

Chapter 1

Introduction

The goal of this research is to examine potential gender differences in spouses' supportiveness for active duty personnel's military careers and their satisfaction with the military lifestyle. Military spouses' supportiveness for their active duty spouses' careers has a documented role in the retention of military personnel and military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle has been found to influence their support for their active duty spouses' retention. Examining military husbands' views about their wives' military careers and the military lifestyle is therefore important to understanding the decisions women make about their careers in the military. This study also represents an opportunity to examine men's supportiveness for their spouses' careers when these careers are traditionally masculine-identified and subsequently cast the men into feminine, supportive roles within the family.

The transition to an All Volunteer Force (AVF) and the end of the draft in 1973 signaled a new era for United States Military. The military was transformed from a "bachelor force" to a professional military comprised of married personnel with families (Moelker and van der Kloet, 2003 p.204). According to Segal and Segal (2003), even though a majority of U.S. Military personnel had been married prior to 1973, the draft had ensured that a significant percentage of the military was composed of young, single men with frequent turnover. This effectively limited the proportion of the force that was married to the career-military personnel. However, the end of the draft meant a transition to a career oriented, professional force with reduced turnover. As individuals began remaining in the military for longer periods of time, the likelihood that they would marry and/or have children increased significantly (Segal and Segal, 2003) and as a result, the

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family became an increasingly important factor in the career decisions of military personnel.

Important changes to the roles available to women in the U.S. Military occurred as the result of the AVF. While women had been incorporated into the military with the Armed Services Integration Act of 1948, their presence had been limited to two percent of each Service and the roles that they could fulfill had been restricted (Sadler, 1999). Women became an important source of qualified personnel for the U.S. Military with the end of the draft and they were increasingly called upon to fill the shortfalls in personnel that had resulted. As a result, the number of women in the US Military increased dramatically, rising from 45,000 in 1972 to 119,000 by 1977 (Sadler, 1999). In the initial years following the creation of the AVF, many of the restrictions on women pursuing military careers were lifted. In particular, the Supreme Court threw out the different conditions for Service women and men to receive benefits for their spouses. Additionally, in 1975 the Secretary of Defense made pregnancy separations voluntary and ended discharges of female personnel who were parents. While the total number of military personnel has been reduced in recent years, the percentage of women in the US Military has continued to steadily increase (Sadler, 1999 p.42-45). As of May 1999, women comprised approximately 14 percent or 195,917 of the total personnel in the United States Armed Forces, approximately 1.37 million (MFRC, 1999).

The transition to an AVF also effected the representation of minorities in the United States Military as the percentage of the force that was comprised of minority personnel dramatically increased. According to Sadler (1999), racial and ethnic minority group members are overrepresented in the United States Military today compared to their representation in the total U.S. population. In 1972, 16 percent of U.S. military personnel were minorities (Sadler, 1999). The Military Family Resource Center (1999) reported

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that 34 percent of active duty military personnel were minorities in 1999. African Americans are the largest minority in the U.S. Military, comprising approximately 20 percent of the active duty force in 1999; Hispanic Americans are the second largest minority at 7.7 percent (MFRC, 1999).

According to Sadler (1999), the most substantial increase in the United States Military's minority population occurred among women. Minority women are significantly overrepresented in the military population. Minorities comprised 27 % of American women in 1997, yet data from the Department of Defense indicated that 43 % of women in the U.S. Military were minorities in that same year (Sadler, 1999). In contrast, 30 % of men in the U.S. Military were minorities, a figure that is only slightly higher than their representation among the total male U.S. population. The most dramatic increase was seen among African American women who represented 31 % of the women in the U.S. Military in 1997 but only 13 % of American population. Hispanic women were underrepresented as a percentage of the female military population in 1997 at 6 % compared to 10 % of the female population in the United States (Sadler, 1999)

Women in the U.S. Military are less likely to be married and have children than military men, 44 % compared to 56 %, according to information from the Military Family Resource Center (1999). Additionally, if married, women are more likely to be in a dual service marriage. According to Gaines et al (2000), 11 % of military personnel are married to another active duty military member including 6 % of men and 48 % of women. Despite the increased presence of women in the U.S. military, they still represent a small minority of the total active duty force and therefore, the majority of military families continue to include a military husband and a civilian wife (MFRC, 1999). As a result, there has been little scholarly research on changes to the structure of the military family. Additionally, despite the increase racial and ethnic diversity of the U.S. military,

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little scholarly research has focused on the implications of these changes for the military family and its adjustment to the military lifestyle (Segal and Segal, 2003).

According to Segal and Segal (2003), there are over 850,000 families in the United States military today including over 1.3 million children. Approximately 60 percent of military personnel are married with only the lowest enlisted grades having a majority of single personnel (Segal and Segal, 2003). While women continue to be a minority in the military, changes to the composition of the U.S. military force have increased the likelihood that the spouses of active duty personnel will be men. Fifty-two percent of women serving on active duty who are married are married to civilians. Unlike the majority of military wives, military husbands are more likely to have prior military experience (Segal and Segal, 2003). According to Segal and Segal (2003), civilian husbands particularly those with no previous military experience “are likely to experience special social and interpersonal difficulties resulting from their treatment by other members of the military community” (Segal and Segal, 2003 p.227). The traditional assumption that military spouses are female continues to be salient in the United States Military. As a result, military family policies and services “tend to be oriented toward traditional gender roles and traditional family structures” (Segal and Segal, 2003 227). Therefore, the civilian spouses of female military personnel continue to be “oddities” within the military community (Segal and Segal, 2003 p.227) and policies and services may not adequately take into consideration their specific needs and issues.

Since the creation of the All Volunteer Force in 1973, it has been necessary for the U.S. Military to devote significant resources to recruiting qualified personnel. This professionalization of the U.S. military has forced the military to compete with the civilian labor market for qualified personnel. The retention of military personnel has also become a major concern for the military as the loss of qualified personnel leads the

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military to devote more expenses to training and recruitment. Research has indicated that families and, specifically, spouses, have a significant amount of influence on the retention of active duty personnel (Bowen, 1989; Vernez, 1987; Szoc, 1984; Landau 1978). Active duty personnel are influenced by their family's satisfaction with the military lifestyle, and dissatisfaction may lead them to pursue employment in the civilian labor market (Segal and Segal, 2003). Therefore, ensuring that military families, particularly military spouses, are satisfied with the military lifestyle and supportive of their active duty spouses' careers has become an important concern of the military (Segal, 1989).

Moekler and van der Kloet (2003) contend that there is an inherent conflict between the military and the family because of the level of devotion each expects. The family and the military both rely on their members' commitment to the institution for survival and both place significant demands on their members. Given that the family has traditionally been more demanding for women than men, the conflict between work and family is likely to be more significant for women in the military (Segal, 1986). This increased conflict may impact the retention of women and their ability to combine a military career with family life. The willingness of their male spouses to accept the unique demands of the military lifestyle and to support their wives' military careers is likely to significantly impact the ability of women in the military to balance their careers with having a family.

A fundamental expectation of the military job is that service to the organization will take precedence over all other responsibilities for military personnel. As a result, any family responsibilities must, at times, be a secondary concern for military personnel and the spouse may have to take responsibility for the family's domestic concerns when necessary so their active duty spouse can focus on the job. The gendered division of labor

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is therefore an intrinsic element of the military community as the military spouse plays a critical but gendered role in the military by providing valuable services that ensure the ability of military personnel to focus on accomplishing their mission (Harrison, 1997).

Harrison and Laliberte (1997) indicate that a number of important elements are associated with the gendered expectations for military spouses. The military spouse, who is assumed to be a woman, is expected to handle all of the domestic and childcare responsibilities in the family while the military member is away from home. The military spouse is expected to avoid the potentially destabilizing impact of her spouse's absences on the family by not prioritizing her own full-time employment. Military spouses are also expected to be willing to relinquish their employment whenever the military member is posted to a new location. The military spouse is expected to perform the majority of the labor associated with relocating the family so that the military member can remain focused on their career without any disruptions. Instead of a career, the military spouse is expected to perform a variety of volunteer services in support of the military member's command. Finally, the spouses of senior military personnel are expected to fulfill a social role within the military structure (Harrison, 1997). The military spouse, therefore, plays both an important and a gendered role within the military organization. As a result, civilian male spouses may have more difficulty adjusting to the military spouse role and may not feel as included in the military way of life (Segal and Segal, 2003).

Data from the 1999 Survey of Spouses of Active Duty Personnel will be used to examine the differences in military husbands and military wives support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military and differences in their level of satisfaction with the military lifestyle. Other factors that will be considered for their potential influence on military spouses' support for their active duty spouses' retention include: age, race/ethnicity, education, prior military experience, employment considerations,

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children, the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse, the active duty spouse's rank and the military spouse's satisfaction with the military lifestyle. These same factors will also be considered for their influence on military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle.

The 1999 Survey of Spouses of Active Duty Personnel was conducted for the Office of the Secretary of Defense by the Defense Manpower Data Center. It includes a variety of information about the spouses of active duty personnel including their location, the frequency of relocations, the frequency of their spouse's deployments, their personal background, the family's composition, and their adjustment to the military lifestyle. The survey includes both joint military couples as well as civilian spouses. However, individuals who received the spouse survey could not also receive the member survey to avoid over sampling.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

According to Segal (1986), the United States military faces increased competition from the family for the devotion and focus of military personnel. Additionally, the intersection of the military and the family is evolving to reflect broader changes in society, including changes to the gendered division of labor. As more families include two breadwinners, the unique demands of the military career are resulting in increased stress for military personnel and their families. Social expectations are changing with regard to family members' responsibilities and their willingness to adapt their lives to the military lifestyle. Additionally, even though women remain a minority in the United States military (14%), they are an increasingly integral part of the United States military. While the percentage of female military personnel who are married (44 %) is somewhat lower than the percentage of males (55 %), it still represents a significant proportion of all female military personnel (MFRC, 1999). All of these changes have significantly impacted the military as an organization. By adapting to the changing needs of the military family, the military could increase military personnel and their families' commitment (Segal, 1986) but in order to successfully address these needs, the United States military must understand how the military family has changed.

Research has demonstrated that spouses play an important role in the career decisions of military personnel. It is, therefore, important to understand how the civilian spouses of female military personnel perceive the military lifestyle as well as their feelings about their spouses' military careers. However, the majority of the research on military spouses has focused on the civilian spouses of male military personnel or "military wives". Little research has been done to examine possible differences between male and female spouses and their support for their active duty spouses' careers.

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Understanding the role played by gender, in the lives of military personnel and their families, is integral to understanding any potential differences in men's and women's ability to fulfill the role of military spouse.

Gender, the Warrior Ideal and the Gendered Military

According to Risman (1998), gender is a deeply embedded “structural property of society” (p. 28) that functions as the foundation for social stratification and differential opportunities and constraints. It impacts society on multiple levels. Individually gender contributes to the development of gendered selves. Institutionally it determines what types of positions men and women normally occupy. Finally, it influences interactions as men and women experience different behavioral expectations even when they occupy the same positions structurally in society (Risman 1998).

West and Zimmerman (1987) describe gender as performative in nature as it influences expectations about individual behavior and organizes everyday social processes (Lorber 1994; Risman 1998). The centrality of gender in everyday life ensures that it (along with class and race) functions as a central mechanism for distributing resources and power in western society (Kimmel and Messner, 1998). Although gender differences do not necessitate inequality, given that patriarchal societies devalue all things female, doing gender functions to legitimate inequality. Male dominance is further justified by the acceptance of biological differences between males and females (West and Zimmerman, 1987; Risman, 1998). Therefore, while gender-based distinctions don't, in and of themselves, create inequality, the differential social values assigned to those characteristics associated with being male or female can, and frequently do, result in inequalities.

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Gender expectations should be perceived as “cognitive images” that shape behavior rather than as internalized femininity or masculinity (Scwalbe, 1987; Risman 1998, p.32). Once an individual is labeled as belonging to a specific gender, then they are held “morally accountable” for behaving accordingly and therefore when individuals do gender they are reacting to images to which they are held accountable (Risman, 1998 p.23). The expectations associated with a specific sex category provide the basis for our expectations about how others will behave and how we should behave towards them making it easier to negotiate everyday life. According to Risman (1998), “the cognitive images to which we must respond during interaction drive continued gender stratification even when individuals desire egalitarian relationships and the law mandates them” (p.33).

Gender relations vary depending upon the institutional context, and institutional attributes of gender influence the gendered behavior of individuals. Britton (2000) describes organizations as gender-typed if they are perceived as more suitable for those with either masculine or feminine characteristics. Herbert (1998) argues that the military as an occupation is itself gendered, implying that it has gendered significance both culturally and psychologically. The warrior ideal continues to be a central image of masculinity and war. Military life represents a major site for connecting hegemonic masculinity with the male body. As the ideological foundation of the military, combat, along with military service in general, has been an essential element in the creation and maintenance of the male identity and construction of self (Morgan, 1994 p.166).

The status of the United States military as a sociopolitical institution means that it both influences and is influenced by societal conceptions of gender. According to Bourq (2001), as one of the last remaining work environments in the United States with legal restrictions on the employment of women and open homosexuals, the military functions to institutionalize traditional perceptions of gender and sexuality. The restriction

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preventing women from serving in combat positions hinders their ability to achieve top leadership positions, functioning as a “brass ceiling” in the US military (Blacksmith, 1992 p.7). Given that military service, and particularly service in combat, continues to influence the attainment of political office in the United States, these restrictions continue to limit the access of women to political power. Therefore, the continued exclusion of women from combat positions establishes and maintains an environment where women are perceived as inferior; rather than as peers and/or professionals by co-workers (Bourg, 2001 p.334-339).

The patriarchal dichotomy between masculinity and femininity contributes to the maintenance of the warrior ideal in the military. The exaggerated version of masculinity found in the military, along with the polarization between masculinity and femininity, functions as a source of cohesion for men in the military (Harrison and Laliberte, 1997). The image of the strong male warrior is complimented by the image of the dependent and supportive female spouse (Enloe, 1993). The challenge presented by women in the role of warrior and men in the role of military spouse to the traditional gendered dichotomy has largely been ignored.

Even though the role of women has continued to expand, the United States military remains a gendered organization as those within the organization and in society continue to perceive it as ideologically and symbolically identified with masculinity (Britton, 2000). The perception of an organization as gendered implies that “advantage and disadvantage, exploitation and control, action and emotion, meaning and identity, are patterned through and in terms of a distinction between male and female, masculine and feminine” (Acker, 1990 p.146). When gendered logic pervades an organization’s assumptions as well as its policies, practices and roles, the organization becomes fundamentally gendered and even policies that may appear to be gender neutral occur in a

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gendered context and perpetuate inequality (Britton, 1997). Gender, therefore, remains a fundamental organizing principle of the United States military and the continuing assumption is that military personnel are male. Similarly, the assumption continues to be that military spouses are female. Even though the policies and practices of the U.S. military may appear to be gender neutral, these underlying assumptions ensure that they have a gendered impact. The failure of the military to take into account the changing roles of men and women in society may make it increasingly difficult for women to combine a career in the military with a family.

Organizations and the Family

The ideal worker has no competing responsibilities that would distract from their devotion to the job (Ferree, 1984). This ideal conforms to the traditional career trajectory of men based on the gendered division of labor, given the expectation that as the breadwinner in the family they have a spouse who is primarily a homemaker. In contrast, it is assumed that female workers who are married and/or have children will have competing legitimate demands outside of the workplace that make them unable to fulfill this level of devotion to the job (Acker, 1990). Such job expectations are examples of absorptive work organizations that “not only demand the maximum commitment of the worker and define the context for family life; but also implicate other family members and command their direct participation” (Kanter, 1977 p.26). The military is one such absorptive organization given the expectation that military personnel’s job will take precedence over all other personal responsibilities.

An assumption associated with the U.S. military’s expectation that personnel will place their job first is that military spouses will also be dedicated to the organization and therefore will be willing to handle all the family-related responsibilities when the military demands the total focus of their spouse (Harrison, 1997 p.34). The effectiveness of

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workers in absorptive organizations is directly connected to the efforts of the whole family, and their occupations dominate the life of all family members (Kanter, 1977 p.26). Papanek (1973) described the absorptive work organization's demands on spouses as a two-person career where the institution employing an individual expects the devotion of both that individual and their spouse. The spouse, typically the wife, is both a supporter of her husband's career and an unofficial co-worker or adjunct. In this role, the wife performs a range of "double-duty roles" to handle all the domestic responsibilities when her spouse is otherwise committed (Weinstein, 1997 p.8). This double duty role is particularly relevant to the military as military personnel are frequently absent from home, often for extended periods of time. The military spouse, therefore, by necessity, must be capable of handling all of the family responsibilities while their spouse is away fulfilling their military duties. In this supportive role, the military wife is expected to suppress her own goals in favor of those of her active duty spouse and his career (Weinstein, 1997 p.8).

