Sex-role congruence: Marital satisfaction and household division of labor

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Sex-role congruence: Marital satisfaction and household division of labor

Gillespie, Jack Paul, M.A.
University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 1989
Sex-Role Congruence: Marital Satisfaction and Household Division of Labor

by
Jack P. Gillespie

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Psychology

Psychology Department
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August, 1989
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August, 1989
Abstract

Earlier investigations of marital satisfaction and household division of labor in dual-worker families have produced contradictory findings. The present research investigates the sex-role congruency of spouses and their attitudes toward autonomy for women and evaluates the impact of these variables on marital satisfaction and the division of labor in the home for single-worker and dual-worker families.

This study examines household organization and the perceived level of marital well-being by focusing on the married couple as the unit of analysis. The amount of time that both spouses are involved in the work force and participate in household labor is investigated through reports from both the husband and wife, as are the measures of marital satisfaction.

Fifty-eight husbands and wives completed a series of questionnaires and psychological scales that assessed demographic information, sex-role orientation, sex-role congruence, marital satisfaction, and household task performance. The findings of this investigation support earlier contentions of the importance of focusing on sex-role attitude congruency as a critical variable in marital research.
The results of this study indicate that couples of the Modern Wife/Traditional Husband type have greater levels of marital dysfunction than couples of the opposite incongruent configuration. Additionally, Traditional/Traditional couples are represented in the data as more husband dominated in the family decision-making process than families of the Modern/Modern type. The results also reveal that attitude toward autonomy for women, gender, and employment status of the wife are related to marital adjustment and division of labor in the home.
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Acknowledgements

I wish to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Lori Temple for introducing me to a new way of viewing the marital relationship and for her continued and timely assistance in developing this project from its genesis to its close. I wish to acknowledge my heartfelt indebtedness to Dr. Charles Rasmussen for his encouragement and the many hours of his time. To Dr. P. Diane Turnbough I am especially beholden for her continued support and consultation throughout this endeavor. For the contribution of his valuable time and effort, I thank Dr. Malvin Miranda. I would like to thank the Graduate Student Association for its generous assistance in financing a large measure of this research. To my wife and daughter, I wish to say how much I appreciate your understanding and patience during the course of this work.
Chapter 1

Introduction

Statement of Problem

Over the past quarter-century, the convergence of social, economic, political, and psychological factors has generated radical changes in the structure of modern consciousness regarding the role of both men and women within society and the family. Although women have comprised a large portion of the work force for over fifty years, it is only recently that social opinion has shifted in favor of females' active participation in many professions and crafts.

The economic demands of the past decade have forced many households to become dual-worker families, in which the wife's income, in many cases, equals or surpasses that of her spouse. Events in the political domain have resulted in Equal Opportunity Employment, rules and legislation governing sexual harassment in the work place, and provisions for child-care, with maternity leaves for both spouses now being offered by a number of employers. At the same time, a shift in opinions toward more liberal and egalitarian sex-role attitudes has been documented (e.g., Mason, Czajka, & Arber, 1976; Tallichet & Willits, 1985; Thornton, Alwin, & Camburn, 1983).
As a result, the conception of what constitutes appropriate male and female behavior within the marital venue (i.e., sex-role orientation) has been altered dramatically. The question of what makes individuals happy in a marital arrangement may no longer be answered merely in terms of successful performance of heretofore traditional gender-role activities. Questions concerning household task allocation (e.g., "Who pays the bills?", "Who will cook and do the laundry?", and "Who repairs the car?") can no longer be answered strictly as a function of gender.

Likewise, the degree of marital satisfaction and level of marital dysfunction resulting from the integration of each spouse's sex-role orientation into the family system, exhibited in the corresponding household organization, must be measured in terms of contemporary attitudes and marriage practices. Consequently, there is a need to investigate the marital relationship from the perspective of both spouses to determine the ways in which marital interactions affect each gender exclusively and both sexes inclusively.

In an attempt to minimize the degree of misunderstanding that may be associated with the personal and random interpretation of the various terms commonly associated with research involving sex-roles
and sex-role orientation, definitions for some of the more ambiguous of these have been provided early in this text that may help clarify their use within this investigation.

**Definition of Terms**

For the purposes of this research the terms listed are defined as follows:

**Decision-Making:** Refers to the degree the authority to make critical family decisions is shared by husband and wife.

**Sex-role orientation:** Represents the extent to which each spouse ascribes to sex-role norms deemed as appropriate male and female behavior as defined by normative consensus.

**Sex-role congruency:** Indicates couples with corresponding sex-role orientations (i.e., Modern Wife/Modern Husband, Traditional Wife/Traditional Husband).

**Sex-role incongruency:** Indicates couples with conflicting sex-role orientations (i.e., Traditional Wife/Modern Husband, Modern Wife/Traditional Husband).

**Traditional Sex-role Norms:** Those standards that stimulate discrimination of family roles based on the premise that the focus of the female's time is spent on household and child care tasks while making her own
interests secondary for the well-being of the family; whereas, the male assumes the obligation for family economic survival and role of provider.

**Modern Sex-role Norms:** Emphasizes equality between the sexes (i.e., egalitarianism), wherein each spouse has the prerogative to pursue the benefits of employment outside the home. Accordingly, household, emotional, and child-care tasks become, at least in theory, shared responsibilities.

**Egalitarian:** Defines equal not as treating everyone in an identical fashion but as giving equal status to spouses' individual styles.

**The Current Study**

As suggested by Bowen and Orthner (1983), sex-role congruency between couples should be recognized as an important correlate of relationship satisfaction. In the present study, marital roles are conceived as comprised of related sets of behaviors that have been normatively determined and expected of an individual in a specific social situation, namely, marriage (Araji, 1977). Traditional role preference as defined by Bowen and Orthner is that familial situation in which the primary focus of the wife's time is spent tending to the well-being of the family, and recognizes her primary purpose as being responsible for household and
child-care tasks. Conversely, modern preferences emphasize equality between the sexes (i.e., egalitarianism), wherein each spouse has the prerogative to pursue the benefits of employment outside the home. Accordingly, household, emotional, and child-care tasks become, at least in theory, shared responsibilities.

Numerous investigations have focused on the relationship of sex-role orientation and marital adjustment within the family system. Brogan and Kutner (1976) have addressed the interaction among sex-role orientation and several select variables (e.g., women's educational status, age, religious affiliation, and the effects of mothers' employment status on the sex-role orientation of their daughters). The findings of their investigation indicate a strong relationship between education and sex-role orientation, as well as a sex-role and the variables of age and employment status of the mother. Brogan and Kutner discovered that the higher the education level of a female's mother, the more nontraditional that woman's sex-role attitudes. By the same token, as a female's level of educational attainment increases, the more she favors equality for women. The findings from the research of Brogan and Kutner (1976) further suggest that younger persons, whether males or females, were most nontraditional and
older persons were most traditional in sex-role orientation.

Murstein and Williams (1983) operationally defined sex-roles as a function of the amount of masculinity or femininity an individual possessed and examined the effects of these roles on measures of marital adjustment. They concluded that women's marital adjustment is highly dependent upon the husband's sex-role attitudes, and as a result of their findings proposed a woman's ideal husband should possess a large degree of both masculine and feminine attributes. Other research has focused its attention on unmarried individuals defined as androgynous (i.e., possessing both masculine and feminine traits) to examine the association between sex-role orientation and attitudes toward preferred marital roles and the subject's reported ideal orientation of a mate (Pursell, Banikiotes, & Sebastian, 1981).

Pursell and associates (1981) discovered a conflict that existed between the two sexes. Males rated their level of satisfaction in a traditional marriage significantly greater than did the females. They also found that women favored egalitarian marriages significantly more than men. The men in the investigation were reported to favor the traditional
role of husband more than the females approved of the
traditional wife's role.

Additionally, Rachlin and Hansen (1985) compared
egalitarian/nonegalitarian role relations and perception
of equity as they impacted marital adjustment and
marital satisfaction in dual-career relationships.
Rachlin and Hansen propose that there is a significant
difference between wives in relationships they perceive
as equal versus those in relationships viewed by them as
inequitable. They report that women in equitable
relations are characterized by greater individual
well-being and marital satisfaction. However, Rachlin
and Hansen indicate no differences were found for
husbands in either type of relationship (i.e., equitable
vs. inequitable). As a result of these findings,
Rachlin and Hansen (1985) argue that the differences in
the reactions of husbands and wives in shared situations
indicate the importance of studying both spouses as the
unit of analysis in dual-worker families. Such
investigations should, as suggested by Rachlin and
Hansen, help clarify the interpretation of future
findings.

The discrepancies in role expectations between
couples in marital arrangements has also been
investigated by Stuckert (1963) to determine its effect
on marital satisfaction as measured on an 8-item schedule of the Burgess and Wallin marital adjustment questionnaire. Stuckert found in newlywed couples that the degree to which the wives' judgment of their husband's expectations parallels his actual expectations is the foremost predictor of marital satisfaction for female spouses. Stuckert also claims it is the actual similarity between the husbands' own role concepts and expectations and those of their spouses that is the single most important factor in determining marital adjustment for males.

Bowen and Orthner (1983) have examined sex-role congruency to determine its effect on marital quality. On the basis of their research investigation, they have concluded that the sex-role attitude congruency of the spouses is related to the level of marital satisfaction seen in the marriage. The type of marriages found by Bowen and Orthner to have the lowest measure of marital satisfaction were those that included a modern wife matched with a traditional husband.

Though a great number of studies have been conducted to investigate sex-role orientation and marital satisfaction, most of these studies have investigated only one or a few areas of marital well-being at a given time. There may well be reason
for future research undertakings to be more comprehensive in defining the measures of marital satisfaction affected by the variables of concern.

Snyder (1979) has expressed the view that past and future investigations may be confounded by reports of what on the surface appears to be conflicting data (e.g., Bowen & Orthner, 1983; Scanzoni, 1975). He attributes many of the conflicting findings in the literature regarding marital satisfaction to the inconsistency with which researchers have identified similar variables and defined criteria of marital satisfaction. Snyder further asserts that the irregularities in previous research techniques have made an examination of the significance of the relationship between various dimensions in predicting marital satisfaction nearly impossible. Clearly, further research in this area utilizing a multidimensional assessment of marital satisfaction is warranted.

Of equal prominence with the evaluation of the effects sex-role attitudes on measures of marital satisfaction is the consideration of the relationship between sex-role congruency and household organization. Scanzoni (1980) whose model of family change focuses on the balance of power between the sexes, views the interaction between spouses as evolving toward more
egalitarian marriages, primarily determined by the increased division of the wage-earner role by husband and wife. Araji (1977) adds that where there is a discrepancy between attitude and behavior; generally, both spouses express an egalitarian role attitude that is not reflected in the role behaviors. Krausz (1983) who views sex-role orientation as a primary factor in the formation of family roles, points out that though we are still essentially affected by traditional sex-roles, contemporary realities have dictated inevitable changes in the family functioning. She suggests it is the exodus of females from the home into the labor force that is possibly the single most significant change in the family structure.

Krausz claims the move of wives into the labor market has resulted in a reorganization in the distribution of household tasks and decision making within the family unit. The question of who is responsible for the assorted tasks within the marriage (i.e., traditional female tasks, traditional male tasks, emotional tasks, child-care tasks), as well as who has the final say so in family matters, is destined to disrupt the homeostasis of the family system and increase the probability of discord concerning these issues.
The available evidence does suggest that the traditionally female household tasks such as cleaning, cooking and laundry are essentially being performed by wives; whereas, male tasks such as home repairs and auto maintenance continue to be accomplished by the husbands (Atkinson & Huston, 1984; Condran & Bode, 1982; Krausz, 1986; Roper & Labeff, 1977; Temple & Colletto, 1988). Other studies have focused on the correlation of demographic and personality variables to the distribution of household responsibilities (Komarovsky, 1967; Nyquist, Slivken, Spence, & Helmreich, 1985; Safilos-Rothschild, 1970). The findings of this research indicate that level of education, number of hours worked, occupational status and expressiveness are significantly related to the allocation of family tasks and decision making in the family.

Another body of marital research has tended to focus on more specific dimensions of marital interaction such as communication, finances, intimate relations, and issues regarding children and child rearing (Gottman, Markman, & Notarius, 1977; Macklin, 1983; Mowbray, Lanir, & Hulce, 1982; Rosen & Granbois, 1983). Yet, each of these areas of inquiry require further investigation by researchers with a point of view that clearly defines the couple as the unit of analysis.
Research designed to include the responses of both parties conjointly may help determine what may be acceptable behavior for them within the framework established by the synthesis of each spouse's personal sex-role orientation.

Consequently, it is no longer appropriate to consider the family in terms of traditional expectations. The evidence suggests that there are a variety of marriage and family arrangements that must be considered. Margolin, Fernandez, Talovic, and Onorato (1983) remind us that our attention can no longer be concentrated on females as the only victims or on the persistence of the myth defining traditional marriage roles as the ultimate reason for marital discord. Schurman (1987) and Bernard (1981) report that traditional marriages have been exacting and restrictive for males as well as for females. In view of the evidence, it is essential that investigations regarding marital interaction need to focus on the family unit (i.e., husband and wife).

Statement of Purpose

A review of the literature investigating marital satisfaction reveals a contradictory pattern of findings from which we may assemble few consistent results. As a function of methodology, most of the earlier
investigations focused on one or two central factors as determinants of marital satisfaction at the exclusion of many other pertinent variables. However, marital quality is determined by a myriad of mediating variables that need to be investigated in concert with each other. If we are to obtain valid measures of marital satisfaction that provide insights into the precise nature or sources of marital distress, we must conduct research that permits a relative comparison of many different types of dysfunction. This investigation will undertake the task of evaluating marital discord through multidimensional assessment and analysis of several key measures of marital satisfaction.

This study will further attempt to investigate the dynamics of the familial interaction (i.e., decision-making and household task allocation) and resultant measures of marital satisfaction from a modified family system perspective. The position taken here will be to focus on an analysis in which the primary unit of exploration will be composed of both the husband and wife as matched by their self-reported attitudes of appropriate sex-role behavior (i.e., sex-role congruence).

Another important purpose of this research will be to examine the relationship between sex-role congruence
and decision-making power within the family system. It is expected the extent of congruence between the spouses regarding sex-role orientation will impact on who has the greater say in family decisions.

Additionally, the research will focus on two critical predictor variables, gender and wife's employment status. In this manner, the study strives to correlate the couple's shared attitudes toward the expected male/female marital roles (sex-role congruence) with their attitudes toward the relationship (marital satisfaction) as well as with reported measures of the household organization (behavior). Thus, the dependent variables will be investigated within the context of the female spouse's employment status from the perspective of each and both spouses.

Significance of the Study

The results and conclusions of this research will benefit the practitioner, researcher and layperson alike. The information provided by this investigation will demonstrate which demographic factors, psychological characteristics, and household organization practices of the spouses are related to dysfunctional outcomes. Examination of these characteristics in concert with the multidimensional Marital Satisfaction Inventory will provide the
practitioner with an additional perspective necessary for thorough and competent interpretation of the instrument's scales.

The results of this study may help dispel the myth that adherence to traditional marriage roles is the primary cause of marital dysfunction. The outcomes of this research will demonstrate the interaction of not only couples who adhere to traditional values, but will provide insight into marital relationships in which the couples mutually agree to more modern values, and those in which the spouses' preferred role orientations are not harmonious. In this way this research will help to determine which types of marital arrangements and associated factors contribute to functional and dysfunctional outcomes.

