INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYMENT ON WIVES ROLE PEREORMANCE AMONG FEDERAL CIVIL SERVANTS IN ZARIA METROPOLIS, NIGERIA

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND COUNSELLING,
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APRIL, 2017

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation titled **Influence of Employment on Wives Role Performance among Federal Civil Servants in Zaria Metropolis, Nigeria**is a record of my research work under the supervision of Prof. Raliya. Moh'd Bello and Prof. SaniSambo. All the information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged and a list of references provided. To the best of my knowledge this work has not been submitted in any form for another degree at any other Institution.

OlisaNgozi Felicia ---------- ----------
Signature Date.

CERTIFICATION

This dissertation titled **INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYMENT ON WIVES ROLE PERFORMANCE AMONG FEDERAL CIVIL SERVANTS IN ZARIA METROPOLIS, NIGERIA**by Ngozi Felicia OLISA meets the requirements governing the award of the degree of Master in Educational Psychology and Counselling,(M. Ed.) of theAhmadu Bello University Zaria and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DEDICATION

The researcher dedicates this work to the Almighty God for His infinite mercy, love, protection, knowledge and wisdom throughout her course of study. The researcher also wants to dedicate this work to her loving and caring husband, Mr. Samuel Obi Olisa, with whose support the researcher is able to attain this height in life, and to her children. Chidera, Ebuka and Emeka.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the influence of employment on the wives role performance among Federal Civil Servants in Zaria metropolis. Five research objectives were postulated and five null research hypotheses in line with research questions were posed and tested. A sample of 377 couples from 7 Federal Government Establishments drawn from a population of 3781 couples, through simple random sampling technique. The descriptive survey design was adopted in carrying out the study. The test re-test and Cronbach alpha method were used to estimate reliability of the research instrument. A coefficient of 0.75 and alpha value of 0.60 were obtained as reliability estimate for the instruments. Mean and standard deviation were used to provide answers to the research questions, t- test was used to test the five null hypotheses formulated for the study. The hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance using SPSS. Some were retained while some were rejected. Among other things, the study found that there is significant difference in the influence of employment on the wives role performance to their husbands, thereby retaining the hypotheses. And rejecting the hypothesis; that there is significant difference in the influence of employment on the marital role performance of wives on child up-bringing, retaining the hypothesis; that there isno significant difference in the influence of employment on the marital role performance of wives to their in-laws and domestic obligations, retaining the hypothesis. The study recommends, among other things, that women should prioritise their roles to their husbands in their schedule of duties, always be at the service of their children, and there should be a consensus between the women and in-laws on the definitive role of each in the family.

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OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Employment: This relates to the activity the woman is engaged in outside the home which improves her economic condition in that she is given some payment for the services she renders.

Wives: These are women who are married either customarily, religiously or legally and are living with their husbands.

Role Performance: This deals with the responsibilities assigned to individuals who are in a relationship (in this case marital relationship).

Child-bearing: The term used to describe the way and manner individuals bring forth their off springs by way of procreation.

Child up-bringing: This describes the care and training received by children from their parents.

Domestic chores: This relates to household work done for the well-being of the family.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

One of the remarkable changes which appeared in the Nigerian labour market decades ago is the increase in the number of married women in labour force participation. According to Adebayo (2011), unlike before, womenfolk are now involved in various aspects of work, as professionals, artisans, among others. The influx of women into the workforce has social and economic consequences on them and the society. Kabeer (1997), recorded the percentages of women of working age in employment as rising from 43.3% in 1970 to 57.5% in 1990. It was projected that 62.6% of all women from 25 – 40 years will be seeking jobs by year 2000. What the above indicates is that women would constitute 47% of the total global workforce by 2005.Zaria is one of the provinces that make up the central high plains of Northern Nigeria at an altitude of 550.700 meters Zaria city, on Sokoto road (Sawa and Buhari, 2011). Zaria is a heterogeneous city with about 1,490,000 population. It is accessible from different parts of the country by air via Kaduna, Kano, and Abuja and by rail and road via Kaduna, Jos, Kano and Sokoto. Zaria Metropolis comprises Zaria Local Government Area, and Sabon-Gari Local Government Area.

Several reasons have been given for married women's participation in employment or the labour force. Employment is an economic phenomenon that gives people the opportunity to render services for which they are paid. According to Heathfield (2014), it is a relationship between two parties usually based on a contract where work is paid for, where one party, which may be a corporation or other entity is the employer and the other is the employee. Employee works in return for payment. In Canning's view (2015),

employment is an agreement between an employee and an employer that the employee will provide certain services on the job, and in the employer's designated workplace to facilitate the accomplishment of the employer's organization's goals and mission, in return for compensation. Cassirer and Addati (2007) stated that family responsibilities form the basic reason for employment. They affirmed that family responsibilities are important both for steering women toward employment and for constraining their income earning activities as economy workers. In the labour market, married women have taken big steps forward. Propelled by the need to have a say on what constitutes the family expenses that should be prioritized, they have engaged in money making schemes and have also contributed in no small measure to the upkeep of the family. In establishments where they are employed, some established by the Federal Government, in this case, Federal establishments, their positions as salary earners empower them economically, and should make it necessary for them to affect the lives of their families.

Marital role performances are the duties women are expected to do both to their husbands, like performing their conjugal duties, cooking, making beds, keeping their houses clean and lots more; to their children, like washing their clothes, helping in their academic work, teaching them morals, bringing them up in the way of God, etc; and to the in-laws, like maintaining a healthy relationship with the in-laws, at home, like keeping the home clean, and making it welcoming and so on. In Nigeria, women have been saddled with roles that see them almost equated with men in relation to the contribution they make to feed the family. Abolarin (2004) stated that among the Igbos, married women are expected to be industrious and to contribute as food providers through their farming and trading activities for their economic sustenance. A husband is expected to provide his wife

with portions of land for cultivating crops which she manages with trading. There is a similar case among the Yorubas, where a married woman is expected to participate in trading with the inducement of loan from her husband. She is also obliged to contribute to her husband's farm. Additionally, she can raise small live stocks like poultry and animal husbandry; do hardwork such as cloth weaving, hair dressing and braiding, tie and dye as in-house business (Afonja, 1986). In a similar vein, Yesufu (2000) made an observation that the non-Muslim Hausa mothers participate in farming, trading and raising small live stocks. Under the confines of purdah, the Muslim mothers undertake food processing and prepare cooked foods which are sold by their children who serve as intermediaries. In essence, mothers are engaged in commercial ventures which allow fulfillment of family role expectation.

However, in spite of the benefits families derive from women's contribution to the family upkeep and their role in the development of the economy, made possible by their status as employed married women, their job more or less strips them of the responsibilities of mothers. Nwosuji (2015), in his view, stated that today's wives rarely get back home before 8.00pm daily, as they go in pursuit of their professions and careers, leaving the children and their families at the mercy of nannies as there is hardly any female friendly organization in Nigeria, and this has accounted for the disequilibrium in the family. The consequence is that with time, women become physically and emotionally disconnected from their families. There is no disputing the fact that when women work, they complement the effort of their husbands, and the family is better off, but looking at what the family suffers because of their almost always not being there to take care of them, one wonders whether their role as working married women is really worth it. It is against this

background, therefore, that the researcher deems it necessary to research into the Perception of employment on the influence of wives marital role performance among couples in federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Women are the pillars of society and play an important role in society, in all fields of human endeavour. Most employed mothers are either engaged in full time or part time employment, and make much contribution to the upkeep of the family. But in spite of this contribution they make, they fail in the role expected of them by the children and husband in that their jobs require them to adhere to the ideal worker's norm which means that their children's care is left at the hands of others, especially nannies. Also, because of the long hours that women work and the commitment to their jobs, they come back home tired and worn out, unable to give more attention to their husbands and kids or even perform their household obligations. Nigeria being a male dominated society, women face problems in various places of work, which in turn affect their family life, especially with regard to performing domestic chores.

The demands of work and raising a healthy family, child-bearing, child up-bringing and domestic chores keep most Nigerian working mothers struggling on how to find a common ground between having enough time and strength to perform work and family roles satisfactorily, and paying attention to issues that shape and define their lives as individuals who have aims that should be achieved. Employed mothers often pass through strains in order to fulfill the work, wife and mother expectations simultaneously. Based on

these observations, this study tried to find out the influence of employment on wives role performance among Federal Civil Servants in Zaria metropolis, Nigeria.

1.3 Objectives of the study.

The following objectives guided the study:

1. Determine the difference between male and female federal civil servants on theinfluence of employment on wives role performance to their husbands in Zaria metropolis.
2. Investigate the difference between male and female federal civil servants on theinfluence of employment on the wives' child-bearing..
3. Assess the difference between male and female federal civil servants on theinfluence of employment on childup-bringing.
4. Determine the difference between male and femalefederal civil servants on the influence ofemployment on domestic obligations among women inZaria metropolis.
5. Examine the difference between male and female among federal civil servants on theinfluence of employment on wives role obligationsto their in-laws.

1.4 Research Question.

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What is the difference between male and female federal civil servantson the influence of employment on marital role performance of wives to their husbands?
2. What is the difference between male and female federal civil servants on the influence of employment on marital role performanceof women in relation to child-bearing?

3. What is the difference between male and female federal civil servantson the influence ofemployment on child up-bringing?
4. What is the difference between male and femalefederal civil service on theinfluence of employment on wives role performance in relation todomestic obligations?
5. What is the difference between male and female infederal civil service on theinfluence of employment on wives role performance in relationto their in-laws?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

This study is to find out the difference in the perception of male and female on the influence of employment onwives role performance among federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis. The following null hypotheses guided the study and tested at $p \leq 0.05$.

1. There is no significant difference between male and female federal civil servantson the influence of wives' employment on theirmarital role performance to their husbands.
2. There is no significant differencebetween male and female on the influence ofemployment on wives roles performance in relation to child-bearing among women in federal civil service in Zaria metropolis.
3. There is no significant difference between male and female on the influence of employment on wives' role performance in relation to child up-bringing infederal civil service in Zaria metropolis.
4. There is no significant difference between male and female federal civil servantsfederal civil servantson the influence of employment on marital role performance in relation to domestic obligations .

5. There is no significant differencebetween male and female federal civil servants on the influence of employment on the wives' role obligations towards their in-laws.

1.6 Basic Assumptions of the Study

Based on available literatures on women participation in the labour force, this study proceeds on the assumptions that:

1 A corresponding relationship exists between married women's employment and its influence on their role performance to their husbands.

2 Women's employment has a high potentiality of affecting child-bearing among working women.

3 The role performance of children's expectations and up-bringing among working women is influenced and to a large extent determined by employment.

4 The domestic obligations of women to their families are influenced by their status as employed married women.

5 Women's employment in their marital state affects the status of their family living standard.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study is informed by the need to explore the influence of employment on the wives role performance among federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis. In deploying Herzberg's Theory of Motivators and Hygiene Factors, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Conflict Theory as framework of analysis, this study foregrounds the phenomenon of

women employment in an attempt to interrogate the necessity for women to pursue their interests in the marriage equation.

It is hoped that the results of this research will benefit women who are engaged in one form of employment or the other. Work and family upkeep are two separate phenomena that operate at contrasting frequency. Therefore, the result of the findings will provide women who are married and employed with a viable recipe for striking a balance between commitment to their jobs and family responsibilities, to avoid falling short of the expectations of each.

The findings of this research will no doubt be beneficial to husbands. It will reposition them to complement the efforts of women with their role performance to the family, given that being employed as married women is demanding; besides the fact that they also contribute to the family up-keep. The findings of the study will benefit employers in no small measure. It is needful for employers to have an insight into the challenges that beset married women who are employed, as they (the women) navigate the terrain of survival. This study, therefore, will make them see the need for employed married women to be allowed to enjoy some form of leverage and concession to enable them to adequately perform their marital roles as well as attend to their office duties. It will also help the employers of labour to know the limit to which they can stretch women in their places of work.

The findings of this research will also be beneficial to counselors. Since no research or study has been carried out on this topic, to the best of the knowledge of the researcher, there is therefore no doubt that counselors will find this study very invaluable in that it will equip them with the information considered very fundamental to approaching issues that

border on what the study has as its central focus. In addition, this study will benefit future researchers who would want to carry out a study that will have some semblance with this, and therefore will become a reference point, besides extending the knowledge base that exists presently in this field.

The government and the society at large will find the findings of this study very useful. Since women are as important as men in the work force, the government will see the need to pave way for a legislation that will put employed married women in a better position to serve the country and still be able to meet the family at the point of their needs.

1.8 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

The scope of this study comprised working married women in seven federal institutions in Zaria, Kaduna State, and is delimited to Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria,andAhmadu Bello University Teaching Hospital Shika, reason being that the opinions of women working in these seven institutions were helpful in analyzing data on the extent employment influences the marital role performance among working married women. The seven institutions under study are Nigerian Institute of Transport Technology (NITT), National Animal Production Research Institute (NAPRI), Institute for Agricultural Research (IAR), Nigeria College of Aviation Technology (NCAT), Nigerian Research Institute for Chemical Technology (NARICT), Nigerian Institute of Leather and Science Technology (NILEST), and Federal College of Education (FCE) Zaria.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Several studies have been conducted to evaluate the negative and positive impact of employment on the lives of both married and unmarried women. This chapter reviews related literature on how employment (full time or part time) influences the marital role performance of working married women. It equally covers the concept of maternal employment, wives' roles to their husbands, mothers' roles to their children, wives' roles to their families(in-laws), employment and marital quality of working women, employment and child education of working married women, employment and family welfare of working married women, employment and mental health of working married women, employment and childbearing among working married women, theoretical framework of wives' employment, review of empirical studies and summary.

2.2 Concept of Women Employment

The growth and significance of part-time and full time work in Nigeria and Western and African economies have encouraged considerable research into the nature of part-time and full time work and the characteristics of part-time and full time married women workers. While Part-time jobs are concentrated in the less skilled, lowest paid occupations and sectors of the industrial structure, women in full time job concentrate on higher skill and paid occupation. Women experience a 'pay penalty' for working part-time and the prevalence of women working part-time in the UK economy is a key factor affecting the

gender pay gap (Grimshaw and Rubery, 2001; Harkness, 2002; Olsen and Walby, 2004; Francesconi and Gosling, 2005).

A second important theme in the examination of part-time employment is the tendency for women to underuse their skills and qualifications in the labour market. One aspect of this is that, after childbirth, some women move into jobs which are at a lower level than their previous jobs. Blackwell (2001) has explored this downward mobility and identified the importance, in explaining this loss of status, of the shift that many women make from full-time to part-time work. Similarly, Manning and Petrongolo (2004) explain how women in Britain who change their hours of work from full-time to part-time on the average make a 'downward occupational move'. Thus, many part-time women workers fail to use their full range of skills and qualifications in the labour market.

Existing research reveals in broad terms why women work part-time. These reasons include: domestic circumstances, the lack of affordable, accessible childcare, the demands of caring responsibilities, level of educational qualifications, and labour market conditions and opportunities. These circumstances and conditions operate as constraints on women in the labour market. Working part-time is also associated with specific stages in the life cycle. In particular, many women with young children find that only by taking part-time employment can they balance the responsibilities and demands of family life and work. Having said this, there is considerable disagreement concerning why women work part-time. Recent debate has been fuelled by Hakim's (1996; 2000) challenging 'preference theory', which argues, *inter alia*, that most part time work is voluntary and most part-time workers have a specific 'home-centred' orientation to work, distinct from that of full-time workers.

There is an excellent examination of the range of issues involved in the contemporary debate, according to Warren and Walters (1998). Warren and Walters (1998), reveal the limitations of what they term the 'part-time/full-time dichotomy'. In particular, they critique its tendency to divide women into two separate categories of 'home-centred' and 'employment-centred'. In their analysis, it is the variety of potential reasons why women work part-time which matters, yet, as Walsh (1999) argues, why women work part-time has been an under-researched issue. The growing evidence of involuntary part-time employment, alongside voluntary part-time employment and contemporary research pointing to the importance of diversity in the characteristics of women, including household circumstances, class background and stage in the life cycle, complicate any straightforward analysis of preference (McRae, 2003; Fagan, 2001).

Thus, the nature and extent of 'choice' facing women in the labour market has been questioned. McRae (2003) has argued that women make their 'choices' in a context which includes each woman's sense of herself as a woman, worker or mother and the gender relations within families, all of which can affect women's decisions about their 'appropriate' labour market location. In addition, economic conditions and the social support available to working women create a context which can limit women's decisions about work. Thus, for example, the nature of job opportunities and the availability of childcare are important factors conditioning women's choice. Fagan (2001) has shown how women's orientations to work can change over the life course as well as in relation to changing employment conditions and domestic circumstances. Furthermore, social policies provide a framework within which women orientations to work are shaped.

Therefore, work forms a central plan in the lives of women, especially paid employment. A wife blocked from work or a career outside the home may feel caged or shackled to the house, a situation some have dramatically likened to a pressure cooker with no safety value to release the steam. Lasch (1997) asserts that on the other hand, if she can find fulfillment through work outside the home, work and marriage can go together to create a stronger and more stable union.