Orthner, Bowen and Beare (1990) describe families subsumed by absorptive work organizations as "Organization Families" (p.16). These families are completely dominated by the demands placed on them by individuals and systems that are connected to them, not by friendship, voluntary association, or kinship, but instead by the work commitments of one family member and the obligations, both economic and social, associated with these commitments (Orthner, Bowen, and Beare, 1990). While there may be dual-earners in organization families, typically "a single employer dominates the lifestyle of the family" determining where the family lives, who they socialize with, the schools their children attend, the medical care available to them and the career options open to the spouse (Orthner, Bowen, and Beare, 1990 p.22). The military career dictates many aspects of life for members of the military family including when and where they

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move and through the determination of location, the military also dictates what opportunities are available to military families from the surrounding communities.

Families play an important role in the United States military today. According to Hosek et al (2002), almost one half of active duty personnel are married by the time they enter their fifth year of military service and approximately 75 percent are married by the time they reach their tenth year. As has been discussed, the military places significant demands on both its personnel and their families. It is therefore important to consider the impact of the military and its lifestyle on military spouses (Hosek et al, 2002) and also to understand how military spouses' influence their Active Duty spouse's careers in the U.S. military.

The Greedy Military Institution

Organizations that want the loyalty and total commitment of their members seek to neutralize competing loyalties. Greedy institutions are those that compete for the “commitment, loyalty, time and energy of their members” (Bourgeon and Segal, 1999 p. 633). Institutions are greedy when “they seek exclusive and undivided loyalty and they attempt to reduce the claims of competing roles and status positions on those they wish to encompass within their boundaries” (Coser, 1974 p.4). Greedy institutions encourage member individuals to minimize or weaken their ties outside the institution that would create competing demands and the social identity of members is concentrated within the institution (Coser, 1974). As a greedy institution, the military makes significantly greater demands on its personnel than civilian organizations. These include risk to life, need for geographic mobility, frequent separations from family for varying and potentially extended lengths of time, long and irregular work hours and normative demands on

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behavior outside the workplace (Segal, 1989 p.7). These demands impact not only the military member but also their family.

Both the military's perceived legitimate right to place military personnel at risk along with the frequent separations associated with military service have negative implications for military families. During wartime deployments families experience increased stress because of concerns about the safety of military personnel. Separations also result in discontinuities in the interactions between married couples. Adjustments are necessary during reunions to address changes to the individuals and the family dynamics during the separation (Segal, 1989).

The geographic mobility that is associated with military service also has negative implications for military families. Families of personnel sometimes reside in different locations due to the demands of the military career creating disruptions in family life. Geographic mobility also increases the family's separations from extended family and other sources of social support (Segal, 1989). Finally the geographic mobility associated with the military lifestyle has implications for military spouses' employment as it influences the employment opportunities available to them and their ability to have career continuity.

The 1985 Department of Defense survey of military spouses indicated that the most recent move experienced had significantly influenced their employment. Unemployment was found to be significantly higher for military versus civilian wives. Additionally, family income is generally lower for military families because of inadequate job opportunities for military spouses (Segal, 1989). For spouses who are career-oriented, the relocations associated with the military impact the progression of their own careers by interfering with seniority and limiting their job opportunities and Segal (1989) believes that these "employment problems create economic hardships for

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the family and problems of personal identity and worth for military wives” (p.19). Its possible that those military spouses who have experience employment disruptions as a result of the geographic demands of their Active Duty spouse’s military career may be less supportive of a military career.

The demands of the U.S. Military institution on its personnel have implications for the military spouse as well. The threat of physical harm to the military member along with the extended and frequent separations from their family that are part of military service increase the emotional strain on the military spouse. The geographic mobility associated with military service has been found to hinder the progression of the military spouses’ own career. These hardships may lead to military spouses’ decreased support for their active duty spouses’ careers in the U.S. Military.

Gender, Employment and the Family

Gender organizes society both at the institutional and interactional level. Even when gender discrimination has largely been removed and “formal access to opportunities” is gender-neutral, gender equality hasn’t resulted (Risman, 1998 p.31). Our community, work and family lives are so completely structured by gender that even when individuals reject gender inequality, they may still chose gendered strategies because of the “logic of gender situations and cognitive images” (Risman, 1998 p.35). This is particularly relevant in families. As one of the few institutions in society where “social roles, rights and responsibilities” are based on characteristics ascribed due to biological difference “marriage is one of the linchpins of inequality in American society” (Risman, 1998 p.36).

The ideology of separate spheres involves an idealized notion of the roles of men and women in the family. The social structure of marriage constrains both men’s and

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women's behavior. Social control is exerted through this notion of distinctly separate roles for men and women in the family, a subordinate role for women and the dominant role for men. The segregation of everyday activities on the basis of gender enables men to exploit the labor of women (Coltrane, 1996). However, even though husbands are the "superordinate partners" within the marriage system, their behavior is still constrained by gender expectations (Risman, 1998 p.37).

According to Risman (1998), even when couples are egalitarian in their views of the division of household labor, these cultural expectations about the appropriate roles for men and women in the family inevitably impacts their behavior. The crisis associated with gendered expectations usually occurs for these couples when children enter the family unit and the division of parental responsibilities becomes a concern. The husband is constrained into the provider role as social expectations burden him with the responsibility for the child's economic welfare. These economic responsibilities constrain men to achieve in their professional lives and even to remain in jobs that are less than perfect. Professional women are similarly constrained by social expectations. Women who chose to continue working are constantly judged for not providing enough personal care for their children (Risman, 1998).

Breadwinning

Breadwinning is about the meaning attached to the labor market activities of family members. It has traditionally been a gendered activity and the advancement of women into the labor market has challenged this boundary. The meaning of the labor force participation of women is variable and is influenced, to some extent, by the internal dynamics of the family (Potuchek 1992). Potuchek's (1992) examination of employed wives perceptions of their own employment indicated that they don't necessarily recognize their labor force participation as breadwinning. For the majority of those

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surveyed, their labor force participation challenged the traditional gender boundaries associated with breadwinning but did not completely overcome them. Many women continued to view their labor force participation as supportive or auxiliary to their spouses' breadwinning activities (Potuchek 1992). The unique nature of the military career may make it more difficult to perceive women's employment as supportive or auxiliary to the family's support given that the wives' military career will necessarily dictate many aspects of the family's circumstances including the location and the availability of both parents.

Labor Force Commitment and Spousal Support

According to Coltrane (2000b), the commitment of men to work has remained relatively consistent while women's commitment has increased in recent decades. Women have become more attached to the workplace as their education has increased as has their access to the opportunities and rewards of the labor market. When men and women have had similar work experiences and opportunities, their level of commitment to their family and work is essentially the same (Bielby and Bielby, 1988). The most significant predictors of work commitments for both men and women are job opportunities and workplace conditions. Family issues appear to have limited influence (Bielby, 1992).

Few studies have examined what factors contribute to a woman's commitment to the labor market. A study of married women's labor force commitment in Taiwan indicated that a woman's work experience prior to having children, their educational background, their geographic location (whether city or town) and the presence of children in the family all influenced women's commitment to the labor force. Chung and Lee's (2000) research indicated that husbands' gender role beliefs played the most significant role in their wives' labor market participation. In contrast, a woman's personal views

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about gender roles were not found to significantly influence their commitment to the labor market (Chuang and Lee, 2000).

It therefore appears that military husbands may play an important role in their active duty wives' commitment to their military careers. Men's acceptance of their wives working outside of the home appears to be stronger when it is viewed as just earning money and not connected to the family's financial support and therefore not challenging gender role beliefs about who should have the provider role in the family (Wilkie, 1993). The demanding nature of the military career may make it more difficult for military husbands to ignore the significance of their wives' careers within the family unit. This may therefore impact military husbands' support for their wives' retention in the U.S. Military. Even though there has been minimal research on husbands' support for their wives employment, one way to assess this issue is through husbands' involvement in household labor as research has indicated that the perception of women's employment has been found to be an important determinant of men's participation in household labor (Haas, 1982).

Husbands and Household Labor

Goode (1992) contends that men's perceptions of their masculinity may be threatened by the advancement of women into the provider role. Their masculinity may also be threatened by demands that they increase their participation in household labor given that socialization may lead them to view it as at odds with the provider role (Arrighi and Maume, 2000). Men generally do not perceive "competent homemaking as a badge of masculinity" and they may view the expectation that they contribute more in the home as evidence of their failure in the provider role (Kimmel, 1993 p.57). As a result, men may perceive engaging in housework as displaying their inability to meet normative

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standards of masculinity given that successful men theoretically have not had to do housework (Bernard, 1981).

Predictors of men's involvement in household labor include the employment status of wives, the gender ideology of the husband, the husband's employment status, and the presence of children in the family. The number of hours women work outside the home has been identified as the most consistent influence on men's contributions to household labor. Research has indicated that the more time women worked outside the home, the more likely their husbands approach the division of household labor more equitably (Wilkie 1993), and the more time their husbands actually devote to household labor (Shelton and John, 1993b). Gender role beliefs have also been found to influence men's involvement in household labor as those men with more traditional gender role beliefs have been found to devote less time to housework than men with more egalitarian views. Their wives' gender ideology was not found to influence men's contributions to household labor (Shelton and John, 1993b).

According to Arrighi and Maume (2000), men's contributions to household labor are also influenced by their status in the workplace. Men whose masculinity is challenged because they are subordinated in the workplace or because they are under or unemployed are more likely to resist housework because of its traditionally feminine associations (Arrighi and Maume, 2000). In general, the more husbands are dependent on their wives for financial support the less housework they are willing to do, particularly in lower income households (Brines, 1994).

The presence of children in the household has been found to lead to a less equitable division of housework between men and women (Cowan and Cowan, 1992; Coltrane, 2000a). When they have children, women appear to feel a greater sense of obligation to do housework (Wharton, 1994; Coltrane, 2000a). When children are present

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in the family, men generally work longer hours outside of the home and women fewer hours (Sanchez and Thomson, 1997; Coltrane, 2000a). As the number of children in the family increases, so does the share of the household labor performed by women (Greenstein, 1996; Shelton and John, 1993a; Coltrane, 2000a). However, Shelton and John (1993b) have also found that men with children spend more time on household labor than men without children.

Race/Ethnicity and Household Labor

The amount of time men devote to household labor has been found to vary with race/ethnicity. Black and Hispanic men spend more time on household labor than White men. Black men spent the most time with an average weekly rate of 25 hours compared to 23 hours and 19.6 hours for Hispanic and White men respectively (Shelton and John, 1993b). Black men are less likely and Hispanic men are more likely than White men to be their family's sole financial support. However, as these groups become increasingly similar in marital status, education and women's labor force participation rates, the differences between Black, Hispanic and White men appear to decline (Wilkie, 1993).

The perception that Black households are more egalitarian may actually be the result of "superficial examinations" (John and Shelton, 1993b, p.133). Some research has indicated that Black men actually have more conservative beliefs about the appropriate role for women within the family than White men but at the same time are more liberal on issues pertaining to women's employment outside of the home (Kiecolt and Acock, 1988; Ransford and Miller, 1983; Blee and Tickamyer, 1995). According to Blee and Tickamyer (1995), Black men may perceive women's employment and their role within the family as separate issues. As a result, they may be more liberal about married women working but have more conservative beliefs about the gendered division of household labor (Blee and Tickamyer, 1995). Therefore, the egalitarianism associated with Black

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families (McAdoo, 1990) may be the result of economic constraints rather than equalitarian views on the gendered division of labor (Broman, 1988, 1991) and positive attitudes towards women working may actually be the result of economic necessity (Shelton and John, 1993b).

An important predictor of married women's commitment to the labor force is their spouses' views on the gendered division of labor. Husbands' involvement in household labor has been found to be a useful indicator of their support for their wives employment outside of the home. Factors that influence men's contributions at home include not only their gender role beliefs but also their employment status, their race/ethnicity and the presence of children in the home. These factors may therefore influence military husbands support for their wives Active Duty careers in the U.S. Military.

The Military Spouse

The military is an organization where there is a clearly defined and complimentary role for the military spouse that is based on the traditional gendered division of labor. This is largely due to the assumption that military personnel are male. Therefore, even as the role of the warrior is identified with men and masculinity, the role of the military spouse is identified with women and femininity (Harrison and Laliberte, 1997). It is assumed that male military personnel with family responsibilities have a military wife who will handle all of the daily family responsibilities particularly when her spouse is deployed. Additionally, the military spouse's career goals are expected to be secondary, as she will be required to leave her paid employment when her husband's career necessitates it (Harrison and Laliberte, 1997).

According to Segal (1986), societal changes in relation to women's and particularly wives' roles are likely to have a significant impact on the military. As women's labor force participation has increased, their identities have become

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increasingly independent of their spouses. These changes have altered military wives' adaptability to the demands of the military. The military has traditionally relied on the willingness of the family and specifically the spouse to adapt to its demands and Segal (1986) contends that military spouses, specifically military wives, are becoming less inclined to submit to these demands. Military personnel are, therefore, increasingly exposed to greater conflict between the demands of the military and the family (Segal 1986). The impact of the increasing number of military husbands on military personnel is unknown at this point.

Utilizing data from the 1995 Survey of Army Families, Marshall-Mies (2001) analyzed male and female Army spouses and found some interesting differences. Men were more likely to be living in a different geographic location from their active duty spouse. They were also less likely to live on the base, less satisfied with their housing situation and less likely to have made a permanent change of station (PCS) move. Those male spouses living with the active duty member were less likely to have experienced an extended absence because of the military and also appeared to be less prepared to deal with these types of absences (Marshall-Mies, 2001).

Employment and the Military Spouse

The unique demands of the military job, including frequent relocations and extended separations, are likely to hinder the employment opportunities and earning potential of military personnel's civilian spouses. While there has been little research on the husbands of female military personnel, the research on the wives of male military personnel is likely to have some relevance for male spouses as well. The career choices of men in the military have been found to significantly impact their wives' lives (Grace and Steiner, 1978). Hosek et al (2002) compared the earnings of civilian and military couples between 1987 and 1999 and found that military couples earned approximately

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\$10,000 less than comparable civilian couples every year. This difference was primarily due to earnings discrepancies between military and civilian wives with comparable qualifications (Hosek et al, 2002). It therefore appears that the military lifestyle negatively influences military wives' labor force participation in comparison to their civilian counterparts. Payne, Warner and Little (1992) found that their husbands' education and earnings had an exaggerated impact on the labor force participation of military wives. Civilian wives were found to experience greater returns to their investments in education and to their occupational choices than military wives (Payne, Warner and Little, 1992).

With the military family, frequent relocations are an accepted and frequent part of life. It is clear that the spouses of military personnel occupy the role of tied mover in the military family and "institutionalized rotation policies mean that such "transfers" will embrace few of the immediate economic incentives for the family that are implicit in a civilian family's migration decisions" (Payne, Warner, and Little, 1992 p.325). Relocation, therefore, creates financial losses for military wives as they experience not only a period of unemployment after the initial relocation but they also lose their investment in previous jobs including job specific skills and tenure. Employers' incentives to invest in employees are lowered when they expect their employee will have to relocate. Additionally, the incentives for spouses who are the tied movers to acquire advanced skills and perform serious job searches is lower. Given the geographic and time constraints on military spouses, they may experience lower wages than civilian spouses with similar education and work experiences (Payne, Warner and Little, 1992). As a result, military spouses may "exhibit lower labor force participation and lower returns on human capital investments than their civilian counterparts" (Payne, Warner, and Little, 1992 p.325).

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Evidence also suggests that military wives experience reduced returns to “traditional educational milestones” and to employment in more skilled fields (Payne, Warner and Little, 1992 p.338). Schwartz, Wood and Griffith (1991) examined military wives who were under-employed or those who self-identified as holding a job that didn’t utilize their skills, training or past work experience. Spouses who worked because of the family’s financial needs were more likely to be under-employed and those who worked because they were career motivated were more likely to be selective in their job choices. Minorities were also more likely to be under-employed than whites. The length of time at a location also appeared to have an impact on under-employment indicating that the longer the family was in the area, the more likely the military wife would be able to find a suitable job (Schwartz, Wood and Griffith, 1991 p.398).

According to McGee (1990), the 1987 Annual Survey of Army Families (ASAF) indicated that an increasing number of female spouses of military personnel have been seeking employment indicating the presence of financial pressure for both spouses in the families of junior enlisted personnel to work. McGee (1990) suggests that this pressure is equally present for the male spouses of female personnel, particularly at the lower enlisted levels. Male spouses who weren’t in the labor force were more likely to describe themselves as unemployed whereas female spouses were more likely to view themselves as having chosen to remain out of the workforce indicating that male spouses appear to exhibit a greater connection to the labor force than female spouses. Male spouses were more likely to hold professional jobs than female spouses who were more likely to be working in the service sector or clerical jobs. The 1987 ASAF survey also indicated that male spouses were more likely to have prior military experience than female spouses, over 50% of men compared to 10% of women. This may explain why the survey found

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that more male spouses were employed by the federal government than female spouses (McGee, 1990).

Research has indicated that the employment potential of military spouses, specifically military wives, is hindered by the military careers of their active duty spouse. It's likely that the military will have a similar impact on military husbands who are employed in the civilian labor market. The military through its geographic constraints determines what jobs are available to military spouses as well as the length of time that they will be at that job.