Finally, this research addresses the issues of household organization, marital quality, and decision making from the perspective of both spouses. In doing so, this research reflects the perspective of both the husband and the wife and may be useful in the evaluation of earlier works and as a measure for investigations that may follow.

Hypotheses

The current study addresses several hypotheses as follows:
1. Spouses with congruent sex-role orientation (i.e., both modern or both traditional) will have lower levels of marital dysfunction than husbands and wives with incongruent sex-role orientation (i.e., wife traditional, husband modern; husband traditional, wife modern).

2. Spouses with incongruent sex-role orientation of the Modern Wife/Traditional Husband type will have higher levels of marital dysfunction than husbands and wives with incongruent sex-role attitudes of the Traditional Wife/Modern Husband type.

3. Spouses with sex-role congruency of the traditional type will have marriages characterized by less sharing of decision-making than marriages with sex-role incongruency or sex-role congruency of the modern type.

4. Dual-worker marriages in which spouses have sex-role congruency of the modern type will be distinguished by greater household-task sharing and less role specialization according to traditional sex-role norms than marriages of any other type.

In addition, the current study will examine the relationship between the major dependent variables and demographic data (e.g., age, years of education, years married, number of children, occupation, and income).
Chapter 2

Literature Review

The number of dual-worker families has steadily increased over the past two or more decades, radically altering the structure of the family unit. In effect, outside employment of the housewife/mother may have had a greater impact on the family arrangement than any other recent social development (Krausz, 1983; Yogev, 1982). As a consequence of the family unit's modification, sex-roles and sex-role orientation have been the topic of investigation for a number of years. Most recently, the focus of research involving sex-role attitude has been shifting from the perspective of analysis of individuals to that of evaluating the married couple as a whole (i.e., sex-role congruence) (Bowen & Orthner, 1983; Cooper, Chassin, & Zeiss, 1985).

Although, as early as the 1940s, women over the age of 35 with empty nests or children in school, had entered the labor market in increased numbers, it has been only in the last twenty years that researchers have studied the relationship between employment outside the home and family interaction on a large scale (Krausz, 1986; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969). By the 1950s, the influx of females into the labor market began to include married women with children at home (Ross, Mirowsky, &
Huber, 1983). Davis (1981) reports that twenty-two million women were participating in the labor force by 1958.

Women's earlier entry into the labor force was received with less than open arms. In the 1950s and 1960s, married women employed outside the home were viewed as failures in terms of the societal concept of femininity at the time. They were seen as threats to the institutions of marriage and family by those who adhered strongly to the "traditional" roles of marriage (Yogev, 1982). Between the years 1900 and 1970, the percentage of females employed outside the home increased from 20 percent of the work force to nearly 50 percent (Ross et al., 1983).

A major contributing factor to the marked growth of women's participation in the work force was the birth of the Women's Liberation Movement. With it has come an ever-widening acceptance of the notion that it is acceptable for females to strive for satisfaction beyond the confines of the home and family. Inspired by the spirit and needs of the times, women continued to flow into the work force. By 1984, women's involvement in the labor market was greater than that of males, standing at 54 percent of the total number of workers,
and according to Pleck (1985), participation in the work force by women continues to increase annually.

There are several other factors that have eased the way for increased female activity in the labor market. Improved contraceptive methods have given families dominion in the realm of parenthood, thus allowing them more latitude in planning the family life cycle. Women are better educated today than ever before; subsequently, they are more able to meet the demands of current enterprise and are desirable employees because of their skills. In many instances, the rising cost of living has dictated that wives and mothers seek employment outside the home. The effects of these and other social, political, and economic changes have affected both husbands' and wives' sex-role attitudes, and influenced women's decisions to enter the labor force (Ross et al., 1983). Understandably, the investigation of the effects of sex-role congruence on marital satisfaction and division of labor in the home is of paramount importance as dual-worker families become increasingly widespread.

Sex-Roles and Sex-Role Orientation

As Sinnott (1986) has noted, the conceptualization of sex-roles is driven by the needs of the times, whether they are ideational, financial, societal, or
political needs, and by individuals, driven by a need for cognitive consistency, who adopt the evolving new view of sex-roles as "natural." Obviously, too rapid, immediate, or extreme change in socially acceptable sex-role behavior may result in cognitive dissonance among individuals, leading to marital dissatisfaction and discord that may be evidenced by the dysfunction of household organization, including performance of household tasks. Recent research has revealed that there is a greater reduction of traditionalism in women than in men (McBroom, 1984). McBroom warns that a long-term major consequence of this unilateral shift in attitude may result in increased rates of marital tension and discord than previously reported.

Deaux (1984) reports, in her review of the literature, that the research related to sex and gender has accelerated in the last 15 years. Her investigation discloses that the role of gender as a subject variable and those of individual differences in masculinity and femininity are inefficient for providing answers to issues of sex-role orientation. She proposes, similarly to the suggestion of Sinnott (1986), that sex-roles are not defined by how men and women actually differ, but on how people think they differ. Araji (1977), adds that sex-roles are to be determined by the specificity of the
situation in which they are performed. He identifies sex-roles as normatively determined, homogeneous sets of behaviors that are expected of individuals in marital setting.

In dispute of these opinions, Smith and Reid (1986) argue that the role sharing taking place between husbands and wives is not now normatively determined, nor has it ever been behavior determined by societal norms. They suggest the sex-role of couples has been, and continues to be, determined predominately on the basis of biological differences between the spouses. Consequently, Sherif (cited in Unger, 1984) has pointed out that the concept of sex-role is plagued by double jeopardy. In her opinion, sex-role is an idea that couples a biological term with a sociological one; thus, imperiled by the myths of gender, while simultaneously threatened by the sociological concept of roles. Unger (1984) best summarizes the prevailing attitudes of modern psychology in her assertion that maleness and femaleness should be viewed as social constructs verified by the distribution of husbands and wives into distinct social roles, and sustained by the psychological needs of each individual for self-consistency and the need to behave in a culturally desirable fashion.
Providing an absolute definition for present-day sex-roles might prove to be a difficult, if not impossible, task. Some investigators continue to define sex-roles in a way that the expected roles of females differ significantly from those of males (Trotter, Uhlig, & Kennedy, 1982). Some claim it is the responsibility of the wife to bear children and be a "good mother" (S. N. C. Lewis & C. L. Cooper, 1987), whereas other researchers report that the female spouse has the primary responsibility for the home and may participate in the outside labor market only after making sure the household tasks are completed (Thorne & Yalom, 1982).

In an attempt to avoid the obvious confusion inherent in trying to adhere to what seems a nonexistent definition of sex-roles that may be applied uniformly in the field of psychology, Snyder (1985) has utilized, what he has termed, the "criterion-keying approach" to develop a sex-role orientation scale for the Marital Satisfaction Inventory. By using this method, he claims to have developed a scale in which items on the scale are selected on the basis of their ability to discriminate on an experiential basis between two or more groups, not on the explanation of their relationship to a theoretical construct. Snyder's Role
Orientation (ROR) scale appears to represent a continuum of socially appropriate sex-role behaviors, ranging from the "traditional" to the "modern".

Under investigation, the ROR seems to measure sex-role along those dimensions proposed by Hartley (1970). In this model, a "traditional" baseline is suggested by Hartley that is a "patriarchal, male dominated, role segregated pattern" (p.127), in which the activities of each sex are rigidly proscribed and exclusive. According to Hartley, women were considered to be inferior to men, dependent upon them, and were expected to obey the male spouse. A similar pattern of traditional female sex-role behavior is defined by Bowen and Orthner (1983). They define the female's traditional sex-role as that familial situation in which the female subordinates her own interests for the well-being of the family, and recognizes her primary purpose as being responsible for household and child-care tasks. The role of the male spouse is seen as head of the household, responsible for providing economic support and for making major decisions.

Conversely, the "modern" sex-role of couples is distinguished by the level of equality between the sexes (i.e., egalitarianism). In this arrangement, each spouse has the opportunity to pursue employment outside
the home, and household, emotional, and child-care tasks become shared responsibilities. Not only does the Role Orientation scale developed by Snyder (1985) identify individuals with traditional sex-role orientation as described here, but it also discriminates between these and sex-role preferences of the modern type, in which "wife's career gains status with her role of mother" (p. 29) and the "husbands are likely to view their roles within the home as having equal priority to their own career opportunities" (p. 29).

Undoubtedly, then, it would appear that sex-role orientation and the degree of couple congruence are critical underlying factors that influence the development of marital roles toward a more egalitarian exchange in which both the husband and wife have a meaningful role in both outside employment and household task sharing (Krausz, 1983). Arnott (1972) follows by suggesting that the extent of agreement between spouses concerning sex-role attitudes (i.e., sex-role congruence) may be more important than the actual content of their beliefs. Cooper and her colleagues (1985) concur and emphasize that sex-role congruence could lead to less tension in the relationship, regardless of the specific beliefs and attitudes each spouse may hold. This reduction in stress and anxiety
should result in increased marital satisfaction for both husband and wife.

**Household Organization/Wife's Employment**

In his assessment of the literature regarding attitudes toward women's labor force participation, Szinovacz (1984) has found that the overall evidence suggests acceptance of wives' employment outside the home has increased over the past two decades. His findings further indicate that involvement in the outside labor market by mothers with school aged children has also become an accepted prerogative.

Consequently, the dramatic increase in the labor force participation rate of married women in recent years would lead to the speculation that families are moving toward more egalitarian relationships as proposed by Scanzoni (1980). However, Krausz (1983) argues that although women's entry into the work force has dictated inevitable changes in family functioning, the familial interaction is still essentially determined by traditional sex-roles. As reported in many investigations, few women receive any discernible amount of help from their spouses, even when the wives have full-time employment outside the home (Nyquist et al., 1985). In their earlier work, Nickols and Metzen (1982) found that the number of hours wives worked had very
little impact on the amount of time husbands spent doing housework; although, the more hours husbands are employed, compared to their wives, the less they are involved in housework (Atkinson & Huston, 1984). The recent investigation of Berardo, Shehan, and Leslie (1987) discloses that the division of household labor in dual-worker families was no more egalitarian than in single-worker couples. The findings from their research reveal that whether or not they were employed outside the home, females continue to perform about 79 percent of all the household tasks. Araji (1977) adds that where there is a discrepancy between attitude and behavior, generally, both spouses express an egalitarian role attitude that is not reflected in the role behaviors.

Ross (1987) found that having young children at home greatly increases the amount of time the wife spends on domestic chores, but only marginally increases the amount of time the husband spends on household tasks, and does not affect the proportion of household labor performed by each. For less traditional females, the transition to parenthood and the added household responsibilities may prove to be particularly stressful (Belsky, Lang, & Huston, 1986). Unfortunately, the prevailing notion that traditional sex-roles are
changing for working couples and affecting the household division of labor and child-care tasks does not appear to be compatible with the empirical findings (Kiger, 1984). In contrast, Crouter and Perry-Jenkins (1987), after comparing dual-earner and single-earner families, concluded that fathers in dual-earner families were significantly more involved with child-care than males in single-earner households. The findings of their research further disclosed that although men report favoring the concept of wives working outside the home, the husbands qualified their responses by stating they expected the women to quit work when they had children.

Though failing to reach identical levels of participation as those of their wives, more males appear to be assuming family roles and responsibilities that men in previous generations did not (R. A. Lewis, 1985). Lewis' investigation of the literature from 1970 to 1985 regarding husbands' involvement in family activities suggests that husbands and fathers are doing more of the household chores. In addition, Krausz (1983) proposes that once the variable of the wives' employment status is considered, a new pattern emerges in which the husbands are performing more traditionally female tasks and the wives are taking responsibility for more traditionally male tasks, though not in the form of an
egalitarian pattern reflective of equal sharing by the spouses.

To the contrary, Atkinson and Huston (1984) argue the extent of wives' outside employment has little to do with their participation in household tasks traditionally performed by men. They contend that it is the spouse who has the greater skill at performing the particular task who assumes the role and not a matter of time spent working. Atkinson and Huston further contend that women who are low in femininity and are married to husbands with nontraditional sex-role attitudes will be found performing a greater percentage of masculine household tasks. Ross (1987) reports that well-educated husbands and husbands with nontraditional sex-role orientations are more apt to share in household task performance. Additionally, she notes that the more equal the income of the respective spouses, the larger the husband's contribution will be.

As reported by R. A. Lewis (1985), in 1977, the increase in husbands' household performance of all tasks rose from the previous fifteen year high of 104 minutes a day to 130 minutes per day. Although a seemingly small increase at 26 minutes per day, Lewis offers that the discovery of any identifiable increase in men's participation in household labor is a meaningful
revelation. Lewis examined several time-budget investigations pertaining to the quantity of time husbands were active in family tasks, and found that men in dual-worker households spend 2.7 hours per day on household tasks; whereas, men whose wives were not employed outside the home spend only 1.8 hours per day on similar activities.

The majority of the literature available provides support for the contention that women are still performing the bulk of the housework and child-care tasks ((e.g., Baruch, Biener, & Barnett, 1987; Krausz, 1986; Ross et al., 1983; Spitze, 1986), with little noticeable change from their level of functioning during the 1960s and 70s (Coverman & Sheley, 1986). According to Frieze, Parsons, Johnson and Ruble (cited in Krausz, 1983), employed husbands spend roughly 1.7 to 1.9 hours per day on household chores, whereas wives employed outside the home spend approximately 3.5 to 4.6 hours per day on household and family tasks. The results of the work by Krausz (1983) suggest that not only are the amounts of time spent on tasks by husbands and wives different, but, so too, are the types of tasks. She reports to have found that nearly 40 percent of women's housework constituted cleaning, 30 percent preparing food, and the remainder of the time was spent on laundry
and upkeep. The husbands' responsibilities were comprised of tasks that were usually less time pressured, of which more than 50 percent were of the home-upkeep variety (e.g., repairs, maintenance, lawn care, etc.).

In spite of the abundant number of investigations concerning the division of labor in the home, Coleman (1988) expresses concern that the nature of the tasks included in the division of labor between husband and wife may have been overlooked. She stresses the point that there are important qualitative differences between the work done by the spouses within the home. Coleman emphasizes that understanding the differences between the quantity of time spent on a chore and the actual nature of the work that must be done to complete the task is essential in evaluating the division of labor in the home. As Robinson's (cited in Coleman, 1988) observations of time-use data have revealed, the simple time-budget results do not represent those detailed and indirect demands that encompass the performance of housework. Robinson suggests that the burden of housework includes an array of subtle role expectations that must be met for successful completion of housework: the constant attention necessary at all times; the constant reshuffling and decisions concerning scheduling
of tasks; the tediousness, boredom and unavoidable nature of the tasks; and the irritating blend of the hectic with the menial. Coleman (1988) concludes that while investigators have recognized the importance of scrutinizing who does which tasks, most have not carefully thought about what the husband does in a complete or precise way. Spitze (1986) agrees that previous investigations on the division of labor in the home have been plagued by difficulties in data quality to the point of erroneously reporting that male spouses of working wives were doing considerably more housework than husbands in other types of relationships.