2.3 Wives' Roles to their Husbands

The wife who is the female partner in a marriage is expected to be a house keeper, hence her role is more domestic in nature. Aspects of her housework include preparing meals, cleaning the house, laundry and mending of children's clothing, interior decoration and minor house/kitchen repairs. Even one of the Holy Books called her a "helpmate". However, Hofferth and Moore (1980) state that men are increasingly required to juggle their work and family lives. With their wives employed outside the home with greater frequency, more responsibility for home chores and child care falls on husbands who then need to balance these responsibilities with their work demands.

Women's employment status in the home and the family empowers them with privileges that put them in the position to revert the status quo to her advantage. But that notwithstanding, societal obligations put limitations to what they can do, and how much they can achieve. According to Delphy (1984) and Secombe (1975) as a married woman, she owes it to her husband to prepare his meal. The same is true for making beds in readiness for sleep, helping with children especially the very young ones or even ironing clothes, especially her husband's clothes and be at his service behind closed doors. That is

besides complementing the effort of her husband with providing the needs of the family. Abolarin (2004), stated that, anything short of the aforementioned role to the husband has the potentiality of breeding animosity between the husbands and the wives. A man is not yet regarded as responsible and respected until he is married. That is to say that women make men complete.

Wives also owe it as obligation to maintain communication flow in the home. Communication is basic to marital interaction and limitation in this area "may threaten the very existence of the marriage. Barry, Hartel and Senn (1976) said that, talking is one of the primary activities marital partners engage in. Communication between marital partners is vitally important for individual well being and mutual harmony. It reflects difficulties and strengths in the marriage and in other areas of life, and sets the stage for future marital satisfaction or "discord". Communication difficulties are probably the most common type of problem encountered among couples and among the frequently heard complaints are that partners argue, quarrel, nag, insult or blame each other on the excuse that the other partner talks fast, making it difficult for the other to comprehend what he or she says. They cannot or won't understand what is said, or ignore each other that they talk too much, too little, too softly, or too loudly, to be understood. Atimes, none of the couples praises or acknowledges the other for doing a good job, engaging in too much gloomy talk, and doing too little that is pleasant.

According to Smalley and Scott (1979), many spouses lock up joy, sorrow, malice in their hearts. Many a time, spouses share only their sorrows and hide their joy. They caution that such is not good for marital relationship as these will result in misinterpretation of actions if a spouse is left to guise. They further pointed out that man is a communicating

animal and his communication with others is not just a means, but is in itself one of the major goals. Women are home managers and are expected to use the available resources effectively to cater for the family (Akinfenwa, (nd). Men by nature of their work have no time for home management. They can only provide the money and the resources. Beside every successful man, there must be a woman, an adage says.

The role of a wife is to maintain and take care of her husband. It is not an easy undertaking. Those women, who are unaware of this feature of their role, may find itdifficulty to fulfil the task. It is a job for the woman who is aware that the job requires a degree of sagacity, style, and ingenuity. For a woman to be a successful wife, she should win over her husband's heart and be a source of comfort to him. She should encourage him to do good deeds, while dissuading him from bad ones. She should also provide adequate measures to maintain his health and well-being. The results of her efforts are directed towards making the man into a kind and respected husband who would be a proper guardian for his family.

2.4 Women's Roles to their Children

So much is expected of women by their children. There can be no other to take the place of the mother in the lives of children in an ideal situation. According to Maqubela(2014), a good mother is seen as a woman who does care physically and emotionally for her children. They are expected to see to their children's school needs and their health. Children expect their mothers to be able to help out with their homework and assignment. Nwosuji (2015) posits that what the children eat and how it is prepared is the responsibility of their mothers. In his view, this is important because like it is said, health is

wealth. Women occupy important position in the home and therefore play a crucial role in home management and training of the children. Child training is not an easy task.

According to Shaw (1978), the woman's responsibilities outside the home does not preclude her from shouldering the responsibilities that are incumbent upon her in the home. She states that it does not translate into a major re-allocation of responsibilities in the family. In her view, with the rising cost of household help, the option to pay another person to take the responsibility of caring for the children is beyond the means of the vast majority of women. Therefore, with regard to the children, the working wife is left to her devices to cope as wage or salary earner and unpaid house worker.

In African societies, children are believed to imitate their mother more than any other person around them. A mother is often blamed for any mistake on the child's part. A Yoruba proverb captures this notion succinctly: "*owutiiyabagbonlomo o ran*"(Akinfenwa, (nd). It literarily means that: the cotton wool that the mother processed will be woven together by the child. Mothers are compared to gold, while fathers are compared to mirror in another adage; "*iyaniwura*i*Babanidingi"*. A disobedient child is also referred to as his mother's child. This is to show that such a woman is negligent in her child rearing duty.

Women are therefore responsible for the training of the children in the home, to enable them to become useful to the family and the nation in future. They are also to cater for the physical, emotional and the spiritual needs of the family. They are equally expected to inculcate in the children the virtues of obedience, tolerance, love, kindness, discipline, responsibilities, and honesty and above all the fear of God. Children who have imbibed these virtues grow up to become responsible citizens who will avoid social ills which are inimical to societal peace, progress and stability.

2.5 Role of Wives to their Families

The family system in African society is one that is closely knitted together and the role women play is very fundamental to the upkeep of the family. A woman is in charge of home management and she is expected to use the available resources effectively to manage the home. Women coordinate and carry everybody along especially in African culture where the in-laws are part and parcel of the home. Men by nature of their work have no time for home management. They can only provide the money and the resources. This is to support the fact that women have a role to play within the family and the society at large.Women, therefore, are recognized as the backbone of the family because of the important roles they play in the society. According to Mott and Moore (1978), the fact that women are working in record numbers is not a new phenomenon. In their view, many tasks which were once performed in the family are now the source of jobs held by women outside the family. They assert, however, that the survival of the family depends on women returning to the home to become full-time house wives and mothers. They add that there has been no decline in the career aspirations of women, and that continued progress in the family and household management will let more women become wives and mothers as well as workers outside of the home and the family.

2.6 Employment and marital quality of working women

Early research on the effect of women's employment on marital quality suggested that wives' employment lowered marital quality; especially among men (Burke and Wier, 1976; Kessler and McRae,1982) and couples where the wife entered the workforce out of economic necessity (Orden and Bradburn,1969). Later studies, however, found little or no

effect of women's employment on either husbands' or wives' marital quality (Booth, 1979; Locksley, 1980; Roberts & O'Keefe, 1981). More recent research has concentrated on identifying the pathways through which wives' employment may affect marital quality (Vannoy and Philliber, 1992; McHale and Crouter, 1992; Ross, Mirowsky and Huber,1983; Kessler and McRae, 1982; Philliber and Hiller, 1983). Three prominent perspectives have emerged from this body of research. The first, put forth by Ross et al. (1983) argues that couples' preferences toward wives 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 plays 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 behavior on the other may have on marital quality (McHale and Crouter, 1992; Vannoy and Philliber, 1992; Pina and Bengston, 1993). McHale and Crouter (1992) find 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 take steps toward building more egalitarian households, they benefit from wife's employment.

The second perspective argues that the strain of combining both the workplace and home has taken a toll on the emotional and mental well-being of women. As such, it focuses on the ways in which the division of household labour helps to explain the relationship between wives' employment and marital quality. Exchange theory suggests that individuals will have higher levels of marital satisfaction the less they participate in housework and the more their spouse shares in the division of household labour (Lennon and Rosenfield 1994). Ross et al. (1983) find that wives who are primarily responsible for housework are more depressed than wives whose husbands participate in housework. Other studies also find that employed wives experience greater satisfaction within their marriage and in the division of housework (Benin and Agostinelli 1988; Lennon and Rosenfield 1994). Although women continue to be responsible for the majority of housework, few perceive it as unfair. Critics of exchange theory argue that instead of focusing on the relationship between the division of household labour and marital satisfaction, it is more fruitful to examine couples' perceptions of fairness (Thompson, 1991; Hochschild 1989). Pina and Bengston (1993), for example, found that wives perception of the amount of support and help they receive from their husband is more important in determining their marital happiness than the actual division of labour.

Recent work has also suggested that, in addition to the division of household labour and perceptions of fairness, it is important to consider the types of tasks that men and women -participate in. Benin and Agostinelli (1988) argue that even when men increase the number of hours they spend on household labour, women may continue to be dissatisfied if tasks are sex segregated. Traditional "female chores" (e.g., cleaning house, washing dishes etc.) tend to be more repetitive, time consuming and demanding than traditional "male

tasks" (e.g., automobile repairs, mowing the lawn). Increases in the amount of time that husbands spend on household tasks may not result in increases in women's satisfaction over the division of household labour if men limit their participation to tasks that are less demanding and time consuming and leave women, in short, to do the "dirty work." The results of their study suggest that women are happiest with the division of household labour when their husbands participate in traditional "female tasks." The work of Brayfield (1992) also suggests that the gender division of household chores reflects the relative power of women within marriage. She finds that women who attain market positions that exceed that of their husbands participate in fewer "female tasks" than women whose occupational attainment is lower than their husbands.

The third and final perspective focuses on the ways in which the characteristics of women's jobs may impact marital quality. Wives' employment may lower the marital quality of both men and women by reducing the amount of time available for family roles (see Voydanoff, 1988; Staines and Pleck, 1983, Spitze, 1988). Previous research has found that increases in work hours are associated with increased levels of family conflict and strain (Voydanoff,1988; Staines and Pleck, 1983), in particular for women (Keith and Schafer, 1980). The relationship between shift work and family life has received more attention in recent years as it has become a reality for more and more couples. While the benefits of shift work for family life are numerous, most notably the increased participation on the part of men in child care and house work, so two are the disadvantages. In addition to the loss of regular sleep patterns, poor mental and emotional health, and reduction in social activities among shift workers (see White and Keith, 1990), affect couples, in which one or more partners engage in shift work and have less time to spend together as a couple

and family (Kingston and Nock, 1987). White and Keith (1990) find that engaging in shift work (working non-day hours) is associated with decreased marital quality and increased marital instability. The authors hypothesize that the time that couples spend apart may foster greater independence thereby weakening the barriers to divorce. However, it is unclear whether individuals in already failing marriages choose shift work to avoid or reduce contact; or whether shift work creates conditions which increase the probability of divorce. It is also still unclear whether couples who engage in shift work spend less time together in actuality than couples who work with overlapping schedules.

Several studies have also found evidence to link negative work conditions to increased levels of stress at home, less satisfying family relations, poorer mental well-being and lower levels of marital satisfaction (Sears and Galambos, 1992; Rook, Dooley and Catalono, 1991; Hughes, Galinsky and Morris, 1992). Negative work conditions, such as low autonomy, poor supervision, and high stress are thought to adversely affect family interactions by increasing the levels of stress and psychological pressures experienced by the worker. Hughes, Galinsky, and Moris (1992) found that workers in high stress and competitive jobs reported more frequent marital arguments. While it is clear that work related stress has a negative impact on the worker's sense of well-being, marital quality and family relations, it is less clear what effect, if any, such stress may have on the other family members. Crouter et al. (1989) found evidence to suggest that the work related stress of husbands is negatively associated with wives' emotional well-being. Sears and Galambos (1992) examined whether women's work stress impacts husbands' perceptions of marital adjustment (i.e., cross-over). While they find that wives' work stress lowers women's

perceptions of marital adjustment (i.e., spill-over), they found little or no evidence to link women's work stress to husbands' marital adjustment (cross-over).

2.7 Employment and Child Education of Working Married Women

Studies on the relationship between maternal employment and children's cognitive and behavioural development have found mixed results. Factors that influence the variation in results include the time of return to work, child and family characteristics, and the quality of childcare arrangements. Evidence based on longitudinal data from the United Kingdom and the United States generally suggests that full-time maternal employment during the first year of a child's life is associated with poorer child outcomes, especially poorer cognitive outcomes (Brooks-Gunn, Han, and Waldfogel, 2002; Ermisch and Francesconi, 2000; Gregg, Wash brook, Proper and Burges,2005; and, Joshi, Cooksey, and Verropoulou, 2009. However, a recent study in the United States suggests that the negative effects are offset by the positive effects of more use of centre-based care, higher quality home environments, and greater maternal sensitivity (Brooks-Gunn *et al.*, 2010). In any case, most studies show that the measured effects on cognitive development are small.

In other countries, evidence is less extensive as that in the United Kingdom and the United States. Canadian studies have not looked at maternal employment during the first year of child's life. The available evidence on the relationship between maternal employment and child outcomes refers to maternal employment from the first year onwards. Empirical findings on the latter relationship are however inconclusive. Some studies find a positive relationship between maternal employment after the first year and children's behavioural outcomes (Miller, Jenkins, and Keating, 2002 and Nomaguchi,

2006); others find a negative association between mothers' participation in paid work and socio-emotional adjustment (Lefebvre and Merrigan, 1998); and others find no relationship between current maternal employment and children's vocabulary skills (Gagne, 2003; Lefebvre, Merrigan, and Verstraete 2008, and Nomaguchi, 2006).

By contrast, empirical findings from Denmark find no support for a negative effect of maternal employment in the first year of the child's life on children's behaviour (Deding, Lausten, and Andersen, 2007). In fact, this research found that the association of early maternal employment, if any, was positive and stronger for boys than for girls. The association between maternal employment and child outcomes varies according to child and family characteristics. Maternal employment may have more negative effects on child outcomes for children of two-parent families, high income or highly educated families (Gregg,Washbrook, Proper and Burges 2005); Ruhm, 2004; and Leigh and Yamauchi, 2009). By contrast, early employment is not linked to poorer outcomes of children in sole-parent families (e.g. Han, Waldfogel, BrooksGunn, 2001), nor of children from ethnic minorities such as African-Americans (Brooks-Gunn *et al*., 2010; Berger, Brooks-Gunn, Paxson, and Waldfogel, 2008).

Compared with mothers who are not in work (including "on leave") or in part-time employment, early (within 6 months) maternal employment on a full-time basis is negatively associated with breastfeeding rates and duration (Hawkins, Griaffiths, Dezateux, and Law, 2007; Cooklin, Donath and Amir, 2008). In addition, longer periods of breastfeeding are more likely among women whose employers offer family-friendly or flexible work arrangements including part-time work (Hawkins *et al*., 2007). Breastfeeding has multiple benefits for the healthy development of young children, in

terms of nutritional benefits and protection against diseases, also after controlling for environmental factors that could be confounding this association (Quigley, Kelly, and Sacker, 2007; Ladomenou, Moschandreas, Kafatos, Tselentis and Galanakis, 2010; and, Liesbeth, Jaddoe, Hofman, and Moll, 2010). Breastfeeding is also related with positive maternal health outcomes such as a reduced risk of breast and ovarian cancer, type-two diabetes and maternal postpartum depression (Ip*et al.,* 2007). However, a review of the role of breastfeeding in promoting mother-child attachment is inconclusive (Jansen, Weertha, and Riksen-Walravena, 2008). The literature also suggests that breastfeeding has a positive effect on child intelligent quotient (IQ), but the effects are likely to be small Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2011).

Beyond the first year, formal childcare participation may have positive effects on cognitive development (Waldfogel, 2002), but some negative effects on behavioural outcomes may be observed if children are in poor-quality care or in care for long hours Belsky, Vandel, Burchinal, McCartney, Clarke-Stewart and Owen, (2007); and Stamm, 2009). Hence, care intensity and quality matter. Long hours in care are associated with poorer developmental outcomes for young children, but effects are small (Belsky, 2003 and Langlois and Liben, 2003) and vary with child characteristics. Nevertheless, there is evidence that long periods in centre-based care are linked with more problem behaviours that manifest themselves through sixth grade (Belsky*et al.,* 2007). Childcare research suggests parents with difficult or sensitive children should consider parental in-home care if they can financially afford it (Langlois and Liben, 2003). On the other hand, all studies that control for quality find that high-quality care is important for children's cognitive development (e.g. National Institute for Child Health and Human Development NICHD,

2003). In terms of physical health, participation in formal childcare can also lead to increased rates of respiratory diseases, ear infections and gastro-intestinal problems (Gordon, Kaestner, Korenman, 2007; Zutavern, Rzehak, Brockow, and Schaaf, 2007; and, Harrison, Ungerer, Smith, Zubrick, Wise, Press, and Waniganayake,2010).

The establishment of a universal subsidized childcare programme in the Canadian province of Québec in the late 1990s allowed researchers to compare outcomes of children in this province with other Canadian children (Baker, Gruber, and Milligan, 2008; and Lefebvre *et al*., 2008). The Québec Family Policy began in 1997 with the extension of full-time kindergarten to all 5-year-olds and the offer of childcare subsidies to all four-year-olds. The subsidies were extended to all three-year-olds in 1998, all two-year-olds in 1999, and finally all children younger than two in 2000. Evaluations found that, in the aftermath of these changes, child socio-emotional outcomes (including hyperactivity, anxiety and aggressiveness), physical health measures as well as parental interactions with pre-school children worsened in the Canadian province of Québec. However, this Québec policy offered subsidies that parents could take to a range of providers, and it is not clear that the quality of providers was high. Also, the policy increased the number of hours in formal childcare. Long hours in care together with the uneven quality of care may explain the poor outcomes observed. It is important to note that the quality of childcare facilities in Québec varies widely across providers (Giguere and Desrosiers, 2010). Hence, to better understand the association between non parental care and child development, studies need also to control for the quality of providers.