Retention and the Military Spouse

The attrition and reenlistment of military personnel are critical to the effective utilization of military training resources. With the transition to an All Volunteer Force, the U.S. Military has had to devote a significant amount of resources to the recruitment and training of qualified personnel. The international situation today demands the U.S. Military maintain a large supply of new recruits and yet it can no longer rely on the draft for a continuous supply of new personnel. Advancements in technology have made the training investment in new personnel more significant. The military, therefore, seeks to retain as many personnel as possible particularly those with demonstrated effectiveness in critical areas. To this end, it needs to understand what factors contribute to military personnel's decisions regarding retention in order to implement programs and services to reduce turnover (Bowen, 1989).

The military's recognition of the "interdependence among personnel and family well-being, recruitment and retention decisions and job satisfaction and productivity" has led to an increased emphasis on family support programs and policies (Bowen, 1989 p.38). The likelihood that military personnel will be married increases significantly

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during their first two terms of enlistment. According to Vernez (1987), one out of every two military personnel will be married after their first four years of service, increasing to four out of five after the first eight years. Additionally, the proportion of military personnel with children increases significantly over the course of their careers. Twenty-three percent of military personnel have two or more children after their first term and forty-seven percent have two or more after their second term of enlistment. Family considerations are therefore likely to become increasingly important during the course of a military service member's career (Vernez, 1987).

Since the 1970s, the literature on military families and retention has demonstrated the presence of a link between family related factors and military personnel's retention decisions. In particular, spouse support for retention has consistently been identified as an important predictor and contributor to retention decisions (Bowen, 1989). Satisfaction with the ability to balance family life with a career in the Navy was the second most important predictor of retention behavior among Navy personnel and was influenced by the age of children in the family, amount of social support, their satisfaction with available services, marital satisfaction and finally the family's total income (Szoc, 1984). Szoc (1984) found that those personnel who intended to remain in the Navy were more likely to have dependent children, while personnel intending to leave the Navy were more likely to have a spouse with a professional job.

A variety of factors have been identified as influencing spousal support for military personnel's retention. The length of time their spouse has served in the military (Grace and Steiner, 1978; Pittman and Orthner, 1988) was correlated with military wives' support for retention. This may be the result of self-selection as the longer an individual has invested in the military the more likely they, along with their family, will feel a sense of commitment to it. Perceptions of their spouses' satisfaction with their military careers

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were also found to influence military wives supportiveness (Grace and Steiner, 1978).

This may be due to the impact career related unhappiness might have on active duty personnel's personal lives and relationships.

Military wives' satisfaction with the military lifestyle has also been found, in several studies, to influence their views on retention (Gill and Haurin, 1998, Pittman and Orthner, 1988). Marital and personal adjustments were found to indirectly influence supportiveness through their impact on military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle. However, even if marital and personal adjustments are relatively poor, spousal support for the active duty husband's work commitments may still be strong if wives value the attributes of the military lifestyle according to Pittman and Orthner, (1988). McCubbin et al. (1983) found that military spouses' perceptions of the organization's provisions for their needs were important to their ability to adjust to the military lifestyle. Increased organizational responsiveness to the military family's needs was found to indirectly influence wives' support for their spouses' military careers through its impact on their satisfaction with the military lifestyle (Pittman and Orthner, 1988).

Research on the importance of spouse employment for military retention has produced conflicting results. According to Pittman and Orthner (1988), education and employment status had a minimal impact on the supportiveness of military wives for their spouse's careers (Pittman and Orthner, 1988). In contrast, Wood (1989) found that the likelihood a spouse will be unemployed significantly influenced the retention intentions of Army personnel. Utilizing data from the 1987 Annual Survey of Army Families, McGee (1990) found that when female spouses were satisfied with their own career progress and opportunities, they were more likely to support their husbands' retention in the military (McGee, 1990). According to Gill and Haurin (1998), if the military wife's income potential was unaffected by their active duty spouses' military career then they

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were more likely to support retention. Spouse labor force commitment was an important influence on their supportiveness for military personnel's careers as spouses who were identified as homemakers were generally more supportive of military careers (Gill and Haurin, 1998).

Research has indicated that a number of factors may influence female spouses' support for active duty personnel's careers. Given the continued salience of gender and the gendered division of labor within the military organization, there may be differences in how these factors influence men and women's support for their spouses' military careers. Additionally, the continued association of military service with masculinity and, as a result, the role of the military spouse with femininity may make it more difficult for men to adjust to the role of military spouse than women.

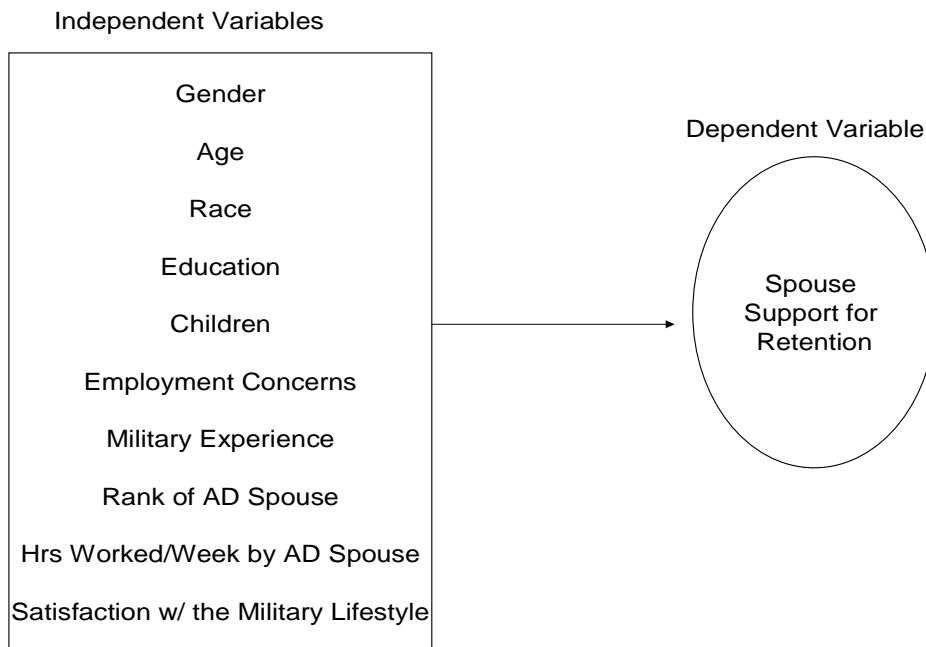
Research Questions

Data from the 1999 Survey of Spouses of Active Duty Personnel conducted by the Defense Manpower Data Center will be utilized in this analysis. The first stage of this analysis will involve a general examination of the differences between male and female military spouses specifically focusing on race/ethnicity, age, educational background, concerns about employment during the most recent relocations, and whether or not they have dependent children. The influence of these demographic variables, particularly race/ethnicity--given the overrepresentation of minorities in the military--will then be considered when conducting the more in-depth analysis. The specific questions that will be examined include:

1. Does gender influence spousal support for the retention of active duty military personnel (independently of other factors/when other factors have been controlled for)?

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Model 2.A: Independent variables potentially influencing spouse support for retention.



As discussed in the literature review, research has indicated that spousal support influences active duty personnel's retention decisions. The literature gives us reason to suspect that military husbands' would be less likely to support their active duty spouses' retention as it would mandate a shift in gender roles. Not only is it possible that the military husband's career would have to take a backseat to his wife's active duty career (unless his occupation is not hurt by mobility) but he might also be responsible for more domestic labor than is typically the case. In fact he might have to take primary authority for domestic labor in some instances. Therefore, the primary goal of this model is to understand how gender influences spousal support for retention. Other variables that will be considered for their influence on spouse support include age, race, education, the rank of the active duty spouse, the presence of children in the family, satisfaction with the military lifestyle, the average hours worked per week by the active duty spouse, and the military experience of the respondent.

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Military life continues to be organized by the patriarchal dichotomy between masculinity and femininity. The assumption continues to be that military personnel are male and that military spouses are female. However, given the growing numbers of women in the military, male military spouses are becoming increasingly prevalent and it's likely that they experience certain aspects of the military lifestyle differently from female military spouses. Given that the husbands of female military personnel are cast into the untraditional role of military spouse, I expect that men will be less supportive of their spouses' military careers than women.

Given that minorities are over-represented among the military population, it will be interesting to examine the influence of race/ethnicity on spouse support for retention and satisfaction with the military lifestyle. As discussed in the literature review, research has indicated that minorities, in particular African Americans, take a more positive view on wives working outside of the home even when they hold more traditional views on the gendered division of labor. This is most likely because of economic necessity. I, therefore, expect that minorities will be more supportive of their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. military. I also expect age to have a positive influence on spousal support for retention, as those who are unhappy with their active duty spouses' careers and/or dissatisfied with the military lifestyle will have already made decisions to remove themselves from it. Previous research has indicated that satisfaction with the military lifestyle influences spouse support for retention. I therefore expect to find that satisfaction with the military lifestyle will positively influence spouse support for retention.

Employment concerns and experience working in the military are also of interest given that research has indicated female military spouses receive lower returns to their career investments female spouses in civilian couples. It's therefore likely that both male

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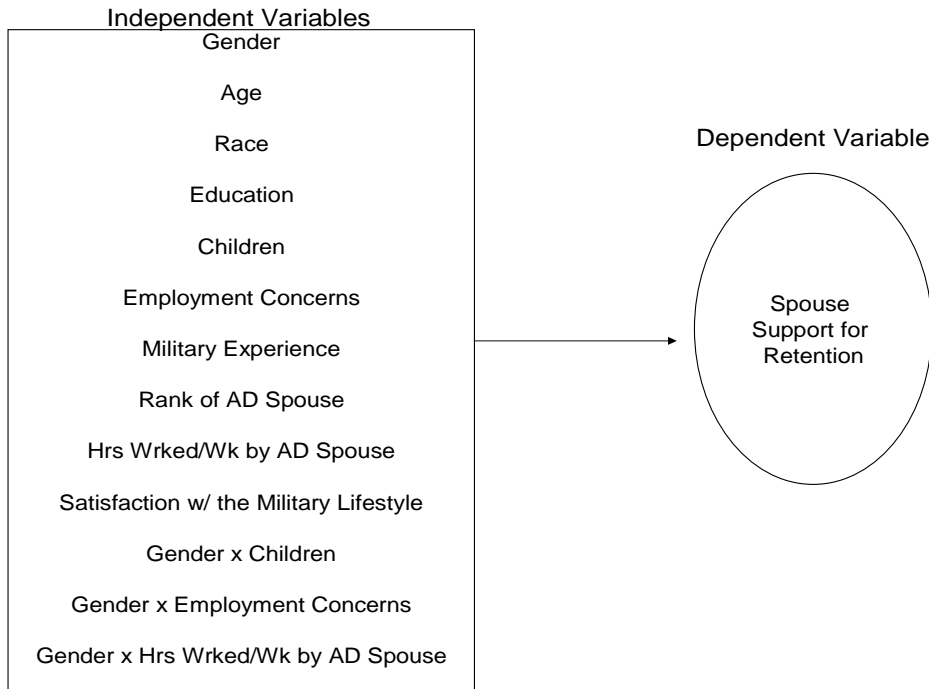
and female military spouses have their careers/employment hindered or complicated by their active duty spouses' military careers. I believe that this may influence their support for their active duty spouse's retention in the military. Segal and Segal (2003) suggested that male spouses with no military experience would be uniquely disadvantaged because they have no place in the military community whereas, male spouses with their own military experience would be more comfortable because they are a part of the community in their own right. The implication of this theory is that personal military experience increases military spouses' understanding and support for their active duty spouses' careers in the U.S. Military. I therefore expect that military experience will have a positive influence on spouse support for retention.

It's also likely that gender will interact with some of the other variables in its influence on spouse support for retention. Model 2.B includes the gender interactions that will be examined for their influence on spousal support for retention. In particular, the hours worked by the active duty spouse may have a more negative effect on male military spouse's support for retention than female military spouses, as it indicates that the demands of the military job may be limiting the ability of the active duty spouse to contribute to household labor. Research has also indicated that the presence of children in the family leads to a more traditional gendered division of labor. The presence of children may therefore interact with gender to influence spouse support for retention. As discussed in the literature review, employment is an important part of masculine identity particularly with regards to a man's role within the family. Therefore, I believe that gender and employment concerns may interact to influence spouse support for retention as those male respondents who have experienced employment concerns during the family's last move may be less supportive than female respondents who have experienced similar concerns. Specifically, men may be more likely to view their wives' military

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careers as hindering their own and as a challenge to their role in the family unit as provider.

Model 2.B: Independent variables and gender interactions that potentially influence spouse support for retention.



2. How does the expectation of significant absences influence gender differences in spouse support for retention? The dependent variable is spouse support for retention given the expectation that the active duty spouse will be away frequently or for an extended period of time.

This second research question examines whether or not gender differences exist in spouse support for retention when they expect their active duty spouse will be away frequently or for a long period of time during the next year. As previously discussed, the literature has indicated that the role of military husband deviates from traditional gender roles for men in the family. As a result, it's likely that the expectation that their wife will be away frequently or for an extended period of time due to their military career might decrease a military husband's support for their retention. In particular, extended absences

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may exacerbate the amount of domestic labor that must be shifted to the military

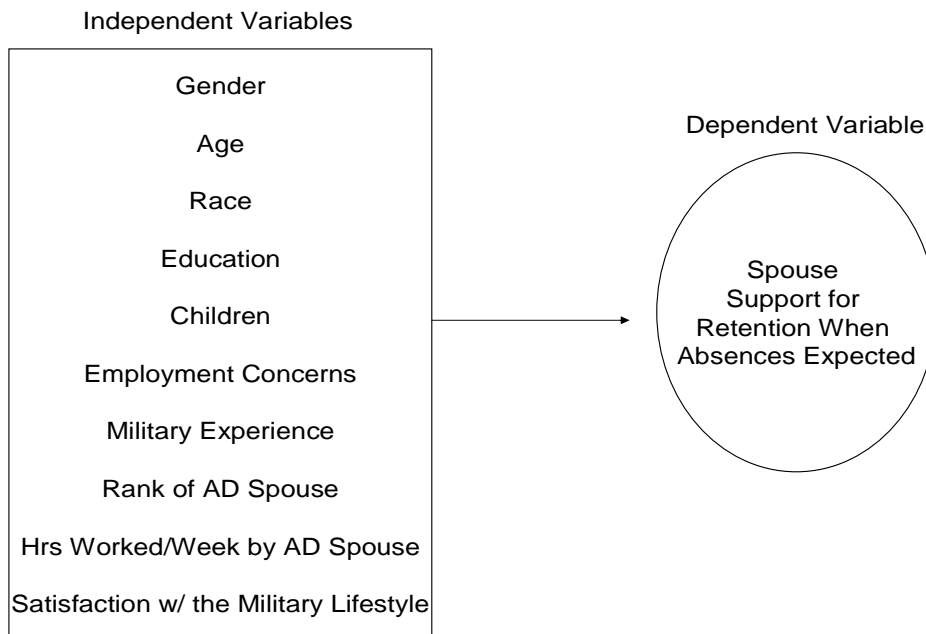
husband. Men are less willing to take on the primary burden for domestic responsibilities.

Therefore, the primary goal of Model 2.C is to understand how gender influences spousal support for retention when significant absences are expected.

Other variables that will be examined for their influence on support for retention when absences are expected include age, race/ethnicity, education, the presence of children in the family, employment concerns, military experience, the rank of the active duty spouse, the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse and the military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle. With regards to these variables, I expect that the presence of children in the family may decrease military spouses' support when significant absences are expected as it shifts more of the burden for their care to the military spouse. I also expect that employment concerns will be exacerbated by the expectation of significant absences as again the active duty spouse's absence may impact the military spouses' career negatively. Finally, I also expect that support for retention when significant absences are expected may interact with gender given that again it may increase the concerns

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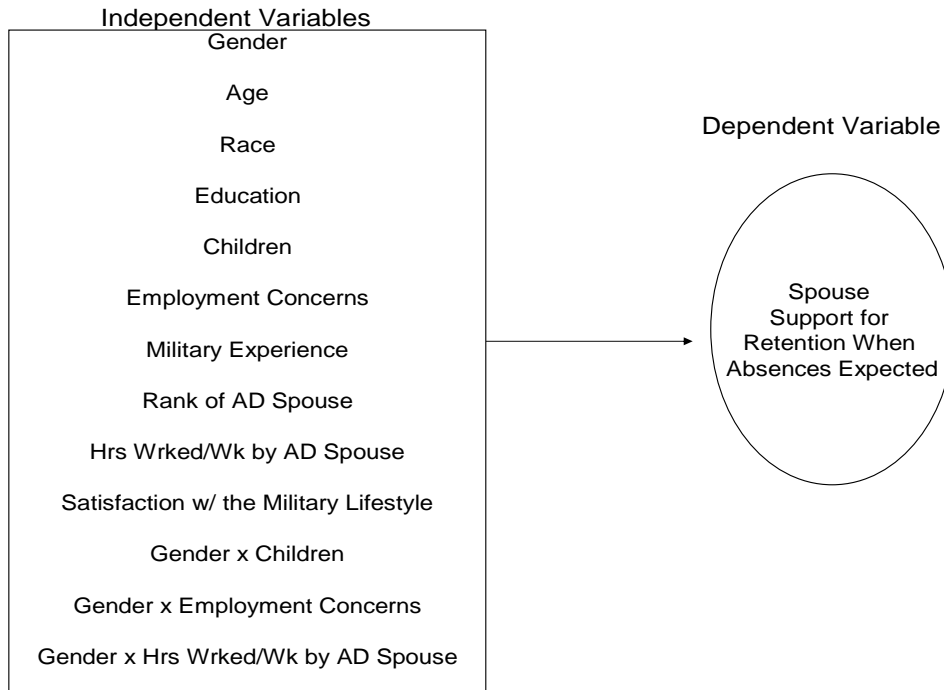
Model 2.C: Independent variables potentially influencing spouse support for retention when significant or frequent absences are expected.