Another problem arises when considering the data collected in research concerned with the household division of labor. In many, if not all, instances there is a significant discrepancy between the reported viewpoints of the spouses regarding the husbands' level of participation in household work. The husbands report that they help more than the wives report that they think the husbands do (i.e., the "Rashomon effect") (Condran & Bode, 1982). Condran and Bode conclude that the prominence of this finding is in the realization that if males have the greater family power and, at the same time, see themselves as contributing a considerable amount of assistance to household labor, it is
improbable that they will choose to increase their current level of participation. In spite of the irregularities of earlier research, the literature clearly shows that in the majority of dual-worker and single-worker families, the wife continues to perform the majority of the household labor.

**Autonomy**

A consequence of the current sentiment for sex-role equality is increased freedom and independence (i.e., autonomy) for both the husbands and wives, especially the females (Smith & Reid, 1986). Schurman (1987) has submitted that this liberation from traditional sex-role expectations is not merely a matter of role-switching or one of pulling women up while pulling men down. He emphasizes, as does Arnott (1972), that this new independence represents the right to self-determinism, the freedom to choose.

As a result, dependency on the spouse need not be a requirement in attaining significant life's goals (Smith & Reid, 1986). Neither sex should be dependent on the other for life's necessities strictly as a function of one's gender. Smith and Reid further advise that autonomy does not mean that husbands and wives need function with an excessive degree of independence in their everyday living, but propose that mutually
autonomous couples may be by choice more interdependent in household task performance, than couples in traditional marriages.

In the earlier work of Arnott (1972), she examined the relationship between the role commitment of the wives and the attitude of the husbands regarding autonomy for their spouses. One of the significant portions of her research was concerned with the relationship of autonomy to marital interaction. Arnott reports that women with a conservative attitude about autonomy displayed clear-cut traditional sex-roles to which both husband and wife conformed. The more progressive females were found to be "hammering-out" novel interactions with the cooperation of their spouses. However, it was the group of wives in the middle, those emerging from the traditional sex-role expectancies, without any clearly defined norms nor a strong commitment in either direction (i.e., conservative, liberal), who had the most problem coping with the pressure of the marriage.

Szinovacz (1984) cautions that although current social norms emphasize autonomy and increased self-fulfillment for male and female alike, men's ongoing social dominance and greater access to resources enable them to abuse the emerging social rules regarding
autonomy for their own benefit rather than for the good of the family. He suggests that inasmuch as females lack social and personal support systems to help alleviate women's household responsibilities, the recent trend in calling for increased autonomy for females may encourage rather than decrease exploitation of females in personal relationships (e.g., marriage). Szinovacz advises that the major issue in contemporary marriages should not be the pursuit of autonomy, but, rather both spouses' willingness and skill in reaching mutually satisfactory relations.

Fortunately, the future is not bleak, but seems rather promising. Fasteau (cited in Schurman, 1987) believes that more socially aware males are starting to accept the current ideas concerning autonomy for women. Arnott (1972) projects the brightness of the future in more pragmatic fashion. She suggests that when a wife's work represents challenge, it may enrich the family interaction and take some of pressure off the fostered interdependencies of the nuclear family.

Decision-Making and the Balance of Power in the Family

Without a doubt, the exodus of females from the home and into the workplace has affected age-old attitudes regarding sex-roles for married couples, and has modified the viewpoints of many concerning the
degree of autonomy permitted the marriage partners. As a result, this evolutionary restructuring of sex-role norms and traditional values, has challenged, and is changing, the entire male-dominated system (Gilbert, 1985), altering the balance of power between the family members.

According to Gilbert, power typically refers to the ability of one person to get another to perform differently than they would otherwise behave. Blood and Wolfe (1960) share a similar perspective as evidenced in their definition of power as the apparent ability of one partner to influence the other's behavior, a strength they propose as being manifest in the ability of an individual to make the final decisions affecting the life of the family. With the current shift in sex-role attitudes, and the increased participation of females in the work place, Blood and Wolfe's observation that the balance of power will favor the partner who contributes the greater resources to the marriage (i.e., "resource theory") takes on added significance when evaluating current marital situations.

Blood and Wolfe (1960) view the balance of power as not only a sensitive reflection of the roles the husband and wife play in the marriage, but suggest that the most important aspect of the family structure are these power
positions of the family members. Under the norms of the traditional marriage, clearly defined sex-roles permitted spouses to take on familial roles without the need of open discussion or exchange (Szinovacz, 1984). On the other hand, the "modern" couple is faced with a more flexible relationship with role interchangeability possible for both the husbands and wives. Szinovacz suggests that the nature of these modern marriages, based on norms of sharing, equality, and sex-role transcendence, forces the couple into openly negotiating family obligations and responsibilities.

In the "traditional" settings, Gilbert (1985) concludes that male needs for power and dominance over the females are unusually important. In the male dominated system, men exhibited their power over women by controlling the decision-making and by allocating the division of labor on the basis of gender. Blood and Wolfe (1960) contend that in the male governed system, both spouses will usually assume that the husband should make most of the family decisions. Russo (1987), too, holds there continues to be an imbalance of power between spouses favoring the husbands; however, she concludes the dual-worker families are challenging the "traditional" family structure by means of enhancing the status of women. Russo considers this change as a move
in the right direction, and contends that social change should continue to focus on ideals and policies that would further improve the roles and status of females. 

Williamson (1970) points out that, historically, power relations between couples have differed according to the particular type of decision with the more dominant spouse more likely to be found handling the family's financial transactions. He indicates that subcultural factors also affect the power relations within the family unit, and reports that working-class husbands are less concerned with decision-making than are white-collar and professional husbands. Williamson claims working wives tend to have a greater role in decision-making, but that this situation is altered by age, education, and income level.

Not only is the husband's employment status related to his attitude regarding decision-making, but it also appears to be correlated with the amount of power he carries in the family decision process (Scanzoni, 1982). As reported by Scanzoni, husbands in the middle-class and higher have more decision-making power than those in the working-class. He contends this is due to the fact that husbands in the higher classes have more access to the sources of prestige and material rewards than do the lower classes. Furthermore, he reports that several
investigations have pointed out that although working outside the home increases the wife's power to some degree, the working wife still continues to have less power than her husband. However, the typical couple is likely to be egalitarian, with husband and wife having equal input concerning child rearing issues and the more important areas of decision-making (Nyquist et al., 1985).

Libow (1985) provides additional insight into the family power of husbands as it is related to the economic, social, and institutional power bestowed on males by the larger society. Despite the fact that the "resource theory", initially proposed by Blood and Wolfe (1960), advanced the notion that the level of power of an individual in a marriage relationship is determined by the balance of resources each spouse brings into the relationship, Libow argues there are other more subtle, but highly significant, factors that may account for the differences in measures of family power.

She reminds us that males benefit from the societal standards supporting male authority over women, and from the capability of being able to get along without a wife as a function of higher earning capability generated by institutional discrimination. By comparison, Libow cautions that the natural resources a female brings into
the marital relationship either fade over time or become less useful over the course of the marriage (e.g., physical attractiveness, childbearing capacity, mothering skills). She concludes that in utilizing the resource theory in evaluating marital interaction, the value society places on the relative resources of the spouses cannot be overlooked.

Scanzoni (1980), whose model of family change focuses on the balance of power between the sexes, attempts to define the basis for power positions within a marriage as a function of changing marriage patterns. Scanzoni proposes that power relations in present-day marital arrangements result in one of three alternative marriage types: wife as equal partner; wife as junior partner; or wife as complement. He argues that these three classifications provide a valid way to distinguish among contemporary marriage types and provide a basis for predicting how the spouses will perform in marital interactions, particularly decision-making in the family venue. Scanzoni views the interaction between spouses as evolving toward more egalitarian marriages, primarily determined by the increased division of the wage-earner role by husband and wife.

Scanzoni (1983) further argues that society demands direction for determining the family power structure.
However, in attempting to impose order in family relations, the differences in the way the multitude of marriage partners conceptualize the world presents considerable barriers. Scanzoni explains that "traditional" individuals have differing sex-role orientations than do husbands and wives with other than "traditional" attitudes. He has suggested that the balance of power within the family and its effect on household organization is a result of the social system's need to impose order on its members. Scanzoni asserts that the implementation of order is achieved by what he terms the "structuralist" or "process" approaches.

In Scanzoni's opinion, the structuralist view is adhered to by the "traditional" husbands and wives. They regard life as a system of clearly defined roles that are inherently interdependent; therefore, these couples are hesitant to do anything that could jeopardize the accepted norms. Scanzoni views couples whose sex-role attitudes are more "modern" as inclined to employ the "process" approach in structuring the family balance of power. In the "process" approach, the family members conceive society and the family interactions as a network of complex agreements and negotiations that are continuously subject to change.
In addition to the theory of the balance of power within marriages, alternative models to explain household organization include the social exchange theory and the equity theory. The social exchange theory proposes that spouses attempt to balance a relationship so that the rewards outweigh the costs. Most recently, the exchange theory has suggested that the benefits of the "traditional" role for females have been dwindling, whereas the rewards available from alternative orientations have been multiplying (Morgan & Walker, 1983). Consequently, wives who have alternative behaviors available because of education, employment, and age will offer the least opposition to a change from "traditional" role expectations. On the other hand, the equity theory proposes that husbands and wives become perplexed in relationships in which they either overbenefit or underbenefit (Yogev & Brett, 1985).

Marital Satisfaction

A review of the literature reveals that marital well-being may be contingent upon a number of factors. It has been suggested that the extent to which married couples derive satisfaction from their relationship may be related to the degree of congruence between the spouses' sex-role attitudes (Cooper et al., 1985), the allocation of household labor (Hiller & Philliber,
1986), employment status of the wife (Locker, 1984), and the balance of power within the family unit (Blood & Wolfe, 1960).

The early work of Blood and Wolfe (1960) provides considerable insight into the relationship between family power arrangements and the division of labor in the home. They have pointed out that there is a significant trend for husbands and wives who make more than half of their decisions jointly to do more housework together, whereas at the opposite end of the scale, spouses who make few, if any, decisions together do correspondingly little sharing of household tasks. However, the continuing shift toward more egalitarian marriages necessitates further investigation into the role of the family power structure.

As spouses' sex-role orientations become more individualized and less rigid and traditional, the course of action employed by family members in establishing power relations may be critical to marital adjustment. It may well be that power sharing may promote marital harmony by requiring the couple to learn how to compromise and reach agreement over the division of household labor and obtain mutuality concerning major decisions. On the other hand, the pressure each spouse places on the other in striving for perceived equality
in the family power struggle, may lead to hostile conflicts over the fundamental rules of the relationship, increasing the likelihood that the marriage will be characterized by dissatisfaction and discord.

In addition to their own sense of dominion and control in the relationship, couples experience satisfaction with their marriages as a measure of their perception of fairness in the allocation of household tasks (White, 1983; Yogev & Brett, 1985). Benin and Agostinelli (1988) found that husbands are most satisfied with what they believe is an equitable division of labor (i.e., "equity model") in which they regard themselves as benefiting equally with their wives in the allocation of tasks (i.e., paid work and family work), especially if the number of hours the husband spends on household chores is not too large. Wives were reported to be less concerned with the actual number of hours spent in household labor, but appear happier if the division of labor favors them (i.e., "exchange model") in a way that they feel the rewards gained in the allocation of tasks outweigh the cost to themselves. That is to say, the spouses consider variables other than household duties in determining a fair allocation of labor, and since the husbands typically contribute
greater income and occupational status to the marriage, they are able to "barter" out of the housework.

In a similar type of investigation, Yogev and Brett (1985) observed that the perception of satisfactory division of labor in the home varied according to the type of marital arrangement (i.e., dual-earner, single-earner) and the respective gender of the spouse. They found that the equity model, in which neither spouse appears to benefit more than the other from the allocation of tasks, is the most suitable for describing the perceptions of the wives from the dual-earner families and the husbands in the single-earner relationships. For these two classifications, marital satisfaction is associated with the perception that both self and the spouse are doing an equal portion of the family work. Whereas the exchange model, in which each spouse believes they are getting more from the allocation of the tasks than their participation in the labor costs them, is the best explanation of satisfaction with the division of tasks for dual-earner husbands and single-earner wives. Marital satisfaction, in these two cases, is correlated with the perception that the spouse is doing more than their share whereas self is seen as doing less the an equitable portion. Yogev and Brett (1985) conclude that the perception of
fairness in the division of household labor and child-care tasks is a critical variable in determining marital adjustment and satisfaction.

Yet, the degree of marital satisfaction expressed in marriages may depend on processes other than the equal division of household labor. In Berk's research (cited in Benin & Agostinelli, 1988), she investigated husbands' and wives' time and task participation and found that neither explains satisfaction in employed families. In an earlier work, Yogev (1982) proposed that although there is insufficient evidence to support the notion that dual-worker couples experience increased rates of marital satisfaction, the intellectual and psychological benefits they perceive exceed the disadvantages, especially for the wives.

However, in his 1979 investigation of married females returning to school, Berkove (cited in Locker, 1984) reported that the increased responsibilities incurred by the wives had minimal effect on the division of labor in the home. Most importantly, the wives reported heightened stress from the increased obligations (i.e., role overload). As a result, role overload and disparity in the allocation of household tasks may negatively affect the relationship (Locker, 1984). Belsky and his colleagues (1986) add that time
spent in housework and child-care reduces the time and energy available for activities between the husband and wife. Simultaneously, the disproportionate amount of work assumed by the wife creates a hostile environment ripe for marital conflict and may result in dissatisfaction with the way affairs are managed in the household.

In contrast, other research reveals that higher levels of marital satisfaction are reported by husbands of wives employed outside the home. Separate studies by Booth and Robinson (cited in Locker, 1984) suggest that husbands of wives employed outside the home are happier and under less stress than spouses of housewives. Surprisingly, Locksley (1980) reports an absence of any effects of wives' employment outside the home on a variety of measures of marital satisfaction. She proposes that wives express more dissatisfaction and frustration with the marital relationship than do husbands, regardless of the wives' employment status. Locksley further suggests that wives may also become more upset than their male counterparts by marital conflict. Skinner (1980), in his review of the literature, indicates that the stress of dual-worker relationships is observed, the strains of two-job families are felt most by women. Kessler and Mcrae
(cited in Krause, 1984) argue that females may benefit from work outside the home only if working is consistent with their own sex-role orientation.

It seems apparent that sex-role orientation and role expectations play a major role in determining marital satisfaction. Sex-role attitudes have been shown to be instrumental in household decision-making practices, the division of labor in the home, and appear to have affected the impact a wife's working outside the home has on the family unit. Each of these variables is an important component in the evaluation of marital satisfaction, consequently the effect of sex-role attitude may be revealed as a direct measure on scales of marital happiness or may be exhibited in some more subtle fashion as it affects the other major variables of concern.

Krausz (1983) reports that the research study of marital happiness conducted by Orden and Bradburn (1968) furnish support for the viewpoint that "traditional" sex-role orientation within a marriage intensifies marital strife, whereas "egalitarian" marriage patterns result in increased marital satisfaction for both husband and wife (Laws, 1971). Yet, Cooper and her associates (1985) suggest there is no significant relationship between sex-role attitudes and marital
satisfaction, but that it is the congruence between husbands' and wives' sex-role attitudes that is related to level of marital satisfaction. Bowen and Orthner (1983) also conclude that congruency of husbands and wives regarding sex-role attitude is related to the level of marital quality reported in the marriage. In general, Bowen and Orthner propose that a reasonable assumption regarding sex-role attitude congruence would be that attitude congruence should enhance marital quality; whereas, attitude incongruence should result in marital strain. More specifically, as a result of their research study, they suggest the greatest difficulty in marital adjustment occurs between couples in which the wife claims a modern sex-role orientation and the husband one of a more traditional nature.