In Australia, evidence shows that non-parental childcare can have a positive rather than a negative effect on children's social and emotional well-being (Harrison, 2008).

Moreover, the quality of formal childcare seems to play an important role in enhancing positive social and emotional outcomes (Harrison, 2008) smaller group sizes positively affect children's behavioural outcomes (Leigh and Yamauchi, 2009, Harrison *et al*., 2010). These findings differ, at least in part, from those observed in Canada and the United States because Australia through its national system of quality assurance has managed to set minimum standards that guarantee a uniform level of quality across childcare centres.

Denmark is generally thought to have one of the highest quality universal child-care systems in the OECD. Gupta and Simonsen (2007) find that centre-based care (centres that serve up to 60 children, have highly qualified staff and are regularly monitored by municipalities) is not statistically different from parental care, but family-day care (carers at home with a maximum of five children, directly employed and supervised by the municipality) results in worse behavioural outcomes at age 7. However, the same authors observe that at age 11, the negative effect of family-day care on behavioural outcomes is no longer evident (Gupta &Simonsen, 2010).

There is little evidence on the influence of father's employment on child development. Traditionally, the role of fathers in providing personal care for children is limited and there are data constraints (defining fathers - biological or step-father-, locating fathers of children in sole-parent families, and gaining collaboration). The few studies that exist on paternal employment find that father's employment has a weaker influence on child development than maternal employment (Ermisch and Francesconi, 2000) and that the small effects are either neutral or positive (Ruhm, 2004 and, Baxter and Smart, 2011). Most of the evidence described above come from longitudinal studies of children born twenty or more years ago. For example, findings from the United States come mainly from

studies using data of the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) or the NICHD Study of Early Childcare (NICHD-SECC). Children in these longitudinal studies were born in the early 1980s and early 1990s, respectively. On the other hand, evidence from the United Kingdom comes from data drawn from either the British Household Panel with children born between 1970 and 1981, the British cohort of 1958 (NCDS), the British cohort of 1970 (BCS70), from children born to any of the previous cohorts born in the 1990S or the ALSPAC study of children born in 1991.A major drawback from these studies is that there have been major changes in the economy, society and public policy that may not reflect the experiences of children born in the 21st century.

Childcare costs play an important role on parents' decision to work. Countries with policies that help reduce childcare costs via tax reductions, cash benefits, or subsidized direct delivery of childcare services increase the financial returns more than taking up paid work and, thus, are likely to increase maternal employment. Canadian (Ontario), British (England) and US (Michigan) families can face high costs for formal childcare. In these countries, the net cost of childcare represents more than 30% of the average wage for a dual earner family. Unless parents in these countries have access to informal care providers, they will opt for staying at home or working at a reduced number of hours. In Australia, childcare costs are around the OECD average. Recent estimates suggest that the cost of child care in Australia has a statistically significant negative effect on mother's labour supply and childcare demand (Gong, Breunig and King, 2010). By contrast, net childcare costs represent around 10% of average wages for Danish families (OECD, 2011a), and thus do not represent an obstacle for parental employment.

Parental leave policies may also influence mothers' timing to re(enter) work. Almost all OECD countries have ratified the International Labour Organization (ILO) recommended minimum period of 14 weeks of paid leave (ILO, 2010). Leave entitlements around childbirth limit the risk of dismissal during pregnancy and guarantee a return to paid work when leave runs out. On average, across the OECD, the duration of maternity leave is around 19 weeks. Women are entitled to the longest period (52 weeks) in the United Kingdom. However, once payment is considered, the duration of paid leave if women received 100% of their last earnings for the leave period (full-rate equivalent14) is of 13 weeks only. By contrast, maternity leave is shortest in Australia where women are entitled to 6 weeks only and where until December 2010 this period was unpaid. The United States is the only country in the OECD without federal legislation on paid maternity leave. The Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) requires employers with 50 or more employees to provide 12 weeks of job-protected, but unpaid, maternity leave to eligible employees. Nonetheless, some states do have programmes that provide income support during maternity leave (Kamerman and Waldfogel, 2010).

Parental employment helps reduce the risks of poverty and thus contributes to promoting child development and well-being (OECD, 2011a). Poverty during early childhood contributes to a range of problems. Berger *et al.*, (2009) find that low income negatively affects home environments and emotional environments (mothers' stress or depression); more behavioural problems in children were also reported for young poor children by mothers (Kiernan & Huerta, 2008). Duncan *et al.*, (2010) show that early childhood poverty can reduce adult working hours (and so earnings) increasing later poverty risks and welfare dependency. Denmark with high maternal employment rates has

the lowest child poverty rate (3.7%) across the OECD (12.7%). In contrast, in Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States, in spite of above average maternal employment rates, child poverty rates are around or above average. This suggests that parental employment is necessary, but not always sufficient in the reduction of poverty risks. Other factors such as financial support for families with children are also important for protecting against poverty risks (Whiteford and Adema, 2007 and, OECD, 2011a).

There is also a substantial body of empirical research examining the relationship of women's work to child nutrition. Nutritional outcomes are measured in most of these studies using anthropometric indicators such as weight for age or height for age measured against international standards, though occasionally dietary indicators such as caloric intake or intake of specific nutrients are also used. Beyond this, however, there is enormous variation in terms of methodology and focus. As mentioned, a number of researchers simply report bivariate correlations (or just cross-tabulations) of child nutrition and a variable representing mother's work status, sometimes without indicating if the correlation is statistically significant. In some cases these analyses are refined by stratifying the sample on factors such as child age or maternal workload. Earlier studies of this type are reviewed in Leslie (1989); more recent studies that essentially use the bivariate approach include Bamji andThimayamma (2000), Rabiee and Geissler. (1992), and WandelandHolmboe-Ottesen**(**1992). Many of these researchers find a negative association of mother's work and child nutrition, but for others the correlation is positive or else no significant relationship is found. However, since they lack controls for confounding factors, simple associations cannot be interpreted as showing a causal relation from work to

nutrition. For example, as noted above, women who work are more likely to be from poor households, hence to have less well-nourished children, all things equal.

Very young children, especially infants, have particularly strong needs for care. Therefore, if there were any negative effects of mother's work, we would expect them to be felt more strongly by younger children than older children. This is borne out by the relatively few studies that examined samples containing both infants and older children and differentiated by age in the analysis. Haggerty (1981) for Haiti as well as Engle and Pedersen (1989) for Guatemala found that maternal work was associated with lower nutritional status (relative to children of non-employed mothers) for children under 1 year but superior nutritional status for children age 1 to 2 years. Popkin (1983), distinguishing children under and over 2 years in his pre-schooler Philippines sample, finds a negative effect of maternal employment on height and weight for age only for the younger group. Similarly, Abbi et al (1992), who find generally negative associations of several dimensions of child health and maternal work in rural Marasahrtra, India, report that these correlations were usually stronger for children under 3 than 3 to 6. Consistent with these findings, the estimates of Glick and Sahn (1998) show that maternal has stronger positive effects on the nutrition of children age 2 to 5 than children under 2; compared with the younger group, for children 2 to 5 purchased foods should be relatively more important than maternal time in breastfeeding and other activities.

2.8 Employment and Family Income of Working Married Women

Focus on market earnings is a prominent feature of most research on the impact of women's employment on the level and distribution of economic well-being. Measurement

of increases in family earnings is straightforward for married/cohabiting couples because it simply involves addition of married women's earnings to those of their husbands (the implications are less straightforward for families or couples who are less likely to pool their income). Increases in both women's employment and their earnings have contributed to substantial increases in family earnings since the 1960s in most developed countries, though assessment of this trend is complicated by countervailing trends in household structure, such as increasing the percentages of families maintained by mothers alone.

A focus on the market earnings of married couples clarifies the issue at hand: as married women have entered paid employment, they have reduced the amount of time they devote to non-market work. The historical record is particularly clear for the United State U.S. (Bianchi et al. 2006). Thus, it seems likely that declines in the value of unpaid work have partially countervailed increases in market earnings—requiring married couple families to spend more money on substitutes for previously home-produced services, such as convenience foods, restaurant meals, and child care services. Likewise, differences in the value of unpaid work could confound comparisons of earnings between dual-earner married couples and those including a full-time homemaker who devotes more time than her employed counterpart to services such as meal preparation and child care.

In principle, the methodology applied to analysis of the impact of married women's employment on family market earnings can be extended to analysis of its impact on household extended earnings. As a result, a review of this literature yields important insights, particularly for analysis of effects on inequality. First (and most intuitively) this literature sometimes deploys counterfactuals: What would the distribution of family earnings among married couple households look like if a) women had no earnings or b) if

women's earnings were higher (all else equal). Second, this literature often compares the variance of overall earnings with the variance of men's earnings, or decomposes a measure of inequality, such as the squared coefficient of variation, into its component parts, making it possible to compare the impact of changes in the level of inequality among women and men, the inequality between men and women, and the correlation between spouses' earnings. For instance, in their analysis of changes in family income inequality among married couples in the U.S., Cancian et al. (1993) find that increases in women's employment and earnings lowered market earnings inequality overall, with considerable variation among racial/ethnic groups. Their decomposition of the squared coefficient of variation in earnings showed that greater female employment reduced the overall inequality in women's earnings (because fewer women had zero earnings), an effect that outweighed the effect of increased correlation between the earnings of wives and husbands (a result of assortative mating, especially more highly educated women married to more highly educated men). Similarly, Cancian and Schoeni (1992), examining differences in married couple incomes across 11 countries (including changes over time in four countries) based on LIS data, found that wives' earnings reduced overall income inequality, though in varying degrees. They conclude that correlation between the earnings of married husbands and wives would need to be considerably higher (at least double) to counter the equalizing effect. Harkness (2002) investigates this relationship between female earnings and household income inequality using micro-data for seventeen OECD countries. Employing both the counterfactuals described above, as well as a decomposition of the squared coefficient of variation and the coefficient of variation, she finds that, in all countries, female earnings exert an equalizing force—though of quite different magnitudes.

However, Harkness (2002) also acknowledges important differences across studies based on differences in measures used. For instance, Esping-Anderson (2008), comparing the variance of total earnings with that of husband's earnings across several countries in 1993 and 2001, concludes that wives' earnings increased inequality among couples in France, Germany, Italy, Spain and the U.K. but decreased inequality for the U.S., Sweden and, in 2001 only, in Denmark. Both the cross-country differences in magnitudes and the sensitivity to different measures of inequality suggest that effects of increased female employment on extended earnings could be quite different from effects on market earnings. The relationship between marriage and earnings is more complex. The findings of previous studies have been mixed and sometimes contradictory (Budig&Enlgand 2000; Dolton & Makepeace 1987; Goldin&Polachek 1987; Hill 1979; Waldfogel 1997). Early research investigating the relationship between marriage and women's earnings found little or no association (Dolton and Makepeace 1987; Goldin&Polachek 1987; Hill 1979), whereas more recent studies, using longitudinal data, have found significant positive associations (Budig& England 2000; Waldfogel 1997). Moreover, studies investigating the determinants of women's earnings tend to find a significant wage penalty for motherhood, where mothers earn less than non-mothers, rather than a strong association between marriage and earnings (Budig& England 2000; Harkenss&Waldfogel 1999; Korenman&Neumark 1992; Waldfogel 1997). The evidence suggests then that marriage may increase women's wages, but this pattern is strongly counter-balanced by the negative impact of motherhood.

Early research examining the determinants of women's earnings found that marriage had little or no association once adjustments were made for human capital

(education, work experience, tenure), job characteristics (hours worked, occupation, employment conditions), and family status (the presence or number of children). For example, Hill (1979) using data from the 1976 Panel Study of Income Dynamics found no significant association between marriage and wages. Controlling for education, work experience and number of children, her results show that married, white women earn more than unmarried women, but less than divorced, separated or widowed women. Dolton and Makepeace (1987) also found no association between marriage and wages among female college graduates. Goldin and Polachek (1987), on the other hand, using 1980 U.S. Census data found that single women had a wage advantage over married women, but these differences were small once adjustments were made for variability in expected levels of accumulated human capital.

More recent investigations have focused specifically on the wage penalty for motherhood. Budig& England (2000) used the National Longitudinal Survey for Youth, 1982-1993, and adjusting for a wide range of human capital, family, and job characteristics, found a marriage premium for women of around 4 percent. They also found that being divorced, separated, and widowed had a larger effect on women's earnings than being married or never married. Their results also showed an interaction effect between marriage and children, with the size of the marriage premium declining as the number of children in the household increased so that by three children, there is actually a wage penalty for motherhood (Budig& England 2000). Waldfogel (1997) also found a marriage premium for women, but found that divorced, separated and widowed women had higher earnings than both married and never married women.

Taken together this evidence suggests that the relationship between marriage and women's earnings appears to be changing. While earlier research found little, or no association between marriage and earnings, recent studies have found significant positive associations. There are two possible explanations for this shift. First, there have been major social changes for women since the 1970s, such as increased participation in higher education and employment, which may have led to a shift in the determinants of female earnings. On the other hand the observed change in the relationship between marriage and wages for women could be attributable to differences in statistical methods. Korenman and Neumark (1992) criticized the use of cross-sectional techniques in examining the relationships between marriage, motherhood and wages for women for underestimating the effects of these determinants on wages. One consistent finding across all studies, however, is that where there is wage premiums for marriage, women who are divorced, separated, and widowed usually have higher wages than married women. In summary, recent research finds a marriage premium for women, and diminishing returns to marriage for married men. These findings possibly reflect long-term effects of changes in women's participation in higher education and the work force, and changes in the nature of marriage.

2.9 Employment and Mental Health of Working Married Women

Current research on wellbeing has been derived from two general perspectives: the hedonic approach, which focuses on happiness and defines wellbeing in terms of pleasure attainment and pain avoidance; and the eudemonic approach which focuses on meaning and self-actualization and defines wellbeing in terms of the degree to which a person is fully functioning (Ryan &Deci, 2001). Diener (1984) has used the phrase "subjective well-

being" to refer to the experience of wellbeing associated with hedonic approach. Subjective wellbeing refers to a person's evaluative reactions to his or her life either in terms of cognitive evaluations (satisfaction) and emotional reactions (effect). The concept of "psychological wellbeing" acquired more importance in the field of Psychology over the last decade and in recent years psychological wellbeing is the focus of intense research attention (Diener&Diener, 1995). Psychological Well Being is described as the quality of life of a person. It includes what lay people call "happiness", "peace", "fulfillment" and "life satisfaction". Ryff (1991), states that convergence of similar features of positive psychological functioning constitutes the core dimensions of psychological wellbeing. Kumar (2006) observes that conceptions of wellbeing are integrally related to how one views the nature of man and what perspective is valued.

Increase in women's participation in labour force over the past few decades has led to increased interest in the effects of employment on women's wellbeing. Women employment has been investigated as either beneficial (role enhancement hypothesis) or detrimental (role strain hypothesis) to women's psychological wellbeing. Women employment may be associated with better psychological functioning. This effect may be mediated by the over absorption of one's time and resources within a particular identity role (Elgar & Chester, 2007). Erlandson (2006) hypothesized that women who work in the paid work force, those with low complex patterns of occupations would rate their health and wellbeing higher than women having medium complex patterns. Further, those with medium complex pattern would rate their health and wellbeing better than women with high complex patterns. With respect to socio demographic factors, the women in the three sub groups differed in terms of level of education. Among full time employed mothers,

those with positive attitude about employment had better Psychological well being. For mothers who worked part time, maternal attitude did not predict their psychological wellbeing. Better Psychological wellbeing predicted fewer behavioral problems and greater social competence. A balanced pattern of daily occupations and lifestyle factors contribute to working women's psychological wellbeing. Various reasons for employment whether for monetary gains or personal satisfaction affects the wellbeing of employed women. Among African-American professional women, it was found that the attainment of multiple degrees, the establishment of professional careers, achieving financial independence and obtaining coping resources may be major factors that may increase psychological wellbeing (Williams 2006). Junko Sagara et al (2006) suggested that a husband's attitude towards his wife's approach to having a job may have an influence on the husband's psychological wellbeing.

Varma and Dhawan (2006) in their study on 195 young urban educated married women with age range from 25-35 years (M=31.01 years) used socialization and personal control scale developed by themselves. They used Behavioral Attributes of Psycho social Competence (BAPC) developed by Tyler et.al (1984) and Subjective Well Being Index (SUBI) developed by Sell and Nagpal (1992). Using correlation and multiple regression analysis the study indicated that Indian women exhibited high level of Well Being. The dimension of family group support contributed more to wellbeing. Correlation analysis showed that personal control and psychosocial competence are significantly positively related to subjective wellbeing. This implies that the more the women are able to control their major domains of lives and use active coping strategies the better their sense of wellbeing. From the preceding paragraphs it is clear that working women will have more

problems since they have to play multiple roles. The previous studies conducted earlier focused on psychological wellbeing of employed women in general and used concepts like psychological wellbeing, subjective wellbeing, quality of life, satisfaction of life, happiness, mental health in an interchangeable way.