I also expect that gender may interact with certain variables to influence spouse support for retention when significant absences are expected. Model 2.D includes the variables that will be considered for their interaction with gender. In particular for the same reasons listed for Model 2.B, I believe it may interact with the presence of children in the family, employment concerns and the average hours worked per week by the active duty spouse.

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Model 2.D: Independent variables and gender interactions potentially influencing spouse support for retention.



3. Does gender influence military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle (independently of other factors/when these factors are controlled for)? The dependent variable is spouse satisfaction with the military lifestyle in this question.

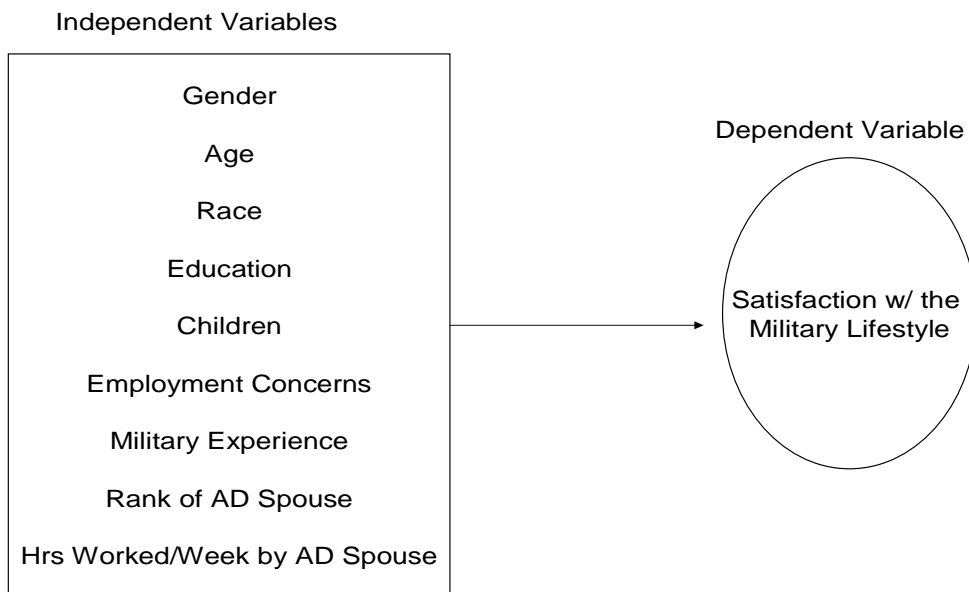
Past research on military wives' support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. military has indicated that satisfaction with the military lifestyle is an important influence. Therefore understanding whether or not gender differences exist in spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle, is important to understanding whether or not gender influences military spouses' support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. military. While the primary focus is on whether or not there are gender differences in satisfaction with the military lifestyle, the variables of interest for the first two questions are also relevant to this third question.

In particular, the respondent's personal military experience may impact their satisfaction with the military lifestyle. I therefore expect that personal military experience

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will have a positive influence on spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle. Segal and Segal (2003) suggested that experience in the military may help spouses feel more comfortable in the military community particularly male spouses who may otherwise feel out of place given their untraditional role. I also expect that the age of the military spouse and the rank of the active duty spouse will positively influence military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle as the process of self-selection should have caused those spouses who are dissatisfied to leave the military community. I also believe that those spouses' who have experienced concerns about their own employment as a result of the demands of their active duty spouses' careers are less likely to be satisfied with the military lifestyle.

Model 2.E: Independent variables influence on spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle.

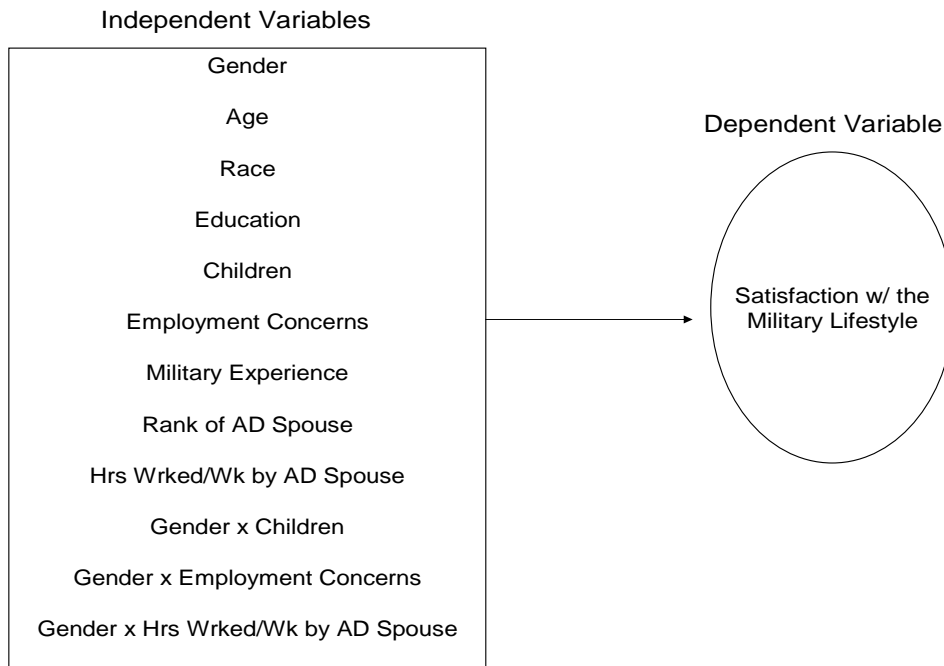


I believe that gender may interact with certain independent variables – the presence of children in the family, employment concerns during the family's last move, and the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse – to influence respondents'

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satisfaction with the military lifestyle. These gender interactions are included in Model 2.F below.

Model 2.F: Independent variables and gender interactions potentially influencing respondents' satisfaction with the military lifestyle.



I expect that the presence of children in the family will have a negative influence on men's satisfaction with the military lifestyle. As previously discussed, the presence of children in the family has been found to result in a more traditional gendered division of labor. It's therefore likely that the presence of children in the military family will emphasize the conflicts of the military career with domestic responsibilities and I think this will more significantly influence military husbands. I similarly expect that concerns about employment will have a more negative influence on military husbands because employment is so closely connected to men's role in the family and their sense of identity. Finally, I expect the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse will have a more negative influence on military husbands' satisfaction with the military lifestyle than military wives'. I believe the more hours worked per week by the active duty

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spouse, the more it will accentuate the untraditional nature of the military career for

women to military husbands.

Chapter 3 Methodology

This study uses data from the 1999 Survey of Active Duty Spouses to examine differences in military spouses' supportiveness for active duty personnel's careers and their satisfaction with the military lifestyle. The survey was designed to include a representative sample of the spouse population although the response rate for male spouses was lower than for female spouses. As a result, there may be some selection bias in the data set. In addition to demographic information, the dataset contains information about a variety of factors that may influence military spouse's views about their active duty spouse's careers and their satisfaction with the military lifestyle including their employment goals, utilization of military services, childcare concerns, and perspectives on military versus civilian opportunities for their family.

Previous quantitative analyses have found that female spouses support for the retention of their active duty spouses has a demonstrated effect on military personnel's actual retention. Research has additionally indicated that satisfaction with the military lifestyle influences spouse support for active duty personnel's retention. The advantage of using survey information for this study is that it enables me to utilize similar methods to examine whether or not differences exist in male and female spouses' views on retention and satisfaction with the military lifestyle. This dataset includes a relatively significant sample of military spouses as it is one of the largest datasets of information on active duty spouses available and is also among the most recent. While the number of male respondents to the survey is small compared to female respondents, there are sufficient numbers to be valid in this type of analysis. The dataset addresses a variety of issues that are likely to influence spouses' views on the military and the use of regression analysis

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enables me to consider whether or not these factors differentially impact male and female spouses' perceptions and supportiveness.

Data and Sample

In 1999, the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC) conducted the Active Duty Surveys (ADS) at the request of the Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Force Management Policy. The 1999 ADS included two surveys: the 1999 Survey of Active Duty Personnel (ADS Form A) and the 1999 Survey of Spouses of Active Duty Personnel (ADS Form B). These surveys are the continuation of research on active duty military personnel and their families that originated with small-scale surveys first administered in 1969. Large-scale surveys of the military population have been conducted by DMDC approximately every seven years beginning in 1978. In addition to 1999, surveys were also administered in 1985 and 1992 with the separate spouse questionnaire first included in 1985 (Wright et al., 2000).

The data utilized for this study is from the Spouse Survey, ADS Form B. The survey instrument was 20 pages long and included 111 questions. The items included in the 1999 ADS Form B were adapted from previous surveys of military spouses, as well as from focus groups and concerns raised by DoD officials. The questions covered eight basic topics:

1. Current Location – questions about whether or not the respondent is currently co-located with their active duty spouse, characteristics of their current residence and the number of permanent change of station (PCS) moves they've made since marrying their active duty spouse.
2. Active Duty Spouse's Military Assignment – questions about the respondent's active duty spouse including their Service, time in, hours

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worked per week, and time spent away from their permanent duty station (PDS).

3. Military Life – questions about the respondent’s satisfaction with different aspects of the military lifestyle and the relationships they have within the military community.
4. Programs and Services – questions about the availability of services and the respondent and their family’s utilization of these services.
5. Employment – questions pertaining to the respondent’s current employment status, the reasons that they work, problems they have had finding and keeping a job, the type of job they have, and the amount of time worked per week.
6. Family Information – questions about the respondent’s marital status and history, dependents, childcare, and utilization of the military healthcare system.
7. Economic Issues – questions about the family’s total monthly income, income from non-military sources, expenses and the family’s savings and debt.
8. Background – demographic information about the respondent including age, gender, education, race/ethnicity and citizenship (Wright et al., 2000).

The target population of the ADS Form B survey included spouses of active duty personnel in all of the military services, including the Coast Guard, who had been serving on active duty for at least nine months prior to the survey’s administration. The spouses of flag and general officers were not included because they are such a small minority their confidentiality could not be ensured (Wright et al., 2000). Joint service couples were

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included in the sample but individuals who received the Spouse Survey, Form B, could not receive the Active Duty Survey, Form A.

The initial population sample for the spouse survey included 38,901 spouses from a single stage, stratified, random sample of the 617,725 spouses in the eligible target population. Of the spouses in the target population, 59,129 were men and 613,626 were women. Estimates of the eligible population of spouses in 1999 are found in Table 1. The Air Force has the largest population of male spouses followed by the Army, the Navy and the Marines. The Coast Guard has the smallest number of male spouses.

Table 1: Estimates of the 1999 Eligible Spouse Population

<u>Gender</u>	<u>Army</u>	<u>Navy</u>	<u>Marines</u>	<u>Air Force</u>	<u>Coast Guard</u>	<u>Total</u>
Male	20,458	13,170	2,409	22,341	712	59,129
Female	211,567	152,725	59,232	172,862	17,240	613,626

Source: Wright et al., 2000 p.11

Five stratification dimensions were utilized to construct the sample. These dimensions, shown in Table 2 below, included marital status (married to civilian or active duty member), active duty member's Service, sex of active duty member, military pay-grade of member, and location of member. Subgroups within these dimensions were determined and, utilizing a DMDC developed planning tool, researchers identified how many people should be included in the sample from each of the dimensions (Wright et al., 2000).

Table 2: Dimensions of Stratification Used in 1999 Survey of Spouses

<u>Dimension</u>	<u>Levels</u>
Joint Marital Status	Married non-joint (civilian spouse) Married joint-service (both in military)
Service of Member	Army, Navy, Air Force, Marine Corps And Coast Guard
Sex of Member	Male/Female
Paygrade of Member	E1-E3, E4, E5-E6, E7-E9, W01-W05, 01-03, 04-06

Source: Wright et al., 2000 p.5

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Of the 38,901 spouse surveys distributed, 20,938 did not respond. Of the surveys received, 1,860 were deemed ineligible for a variety of reasons including: the military member was not on active duty when the survey was administered; the respondent was currently separated, divorced or widowed from the military member; or the respondent reported the military member was permanently ill or otherwise not eligible (Wright et al., 2000). DMDC was able to construct the answers to some of the demographic variables including the respondents' age, race/ethnicity, children and their active duty spouse's rank. Additionally, surveys were included even if the respondents did not answer all of the questions included in the survey. As a result, there is some variability in the number of responses to the variables that will be included in this study, ranging from 38,190 to 11,607.

Questionnaires were considered complete if the respondents had answered at least one item for each of the following questions (Wright et al., 2001):

- 1) Question 35: "How satisfied are you with each of the following aspects of your spouse's military job?"
- 2) Question 38: "On average, during a month, how often do you and/or your family members (child, children, or other legal dependents) use the following on base programs, facilities, or services and civilian off base programs, facilities or services?"

According to Wright et al. (2001), the response rate to the survey was approximately 50 %. DMDC attributed non-responses to either the spouse's unwillingness to participate or the inability of DMDC to locate the spouse because of incorrect address or recent relocation (Wright et al., 2001). Wright et al. (2001) calculated the response rate using the following:

$$\text{Response Rate} = \text{Complete Responses} / \text{Adjusted Eligible Sample}$$

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The adjusted eligible sample accounted for the fact that the eligibility status of non-respondents was unknown so they utilized the proportion of ineligible among respondents to estimate the proportion of ineligible among the non-respondents and adjusted the sample size accordingly (Wright et al., 2001). The response rate calculated for male spouses was 36% based on an adjusted eligible sample of 3,014 with 1,084 complete responses. Female spouses had a much higher response rate, 53%, with an adjusted eligible sample of 28,723 and 15,125 completed responses (Wright et al, 2001). DMDC did not examine why male spouses had a lower response rate than female spouses in their analysis and information in the ADS Form B dataset does not reveal why this might have occurred. It does however suggest that there may be some unknown bias among the male respondents. Again it is important to mention that the actual number of surveys that were included in the regression analysis was limited to those who had answered all of the questions of interest in this study, approximately 10,126.

Analytic Strategy

The first stage of this analysis will involve examining some of the basic characteristics of military spouses to ascertain whether or not male and female spouses' differ noticeably in certain areas. The next stage of the analysis involves utilizing simple regression analysis to examine the potential influence of the independent variables on the three dependent variables on interest. The primary focus of this stage is to determine whether or not male and female spouses differ in their support for their active duty spouse's retention and in their satisfaction with the military lifestyle. Finally, the influence of other independent variables on spouse satisfaction with the military lifestyle and support for retention will also be considered. This will be accomplished through regression analysis and the utilization of an interaction variable to determine whether or not there are gender-based differences in these effects.

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The regression analysis involves several variables that have very disparate population sizes such as gender and rank. This raises the possibility that the data is heteroskedastic. This will be addressed in the regression equations for each of the dependent variables by utilizing the White's test and corrected for, if necessary, by weighting the analysis. Another area of concern is multi-collinearity. This possibility will be addressed both through a correlation matrix and by utilizing the collinearity diagnostics in SPSS.

Dependent Variables

Three dependent variables are of interest in this study. The first two listed below address the issue of respondent's support for their active duty spouse's retention in the military and the third relates to the respondent's satisfaction with the military lifestyle.

1. Support for retention includes information from survey question 27: "Do you think your spouse should stay on or leave active duty?" N = 18,465
2. Support for retention given the expectation of frequent or extended absences is based on information from survey question 28: "If your spouse's future assignments require long or frequent separations from you or your family, how likely is it that you will encourage your spouse to remain in the military (assuming that he/she can remain)?" N = 18,512
3. Satisfaction with the military lifestyle includes information from survey question 37: "Now, taking all things together, how satisfied are you with the military way of life?" N = 18,212

Independent Variables

This analysis includes a number of independent variables. The coding of these variables along with the coding of the three dependent variables is included in Appendix

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A. The independent variables that will be examined for their influence on the three

dependent variables are listed below:

- Gender is derived from a gender variable constructed by DMDC primarily from self-reported data based on survey question 103. When information was missing, it was constructed utilizing administrative records. N = 38,190
- Race/ethnicity is based on a constructed variable measuring the respondent's race and ethnicity and includes four categories: White; Black; Hispanic; and Other. N = 18,311
- Age is based on information from survey question 104: "What age were you on your last birthday?" N = 18,588
- Rank of the active duty spouse includes information from a variable constructed by DMDC with information on the rank of the respondent's active duty spouse. N = 35,712
- Education is based on information from survey question 105: "What is the highest degree or level of school that you have completed?" N = 17,983
- Children is based on information from survey question 68: "Do you have a child, children or other legal dependents?" N = 18,597
- Concerns about employment includes information from question number 10U in the survey: "When you and/or your family members made the most recent PCS move, were any of the following a problem? – Your employment." N = 11,607
- Respondent's military experience is variable created by DMDC utilizing information from survey question 40, parts A-C: "Are you currently serving on active duty (not a member of the National Guard or Reserve), as a member of the National Guard or Reserve in a full-time Active duty program, or other type of

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National Guard or Reserve member?” This variable was created to preserve the confidentiality of respondents. N = 19,299

- Average hours worked per week by the respondent’s active duty spouse includes information from survey question 19: “During the past 12 months, how many hours per week did your spouse usually work?” N = 18,264

Chapter 4

Results

A Profile of Military Wives and Husbands

According to estimates of the population of military spouses in 1999, the majority of military spouses are women, 91 percent. Of the respondents to the 1999 Survey of military spouses, 93 percent were women. The majority of female respondents were white, approximately 70 percent. African Americans comprised 9.4 percent and Hispanics 9.5 percent of the female respondents surveyed. Most of the military wives who responded to the survey were between the ages of 20 and 40, 78.4 percent. Of these, the largest percentage, 21.7 percent, were between the ages of 30 and 34. Most indicated that they had children, 75.6 percent, and the majority had a high school degree or some college, 61.2 percent. Military wives were unlikely to have their own personal experience in the military as only 6.7 percent of those wives surveyed responded that they had experience in the military themselves.