As seen in this brief review of the literature, the number of investigations in the area of marital interaction is enormous. However, the contradictions between the findings is acutely obvious. Certainly, the questions of what are the underlying reasons for the discrepancies in results and what can be done to curb the confounding factors in further research need to be addressed.

Bowen and Orthner (1983) suggest that earlier research may have failed to capture the complex and
circuitous nature of sex-role attitudes in a marriage. They offer that by not identifying the couple as the unit of investigation, previous researchers may have misunderstood that it is the particular configuration of sex-role attitudes that husbands and wives have in a marital relationship and not their sex-role attitudes per se that need to be evaluated in the research process. Spanier (1972), too, has suggested that most measures of marital adjustment estimate only the individual adjustment to the marital relationship and not the marital relationship itself.

Snyder (1979) goes beyond the focus of sex-roles and sex-role orientation as he characterizes much of the discrepancy in the literature regarding marital satisfaction as being the result of the inconsistency with which researchers have identified similar variables and defined criteria of marital satisfaction. In his comprehensive review of the literature on marital research (Snyder, 1979), he argues that the research in the area of marital satisfaction has been in need of a "comprehensive multidimensional measure" that would permit the evaluation of several critical dimensions of marriage as they relate to overall marital satisfaction.

Obviously, it is easy to see the complexity involved in assessing marital interaction and to
recognize the problems included in determining the validity of the participants' responses across such an enormous array and variety of global measures of marital satisfaction. This study's goal is to provide a more stable representation of those familial interactions that affect the perceived quality of the relationship. This research will attempt to provide a comparative assessment of marital interaction by focusing on the couple, and not the individual, as the unit of analysis and will utilize the multidimensional assessment device designed by Snyder (i.e., Marital Satisfaction Inventory) to evaluate the global satisfaction of the participants along a broad range of dimensions related to marital adjustment (e.g., communication, finance).
Subjects

Fifty-eight married couples were recruited by students in both methodology and statistics classes at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas over the course of a single semester. All respondents were currently married with at least one child, under the age of eighteen, living at home. The couples had been married an average of 9.50 years (SD = 6.64) and had an average of 1.89 children (SD = 1.08). The couples were divided into two groups along the dimension of wife's employment outside the home. One group consisted of couples in which the female spouse was actively employed outside the home (n = 29 couples), the other in which she was not (n = 29 couples). Demographic information was obtained from all subjects and is shown in Table 1.

The two groups were further divided according to each spouse's self-reported sex-role orientation (ROR). This was achieved by dividing the gender groups (i.e., male, female) about the median of each group's ordered scores on the Marital Satisfaction Inventory Role Orientation subscale. Those whose score was below the median were classified as traditional and those above were designated modern. Based on the classification
system, the couples were assigned to one of four groups: Modern Wife/Modern Husband (n = 19), Traditional Wife/Modern Husband (n = 9), Modern Wife/Traditional Husband (n = 10), and Traditional Wife/Traditional Husband (n = 20).

**Materials**

A packet composed of a letter of consent and the following questionnaires was distributed to each participant: 1) Demographic data; 2) Scale to measure organization of household responsibilities; 3) Family decision-making scales; 4) Sex-role orientation scale; 5) Autonomy for Women scale; 6) Self-esteem inventory; and 7) Marital Satisfaction Inventory.

Each of these sections will be discussed below.

**Demographic data.** Preceding the six scales, one page of demographic data was requested. This portion of the questionnaire included questions concerning age, race, gender, level of education, years married, and number of children. Additional queries included respondent's occupation, spouse's occupation, respondent's income, spouse's income, number of hours respondent worked, and number of hours spouse works. A question concerning siblings of respondent had to be discarded due to lack of clarity in instructions and consequent inadequate responses.
Table 1
Demographic Data by Wife's Employment Status and by Gender. \( (n = 29 \text{ for each group}) \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Wife Not Working(^a)</th>
<th>Wife Working(^b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>s.d.</td>
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<td>7.97</td>
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<tr>
<td>Years Married</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>9.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s.d.</td>
<td>7.02</td>
<td>7.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>14.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>s.d.</td>
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<td>2.58</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number Children</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s.d.</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours Worked</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>s.d.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Household task-sharing scale. A questionnaire to measure the division of labor and role specialization, designed by Krausz (1983), was used. The questionnaire was modified to include demographic information and questions about satisfaction with the division of labor in the home. The tasks listed on the survey included six child-care tasks (e.g., diaper the baby), six emotional tasks (e.g., apologized first after an argument), nine traditionally female tasks (e.g., wash the dishes), and nine traditionally male tasks (e.g., mow the lawn). The scale was further modified to require that respondents report performance in terms of percentage of the time they, their spouses, or others engaged in each of the 30 tasks.

A complete description of the original instrument can be found in Krausz (1983) along with the methods used to determine the reliability of the scale (r = .912). No reliability measures have been conducted to date on the modified version of the questionnaire; however, since the list of tasks was not modified in any way it is thought that a measure of reliability on the altered questionnaire would return comparable results. A copy of the questionnaire used in this study can be found in the Appendices.
Family decision-making scale. The family decision-making scale created by Blood and Wolfe (1960) includes two distinct scales: a Decision Power Index (DPI) and a Shared Power Index (SPI). The original measure consisted of eight principal family considerations (e.g., "What car to get"), for which the respondent is asked "who has the final say." To accommodate the contemporary social norms, a ninth decision, "What job should wife take", was added.

Response choices to a five point Likert-type scale were weighted from 1 (HUSBAND ALWAYS) to 5 (WIFE ALWAYS). The Decision Power Index was determined by summing the scale scores for each of the nine topics. The greater the DPI score, the more husband dominated the family is considered to be. The lower the DPI, the more wife dominant. The Shared Power Index (SPI) was measured by counting the number of family decisions that the respondent had identified as made "equally by husband and wife."

Though Blood and Wolfe (1960) did not report the reliability of the scale in their work, Krausz (1983) reported an r of .896 for the test-retest reliability of this index. Bahr (1973) suggests the research indicates that Blood and Wolfe's measure approaches unidimensionality as the coefficient of reproducibility
was .86 and .88 for husbands and wives respectively. He adds that the criteria for scalability appear to be met and that alpha, as a measure of internal consistency, was recorded as .62 for both spouses. Bahr concludes an alpha level of this magnitude indicates substantial internal consistency.

Krausz (1983) contends the content validity of the study was supported by the fact that the eight decisions presented in the scale are characteristic of the types of decisions a typical family must make. Construct validity was established in the original work of Blood and Wolfe (1960). See the Appendices for a copy of the modified scale used in this investigation.

**Sex-role orientation scale.** The Sex-Role Orientation Scale (SRO) was developed by Brogan and Kutner (1976) to measure normative sex roles for both genders. Brogan and Kutner designed the 36-item Likert-type scale to measure conceptions of appropriate behavior for both males and females, which they conceptualized as being on a continuum from traditional to nontraditional behaviors for both sexes.

The Sex-Role Orientation Scale was designed to measure attitudes towards: 1) the traditional sex-based allocation of family tasks in the marriage; 2) the traditional sex-based power structure (i.e., the concept
that males deserve to be in positions of leadership and control over women in the labor force and in the family); 3) traditional and nontraditional employment of women and men; 4) traditional and nontraditional political status of women; 5) suitable sex-role training of boys and girls; 6) prevailing stereotypes of proper sex-role behavior not addressed by the above areas (e.g., approved norms of dress, customs, etc.) Brogan and Kutner (1976).

Participants were asked to respond to each item on the SRO by selecting from one of the following answers: strongly agree, moderately agree, agree slightly more than disagree, disagree slightly more than agree, moderately disagree, strongly disagree. Each of the 36-item Likert-type scale items was scored such that the most traditional response received a one and the most modern response received a six. To decrease acquiescent response set, half of the items were phrased in an unconventional way (e.g., "Marriage is a partnership in which the wife and husband should share the economic responsibility of supporting the family.").

A subject's total score was the sum of the numerical value of responses to all 36 items, thus the total score could range from 36 to 216. The lower the total, the more traditional the subject's sex-role
orientation, the higher the score, the more the subject's SRO was deemed nontraditional (i.e., Modern).

Brogan and Kutner (1976) calculated the reliability of the scale using the split-half method. The split-half reliability coefficient was .95. Hansen (1985) reported the Alpha reliability coefficient for a modified version of the scale to be .89. In addition, Brogan and Kutner (1976) examined the internal validity of this scale by measuring the consistency of respondent's answers on two of the scale items (i.e., #10 and #15). They report that answers to the two questions were clearly related. Construct validity was supported by the predicted relationships found between SRO, sex and years of education, age, religious affiliation, and child-rearing ideology.

A factor analysis of the SRO by Fitzpatrick and Indvik (1982) identified three factors. The first factor (i.e., Conventional Orientation) contained items indicating a fairly conventional attitude toward what is proper behavior for males and females and had an alpha reliability of .84. The second factor (i.e., Sex-Reversed Orientation) contained items underscoring relatively nonconventional sex-role, with most of the items focusing mainly on women, while highlighting that both sexes adopt roles previously prohibited to them.
This factor had an alpha reliability of .76. The third and final factor (i.e., Personal Orientation) contained items emphasizing the individuals' role in determining their own behavior and personal preference and produced an alpha of .80. The authors concluded that the Sex-Role Orientation scale taps what the respondents considered appropriate role behavior in a variety of contexts. A copy of the Brogan and Kutner Sex-Role Orientation Scale is provided in the Appendices.

**Autonomy for women scale.** The Autonomy for Women Scale is a measure of independence for women and was taken from a study by Arnott (1972), in which she attempted to determine whether married women endeavor to have a role preference that is congruent with that of their husband. The scale was developed originally by Kirkpatrick (1936) and refined by Arnott (1972). The autonomy inventory is a 10-item Likert-type scale, with summated scores, and reverse scoring for items negative on autonomy for women. Higher score indicates a stronger positive attitude (i.e., favored independence for women), a low score indicated a negative attitude.

Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement to statements such as, "The initiative in courtship should come from men", for each of the ten items, on a seven-point continuum: strong disagreement (7),
moderate disagreement (6), mild disagreement (5), neutral (4), mild agreement (3), moderate agreement (2), and strong agreement (1). To reduce an acquiescent response set, half of the items were presented in an unconventional fashion (e.g., "The word 'obey' should be removed from the marriage service."). These items were scored in reverse order (i.e., strong disagreement = 1 and strong agreement = 7). The autonomy scores for both spouses was computed by summing the responses across the items.

Arnott (1972) conducted a six week test-retest of reliability that yielded a Pearson r of .78. Burnett, Amason, and Hunt (1981) submitted the data derived from the Autonomy for Women Scale to the Cronbach coefficient alpha reliability test, producing an overall alpha of .82. Additionally, Arnott (1972) established content validity of the measure by exposing the items to a group of judges (Ph.D. candidates in sociology). The finished scale included those items that were judged to express strongly positive or strongly negative attitudes toward self-determinism (i.e., independence). Construct validity was checked by Arnott utilizing the "known-groups technique." The measure differentiated between the two research groups with a probability of p < .001 using a differences of the means test. Consult
the Appendices for a copy of the Autonomy for Women Scale.

**Self-esteem inventory.** The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) was used to measure self-concept (Rosenberg, 1965). The RSE is a ten item Guttman scale on which respondents are asked to strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with statements of global self-regard. As Rosenberg (1965) points out, the Guttman scale insure a unidimensional continuum for ranking those with very high to those with very low self-esteem. This unidimensionality is maintained as a function of the scale, which establishes the adequacy of each item by its patterned relationship with all other items on the scale rather than by its relationship to a total score.

The ten statements on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale produce six scale items. The subjects receive scores ranging from zero (denoting highest self-esteem) to six (denoting lowest self-esteem). "Positive" and "negative" items were presented alternately in order to reduce the effect of respondent set. Thus, the scale presents an identical number of statements for which "agree" and "disagree" replies indicate high self-esteem.
Rosenberg (1965) identifies the reproducibility of this scale as 92 percent and its scalability as 72 percent. A two week test-retest reliability of .85 was obtained for the RSE (Krausz, 1983). In addition, Silber and Tippet (cited in Wylie, 1974) correlated Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale scores with other measures of self-concept and obtained convergent values of .56, .67 and .83. A copy of this scale appears in the Appendices.

Marital satisfaction inventory. The measure of marital satisfaction used in the present study was the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI). The MSI is a multidimensional self-report instrument that identifies for each spouse the nature and extent of marital discord along several key dimensions of their relationship. The Marital Satisfaction Inventory was designed to be an objective measure comprised principally of behavioral or attitudinal statements concerning the individual's own reaction in their current relationship. As such, interpretations of MSI profiles result in objective representations concentrating on the content of interactions between spouses.

The husband and the wife report their subjective experience and appraisal of their marriage by answering "True" of "False" to each of 280 MSI items. The
individual's responses are scored on the 11 scales of the inventory. The measures include one validity scale, one global affective scale, and nine additional scales gauging specific dimensions of marital interaction. Excluding the validity and role-orientation scales, all measures are totaled in the direction of dissatisfaction so that high scores denote high levels of discontent within a particular area. Brief definitions of the 11 scales follow:

**Conventionalization (CNVT):** measures on this scale assess an individual's inclinations to distort the assessment of their marriage in a socially desirable direction.

**Global Distress (GDS):** contains items measuring the individual's overall dissatisfaction with the marriage.

**Affective Communication (AFC):** scale scores estimate the individual's discontent with the amount of affection and understanding expressed by their spouse.

**Problem-Solving Communication (PSC):** comprised of items estimating the couple's everyday inadequacy in settling disagreements.

**Time Together (TTO):** scale items measure extent of shared interests and level of discontentment with the quality and quantity of leisure time together.
Disagreement About Finances (FIN): scale items assess the degree of marital discord concerning the administration of family economic resources.

Sexual Dissatisfaction (SEX): scale scores estimate the extent of dissatisfaction with the routine and flavor of intercourse and other sexual activity.

Role Orientation (ROR): scale items indicate an individual's preference of traditional versus non-customary orientation toward marriage and parental sex-roles.

Family History of Distress (FAM): includes items assessing childhood and disharmony in marriages of the respondent's parents and extended family.

Dissatisfaction With Children (DSC): scale scores measure parental dissatisfaction or disappointment with children.

Conflict Over Childrearing (CCR): this scale is concerned with the degree of conflict between husband and wife concerning childrearing methods.

Analyses have been conducted that confirm both the internal consistency and stability across time of individual scales on the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (Scheer & Snyder, 1984; Snyder, Wills, & Keiser, 1981). Table 2 displays Cronbach's alpha coefficients of
internal consistency and the test-retests reliability coefficients for the individual scales.

Research has confirmed the ability of the MSI to discriminate among groups of couples. Snyder (1979) and Snyder et al. (1981) demonstrated that couples in therapy differ significantly from couples in matched control groups on all of the 11 MSI scales. Furthermore, the findings of Snyder and his colleagues demonstrate the test's ability to differentiate among various degrees and sources of distress within a sample.

