the wife works (paid employment), the less likely they were to divorce. Low marital interaction time does not explain the destabilizing influence of a wife's working hours. Robert (2008) observed that four factors were associated with the doubling of the divorce rate between 1963 and 1974: A rise in women's wages, a rise in public assistance which apply for upward divorce trends throughout several decades, the aging of the postwar baby boom cohorts, and the increased availability of contraceptives (which are more specifically applicable to the decade from 1963 to 1974). Matthus, Paul, De Graaf, Anne-Rigt (2004) in Dutch scholars report that full-time working women have 29% higher odds of marital instability or divorce than nonworking women. On the opposite side, the more hours the husband works, the less likely a divorce. While employment was generally associated with a higher risk of marital relationship dissolution whether couples were married or cohabiting women who worked in a family business or who work in their homes were no more likely to experience marital relationship dissolution than women who did not work. Specifically, employment outside of a family setting weakened marriage (Karen & Jay (2003).

Booth, &Amato (2004) observed that compared to traditional marriages with stay at home mothers who assumed the expressed role of homemaker, nontraditional marriages emphasizing role-sharing and egalitarianism were more likely to end in divorce. Women who adhere to feminist ideology (participation in women's liberation groups, using one's maiden

name, voting for far-left political parties, etc.) have a 52 percent higher risk of divorce than do women with traditional values. Matthus, Paul, De Graaf, Anne-Rigt (2004).

Wives with more traditional sex-role attitudes were less likely to divorce. Laura & Constance (2000) assert that college-age couples who held traditional gender roles were much more likely to make enduring marriages than couples who subscribed to egalitarian precepts. Traditional women were more likely than other women to marry their college sweetheart and to stay married to him during the 15-year period of study. Forty-three percent of traditionalist women married their college boyfriend, and none of these marriages ended in divorce. In contrast, only 26 percent of egalitarian women married their boyfriend and half of these marriages ended in divorce(Letitia, Charles &Zick 2003).

Compared to their peers who finish college, men with lower levels of education face significantly greater odds of divorce (from 30 to 65 percent higher odds, depending on education level) while women with less education (especially those with "year 12 or less,") face lower odds of divorce. According to Belinda, Janeen, & Mark (2005), people with higher income and higher education levels are more likely to report reasons for divorce as incompatibility, growing apart, personality problems, and lack of communication. Individuals with less income and education are more likely to report drinking/drug use or physical and mental abuse as reasons for divorce (Paul & Denise (2003).

2.5 Empirical Studies

Various studies have been conducted on the influence of employment on marital relationship among couples.

A study by Omolayo, Falegan &Ajila, (2013) on the Influence of Job Demand and Employment Status on Marital Conflict and Marital Satisfaction among Women in Ekiti State, Nigeria The research participants in the study comprised of four hundred (400) married women which include one hundred (100) married women working in private sector, one hundred and twenty (120) married women working in public sector, one hundred (100) married women that are self-employed and eighty (80) unemployed married women. The participants were drawn from the three Senatorial districts in Ekiti State namely Ekiti Central, Ekiti North and Ekiti South. They were within the age range of 25 and 60 with a mean age of 43. The places of work of the employed married women are government ministries, parastatals and agencies, private organizations and establishments all in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The multi-stage random sampling technique was used. Ekiti state is divided into three (3) Senatorial districts namely Ekiti Central, Ekiti North and Ekiti South. One local government was selected from each senatorial district. The local governments selected are Ado local government (Ekiti Central), Ikole local government (Ekiti North) and Ikere local government (Ekiti South).

Purposive sampling technique was used to select the participants. Three research instruments were used to generate data from the participants namely Perceived Work Demand Scale, Marital Satisfaction Scale and Kansas Marital Conflict Scale. Data were analyzed with the use of 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), One-way Analysis of Variance and Pearson product moment correlation. Results shows that there is no significant influence of job demand on marital conflict, $F(1,393) = .112$, $p>.05$. The result also revealed that there is no significant influence of employment status on marital conflict, $F(1,393) = 2.06$, $p>.05$. This shows that both job demand and employment status does not have any influence on marital conflict. The study revealed that there is a significant influence of employment status on marital satisfaction,

F(2,399) = 7.93, p<.05. This in effect indicates that employment status is a determinant of marital satisfaction. Result also showed that there is no significant influence of job demand on marital satisfaction, F(2,399) = 3.36, p>.05. This means that job demand does not affect marital satisfaction. There is no significant influence of year of marriage on marital conflict, F(4,399) = 1.64, p>.05 and marital satisfaction, F(4,399) = 72, p>.05. This means length of marriage does not influence marital conflict. Lastly, that there was no significant relationship between marital conflict and marital satisfaction, r = -0.33, df = 398, p>.05.This shows that marital conflict and marital satisfaction does not have any correlation.

A study by Udedibie, (2012) on the Role of Couple Types, Marital Quality, and Job Status in Work-Family Conflict Among Married Mothers. One hundred and Ninety three (193) married women participated in this study. They comprised married women who are living with their husbands under the same roof and married women who are separated by distance such that their husbands stay away during the work days and come back only during weekends or vacations. The women in this study comprised both senior and junior staff members of Federal University of Technology Owerri. The ages of the participants ranged from 20 to 65 years with a mean age of 43.7 years. Two instruments were used for the study. Work-family conflict scale**:** Carlson, Kacmar& Williams' (2000). The design of the study was a cross-sectional survey with six groups (couple type: integrated vs. distant; marital quality: low vs high; job status: senior vs junior). A three way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with unequal sample size was used for data analysis (2 x 2 x 2). The results showed that there was a significant effect of couple type in work-family conflict F (1,185) = 26.87, p<0.001. The results also revealed a non-significant effect of marital quality in work-family conflict F (1,185) = 0.24, p>0.05. The results also that there was no significant effect of job status in work-family conflict of married mothers F (1,185) = 4.42, p>

0.05 In addition, there was a significant interaction effect of couple type and job-status effects in work-family conflict $F(1,185) = 1414.88$, $p<0.01$. Another result revealed that under integrated couples, the junior staff members had a mean score of ($M = 59.13$, $SD = 15.69$) whereas the senior staff members had a mean score of ($M= 51.90$, $SD = 13.58$). The results also revealed that under the distant couples, the senior staff members had a mean score ($M= 46.86$, $SD = 10.66$) and the junior staff members had a mean score of ($M = 35.19$, $SD =9.11$).

Another study was conducted by Ayodeji, Akinbode & Akinfala, (2013) titled Psycho-Physiological Outcomes of Work-Family And Family-Work Conflicts Among Career Women: An Empirical Appraisal of Human Service Organization in Nigeria**,** The participants for the study comprise 337 women sampled from different banks in Lagos state. The banks are situated in Yaba Local Government Area of Lagos state. Five instruments were employed to obtain a skilled measure of aspect of behaviour under investigation; Marital satisfaction was measured by ENRIC Marital Satisfaction Inventory, Work-family conflict was measured by the Work-Family-Conflict (WFC) Scale, Family satisfaction was measured by Index of Family Satisfaction Scale (IFS) developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951), Health symptoms were measured by Health Symptoms Checklist (HSC-Scale) developed and validated by Akinbode (2013)and an adapted version of stress symptoms checklist originally developed by Edmund J. Bourne (2009) was used to measure participants stress symptoms. Results indicated that reveals that there was a significant difference between married and single women in their work-family conflicts as experienced. From the above table the independent t-test comparison yielded t-value of 6.37 ($p<0.05$).