2.10 Employment and Childbearing among married women

The total fertility has been decreasing in almost all industrialized countries, reaching values well below the replacement level. It has often been argued that an increase in women's labour-force participation has largely contributed to the change in reproductive behaviour. In the 1980s, many researchers still associated the severe drop in fertility experienced by all industrialized countries in the last 40 years with a rise in women's labour-force participation. For example, the authors of the concept of the second demographic transition ascribe the fall in the propensity to have children to the rising economic autonomy of women and their strive for self-fulfillment, among other things (Van de Kaa, 1987, 1988; Lesthaeghe 1991, 1992). Similarly, referring to the high opportunity costs of motherhood, particularly for highly-skilled women, Becker sees the reasons for the falling propensity to have children in the rise of women's educational and labour-market attachment (Becker 1993).

However, since the mid-1980s the trends observed at the macro-level seem to contradict these theories. The countries with the highest women's labour-force participation have become characterized by highest rather than lowest fertility. Moreover, in the mid-1980s, the downward trend in fertility reversed in this group of countries. These observations have led to discussions on the changing correlation between women's labour-

force participation (FLFP) and total fertility at the macro-level. Castles (2003), Rindfuss*et. al.* (2003), and Brewster and Rindfuss (2000) attribute the reversal to the correlation sign in the weakening incompatibility between childrearing and females' employment in some countries, resulting from changes in the institutional context (e.g. changing attitudes towards working mothers, the introduction of family and labour-market policies aimed at the reconciliation between work and family). Furthermore, Ahn and Mira (2002) underline the role of cross-country differences in the income effects of women's wages, unemployment and labour-market rigidities in terms of fixed working hours. The existence of a positive cross-country correlation in Western European countries since the 1990s is confirmed by Del Boca *et. al.* (2003), whereas Muszynska (2007) provides evidence that a low intensity of cultural and structural conflict between family and work coexists with high fertility and high women's employment. Other studies, however, show that the correlation between the total fertility and FLFP remains negative if one takes into account cross-country heterogeneity in the magnitude of this association (Kögel 2004, 2006). Still, the findings by Kögel (2004, 2006), point to a weakening in this negative relationship. Apart from the direction and sign of the correlation between women's labour-force participation and fertility, some studies addressed the causal character of this relationship. Applying vector correction models on time-series data from six developed OECD countries, Engelhardt*et al.* (2004) show that total fertility and FLFP are causally related in both directions. The authors presume the finding to suggest that the simultaneous movements of total fertility and FLFP are caused by common exogenous third variables, such as social norms, social institutions, financial incentives, or the availability and acceptability of contraception. This result is consistent with the theoretical model by Apps and Rees

(2004), who show that greater availability of childcare and a system of individual rather than joint taxation have a positive effect on total fertility as well as the FLFP, producing a positive correlation between the two variables.

The evidence provided by the literature on this matter is very wide. Although it generally suggests that both variables are negatively correlated, there are exceptions to this rule. An insignificant influence of women's employment on the transition to childbirth was found for many countries, beginning with Sweden (Berinde 1999; Santow 2001), and ending at Italy (Bernardi&Nanio 2005). The evidence of a positive effect of women's employment on birth risks found for East Germany (Kreyenfeld 2004) and Hungary (Róbert&Bukodi 2005) is even more striking. Similarly, studies on entry into employment report an insignificant effect of young children on fulltime employment (Drobnic 2000) for lonely mothers in the US; Giannelli 1996 for West Germany; Leth-Sorensen and Rohwer 2001 for Denmark), part-time employment (Drobnic et.al. 1999; Drobnic& Wittig 1997 for the US; Drobnic 2000 for West Germany) or employment in general (Corijn 2001 for Flanders; Felmlee 1993 for the US; Bernardi 2001 for Italy). Moreover, empirical evidence for the US (Hofmeister 2006, Grunow*et.al.* 2006) and Denmark (Grunow&LethSørensen 2006) even suggests that mothers of young children are more likely than other women to enter employment.

2.11 Theoretical Framework

The concept of theory is understood as the networks of constructs, related to one another by a precise set of rules, with some or all of these constructs linked with an operational language (Maslow,1943). Theory is also seen as a set of rules or principles that

can be deployed for the analysis or interpresentation of phenomena so that meaning is deduced that will provide a clear understanding of the rationale for the occurrence of certain or particular human activity. According to Anderson (1983), theory explains diverse phenomena across a range of disparate situations. The theoretical models adopted for this work are Herzberg's theory of Motivators and Hygiene Factors, Maslow's Theory of Needs and Karl Max Conflict Theory. It must be understood that the theoretical postulations of the above named theorists are rooted in the theory of motivation. The theory of motivation proceeds on the notion that there is a reason for the way people think and behave. Approaching motivation from the perspective of behavior, Hull (1951), states that the theory of motivation sees behavior as a function of drive multiplied by habit. In Hull's view, drive energizes behavior, in that without the presence of needs, behavior would not be instigated; drive and habit relate multiplicatively, and drive is a pooled energy source.

2.11.1 Herzberg's Theory of Motivators and Hygiene Factors

Herzberg (1959) asserted that two kinds of factors affect motivation, and they do it in different ways. He constructed a two dimensional paradigm of factors that affect people's attitude to work. According to him, factors such as company policy, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, and salary are hygiene factors rather than motivators. In his view, the hygiene factors are factors whose absence motivates, but whose presence has no perceived effect. Therefore, according to the theory, the absence of hygiene factors can create job dissatisfaction, but their presence does not motivate or create satisfaction.

In contrast, however, he determined from the data that the motivators were elements that enriched a person's job; he found five factors in particular that were strong determiners

of job satisfaction: achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and advancement (Gawel, 1997). These motivators (satisfiers) were associated with long-term positive effects in job performance, while the hygiene factors (dissatisfiers back to its previous level.

In summary, satisfiers describe person's relationship with what she or he does, many related to the tasks being performed. Dissatisfiers, on the other hand, have to do with a person's relationship to the context or environment in which he or she performs the job. The satisfiers relate to what a person does while the dissatisfiers relate to the situation in which the performer does what he or she does.

2.11.2 Maslow's Hierarchy of needs

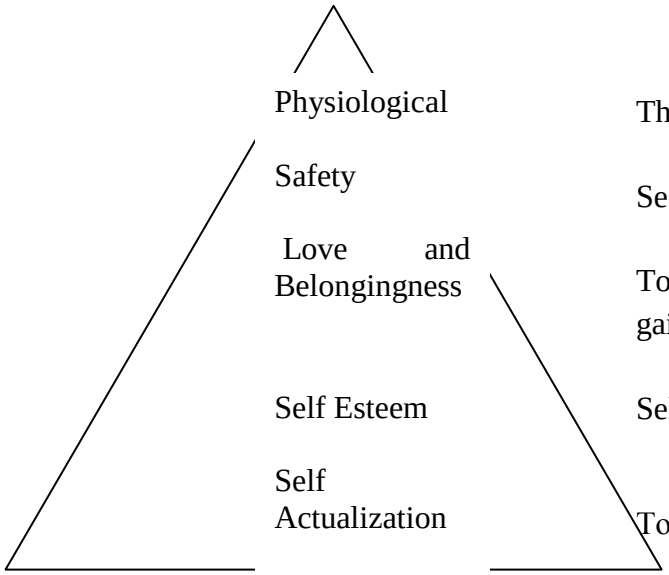
In 1954, Maslow published Motivation and Personality, which introduced his theory about how people satisfy various personal needs in the context of their work that makes their lives rewarding and meaningful. The law attested that all human beings have needs that are innate and are systematically arranged in a hierarchy of priority. Satisfaction of one need creates another that commands the person's attention and effort. According to Tutor (1986), Maslow postulated, based on his observations as a humanistic psychologist, that there is a general pattern of needs recognition and satisfaction that people follow in generally the same sequence. He also theorized that a person could not recognize or pursue the next higher need in the hierarchy until his or her currently recognized need was substantially or completely satisfied, a concept called prepotency. Physiological needs should be satisfied first, followed by safety needs, love and belonging needs, self-esteem needs, and self actualization. Women as human beings have needs and the needs of

relations who depend on them too and for these needs to be met, she doesn't have to depend on her husband, so the work she has taken gives her the opportunity to meet these needs, and by so doing she would be fulfilled in life and have that sense of self actualization.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is shown in Table 1. It is often illustrated as a pyramid with the survival need at the broad based bottom and the self-actualization need at the narrow top.

Table 1.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Physiological	Thirst, sex, hunger
Safety	Security, stability protection
Love and Belongingness	To escape loneliness, love and be loved and gain a sense of belonging
Self Esteem	Self-respect, the respect of others
Self Actualization	To fulfill one's potentialities

Ballot and Tutor (1990), state that according to various literatures on motivation, individuals often have problems consistently articulating what they want from a job. Therefore, employers have ignored what individuals say that they want, based on what managers believe most people want under the circumstances. In their views, these decisions have frequently been based on Maslow's needs hierarchy, including the factor of

prepotency. As a person, his employer supplies or provides opportunities to satisfy needs higher on Maslow's pyramid.

2.11.3 Conflict Theory

The conflict of interest that is inherent in society, in all groups and between members of group and between principles, extends to the family in all its forms. The school of thought that concerns the analysis of conflict in social groups is Marxian economic theory. Karl Marx (1844) conflict theory describes a social structure prone to change and the continuum that two people will disagree, perhaps, to the point of changing their personal relationship system.

Conflict theories paint a picture of the self-interested individual operating to maximize his own rewards in a competitive world. The conflict theory proceeds on the following fundamental assumptions:

1 Human beings are essentially self-oriented, and inclined to pursue their own interests at the expense of others.

2 Human beings are symbol-producing consuming creatures. Their environment is a symbol of having no exact counterpart in object reality.

3 The human potential to hope, aspire (emotionally, economically, socially) happens under given conditions.

4 Society can be observed on two levels: the integration and functioning of social institution, the character of participation of individuals in institutions. Here, the norms (rules of behavior), participation and change come into play.

5 Conflict is normal and inevitable in every social relationship.

The family is not necessary a group characterized by consensus or by coercion. Grabb (1990), asserts that harmony is not necessary for the continuation of order in the family. According to him, conflict may even strengthen relationships, making them rewarding in the final analysis. In his view, disagreements result when one's feelings of being short changed collide with the other's unwillingness to pay up. He states that the processes of marriage and family development are viewed as particular social system, within which members face perpetual problem of coming to terms with each other's conflicting interests. It is through negotiation and compromise that change in the family can take place, allowing the family to adapt to changing demands being made on it. These theorists have been framed for the sake of analyzing the influence of employment on marital role performance among working married women.

The choice of the three theories as a framework of analysis for the issues raised in the study, in the light of what the variables (influence, Employment and Role) bring to bear on the research, is justified by the fact that the key postulates of the theories find representational prominence in the focus of this study. In using these theories, therefore, there will be an attempt to find a point of convergence and divergence so that is seen as accurately expressive and representative of the data got, to arrive at findings that will serve the basis for valid recommendations to be made.

2.12 Review of Empirical Studies

Nezhad (2013) carried out a study on Analysis of Mothers' Employment and its Influence on Children's Training in Family. The essence of the study was to investigate the correlation between women's employment and children's training in Iran families. In line with this issue, independent and dependent variables are introduced as mother's

employment and children's training respectively. Research method utilized by Nezhad (2013) include field study, literature review and surveying analysis using questionnaire technique to collect related data and information required for the present study. Statistical data of the study include 200 guidance school students of the district of Education and Training Organization in the city of Tehran whose mothers are employed. They were picked up using objective random selection method. The research results revealed that the employment of mothers with children's education component (socialization, role flexibility, observing discipline, responsibility and being internalized values and norms) in the community has a significant correlation. Nezhad (2013) concluded that research assumption is valid because a significant correlation between mothers' employment and children's training in the society of Iran actually exists.

Gang-Hua and Frisbie (2009) studied How Multiple Roles Affect Young and Middle-Aged Women's Health: The Impacts of Employment and Family Roles. Using a national representative sample of Taiwanese women age 18 to 64 (n=896) from the Taiwan Social Change Survey conducted in 2002, the study investigated the health effects of multiple roles on health for young and middle-aged women. In the light of the Role Substitution Hypothesis, the Role Complementation Hypothesis, and the Role Combination Strain Hypothesis, certain interacting effects between marriage, employment, motherhood, and filial role are examined. Statistical analyses are performed separately for young and middle-aged women to examine the association between social roles occupied and health outcomes as well as interactions between age and the nature of work and family roles on health. Results show that certain social roles are more relevant to health status for women at specific stages of the life course. When marriage and filial role are associated with better

perceived health for young women, motherhood is more beneficial in perceived health for middle-aged women. These findings imply that intergenerational relationships are strongly associated with Taiwanese women's perceived health status. In addition, complementary health effects between employment and motherhood are found among middle-aged women. Analyses of this study suggest that the impacts of multiple roles on health are subjected to change according to women's age, the nature of family roles, and the type of employment. Considering the overall results, we emphasize that in order to delineate the complicated relationships between social roles and women's health, more specific characteristics of roles occupied by women need to be taken into account.

Dunifo, Hansen, Nicholson and Nielsen (2012) investigate the Effect of Maternal Employment on Children's School Performance in 9thgrade. Using a Danish data set that follows 125,000 Danish children from birth through 9th grade, Dunifo et al (2012) examined the effect of maternal employment during the first three and first 15 years on a child's grade point average in 9th grade. Dunifo et al (2012)addressed the endogeneity of employment by including a rich set of household control variables, instrumenting for employment with a gender and education-specific local unemployment rate, and by including maternal fixed effects. The study found that maternal employment has a positive effect on children's 9thgrade performance in two specifications and no effect in a third specification. By contrast, most of the existing literature, which has focused on children in the U.S. and U.K., finds no or a small negative effect of maternal employment on children's health and cognitive development.

Srimathi and Kiran-Kumar (2010) researched on the Psychological Wellbeing of Employed Women across Different Organizations. The major objective of the study

examines the level of psychological wellbeing among working women in different professions. The sample consisted of 325 employed women working in five different organizational sectors – industries (67), hospitals (63), banks (67), educational institutions (68) and in call centers/BPOs (60). Age range of this sample was 25-50 years. The mean age and SD of the sample is 34.06 and 8.06 respectively. They were administered Carol Ryff's Medium Form of Psychological Well Being Scale. Results revealed that women employees working in industries had the least psychological wellbeing in all the sub factors and total psychological wellbeing scores, followed by women working in health organizations. Women employees working in banks had medium level of psychological wellbeing scores. Women teachers had highest total Psychological Well Being scores and also in the entire sub factors of Psychological Well Being. Each subscale of PWB is correlated significantly and positively with the rest of the sub scales. Srimathi, and Kiran-Kumar (2010) concluded that it is not the career opportunities and employment of the women that affects psychological wellbeing: rather it is the job nature and working conditions of women that contribute to their experience of psychological wellbeing. However, promoting psychological wellbeing of employed women requires co-operation of people at individual, community, government and at the societal level at large.

Chatterji, Markowitz, and Brooks-Gunn (2011) researched on early maternal employment and family wellbeing in Massachusetts. The study uses longitudinal data from the NICHD Study on Early Child Care (SECC) to examine the effects of maternal employment on family well-being, measured by maternal mental and overall health, parenting stress, and parenting quality. First, the researcher estimates the effects of maternal employment on these outcomes measured when children are 6 months old. Next,

they used dynamic panel data models to examine the effects of maternal employment on family outcomes during the first 4.5 years of children's lives. Among mothers of six month old infants, maternal work hours was found to be positively associated with depressive symptoms and self-reported parenting stress, and negatively associated with self-rated overall health among mothers. Compared to mothers who are on leave 3 months after childbirth, mothers who are working full-time, the score was 22 percent higher on the CES-D scale of depressive symptoms. However, maternal employment is not associated with the quality of parenting at 6 months, based on trained assessors' observations of maternal sensitivity. Moreover, during the first 4.5 years of life as a whole, the researcher found only weak evidence that maternal work hours are associated with maternal health, and no evidence that maternal employment is associated with parenting stress and quality. Chatterji, et al. (2011) concluded that unobserved heterogeneity is an important factor in modeling family outcomes.

2.13 Summary

The study reviewed literature related to the influence of employment on married working women. In the process, the concept of employment among working married women was discussed, besides discussions on employment and marital quality of working married women, employment and child education of working women, employment and family income of working married women, employment and mental health of working married women, and influence of employment on childbearing among working women. Three theories were used to support the study which include; Herzberg's Theory of Motivators and Hygiene factors, Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory, and Karl

Max Conflict Theory. Empirical studies were also reviewed, and the review indicated that in other countries, employment has a multidimensional effect, on working married women. In an attempt to create a platform for combining the various roles expected of them as married women, mothers and workers, they were construed as having fallen short of societal expectations. This study therefore assessed the extent employment influenced working women married women in some federal institutions in Zaria, Nigeria.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology under the following sub-headings; research design, population of the study, sample and sampling technique. Instrumentation, validity of the instrument, pilot study, and reliability of the instrument, procedure for data collection and procedure for data analysis are brought to bear on the discussion.