Convergent validity of the Role-Orientation subscale was established by investigation of its relationship to Brogan and Kutner's SRO. An examination of the congruency between these two scales resulted in a contingency coefficient of .59. A coefficient of this degree would indicate a strong correlation between the two measures.

**Procedure**

The distribution of questionnaire packets was conducted in two phases. In the first, students in a statistics and a methodology class were asked to distribute questionnaire packets to two married couples in families in which the wife was employed full-time outside the home with at least one child at home under the age of eighteen. In the second, the same group of
Table 2

**Coefficients of Internal Consistency and Test-Retest Reliability for Marital Satisfaction Inventory Scales.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Satisfaction Inventory Scales</th>
<th>Chronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Test-Retest Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conventionalization (CNV)</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Distress (GDS)</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Communication (AFC)</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-Solving Communication (PSC)</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Together (TTO)</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreement About Finances (FIN)</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual Dissatisfaction (SEX)</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Orientation (ROR)</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family History of Distress (FAM)</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfaction With Children (DSC)</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict Over Childrearing (CCR)</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a Coefficients of Internal Consistency.*
of students was asked to do the same, except the wives in the second group were not to be employed outside of the home. Anonymity of the respondents was maintained by utilization of a numeric coding system for information and data analysis.

After signing the consent form explaining the purpose of the study, subjects were asked to complete the demographic information. Verbal instructions were given by the students directing the respondents to work alone, complete the consent form and demographic information first, then complete the remaining portion of the questionnaire packet.

The subjects were then asked to indicate what percentage of the time they were engaged in each of the 30 tasks listed on the Household Task-Sharing Scales, what percentage of the time their spouses engaged in the task, and what percentage of the time others (e.g., hired help, children) engaged in the task. The instructions indicated that, for each of the tasks, the percentages from the three response categories should equal 100. Space was provided for the subjects to fill in the total if they desired.

Before seeing the list of tasks, subjects were asked to indicate, on a 7-point Likert-type scale, how often they discussed the division of labor in the home
with their spouse (never = 1 and often = 7), and how satisfied they were with the division of labor (not satisfied = 1 and very satisfied = 7). Upon completing the assignment of percentages to tasks, subjects were again asked to rate their satisfaction with the division of labor on the 7-point scale (Note: the satisfaction questions were placed on separate pages).

Next, the respondents were asked to complete the Brogan and Kutner Sex-Role orientation scale by circling one response for each of the 36 statements in that portion of the packet. This was followed by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale on which the subject was requested to check one response for each of the ten items in segment of the research. In order to get information as to who made the final decision in the household, the next section, Blood and Wolfe's Decision-Making Scale, included a crucial lead-in statement as follows:

"In every family somebody has to decide such things as where the family will live and so on. Many couples talk such things over first, but the FINAL decision often has to be made by the husband or the wife. For instance, who usually makes the final decision about...?" (Blood & Wolfe, 1960, p. 20).
The respondents were then instructed that for each of the nine items that followed they were to circle the answer that indicated "who has the final say." In the last section of the stapled packet, the subjects were asked to circle one response on each of the nine items of Arnott's Autonomy for Women Scale.

The administration booklet and answer sheet for the Marital Satisfaction Inventory were separate from the remaining materials in the questionnaire packet. The husband and wife were each provided with an answer sheet, but were required to share the administration booklet, working independently without collaboration of their spouse. In this section the participants were instructed to answer every question and to bubble in on the answer sheet either "true" or "false" for the 280 questions in the inventory. At the completion of all the subtests, the subjects had been informed by the students to replace all the materials in the questionnaire package and return the materials to the students.

Subjects were given one month to complete the questionnaires and return them to the students. The students received extra credit for each completed packet they returned; whereas, participation was entirely voluntary on behalf of the couples. One hundred and
twenty questionnaire packets were administered and sixty-six were returned. However, eight had to be discarded because they were not completed or were incorrectly filled-out.
Chapter 4

Results

For clarification and ease of interpretation, the results are divided into four sections. First, the demographic data are analyzed. Next, the Household Task Questionnaire Discussion and Satisfaction questions, as well as, the Autonomy for Women Scale and Self-Concept Scale are presented. Thirdly, the Marital Satisfaction Inventory subscale results are given, followed by a section displaying the outcome of the analyses of the Decision-Making indices. The final section presents the analyses of the household organization (i.e., task sharing).

Demographic Data

The mean ages, years of education, years married, number of children, and number of hours worked for each couple as a function of type of congruence are shown in Table 3.

Separate analyses of variance (ANOVA) on gender, wife's employment status (i.e., wife working vs. not working), couple congruence (i.e., congruency vs. incongruency), and type of congruence (e.g., Traditional Wife/Modern Husband) were performed to determine if group means differed significantly for any of the demographic variables. The analyses revealed the
differences between the means to be nonsignificant for all demographic measures considered. All interaction effects were also found to be nonsignificant for the demographic variables.

Satisfaction, Autonomy, and Self-Concept Scales

Mean Presatisfaction, Postsatisfaction, and Discussion Scale scores from the Domestic Task Performance Questionnaire are presented with the mean scores of the Autonomy for Women Scale and the Self-Concept scale in Table 4.

Analyses of variance computed on the Discussion Scale from the Domestic Task Performance Questionnaire indicated that the main effects of wife's employment status, gender of respondent, couple congruence (i.e., congruency vs. incongruency), and type of congruence (e.g., Traditional Wife/Modern Husband) were not significant. $F(1,98) = 3.13, p > .05; F(1,98) = 0.64, p > .05; F(1,106) = 0.67, p > .05; F(1,98) = 2.19, p > .05$, respectively.

Other analyses of variance were performed on both the Presatisfaction and Postsatisfaction Inventories of the domestic task questionnaire to determine if one group mean differed significantly from another as a function of wife's employment status, gender of the respondent, couple congruence, or type of congruence.
Table 2

Demographic Data by Type of Congruence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Congruence Classification</th>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Mod Wife/Mod Husb</th>
<th>Trad Wife/Mod Wife/Trad Husb</th>
<th>Mod Wife/Trad Husb</th>
<th>Trad Wife/Trad Husb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>s.d.</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>9.33</td>
<td>8.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yrs. Education</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>s.d.</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yrs. Married</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>s.d.</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>7.42</td>
<td>7.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. Children</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>s.d.</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours Worked</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>s.d.</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( a \) \( N = 38 \) (10 working wives).  \( b \) \( N = 18 \) (5 working wives).
\( c \) \( N = 20 \) (6 working wives).  \( d \) \( N = 38 \) (8 working wives).
### Table 4

**Group Means by Gender for the Domestic Task Questionnaire Scales, Autonomy for Women, and Self-Concept Scales.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Presatisfaction Inventory</strong></td>
<td>M = 4.79, SD = 1.75, N = 58</td>
<td>M = 5.46, SD = 1.31, N = 56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Postsatisfaction Inventory</strong></td>
<td>M = 4.84, SD = 1.76, N = 58</td>
<td>M = 5.43, SD = 1.37, N = 56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Discussion Question</strong></td>
<td>M = 3.86, SD = 1.54, N = 56</td>
<td>M = 4.07, SD = 1.46, N = 56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-Concept Scale</strong></td>
<td>M = 0.91, SD = 1.26, N = 58</td>
<td>M = 0.71, SD = 1.01, N = 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Autonomy for Women Scale</strong></td>
<td>M = 48.6, SD = 9.23, N = 58</td>
<td>M = 45.9, SD = 10.8, N = 58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An analysis of variance of the Presatisfaction Scores pointed out that the main effect of gender was significant, $F(1,106) = 5.25, p < .05$, indicating that males were more satisfied than females. All other main effects and interactions were not significant, $p > .05$. The analysis of variance performed on the Postsatisfaction Inventory revealed neither any significant main effects or interaction effects, $p > .05$, along the same variables.

A set of paired t-tests was computed to determine if either of the gender groups differed significantly on the means of their respective Presatisfaction and Postsatisfaction Inventories. The t-tests disclosed that the differences between the means of the pre and post measures were not significant for either group, females, $t(57) = -.34, p > .05$, and males, $t(55) = .23, p > .05$.

Two separate three-way analyses of variance were conducted to examine any differences between the mean scores of the Self-Concept Scale. The first ANOVA was performed on Gender, Wife's Employment Status, and Couple Congruence. The second included Gender and Wife's Employment Status, but the variable Couple Congruence was replaced with the variable Type of Congruence. No significant differences were found in
the measures of self-concept shown in Table 4. Additional analyses of variance, with similar independent variable combinations, were computed to determine if any significant differences existed between the means of the Autonomy for Women Scale.

The main effect of wife's employment status was not significant, $F(1,100) = 0.06, p > .05$. Nor were the main effects of couple congruence, $F(1,108) = 0.16, p > .05$, or gender, $F(1,100) = 2.70, p > .05$ shown to be significant. The main effect of type of congruence, however, was significant, $F(3,100) = 14.99, p < .01$.

Because significant differences were found between groups according to type of congruence, a Scheffé test for groups with unequal Ns was employed to determine which groups differed significantly from the others. The Scheffé test indicated that in the Modern Wife/Modern Husband group ($M = 53.4, SD = 9.47$) both spouses had significantly more favorable attitudes toward independence and self-determinism for women (i.e., autonomy) than couples in both the Traditional Wife/Traditional Husband ($M = 40.9, SD = 8.82$) and Modern Wife/Traditional Husband ($M = 46.0, SD = 8.00$) groups. The Traditional Wife/Modern Husband ($M = 49.94, SD = 7.41$) group were also found to have significantly increased positive attitude toward autonomy for females.
than husbands and wives in the Traditional Wife/
Traditional Husband type.

The Gender x Type of congruence interaction, as
shown in Figure 1, was also significant, $F(3,100) =
4.58, p < .05$. Figure 1 reveals that in those instances
where the couples are of an incongruent type (i.e.,
Modern Wife/Traditional Husband; Traditional Husband/
Modern Wife), the spouses with the modern sex-role
orientations favor autonomy for women significantly more
than their traditional partners. All other interactions
were not significant.

**Marital Satisfaction Inventory Subscales**

In order to examine the effects of several
demographic variables (e.g., age, years married, years
of education), Pearson product-moment correlations were
computed between the variables and the responses to the
11 Marital Satisfaction Inventory profile scales (see
Table 5). Results of these analyses showed that years
of education are significantly correlated to measures of
Role Orientation, Global Distress, Affective
Communication, Time Together, and Disagreement About
Finances. As the level of educational attainment and
socio-economic status (i.e., occupation) increases, an
individual's sex-role is reported as less traditional.
Likewise, an increase in the years of education is
Figure 1. Interaction effects of Gender by Type of congruence for scores on the Autonomy for Women Scale.
Table 5

Pearson r Correlations Between Demographic Variables and Marital Satisfaction Inventory Profile (MSI) Scales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>MSI Scale</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Occu-</th>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Worked</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CNV</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GDS</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AFC</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PSC</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.18*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TTO</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FIN</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.24*</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SEX</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.20*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ROR</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.19*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.17*</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FAM</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DSC</td>
<td>.16*</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCR</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-.26*</td>
<td>-.19*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05
related to an increase in the level of perceived marital satisfaction, the escalation of open affective communication, increased reports of satisfaction in the quality and quantity of time the husband and wife spend together, and a decrease in the level of marital distress in the areas of fiscal responsibilities and family finances.

An increase in family income is associated with an increase in the couple's ineffectiveness in resolving disagreements and is related to a decrease in the level of satisfaction with the routine or diversity of sexual activity between the spouses. However, increased income is negatively correlated with conflicts over childrearing, and less dysfunction between spouses regarding parental roles is expressed as income increases.

The number of hours worked showed the highest correlations for all of the demographic variables investigated in this research. An increase in the number of hours worked is related to heightened levels of marital tension, accompanied by an increase in the inability to settle family differences. Extending the number of hours worked is associated with a decrease in satisfaction in sexual activity, increased dissatisfaction with the amount of time the couple
spends together, and increased dissatisfaction with the relationship they have with their children.

To assess the relationship among the MSI subscales within this study, Pearson r correlations were also calculated to determine the intercorrelations among the scales as reported by the respondents and (See Table 6). The results denote a considerable degree of interrelatedness among the scales that are comparable to the correlations obtained in the original analysis of validity conducted for these measures (Snyder, 1985). The correlations obtained along the MSI subscales indicate their effectiveness in assessing the multiple components of the marital relationship.

To investigate the effects of perceived levels of self-esteem and attitudes regarding independence and self-determinism for women on measures of marital dysfunction, Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated between the subjects' responses on the 11 subscales of the Marital Satisfaction Inventory and their scores on the Self-Concept and Autonomy for Women Scales (See Table 7). Low levels of self-esteem were associated with increased dissatisfaction with the level of affection and emotional exchange in the relationship (i.e., Affective Communication scale) and the increased prominence of family finances as the focus of marital
conflict (i.e., Disagreement About Finances scale). Decreased levels of self-esteem were also correlated with greater dissatisfaction with sexual activity (i.e., Sexual Dissatisfaction scale) and decreased satisfaction with the parent-child relationship (i.e., Dissatisfaction With Children scale). In addition, reports of reduced self-concept were related to decreased ratings of overall marital satisfaction (i.e., Global Distress) and a lessening of shared activities (i.e., Time Together scale). Positive attitudes regarding increased autonomy for the wives were associated with heightened levels of distress in an individual's family of origin (i.e., Family History of Distress scale) and greater dissatisfaction with the present parent-child relationship (i.e., Dissatisfaction with Children scale).

The mean scores for each gender, as a function of Couple Congruence (i.e., congruency vs. incongruency), on the 11 subscales of the Marital Satisfaction Inventory are shown on Table 8.