The result revealed that the hypothesis 2 which state that married participants will report higher family-work conflict compared to single participants is accepted. Thus, since marital

status differences in work-family conflict have been established, it is become more expedient for organizational practitioners to pay more attention to the plight of career women in our organizations. This is of utmost importance as we now have more women going into paid employment; there is a significant difference between married and single women in their family-work conflict. The independent t-test comparison of mean scores of family-work conflict shows insignificant t-value ($t = 7.34$, $p < 0.05$). Hence, the hypothesis that stated that married participants will report a higher level of work-family conflict compared to the single participants is therefore upheld. Thus, the result shows that there are marital status differences in the level family-work conflict among the career women under investigation. Among other things, the result revealed that married career women reported a higher level of family-work conflicts compared to their single counterpart indicating the acceptance of proposed assumption in hypothesis; that work-family conflict independently contribute significantly to the observed variance in family dissatisfaction (Beta = .340, $t = 3.37$, at $p<0.05$). This implies that work-family conflict accounted for about 34% of the observed variance in family dissatisfaction. Similarly, family-work conflict did not show significant contribution of about 28.6% to the observed variance in family satisfaction (Beta = .286, $t = 3.27$, at $p<0.05$).

However, the F-ratios associated with R^2 values (5.46 and .381) and (3.04 and 17.1) respectively shows a significant prediction of family dissatisfaction. The Result indicated that work-family conflict contributed more (38.1%) to the observed variance in family dissatisfaction, while family-work conflict only contributed a marginal 17.1% of the observed variance in family dissatisfaction. The results, however, supported the assumption envisaged in hypothesis; that work-family conflict independently contribute significantly to the observed variance in marital dissatisfaction (Beta = .443, $t = 4.25$, at $p<0.05$). This implies that about

44.3% of the observed variance in marital dissatisfaction is accounted for by work-family conflict. Similarly, family-work conflict independently contribute significantly to the observed variance in marital dissatisfaction (Beta = .254, t = 3.47, at $p<0.05$). It also follows that family-work conflict contributed about 19.8% of the observed variance in marital dissatisfaction among the career women under investigation. Therefore, hypothesis four which state that there will be a significant negative relationship between work-family conflict, family-work conflict and marital satisfaction is upheld; that work-family conflict partly contributed significantly to the observed variance in work stress (Beta = .226, t = 3.43, at $p<0.05$).

This is it accounted for about 22.6% of the observed variance in work stress is accounted for by work-family conflict. Similarly, family-work conflict independently contributes significantly to the observed variance in work stress (Beta = .174, t = 2.46, at $p<0.05$). It also follows that family-work conflict contributed about 17.4% of the observed variance in work stress. Hence, the assumption envisaged in hypothesis 5 there will be a significant positive relationship between work-family conflict, family-work conflict and work stress is accepted, work-family conflict accounted for about 37.6% of the observed variance in depressive symptoms in career women (Beta = .376, t = 4.66, at $p<0.05$). Similarly, family-work conflict independently contributed significantly to the observed variance in depressive symptoms (Beta = .194, t = 2.49, at $p<0.05$). The F-ratios and the associated R^2 values also clearly revealed that work-family conflict and family-work conflict accounted for about 23.9% and 15.9% of the observed variance in depressive symptoms among career women under reference. Hence, hypothesis 6 which state that there will be a significant positive relationship between work-family conflict, family-work conflict and depressive symptoms is accepted; and work-family conflict accounted for about 36.6% of the observed variance in health symptoms distress among

career women (Beta = .366, t = 6.58, at $p<0.05$). Likewise, family-work conflict accounted for about 21.4% of the observed variance in health symptoms distress among career women (Beta = .214, t = 2.14, at $p<0.05$). It also follows that family-work conflict contributed about 15.4% of the observed variance in marital satisfaction. Expectedly, work-family conflict and family-work conflict accounted about 45.8% and 27.7% of the observed variance in health symptoms distress (R^2 = .458 and .277; F-ratio = 33.3 and 24.2). Result indicated that the assumption suggested in hypothesis 7 that there will be a significant positive relationship between work-family conflict, family-work conflict and health symptoms distress is upheld.

A study conducted by Gholamreza (2003) to investigate the effects of woman's employment in integrity of the families. The research method in the study was survey. Population includes of 400 people of employees teachers from 25 to 49 years as a test group, sample size which were determined by using Cochran 100 of the similar housewives woman. Samples selection is down, using random sampling method in systematic way in employed group and stratified method appropriate to unemployed groups. The tools of data collection was questionnaire and its validity was using a content validity of face validity, using Cronbach's alpha coefficient (0/84) has been approved for data processing SPSS software and for data analyzing statistical analysis appropriate in level of variables measurement such as Pearson, Spearman, the mean comparison(t-test) and analysis of variance(ANOVA) was used. The results of the research showed that the integrity of family among housewives woman is higher than the employment groups. More results show that income has positive relationship with the integrity of family, the education have negative effects on family integrity.

Study by Tracy, Clare & Rosalind, (2003) on exploration of how mothers and their partners see the impact of the mothers' employment on their relationship, both as a couple and as parents. The study explores how parents understand the impact of the mother's employment on their relationship as a couple and as parents. It highlights the way different aspects of paid work affect family relationships. Method was drawing on interviews with 37 mothers working in a hospital and an accountancy firm, and with 30 fathers, Caring and counting: Considers the impact of workplace ethos and working practices on family relationships; Explores the extent and implications of the autonomy and control that mothers experience in the workplace; Illustrates the importance of whether or not mothers choose - or are constrained in - how work and family life interact; and draws on in-depth interviews with mothers and fathers to present both parents' perspectives.

The findings from the study highlight how stresses in family relationships could arise as much from the quality of time spent at work by the mothers as from the amount of time they spent at work. It was also found structural inequalities in the mothers' access to these practices most of those who were in lower status, lower paid jobs were not eligible to use them. The researchers recommended family-friendly workplace policies that may helped the mothers to modify their time schedules to balance the demands of work and family.

A study conducted by Lyn & Judith, (2014) to explored links between weekend work and leisure time shared with partners, children, other resident/nonresident family, and friends, using the Australian Bureau of Statistics Time Use Survey 2006. Drawing a sample of employed women (n = 3,903), they tested associations between weekend work and shared leisure time on the day of work and to see whether shared leisure time is made up on other days over the following week. Analyses were stratified by three family types: (a) couples without children, (b)

couples with children, and (c) singles without children. For all groups, weekend work was associated with significantly less shared leisure time on days worked. Some weekend workers (e.g., part-time employees, women) recouped some shared leisure time (notably with friends) over the following week, but most did not. Indeed, for some forms of shared leisure most importantly, with partners and children there were further negative associations on weekdays.

As women spend more hours in their paid workplace, both child care and household work hours decrease (Brines, 1993). Data was gathered from a sample of married African American and Caucasian Americans 18 years of age and older. Results indicated that as women's hours of paid work decreased, there was an increase in their performance of household tasks. Similar findings were collected by Kamo (1988), however, the relationship between income and spouses' effect on household work was explored instead of the hours spent in paid work. The sample was collected from the American Couple Survey performed in 1977 which was based on married couples in their 30s. The couples indicated the number of hours they performed certain activities and who was actively involved. Income was found to have an effect, as the more money the husband made the less he performed household activities. Wives were also found to make less money therefore predicting they do more of the household work (Kamo, 1988). When the wife worked full time hours, the income factor no longer had an effect on household hours. It is believed that it is not necessarily the income of the husband that affects his choice to perform household duties, but his willingness to make household duties an equal partnership (Kamo, 1988).