Male spouses were estimated to comprise approximately 9 percent of the population of military spouses in 1999 and they represented 6.8 percent of those who responded to the survey. The majority of the military husbands who responded were white, 62.8 percent, with African Americans representing 21.1 percent and Hispanics 8.2 percent of male respondents. As with military wives, most military husbands were between the ages of 20 and 40, 67.5 percent. However, military husbands were more likely to be over the age of 40 than military wives, 31.3 percent compared to 19.8 percent. The majority of military husbands had children, 62.7 percent. However, military husbands were more likely than military wives to not have children as 37.3 percent of men indicated they didn't compared to 24.4 percent of women. Like military wives, most military husbands had a high school degree or some college, 63 percent. Finally, 41.4

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percent of military husbands indicated they had personal military experience. This is significantly higher than the number of military wives with military experience.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 3 includes the cross tabulations of gender with each of the three dependent variables used in this study. Approximately 57 percent of the military spouses who were surveyed favored their active duty spouse's retention in the U.S. Military. According to the cross tabulation of gender with this dependent variable, 57 percent of female respondents supported their spouses' retention including 22.3 percent who were somewhat in favor and 34.9 percent who strongly favored their active duty spouse remaining in the U.S. Military. Among male respondents, 53 percent supported retention including 19.4 percent who were somewhat in favor and 33.9 percent who were strongly in favor of it. Men were more likely to strongly or somewhat favor their spouse leaving the military than women, 36 percent compared to 30 percent. The Chi Square statistic indicates that the relationship between gender and support for retention is significant.

The second dependent variable of interest in this study is the likelihood that military spouses will encourage their active duty spouse to remain in the U.S. Military when they expect their active duty spouse will be gone frequently or for an extended period of time over the next year. Among those military spouses surveyed, 51 percent indicated that they would be unlikely to encourage their spouse to remain on active duty when long or frequent absences from home were expected over the next year. The cross tabulation of gender with this dependent variable indicated that male respondents were more likely to be influenced by the expectation of significant absences than female respondents. Of male respondents, 59 percent indicated they would be unlikely or very unlikely to support their spouse's retention under these conditions compared to 51

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percent of women. The Chi Square statistic for the cross tabulation of gender with support for retention given the expectation of significant or frequent absences is significant.

Satisfaction with the military lifestyle is the third dependent variable in this study. The majority of the spouses surveyed were satisfied or very satisfied with the military lifestyle. There were no major differences between male and female respondents satisfaction with the military lifestyle according to the cross tabulation of gender with this dependent variable, 56 percent of female respondents and 55 percent of male respondents were satisfied or very satisfied with the military lifestyle. Twenty-two percent of military spouses were dissatisfied to some extent with the military lifestyle including 21 percent of women and 23 percent of men. The Chi Square statistic for gender and satisfaction with the military lifestyle is not significant, indicating that there is no relationship between gender and satisfaction with the military lifestyle.

The correlation matrix for the 12 variables included in this study is available in Table 4. Among the independent variables that were considered for their influence on respondents' support for their active duty spouse's retention, satisfaction with the military lifestyle was the most strongly correlated at 0.52. It was also the most strongly correlated independent variable with the dependent variable, support for retention given the expectation of long or frequent absences at 0.33. While the majority of the other variables were significantly correlated with these two dependent variables, the correlations were not very substantial. Education was not significantly correlated with support for retention and race/ethnicity was not significantly correlated with either support for retention or support for retention when significant absences are expected. Satisfaction with the military lifestyle is the third dependent variable in this study. The correlations between satisfaction and the other independent variables while significant are not that strong. The

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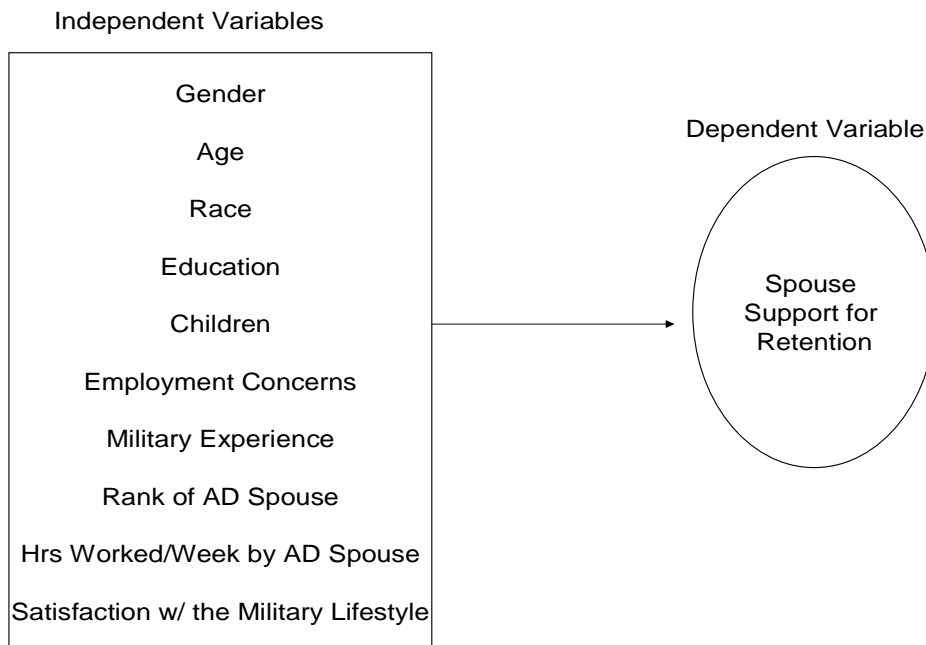
largest correlation exists between satisfaction and concerns about employment during the last PCS move, -0.22.

Regression Analysis for Question 1

Does gender influence spousal support for the retention of active duty military personnel (independently of other factors/when other factors have been controlled for)?

In addition to gender, the independent variables that will be examined in this regression analysis for their influence on the dependent variable, respondents' support for the retention of their active duty spouse, include age, race/ethnicity, educational attainment, children, personal military experience, employment concerns during the family's last move, the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse, the rank of the active duty spouse and the respondents' satisfaction with the military lifestyle. They are included in Model 4.A below.

Model 4.A: Independent variables potentially influencing spouse support for retention.



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The regression analysis for Model 4.A is available in Table 5. The model was significant with an F statistic of 313.00. Together, the independent variables were found to explain 27 percent of the variation in respondents' support for their active duty spouses' retention. Collinearity diagnostics were run as part of this analysis. The variance inflation factors (VIF) and the tolerance statistics indicated that multi-collinearity was not a concern with this model. However, the White's test for heteroskedasticity indicated that the data was heteroskedastic and this was corrected for by running a weighted linear regression.

As theorized, gender (-0.12) was found to be a significant predictor of spouse support for retention. Men were found to be less supportive of their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military than women. However, when you look at the standardized coefficients in Table 5, it becomes clear that the effect of gender on support for retention, while significant, is small. Other variables that were found to be significant predictors of support for retention included respondents' age (0.04), self-identification as Hispanic (-0.10), educational attainment (-0.02), the average hours worked per week by the Active Duty spouse (-0.03), the presence of children in the family (0.09), and satisfaction with the military lifestyle (0.75). Again, it's important to note that while significant, most of these effects were not substantial in their influence on respondents' support for their spouses' retention in the U.S. Military.

As expected, age was found to positively influence respondents' support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military. This supports the hypothesis that there may be a process of self-selection wherein older spouses are those who have become invested in and accepting of their active duty spouses' military careers. I had expected that the presence of children in the military family would decrease spousal support for retention because it would accentuate the demands of the military on the active duty

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spouse and their absence from the family. Contrary to my expectations, the presence of children in the family appears to positively influence military spouses' support for their active duty spouses' retention. Hispanic respondents were found to be less supportive of their active duty spouses' retention than white respondents. A respondent's educational attainment and the average hours worked per week by their active duty spouse were also found to negatively influence support for retention. I expected that the average hours worked per week by the active duty spouse would negatively influence respondents' support for retention as the more time active duty personnel must devote to their jobs, the less time they have available for their families and other responsibilities.

The most significant predictor was found to be satisfaction with the military lifestyle. As previous research had indicated, satisfaction with the military lifestyle was found to significantly predict support for retention. Those respondents who were satisfied with the military lifestyle were found to be more supportive of their active duty spouses' retention. The standardized coefficients for Model 4.A indicate that satisfaction with the military lifestyle (0.51) was the most significant predictor of support for retention in this equation.

I was surprised that employment concerns were not a significant predictor of support for retention in Model 4.A. I had expected that employment concerns during the family's last move would have negatively influence spousal support because it would indicate that respondents' employment was being negatively affected by the demands of their active duty spouses' career. I suspect that satisfaction with the military lifestyle may have a mediating influence on this variable with regards to support for retention.

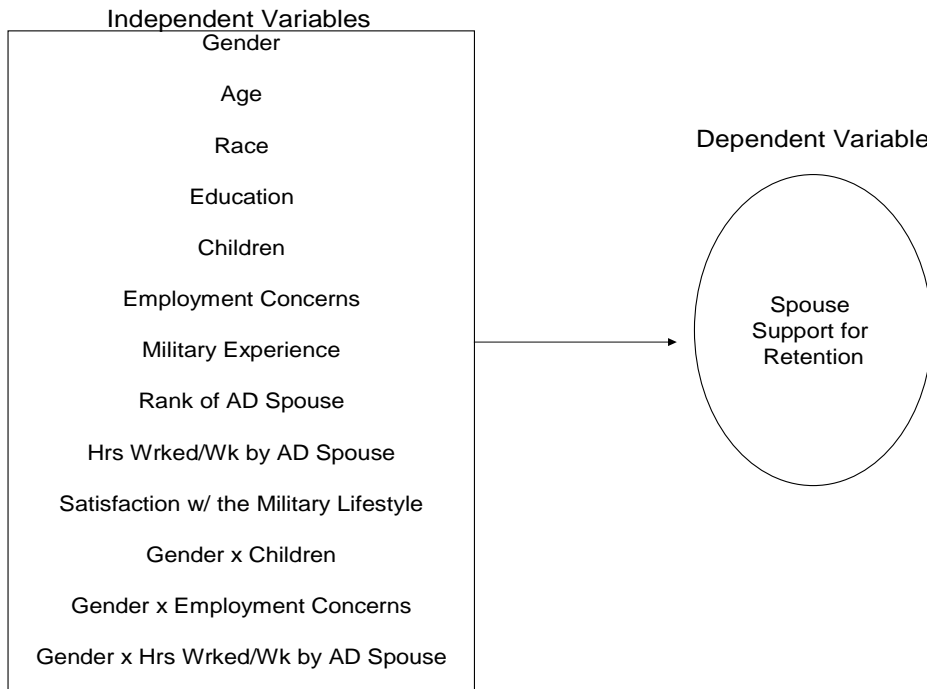
Given that gender differences were the central focus of this research, the next stage of analysis involved examining how gender interacts with certain theoretically

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relevant variables to influence spouse support for retention. Model 4.B below includes

the independent variables from Model 4.A as well as the gender interactions of interest.

Model 4.B: Independent variables and gender interactions that potentially influence spouse support for retention.



The amount of variation in spouse support for retention explained remained consistent across the three gender interactions considered in Model 4.B, Table 6. All three of the interaction models were significant with an F statistic of 289.58 for the model including the interaction between gender and employment concerns, an F statistic of 289.31 for the model including the interaction between gender and the presence of children in the family and an F statistic of 288.96 for the model including the interaction between gender and the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse. Each of these three models explained 27 percent of the variation in respondents' support for retention. The interaction terms for gender and employment concerns (0.11) and gender and children (-0.23) were both found to be significant, while the interaction for gender and the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse was not significant.

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For the two models that included the significant gender interactions, we should have observed an increase in the amount of variation explained by the model. While multi-collinearity can influence the amount of variation being explained by a model, the collinearity diagnostics run for these two models indicated that multi-collinearity was not the cause of this result. Specifically, the tolerance statistics were not sufficiently low (below 0.2) and the VIFs were not high enough to merit concern. As a result, it's my belief that, while these two interactions were significant, their actual influence on the variation in support for retention was small. In support of this, I found that when the R squared statistic was carried out beyond three decimal spaces, there was found to be a difference. Therefore, there is a difference, albeit small, between the amount of variation explained between Model 4.A and the two versions of Model 4.B with the significant gender interactions.

While the presence of children was found to positively influence women's support for their active duty spouse's retention, the interaction between gender and children indicates that children actually have a negative influence on men's support for their active duty spouse's retention. Children have been found to lead to a more traditional gendered division of labor in the family. It's, therefore, possible that the presence of children in the family reinforces for men the untraditional nature of their active duty wives' careers and the demands it places on them.

Gender was no longer significant in the version of Model 4.B with the interaction term for gender and the presence of children in the family. While the coefficient for children remains significant in both models, it increases in size between Model 4.A (0.09) to (0.11) in Model 4.B with the interaction for gender and children. The other independent variables remain relatively consistent with regards to their coefficients and significance.

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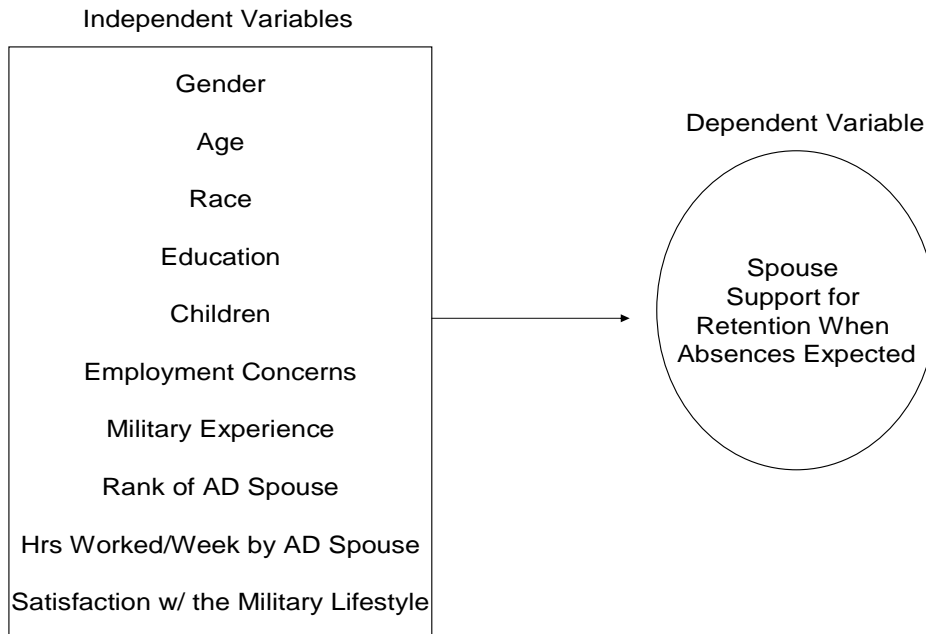
The interaction between gender and concerns about employment was found to have a positive influence on spouse support for retention. Employment concerns, therefore, were found to positively influence men's support for retention. This is contrary to my expectations. I believed that men would be more negatively influenced by employment concerns than women. Gender remained significant between Model 4.A and the version of Model 4.B with the interaction term for gender and employment concerns. However, its coefficient did change from -0.12 in Model 4.A to -0.37 in this version of Model 4.B. The other independent variables remained relatively consistent between these two models.

Regression Analysis for Question 2

How does the expectation of significant absences influence gender differences in spouse support for retention?

The dependent variable in this regression analysis is spouse support for retention when significant or frequent absences are expected over the next year. The independent variables that will be considered for their influence on this dependent variable are listed in Model 4.C. They include the respondents' gender, age, race/ethnicity, education, the presence of children in the family, military experience, the average hours worked per week by the active duty spouse, the active duty spouse's rank, and the respondents' satisfaction with the military lifestyle.