A three-way analysis of variance (i.e., Wife's employment status x Gender x Couple Congruence) was performed on each of the 11 subscales to discover if one group of means within each scale differed significantly from another. Analyses of variance computed on the
Table 6

Intercorrelations Among Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI) Scales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MSI Scales</th>
<th>CNV</th>
<th>GDS</th>
<th>AFC</th>
<th>PSC</th>
<th>TTO</th>
<th>FIN</th>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>ROR</th>
<th>FAM</th>
<th>DSC</th>
<th>CCR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CNV</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-.65*</td>
<td>-.67*</td>
<td>-.57*</td>
<td>-.53*</td>
<td>-.44*</td>
<td>-.41*</td>
<td>-.09*</td>
<td>-.09*</td>
<td>-.32*</td>
<td>-.42*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDS</td>
<td>-.65*</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>.77*</td>
<td>.63*</td>
<td>.66*</td>
<td>.52*</td>
<td>.40*</td>
<td>.06*</td>
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<td>.36*</td>
<td>.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFC</td>
<td>-.67*</td>
<td>.77*</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>.74*</td>
<td>.63*</td>
<td>.54*</td>
<td>.46*</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.06*</td>
<td>.34*</td>
<td>.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSC</td>
<td>-.57*</td>
<td>.63*</td>
<td>.74*</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>.49*</td>
<td>.55*</td>
<td>.39*</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.07*</td>
<td>.33*</td>
<td>.45*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTO</td>
<td>-.53*</td>
<td>.66*</td>
<td>.63*</td>
<td>.49*</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>.28*</td>
<td>.38*</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>.29*</td>
<td>.35*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIN</td>
<td>-.44*</td>
<td>.52*</td>
<td>.54*</td>
<td>.55*</td>
<td>.28*</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>.28*</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td>.09*</td>
<td>.29*</td>
<td>.38*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEX</td>
<td>.41*</td>
<td>.40*</td>
<td>.47*</td>
<td>.39*</td>
<td>.38*</td>
<td>.28*</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>.05*</td>
<td>.09*</td>
<td>.33*</td>
<td>.25*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROR</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.06*</td>
<td>.04*</td>
<td>.04*</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td>.05*</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAM</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.06*</td>
<td>.07*</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>.09*</td>
<td>.09*</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td>.07*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSC</td>
<td>-.32*</td>
<td>.36*</td>
<td>.34*</td>
<td>.33*</td>
<td>.29*</td>
<td>.29*</td>
<td>.33*</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>.42*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCR</td>
<td>-.42*</td>
<td>.43*</td>
<td>.43*</td>
<td>.45*</td>
<td>.35*</td>
<td>.38*</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.07*</td>
<td>.42*</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .05.
Table 7

**Pearson r Correlations Between Self-Concept Scale, Autonomy for Women Scale and MSI Profile Scales.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychological Measures</th>
<th>MSI Scales</th>
<th>Self-Concept Scale</th>
<th>Autonomy for Women Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CNV</td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDS</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFC</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSC</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTO</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIN</td>
<td>.17*</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEX</td>
<td>.16*</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROR</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>.69**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAM</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSC</td>
<td>.16*</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCR</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

**p < .001
Table 8
Mean Scores on the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI) Subscales by Couple Congruence and by Gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MSI Scale</th>
<th>Incongruency Female</th>
<th>Incongruency Male</th>
<th>Congruency Female</th>
<th>Congruency Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CNV</td>
<td>8.68</td>
<td>10.38</td>
<td>9.58</td>
<td>9.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDS</td>
<td>9.05</td>
<td>9.05</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>9.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFC</td>
<td>8.37</td>
<td>7.15</td>
<td>7.11</td>
<td>8.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSC</td>
<td>12.26</td>
<td>10.38</td>
<td>12.84</td>
<td>12.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTO</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>6.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIN</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>6.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEX</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>11.05</td>
<td>10.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROR</td>
<td>16.26</td>
<td>15.41</td>
<td>16.53</td>
<td>15.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAM</td>
<td>7.63</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>7.26</td>
<td>7.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSC</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>5.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCR</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>3.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conventionalization, Global Distress, Affective Communication, Time Together, and Role Orientation scales indicated no significant main effects or interaction effects for the five dependent variables previously listed. An analysis of variance applied to the Problem-Solving Communication scale revealed that the main effect of wife's employment status was significant, $F(1,108) = 5.35, p < .05$. A significantly greater level of dysfunction, indicative of familial ineffectiveness in resolving disagreements, is reported by couples in those households in which the wife is employed outside the home than in families in which she is not. The main effect of gender was not significant, $F(1,108) = 1.29, p > .05$; nor was the main effect of couple congruence, $F(1,108) = 0.07, p > .05$. Additionally, there were no significant interactions, $p > .05$.

The analysis of variance computed on the Sexual Dissatisfaction Scale scores identified a main effect of gender that was significant, $F(1,108) = 4.62, p < .05$, with husbands expressing significantly more dissatisfaction with sexual activity than their wives. The main effects of wife's employment status and couple congruence, and any possible interaction effects were nonsignificant, $p > .05$. 
Further analyses of variance performed on the Disagreement About Finances, Family History of Distress, Conflict Over Childrearing, and Dissatisfaction with Children scales disclosed no significant main effects or interactions for the independent variables Gender, Wife Employment Status and Couple Congruence (i.e., incongruency or congruency).

A second series of analyses of variance was conducted on the 11 MSI subscales to determine if any group means differed significantly from others within a particular scale as a function of Gender, Wife Employment Status, and the Type of Congruence (e.g., Modern Wife/Traditional Husband). The means for the subscales of the Marital Satisfaction Inventory are shown in Table 9.

The analyses of variance performed on the Conventionalization, Global Distress, Affective Communication, and Time Together scales produced main effects and interactions that were not significant, $p > .05$. Similar analyses computed on the Family History of Distress, Conflict Over Childrearing and Dissatisfaction With Children scales also suggested no significant main or interaction effects for these measures, $p > .05$.

An analysis of variance calculated on the Problem-Solving Communication scale indicated the main
Table 9

Mean Scores on the Marital Satisfaction Inventory Scales (MSI) by Type of Congruence and by Gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Congruence</th>
<th>Modern/ Trad. Wife/ Modern Wife/ Traditional/ Modern Mod Husband Trad. Husband Traditional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MSI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale</td>
<td>Fem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNV</td>
<td>9.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDS</td>
<td>10.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFC</td>
<td>6.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSC</td>
<td>10.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTO</td>
<td>7.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIN</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEX</td>
<td>7.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROR</td>
<td>20.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAM</td>
<td>8.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCR</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSC</td>
<td>4.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
effect of wife's employment status was significant, $F(1,100) = 5.90, p < .05$. As should be expected, this finding is in agreement with the results of the first ANOVA conducted on the MSI scales (i.e., when the wife is employed outside the home, there is an increased level of dysfunction in the area of Problem-Solving Communication). The main effect of type of congruence was also significant, $F(3,100) = 4.62, p < .05$.

Inasmuch as significant differences were found between the groups as a function of type of congruence, a Scheffé test for groups of unequal size was used to determine which groups differed significantly from any others. The Scheffé revealed that the Modern Wife/Traditional husband group ($M = 17.25, SD = 10.96$) reported significantly greater levels of dysfunction (i.e., inadequateness in settling disagreements) than the Traditional Wife/Modern Husband subgroup ($M = 7.33, SD = 5.76$). All other reported differences between groups were not shown to be statistically significant. The main effect of gender was not significant, $F(1,100) = 1.42, p > .05$. Additionally, there were no significant interactions for the variables along the dimension of Problem-Solving Communication, $p > .05$.

The three-way ANOVA computed on the Disagreement About Finances scale indicated the main effect for
wife's employment status was significant, $F(1,100) = 9.76$, $p < .05$, as was the main effect for type of congruence, $F(3,100) = 5.38$, $p < .05$. Dual-worker couples showed significantly higher levels of dysfunction than single-worker couples along this measure, reporting scale scores that indicate arguments about money may be frequent and reflect disagreement about the family's fiscal priorities.

A Scheffe test was conducted on the Type of Congruence variable to determine which groups differed most. The Traditional Wife/ Traditional Husband category ($M = 8.13$, $SD = 5.19$) was found to be significantly more dysfunctional than the Traditional Wife/ Modern Husband type ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 2.85$) on this dimension. The main effect for gender was found to be nonsignificant, $F(1,100) = 1.42$, $p > .05$. The two-way interaction of Wife's employment status x Type of congruence was also found to be significant, $F(3,100) = 3.20$, $p < .05$ (See Figure 2). For dual-earner families, in which either or both spouses has a traditional sex-role orientation, the level of dysfunction is significantly greater than for single-earner families comprised of one or more spouses with a traditional attitude. The level of dysfunction increases for dual-worker couples when the male partner has the
traditional orientation and is most pronounced for couples in which both husband and wife share traditional values and the wife is employed outside the home. All other interactions were disclosed as nonsignificant.

**Decision-Making Indices**

A series of Pearson product-moment correlations were conducted to determine the effects of age, race, years of education, years married, number of children, occupation, number of hours worked on the outcomes of both the Shared Power Index and the Decision Power Index. The investigation revealed no significant correlations for the measures of interest. The Pearson r correlation was also used to compute the correlations between the Self-Concept scale, the Autonomy for Women scale and both measures of decision-making power under investigation in this portion of the study. No significant correlations were found between self-esteem and either measure, nor was there a significant correlation between attitude toward autonomy for women and the Shared Power Index. A significant correlation was found between attitude toward Autonomy for Women Scale and the Decision Power Index, $r = -.4387, p < .05$, revealing that the more positive the couple's attitude regarding autonomy for the wife, the less husband dominated were the family decisions.
Figure 2. Interaction effects of Wife's employment status by Type of congruence on scores for the MSI Disagreement About Finances Scale.
Table 10 presents the mean scores on the Shared Power Index (SPI) of both husbands and wives in conjunction with Couple Congruence and Wife's Employment Status. A three way analysis of variance was performed on the Shared Power Index to determine if any of the group means differed meaningfully from any of the others as influenced by Gender, Wife's Employment Status, and Couple Congruence. The main effects of wife's employment status, and couple congruence were found to be nonsignificant, \( p > .05 \). However, the main effect of gender was shown to be significant, \( F(1,108) = 4.460, p < .05 \), indicating that the husbands perceive more of the family decisions as shared than do the wives. The analysis of variance revealed no significant interaction effects along the variables of concern, \( p > .05 \).

A second three-way analysis of variance on the SPI followed the first, in which the variable Couple Congruence was replaced by the variable Type of Congruence. This analysis also revealed only the main effect of gender as significant, \( F(1,100) = 4.411, p < .05 \), reflecting, as mentioned above, that the husbands think more of the family decisions are shared than the wives believe are shared. No other main or interaction effects demonstrated to be significant, \( p > .05 \).
Table 10
Mean Scores on the Shared Power Index (SPI) by Gender and by Couple Congruence and by Wife's Employment Status.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Couple Congruence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruent&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife Working</td>
<td>4.44 (N = 18)</td>
<td>5.78 (N = 18)</td>
<td>4.62 (N = 21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife Not Working</td>
<td>4.62 (N = 21)</td>
<td>5.10 (N = 21)</td>
<td>4.54 (N = 39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>4.54 (N = 39)</td>
<td>5.41 (N = 39)</td>
<td>4.54 (N = 39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incongruent&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife Working</td>
<td>4.27 (N = 11)</td>
<td>5.27 (N = 11)</td>
<td>4.00 (N = 8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife Not Working</td>
<td>4.00 (N = 8)</td>
<td>4.00 (N = 8)</td>
<td>4.16 (N = 19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>4.16 (N = 19)</td>
<td>4.74 (N = 19)</td>
<td>4.16 (N = 19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wife's Employment Status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife Working&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.38 (N = 29)</td>
<td>5.59 (N = 29)</td>
<td>4.38 (N = 29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife Not Working&lt;sup&gt;d&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.45 (N = 29)</td>
<td>4.79 (N = 29)</td>
<td>4.45 (N = 29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>4.62 (N = 58)</td>
<td>4.98 (N = 58)</td>
<td>4.62 (N = 58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>4.62 (N = 58)</td>
<td>5.19 (N = 58)</td>
<td>4.62 (N = 58)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> SPI = 4.97.  <sup>b</sup> SPI = 4.45.  <sup>c</sup> SPI = 4.98.  <sup>d</sup> SPI = 4.62.
A similar set of ANOVAs (i.e., Gender x Wife's Employment Status x Couple Congruence followed by Gender x Wife's Employment Status x Type of Congruence) was also performed on the Decision Power Index (DPI). The mean scores for this measure are presented on Table 11. The first three-way analysis of variance (i.e., Gender x Wife's Employment Status x Couple Congruence) produced neither any main effects that were found to be significant nor any interaction effects resulting in significant differences between the means.

The second analysis variance, conducted with the substitution of the Type of Congruence variable for the Couple Congruence factor, showed the main effect of gender to be nonsignificant, $F(1,100) = 1.47, p > .05$ and presented the main effect of wife's employment status as also not significant, $F(1,100) = 2.34, p > .05$. The main effect of type of congruence was found to be significant, $F(3,100) = 3.07, p < .05$. A Scheffè test was conducted on the variable Type of Congruence to determine which groups were significantly different from any others. At the .05 level no two groups were significantly different; however, when the Alpha level of the Scheffè was increased to .10, the mean scores on the Decision Power Index became significant for the MM and TT marriages. The Traditional Wife/Traditional
Table 11

Mean Scores on the Decision Power Index (DPI) by Type of Congruence and by Wife's Employment Status and by Gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Congruence</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mod Wife/</th>
<th>Trad Wife/</th>
<th>Mod Wife/</th>
<th>Trad Wife/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mod Husb.</td>
<td>Mod Husb.</td>
<td>Trad Hus.</td>
<td>Trad Hus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Female</td>
<td>25.1 (10)</td>
<td>24.0 (5)</td>
<td>25.5 (6)</td>
<td>26.0 (8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24.8 (10)</td>
<td>25.8 (5)</td>
<td>27.0 (6)</td>
<td>28.6 (8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>24.9 (20)</td>
<td>24.9 (10)</td>
<td>26.2 (12)</td>
<td>27.3 (16)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Working Female</td>
<td>26.3 (9)</td>
<td>26.3 (4)</td>
<td>25.0 (4)</td>
<td>26.9 (12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>25.8 (9)</td>
<td>25.0 (4)</td>
<td>26.3 (4)</td>
<td>27.4 (12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>26.0 (18)</td>
<td>25.6 (8)</td>
<td>25.6 (8)</td>
<td>27.2 (24)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Female</td>
<td>25.6 (19)</td>
<td>25.0 (9)</td>
<td>25.3 (10)</td>
<td>26.5 (20)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>25.3 (19)</td>
<td>25.4 (9)</td>
<td>26.7 (10)</td>
<td>27.9 (20)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Congruence</td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>25.4 (38)</td>
<td>25.2 (18)</td>
<td>26.0 (20)</td>
<td>27.2 (40)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Values in parentheses represent n for each group.
Husband marriages were found to be characterized by significantly greater husband dominated decision-making than were the Modern Wife/Modern Husband relationships. There were no other statistically significant differences concerning spousal dominance in decision-making for any other group comparisons of measures on the DPI. All interaction effects of the independent variables were found to be nonsignificant.

Household Organization: Task Sharing

A Pearson product-moment correlation was used to explore the effects of self-concept and attitude regarding the autonomy of women on household division of labor. No significant correlations were found between measures of these attributes (i.e., Self-Concept Scale; Autonomy for Women Scale) and the measures of household task performance noted by the respondents. Pearson r correlations were used further to assess the effects of the demographic variables on the reported levels of Child-Care and Emotional Task performance (see Table 12). The results of this examination disclosed that occupational achievement was related to performance of Child-care tasks. It appears that as level of occupational prestige increases (e.g., bluecollar to professional) the amount of time spent on Child-care decreases for the respondent and increases for their
Table 12

Pearson r Correlations Between Demographic Variables and Child-Care and Emotional Tasks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Type of Task</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>No. Occupation</th>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Worked</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Race</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Kids</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Childcare</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.38**</td>
<td>-.63**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.58**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotional</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.  **p < .001.
spouse. Likewise, an increase in one's income has a similar effect on the family organization of Child-care tasks, as do the number of hours the respondent works. Increases in outside assistance for Child-care tasks are noticed as the age of the spouses increases, and are related to increases in the years of education and number of years married reported by the couples.

The percentage of time the spouse spends on Emotional tasks is reported to decrease as the number of hours their partner spends working increases. Subsequently, as the number of hours an individual spends working increases, so too, does the percentage of time they perceive themselves spending on emotional tasks.