A study conducted by Anne-Right, (2005) to investigate how women work influence marriage. One hundred and fifteen (N=115) respondents were involved in the study. The findings revealed that divorce is significantly more likely to occur within ten years of marriage when a

couple during the first five years of marriage, reverses traditional sex roles with the husband working less than the wife and the wife working more than the husband. The more hours the husband works, and the less hours the wife works, the less likely they were to divorce. This held true even when taking into account when a husband earned less than other men and when a husband worked overtime.

A similar study from the Netherlands consistently found that the more hours the husband works, and the less hours the wife works [paid employment], the less likely they were to divorce. Low marital interaction time does not explain the destabilizing influence of a wife's working hours. Interview data from a national sample of 2,034 married persons are used to examine the effect of wives' outside employment on marital instability. In this study, marital instability is defined as including the gamut of activities from thinking about and discussing divorce to actually filing for either separation or divorce. A recursive structural equation model is used to test the extent to which the observed positive relationship between wife's employment and marital instability is mediated by wife's employment and marital instability of the marriage is eroded entails the wife's income level and some combination of spousal disagreement and low marital satisfaction.

Letitia, Charles, &Zick (2003) conducted a study on sex role attitudes in dating and marriage. Longitudinal method was adopted. The findings shown that college-age couples who held traditional gender roles were much more likely to make enduring marriages than couples who subscribed to egalitarian precepts. It was also revealed that traditional women were more likely than other women to marry their college sweetheart and to stay married to him during the 15-year period of study. The result from the study found that forty-three percent (43%) of traditionalist women married their college boyfriend, and none of these marriages ended in

divorce. In contrast, only 26 percent of egalitarian women married their boyfriend and half of these marriages ended in divorce. A study conducted by Paul and Denise (2003) on women's reason for marital problems and divorce: gender, social class, the life course and adjustment. The findings revealed that women with higher income and higher education levels are more likely to report reasons for divorce as incompatibility, growing apart, personality problems, and lack of communication. Individuals with less income and education are more likely to report drinking/drug use or physical and mental abuse as reasons for divorce.

A study conducted by John (2004) examined data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation and concluded that gender has a significant influence on the relationship between work hours and increases in the probability of marital problems. Women's work hours consistently increase marital problems, whereas increases in men's work hours often have no statistical effect. It was also find that the incidence in marital problem is far higher in couples where both spouses are working than in couples where only one spouse is employed, Johnson says. A few other studies, which have focused on employment (as opposed to working hours), have concluded that working outside the home actually increases marital stability, at least when the marriage is a happy one. But even in these studies, wives' employment does correlate positively to divorce rates, when the marriage is of low marital quality.

Lennon (1994) examined the effects of paid work on the psychological well-being of 300 employed women and 202 Homemakers. The sample did include 302 employed men, however, this information was not relevant and was not included in the analysis. Unlike the current study, Lennon (1994) measured constructs of Autonomy and Time Pressure separately. The present study identified a lack of autonomy for triple role women due to time constraints, however, autonomy was not declared a theme. For example, for the women in this study, grocery shopping

was restricted to certain days of the week, had to be accomplished between particular times of the day, and could only be for specific time lengths. The triple role women felt they could not leisurely shop for groceries, but would enjoy grocery shopping more, if they had the time. Routine was also measured by Lennon (1994), but the current study did not recognize routine as a specific theme, rather, it was embedded within *No End Results* as household work was considered continuous.

Nine hundred and ninety-two African American and Non-Hispanic Women participated in a study by Lombardi &Ulbrich (1997). Lombardi and Ulbrich identified Decision Latitude as an important construct. In their study, Decision Latitude was described as women having little control over the performance of household work and the lack of variation inherent in this work. Having control over household work activities was present in the current study, but was categorized under Time Constraints. The triple role women felt they did not have control over how much time or when household work activities could be performed. The construct Lennon (1994) examined the effects of paid work on the psychological well-being of 300 employed women and 202 Homemakers. The sample did include 302 employed men; however, this information was not relevant and was not included in the analysis. Unlike the current study,

Lennon (1994) measured constructs of Autonomy and Time Pressure separately. The present study identified a lack of autonomy for triple role women due to time constraints; however, autonomy was not declared a theme. For example, for the women in this study, grocery shopping was restricted to certain days of the week, had to be accomplished between particular times of the day, and could only be for specific time lengths. The triple role women felt they could not leisurely shop for groceries, but would enjoy grocery shopping more, if they had the time. Routine was also measured by Lennon (1994), but the current study did not recognize

routine as a specific theme, rather, it was embedded within No End Results as household work was considered continuous. The construct Psychological Demands was defined by Lombardi &Ulbrich (1997) as time to complete certain tasks and conflicts. The lack of time for activities and time constraints in general were included in the present study

under Psychological Strain. However, Psychological Strain also involved personal issues such as guilt(over leaving their children to go to work), self-blame, and stress from hectic schedules.

A similar study conducted by Stacy (2004) to examine dollars, dependency and divorce and role of wife income on marital relationship. Survey method was adopted for fifty six married couples. The result shows that each $1,000 increase in wives' actual income or each percentage point increase in wives' income as a percentage of total household income increases the annual odds of divorce by approximately 2.5 to 3 percent. It was also found that increases in husbands' income were associated with lower odds of divorce and married couples face the highest risk of divorce when the wife contributes 50-60 percent of overall earnings. Cohabiting couples face the reverse situation relationships are more stable when incomes are equal or the woman contributes more.

2.6 Summary

The chapter reviewed related literature to this study, the concept of employment to marital relationship and causes of marital conflict, correlation between employment and marital relationship, were discussed; two theories served as the theoretical framework for this study: The Adam's Social Exchange theory and Psychosocial Theory by Eric Erickson. Social exchange theory suggests that couple should weigh the benefits versus the costs of relationships. Social exchange theory proposes that social behavior is the result of an exchange process. The purpose of this exchange is to maximize benefits and minimize costs. According to this theory, people

weigh the potential benefits and risks of social relationships. When the risks outweigh the rewards, people will terminate or abandon that relationship. Costs involve things that are seen as negatives to the individual such as having to put money, time and effort into a relationship. The benefits are things that the individual gets out the relationship such as fun, friendship, companionship and social support.

Social exchange theory also suggests that couples essentially take the benefits and minus the costs in order to determine how much a relationship is worth. Positive relationships are those in which the benefits outweigh the costs, while negative relationships occur when the costs are greater than the benefits. They believe that individuals interact for profit or the expectation of it. Remember that behavioral psychology like operant conditioning and stimulus-response psychology, explains all behavior in terms of its reward seeking/punishment avoiding motivation. Out of a very basic desire to seek rewards and avoid punishments, individual organisms, subjects, units create sets of strategies that they believe will increase the odds in their favor. We learn what is rewarding by emitting an array of behaviors until one of them results in a positive reinforcement. Thus, throughout life, but beginning in infancy, we are trained (i.e., we learn, our behavior is modified) so that our behavior and thought processes are consistent with the goals of the persons doing the socializing. The fact that those socialization agents are working for the State (i.e., the society, the culture, the larger set of values) brings the psychology of this developmental theory into the social world. One of the main elements of Erikson's psychosocial stage theory is the development of ego identity**.** Ego identity is the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction.