3.2 Research Design

The research design adopted for this study is descriptive survey. The use of this design is because it is a useful tool for fact-finding and it ensures high reliability. Also, survey research design enhances effective gathering of data through questionnaire. Odiagbe (2004) stated that survey design is appropriate in obtaining opinions of respondents. It is also a research design that is mainly concerned with finding, describing and interpreting "what is" (Best, 1990)

3.3 Population of the Study

The population of this study comprised of three thousand, seven hundred and eighty-one (3781) couples in some selected federal government institutions in Zaria. The detail of the population of male and femaleis shown in the Table below:

Table 3.1: Population of the Study

S/No	Institution	Population Female	Male
1	Nigerian Institute of Transport Technology(NITT)	20	268
2	National Animal Production Research Institute (NAPRI)	61	433
3	Institute for Agricultural Research (IAR)	121	545
4	Nigerian Institute of Leather and Science Technology (NILEST)	73	224
5	Nigerian College of Aviation Technology (NCAT)	140	459
6	National Research Institute for Chemical Technology(NARICT)	70	485
7	Federal College of Education (FCE)	280	542
	Total	**765**	**3016**

Source: Record office of individual institutions participating in the study,2014.

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample size for the study is three hundred and seventy-seven(377) married men and women out of the total population of three thousand seven hundred and eighty-one from the seven institutions. The two hundred and ninety-seven (297) were male while(80) eighty were female. The choice of three hundred and seventy-sevenwasbased on the recommendation of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) which states that the population of 3500 and above would require 367samplesize and so as to increase the precision of the data. The

sampling technique adopted in selecting the sample size was simple random sampling using hat method. This is because every institution was given equal and independent chance of being included in the study to ensure that the sample is representative of the unique characteristics of the population.The following is a Table showing the proportional distribution of the sample.

Table 3.2 Sample Size for the Study

S/no	Institution	Population		% Population		Sample size	
		Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
1.	NITT	20	268	2.61	8.89	2	27
2.	NAPRI	61	433	7.97	14.35	6	43
3.	IAR	121	545	15.82	18.07	13	55
4.	NILEST	73	224	9.55	9.42	8	22
5.	NCAT	140	459	18.30	15.22	15	46
6.	NARICT	70	485	9.15	16.08	07	49
7	FCE	280	542	36.60	17.97	29	54
	Total	**765**	**3016**	**100.00**	**100**	**80**	**297**

Source: Record officers of individual institutions participating in the study, 2014.

3.5 Instrumentation

The instrument for data collection titled Perception of Employment on Wives Marital Role Performance Questionnaire (PEWMRPQ)was developed by the researcher. The questionnaire containeditems that elicited responses on the Influence of employment on wives'role performance for both male and femalein federal civil service in Zaria

metropolis. The questionnaires were administered to 80 working married women and 297 working married men in seven institutions selected for the study in Zaria, a total of 377 samplesize. Out of this 377 questionnaires distributed 366 were collected while 11 questionnaires were lost. The institutions are Nigerian Institute of Transport Technology (NITT), National Animal Production Research Institute (NAPRI), Institute for Agricultural Research (IAR), and Nigerian College of Aviation Technology (NCAT) National Research Institute for Chemical Technology (NARICT) Nigerian Institute for Leather and Science Technology (NILEST) and Federal College of Education (FCE) Zaria.

The questionnaire was in different sections. Section 'A'dealt with the demographic information of the respondents, while section 'B' also dealt with the respondents' opinions on questions meant to guide the study. The questionnaire was developed using the 4-point scale format and was made up of 30 statements. Item 1 – 6 measured wives' roles to their husbands, thissection where it is high largely reflect negative, 7 – 12 measured mother's roles to her child-bearing, and where it is high reflects negative, 13 – 18 measuredRoles to child up-bringing and where it is high reflects positive, while 19 – 24 measured Roles as per Domestic obligationslargely reflects negative items and finally 25 – 30 measured Roles to Family members (In-laws), largely reflects positive items. The respondents responded by selecting one of the alternatives from Strongly Agreed, Agreed, Disagreed and Strongly Disagreed which scored as 4, 3, 2, 1, respectively for the items.

3.5.1 Validity of Instrument

In order to ensure that the questionnaire measured what it was designed to measure, 4 lecturers from Educational Psychology and Counseling Department, Ahmadu Bello

University, Zaria, were used to validate the questionnaire. Also, the supervisors of this research work and a statistician validated the instrument. Based on their various contributions and corrections, amendment was made on the instrument and through this, content validity of the instrument was established.

3.5.2 Pilot Study

After necessary correction and validation of the instrument, a test retest technique was conducted with twenty (20) respondents in Demonstration Secondary School, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. Demonstration Secondary School, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria was not part of the sampled institution, but it was used for the pilot test because it shares similar characteristics with those of the sample. The choice of using Demonstration Secondary School, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria for the pilot test was based on the recommendation of Haralambos and Holborn (2000) that a pilot test should be carried out on members of the relevant population, but not on those who formed part of the final sample. This was because it may influence the later behavior of the research subjects of the sample population since they have already been involved in the research. The questionnaires distributed to respondents in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria were filled and returned immediately. The data collected were subjected to statistical analysis to test for the internal consistency of the research instrument.

3.5.3 Reliability of the Instrument

The reliability of the instrument was determined by using test-retest method on 20 respondents of the data collected from the pilot study. The Crombach Alpha method was

used with the help of a statistical package (SPSS) to establish the reliability coefficient of the test-retest data derived from the research instrument. Hauenstein (2006) recommended that a reliability estimate of .60 to 1 was high and the instrument from which it was calculated is reliable and stable. Consequently, a reliability coefficient of 0.75 was obtained. This reliability coefficient is considered adequate for the internal consistencies of the instruments because Danjuma and Muhammad (2011) stated that an instrument is considered reliable if its reliability coefficient has between 0.64 and the closer to 1, the more reliable the instrument.

3.6 Scoring of the Instrument: In scoring the instruments, the respondents responded by selecting one of the alternatives from Strongly Agreed, Agreed, Disagreed and Strongly Disagreed score as 4, 3, 2, 1, respectively for the items. Item 1 – 6 measured wives' roles to their husbands, this section where it is high largely reflect negative, 7 – 12 measured mother's roles to her child-bearing, and where it is high reflects negative, 13 – 18 measured Roles to child up-bringing and where it is high reflects positive, while 19 – 24 measured Roles in relation to Domestic obligations largely reflects negative items and finally 25 – 30 measured Roles to Family members (In-laws), largely reflects positive items.

3.7 Procedure for Data Collection

The procedure for data collection for this study was divided into two phases. The phases are pre-administration phase and Administration phase

3.7.2 The pre-administration phase: The researcher obtained a letter of introduction from the Head of Department of Psychology and Counseling which was taken to the sampled

institutions for permission to get data on the number of married men and married women working in each of the seven establishments. In this phase the researcher encountered a lot of problems for some establishments did not release the information on demand, they thought they were more to the data whether the researcher would demand for the amount they were being paid.

3.6.3 The second phase was to obtain permission from the said institutions and administering stage: After getting each of the establishments' permission, the researcher engagedresearch assistants who were trained on how the instrument was to be administered. The researcher and the research assistants who were trained on how to administer the questionnaire shared three hundred and seventy-seven copies of the questionnaire according to the sampled respondents. The respondents were required to fill and return the questionnaire immediately, to avoid questionnaire mortality and external influence while filling the questionnaire. The exercise of data collection lasted for a period of fourteen days. Out of the three hundred and seventy-seven questionnaires distributed, three hundred and sixty-six were recovered; while eleven were lost.

3.7 Procedure for Data Analysis

Data collected wereanalyzed and presented in Tables. Frequencies and percentages were used to analyze the demographic data of the respondents while mean and standard deviation were used to provide answers to the research questions. T test was used to test the five (5) hypotheses formulated for the study. All the hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). This means that

when $p \leq .05$ on a two tailed test, the null hypotheses rejected. On the other hand, the null hypotheses retained when $p > .05$.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.1 Introduction

This study wasto find out perception of male and female on the influence employment on marital role performance among women in Federal civil services in Zaria metropolis. The findings of the study were discussed under the following subheadings: Analysis of the Demographic Data,Answering the Research Questions,Null Hypotheses Testing,Summary of the Major Findings and Discussion of the Findings.

4.2 Analysis of the Demographic Data

This study was to find out the influence of employment on wives role performance among Federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis. The following section presented the participants profiles in frequencies and percentages.

4.2.1 Participants sex

Table 4.1:Frequencies and Percentages of Male and Female

Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	297	78.2
Female	69	21.8
Total	**366**	**100**

Table 4.1 provided that 366 couples participated in the study out of which 78.2% (297) of the participants were husbands and 21.8% (69) were wives'.

4.2.2 Participants age Groups

Table 4.2: Frequencies and Percentages of Male and Female Based on Age Groups

	Age group							
	20-30 years		31-40 years		41 years and above		Total	
Sex	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Male	43	11.7	146	37.1	98	26.7	297	78.2
Female	15	4.1	20	8.4	34	9.3	69	21.8
Total	**58**	**15.8**	**166**	**45.5**	**132**	**36.0**	**366**	**100**

Table 4.2.2 revealed that 58 (16.8%) of the respondents fall between the age of 20 – 30 years, 167 (45.5%) of the respondents fell between the age bracket of 31 – 40 years while 132 (36.0%) of the respondents fell between the age bracket of 41 years and above.

4.2.3 Participants Qualifications

Table 4.3: Frequencies and Percentages of Male and Female Based on Qualifications

	Qualification							
	postgraduate		post secondary		SSCE and below		Total	
Sex	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Male	88	23.0	190	51.8	19	2.5	297	78.2
Female	18	4.9	45	15.3	6	1.6	69	22.8
Total	**96**	**26.2**	**235**	**58.9**	**15**	**4.1**	**366**	**100**

From Table 4.2.3 it was provided that 23.0% (88) of the male participants were having postgraduate certificates, 51.8% (190) obtained post secondary certificates, and 2.5% (9) were SSCE certificates and below holders. It was also provided that 4.9% (18) of the female participants were having postgraduate certificates, 15.3% (56) obtained post-secondary certificates, and 1.6% (6) were SSCE certificate and below holders.

4.3 Answering of Research Questions

6. **Research Question One:** What are the differences between male and female federal civil servantson the influence of employment on marital role performance of wives to their husbands?

Table 4.3: Influence of Employment on Wives' Marital Role Performance to their husbands

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Male	297	17.4042	3.83517	1.25274
Female	69	15.1602	4.42210	1.35609

The result in table 4.3 shows that husbands have a mean score of 17.4042, with the standard deviation 3.83517 with the standard error mean of 1.25274,while wives have a mean score of 15.1602 and standard deviation of 4.42210 and the standard error mean of 1.35609;which indicate that there are differences between the mean scores for male and female on the influence of employment on marital role performance of wives to their husbands among the staff of federal civil service in Zaria metropolis.

.**Research Question Two:** What are the differences between male and femaleFederal civil servantson the influence of employment on wives' role performancein relation to Child-bearing?

Table 4.4: Influence of Employment on Wives'Role Performance to Child-bearing

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Male	297	14.0909	5.63907	1.46653
Female	69	11.6263	4.03697	1.21954

The result in table 4.4 shows that male have a mean score of 14.0909 and standard deviation of 5.63907, with a standard error mean of 1.46653;while female have a mean score of 11.6263, and standard deviation of 4.03697,and a standard error mean of 1.21954. This indicates that there are differences between the mean scores for male and female on the influence of employment on wives role performance in relation to child-bearing among the staff of federal civil service in Zaria metropolis.

Research Question Three: What are the differencesbetween male and female on the influence of employment on wives role performance to their child up-bringing among Federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis?

Table 4.5: Influence of Employment on Wives' Role Performance to their child up-bringing

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Male	297	17.6195	4.27438	.24802
Female	69	17.1304	3.99232	.48062

The result in table 4.5 shows that male have a mean score of 17.6195 and standard deviation of 4.27438 with the standard error mean of .24802 while female have a mean score of 17.1304 and standard deviation of 3.99232 and the standard error mean of .48062 which indicate that there are differences between the mean scores for male and female on influence of employment on wives role performance to child up-bringing among federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis.

Research Question Four: What are the differencesbetween male and femaleFederal civil servantson the influence of employment on wives' role performance in relation to domestic obligations?

Table 4.6: Influence of Employment on Wives' Role Performance as per domestic chores

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Male	297	17.4040	3.83596	.22258
Female	69	16.2609	4.46770	.53785

The result in table 4.6 shows that male have a mean score of 17.4040 and standard deviation of 3.83596 with the standard error mean of .24802 while female have a mean score of 16.2609 and standard deviation of 4.46770 and the standard error mean of .53785 which indicate that there are differences between the mean scores for male and female on influence of employment on wives role performance in relation to domestic obligations among the staff of federal civil service in Zaria Metropolis.

Research Question Five: What are the differences between male and femaleFederal civil servants on the influence of employment on wives' role obligations in relation to In-laws?

Table 4.7: Influence of Employment on Wives Role Performance to her in-laws

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Male	297	14.0909	5.63907	.32721
Female	69	11.6232	4.03697	.48599

The result in table 4.7 shows that male have a mean score of 14.0909 and standard deviation of 5.63907 with the standard error mean of .32721 while female have a mean score of 11.6232 and standard deviation of 4.03697 and the standard error mean of .48599

which indicate that there are differences between the meanscores for male and female on influence of employment on wives role obligations in relation to In-laws among the staff of federal civil service in Zaria metropolis.

4.4 Hypotheses Testing

This section presents the result of the five (5) null hypotheses tested for the study. In testing the hypotheses, independent sample t-test was used. The summary of each of the hypotheses tested is presented in the following order.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference betweenmale and female federal civil servantson the influence employment on marital role performance of wives to their husbands..

The test instrument administered on respondents was used to obtain data for the studywhile paired sample t-test was used in testing the hypothesis. The Summary of data collected and analyzed in respect to hypothesis one is presented in Table 4.8

Table 4.8: Difference between male and female on Influence of Employment on Wives'Marital Role Performance of wives to their husbands.

Variable	N	Mean	Std	Df	α	t-cal	t-crit	P value.	Decision
Male	297	15.6700	4.25205	364	0.05	3.739	1.96	.0000	Rejected
Female	69	13.5072	4.64829						

Source: *Field Study Data 2015/2016 Academic Session.*

The table above shows the mean of 15.6700 for male while female havethe mean of 13.5072. The t-cal is 3.739 and t-crit is 1.96, while the p-value is .000 (P<0.005).The t-cal(3.739) is greater than t - cri (1.96) and the p- value (.000) is less than the level of

significance (0.05). From the male perspectiveit is evident that there is significant difference on the influence of employment on marital role performance of wives to their husbands. The null-hypothesis thus rejected, because there is significant difference on the influence of employment on wives' marital role performance to their husbands among federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis.This means that the male sees employment as affecting the role of women in relation to performing her duties to her husband.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between male and femaleFederal civil servants on the influence of employment on wives' marital role performance in relation to Child-bearing..

The test instrument administered on respondents was used to obtain data for the study while paired sample t-test was used in testing the hypothesis. The Summary of data collected and analyzed in respect to hypothesis two is presented in Table 4.9

Table 4.9 Influence of Employment on Wives' Marital Role Performance in Child - bearing

Variable	N	Mean	Std	Df	α	t-cal	t-crit	P value.	Decision
Male	297	14.0909	5.63907	364	0.05	3.435	1.96	.001	Rejected
Female	69	11.6232	4.03697						

Source: *Field Study Data 2015/2016 Academic Session*.

The table above shows the mean of 14.0909 for male while female havethe mean of 11.623,the t-cal is 3.435 and t-crit is 1.96, while the p-value is .001 (P<0.005). The t- cal (3.435) is greater than t - cri (1.96) and the p- value (.001) is less than the level of significance (0.05). It is evident that there issignificant difference on the influence of employment on marital role performance of wives in relation to child bearing amongfederal

civil servants in Zaria metropolis. The null-hypothesis is thus rejected. Therefore, there is significant difference on the influence of employment on marital role performance of wives in relation to child-bearingamong federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis.This means that the male sees employment as having negative influence on the female role performance in relation to her child-bearing..

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between male and female Federal civil servantson the influence of employment on wives role performance to their child up-bringing.

The test instrument administered on respondents was used to obtain data for the studywhile paired sample t-test was used in testing the hypothesis. The Summary of data collected and analyzed in respect to hypothesis one is presented in Table 4.10

Table 4.10: Difference between male and female on the Influence of Employment on Marital Role Performance of women in relation to child up-bringing.

Variable	N	Mean	Std	Df	α	t-cal	t-crit	P value.	Decision
Male	297	17.8283	4.32632	364	0.05	1.544	1.96	.1240	Retained
Female	69	16.9420	4.16174						

Source: *Field Study Data 2015/2016 Academic Session*.