A second series of Pearson r correlations were computed to determine the relationship between the demographic variables and the level of Traditional Female Tasks, Traditional Male Tasks, and All Tasks performed (see Table 13). In regard to Traditional Female tasks, an increase in occupational status, income, and number of hours worked is associated with a decrease in the working partners performance of female tasks and a corresponding increase in Female task participation of behalf of their spouses. An opposite relationship appears in the subgroup of Traditional Male
Table 13

Pearson r Correlations Between Demographic Variables and Traditional Female Tasks, Traditional Male Tasks, and All Tasks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Type of Task</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Years of Education</th>
<th>No. Married</th>
<th>Kids</th>
<th>Occupation Hours</th>
<th>Income Worked</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
<td>Self</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.19*</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.44**</td>
<td>-.68** -.65**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.66** .70**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.00 -.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td>Self</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.50** .52**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.18*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.38**</td>
<td>-.59** -.54**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.08 .06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All</strong></td>
<td>Self</td>
<td>-.22*</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.19*</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.34**</td>
<td>-.55* -.47*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.26*</td>
<td>.49* .51*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.16*</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.04 -.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05. **p < .001.
tasks. As occupational status, income, and number of hours worked increases, there is a related increase in the amount of time the working partner spends on Male Tasks and a decrease in the proportion of Male tasks performed by the spouse. The ages of the spouses, their levels of education, and number of years married is connected to increases in outside assistance for Traditional Female and Traditional Male tasks alike. An increase in age, years of education, occupational status, income, and hours worked is associated with a decrease in the overall performance of household tasks by the working spouses and an increase in the portion of All tasks performed by their partners. Increases in age, years of education, number of years married, and number of children are related to the amount of outside assistance the family receives on overall task performance.

The percentage of household tasks performed as reported by each spouse is displayed in Table 14. Also included on the table are the percentage of tasks each respondent perceived their partner and others to be doing.

An analysis of variance (i.e., Gender x Wife's Employment Status x Couple Congruence) was conducted on each of the four task subgroups (i.e., Child-care,
Table 14

Reported Percentage of Household Task Performance.
(n = 58)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Task</th>
<th>Performed by</th>
<th>Childcare</th>
<th>Emotional</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self</td>
<td>Females&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>Female Spouse&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male Spouse&lt;sup&gt;d&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>Wives' Responses</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Husbands' Responses</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Self-Report.  <sup>b</sup> Self-Report.  <sup>c</sup> As reported by the husbands.  <sup>d</sup> As reported by the wives.
Emotional Tasks, Traditional Male Tasks, and Traditional Female Tasks) and the overall percentage of tasks as reported by the respondents to determine if any significant differences existed between the groups on the percentage of performance. For the Child-care tasks, the ANOVA revealed the main effect of gender to be significant for the respondent's reported percentage of Child-care tasks performed, $F(1,108) = 227.94$, $p < .05$ and for the spouse's percentage of these tasks executed, $F(1,108) = 258.82$, $p < .05$, indicating that both husbands and wives report the females are performing significantly more of the Child-care tasks. The main effect of Couple Congruence was significant for the measure of other's percentage of Child-care tasks achieved, $F(1,108) = 5.44$, $p < .05$, revealing that couples whose sex-role orientations are congruent (i.e., Modern/Modern; Traditional/Traditional) have less outside assistance for their child-care needs than do those spouses with incongruent sex-role attitudes. There were no other main effects or interaction effects found to be significant in the Child-care classification for the measures of Self, Spouse or Others percentage of task performance.

Examination of the data generated by the analysis of variance for the class of Emotional tasks indicated
no significant main effects or interactions when investigating the reported percentage of tasks done by Self, Spouse, or Others.

The analysis of variance applied to the subdivision of Traditional Female tasks disclosed the main effect of gender was significant for both the respondent's and spouse's percentage of Female tasks carried out, $F(1,108) = 271.38, p < .05$ and $F(1,108) = 353.87, p < .05$, respectively, with both spouses reporting the wives as performing significantly more of the Traditional Female tasks than the husbands. The interaction effect of Gender x Wife's employment status, as shown in Figure 3, was significant for the stated percentage of respondent's share of Female tasks, $F(1,108) = 9.17, p < .05$, signifying that the husbands report that they are performing more and the wives identify themselves as performing less of the Traditional Female tasks when the wife works than when she is not employed outside the home. The interaction effect of Gender x Wife's employment status (See Figure 4) was also significant for the reported percentage of the spouse's portion of Female tasks performed. This finding discloses that the wives are also reporting that the husbands are doing more of the Female tasks when the wife is in the labor force than when she is not, whereas the husbands are
reporting the wives as doing more of these tasks when they are not employed outside the home. The main effects of both wife's employment status and couple congruence were found to be nonsignificant for respondent's and spouse's reports of performance. There were no additional interaction effects noted to be significant for either of these two groupings. The category for other's percentage of female tasks revealed no main effects or interaction effects when examined with the ANOVA.

The analysis of variance performed on the subgroup for Traditional Male Tasks and its corresponding measures for Self, Spouse, and Others indicated the main effect of gender to be significant for the measure of respondent's male tasks performed, $F(1,108) = 146.07, p < .05$. The main effect of gender was also significant for the scores indicating spouse's percent of male tasks, $F(1,108) = 137.43, p < .05$, but was not significant for the category of other's portion of male tasks, $F(1,108) = 1.530, p > .05$. The findings indicate the husbands are doing more of the Male tasks than the wives as reported by both the husbands and their spouses. Consistent with these results, these findings also identify the wives as doing less of the Male tasks as reported by both spouses.
Figure 3. Interaction effects of Gender by Wife’s employment status on Respondents’ percentage of Traditional Female tasks.
Figure 4. Interaction effects of Gender by Wife's employment status on Spouses' percentage of Traditional Female tasks.
The main effect of wife's employment status was not found to be significant for any of the measures in the Traditional Male Task category, nor was the main effect of couple congruence, \( p < .05 \). The interaction effect of Couple congruence x Wife's employment status, displayed in Figure 5, was significant for the measure of other's percent of male tasks, \( F(1,108) = 14.49, \ p < .05 \). Consequently, the findings indicate that for dual-worker couples with sex-role congruence (i.e., MM; TT) more of the Male tasks are performed by other than family members than is the case for dual-worker couples with sex-role incongruence. However, the data show that in single-worker families characterized by sex-role incongruence more of the Male tasks are performed by outsiders than in single-worker families marked by sex-role congruence. All other interaction effects for the three-way ANOVA of Gender x Wife's employment status x Couple congruence were found to be nonsignificant for the measures within the grouping of Traditional Male Tasks.

The three-way analysis of variance for Gender x Wife's employment status x Couple congruence was performed for the final classification that assessed all tasks inclusively. The ANOVA indicated the main effect of gender to be significant for the measures of
Figure 5. Interaction effects of Couple congruence by Wife's employment status on Others' percentage of Traditional Male tasks.
respondent's percent of All tasks, \( F(1,108) = 71.54, p < .05 \), as well as spouse's percent of All tasks, \( F(1,108) = 108.52, p < .05 \). These findings reveal that both spouses are reporting the wives as performing significantly more of the overall tasks than the husbands. The interaction effect of Couple congruence x Wife's employment status, depicted in Figure 6 was demonstrated to be significant for the measure of other's percent of All tasks, \( F(1,108) = 5.39, p < .05 \). This interaction illustrates that in families characterized by sex-role congruence and the wife working outside the home more of the overall tasks are performed by others than in families with working wives that are described by sex-role incongruence. However, the greatest percentage of overall tasks performed by other than the spouses is shown to occur in families with incongruent sex-roles in which the wife is not employed. All other main effects and interactions were shown to be nonsignificant for all measures within this group.

As in the previous sections, the variable Couple Congruence was replaced with Type of Congruence and a second series of analyses of variance was conducted on the five subgroups of task measurement (i.e., Child care, Emotional, Male, Female, and All).
Figure 6. Interaction effects of Couple congruence by Wife's employment status on Others' percentage of All tasks.
As expected, the set of three-way analyses conducted on the Child-care tasks revealed the main effect of gender to be significant for the measure of the respondent's percent of Child-care carried out, $F(3,100) = 217.68, p < .05$ and also significant for the measure of spouse's percent of Child-care performed, $F(3,100) = 246.09, p < .05$. Consistent with the findings of the first ANOVA performed on this measure, the data here also find both the husbands and wives reporting that the females are doing a significantly greater portion of the Child-care tasks than the males. The other main effects (i.e., Wife's Employment Status, and Type of Congruence) and all interaction effects were found to be nonsignificant for the classification of Child-care tasks.

The ANOVAs performed in the area of Emotional tasks disclosed no significant main effects for any of the independent variables: Wife's Employment Status, Gender, or Type of Congruence. The three-way interaction effect of Wife's employment status x Gender x Type of congruence was found to be significant for spouse's percent of Emotional tasks, $F(3,100) = 3.162, p < .05$, and is shown in Figure 7. The pattern developed by this multiple interaction suggests that for the Modern/Modern marriage type the husband performs more of the Emotional
tasks when the wife is not working, whereas both spouses assume approximately equal responsibility for Emotional tasks when the female is employed outside the home. On the other hand, in marital arrangements of the Traditional/Traditional variety, husbands execute more of the Emotional tasks than wives when the female is employed outside the home, and both spouses perform similar proportions of Emotional tasks when the wife is not working. For both types of incongruent sex-role classifications (i.e., Traditional Wife/Modern Husband; Modern Wife/Traditional Husband) The husbands perform more of the Emotional tasks when the wife is not working and accordingly the wives assume more of the responsibility for Emotional tasks when they are working outside the home.

The two-way interaction effect of Wife's employment status x Type of congruence, represented in Figure 8, was shown to be significant for other's percentage of Emotional tasks, $F(3,100) = 2.90, p < .05$. This interaction reveals that couples identified as either of the two congruent sex-role classifications receive the least amount of outside involvement concerning Emotional tasks with the most support provided for both groups when the wife is employed outside the home. The data indicate that couples of the Traditional Wife/Modern
Figure 7. Interaction effects of Type of congruence by Gender by Wife's employment status on Spouses' percentage of Emotional tasks.
Figure 8. Interaction effects of Wife's employment status by Type of congruence on Others' percentage of Emotional tasks.
Husband type receive more outside help on emotional tasks when the wife is working, whereas marriages of the Modern Wife/Traditional Husband procure the most outside aid when the wife is not employed. No additional interaction effects were discovered to be significant within the subgroup of Emotional tasks.

The three-way analyses of variance conducted on the subgroup of Female tasks presented the main effect of gender that was significant for both the respondent's and spouse's percent of female tasks, but not significant for the other's portion of this scale, $F(1,100) = 285.15, p < .05$, $F(1,100) = 355.58, p < .05$, and $F(1,100) = 1.18, p > .05$, respectively. Not surprisingly, the data from this analysis are in agreement with the findings of the first conducted on this measure, and are in concert with the original results. Namely, that both husbands and wives report that the females are performing significantly more of the Female tasks than the males. The main effects for the variables wife's employment status and type of congruence were not shown to be significant for any of the measures in this grouping.

Consistent with the results of the first set of ANOVAs, the interaction effects of Gender x Wife's employment status was significant for respondent's
percentage of Female tasks, $F(1,100) = 8.28, p < .05$
(See Figure 3) and for spouse's percentage of Female
tasks, shown in Figure 4, $F(1,100) = 9.78, p < .05$. As
previously indicated, these findings signify that the
husbands report that they are performing more and the
wives are describing themselves as performing less of
the Traditional Female tasks when the wife works than
when she is not employed outside the home. These
findings also disclose that the wives are reporting that
the husbands are doing more of the Female tasks when the
wife is in the labor force than when she is not, whereas
the husbands are reporting the wives as doing more of
these tasks when they are not employed outside the home.
The interaction effects of Gender x Wife's employment
status was not found to be significant for other's
percentage of Female tasks, $F(1,100) = .003, p > .05$.
None of the other interaction effects was found to be
significant for any additional measures in the
Traditional Female Task category.

The similar analyses of variance administered
within the subgroup of Traditional Male Tasks indicated
the main effect of gender was significant for
respondent's percentage of Male tasks, $F(1,100) =
143.41, p < .05$, spouse's percentage of Male tasks,
$F(1,100) = 139.21, p < .05$, but was not significant for
other's percentage of Male tasks, $F(1,100) = 1.52, p > .05$. Accordingly, these findings are consistent with the former results of the initial ANOVA conducted on this measure and likewise, indicate that the both members of the family report that the husbands are doing significantly more of the Male tasks than the female spouse. The main effects of wife's employment status and type of congruence were not significant for respondent's, spouse's, or other's percentage of Male tasks.

The two-way interaction of Wife's employment status x Type of congruence was found to be significant for other's percentage of Male tasks, $F(3,100) = 6.152, p < .05$ and is displayed in Figure 9. This interaction reveals that in households of the Modern Wife/Traditional Husband type in which the wife is not working a larger percentage of Male tasks is performed by individuals outside the family than for any other sex-role classification. Additionally, for both types of sex-role congruent couples (i.e., MM; TT), significantly more outside assistance is obtained for Male tasks when the wife is working than when she is not. No further interactions were discovered to be significant for any of the other measures in the Male tasks portion of this investigation.
Figure 9. Interaction effects of Wife's employment status by Type of congruence on Others' percentage of Male tasks.
The three-way analyses of variance (i.e., Wife's Employment Status x Gender x Type of Congruence) performed on the measures of interest (i.e., respondent's percentage (self), spouse's percentage, and other's percentage) for the composite of All tasks revealed the main effect of gender to be significant for respondent's percentage of All tasks, $F(1,100) = 70.47$, $p < .05$. The main effect of gender was also significant for spouse's percentage of All tasks, $F(1,100) = 102.44$, $p < .05$. As reported earlier, these data signify agreement of behalf of the spouses that the wives are doing a significantly greater portion of All tasks than the husbands. The main effect of gender was not found to be significant for other's percentage of All tasks, $F(1,100) = 2.13$, $p > .05$, nor were the main effects of wife's employment status or type of congruence disclosed as significant for any of these measures. There were no interaction effects determined to be significant along any of the dimensions within the All Tasks classification of the data.

**Spousal Agreement of Household Task Performance**

A two-tailed t-test of paired samples was conducted to determine if the self-reported group means of the husbands and those of the wives on the measures of task performance differed significantly from the recorded
percentage of tasks executed as reported by the respective spouse of each respondent. Table 15 displays the mean response for each type of task as given by self and the spouse.

The results of the analyses indicated that the percentage of Child-care tasks performed by the husbands, as reported by themselves, differed significantly from the percentage of these tasks they performed as reported by their wives, $t(57) = 2.10, p < .05$. The percentage of Female tasks the husbands reported doing also differed significantly from the percentage of Female tasks the wives reported them performing, $t(57) = 3.55, p < .05$.

There were no significant differences in the self-reports and reports of the spouses concerning the performance of Emotional tasks. Agreement along this measure was the highest for all types of tasks investigated.

The husbands' reports of the percentage of Male tasks they performed was found to differ significantly from the wives' estimates of the husbands' participation in this area, $t(57) = 3.40, p < .05$, as did the percentage of Male tasks the wives reported themselves doing when compared to what the husbands attributed to being achieved by the wives, $t(57) = 2.06, p < .05$. 
Finally, the percentage of All tasks the husbands believed themselves to be accomplishing differed significantly from the percentage of All tasks the wives concluded the husbands were doing, $t(57) = 5.25, p < .05$. Likewise, the percentage of All tasks the wives reported themselves doing also differed significantly from the percentage of All tasks the husbands reported them performing, $t(57) = 2.18, p < .05$. 
Table 15

Husbands' and Wives' Household Task Allocation Responses.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Task</th>
<th>Husband on Self</th>
<th>Wife on Husband</th>
<th>Wife on Self</th>
<th>Husband on Wife</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Childcare</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Combined</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ All responses are in terms of percentage of tasks performed.
Chapter 5
Discussion

On the basis of this present research, the conclusion must be that sex-role congruency of married couples is related to the level of marital satisfaction and household task performance reported in contemporary marriages.