According to Erikson (1992) our ego identity is constantly changing due to new experiences and information we acquire in our daily interactions with others. When psychologists talk about identity, they are referring to all of the beliefs, ideals, and values that help shape and guide a person's behavior. The formation of identity is something that begins in childhood and becomes particularly important during adolescence, but it is a process that continues throughout life. Our personal identity gives each of us an integrated and cohesive sense of self that endures and continues to grow as we age.

In addition to ego identity, Erikson also believed that a sense of competence motivates behaviors and actions. Each stage in Erikson's theory is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which is sometimes referred to as ego strength **or** ego quality**.** If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy.

In each stage, Erikson believed people experience a conflict that serves as a turning point in development. In Erikson's view, these conflicts are centered on either developing a psychological quality or failing to develop that quality. During these times, the potential for personal growth is high, but also, the potential for failure. Erickson is known for his work in developmental psychology. He coined the term identity crisis and described the human life cycle as comprising eight stages.

The implications to counseling practice were fully explained; review of related empirical studies was also highlighted. None of the studies reviewed in literature attempted to study a combination of academic, non-academic and non-staff working married women, this study filled that gap. This was indicated in the findings and discussions of the study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology adopted for this research. It was discussed under the following sub-headings: research design, population of the study, sample and sampling techniques, instrumentation, validation, pilot testing, reliability of the instrument, procedure for data collection, and procedure for data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

Descriptive survey design was adopted in this study. The reason for this design is that it allowed the researcher to collect primary data on certain characteristics from the population who are located at various places in the study areas. The finding from descriptive survey design was used to generalize the research results on the target population.

3.3 Population of the Study

The population of the study consisted of the entire married female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. While, the target population comprises of married female employees in the Faculty of Education, Arts, Sciences and Social Sciences. They are two hundred and forty-four altogether (244) as shown on Table 3.1

Table 3.1 Showing Population of the Study

S/N	Faculty	Academic Staff	Non-Academic Staff	Non-Staff	Total
1.	Arts	18	26	7	51
2	Education	35	21	9	65
3.	Science	35	42	12	89
4.	Social Science	21	10	8	39
	Total	108	97	36	240

Source: Faculties Dean's Office, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria (2015).

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

The target population of the study comprises female employees in four Faculties (Edu, Arts, etc) in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. However, the figure is put at 244 out of which 240 respondents returned their questionnaire and they were all part of the study. The procedure involved simple random and purposive methods. Simple random method was used to draw four Faculties used in the study from the entire (12) faculties in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, while purposive method was used to select all the entire female employees who are not much in number than necessary to make a representative sample size..

3.5 Instrumentation

The instrument used for this study was questionnaire titled "Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship Questionnaire (IEMRQ). The instrument was personally designed by the researcher. The instrument therefore, consists of two parts; that is; part A and part B. the part A of the instrument contains the demographic data of the respondents, while the part B, contains 20 items which measure the influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees.

The respondents were to express their opinion using four point likert type scale of Strongly Agree – SA; Agree – A; Disagree – D; and Strongly Disagree – SD. The scores were given as thus: Strongly Agree – 4; Agree – 3; Disagree – 2; and Strongly Disagree – 1. The average mean score was 2.5 for the instrument.

3.5.1 Validity of the Instrument

The instrument was given to 6 lecturers in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling, Faculty of Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria for validation. The observations and suggestions of the experts such as mistakes on grammatical expressions and

corrections on faulty items on the questionnaire use affected by the researcher. Their inputs were what make the instrument to be valid.

3.5.2 Pilot Testing

A pilot testing was carried out in two departments of the Faculty of Environmental Design, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. 20married female respondents consisting of 10 academic and 5 non-academic staff and 5 non-staff in the Department of Fine Art. The 20respondents did not form part of the study any longer. The respondents were requested to indicate their response to each of the items by ticking one of the alternative responses. The researcher distributed the questionnaires after obtaining permission from head of department. The respondents were given two days to fill the questionnaire.

3.5.3 Reliability of the Instrument

For the purpose of reliability, the researcher makes use of Person Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) in order to establish whether the instrument is reliable or not. Test-retest method of administration was adopted within two (2) weeks interval. The instrument was administered to (20) academic, non-academic, staff and non-staff female were employees altogether for the first time scored and recorded. The same instrument was re-administered within two weeks interval to the same set of respondents and the 2 scores obtained were PPMC. After correlating the two scores the reliability index of .79 was obtained which justifies the instrument to be reliable.

3.6 Procedures for Data Collection

The researcher collected a letter of introduction from the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling to the faculties under study. Permission was sought to administer the instrument for data collection, and responses were collected. Assistance of the faculty

officers was sought to get the staff. The researcher strictly complied with ethics of research as there will be no coercion. The right of the respondents to privacy was respected and every respondent remained anonymous.

3.7 Procedure for Data Analysis

The demographic variables of the respondents were presented using the frequencies and percentages. Any percentage agreed item with 50% and above was considered to be of significant influence while any item below or less than 50% was considered not significant influence. The percentage was computed for the calculated Strongly Agree (SA=4), Agree (A=3), Disagree (D=2), Strongly Disagree (SD=1) statements:

The null hypotheses were tested using t-test and Analysis of Variance at 0.05 level of significance. This is because, they are the most suitable inferential statistical tools which can determine whether significant influences between variables exist or not.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

In this study, data were collected from two-hundred and forty (240) respondents and the data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Six research questions are answered, while five null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level. This chapter, thus, presents the results of the study and discussion of findings.

4.2 Data Presentation

The respondents' demographic data covers nature of employment, length of marriage, faculty type, number of children and cadre in service.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Demographic Characteristics of Participants

N	Category		Frequency	Percentage %
1	Nature of Employment	Academics	108	45.0
		Non-academics	97	40.4
		Non-staff	35	14.6
		Total	**240**	**100.0**
2	Length of Marriage	0-5 years	36	15.0
		6-10 years	59	24.6
		11 years & above	145	60.4
		Total	**240**	**100.0**
3	Faculty	Education	89	37.1
		Sciences	64	26.7
		Social Sciences	36	15.0
		Arts	51	21.3
		Total	**240**	**100.0**
4	Number of Children	No child	9	3.8
		1-3 children	66	27.5
		4-6 children	139	57.9
		7 children & above	26	10.8
		Total	**240**	**100**
5	Cadre	Junior	93	38.8
		Senior	147	61.3
		Total	**240**	**100.0**

Table 4.1 shows that out of the 240 respondents who participated in the study, 108 (45.0%) are academics staff, 97 (40.4%) are non-academics, while 35 (14.6%) are non-staff of

the University. With respect to length of marriage, 36 (15.0%) were between 0-5 years in marriage, 59 (24.6%) were between 6-10 years, while 145 (60.4%) of the respondents were between 11 years and above. Based on faculty, 89 (37.1%) of the participants were from Faculty of Education, 64 (26.7%) were from Sciences, 36 (15.0%) were from Social sciences, while 51 (21.3%) were from Faculty of Arts. Among the respondents, 9 (3.8%) had no child, 66 (27.5%) have between 1-3 children, 139 (57.9%) have between 4-6 children, while 26 (10.8%) were with 7 children and above. On the basis of Cadre, 93 (38.8%) of the participants were Junior staff, while 147 (61.3%) were Senior staff of the University.

4.3: Answers to Research Questions

Research Question 1: What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria?