Model 4.C: Independent variables potentially influencing spouse support for retention when significant or frequent absences are expected.



The results of this regression analysis are available in Table 7. The model was significant with an F statistic of 132.60. Collinearity diagnostics were run and the VIFs and tolerance statistics indicated that multi-collinearity was not a concern with this model. However, the White's test for heteroskedasticity indicated that it was a problem. It was corrected for by weighting the regression analysis for Models 4.C and 4.D. The independent variables included in Model 4.C explained 14 percent of the variation in respondents' support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. military when significant or frequent absences are expected.

Gender was a significant predictor of spouse support for retention in Model 4.C. The coefficient of -0.22 indicates that male respondents are significantly less likely to support their spouse's retention in the U.S. Military than female respondents when absences are expected. This conforms to expectations that men would be less supportive

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of their spouses' career-related absences. However, it's important to note that the actual difference between male and female spouses is very small as the standardized coefficient for gender was -0.04. Other significant predictors in Model 4.C included age (0.09), self-identification as Black (0.17), self-identification as Hispanic (-0.10), educational attainment (-0.07), the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse (0.02), and satisfaction with the military lifestyle (0.45).

As expected, age was found to positively influence respondents' support for retention when significant or frequent absences are expected. Older spouses are probably more accustomed to the different aspects of the military lifestyle, specifically frequent or extended absences that are a fundamental part of the military career for active duty personnel. Respondents' self-identification as Black and Hispanic were both found to significantly predict support for retention in this regression equation. Black respondents are more likely than White and Hispanic respondents to support their spouses' retention when absences are expected. The results also indicate that Hispanic respondents were less likely than White respondents to support their spouses' retention under these conditions. Education and the rank of the active duty spouse were both found to have a negative impact on respondents' support for retention. The hours worked per week by the active duty spouse actually had a positive influence on respondents' support for retention. I had expected it to have a negative influence as in Model 4.A.

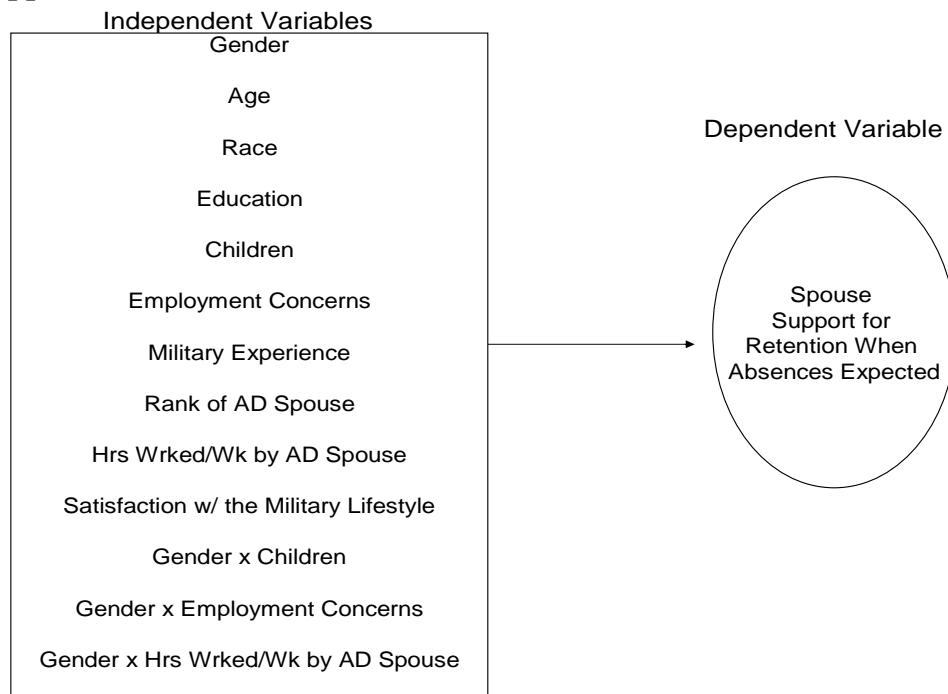
Respondents who are satisfied with the military lifestyle are significantly more likely to support their spouses' retention in the U.S. military even when frequent or extended absences are expected. As in Model 4.A, this supports previous research that indicated satisfaction with the military lifestyle was a significant predictor of military spouses' support for their active duty spouses' military careers. The respondents' satisfaction with the military lifestyle was the most significant predictor of spouse

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support for retention when significant absences are expected based on the standardized coefficient of 0.34 in Table 7.

The interaction of gender with the presence of children in the family, employment concerns and the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse are of interest in this study. Model 4.D includes these interactions along with the other independent variables that will be examined for their influence on spouse support for retention when frequent or extended absences are expected.

Model 4.D: Independent variables and gender interactions potentially influencing spouse support for retention.



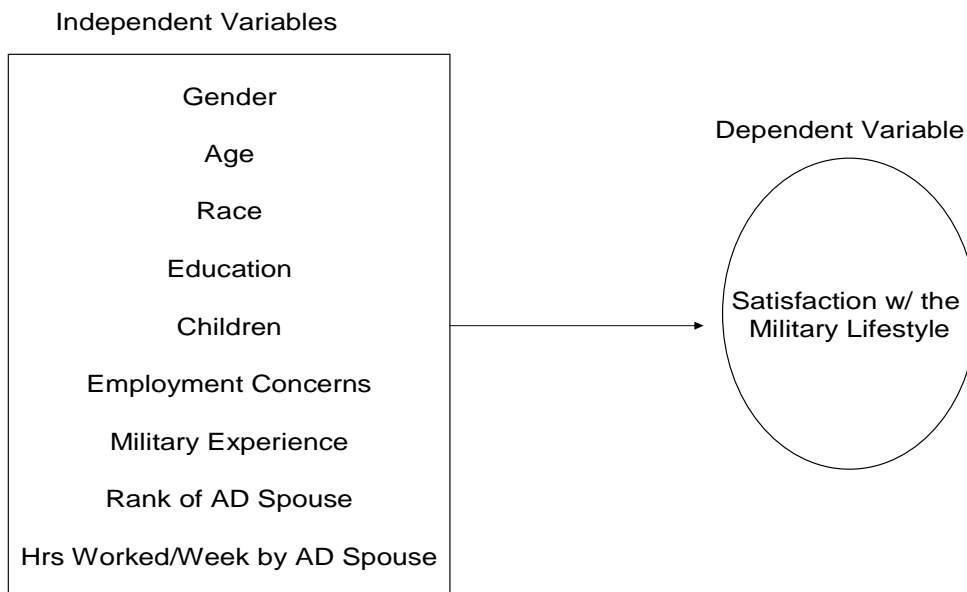
The results of these regression analyses are available in Table 8. While the models were significant, none of the gender interactions were found to significantly predict support for retention when frequent or extended absences are expected. Each of the models was found to explain 14 percent of the variation in the dependent variable.

Regression Analysis for Question 3

Does gender influence military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle (independently of other factors/when these factors are controlled for)?

These first two regression analyses confirmed the importance of understanding whether or not gender influences military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle given that it was the most significant predictor of spouse support for retention in both equations. The dependent variable of interest for this question is, therefore, satisfaction with the military lifestyle. The independent variables that will be considered for their potential influence on satisfaction with the military lifestyle are listed in Model 4.E. They include gender, age, race/ethnicity, education, children, military experience, the average hours worked per week by the active duty spouse and the rank of the active duty spouse.

Model 4.E: Independent variables influence on spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle.



The results of the analysis for Model 4.E are available in Table 7. The collinearity diagnostics including VIFs and the tolerance statistics indicated that multi-collinearity was not a concern with this model. However, the White's test for heteroskedasticity

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indicated that it was a concern and this was corrected for by weighting the regression analysis. Model 4.E was significant with an F statistic of 109.05. Together the independent variables in this model were found to explain 11 percent of the variation in respondents' satisfaction with the military lifestyle.

Gender was not found to significantly predict respondents' satisfaction with the military lifestyle. I had expected men to be less satisfied with the military lifestyle than women because of the untraditional role they occupy as military spouses. The variables that were found to significantly predict satisfaction included age (0.07), self-identification as Black (0.22) and Hispanic (0.11), concerns about employment (-0.17), the average hours worked per week by the active duty spouse (-0.11) and the rank of the active duty spouse (0.07).

Age was found to positively influence satisfaction with the military lifestyle. This is likely due to self-selection as those who are dissatisfied with the military lifestyle will leave the community at a younger age. Additionally, it's also possible that older respondents have become comfortable with the military lifestyle and more aware of the benefits or positive aspects of it. The rank of the active duty spouse was also found to positively influence respondents' satisfaction with the military lifestyle. This may be due to a similar process of self-selection or it's possible that those who are higher ranking are enjoying a more comfortable lifestyle and more of the benefits of military service than lower ranking families. Black and Hispanic respondents were more likely to be satisfied with the military lifestyle than White respondents.

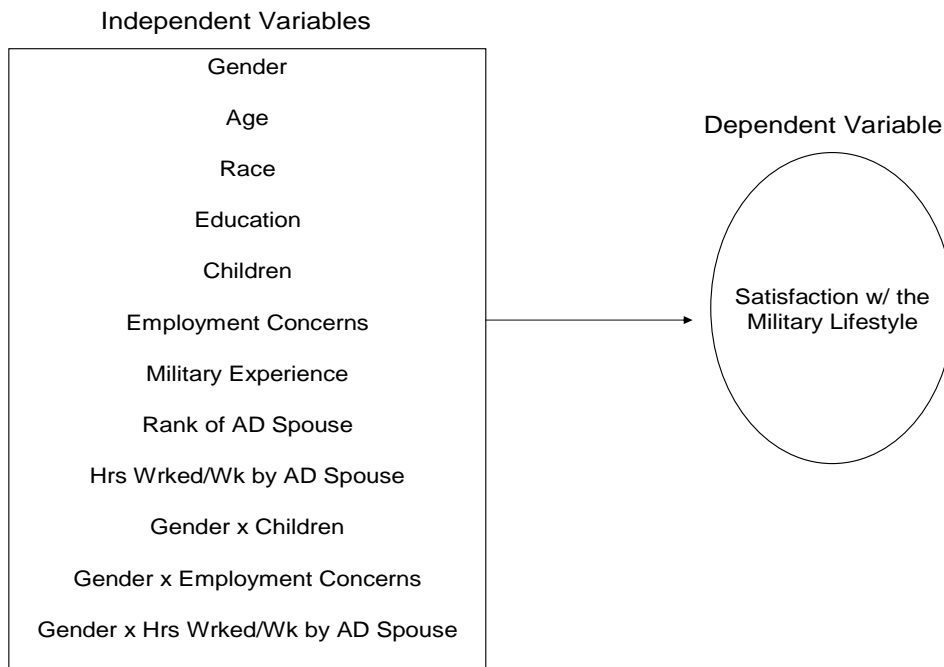
The standardized coefficients for Model 4.E indicate that concerns about employment (-0.20) were the most significant predictor of support for retention in the model. Respondents who had experienced concerns about their employment during the family's last move were less likely to be satisfied with the military lifestyle. If the

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military has detrimentally impacted the careers of some respondents due to the relocation requirements of their active duty spouses' careers, it's likely that these individuals will be less satisfied in general with the military lifestyle. As expected, the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse were found to have a negative influence on respondents' satisfaction with the military lifestyle.

The influence of the interaction between gender and three of the other independent variables – the presence of children in the family, concerns about employment, and the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse – on the dependent variable of satisfaction with the military lifestyle is of interest. Model 4.F includes the gender interactions that will be examined.

Model 4.F: Independent variables and gender interactions potentially influencing respondents' satisfaction with the military lifestyle.



The results of the regression analyses for Model 4.F are available in Table 10. While all three of the regression equations were significant, the three gender interactions

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that were examined were not found to be significant predictors of respondents'

satisfaction with the military lifestyle.

Table 3: Cross-tabulations of gender with the dependent variables (p < .01, *p < .05)**

<u>Support for Retention</u>	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>	<u>Total</u>
Strongly favor leaving (1)	15.6 %	23.6 %	16.2 %
Somewhat favor leaving (2)	14.4 %	12.4 %	14.2 %
No opinion (3)	12.8 %	10.7 %	12.7 %
Somewhat favor staying (4)	22.3 %	19.4 %	22.1 %
Strongly favor staying (5)	34.9 %	33.9 %	34.8 %

Total (18,465)	100 % (17,210)	100 % (1,255)	100 %
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N=18,465

Pearson's Chi Square: 59.17**

Support Given Expectation of Absences

Very unlikely (1)	35.0 %	44.6 %	35.7 %
Unlikely (2)	15.8 %	14.2 %	15.7 %
Undecided (3)	20.6 %	16.2 %	20.3 %
Likely (4)	15.8 %	13.9 %	15.7 %
Very likely (5)	12.8 %	11.2 %	12.7 %

Total (18,512)	100 % (17,249)	100 % (1,263)	100 %
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N=18,512

Pearson's Chi Square: 48.47**

Satisfaction With Military Lifestyle

Very dissatisfied (1)	5.4 %	6.7 %	5.5 %
Dissatisfied (2)	15.9 %	16.7 %	16.0 %
Neither satisfied or dissatisfied (3)	22.2 %	22.0 %	22.2 %
Satisfied (4)	48.6 %	45.3 %	48.4 %
Very satisfied (5)	7.8 %	9.4 %	8.0 %

Total (18,212)	100 % (16,988)	100 % (1,224)	100 %
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N = 18,212

Pearson's Chi Square: 10.06

Table 4: Correlation Matrix of Independent Variables and Support for Retention (p< .01, *p< .05).¹**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	1.00											
2	0.08**	1.00										
3	-0.00	-0.01	1.00									
4	0.01	0.20**	-0.09**	1.00								
5	-0.03**	0.01	0.05**	0.06**	1.00							
6	0.31**	-0.07**	-0.00	0.03**	-0.13**	1.00						
7	-0.05**	0.01	-0.00	0.06**	0.07**	-0.02*	1.00					
8	-0.08**	0.53**	-0.13**	0.45**	-0.07**	-0.04**	0.12**	1.00				
9	-0.08**	0.14**	-0.00	-0.06**	-0.03**	-0.10**	0.03**	0.09**	1.00			
10	-0.01	0.18**	-0.01	0.05**	-0.22**	-0.01	-0.13**	0.18**	0.05**	1.00		
11	-0.03**	0.15**	-0.00	0.00	-0.12**	-0.03**	-0.09**	0.11**	0.07**	0.52**	1.00	
12	-0.04**	0.14**	-0.00	-0.04**	-0.08**	-0.03**	-0.02**	0.07**	0.05**	0.33**	0.55**	1.00

¹ 1 = Gender, 2 = Age, 3 = Race, 4 = Education, 5 = Concerns about employment, 6 = Military experience, 7 = Hours worked per week by the active duty spouse, 8 = Rank of the active duty spouse, 9 = Children, 10 = Satisfaction with the military lifestyle, 11 = Support for retention, 12 = Support for retention when frequent or extended absences are possible.