**Hypothesis #1.** Although it was predicted that husbands and wives with congruent sex-role orientations (i.e., Modern Wife/Modern Husband, Traditional Wife/Traditional Husband) would exhibit lower levels of marital dysfunction than couples with incongruent sex-role attitudes (i.e., Traditional Wife/Modern Husband, TM; Modern Wife/Traditional Husband, MT), the data from this investigation do not support this conclusion. The opinion presented here is in agreement with those of Scanzoni (1975) and Snyder (1979) whose former research efforts have failed to disclose any significant relationship between sex-role congruency of husbands and wives and levels of marital satisfaction.

**Hypothesis #2.** However, the second hypothesis that examination of couples with sex-role orientations of the incongruent type (i.e., TM, MT) would find those couples with a Modern Wife/Traditional Husband pattern reporting higher levels of marital dysfunction than those of the
Traditional Wife/Modern Husband type has been clearly supported. The obtained results appear to be in agreement with the findings of Bowen and Orthner (1983), whose research efforts suggest a significant relationship between sex-role attitude congruence of spouses and the perceived level of marital satisfaction within the marriage. These findings are also in agreement with the investigative conclusions of Cooper et al. (1985), whose earlier endeavors indicate congruence in sex-role attitudes for dual-worker couples are associated with greater marital satisfaction for the dual-worker families.

An obvious question now arises from this research as to how the results of this investigation can be in mutual agreement with what appear to be conflicting results in the previous work. Clearly, one answer lies in the perspective from which the data has been analyzed. As Bowen and Orthner (1983) have pointed out, though Scanzoni (1975) and Snyder (1979) used both spouses in their respective samples, they both chose to analyze the data from the viewpoint of the individual.

This current research, as well as that of Bowen and Orthner, used the response of the husbands and wives jointly; therefore, the couple was the unit of analysis, removing the focus from the individual's adjustment to
the marriage and placing it on the family unit. Another possible explanation of the apparent discrepancies among the findings of this and earlier research mentioned (i.e., Scanzoni, 1975; Snyder, 1979) may continue to be one of differences between samples employed by the investigators, as suggested by Bowen and Orthner (1983). Whereas both Scanzoni and Snyder used samples obtained from civilian populations, the sample employed by Bowen and Orthner was comprised solely of military couples, and that of Cooper and her colleagues was composed exclusively of dual-worker families. Consequently, the results of this present investigation may begin to address the concerns expressed by Bowen and Orthner (1983) that the difference between samples employed by various researchers may have accounted for discrepancies in the findings.

Although significant differences on measures contained within the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (i.e., Problem-Solving Scale and Disagreement about Finances Scale) have provided data supporting the hypotheses of greater dysfunction in families composed of a modern wife and a traditional husband than those of the opposite combination, several trends in the present data involving the type of couple congruence warrant further discussion. Despite the fact that the mean
differences between groups on the Affective Communication scale of the MSI are nonsignificant, the direction of movement across the groups is consistent with the direction of difference found on the PSC. The MT group appears, as would be expected by the second hypothesis, to be more dysfunctional on this measure then the TM classification. When considered in conjunction with the significant findings of the Problem-Solving scale, this trend takes on added importance. Snyder (1979) has reported the affective and problem-solving communication are consistently the best single predictors of overall marital satisfaction.

Inasmuch as the Marital Satisfaction Inventory has been shown to be a reliable measure of individuals and a useful tool in assessing differences between groups on a variety of dimensions (Scheer & Snyder, 1984; Snyder, 1979), profiles have been constructed for both the Traditional Wife/Modern Husband and the Modern Wife/Traditional Husband subgroups of congruence type (See Appendices). Comparison of these two profiles suggests an outcome consistent with the findings of the relationship between the two groups reported earlier in this report. The MT group shows elevated scale scores, indicative of marital discord, on seven measures of the MSI (i.e., Global Distress (females only), Affective
Communication, Problem Solving Communication, Time Together, Sexual Dissatisfaction, Family History of Distress, Conflict over Childrearing); whereas, the TM couples exhibit elevated scores on only two profile scales (i.e., Sexual Dissatisfaction, Family History of Distress (males only)). Undoubtedly, the direction and pattern of dysfunction between these two groups is consistent with the proposition of the second hypothesis presented in this work.

The significant findings concerning the group means on the Autonomy for Women Scale have added importance when viewed in light of the findings regarding the relationship between TM and MT couples. The integration of the data leads to the suggestion that the increased dysfunction the MT couples report may be a result of the pressures from the modern female spouses attempting to change the sex-role attitudes of their traditional husbands, and a resistance on behalf of the male spouses to such change.

Hypothesis # 3. Though it was predicated by the third hypothesis that marriages with congruent sex-role attitudes of the modern type would report less dysfunction than both marriages with congruent sex-role orientation of the traditional type and those marriages of the incongruent type, this prediction was only
partially supported by the results of this investigation. While there were significant differences between MM and TT families on measures of decision making power that revealed Traditional/Traditional couples appear to be more husband dominated in the decision-making process than Modern/Modern husbands and wives, there emerges no clear cut differences between the TT and either of the marital arrangements with a classification of the incongruent type.

The gravity of this finding might best be assessed in view of the support it provides the theory of Gilbert (1985) by substantiating his position that in traditional patriarchal systems the male needs for power and dominance are extremely relevant. Further support for Gilbert's theory is garnered from the findings of this research that reveal in those families that favor female independence there is less domination by the husband in the decision-making process than in those families with a negative view of autonomy for women.

Hypothesis #4. The fourth and final hypothesis that households characterized by modern sex-role congruence will show more egalitarian measures of household task sharing than families with congruent sex-role orientation of the traditional is not supported by the findings of this investigation. The data
generated by this current endeavor unmistakably establish gender as the primary determinant in who does the work in the home. The findings of this research in this regard lend strong support to the previous findings (e.g., Baruch et al., 1987; Krausz, 1983; Ross et al., 1983) that women are still performing the majority of the household and Child-care tasks.

Additionally, the results of this study indicate that couples with incongruent sex-role orientations have a greater percentage of Child-care tasks performed by others than the spouses themselves than do couples whose sex-role attitudes are congruent. Surprisingly, the trend for families obtaining outside assistance with the children demonstrates it is the households in which the female espouses the more traditional sex-role attitudes that are receiving the largest amount of help from others. In defense of the husbands, it is still the males who continue to perform the majority of the traditional male tasks, whereas emotional tasks appear to be shared equally by husband and wife.

The findings of this investigation appear to be in concert with the theory of Perucci, Potter, and Rhoads (1978) that sex-role attitudes may influence the division of labor in the home. Evidence in support of this assumption appear in the information garnered in
this endeavor that the presence or absence of sex-role attitude congruence between spouses affected the role of outsiders in both male and overall tasks performed. More specifically, for those households comprised of a modern wife and a traditional husband, in which the wife does not work, the greater the level of outside assistance will be in performing male tasks than for any other type of classification.

This research provides other information of the type that R. A. Lewis (1985) would term significant news concerning the amount of time men are involved in family tasks. In those situations in which the wife is employed outside the home, the husband's performance of female tasks is nearly doubled, as reported by both the husband and wife. This finding is counter to the conclusion formed by Nickols and Metzen (1982), but may be indicative of the shift in the husbands' participation in household tasks and reflect agreement with the earlier findings of Crouter and Perry-Jenkins (1987).

Yet, the data generated by this present investigation show that women continue to perform over 70 percent of both housework and child-care tasks while maintaining employment outside the home. These findings are in partial agreement with the earlier work of
Berardo et al. (1987) who suggested that wives were doing almost 80 percent of these tasks in dual-worker families. However, the data from this present research does not reveal any significant change in the amount of male tasks the wife performs when she is employed outside the home.

The question of who's doing the work at home appears to be partially answered in this present study. The male spouses seem to think they carry more of the household load than their wives perceive them doing. On the other hand, the husbands agree with the wives as to their level of participation, excluding those chores traditionally performed by the males. When the data is evaluated from the perspective of the couple, rather than the individual, the evidence suggests that the wives may be more accurate in their assertions of an imbalance of household task performance than would the male who claims an evolution toward a more egalitarian relationship.

**Demographic considerations.** The factors of age, years married, and years of education present a correlational pattern that suggests older, more educated couples who have been married the longest obtain the most outside help in child-care, female, and male task performance. As would be expected, as the number of
hours worked outside the home increases the fewer tasks an individual performs at home and the more the responsibility is expected to be taken on by the spouse. Likewise, as one's income increases, the less involved they appear to be in household task sharing with a corresponding increase in performance reported by the spouse. Surprisingly, income or hours of work do not seem to be as important as age, education, or years married in determining the degree of participation by others in household tasks.

**Summary.** In summary, the current results support several hypotheses regarding a number of variables that may be associated with marital satisfaction and division of labor in the home. Congruence in sex-role orientation, attitude toward autonomy for women, gender, and employment status of the wife were related to marital adjustment and household organization. However, the results of this present investigation were based on limited sample size and self-reported estimates of individual participation.

A critical question is whether the restricted sample size of this investigation affected the results. The limited number of couples in the incongruent sex-role categories may not have been representative of the larger population and further research employing
larger and more equivalent groups may be warranted. Additional research is needed utilizing a time-budget methodology with the focus on the couple as the unit of analysis that will provide additional, and possibly more precise, data regarding the effects of sex-role congruence on the division of labor in the home.

Another important question is whether the results of this investigation are applicable to married couples without children or are unique to families with children. Further research is necessary to compare the findings presented here with samples from childless families. In addition, future investigations should include longitudinal research regarding the relationship between sex-role congruence and the incidence of divorce.
CONSENT FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

Title of Study: "Sex-Role Congruence: Marital Satisfaction and Household Division of Labor"

You are being asked to participate in a study of the relationship between marital satisfaction and sex-role orientation for married couples. We hope to discover what couples expect from the marriage relationship and what is actually happening for those who have been in the marriage relationship for some time. We hope to use this information to design and develop the appropriate courseware for use in our Research Methods class. We hope to enhance the quality of our student's learning environment through the use of applied statistical skills analyzing and comparing this current data to findings of former research endeavors. For this reason it is extremely important that you answer all of the enclosed forms completely and honestly to ensure the success of this novel academic undertaking.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to answer some questions about who does or should do certain chores around the house. In addition, you will be asked some informational questions about your marital status, and the number of hours you and your spouse or significant other work.

Some of the questions are of a personal nature. Be assured that THE DATA YOU GENERATE IN THIS STUDY WILL NOT BE ASSOCIATED WITH YOUR IDENTITY IN ANY WAY. The purpose of this project is to investigate the relationship between these variables for entire groups, not for individuals. The data from your completed packet will be coded such that your name never appears with the questionnaires.

Your participation in the study is voluntary and you are free to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time. If, during the project (or after it is completed) you have any questions about the procedures, feel free to ask the researcher to clarify for you. The study is being conducted by the Psychology department of the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. If you have any questions about the project, you can contact Jack Gillespie, Teaching Assistant, by calling (739-3217 or 737-3305)

YOUR SIGNATURE BELOW INDICATES THAT YOU HAVE DECIDED TO VOLUNTEER AS A RESEARCH SUBJECT AND THAT YOU HAVE READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED ABOVE

DATE ___________________________ SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT ___________________________

DATE ___________________________ SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR ___________________________
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. AGE _____  2. RACE _______  3. GENDER: (circle one) M or F

4. EDUCATION: (Circle number of years completed)
   K 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20

5. YEARS MARRIED _______  6. NUMBER OF CHILDREN _______

7. YOUR OCCUPATION ________________  8. SPOUSE'S OCCUPATION ________________

9. YOUR ANNUAL INCOME (check one):  10. SPOUSE'S ANNUAL INCOME (check one):
   ____ less than $1,000  ____ less than $1,000
   ____ $1,000-$10,000  ____ $10,000-$20,000
   ____ $10,000-$20,000  ____ $20,000-$30,000
   ____ $20,000-$30,000  ____ $30,000-$40,000
   ____ $30,000-$40,000  ____ $40,000-$50,000
   ____ $40,000-$50,000  ____ more than $50,000
   ____ more than $50,000

11. HOURS YOU WORK PER WEEK ____  12. HOURS SPOUSE WORKS PER WEEK ____

13. SIBLINGS: (Include any stillborn or deceased brothers and/or sisters)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME (first name only)</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>IF DECEASED OR STILLBORN</th>
<th>DATE OF DEATH</th>
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INSTRUCTIONS:

This survey is concerned with domestic task performance between partners in the home. Please DO NOT FILL OUT the questionnaire IN THE PRESENCE OF YOUR SPOUSE. After the questionnaire is complete we encourage you to discuss your responses with each other.

13. Indicate how often you and your spouse discuss the division of labor in your home:
   NEVER OFTEN
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

14. Indicate how satisfied you are with the division of labor in your home.
   NOT SATISFIED VERY SATISFIED
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
Items number 1-30 below are household domestic tasks. For each of the tasks please indicate A) what percentage of the time you engage in the activity, B) what percentage of the time your spouse engages in the activity, and C) what percentage of the time other people (for example, hired help, children) engage in the activity. For each of the tasks the percentages should total 100.

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<td></td>
<td>He</td>
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<td>1. makes the household repairs?</td>
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<td>2. drives car when with partner?</td>
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<td>3. cleans the oven?</td>
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<td>4. takes out loans or arranges for credit?</td>
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<td>5. apologizes first after an argument?</td>
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<td>6. changes the bed linen?</td>
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<td>7. vacuums?</td>
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<td>8. straightens up the house?</td>
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<td>9. buys clothes for the children?</td>
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<td>10. washes the dishes?</td>
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<td>11. mops the floor?</td>
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<td>13. starts discussions?</td>
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<td>14. dusts the furniture?</td>
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<td>15. says &quot;I love you&quot; or shows other signs of affection outwardly?</td>
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<td>16. pays bills when out with partner?</td>
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<td>17. mows the lawn?</td>
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<td>18. does the laundry?</td>
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<td>19. bathes the children?</td>
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<td>20. repairs car or arranges for car repair?</td>
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<td>21. paints inside of house/hangs wallpaper?</td>
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<td>22. provides children to and from activities?</td>
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<td>23. prepares tax returns?</td>
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<td>24. feeds children?</td>
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<td>25. cooks?</td>
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<td>26. tells spouse what happened during the day?</td>
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<td>27. changes lightbulbs?</td>
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<td>28. gets up at night to tend children?</td>
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<td>29. initiates kissing spouse &quot;hello&quot; or &quot;goodbye&quot;?</td>
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<td>30. makes sexual advances?</td>
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Other Tasks Not Mentioned

31. ____________________________ |

32. ____________________________ |

33. Now that you have completed the questionnaire, please indicate again how satisfied you are with the division of labor in your home.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>not satisfied</th>
<th>very satisfied</th>
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<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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References