Table 4.2: Mean, Standard Deviation and Rank Order of Employment Influence on Marital Relationship

N/S	My employment has caused the following in my marital relationship:	Mean	SD	Rank
4	Misunderstanding between me and my husband	3.51	0.77	1st
5	Inability to take proper care of my children	3.43	0.80	2nd
18	Reduction in sexual relationship with my spouse as a result of frequent tiredness	3.24	0.78	3rd
17	Ineffective communication with my spouse	3.23	0.72	4th
8	Feeling depressed as a result of non-supportive attitude of my husband	3.20	0.84	5th
12	Sharing household chores with my spouse	3.17	0.84	6th
1	Using of drugs/alcohol to cope with both home and work pressure	3.15	0.79	7th
3	Incognizance of my husband's needs	3.09	0.77	8th
13	Reduction in the level of interaction with my children	3.08	0.84	9th
10	Reduction in my husband level of marital commitment	3.08	0.73	9th
15	Inability to attend to family/relatives issues	2.93	0.91	11th
16	Increase my level of spending at home	2.91	0.89	12th
6	Reduction in the level of trust my husband has towards me	2.90	1.01	13th
2	Reduction in level of respect I have for my husband	2.90	0.72	13th
9	Being irritable to my husband	2.74	0.83	15th
11	Reduce level of intimate conversation with my spouse	2.55	1.04	16th
19	Reduction in level of affection expressed towards my	2.55	0.92	16th

	husband			
14	Reduction in leisure time spent with my family	2.45	1.05	18th
20	Persistent quarrelling with my spouse	2.31	0.98	19th
7	Feeling of loneliness without my spouse	2.28	1.04	20th

Table 4.2 shows that 17 out of the 20 items on influence of employment on marital relationship have mean scores that are above the average mean value of 2.50 (benchmark for identifying significant items). This means that the 17 items are indicative of the employment influence on marital relationship. However, items 4 (with mean value of 3.51 and SD value of 0.77), 5 (with mean value of 3.43 and SD value of 0.80) and 18 (with mean value of 3.24 and SD value of 0.78) took precedence over others and were ranked 1st, 2nd and 3rd respectively. The items indicated "misunderstanding between me and my husband", "inability to take proper care of my children" and "reduction in sexual relationship with my spouse as a result of frequent tiredness". On the other hand, items 14 (with mean value of 2.45 and SD value of 1.05), 20 (with mean value of 2.31 and SD value of 0.98) and 7 (with mean value of 2.28 and SD value of 1.04) were three least ranked items and were ranked 18th, 19th and 20th respectively. This indicated that the three least ranked items were less significant to influence of employment on marital relationship. It therefore be concluded that employment of female employees has influenced their marital relationship by frequent misunderstanding with spouses, inability to take proper care of their children and reduction in sexual relationship with spouse as a result of frequent tiredness.

Research Question 2: What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on nature of employment?

Table 4.3: Mean and SD Showing Difference in Respondents' Responses on Employment Influence on Marital Relationship based on Nature of Employment

Nature of Employment	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
Academics	108	58.56	6.79
Non-academics	97	59.31	8.29
Non-staff	35	57.60	5.89

Table 4.3 shows the mean scores and standard deviation values of difference in respondents' responses to employment influence on marital relationship based on nature of employment. The table shows that there is slight difference between the mean values of

academics staff (with 58.56) and non-academics staff (59.31). The difference is not significant because the mean difference is 0.75 which is less than 1. However, their mean values, that is, academics and non-academics staffs are higher than that of non-staff (with mean value of 57.60). The higher the means, the more the influence, therefore, employment has more influence on academics and non-academics staff marital relationship.

Research Question 3: What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on length of marriage?

Table 4.4: Mean and SD Showing Difference in Respondents' Responses on Employment Influence on Marital Relationship based on Length of Marriage?

Length of Marriage	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
0-5 years	36	58.25	8.10
6-10 years	59	59.36	5.83
11-15 years	145	58.58	7.68

Table 4.4 shows the mean scores and standard deviation values of difference in respondents' responses to employment influence on marital relationship based on length of marriage. The table shows that there is slight difference between the mean values of female employee with the age range of 6-10 (59.36) and 11-15 (58.58). The difference is not significant because the mean difference is 0.78 which is less than 1. However, their mean values, that is, respondents with 6-10 and 11-15 ages are higher than the mean value (58.25) of respondents between 0-5 years of age. The higher the means, the more the influence, therefore, employment has more influence on marital relationship of female employees within 6-10 years age range.

Research Question 4: What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on faculty type?

Table 4.5: Mean and SD Showing Difference in Respondents' Responses on Employment Influence on Marital Relationship based on Faculty Type

Faculty Type	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
Education	89	58.93	6.89
Sciences	64	58.25	8.32

Social Sciences	36	59.67	6.44
Arts	51	58.27	7.41

Table 4.5 shows the mean scores and standard deviation values of difference in respondents' responses to employment influence on marital relationship based on faculty type. The table shows that there is slight difference between the mean values of female employee from Faculty of Education (58.93), Faculty of Sciences (58.25) and Faculty of Arts (58.27). The difference is not significant because the mean difference is 0.78 which is less than 1. However, the mean value of 59.67 of respondents from Social Sciences is higher than the mean values of that of other faculties. The higher the means, the more the influence, therefore, employment has more influence on marital relationship of female employees from Faculty of Social Sciences.

Research Question 5: What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on number of children

Table 4.6: Mean and SD Showing Difference in Respondents' Responses on Employment Influence on Marital Relationship based on Number of Children

Number of Children	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
No child	9	52.56	14.51
1-3 children	66	57.77	7.24
4-6 children	139	59.33	6.81
7 children & above	26	60.00	5.68

Table 4.6 shows the mean scores and standard deviation values of difference in respondents' responses to employment influence on marital relationship based on number of children. The table shows that there is significant difference among the mean values of female employees in the first three categories of number of children. That is, respondents with no child (52.56), those with between 1-3 children (57.77) and participant who have between 4-6 children (59.33). While those with 7 children and above has the highest mean value of 60.00 but however,

slightly different from 59.33 mean value of respondents with children between 4-6. The higher the means, the more the influence, therefore, employment has more influence on marital relationship of female employees with 4 to 7 children and above.

Research Question 6: What is the influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on cadre?

Table 4.7: Mean and SD Showing Difference in Respondents' Responses on Employment Influence on Marital Relationship based on Cadre

Cadre	N	Mean	SD
Junior	93	58.38	7.66
Senior	147	58.94	7.11

Table 4.7 shows the mean scores and standard deviation values of difference in respondents' responses to employment influence on marital relationship based on cadre. The table shows that there is slight difference between the mean values of junior (58.38) and senior (58.94) female employees. The difference is not significant because the mean difference is 0.56 which is less than 1. The higher the means, the more the influence, therefore, employment has exerted the same level of influence on marital relationship of both the junior and the senior female employees.

4.4: Hypotheses Testing

Five hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance, using t-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistics.

H_{O1}: There is no significant influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on nature of employment.

Table 4.8: ANOVA Showing Difference in Respondents' Responses to the Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship Based on Nature of Employment

Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	Cal. F	Crit. F	p-value
Between groups	80.508	2	40.254			
				0.75	3.00	0.47
Within groups	12725.788	237	53.695			
Total	12806.296	239				

Table 4.8 shows that under the degrees of freedom (df) of 2/237, the calculated F-value of 0.75 is less than the critical F-value of 3.00, with a corresponding p-value of 0.47 which is greater than the significant value of 0.05. This indicates that no significant difference exists in the influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on nature of employment; hence, the hypothesis is retained. Therefore, respondents' nature of employment has no significant influence on their responses to the influence of employment on their marital relationship.

H_{O2}: There is no significant influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on length of marriage.