The table above shows the mean of 17.8283 for male while female havethe mean of 16.9420. The t-cal is 1.544 and t-crit is 1.96, while the p-value is .1240 (P>0.005). Thus the t- cal (1.544) is less than t - cri (1.96) and the p- value (.1240) is greater than the level of significance (0.05).It is evident that there isno significant difference between male and femaleon the influence of employment on marital role performance of wives in child up-bringing among the staff of federal civil service. The null-hypothesis is thus retained.

Because there is no significant difference between male and female on the influence of employment on marital role performance of wives in child up-bringing among the staff of federal civil service in Zaria metropolis

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between male and femaleFederal civil servantson the **i**nfluence of employment on marital role performancein relation to domestic obligation.

The test instrument administered on respondents was used to obtain data for the studywhile paired sample t-test was used in testing the hypothesis. The Summary of data collected and analyzed in respect to hypothesis one is presented in Table 4.11

Table 4.11: Difference between male and female on the Influence of Employment onMarital Role Performance of women in relation to domestic obligations

Variable	N	Mean	Std	Df	α	t-cal	t-crit	P value.	Decision
Male	297	17.404	3.83596	364	0.05	2.159	1.96	.031	Retained
Female	69	16.2609	4.46770						

Source: *Field Study Data 2015/2016 Academic Session*.

The table above shows the mean of 17.404 for Male while Female havethe mean of 16.2609. The t-cal is 2.159 and t-crit is 1.96, while the p-value is .031 (P<0.005). Since the t- cal (2.159) is greater than t - cri (1.96) and the p- value (.031) is less than the level of significance (0.05). It means there is nosignificant difference on the influence of employment onmarital role performance of women in relation to domestic obligations among the staff of federal civil service in Zaria metropolis. The null-hypothesis is thus retained, because there is no significant difference on the influence of employment on

marital role performance of women in relation to domestic obligations among federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between male and femaleFederal civil servantson the influence of employment on wives marital role performance in relation to in-laws.

The test instrument administered on respondents was used to obtain data for the studywhile paired sample t-test was used in testing the hypothesis. The Summary of data collected and analyzed in respect to hypothesis one is presented in Table 4.12

Table 4.12: Difference between male and female on the Influence of Employment on Wives Marital Role Performance in relation to their in-laws

Variable	N	Mean	Std	Df	α	t-cal	t-crit	P value.	Decision
Male	297	17.6195	4.27438	364	0.05	.867	1.96	.387	Retained
Female	69	17.1304	4.99232						

Source: *Field Study Data 2015/2016 Academic Session*.

The table above shows the mean of 17.6195for Male while Female havethe mean of 17.1304. The t-cal is .867 and t-crit is 1.96, while the p-value is .387 (P>0.005). since the t-cal (.867) is less than t - cri (1.96) and the p- value (.387) is greater than the level of significance (0.05). It is evident there isno significant difference on the influence of employment on wives marital role performance to their in-laws among the staff of federal civil service in Zaria metropolis. The null-hypothesis is thus retained, because there is no significant difference on the influence of employment on wives marital role performance in relation to in-laws among the staff of federal civil service in Zaria metropolis. This means

that the male sees employment as having negative influence on the female role obligations to her in-laws.

4.5 Summary of the Major Findings

Based on the results, the following major findings were derived.

1. Significant difference exists in the influence of employment on the marital role performance of wives to their husbands.
2. There is significant differenceon the influence of employment on the marital role performance of wives in relation to child-bearing.
3. Nosignificant difference exists in the influence of employment on the marital role performance of wives to child up-bringing.
4. Hypothesis 4, revealed that no significant difference exists in the influence of employment on the wives' marital role performance in relation to domestic obligations.

5 There is no significant difference on the influence of employment on wives marital role performance in relation to in-laws among federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis.

4.6 Discussions

From the findings of this study, it is shown that there issignificant difference in the influence of employment on the marital role performance of wives to their husbands. This owes to the fact that the P value calculated was found to be less than the level of significance (0.05). What is implied, therefore, is that the employment of husbands and wives has influence on the marital role performance of wives to their husbands. Therefore, the null hypothesis I which stated thatemployment does not influence the marital role performance of wives to their husbands is rejected. This also translates into meaning that employment influences the marital role performance of wives to their husbands, making it impossible for the wives to fully commit themselves to their marital roles. This is foregrounded in the views of Hofferth and Moore (1980) who state that men are increasingly required to combine their work and family lives, with their wives employed outside the home with greater frequency. Therefore, the onus for home chores and child care then fall on husbands who need to strike a balance between meeting these responsibilities with the demand of their work. Women's employment status in the home and the family empowers them with privileges that put them in the position to revert the status quo to her advantage as against the prescriptions made by society. According to Delphy (1984) and Sercombe (1975), as a married woman, she owes it to her husband to prepare his meal; and the same is true for making bed in readiness for sleep, helping with children, especially the very young ones or even ironing clothes; especially her husband's clothes and be at his service behind closed doors.

However, with women's employment engendering a reversal of roles, hence the limitations societal obligations put on them, as to what they can do and how much they can

achieve are transcended. There is the creation of a platform for the occurrence of conflict in the home. According to the conflict theory propounded by Karl Marx (1844), the conflict of interest that exists in society, in all groups and between members of group and between principles, extends to the family in all its forms. This theory delineates a social structure prone to change and the continuum that two people will disagree, perhaps, to the point of changing the personal relationship system, since the self-interested individual operates to maximize his/her own rewards in a competitive world, and human beings are essentially self-oriented, and inclined to pursue their own interests at the expense of others.

The findings also revealed that there is a significant difference on the influence employment has on the marital role performance of wives in terms of child-bearing, in that the calculated P value was found to be less than the level of significance (0.05). The implication of this is grounded in the acceptance that employment has a significant influence on the marital role performance of wives in relation to child bearing; hence, rejecting the null hypothesis 2 which stated that employment has no influence on the marital role performance of wives in terms of childbearing. What this indicates, therefore, is the idea that with women gainfully employed as wives, their marital role performance with regard to child bearing is affected. Corroborating this view, VandeKaa (1987; 1988) and Lesthaeghe (1991; 1992) state that the fall in the propensity to have children results from the rising economic autonomy of women and their strive for self-fulfillment, among other things. According to Becker (1993), referring to the high opportunity costs of motherhood, particularly for highly-skilled women, he asserts that the reason for the falling propensity to have children is attributed to the rise of women's educational and labour-market attachment.

In Maslow's theory of Motivation, (1954) there is the representation of the individual's needs in the order of hierarchy and priority: psychological needs, safety needs, love and belonging needs, self-esteem needs, and self actualization. Women have needs that also border on self actualization and accomplishment, and these needs have to be met. Therefore, the job she has taken gives her the opportunity to meet these needs, and by so doing, she finds fulfillment in being economically independent, even if it is at the expense of being found wanting in her marital role performance in terms of child bearing. Essentially, the purpose the woman pursues in her effort to achieve self actualization and accomplishment puts her marital role performance, in terms of childbearing, in jeopardy; since it now takes a subordinate position in the marriage equation.

The findings of this study also showed that there was no significant difference in the influence employment has on the marital role performance of wives on child up-bringing, since the calculated P value was found to be greater than the level of significance (0.05). The implication of this is that employment has no influence on the marital role performance of wives in terms of child upbringing. Therefore, the null hypothesis 3 which stated that there is no significant difference in the influence of employment on the child upbringing by women is retained. In this regard, therefore, the view of Shaw (1978) is made relevant. According to her, the woman's responsibilities outside the home does not preclude her from shouldering the responsibilities that are incumbent upon her in the home; since it does not translate into a major re-allocation of responsibilities in the family. In her view, with the rising cost of household help, the option to pay another person to take the responsibility of caring for the children is beyond the means of the vast majority of women. Therefore, with regard to the children, the working wife is left to her devices to cope as a

wage or salary earner and unpaid house worker.According to Magubela (2014), a good mother is seen as a woman who cares for her children's physical and emotional needs. Children expect their mothers to be able to help out with their homework and assignment. Nwosuji (2015) asserts that what the children eat and how it is prepared is the responsibility of their mothers. In his view, this is very important because health is wealth.

The finding of this study also revealed that there is no significant difference in the influence employment has on the marital role performance of wives with reference to domestic obligations, given that the calculated P value was found to be greater than the level of significance (0.05). What this translates into, therefore, is that the employment of wives influences their marital role performance with respect to domestic obligations; hence, indicative of the fact that the hypothesis 4 which stated that there is no significant difference in the influence of employment on women's domestic obligation is rejected. Combining employment with taking responsibility for household chores as married employed women ascribes multiple tasks to them and jeopardizes their health, as stated by Gang-Hua and Frisbie (2009). According to them, in their study they found that there are certain interacting effects between marriage, employment, motherhood and filal roles. In their view, the complementary health effects between employment and motherhood, and the impact of multiple roles on health are subjected to change according to women's age, the nature of family roles, and the type of employment. Therefore, they emphasize that to delineate the complicated relationships between the social roles and women's health, more specific characteristics of roles occupied by women need to be taken into account.

Therefore, combining both the work place and home takes a toll on the emotional and mental well-being of women; hence, the focus on the ways in which the division of

household labour helps to explain the relationship between wives' employment and marital quality. Henno and Rosenfield (1994), in their study, state that individuals will have higher levels of marital satisfaction if they participate less in housework and if their spouses share in the division of household labour. Ross, Mirowsky and Huber (1983) in their study found that wives who are primarily responsible for housework are more depressed than those whose husbands participate in housework. Pina and Bengston (1993) found that wives' perception of the amount of support and help they receive from their husband is more consequential in determining their marital happiness than the actual division of labour. However, Benin and Agostinelli (1998) argue that even when men increase the number of hours they spend in household labour, women may continue to be dissatisfied if tasks are sex segregated. Therefore, the fulcrum underscores the imperative for the efforts of wives in relation to domestic obligations to be complemented by their husbands. Which means that the male sees employment as having negative influence on the female role performance in relation to her domestic obligations.

Lastly, the findings of this study revealed that there is no significant difference in the influence of employmenton the marital role performance of wives to their in-laws, given that the calculated P value was also found to beis greater than the level of significance (0 less than the level of significance (0.05). What this implies, therefore, is that employment does not have a significant influence on the marital role performance of wives in relation to their in-laws. This,foregrounds the position espoused by the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference in the influence of employment on women to the in-lawsandis retained. Women are naturally expected to use the available resources effectively to manage the home, to co-ordinate and carry everybody along, with

regard to giving everyone in the home a sense of belonging especially in the African culture where the in-laws are part and parcel of the home. According to Mott and Moore (1978), that women in record numbers are working, and combine work with taking care of the extended family is not a new phenomenon, since women know that the survival of the family is dependent on women returning to the home from work to become house wives and mothers.

Gang-Hua and Frisbie (2009) in their studyusing a national representative sample of Taiwanese women, age 18 to 64, found that certain social roles are more relevant to health status for women at specific stages of the life course. What this findings imply, therefore, is the notion that the multiple roles women ascribe to themselves, including caring for in-laws who themselves are not direct family members is a challenge or responsibility that is expected of them, a responsibility they know they have to be able to handle even as working married women. Besides, their ability to manage this responsibility effectively is helpful for their psychological well being, in that emotional satisfaction and fulfillment are derived from the thought of knowing that their in-laws do not find them wanting or short of what is expected of them.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The study is to find out the influence of employment on marital role performance of women among Federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis. The final chapter was dedicated to the following subheadings:

5.2 Summary

The aim of this study was to find out the influence of wives employment on marital role performance of women among Federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis. This work was summarized chapter by chapter accordingly:

Chapter one provided bases for the research focusing on the influence of wives employment on marital role performance among Federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis. Five research questions and null hypotheses were formulated and investigated, and the main significance of the study was to benefit the students, teachers, parents, researchers and so on. The scope of the study was married civil services in Zaria metropolis.

Chapter two contained a review of related literature on the influence of wives employment on marital role performance among couples in Zaria metropolis: Concept of women employment; Wives Roles to their Husbands; Women's Roles to their Children; Role of Wives to their Families; Employment and marital quality of working women; Employment and child education of working married women; Employment and family income of working married women; Employment and mental health of working married women; Employment and Childbearing among married women; Theoretical Framework; and Review of Empirical Studies.

Chapter three contained the methodology used in the study. The research design adopted for this study is descriptive survey. The population of this studycomprised working married women in some selected federal government institutions in Zaria. The sample for the study was 400 four hundred out of which the three hundred and twenty (320) husband and (80) eighty wives'. The questionnaires contain items that elicited responses on the influences of employment on marital role performance among married women. The supervisors of this research work and a statistician validated the instrument. A pilot study was conducted using test re-test technique with twenty (20) respondents. The Cronbach's alpha method was used with the help of a statistical package (SPSS) to establish the reliability coefficient of the test-retest data derived from the research instrument. Frequencies and percentages were used to analyze the demographic data of the respondents while mean and standard deviation were used to provide answers to the research questions. Independent sample t-test was used to test the five (5) hypotheses formulated for the study.

Chapter four constituted the following sub-headings: Data presentation; results of the data collected from the sample students were computed, the instruments used and the maximum obtainable scores were indicated. Result analysis; each of the five research questions and null hypotheses were stated and answered using a statistical table that follows it. Summary of the major findings; the major findings were presented based on the results obtained after testing each of the null hypotheses. Discussion; results from the study were compared with other similar studies conducted to show how they corroborate.

5.3 Contribution to Knowledge

The study established that:

1. There is influence of employment on the marital role performance of wives to their husbands.
2. There is influence of employment on marital role performance of wives in relation to child-bearing.
3. There is no influence of employment on the marital role performance of women totheir children up-bringing.
4. There is no influence of employment on the wives' marital role performance in relation to domestic obligations.

5 There is no influence of employment on wives marital role performance in relation to in-laws among federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis

5.4 Conclusions

The findings of this study led to the following conclusions.

1. There is significant difference in the perception of couples (husband and wives) on influence of employment on marital roles performance of women among federal civil services in Zaria metropolis.
2. There is significant difference in the perception of husbands and wives on influence of wives' employment on child bearing among federal civil services in Zaria metropolis.
3. There is no significant difference in the perception of husbands and wives on influence of wives' employment on child upbringing among Federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis.

4. There is no significant difference in the perception for male and female on influence of employment on role domestic obligations among civil services in Zaria metropolis.
5. There is no significant difference in the perception of male and female on the influence of employment on marital role performance to In-laws among Federal civil servants in Zaria metropolis.

5.5 Recommendations

Based on the findings from the study, the following recommendations were proffered:

1. Working married women should prioritise their schedule of duties, since the potentiality exists for them to have their husbands complement their effort with their roles to the family. There is need for better understanding.
2. Parents should adopt a family planning system that suits the purpose and interest of the family; and they should only have the number of children that can be adequately catered for since it is apparent that besides caring for the children mothers/wives have to engage in any form of work that will reposition them to contribute economically to the upkeep of the family.
3. The future of any nation is depended on the moral, intellectual, economic and spiritual strength of her youth. At childhood, children are emotionally and physically attached to their mothers; and there is so much that can be achieved if mothers create more time for their children. This study therefore recommends that the need for married working women to always be at the service of their children should be re-emphasized through a sensitization process or workshop organised by the child welfare department in

collaboration with other stakeholders. This, it is hoped, will keep them on their toes, with regard to the up-bringing of their children.

4. Husbands should appreciate the effort women make at contributing to the family upkeep by working, through complementing their effort at taking care of domestic chores. Husbands should help out with domestic chores and this will help in cementing the relationship between the husbands and their wives.

5. Women and their in-laws should go into a consensus on the definitive role reach will

play to promote understanding and togetherness; in the believe that this will create an enabling environment to establish a good rapport within the family. This, no doubt, will foster peace and unity that will permeate the society as a whole.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

1. Perception of couples on marital role performance among couples in Zaria metropolis.
2. Assessment of couple's perception on marital role performance among civil services in Zaria metropolis.
3. Attitude of civil services on marital role performance among couples in Zaria metropolis.

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APPENDIX 1

PERCEPTION OF EMPLOYMENT OF WIVES MARITAL ROLE PERFORMANCE QUESTIONNAIRE (PEWMRPQ)

This questionnaire is designed to find out the influence of your job/ your wife's job on your role/ her role as a married woman. Please kindly respond by ticking (√) the one that applies to you. This research is for academic purpose only, therefore information given by you will remain confidential.

Section A. Demographic data

Gender M F

Age range 20 - 30 ( ) 31 - 40 ( ) 41 – and above ( )

Educational Qualification : PhD( )Masters( )B.Ed, BSc., B.A( )N. C. E/Diploma ( ) Secondary()

How long have you been in civil service? 01 – 10,( ) 11 – 20,( ) 21 – 30,( ) 31 and above( )

Number of children

Section B.

Statements: Below is a list of statements dealing with your role as a working married woman, which you may agree or disagree with. Please kindly respond by ticking (√) to show the extent you agree or disagree with the statements.