Table 5: Regression equations showing the effect of independent variables on spousal support for active duty personnel’s retention in the U.S. Military (Un-standardized coefficients, standard errors in parentheses) (* *p< .01, * p< .05). N=10,126

Model A		
Independent Variables	Un-standardized	Standardized
Gender	-0.12 * (0.06)	-0.02
Age	0.04 ** (0.01)	0.04
Race		
Black	0.05 (0.04)	0.01
Hispanic	-0.10 * (0.05)	-0.02
Other race	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.00
Education	-0.02 ** (0.01)	-0.03
Concerns about employment	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.01
Military experience	-0.05 (0.05)	-0.01
AD spouse’s hours/week	-0.03 ** (0.01)	-0.03
Rank of AD spouse	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.01
Children	0.09 **	0.03

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Satisfaction w/ military lifestyle	(0.03) 0.75 ** (0.01)	0.51
Intercept	0.92 (0.08)	
R ²	0.27	
F	313.00	

Table 6: Regression of the independent variables on support for retention with the inclusion of gender interaction terms (Un-standardized coefficients, standard errors in parentheses) (p< .01, * p< .05). N=10,126**

Model B with Inclusion of Interaction Terms

Independent Variables	Gender x Employment	Gender x AD hours/week	Gender x Children
Gender	-0.37 ** (0.11)	-0.01 (0.15)	0.03 (0.09)
Age	0.04 ** (0.01)	0.04 ** (0.01)	0.04 ** (0.01)
Race			
Black	0.05 (0.04)	0.05 (0.04)	0.05 (0.04)
Hispanic	-0.10 * (0.04)	-0.10 * (0.05)	-0.10 * (0.05)
Other race	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.04)
Education	-0.02 ** (0.01)	-0.02 ** (0.01)	-0.02 ** (0.01)
Concerns about employment	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)
Military Experience	-0.03 (0.05)	-0.05 (0.05)	-0.05 (0.05)
AD spouse's hours/week	-0.03 ** (0.01)	-0.03 ** (0.01)	-0.03 ** (0.01)
Rank of AD Spouse	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)
Children	0.09 ** (0.03)	0.09 ** (0.03)	0.11 ** (0.03)
Satisfaction w/military lifestyle	0.76 ** (0.01)	0.75 ** (0.01)	0.75 ** (0.01)

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Gender x Employment	0.11 ** (0.04)		
Gender x AD hours/week		-0.04 (0.05)	
Gender x Children			-0.23 * (0.11)
Intercept	0.93 (0.08)	0.91 (0.08)	0.91 (0.08)
R ²	0.27	0.27	0.27
F	289.58	288.96	289.31

Table 7: Regression equation showing the influence of independent variables on the likelihood spouses will support the retention of active duty personnel when long or frequent absences are expected (Un-standardized coefficients, standard errors in parentheses) (p< .01, * p< .05). N=10,155**

Model C		
Independent Variables	Un-standardized	Standardized
Gender	-0.22 ** (0.060)	-0.04
Age	0.09 ** (0.01)	0.10
Race		
Black	0.17 ** (0.05)	0.03
Hispanic	-0.10 * (0.05)	-0.02
Other race	-0.04 (0.04)	-0.01
Education	-0.07 ** (0.01)	-0.08
Concerns about employment	-0.00 (0.01)	-0.00
Military experience	-0.01 (0.05)	-0.00
AD spouse's hours/week	0.02 * (0.01)	0.02
Rank of AD spouse	-0.02 (0.01)	-0.02
Children	0.03 (0.03)	0.01
Satisfaction w/ military lifestyle	0.45 **	0.34

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	(0.01)
Intercept	0.85
	(0.08)
R ²	0.14
F	132.60

Table 8: Regression of independent variables on support for retention given the expectation of frequent or long absences with the inclusion of gender interaction terms (Un-standardized coefficients, standard errors in parentheses) (p< .01, * p< .05). N=10,155**

Model D with Inclusion of Interaction Terms

Independent Variables	Gender x Employment	Gender x AD Hours/week	Gender x Children
Gender	-0.33 ** (0.12)	-0.29 (0.16)	-0.15 (0.10)
Age	0.09 ** (0.01)	0.09 ** (0.01)	0.09 ** (0.01)
Race			
Black	0.17 ** (0.05)	0.17 ** (0.05)	0.17 ** (0.05)
Hispanic	-0.10 * (0.05)	-0.10 * (0.05)	-0.10 * (0.05)
Other race	-0.04 (0.04)	-0.04 (0.04)	-0.04 (0.04)
Education	-0.07 ** (0.01)	-0.07 ** (0.01)	-0.07 ** (0.01)
Concerns about employment	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.00 (0.01)	-0.00 (0.01)
Military experience	-0.00 (0.05)	-0.01 (0.05)	-0.01 (0.05)
AD spouse's hours/week	0.02 * (0.01)	0.02 * (0.01)	0.02 * (0.01)
Rank of AD spouse	-0.02 (0.01)	-0.02 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)
Children	0.03 (0.03)	0.03 (0.03)	0.04 (0.03)
Satisfaction	0.45 ** (0.01)	0.45 ** (0.01)	0.45 ** (0.01)

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Gender x Employment	0.05 (0.05)		
Gender x AD hours/week		0.03 (0.05)	
Gender x Children			-0.12 (0.12)
Intercept	0.86 (0.08)	0.85 (0.08)	0.84 (0.08)
R ²	0.14	0.14	0.14
F	122.48	122.41	122.47

Table 9: Regression equation showing the influence of independent variables on spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle (Un-standardized coefficients, standard errors in parentheses) (p< .01, * p< .05). N= 10,229**

Model E		
Independent Variables	Un-standardized	Standardized
Gender	-0.06 (0.04)	-0.01
Age	0.07 ** (0.01)	0.11
Race		
Black	0.22 ** (0.03)	0.07
Hispanic	0.11 ** (0.03)	0.03
Other race	-0.04 (0.03)	-0.01
Education	-0.00 (0.01)	-0.00
Concerns about employment	-0.17 ** (0.01)	-0.20
Military experience	-0.00 (0.04)	-0.00
AD spouse's hours/week	-0.11 ** (0.01)	-0.13
Rank of AD spouse	0.07 ** (0.01)	0.12
Children	0.04 (0.02)	0.02
Intercept	3.45	

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	(0.05)
R^2	0.11
F	109.05

Table 10: Regression of independent variables on satisfaction with the military lifestyle including gender interaction terms (Un-standardized coefficients, standard errors in parentheses) (p< .01, * p< .05). N=10,229**

Model F with Inclusion of Interaction Terms

Independent Variables	Gender x Employment	Gender x AD Hours/week.	Gender x Children
Gender	-0.03 (0.08)	0.11 (0.11)	-0.05 (0.07)
Age	0.07 ** (0.01)	0.07 ** (0.01)	0.07 ** (0.01)
Race			
Black	0.22 ** (0.03)	0.22 ** (0.03)	0.22 ** (0.03)
Hispanic	0.11 ** (0.03)	0.11 ** (0.03)	0.11 ** (0.03)
Other race	-0.04 (0.03)	-0.03 (0.03)	-0.04 (0.03)
Education	-0.00 (0.01)	-0.00 (0.01)	-0.00 (0.01)
Concerns about employment	-0.17 ** (0.01)	-0.17 ** (0.01)	-0.17 ** (0.01)
Military experience	-0.01 (0.04)	0.00 (0.04)	-0.00 (0.04)
AD spouse's hours/week	-0.11 ** (0.01)	-0.11 ** (0.01)	-0.11 ** (0.01)
Rank of AD spouse	0.07 ** (0.01)	0.07 ** (0.01)	0.07 ** (0.01)
Children	0.04 (0.02)	0.04 (0.02)	0.04 (0.02)
Gender x Employment	-0.01 (0.03)		

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Gender x AD hours/week		-0.06 (0.04)	
Gender x Children			-0.01 (0.09)
Intercept	3.45 (0.05)	3.44 (0.05)	3.45 (0.05)
R ²	0.11	0.11	0.11
F	99.96	100.20	99.95

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusions

The military career can be described as a two-person career, wherein military spouses play a vital role in enabling military personnel to devote their full attention to their jobs. The effectiveness of workers in demanding organizations like the military is linked to the contributions of their whole family, and these occupations dominate the lives of everyone in the family (Kanter, 1977). Therefore, the role of military spouse is an important one, and the U.S. Military has increasingly recognized the significance of the military family to the recruitment and retention of qualified military personnel (Vernez, 1987).

The U.S. Military makes greater demands on its personnel and their families than is true of most civilian careers. These include exposing the active duty member to risk, frequent separations of the active duty member from the family for varying and frequently extended periods of time, long and irregular work hours and frequent relocations for the entire family (Segal, 1989). Military spouses, therefore, face a unique set of pressures and must make significant sacrifices in support of their active duty spouses' careers. They must deal with the emotional stress of being separated from a loved one whose life is potentially in danger. Finally, the geographic mobility associated with a military career frequently separates the military spouses from their extended families and may negatively impact their own careers.

The U.S. Military continues to be a gendered occupation based on the assumption that military personnel are male and their spouses are female. Institutionally, gender determines the types of positions held by men and women (Risman, 1998). Gender-typed organizations are those viewed as more appropriate for either men or women (Britton,

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2000). As a gendered organization, the military is fundamentally connected to men and masculinity (Herbert, 1998) and the warrior ideal continues to be shaped by the patriarchal dichotomy between masculinity and femininity (Harrison and Laliberte, 1997). According to Enloe (1993), the image of the masculine warrior is complimented by the feminine image of a dependent and supportive military spouse. Therefore, the presence of women as warriors and men as military spouses challenges the gender dichotomy that has traditionally been an important part of the U.S. Military.

As the number of women serving in the U.S. Military has increased, so too has the number of male military spouses. Men occupying the role of military spouse violate traditional gender expectations not only in terms of the military as an organization, but also in the larger society as they are occupying a role traditionally associated with women. The social structure of marriage shapes the behavior of men and women as it is one of the few societal institutions where biological differences determine the social responsibilities and roles of its members (Risman, 1998). Gender expectations generally assign the role of provider or breadwinner to men and the role of homemaker to women. The increasing advancement of women into the workplace has challenged these assumptions and today, women are likely to have their own careers. This has challenged the gendered division of labor in the home. However, many men are resistant to increasing their involvement in domestic labor and frequently the solution to women's advancement into the workforce—at least in middle class households-- has been to outsource the family's own domestic needs, finding labor market alternatives to the stay-at-home mom. Even though it is possible to purchase much of the family's domestic

needs, a husband may still feel resentment towards his wife's career, particularly if it has a negative impact on his own.

In addition to resenting the demands of the military career on their active duty spouse and its impact on their own careers, military husbands may also feel out of place in the military community as the majority of military spouses continue to be female. As most of the research on military spouses has focused exclusively on military wives, the objective of this study was to examine how male and female military spouses differ specifically with regards to their support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military. Given the non-traditional configuration male military spouses represent and the additional tensions outlined above, I hypothesized that military husbands would be less supportive than military wives of their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military.

Military Husbands and Military Wives

This study revealed that there were some significant differences between military husbands and military wives. Specifically, military husbands were more likely to be older than military wives, they were significantly more likely to have military experience than were military wives, and they were less likely to have children. Contrary to my expectations, few military husbands described their own employment as a serious problem during the family's last relocation. I believed that men would be more likely to cite employment as a concern and women less likely because I expected more women to not be participating in the labor market than men. It's possible that the increased likelihood of military husbands being involved in the military in their own right makes their employment generally more transferable than military wives'. Additionally, it's

possible that military husbands who would have had serious problems with their employment chose to live separately from their active duty wives.

It is interesting to note that there were a significant number of military wives citing employment concerns during recent relocations, indicating that many of these women are actively participating in the labor market (or might want to be). This supports Segal's (1986) prediction that the changing roles of women in society, particularly their advancement into the labor market, was likely to have significant implications for the military family. Military wives who are personally invested in their own careers may be less supportive of their spouses' active duty careers if it negatively impacts their own.

Military Spouses and Support for Retention

The central research question considered in this study was whether or not gender influences military spouses' support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military. Two dependent variables were used to examine this question: military spouse support for retention and military spouse support for retention when frequent or extended absences are expected. Research has demonstrated that military spouses play an important role in their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military (Bowen, 1989). In general, husbands have been found to have a significant influence on their wives' commitment to the labor force (Chuang and Lee, 2000). As most of the previous research on spouse support for retention has focused on military wives, this study examined military husbands and their support for their active duty wives careers in comparison to military wives. In addition to gender, the factors that were examined in this study for their potential influence on spouse support for retention included age, race/ethnicity,

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education, the presence of children in the family, personal military experience, their active duty spouses' rank, the average hours worked per week by the active duty spouse, and the military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle.

Gender was found to significantly influence respondents' support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military. Specifically, military husbands were found to be less supportive of their wives' retention in the U.S. Military than were military wives. Similarly, they were less supportive than military wives of their active duty spouses' retention when frequent or extended absences were expected. It is, however, important to note that while there was a statistically significant difference between military husbands and wives' support for their spouses' retention in the U.S. Military, the actual difference between husbands and wives' supportiveness was small. I expected military husbands to be less supportive of their wives' retention because of the untraditional nature of the military occupation for women and because of the implications of their wives' military career for their own lives and sense of identity as men. The fact that the actual difference between husbands and wives' support for their spouses' retention is relatively small may imply that the military lifestyle isn't as uncomfortable a fit for men as military spouses as I had expected.

As the tied movers in the relationship, military spouses' employment status may be negatively influenced by the demands of their active duty spouses' careers. Research has indicated that military wives receive lower returns to their investments in education and to their prior work experience than do their civilian counterparts. As a result, the relocation demands of the military career appear to negatively impact military wives' employment by decreasing their incentive to invest in advanced skills and training and

also causing them to lose the benefits associated with job tenure (Payne, Warner, and Little, 1992). As military wives' employment situations have been found to influence their support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military (Wood, 1989; Gill and Haurin, 1998), I expected military spouses who had experienced concerns about their employment during the family's last permanent change of station move to be less supportive of their active duty spouses' retention. Contrary to expectations, employment concerns alone were not found to significantly influence either of the dependent variables, spouse support for retention or spouse support for retention when extended or frequent absences were expected.

The next step was to examine the interaction of gender with employment concerns to influence spouse support for retention. I had expected men to be less supportive than women of their spouses' retention when they had experienced employment concerns. The traditional gendered division of labor in the family casts men into the breadwinning role. Goode (1992) has contended that the advancement of women into the provider role may threaten men's masculinity. I, therefore, expected that when a military husband's own employment has been negatively influenced by their spouses' active duty career, they would resent their wives' military careers. I additionally expected that they would potentially view it as a challenge to their masculinity because they are unable to fulfill the provider role in the family. Also, the nature of the active duty career will make it difficult for military husbands to ignore the significance of their wives' careers to the family's welfare.

The results of this study indicated that gender and employment concerns were found to significantly interact to influence spouse support for retention. Contrary to

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expectations, however, employment concerns were found to have a positive influence on men's support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military. One possible explanation for this finding might be that these men are just grateful that their wives have good jobs with benefits. Research has indicated that economic necessity may positively influence men's support for their wives' employment (Broman, 1988, 1991; Shelton and John, 1993b). Therefore, the economic constraints facing the family may be a more important consideration for these men than their own employment concerns. Gender and employment concerns were not found to significantly interact to influence spouse support for retention when extended or frequent absences were expected. It is also important to note that while gender and employment concerns were found to significantly interact to influence support for retention, the size of the interaction coefficient was relatively small meriting further examination.

Szoc (1984) found that the ability to balance work and family life was an important predictor of military personnel's retention plans. It's likely that this balancing act is also important to military spouses and influences their support for their active duty spouses' retention. Thus, the average hours worked per week by the active duty spouse were examined for their influence on military spouses support for retention. They were utilized as a measure of the amount of time the active duty spouse had available for the family and the amount of family responsibilities that may inevitably fall to the military spouse or be outsourced as a result. As expected, the results indicated that the more hours worked per week by the active duty spouse, the less supportive the military spouse was of their active duty spouses' retention. However, contrary to expectations, the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse were found to have a positive influence on

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respondents' support for retention when frequent or extended absences were expected.

The reason behind this difference is unclear and merits further investigation to understand how the possibility of absences has a positive influence on spousal support for retention.

The U.S. Military's expectation that military personnel will place their military responsibilities first includes a built-in assumption that military spouses will handle all of the domestic responsibilities when needed (Harrison, 1997). I expected men to be more negatively influenced by the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse than women given that the more hours worked by their wife, the less time their wives have available to help out at home and the greater pressure for men to engage in household labor. As Kimmel (1993) indicated, men generally do not view homemaking as a "badge of masculinity" (p.57). Contrary to expectations, however, gender was not found to significantly interact with the hours worked per week by the active duty spouse to influence support for retention or support for retention when absences were possible.

The presence of a child or children in the family was found to have a significant positive influence on spouse support for retention. This may be because having children increases the importance of job security and benefits to the military spouse. Children were not found to significantly influence spouse support for retention when frequent or extended absences were a possibility. As the presence of children in the family has been found to lead to a more traditional gendered division of labor (Coltrane, 2000a), I next considered the interaction of gender and the presence of children in the family on support for retention. I expected having children to have a negative influence on men's support for their wives' retention in the U.S. Military. According to Risman (1998), even when couples are generally egalitarian in their views about the division of labor, cultural

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expectations about the appropriate roles for men and women in the family inevitably influence their behavior. Gendered expectations become an issue when children enter the family unit and the division of parental responsibilities becomes an issue. Research has indicated that children in the family are associated with longer hours for men in the labor force and fewer hours for women (Coltrane, 2000a; Sanchez and Thomson, 1997). The presence of children, therefore, encourages men to fulfill the provider role and women to fulfill the homemaker role.

As the military career is not exactly conducive to women working fewer hours, I expected the presence of children to increase gender role conflicts in the family particularly since the nature of the job casts women into a provider role as their military career determines many aspects of the family's life. The results indicated that gender does interact with the presence of children to significantly influence spouse support for retention. Specifically, men with children were less supportive of their wives' retention in the U.S. Military. Gender was not, however, found to significantly interact with children to influence support for retention when frequent or extended absences were possible. Therefore, the expectation of frequent or extended absences appears to be having an unexplained influence on spouse support for retention that negates the influence of children. I'm not certain why this occurs and it merits further investigation.

Several studies have indicated that military wives' support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military is influenced by the wives' satisfaction with the military lifestyle (Gill and Haurin, 1998; Pittman and Orthner, 1988). The inclusion of satisfaction with the military lifestyle in the regression analysis of support for retention confirmed this previous research. Specifically, satisfaction with the military lifestyle was

found to be the most significant predictor of spouse support for retention and spouse support for retention when absences were a possibility.

In conclusion, gender was found to significantly influence spouse support for retention, as men were less likely than women to support their spouses' retention in the U.S. Military. Gender was found to significantly interact with the presence of children in the family and employment concerns to influence spouse support for retention. As expected, children were found to negatively influence men's support for their wives' retention in the U.S. military. However, contrary to expectations employment concerns were found to positively influence men's support for their wives' retention in the U.S. Military.