Table 4.9: ANOVA Showing Difference in Respondents' Responses to the Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship Based on Length of Marriage

Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	Cal. F	Crit. F	p-value
Between groups	34.682	2	17.341			
				0.32	3.00	0.72
Within groups	12771.613	237	53.889			
Total	12806.296	239				

Table 4.9 shows that under the degrees of freedom (df) of 2/237, the calculated F-value of 0.32 is less than the critical F-value of 3.00, with a corresponding p-value of 0.72 which is greater than the significant value of 0.05. This indicates that no significant difference exists in the influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on length of marriage; hence, the hypothesis is retained. Therefore,

respondents' length of marriage has no influence on their responses to the influence of employment of their marital relationship.

H_{O3}: There is no significant influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on faculty type.

Table 5.0: ANOVA Showing Difference in Respondents' Responses to the Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship Based on Faculty Type

Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	Cal. F	Crit. F	p-value
Between groups	60.543	3	20.181			
				0.37	2.60	0.77
Within groups	12745.752	236	54.007			
Total	12806.296	239				

Table 5.0 shows that under the degrees of freedom (df) of 3/236, the calculated F-value of 0.37 is less than the critical F-value of 2.60, with a corresponding p-value of 0.77 which is greater than the significant value of 0.05. This indicates that no significant difference exists in the influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on faculty type; hence, the hypothesis is retained. Therefore, difference in the respondents' faculty has no influence on their responses to the influence of employment of their marital relationship.

H_{O4}: There is no significant influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on number of children.

Table 5.1: ANOVA Showing Difference in Respondents' Responses to the Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship Based on Number of Children

Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	Cal. F	Crit. F	p-value
Between groups	495.706	3	165.235			
				3.16*	2.60	0..02
Within groups	12310.590	236	52.164			
Total	12806.296	239				

* Sig. at $p < 0.05$

Table 5.1 shows that under the degrees of freedom (df) of 3/236, the calculated F-value of 3.16 is greater than the critical F-value of 2.60, with a corresponding p-value of 0.02 which is

less than the significant value of 0.05. This indicates that a significant difference exists in the influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on number of children; hence, the hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, respondents' number of children has influence on their responses to the influence of employment of their marital relationship. A Scheffe Post-hoc test is thus carried out to reveal which of the sub-variables of number of children contribute to the difference observed in table 5.1.

Table 5.2: Scheffe Post-hoc multiple Comparison Test of Respondents' Responses to the Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship Based on Number of Children

Number of Children	N	Sub-set for alpha=0.05	
No child	9	52.56	2
1-3 children	66	57.77	
4-6 children	136		59.33
7 children & above	26		60.00

Table 5.2 shows that mean values of group 1 (52.56 and 57.77) significantly different from each other, while mean values of group 2 (59.33 and 60.00) slightly different from each other as their mean difference is less than 1. However, the mean values of group 2 are significantly different from group 1 mean values. This means that those respondents with 4-6 and 7 children and above contributed more to the difference observed in their responses. Therefore, employment has more influence on female employees with 4 to 7 children and above.

H_{O5}: There is no significant influence of employment on marital relationship among female employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on cadre.

Table 5.3: t-test Results Showing Difference in Respondents' Responses to the Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship Based on Cadre

Cadre	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**df**	**Cal.t**	**Crit.t**	**p-value**
Junior	93	8.38	7.66				
				238	0.57	1.96	0.56

Senior	147	58.94	7.11

Table 5.3 shows that under the degree of freedom (df) of 238, the calculated t-value of 0.57 is less than the critical t-value of 1.96, with a corresponding p-value of 0.56 which is greater than the significant value of 0.05. This indicates that no significant difference exists in the influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on cadre; hence, the hypothesis is retained. Therefore, difference in the respondents' cadre has no influence on their responses to the influence of employment of their marital relationship.

4.5 Summary of Major Findings

The following summary are drawn from the findings of the study:

1. The findings of the study revealed that employment of female employees has influence on their marital relationship such as having misunderstanding with spouses, inability to take proper care of the children and reduction in sexual relationship with spouses as a result of tiredness.
2. There was no significant influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on nature of employment ($F = 0.75$; $p = 0.47$).
3. There was no significant influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on length of marriage ($F = 0.32$; $p = 0.72$).
4. There was no significant influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on faculty type ($F = 0.37$; $p = 0.77$).

5. There was a significant influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on number of children ($F = 3.16$; $p = 0.12$).
6. There was no significant influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on cadre ($t = 0.57$; $p = 0.56$).

4.6: Discussions

The findings of the study revealed that employment of female employees has influenced their marital relationship by having misunderstanding with spouses, inability to take proper care of their children and reduction in sexual relationship with spouses as a result of frequent tiredness. This implies that when females are employed, misunderstanding is bound to occur between the couple, most especially, in a relationship where the woman is the financial backbone of the family. Misunderstanding may occur on different marital related issues such lateness to return home from work, excessive home financial demands, keeping assets from husbands among other issues. This might lead the couple to develop mistrust against each other and continue disputing on several issues. This finding corroborates the view of Djauro (2016) noting that part of the problems that becomes a stumbling block to a successful marriage life is when the marriage was not concluded base on mutual understanding of both parties in regards to different marital issues.

The study also revealed that an employed woman found it difficult to take proper care of the children. This might have resulted from the fact that they have to resume work by 8:00 am in the morning and return home by 4:00 pm depending of the office demands. This is the time when the children might have been in extra moral or Arabic classes. Motherhood confers upon a woman the responsibility of raising a child. The working class married women are not working

for personal benefit, but also for the betterment of the family, that is, they engage themselves in employment for the purpose of providing for financial needs of children, at the expense of other psychological needs of these children. In addition, raising children is a time consuming activity and child-care and working are the two major commitments of parents. Combining work and parenting can interfere with a working women's ability to dedicate sufficient time to their family. Similarly, bearing or raising children can interfere with an individual's ability to fulfil their commitments to work or develop their career as desired. Similar finding was revealed by Zahara (2015) which indicated that 8% of the respondents spend 6 hours or more a day to take care of their children; 12% spend 5 hours; 34% reported to spend 4 hours whereas 46% spend 2 – 3 hours. This study shows that women face problem in balancing their child caring and productive roles. They spend most hours in business than caring for their children.

Reduction in sexual relationship can also result from employment of female employees. Persistent tiredness may lead an individual to lack interest in sexual intercourse, which is more likely to generate issue between the couple. This is because one of the importance of marriage is sexual intercourse in order to satisfy one's sexual gratification and for the purpose of procreation, most especially, in African context where children are much more cherished in marriage relationship. The findings of Carlson, Miller, Sassler and Hanson (2015) revealed similar findings where it was found that there was no significant differences in sexual frequency and satisfaction among conventional or egalitarian couples. The finding noted that couples where the male partner does the majority of the housework, have less frequent and lower quality sexual relationships than their counterparts.

The first hypothesis tested revealed that there was no significant influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on nature

of employment (F = 0.75; p = 0.47). This implies that nature of employment of female employees has no significant influence on responses to the influence of employment on their marital relationship. This might be because University environment is a place where laziness is not allowed and every individuals regardless of their social status must perform their duties and responsibilities for the general growth and development of the institution and achievement of its academic goals.