Keys:

SA = strongly agree

A = Agree

D = Disagree

SD = strongly disagree

For Women

S/n	Statements: **WIFEROLES TO THE HUSBAND**	SA	A	D	SD
1	My job does not give me time to go out with my husband for social functions.				
2	Because I work, there is enough income to supplement my husband's income to take care of all our responsibilities.				
3	My house help does all domestic chores in the family.				
4	My job exposes me to the risk of infidelity.				
5	After work, I come home too tired to give my husband needed attention.				
6	Closing late from work affects my duty (such as love, care, concern and marital commitment) to my husband.				
	WOMEN'S ROLES IN TERMS OF CHILD-BEARING				
7	The demand of my job has made me not to have the desired number of children.				
8	My job made me have delayed child birth.				
9	I have had miscarriage(s) due to the stressful nature of my work.				
10	The stress of the job affects my interest in childbearing.				
11	Not having a facility (creche) for nursing mothers to keep their babies after maternity leave discourages me from having more children.				
12	The pressure of work discourages me from having more children.				
	MOTHER'S ROLES TO CHILD UP-BRINGING				
13	My work has enabled me to contribute to my children's educational needs.				
14	I hardly have time to look after my children's academic work.				
15	My job has enabled me to contribute to my children's financial needs.				
16	My work has enabled me to contribute to my children's social needs.				

17	My job has helped me to build confidence in my children to enable them to be able to face the challenges at home and in the school.				
18	My older children bully the younger ones because I am not always at home to direct them.				
	WOMENROLE PERFORMANCE AS PER DOMESTIC OBLIGATIONS				
19	My contribution to the upkeep of my family is important.				
20	House help is of paramount importance to any working married woman.				
21	The presence of in-laws who help me in the house has disrupted the peaceful atmosphere in my home.				
22	My house is always dirty and unkempt because am not always at home to attend to my house chores.				
23	I have to strike a balance between keeping my job and taking care of my family				
24	My family appreciate my financial contribution.				
	WIVES ROLE PERFORMANCE TO IN-LAWS				
25	I hardly have time to visit my in-laws because of the nature of my job.				
26	My job enables me to show hospitality to my relations.				
27	It is easier for working married women to cater financially for their family members instead of depending on their husbands.				
28	I hardly attend social functions organized by my in-laws as a result of my work.				
29	My status in my family has been upgraded because of my job.				
30	My in-laws love me greatly because am always there for them in times of need.				

Source: The questionnaire was developed by the researcher after extensive literature review.

For Men

S/N	STATEMENTS: WIFEROLES TO THE HUSBAND	SA	A	D	SD
1	My wife's job does not give her time to go out with me for social functions.				
2	Because she works, there is enough income to supplement my income to take care of all our responsibilities.				
3	My house help does all domestic chores in the family.				
4	My wife's job exposes her to the risk of infidelity.				
5	After work, shecomes home too tired to give me needed attention.				
6	Closing late from work affects her duty (such as love, care, concern and marital commitment) to me and the children..				
	WOMEN'S ROLES IN TERMS OF CHILD-BEARING				
7	The demand of her job has made me not to have the desired number of children I wanted from her..				
8	Her job made her have delayed child birth.				
9	She has had miscarriage(s) due to the stressful nature of her work.				
10	The stress of the job affects her interest in childbearing.				
11	Not having a facility (creche) for nursing mothers to keep their babies after maternity leave discourages my wife from having more children.				
12	The pressure from work discourages my wife from having more children.				
	MOTHERS' ROLES TO CHILD UP-BRINGING				
13	My wife's work has enabled her to contribute to my children's educational needs.				
14	She hardly have time to look at my children's academic work.				
15	My wife's job has enabled her to contribute to my children's financial needs.				

16	My wife's work has enabled her to contribute to my children's social needs.				
17	Her job has helped us to build confidence in our children to face the challenges at home and in the school.				
18	My older children bully the younger ones because my wife is not always at home to direct them.				
	WOMEN ROLE PERFORMANCE AS PER DOMESTIC OBLIGATIONS				
19	Her contribution to the upkeep of the family is appreciated				
20	House help is of paramount importance to any working married woman.				
21	The presence of in-laws who help in the house has disrupted the peaceful atmosphere in my home.				
22	My house is always dirty and unkempt because she is not always at home to attend to the house chores.				
23	She has to strike a balance between keeping her job and taking care of the family				
24	I appreciate her financial contribution to the house.				
	WIVES ROLE PERFORMANCE TO IN-LAWS				
25	She hardly have time to visit my relations because of the nature of her job.				
26	My wife's job enables her to show hospitality to my relations.				
27	It is easier for working married women to cater financially for their family members instead of depending on their husbands.				
28	She hardly attends social functions organized by my people as a result of her work.				
29	Her status in the family has been upgraded because of her job.				
30	My relations love her greatly because she is always there for them in times of need.				

Source: The questionnairewasdeveloped by the researcher after extensive literature review.

Appendix B

```
GLM cmrolespercupbringdomchoreschildbearinlaws BY sex
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /PRINT=DESCRIPTIVE ETASQ PARAMETER HOMOGENEITY
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN= sex.
```

General Linear Model

[DataSet1] C:\Users\umar\Documents\Madam Ngozi's Coded Data MANOVA.sav

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Sex	1	Males	247
	2	Females	70

Descriptive Statistics

	Sex	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
couples marital roles performance	1 males	14.14	2.753	247
	2 females	15.96	3.411	70
	Total	14.54	3.001	317
child up bringing	1 males	12.73	2.443	247
	2 females	12.57	2.872	70
	Total	12.70	2.540	317
domestic chores	1 males	13.14	2.441	247
	2 females	13.76	3.528	70
	Total	13.28	2.724	317
child bearing	1 males	13.61	2.501	247
	2 females	14.24	2.936	70
	Total	13.75	2.612	317
in-laws	1 males	14.79	5.357	247
	2 females	11.81	3.965	70
	Total	14.13	5.225	317

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices[a]

Box's M	44.519
F	2.886
df1	15
df2	64795.897
Sig.	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + sex

Multivariate Tests[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.986	4439.385[b]	5.000	311.000	.000	.986
	Wilks' Lambda	.014	4439.385[b]	5.000	311.000	.000	.986
	Hotelling's Trace	71.373	4439.385[b]	5.000	311.000	.000	.986
	Roy's Largest Root	71.373	4439.385[b]	5.000	311.000	.000	.986
Sex	Pillai's Trace	.111	7.792[b]	5.000	311.000	.000	.111
	Wilks' Lambda	.889	7.792[b]	5.000	311.000	.000	.111
	Hotelling's Trace	.125	7.792[b]	5.000	311.000	.000	.111
	Roy's Largest Root	.125	7.792[b]	5.000	311.000	.000	.111

a. Design: Intercept + sex

b. Exact statistic

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
couples marital roles performance	2.593	1	315	.108
child up bringing	4.010	1	315	.046
domestic chores	20.072	1	315	.000
child bearing	6.483	1	315	.011
in-laws	17.075	1	315	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + sex

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	couples marital roles performance	179.763[a]	1	179.763	21.233	.000	.063
	child up bringing	1.420[b]	1	1.420	.220	.640	.001
	domestic chores	20.659[c]	1	20.659	2.799	.095	.009
	child bearing	22.032[d]	1	22.032	3.253	.072	.010
	in-laws	482.797[e]	1	482.797	18.675	.000	.056
Intercept	couples marital roles performance	49412.331	1	49412.331	5836.295	.000	.949
	child up bringing	34923.818	1	34923.818	5399.246	.000	.945
	domestic chores	39464.167	1	39464.167	5346.961	.000	.944
	child bearing	42304.897	1	42304.897	6245.280	.000	.952
	in-laws	38603.062	1	38603.062	1493.186	.000	.826
Sex	couples marital roles performance	179.763	1	179.763	21.233	.000	.063
	child up bringing	1.420	1	1.420	.220	.640	.001
	domestic chores	20.659	1	20.659	2.799	.095	.009
	child bearing	22.032	1	22.032	3.253	.072	.010
	in-laws	482.797	1	482.797	18.675	.000	.056
Error	couples marital roles performance	2666.912	315	8.466			
	child up bringing	2037.507	315	6.468			
	domestic chores	2324.912	315	7.381			
	child bearing	2133.778	315	6.774			
	in-laws	8143.638	315	25.853			
Total	couples marital roles performance	69888.000	317				
	child up bringing	53145.000	317				
	domestic chores	58231.000	317				
	child bearing	62068.000	317				
	in-laws	71940.000	317				
Corrected Total	couples marital roles performance	2846.675	316				
	child up bringing	2038.927	316				
	domestic chores	2345.571	316				
	child bearing	2155.811	316				
	in-laws	8626.435	316				

a. R Squared = .063 (Adjusted R Squared = .060)

b. R Squared = .001 (Adjusted R Squared = -.002)

c. R Squared = .009 (Adjusted R Squared = .006)

d. R Squared = .010 (Adjusted R Squared = .007)

e. R Squared = .056 (Adjusted R Squared = .053)

Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Partial Eta Squared
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
couples marital roles performance	Intercept	15.957	.348	45.883	.000	15.273	16.641	.870
	[sex=1]	-1.815	.394	-4.608	.000	-2.591	-1.040	.063
	[sex=2]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
child up bringing	Intercept	12.571	.304	41.356	.000	11.973	13.170	.844
	[sex=1]	.161	.344	.469	.640	-.516	.839	.001
	[sex=2]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
domestic chores	Intercept	13.757	.325	42.367	.000	13.118	14.396	.851
	[sex=1]	-.615	.368	-1.673	.095	-1.339	.108	.009
	[sex=2]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
child bearing	Intercept	14.243	.311	45.785	.000	13.631	14.855	.869
	[sex=1]	-.636	.352	-1.803	.072	-1.329	.058	.010
	[sex=2]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
in-laws	Intercept	11.814	.608	19.440	.000	10.619	13.010	.545
	[sex=1]	2.975	.688	4.321	.000	1.621	4.330	.056
	[sex=2]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Estimated Marginal Means

sex

Dependent Variable	Sex	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
couples marital roles performance	1 males	14.142	.185	13.777	14.506
	2 females	15.957	.348	15.273	16.641
child up bringing	1 males	12.733	.162	12.414	13.051
	2 females	12.571	.304	11.973	13.170
domestic chores	1 males	13.142	.173	12.802	13.482
	2 females	13.757	.325	13.118	14.396
child bearing	1 males	13.607	.166	13.281	13.933
	2 females	14.243	.311	13.631	14.855
in-laws	1 males	14.789	.324	14.153	15.426
	2 females	11.814	.608	10.619	13.010

Appendix C

```
GLM cmrolespercupbringdomchoreschildbearinlaws BY agegroup
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /PRINT=DESCRIPTIVE ETASQ PARAMETER HOMOGENEITY
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN= agegroup.
```

General Linear Model

[DataSet2] C:\Users\umar\Documents\Madam Ngozi's Coded Data Husband's MANOVA.sav

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
age group	1	20-30	33
	2	31-40	116
	3	41 and above	98

Descriptive Statistics

	age group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
couples marital roles performance	1 20-30	14.39	2.384	33
	2 31-40	13.92	2.719	116
	3 41 and above	14.32	2.910	98
	Total	14.14	2.753	247
child up bringing	1 20-30	12.88	2.421	33
	2 31-40	12.72	2.302	116
	3 41 and above	12.70	2.629	98
	Total	12.73	2.443	247
domestic chores	1 20-30	13.21	2.088	33
	2 31-40	12.92	2.207	116
	3 41 and above	13.38	2.790	98
	Total	13.14	2.441	247
child bearing	1 20-30	14.00	1.601	33
	2 31-40	13.72	2.931	116
	3 41 and above	13.35	2.169	98
	Total	13.61	2.501	247
in-laws	1 20-30	15.91	4.216	33
	2 31-40	15.22	5.346	116
	3 41 and above	13.90	5.619	98
	Total	14.79	5.357	247

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices[a]

Box's M	68.667
F	2.193
df1	30
df2	32633.913
Sig.	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + agegroup

Multivariate Tests[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.990	4612.526[b]	5.000	240.000	.000	.990
	Wilks' Lambda	.010	4612.526[b]	5.000	240.000	.000	.990
	Hotelling's Trace	96.094	4612.526[b]	5.000	240.000	.000	.990
	Roy's Largest Root	96.094	4612.526[b]	5.000	240.000	.000	.990
Agegroup	Pillai's Trace	.045	1.115	10.000	482.000	.349	.023
	Wilks' Lambda	.955	1.115[b]	10.000	480.000	.349	.023
	Hotelling's Trace	.047	1.115	10.000	478.000	.349	.023
	Roy's Largest Root	.038	1.810[c]	5.000	241.000	.111	.036

a. Design: Intercept + agegroup

b. Exact statistic

c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
couples marital roles performance	.782	2	244	.459
child up bringing	.389	2	244	.678
domestic chores	2.830	2	244	.061
child bearing	1.270	2	244	.283
in-laws	4.440	2	244	.013

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + agegroup

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	couples marital roles performance	10.666[a]	2	5.333	.702	.497	.006
	child up bringing	.819[b]	2	.409	.068	.934	.001
	domestic chores	11.193[c]	2	5.596	.939	.393	.008
	child bearing	13.091[d]	2	6.545	1.047	.353	.009
	in-laws	141.173[e]	2	70.587	2.490	.085	.020
Intercept	couples marital roles performance	36996.269	1	36996.269	4870.624	.000	.952
	child up bringing	29856.138	1	29856.138	4964.001	.000	.953
	domestic chores	31778.441	1	31778.441	5329.727	.000	.956
	child bearing	34321.204	1	34321.204	5488.455	.000	.957
	in-laws	41276.178	1	41276.178	1455.849	.000	.856
Agegroup	couples marital roles performance	10.666	2	5.333	.702	.497	.006
	child up bringing	.819	2	.409	.068	.934	.001
	domestic chores	11.193	2	5.596	.939	.393	.008
	child bearing	13.091	2	6.545	1.047	.353	.009
	in-laws	141.173	2	70.587	2.490	.085	.020
Error	couples marital roles performance	1853.374	244	7.596			
	child up bringing	1467.546	244	6.015			
	domestic chores	1454.847	244	5.962			
	child bearing	1525.816	244	6.253			
	in-laws	6917.879	244	28.352			
Total	couples marital roles performance	51261.000	247				
	child up bringing	41513.000	247				
	domestic chores	44124.000	247				
	child bearing	47273.000	247				
	in-laws	61085.000	247				
Corrected Total	couples marital roles performance	1864.040	246				
	child up bringing	1468.364	246				
	domestic chores	1466.040	246				
	child bearing	1538.907	246				
	in-laws	7059.053	246				

a. R Squared = .006 (Adjusted R Squared = -.002)

b. R Squared = .001 (Adjusted R Squared = -.008)

c. R Squared = .008 (Adjusted R Squared = .000)

d. R Squared = .009 (Adjusted R Squared = .000)

e. R Squared = .020 (Adjusted R Squared = .012)

Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Partial Eta Squared
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
couples marital roles performance	Intercept	14.316	.278	51.423	.000	13.768	14.865	.916
	[agegroup=1]	.078	.555	.140	.889	-1.015	1.170	.000
	[agegroup=2]	-.394	.378	-1.042	.299	-1.139	.351	.004
	[agegroup=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
child up bringing	Intercept	12.704	.248	51.281	.000	12.216	13.192	.915
	[agegroup=1]	.175	.494	.354	.724	-.798	1.147	.001
	[agegroup=2]	.011	.336	.034	.973	-.651	.674	.000
	[agegroup=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
domestic chores	Intercept	13.378	.247	54.235	.000	12.892	13.863	.923
	[agegroup=1]	-.165	.491	-.337	.737	-1.133	.803	.000
	[agegroup=2]	-.455	.335	-1.359	.176	-1.115	.205	.008
	[agegroup=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
child bearing	Intercept	13.347	.253	52.837	.000	12.849	13.845	.920
	[agegroup=1]	.653	.503	1.298	.196	-.338	1.644	.007
	[agegroup=2]	.369	.343	1.074	.284	-.307	1.044	.005
	[agegroup=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
in-laws	Intercept	13.898	.538	25.839	.000	12.838	14.957	.732
	[agegroup=1]	2.011	1.072	1.877	.062	-.100	4.122	.014
	[agegroup=2]	1.326	.731	1.815	.071	-.113	2.765	.013
	[agegroup=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Appendix D

```
GLM cmrolespercupbringdomchoreschildbearinlaws BY agegroup
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /PRINT=DESCRIPTIVE ETASQ PARAMETER HOMOGENEITY
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN= agegroup.
```

General Linear Model

[DataSet1] C:\Users\umar\Documents\Madam Ngozi's Coded Data Wive'sMANOVA.sav

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
age group	1	20-30	15
	2	31-40	21
	3	41 and above	34