Military Spouses and Satisfaction with the Military Lifestyle

The next step in the analysis involved examining whether or not gender, and the other independent variables included in the study, influenced military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle and through satisfaction their support for retention. Gender was not found to be a significant predictor of satisfaction with the military lifestyle. I had expected men to be less satisfied with the military lifestyle as it casts them into the non-traditional role of military spouse. The absence of a difference in men and women's satisfaction with the military lifestyle indicates that military husbands feel just as comfortable in the military community as military wives. It's possible that the fact that men are more likely to have military experience may explain why this gender difference in satisfaction didn't occur as those men with their own military experience may feel they have their own place in the military community apart from that of military spouse.

Segal and Segal (2003) theorized that military husbands with personal military experience would be better adjusted to the military lifestyle and therefore more supportive of their spouses' retention. Personal military experience, on its own, however, was not found to be a significant predictor of any of the three dependent variables included in this study. One possible explanation for this result is that there may be intervening that has yet to be identified that is preventing military experience from directly influencing spouse support for retention. Alternately, because this survey grouped all types of military service together for spouses, there may be a differential effect based on the type of service that is not being effectively portrayed by the data.

One of the variables that I was particularly interested in examining for its influence on satisfaction with the military lifestyle was concerns about employment during the family's last move. I believed this would indicate the significance of respondents' own employment. Concerns about employment were found to significantly influence military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle as those military spouses who had experienced employment concerns were less satisfied with the military lifestyle. I therefore believe that employment concerns are indirectly influencing military spouses' support for retention through their influence on satisfaction with the military lifestyle.

Conclusions

Prior research has indicated that family considerations and particularly military spouses' opinions play an important role in military personnel's retention decisions and the emphasis placed on retention by the U.S. Military reinforces the importance of knowing what factors negatively influence military spouses' support for retention. The

results of this study have important implications for the retention of female military personnel as military husbands were found to be less supportive than military wives of their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military. Contrary to my expectations, military husbands were found to be as satisfied with the military lifestyle as military wives, indicating that military husbands are relatively well adjusted to the military lifestyle and do not feel out of place in the military community. Therefore, other factors besides satisfaction with the military lifestyle are influencing military husbands' lack of support for their wives' retention.

This study found that the presence of children in the family had a negative influence on military husbands' support for their wives' retention. This may be associated with the availability of adequate childcare but additional research is necessary to explore this issue. Military wives may be more willing to provide childcare themselves whereas military husbands may want to outsource this childcare. As previously discussed, the primary burden for domestic responsibilities pertaining to children continues to fall to the mother in families. Even where both parents have relatively egalitarian views about the division of household labor, the presence of children in the family tends to lead to more traditional gendered divisions of labor. Therefore, when the wife is unable to provide sufficient childcare because of a demanding career, like the military, there may be increased demand by the family for childcare. However, the ability to outsource childcare will depend on its availability and affordability. Military husbands may begin to resent their wives' active duty careers if it results in more of the burden for childcare falling to them.

In my opinion, the decline of the family wage and the increasing prevalence of the dual-career family have made spousal employment an important factor in the retention decisions of U.S. Military personnel. It's difficult for one salary to meet all of a family's needs, particularly at lower economic levels. Previous research has indicated that spousal employment may play an important role in retention (Wood, 1989; McGee, 1990). Employment concerns were found to negatively influence military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle and through satisfaction with the military lifestyle they negatively influence military spouses' support for retention. It would, therefore, be valuable for the military to consider how to mitigate the potentially negative influence of military personnel's careers on their spouses' employment. It may also be useful for the military to consider whether or not the current salaries for lower ranking enlisted personnel are sufficient to support a family.

The military is a unique institution in society with many of the characteristics of a total institution. It's important to remember this when considering the broader implications of this research. Even though gender was found to be a significant predictor of military spouses' support for retention, the differences between men and women's support was not as significant as I expected. Additionally, gender was not found to significantly influence military spouses' satisfaction with the military lifestyle. To me, this indicates that military husbands are not having as difficult a time adjusting to the demands of the military lifestyle as I expected. The military constructs the military family as heroic in its sacrifices to support the military member, recognizing the importance of the family unit to military personnel's careers and the role played by the military spouse.

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It's therefore possible that the military allows men as military husbands to negotiate the performance of domestic responsibilities differently than in the civilian world.

The military offers a wide variety of support services to the military family, that are not commonly provided by civilian employers, that may assist with the demands made on the military spouse. Hochschild (1989) found that husbands will participate in household labor when it's necessary. However, they do it in a way that doesn't threaten their own masculinity. It's possible that by making it necessary and even heroic for military husbands' to participate in household labor, the military mitigates some of the negative aspects of domestic labor for men.

The fact that experiencing employment concerns during the family's last relocation increased military husbands' support for their wives' retention indicates to me that economic considerations are important to understanding men's views on their wives' careers. These views differ on the basis of class, income status and the availability of benefits. According to Shelton and John (1993b), men are more positive about their wives' working and therefore more supportive when it is an economic necessity. Therefore, a traditional gender ideology about the division of labor in the family is a luxury available only to those occupying a higher economic status. For lower-income families, the struggle to survive is their preeminent concern. The majority of military personnel belong to the lower ranks where their salary alone is probably not sufficient to support the military family. Therefore, economic necessity may be the primary influence on these family's retention decisions.

Limitations and Future Research

There were a number of limitations on this research that hindered the development of a more complete understanding of the differences in male and female military spouses' and their support for retention. With regards to examining the characteristics of military husbands and military wives, I would have liked to have been able to examine whether or not differences existed in the number of years they had been married to their active duty spouse. As military husbands appeared to be older on average than military wives, it would have been interesting to know if they had been married to their current spouse for a longer period of time or if they had married at an older age than military wives. The length of the marriage would be a proxy measure for the amount of time that men have had to adjust to the role of military spouse. Those men who are unable to adjust to this gender role are likely to have encouraged their spouse to leave the military at an early point in the marriage.

I also believe knowing the types of employment military spouses were involved in would have been useful to understanding the influence of employment concerns on spouse support for retention. If military spouses are, themselves, in demanding occupations that expect a high level of devotion from their employees (Ferree, 1984), it's likely to create more conflict in the family over whose career should take priority. The military spouse in such an occupation may be less willing to subordinate their own career goals to those of their active duty spouse. At the same time, if the military spouse's job is low paying or lacking in benefits, they'd probably be more supportive of their active duty spouse's career since it provides relatively secure employment and good benefits for the family.

Additionally, certain factors associated with the presence of children in the family would also have been useful to understanding how children influence spouse support for retention. In particular, knowing the number and age of the children in the family, as well as, the amount of outside childcare being consumed by the family would have been useful. It might have provided some more clarity in how the presence of children interacts with gender to influence military spouses' support for retention. Women are encouraged to be more involved in the home when there are children in the family. According to Greenstein (1996), the more children in the family, the more household labor that the wife is expected to perform. Given that the military career isn't exactly conducive to military personnel's spending a significant amount of time on domestic concerns like childcare, it would have been useful to examine how the number of children influenced men's support for their wives' retention in the U.S. Military.

In addition, more information on how the household responsibilities were being divided up between the parents would have been useful. Men's perceptions and support for their wives' employment has been found to significantly predict their involvement in household labor (Haas, 1982). Men tend to be more supportive of their wives' working when they can view it as just earning money and not actually contributing to the family's support and therefore, not challenging gender roles within the family (Wilkie, 1993). According to Shelton and John (1993b), men with more traditional gender role beliefs are likely to be less involved in household labor than those with more equalitarian views. Therefore, the amount of household labor military husbands are performing may be an indicator of their views on gender roles in the family and on the appropriateness of their wives' careers in the military.

With regards to education, I think it would have been useful to consider how many military spouses are currently pursuing educational degrees. Those who are in school may be more supportive of their spouses' military careers because they recognize the value of a source of support. I think that educational pursuits would have had a relatively consistent influence on men and women's support for their active duty spouses' retention in the U.S. Military.

Methodologically this study has some limitations. Specifically, utilizing secondary data from the 1999 Survey of Active Duty Spouses can provide only so much information about the factors influencing spouse support for retention in the U.S. Military. As the main objective of the survey administrators wasn't to understand what factors influenced support for retention, the survey itself wasn't tailored to address this issue. It's unknown whether or not the right questions were asked in the survey and if all of the relevant factors were included. Future research is, therefore, necessary to develop a more complete understanding of the influence of gender on spousal support for the retention of active duty military personnel.

To this end, I believe the next phase of this research should include a series of in-depth personal interviews with both male and female military spouses. There may be certain factors influencing spouse support for retention and particularly military husbands' support, that have not been considered in this study. These will only come to light through personal interviews. Additionally, with regards to satisfaction with the military lifestyle, I would like to explore further what factors contribute to satisfaction and whether or not gender roles do impact satisfaction with the military lifestyle on some level. Finally, it would be useful to compare military husbands with husbands in the

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larger society with regards to the influence of their employment status and their gender ideology on their support for their wives' careers.

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Appendix A

Code Book

I. Dependent Variables

Absence

If your spouse's future assignments require long or frequent separations from you or your family, how likely is it that you will encourage your spouse to remain in the military?

- 1 – Very unlikely
- 2 – Unlikely
- 3 – Undecided
- 4 – Likely
- 5 – Very likely

Retention

Do you think your spouse should stay on or leave active duty?

- 1 – I strongly favor leaving
- 2 – I somewhat favor leaving
- 3 – I have no opinion one way or the other
- 4 – I somewhat favor staying
- 5 – I strongly favor staying

Satisfaction with the Military Lifestyle

Now, taking all things together, how satisfied are you with the military way of life?

- 1 – Very dissatisfied
- 2 – Dissatisfied
- 3 – Neither satisfied or dissatisfied
- 4 – Satisfied
- 5 – Very satisfied

II. Independent Variables

Military experience

Are you currently serving on active duty (not a member of the National Guard or Reserve)/Member of the National Guard or Reserve in a full-time Active duty program/other type of National Guard or Reserve member?

- 0 – No/Not marked
- 1 – Yes/Marked

ADhours (S9919)

During the past 12 months, how many hours per week did your spouse usually work?

- 1 – 40 or less
- 2 – 41-50 hours
- 3 – 51-60 hours
- 4 – 61-70 hours
- 5 – 71-80 hours

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6 – 81 or more

Age

What age were you on your last birthday?

1 – 16-19 yrs.

2 – 20-24 yrs.

3 – 25-29 yrs.

4 – 30-34 yrs.

5 – 35-39 yrs.

6 – 40-44 yrs.

7 – 45 or more yrs.

Children

Do you have a child, children or other legal dependents?

0 – No

1 - Yes

Education

What is the highest degree or level of school that you have completed?

1 – High school grad or less

2 – Some college but less than 1 yr.

3 – 1 or more years of college but no degree

4 – Associates degree

5 – Bachelor's degree

6 – Masters/PhD/Professional

Gender

Constructed gender

0 – Female

1 - Male

Employment Concerns

When you and/or your family members made the most recent PCS move, were any of the following a problem – Your employment?

1 – Not a problem

2 – Slight problem

3 – Somewhat of a problem

4 – Serious problem

Race

Constructed race and ethnicity: 5 level-recoded

0 – Not Hispanic, White

1 – Not Hispanic, African American or Black

2 – Hispanic

3 – Other

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Rank

Recode of constructed member paygrade

1 – E1-E3 (Private through Private first class)

2 – E4 (Corporal/Specialist)

3 – E5-E6 (Sgt – Staff Sgt)

4 – E7-E9 (Sgt First Class – Sgt Major)

5 – W1-W5 (Warrant Officer – Chief Warrant Officer)

6 – 01-03 (2nd Lt – Captain)

7 – 04-06 (Major – Col)

Appendix B Additional Descriptive Statistics

Table 1: Cross-tabulation of gender with age and race/ethnicity.

N=18,588		
<u>Respondents Age</u>	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
16-19 yrs. (1)	325 (1.9%)	7 (0.6%)
20-24 yrs. (2)	2,874 (16.6%)	154 (12.2%)
25-29 yrs. (3)	3,463 (20.0%)	236 (18.7%)
30-34 yrs. (4)	3,759 (21.7%)	208 (16.5%)
35-39 yrs. (5)	3,475 (20.1%)	262 (20.8%)
40-44 yrs. (6)	2,027 (11.7%)	176 (13.9%)
45 and up (7)	1,403 (8.1%)	219 (17.4%)
Total	17,326	1,262
Pearson's Chi Square:	162.13	Significance: 0.00

N= 18,311		
<u>Race/ethnicity</u>	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
White	11,940 (69.9%)	777 (62.8%)
Black	1,602 (9.4%)	261 (21.1%)
Hispanic	1,620 (9.5%)	102 (8.2%)
Other Race	1,912 (11.2%)	97 (7.8%)
Total	17,074	1,237
Pearson's Chi Square:	177.79	Significance: 0.00

Table 2: Cross-tabulations of gender with respondents' education, military experience, children, and employment concerns during the family's last move.

N= 17,983		
<u>Education</u>	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
High school or less (1)	4,146 (24.5%)	203 (18.9%)
Some college but less than 1 yr. (2)	2,351 (13.9%)	209 (19.4%)
1 or more yrs college but no degree (3)	3,863 (22.8%)	265 (24.7%)
Associates degree (4)	1,930 (11.4%)	84 (7.8%)
Bachelor's degree (5)	3,513 (20.8%)	202 (18.8%)
Graduate degree (6)	1,105 (6.5%)	112 (10.4%)
Total	16,908	1,075
Pearson's Chi Square:	72.64	Significance: 0.00
N=19,275		
<u>Military Experience</u>	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
No (0)	16,725 (93.3%)	787 (58.6%)
Yes (1)	1,208 (6.7%)	555 (41.4%)
Total	17,933	1,342
Pearson's Chi Square:	1800.80	Significance: 0.00
N=18,597		
<u>Children</u>	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
No (0)	4,221 (24.4%)	473 (37.3%)
Yes (1)	13,109 (75.6%)	794 (62.7%)
Total	17,330	1,267
Pearson's Chi Square:	105.35	Significance: 0.00
N=11,607		
<u>Employment Concerns</u>	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
Not a problem (1)	4,242 (39.2%)	369 (47.8%)
Slight problem (2)	1,757 (16.2%)	103 (13.3%)
Somewhat of a problem (3)	2,189 (20.2%)	119 (15.4%)
Serious problem (4)	2,647 (24.4%)	181 (23.4%)
Total	10,835	772
Pearson's Chi Square:	25.87	Significance: 0.00

Table 3: Cross-tabulations between gender and the active duty spouses' average hours worked per week and their rank.

N=18,264

<u>Avg. Hrs Worked</u>	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
40 hrs or less (1)	1,568 (9.2%)	128 (10.2%)
41-50 hrs (2)	6,033 (35.5%)	553 (44.2%)
51-60 hrs (3)	4,854 (28.5%)	335 (26.8%)
61-70 hrs (4)	2,640 (15.5 %)	152 (12.2%)
71-80 hrs (5)	1,015 (6.0%)	50 (4.0%)
81 or more (6)	904 (5.3%)	32 (2.6%)
Total	17,014	1,250
Pearson's Chi Square:	60.96	Significance: 0.00

N=35,138

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
E1-E3 (1)	3,518 (11.1%)	588 (17.6%)
E4 (2)	4,975 (15.6%)	807 (24.2%)
E5-E6 (3)	10,324 (32.5%)	948 (28.4%)
E7-E9 (4)	4,950 (15.6%)	410 (12.3%)
W1-W5 (5)	2,521 (7.9%)	94 (2.8%)
01-03 (6)	2,641 (8.3%)	291 (8.7%)
04-06 (7)	2,871 (9.0%)	200 (6.0%)
Total	31,800	3,338
Pearson's Chi Square:	420.08	Significance: 0.00

Table 4: Cross-tabulations of gender with dependent variables

N=18,465

Support for Retention

	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
Strongly favor leaving (1)	2,687 (15.6%)	297 (23.7%)
Somewhat favor leaving (2)	2,477 (14.4%)	156 (12.4%)
No opinion (3)	2,203 (12.8%)	134 (10.7%)
Somewhat favor staying (4)	3,837 (22.3%)	243 (19.4%)
Strongly favor staying (5)	6006 (34.9%)	425 (33.9%)
Total	17,210	1,255
Pearson's Chi Square:	59.17	Significance: 0.00

N=18,512

Support GivenExpectation of Absences

	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
Very unlikely (1)	6,042 (35.0%)	563 (44.6%)
Unlikely (2)	2,725 (15.8%)	179 (14.2%)
Undecided (3)	3,546 (20.6%)	204 (16.2%)
Likely (4)	2,722 (15.8%)	176 (13.9%)
Very likely (5)	2,214 (12.8%)	141 (11.2%)
Total	17,249	1,263
Pearson's Chi Square:	48.47	Significance: 0.00

N=18,212

Satisfaction

	<u>Women (0)</u>	<u>Men (1)</u>
Very dissatisfied (1)	916 (5.4%)	82 (6.7%)
Dissatisfied (2)	2,708 (15.9%)	204 (16.7%)
Neither satisfied or dissatisfied (3)	3,773 (22.2%)	269 (22.0%)
Satisfied (4)	8,258 (48.6%)	554 (45.3%)
Very satisfied (5)	1,333 (7.8%)	115 (9.4%)
Total	16,988	1,224
Pearson's Chi Square:	10.06	Significance: 0.04

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