The second hypothesis showed that there was no significant influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on length of marriage (F = 0.32; p = 0.72). This means that the number of years the female employees have spent in their marriage has no influence on their responses to influence of employment on marital relationship. Whether one has spent large number of years in marriage or those who are just engaging in marital relationship, employment can pose a number of challenges to their marital relationship. This finding is surprising because it is believed that those with more number of years should have developed effective coping strategies that they can adopt in adjusting to the employment situation. The reason might be that the female employees perceived the challenges of working environment in the same manner. This finding is disagree with the study of Sulyman (2017) which showed significant difference in marital challenges of civil servants in Kwara State based on length of years in marriage.

Hypothesis three also indicated that there was no significant influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on faculty type (F = 0.37; p = 0.77). This implies that difference in respondents' faculty has no influence on their responses to influence of employment on marital relationship. This indicated that staff in all faculties (Educ., Arts) experienced the same level of influence which employment exerts on their

marital relationship. The reason might be that University environment is such that is stressful, not only for students, but also for the staff who are working towards achieving the institution aims and objectives.

The fourth hypothesis showed that there was a significant influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on number of children ($F = 3.16$; $p = 0.12$). This means that the number of children the respondents have possessed has influence on respondents' responses to influence of employment on marital relationship. The Scheffe Post-hoc test performed revealed that female employees with 4-6 and 7 children and above contributed more to the difference observed. Therefore, employment has more influence on female employees with 4 to 7 children and above. This is because it may take time and greater financial demands in taking care of large number of children than those with less children; hence, the higher the children, the greater the influence of employment of female employees' marital relationship. The finding of this study corroborates that of Reddy, Vranda, Ahmed, Nirmala and Siddaramu (2010) which revealed that family size have significant influence on work-life balance of married women in India.

Finally, the fifth hypothesis showed that there was no significant influence of employment on marital relationship of female employees in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on cadre ($t = 0.57$; $p = 0.56$). This means that cadre in which an individual falls has no influence on respondents' responses to influence of employment on marital relationship. The implication of this finding is that work position of female employees in the University is not a predictive of level of problems in marriage relationship. This is because every type job or work position can pose threat on marriage relationship. This finding of this study is in harmony with

that of Sulyman (2017) which found no significant difference in the marital challenges of female civil servants in Kwara State based on cadre.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the Summary of the entire study, deduced some basic Conclusions and offer recommendations as well as suggestions for further studies

5.2 Summary

The study aims at investigating the Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship among Female Employees of Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Nigeria, and to achieve this main aim, the study was structured into five chapters which this section tries to bring out the main parts.

The first chapter presented the general background which showed that there are increased economic challenges facing couples, a woman whose traditional role was to take care of the house now has to go to work in order to assist the family. This situation is not peculiar to Nigeria as a nation or even the developing countries, but even developed nations. The statement of problems dwells on the fact that In Nigeria and the rest of African, a woman does all household chores such as cooking, taking care of the children and keeping the house tidy. In some cases, the husband close earlier than the wife from the office but the wife has to do the cooking, however late she comes' back home. The essence of the mother out of the house throughout the day when she is at work leaves the children at the mercy of the house helps for those who could afford it. There are instances where the children are subjected to so many forms of maltreatment by the house helps; some go to the extent of initiating the children into secret cult activities, among several problems of the working women. The study was structured into six research objectives; six research questions were answered as well as five research hypotheses were tested. The study would be significant and beneficial to marital counsellors and psychologist by providing

necessary theoretical knowledge, counselling techniques in order to help rebuild broken marital affairs and give new opportunities for working couples to explore high level of understanding that women's roles in the work force have increased and women's positions in the household have not changed greatly and the findings of this study would be of significance benefits to couples because it will create awareness for working couples to have clear understanding on reasons why women decided to become employed, barriers they need to faced, benefits connected with being employed.

The second chapter presented the review of related literature under basic headings such as organizations formed by Women for Rights, Women in the Workforce: History Concept of Employment Barriers to Equal Participation Discrimination within occupations, Network Discrimination, Actions and Inactions of Women Themselves, Effects on the Middle and Upper Classes, Laws Protecting Women's Rights as Workers Causes of Conflict in Marital Relationship Correlation between Employment and Marital Relationship, Psychosocial Stage 1: Trust vs. Mistrust and empirical studies

Chapter three was the presentation of the methodology adopted for this research. It was discussed under the following sub-headings: research design, population of the study, sample and sampling techniques, instrumentation, validity of the instrument, pilot testing, reliability of the instrument, procedure for data collection, and procedure for data analysis. The study adopted the survey descriptive design; the population for the study was 244 married female workers from four faculties: Arts, Education, Science and the Social Sciences of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria which consisted of 109 married female academic staff, 99 non-academic married female staff and 36 non-staff while the sample size was also 240. The instrument for the study includes

the Influence of Employment on Marital Relationship Questionnaire (IEMRQ) personally designed by the researcher.

Chapter four was the analysis of the data collected from the 240 respondents that duly responded to the instrument, among several others it was established that employment has influence on marital relationship among married female employees; no significant influence exist on influence of employment on marital relationship based on nature of employment, length of marriage, faculty, and cadre on job of the respondents. Also there was no significance influence of employment on marital relationship among married female employees based on number of children born.

5.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings in this study, it was concluded that:

1. Employment has influence on the marital relationship among female married employees.
2. No significant influence exist on influence of employments on marital, relationship based on nature of employment, length of marriage, faculty and cadre on job of the respondents.
3. There is significance influence of employments on marital relationship among married female employees based on member of children born.

5.4 Contribution to Knowledge

The following are the contributions of this study to knowledge

1. There is no significant influence of employments on marital relationship among female married employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on nature of employments.

2. There is no significant influence of employments on marital relationship among female married employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on length of marriage of employments.
3. There is no significant influence of employments on marital relationship among female married employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on faculty type of employments.
4. There is a significant influence of employments on marital relationship among female married employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on number of children.
5. There is no significant influence of employments on marital relationship among female married employees of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria based on cadre.

5.5 Recommendations

In line with the findings, the following recommendations are hereby put forward that will improve the marital relationships and children well-being of women in employment:

1 The counsellors should organize regular seminar and workshops for women in employment in how to maintain good marital relationships, children wellbeing and effective communication.

2. Women in employment should be assisted to strike a balance between their marital duties and their employment demand.

3. Women who recently got marry should be counselled on how to be patient and tolerant of each other and learn from those who have been married for long, in order to improve their marital relationships.

4. The various government and organizations should give the non-employed women full employment so that their well-being can be enhanced.

5. The seminars and workshops organized for the couples should be emphasized on marital communication.

6. Couples with more children should be particularly catered for.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

This study is by no means exhaustive; therefore it is strongly recommended that similar studies be carried out on the effect of social, economic factors on the productivity of women in employment in tertiary institutions.

1. Studies could be undertaken to compare women in other tertiary institutions
2. Another study could be undertaken in other states to find out the influence of environmental and cultural factors.

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APPENDIX A

AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND COUNSELING

INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYMENT ON MARITAL RELATIONSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (IEMRQ)

This questionnaire is divided into two parts. These are section A and section B. the section A consists of demographic data of the respondents and section B consists of 20 items on influence of employment on marital relationship.

Section A:

Demographic Data

Please, kindly respond to each of the items below by simply put a tick (√) to indicate the most applicable option to you among the alternatives provided. The respondent must know that there is no right or wrong answer as every information sincerely provided is useful for this study. Confidentially is hereby guaranteed.