Descriptive Statistics

	age group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
couples marital roles performance	1 20-30	16.47	4.015	15
	2 31-40	15.67	3.469	21
	3 41 and above	15.91	3.166	34
	Total	15.96	3.411	70
child up bringing	1 20-30	14.27	3.305	15
	2 31-40	12.38	2.418	21
	3 41 and above	11.94	2.707	34
	Total	12.57	2.872	70
domestic chores	1 20-30	15.13	3.482	15
	2 31-40	13.95	4.248	21
	3 41 and above	13.03	2.918	34
	Total	13.76	3.528	70
child bearing	1 20-30	15.40	2.414	15
	2 31-40	13.48	3.459	21
	3 41 and above	14.21	2.706	34
	Total	14.24	2.936	70
in-laws	1 20-30	11.20	2.651	15
	2 31-40	11.95	4.466	21
	3 41 and above	12.00	4.192	34
	Total	11.81	3.965	70

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices[a]

Box's M	56.781
F	1.654
df1	30
df2	6997.536
Sig.	.014

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + agegroup

Multivariate Tests[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.985	814.462[b]	5.000	63.000	.000	.985
	Wilks' Lambda	.015	814.462[b]	5.000	63.000	.000	.985
	Hotelling's Trace	64.640	814.462[b]	5.000	63.000	.000	.985
	Roy's Largest Root	64.640	814.462[b]	5.000	63.000	.000	.985
agegroup	Pillai's Trace	.163	1.137	10.000	128.000	.340	.082
	Wilks' Lambda	.842	1.128[b]	10.000	126.000	.347	.082
	Hotelling's Trace	.180	1.119	10.000	124.000	.354	.083
	Roy's Largest Root	.129	1.657[c]	5.000	64.000	.158	.115

a. Design: Intercept + agegroup

b. Exact statistic

c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
couples marital roles performance	.306	2	67	.738
child up bringing	.285	2	67	.753
domestic chores	3.494	2	67	.036
child bearing	1.102	2	67	.338
in-laws	2.082	2	67	.133

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + agegroup

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	couples marital roles performance	5.736[a]	2	2.868	.241	.786	.007
	child up bringing	57.375[b]	2	28.687	3.756	.028	.101
	domestic chores	47.215[c]	2	23.608	1.949	.150	.055
	child bearing	32.475[d]	2	16.237	1.934	.152	.055
	in-laws	7.233[e]	2	3.617	.225	.799	.007
Intercept	couples marital roles performance	16063.827	1	16063.827	1350.180	.000	.953
	child up bringing	10362.709	1	10362.709	1356.672	.000	.953
	domestic chores	12343.180	1	12343.180	1018.896	.000	.938
	child bearing	12916.476	1	12916.476	1538.778	.000	.958
	in-laws	8599.245	1	8599.245	534.783	.000	.889
Agegroup	couples marital roles performance	5.736	2	2.868	.241	.786	.007
	child up bringing	57.375	2	28.687	3.756	.028	.101
	domestic chores	47.215	2	23.608	1.949	.150	.055
	child bearing	32.475	2	16.237	1.934	.152	.055
	in-laws	7.233	2	3.617	.225	.799	.007
Error	couples marital roles performance	797.135	67	11.898			
	child up bringing	511.768	67	7.638			
	domestic chores	811.656	67	12.114			
	child bearing	562.397	67	8.394			
	in-laws	1077.352	67	16.080			
Total	couples marital roles performance	18627.000	70				
	child up bringing	11632.000	70				
	domestic chores	14107.000	70				
	child bearing	14795.000	70				
	in-laws	10855.000	70				
Corrected Total	couples marital roles performance	802.871	69				
	child up bringing	569.143	69				
	domestic chores	858.871	69				
	child bearing	594.871	69				
	in-laws	1084.586	69				

a. R Squared = .007 (Adjusted R Squared = -.022)

b. R Squared = .101 (Adjusted R Squared = .074)

c. R Squared = .055 (Adjusted R Squared = .027)

d. R Squared = .055 (Adjusted R Squared = .026)

e. R Squared = .007 (Adjusted R Squared = -.023)

Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Partial Eta Squared
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
couples marital roles performance	Intercept	15.912	.592	26.899	.000	14.731	17.092	.915
	[agegroup=1]	.555	1.069	.519	.605	-1.579	2.689	.004
	[agegroup=2]	-.245	.957	-.256	.799	-2.156	1.666	.001
	[agegroup=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
child up bringing	Intercept	11.941	.474	25.193	.000	10.995	12.887	.905
	[agegroup=1]	2.325	.857	2.715	.008	.616	4.035	.099
	[agegroup=2]	.440	.767	.573	.568	-1.091	1.971	.005
	[agegroup=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
domestic chores	Intercept	13.029	.597	21.828	.000	11.838	14.221	.877
	[agegroup=1]	2.104	1.079	1.950	.055	-.049	4.257	.054
	[agegroup=2]	.923	.966	.955	.343	-1.005	2.851	.013
	[agegroup=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
child bearing	Intercept	14.206	.497	28.591	.000	13.214	15.198	.924
	[agegroup=1]	1.194	.898	1.330	.188	-.598	2.987	.026
	[agegroup=2]	-.730	.804	-.907	.367	-2.335	.875	.012
	[agegroup=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
in-laws	Intercept	12.000	.688	17.449	.000	10.627	13.373	.820
	[agegroup=1]	-.800	1.243	-.644	.522	-3.281	1.681	.006
	[agegroup=2]	-.048	1.113	-.043	.966	-2.269	2.174	.000
	[agegroup=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Appendix E

DATASET ACTIVATE DataSet3.

```
SAVE OUTFILE="C:\Users\umar\Documents\Madam Ngozi's Husbands MANOVA.sav"
 /COMPRESSED.
GLM cmrolespercupbringdomchoreschildbearinlaws BY qual
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /PRINT=DESCRIPTIVE ETASQ PARAMETER HOMOGENEITY
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN= qual.
```

General Linear Model

[DataSet3] C:\Users\umar\Documents\Madam Ngozi's Husbands MANOVA.sav

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Highest qualification	1	post graduate	78
	2	post secondary	160
	3	SSCE & below	9

Descriptive Statistics

	Highest qualification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
couples marital roles performance	1 post graduate	13.95	2.805	78
	2 post secondary	14.11	2.688	160
	3 SSCE & below	16.44	2.698	9
	Total	14.14	2.753	247
child up bringing	1 post graduate	12.77	2.716	78
	2 post secondary	12.59	2.241	160
	3 SSCE & below	15.00	2.550	9
	Total	12.73	2.443	247
domestic chores	1 post graduate	13.41	2.636	78
	2 post secondary	12.88	2.250	160
	3 SSCE & below	15.44	2.789	9
	Total	13.14	2.441	247
child bearing	1 post graduate	13.45	2.383	78
	2 post secondary	13.66	2.599	160
	3 SSCE & below	14.00	1.732	9
	Total	13.61	2.501	247
in-laws	1 post graduate	14.12	5.700	78
	2 post secondary	15.26	5.185	160
	3 SSCE & below	12.22	4.353	9
	Total	14.79	5.357	247

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices[a]

Box's M	45.225
F	1.289
df1	30
df2	1496.784
Sig.	.136

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + qual

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.974	1829.556[a]	5.000	240.000	.000	.974
	Wilks' Lambda	.026	1829.556[a]	5.000	240.000	.000	.974
	Hotelling's Trace	38.116	1829.556[a]	5.000	240.000	.000	.974
	Roy's Largest Root	38.116	1829.556[a]	5.000	240.000	.000	.974
qual	Pillai's Trace	.086	2.176	10.000	482.000	.018	.043
	Wilks' Lambda	.915	2.175[a]	10.000	480.000	.018	.043
	Hotelling's Trace	.091	2.174	10.000	478.000	.018	.043
	Roy's Largest Root	.064	3.094[b]	5.000	241.000	.010	.060

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept + qual

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
couples marital roles performance	.336	2	244	.715
child up bringing	.273	2	244	.761
domestic chores	.837	2	244	.434
child bearing	.679	2	244	.508
in-laws	1.423	2	244	.243

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal

across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + qual

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	couples marital roles performance	50.830[a]	2	25.415	3.420	.034	.027
	child up bringing	49.743[b]	2	24.872	4.278	.015	.034
	domestic chores	64.203[c]	2	32.101	5.587	.004	.044
	child bearing	3.837[d]	2	1.919	.305	.737	.002
	in-laws	130.561[e]	2	65.280	2.299	.103	.018
Intercept	couples marital roles performance	15211.039	1	15211.039	2046.918	.000	.893
	child up bringing	12510.719	1	12510.719	2151.819	.000	.898
	domestic chores	13380.457	1	13380.457	2328.965	.000	.905
	child bearing	12982.879	1	12982.879	2063.634	.000	.894
	in-laws	13293.496	1	13293.496	468.156	.000	.657
Qual	couples marital roles performance	50.830	2	25.415	3.420	.034	.027
	child up bringing	49.743	2	24.872	4.278	.015	.034
	domestic chores	64.203	2	32.101	5.587	.004	.044
	child bearing	3.837	2	1.919	.305	.737	.002
	in-laws	130.561	2	65.280	2.299	.103	.018
Error	couples marital roles performance	1813.211	244	7.431			
	child up bringing	1418.621	244	5.814			
	domestic chores	1401.838	244	5.745			
	child bearing	1535.070	244	6.291			
	in-laws	6928.492	244	28.395			
Total	couples marital roles performance	51261.000	247				
	child up bringing	41513.000	247				
	domestic chores	44124.000	247				
	child bearing	47273.000	247				
	in-laws	61085.000	247				
Corrected Total	couples marital roles performance	1864.040	246				
	child up bringing	1468.364	246				
	domestic chores	1466.040	246				
	child bearing	1538.907	246				
	in-laws	7059.053	246				

a. R Squared = .027 (Adjusted R Squared = .019)

b. R Squared = .034 (Adjusted R Squared = .026)

c. R Squared = .044 (Adjusted R Squared = .036)

d. R Squared = .002 (Adjusted R Squared = -.006)

e. R Squared = .018 (Adjusted R Squared = .010)

Parameter Estimates

						95% Confidence Interval		Partial Eta
Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Squared
couples marital roles performance	Intercept	16.444	.909	18.097	.000	14.655	18.234	.573
	[qual=1]	-2.496	.960	-2.601	.010	-4.386	-.605	.027
	[qual=2]	-2.338	.934	-2.504	.013	-4.178	-.499	.025
	[qual=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
child up bringing	Intercept	15.000	.804	18.663	.000	13.417	16.583	.588
	[qual=1]	-2.231	.849	-2.628	.009	-3.903	-.559	.028
	[qual=2]	-2.412	.826	-2.921	.004	-4.040	-.785	.034
	[qual=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
domestic chores	Intercept	15.444	.799	19.330	.000	13.871	17.018	.605
	[qual=1]	-2.034	.844	-2.411	.017	-3.696	-.372	.023
	[qual=2]	-2.563	.821	-3.122	.002	-4.181	-.946	.038
	[qual=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
child bearing	Intercept	14.000	.836	16.745	.000	12.353	15.647	.535
	[qual=1]	-.551	.883	-.624	.533	-2.291	1.188	.002
	[qual=2]	-.337	.859	-.393	.695	-2.030	1.355	.001
	[qual=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
in-laws	Intercept	12.222	1.776	6.881	.000	8.723	15.721	.163
	[qual=1]	1.893	1.876	1.009	.314	-1.802	5.588	.004
	[qual=2]	3.040	1.826	1.665	.097	-.556	6.636	.011
	[qual=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Appendix F

```
DATASET ACTIVATE DataSet1.
GLM cmrolespercupbringdomchoreschildbearinlaws BY qual
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /PRINT=DESCRIPTIVE ETASQ PARAMETER HOMOGENEITY
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN= qual.
```

General Linear Model

[DataSet1] C:\Users\umar\Documents\Madam Ngozi's Wives MANOVA.sav

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Highest qualification	1	post graduate	18
	2	post secondary	46
	3	SSCE & below	6

Descriptive Statistics

	Highest qualification	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
couples marital roles performance	1 post graduate	15.83	3.552	18
	2 post secondary	16.15	3.293	46
	3 SSCE & below	14.83	4.262	6
	Total	15.96	3.411	70
child up bringing	1 post graduate	12.78	2.184	18
	2 post secondary	12.41	3.095	46
	3 SSCE & below	13.17	3.251	6
	Total	12.57	2.872	70
domestic chores	1 post graduate	14.78	2.463	18
	2 post secondary	13.52	3.937	46
	3 SSCE & below	12.50	2.345	6
	Total	13.76	3.528	70
child bearing	1 post graduate	13.50	2.176	18
	2 post secondary	14.41	3.138	46
	3 SSCE & below	15.17	3.312	6
	Total	14.24	2.936	70
in-laws	1 post graduate	12.39	3.806	18
	2 post secondary	11.63	4.276	46
	3 SSCE & below	11.50	1.225	6
	Total	11.81	3.965	70

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices[a]

Box's M	32.841
F	.788
df1	30
df2	694.399
Sig.	.784

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + qual

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.973	455.101[a]	5.000	63.000	.000	.973
	Wilks' Lambda	.027	455.101[a]	5.000	63.000	.000	.973
	Hotelling's Trace	36.119	455.101[a]	5.000	63.000	.000	.973
	Roy's Largest Root	36.119	455.101[a]	5.000	63.000	.000	.973
qual	Pillai's Trace	.146	1.011	10.000	128.000	.438	.073
	Wilks' Lambda	.857	1.008[a]	10.000	126.000	.440	.074
	Hotelling's Trace	.162	1.006	10.000	124.000	.442	.075
	Roy's Largest Root	.129	1.657[b]	5.000	64.000	.158	.115

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept + qual

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
couples marital roles performance	.286	2	67	.752
child up bringing	1.160	2	67	.320
domestic chores	2.966	2	67	.058
child bearing	2.025	2	67	.140
in-laws	3.567	2	67	.034

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + qual

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	couples marital roles performance	9.603[a]	2	4.802	.406	.668	.012
	child up bringing	4.046[b]	2	2.023	.240	.787	.007
	domestic chores	30.782[c]	2	15.391	1.245	.294	.036
	child bearing	16.386[d]	2	8.193	.949	.392	.028
	in-laws	8.091[e]	2	4.045	.252	.778	.007
Intercept	couples marital roles performance	8985.045	1	8985.045	758.883	.000	.919
	child up bringing	6030.860	1	6030.860	715.042	.000	.914
	domestic chores	6823.214	1	6823.214	552.060	.000	.892
	child bearing	7607.194	1	7607.194	881.063	.000	.929
	in-laws	5171.403	1	5171.403	321.863	.000	.828
Qual	couples marital roles performance	9.603	2	4.802	.406	.668	.012
	child up bringing	4.046	2	2.023	.240	.787	.007
	domestic chores	30.782	2	15.391	1.245	.294	.036
	child bearing	16.386	2	8.193	.949	.392	.028
	in-laws	8.091	2	4.045	.252	.778	.007
Error	couples marital roles performance	793.268	67	11.840			
	child up bringing	565.097	67	8.434			
	domestic chores	828.089	67	12.360			
	child bearing	578.486	67	8.634			
	in-laws	1076.495	67	16.067			
Total	couples marital roles performance	18627.000	70				
	child up bringing	11632.000	70				
	domestic chores	14107.000	70				
	child bearing	14795.000	70				
	in-laws	10855.000	70				

Corrected Total	couples marital roles performance	802.871	69
	child up bringing	569.143	69
	domestic chores	858.871	69
	child bearing	594.871	69
	in-laws	1084.586	69

a. R Squared = .012 (Adjusted R Squared = -.018)

b. R Squared = .007 (Adjusted R Squared = -.023)

c. R Squared = .036 (Adjusted R Squared = .007)

d. R Squared = .028 (Adjusted R Squared = -.001)

e. R Squared = .007 (Adjusted R Squared = -.022)

Parameter Estimates

						95% Confidence Interval		Partial Eta
Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Squared
couples marital roles performance	Intercept	14.833	1.405	10.559	.000	12.029	17.637	.625
	[qual=1]	1.000	1.622	.617	.540	-2.238	4.238	.006
	[qual=2]	1.319	1.494	.883	.380	-1.662	4.300	.012
	[qual=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
child up bringing	Intercept	13.167	1.186	11.105	.000	10.800	15.533	.648
	[qual=1]	-.389	1.369	-.284	.777	-3.122	2.344	.001
	[qual=2]	-.754	1.261	-.598	.552	-3.270	1.763	.005
	[qual=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
domestic chores	Intercept	12.500	1.435	8.709	.000	9.635	15.365	.531
	[qual=1]	2.278	1.657	1.374	.174	-1.030	5.586	.027
	[qual=2]	1.022	1.526	.670	.505	-2.024	4.068	.007
	[qual=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
child bearing	Intercept	15.167	1.200	12.643	.000	12.772	17.561	.705
	[qual=1]	-1.667	1.385	-1.203	.233	-4.431	1.098	.021
	[qual=2]	-.754	1.275	-.591	.557	-3.299	1.792	.005
	[qual=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.
in-laws	Intercept	11.500	1.636	7.028	.000	8.234	14.766	.424
	[qual=1]	.889	1.890	.470	.640	-2.883	4.660	.003
	[qual=2]	.130	1.740	.075	.940	-3.342	3.603	.000
	[qual=3]	0[a]	.	.	.	.	.	.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.