1. Nature of employments: Academic ( ); Non-academic ( ); Non-staff ( )
2. Length of marriage: 0-5Years ( ), 6-10Years ( ) 11 years and above ( )
3. Faculty: Education ( ); Science ( ); social Sciences ( ); Arts ( )
4. Number of children: No child ( ); 1-3 ( ); 4-6 ( ); 7 and above ( )
5. Cadre at work: Junior ( ); Senior ( )

Section B:

The section B contains two pertinent items on influence of employment on marital relationship. The respondents are to use the following scoring format to indicate their responses on this section; Strongly Agree – SA, Agree – A, Disagree – D and Strongly Disagree – SD.

S/N	My employments has caused the following in my marital relationship:	SA	A	D	SD
1	Using drug/alcohol to cope with both the home and work pressure				
2	Reduction in the level of respect I have for my spouse				
3	Incognizance of my spouse needs.				
4	Misunderstanding between me and my spouse.				
5	Inability to take proper care of our child(ren).				
6	Reduction in the level of trust my husband has towards me.				
7	Feeling of loneliness without my spouse.				
8	Feeling of depression as a result of non-supportive attitude of my husband.				
9	Being irritable to my spouse.				
10	Reduction in my husband level of marital commitment.				
11	Reduce level of intimate conversation with my spouse.				
12	Sharing household chores with my spouse.				
13	Reduction in the level of interaction with my child(ren).				
14	Reduction in leisure time spent with my family.				
15	Inability to attend to family/relatives issues.				
16	Increase my level of spending at home.				
17	Ineffective communication with my spouse.				
18	Reduction in sexual relationship with spouse.				
19	Reduction in the level of affection expressed towards my spouse.				
20	Persistent quarreling with my spouse.				

APPENDIX B

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=Class of service LOM Faculty NOCH Cadre /STATISTICS=STDDEV MEAN/ORDER=ANALYSIS.

Frequencies

[DataSet0]

Frequency Table

COS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Academics	108	45.0	45.0	45.0
	Non-academics	97	40.4	40.4	85.4
	Non-staff	35	14.6	14.6	100.0
	Total	240	100.0	100.0	

LOM

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	-5	36	15.0	15.0	15.0
	-10	59	24.6	24.6	39.6
	1-15	145	60.4	60.4	100.0
	otal	240	100.0	100.0	

Faculty

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Education	89	37.1	37.1	37.1
	Sciences	64	26.7	26.7	63.8
	Social Sciences	36	15.0	15.0	78.8
	Arts	51	21.3	21.3	100.0
	Total	240	100.0	100.0	

NOCH

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No child	9	3.8	3.8	3.8

	1-3	66	27.5	27.5	31.3
	4-6	139	57.9	57.9	89.2
	7 & above	26	10.8	10.8	100.0
	Total	240	100.0	100.0	

Cadre

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	unior	93	38.8	38.8	38.8
alid	enior	147	61.3	61.3	100.0
	otal	240	100.0	100.0	

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=X1 X2 X3 X4 X5 X6 X7 X8 X9 X10 X11 X12 X13 X14 X15 X16 X17 X18 X19 X20 /STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV/SORT=MEAN (D).

Descriptive

[DataSet0]

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
X4	240	3.51	.771
X5	240	3.43	.800
X18	240	3.24	.780
X17	240	3.23	.723
X8	240	3.20	.848
X12	240	3.17	.843
X1	240	3.15	.799
X3	240	3.09	.776
X13	240	3.08	.844
X10	240	3.08	.736
X15	240	2.93	.912
X16	240	2.91	.894
X6	240	2.90	1.018
X2	240	2.90	.725

X9	2 40	2. 74	.833
X11	2 40	2. 55	1.046
X19	2 40	2. 55	.927
X14	2 40	2. 45	1.054
X20	2 40	2. 31	.980
X7	2 40	2. 28	1.040
Valid N (listwise)	2 40		

ONEWAY XXX BY Class of service /MISSING ANALYSIS /POSTHOC=SCHEFFE ALPHA(0.05).

Oneway [DataSet0]

ANOVA

XXX

	Sum of Squares	D f	Mean Square	F	S ig.
Between Groups	80.508	2	40.25 4	.7 50	. 474
Within Groups	12725. 788	2 37	53.69 5		
Total	12806. 296	2 39			

ONEWAY XXX BY LOM/MISSING ANALYSIS/POSTHOC=SCHEFFE ALPHA(0.05).

Oneway [DataSet0]

ANOVA

XXX

	Sum of Squares	D f	Mean Square	F	S ig.
Between Groups	34.682	2	17.34 1	.3 22	. 725
Within Groups	12771. 613	2 37	53.88 9		
Total	12806. 296	2 39			

ONEWAY XXX BY Faculty /MISSING ANALYSIS /POSTHOC=SCHEFFE ALPHA(0.05).

Oneway [DataSet0]

ANOVA

XXX

	Sum of Squares	D f	Mean Square	F	S ig.
Between Groups	60.543	3	20.18 1	.3 74	. 772
Within Groups	12745. 752	2 36	54.00 7		

Total	12806.296	239			

ONEWAY XXX BY NOCH /MISSING ANALYSIS/POSTHOC=SCHEFFE ALPHA(0.05).

Oneway [DataSet0]

ANOVA

XXX

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Groups	Between Groups	495.706	3	165.235	3.168	.025
	Within Groups	12310.590	236	52.164		
	Total	12806.296	239			

Post Hoc Tests
Homogeneous Subsets

XXX

Scheffe

OCH	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
No child	9	52.56	
1-3	66	57.77	57.77
4-6	139		59.33
7 & above	26		60.00
Sig.		.111	.776

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 23.267.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

T-TEST
GROUPS=Cadre(0 1)/MISSING=ANALYSIS/VARIABLES=XXX/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

T-Test

[DataSet0]

Group Statistics

	Cadre	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
XXX	Junior	93	58.38	7.667	.795

	enior	1 47	5 8.94	7.110	.586

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
XX	Equal variances assumed	1.065	.303	-.579	238
	Equal variances not assumed			-.569	184.861

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
					Lower
XX	Equal variances assumed	.563	-.562	.971	-2.476
	Equal variances not assumed	.570	-.562	.988	-2.511

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
		Upper
XXX	Equal variances assumed	1.351
	Equal variances not assumed	1.387

DATASET ACTIVATE DataSet2.DATASET CLOSE DataSet1.ONEWAY XXX BY Class of service

/STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES /MISSING ANALYSIS /POSTHOC=DUNCAN ALPHA(0.05).

Oneway [DataSet2]

Descriptive

XXX

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Academics	108	58.56	6.795	.654	57.26	59.85
Non-academics	97	59.31	8.293	.842	57.64	60.98
Non-staff	35	57.60	5.897	.997	55.57	59.63
Total	240	58.72	7.320	.473	57.79	59.65

ONEWAY XXX BY LOM /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES/MISSING ANALYSIS /POSTHOC=DUNCAN ALPHA(0.05).

Descriptive

XXX

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
-5	36	58.25	8.104	1.351	55.51	60.99	33
-10	59	59.36	5.833	.759	57.84	60.88	44

1-15	145	58.58	7.683	.638	57.32	59.84	24
otal	240	58.72	7.320	.473	57.79	59.65	24

ONEWAY XXX BY Faculty /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES/MISSING ANALYSIS /POSTHOC=DUNCAN ALPHA(0.05).

Descriptives

XXX

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Education	89	58.93	6.895	.731	57.48	60.39
Sciences	64	58.25	8.323	1.040	56.17	60.33
Social Sciences	36	59.67	6.441	1.073	57.49	61.85
Arts	51	58.27	7.411	1.038	56.19	60.36
Total	240	58.72	7.320	.473	57.79	59.65