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SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION, ROLE SALIENCE, INCOME, AND
FAMILY TYPE AS DETERMINANTS OF WIFE-
HUSBAND SHARING OF FAMILY TASKS

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SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION, ROLE SALIENCE, INCOME AND
FAMILY TYPE AS DETERMINANTS OF WIFE-
HUSBAND SHARING OF FAMILY TASKS

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The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of sex-role orientation, role salience, income and family type on wife-husband sharing of family tasks. Specific objectives were to determine differences between wives and husbands on sex-role orientation, role salience and the sharing of family tasks and to identify the extent to which sex-role orientation, role salience, income and family type predict the sharing of family tasks.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

One factor which has contributed significantly to changes in family structure and function in the past three decades has been the rapid increase in the number of families with two or more earners. By March 1978, "27.5 million (58 percent) of all husband-wife families had more than one earner. In the vast majority (84 percent) of these multi-earner families, both husband and wife were earners" (Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 1979, p. 1).

Women accounted for 60 percent of the total increase in the labor force during the five year period 1975 through 1979 (BLS, 1980a). It was especially noteworthy that married women with one or more children under age 18 were almost as likely to be in the labor force as were childless married women. Traditionally, married women, especially those with children, sought their primary life rewards and satisfactions from the home and community environments.

The 1970's were a period during which an increasing proportion of married women expanded their traditional wife/mother roles to include participation in the labor force. The financial contribution of wives to the family income was important to family well-being (Hayghe, 1981). Family economic security was significantly influenced by having both wife and husband as income providers for the family (BLS, 1980a).

1978, the median income for families where only the husband was employed was \$17,400 as compared to \$23,000 when two earners were present. If the wife-husband earners were employed in career positions, the median income was even higher (Rawlings, 1978).

During the decade of the 1970's, wives' employment motivated a renewed interest in the integration of work and family roles (Kanter, 1977b). There was a growing emphasis on partnership in family life, with expectations that both spouses share the costs as well as the benefits of multiple family and employment roles (Ferber and Birnbaum, 1980).

Joint activities and collaborative decision-making were promoted as means of maximizing family sharing of multiple roles (Ericksen, Yancy, and Ericksen, 1979). Concern was expressed that family support services such as day-care programs, flexitime employment and maternity and paternity leave become more available (Bird, 1979). The need for reassessment of family roles was also expressed (Pleck, 1977). It was implied that the relationship between wife and husband would be inequitable should the husband fail to respond to the overload of responsibilities created by the wife's employment by increasing his participation in family tasks. Acceptance of more responsibility for family tasks such as meal preparation, vacuuming, laundry and child care was seen as a positive response by the husband as his recognition of the importance of the wife's additional contribution to the family resources.

The acknowledgment by increasing numbers of husbands and wives that the income of the wife was important to the economic maintenance of the family unit led to an increase in the leverage wives assumed in

marital decision-making. The increased importance of the wife's earnings lent credence to the belief that a wife who shared the income-provider role in the family had the right to bargain for a more equitable distribution of family tasks at home (Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Scanzoni, 1972; 1980).

Brown (1978) focused on the employed wife's implied right to bargain with the husband for interchangeable family roles when he reported that with the increase in women's employment there was the assumption of "a causal connection between wife-employment and the emergence of egalitarian marital ideology" (p. 5). Rawlings (1978), writing in a United States Bureau of the Census publication, concurred, "many working wives and mothers are coming to expect more involvement and assistance from their husbands in carrying out childrearing and housekeeping responsibilities of the family" (p. 1).

One process of resolving the differences in wife-husband expectations for household management created by changes in the day-to-day organization of family life when both spouses were employed was through negotiation. Negotiation involved solving differences in role expectations through communication and compromise (Scanzoni, 1972). Research involving employed spouses acknowledged that changes in performance of family roles that accompanied shifts in traditional employment patterns required much negotiation (Holmstrom, 1973; Hall and Hall, 1979; Bird, 1979).

The outcome of the negotiation process between wives and husbands on the topic of family task allocation is debatable. Time-budget studies (Walker and Woods, 1976; Robinson, 1977) indicated that wives'

employment had little impact on husbands' contribution to family tasks. Other researchers (Pleck, 1978 ; Scanzoni and Fox, 1980) reported that employed wives had decreased the amount of time they spent doing family tasks and husbands had increased their time allocation, making the division more equitable, but with family tasks still primarily the responsibility of the wife. Pleck and Rustad (1981) analyzed the time-use diaries of 249 husbands and 298 wives and concluded that total work time including household work of employed wives was only 12 minutes per day more than that of their husbands, statistically insignificant. Pleck and Rustad (1981) suggested that employed husbands and wives in the 1970's seemed better able to manage multiple roles than in the 1960's. Limited literature was found identifying variables that contributed to a more equitable division of family work at home.

Need for the Study

Identification of factors which are associated with the sharing of family tasks could provide both theoretical and substantive contributions to the field of family studies. For example, regardless of the division of tasks between wives and husbands in the aggregate, there exists a subgroup of couples who share all or part of the family tasks, each having a varying degree of joint responsibility for task accomplishment (Perrucci, Potter, and Rhoades, 1978). But, knowledge is scarce concerning the characteristics or variables associated with identified amounts of sharing. This additional knowledge might lead to the development of strategies for achieving a more equitable task distribution between spouses who are desirous of such assistance (Pleck, 1978). Such knowledge could also expand family research and

theory development beyond what Scanzoni and Fox (1980) described as the basic research question of "the consequences of tangible resources (money)" (p. 751) on the division of family tasks.

Past research (BLS, 1980b) revealed a relationship between income level, education level and occupational status. In general, as education rose so did occupational status and income. "Education creates competencies valued by employers, providing more job opportunities, more stimulating work and better pay" (Rallings and Nye, 1979, p. 207). Wives and husbands having a greater amount of the above-mentioned resources could presumably minimize participation in family tasks while maximizing participation in employment activities (Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Perrucci et al., 1978; Rallings and Nye, 1979). A problem with this generalization is that in two-career families, wives and husbands are relatively equal in education, status, and income. How are family tasks divided when the resources of spouses are approximately equal? Research evidence was inconclusive, but tended to support the idea that when resources were relatively equal, wives still accepted the major responsibility for accomplishing family tasks (Epstein, 1971; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973).

Though it was generally true that the earning power of the wife influenced her family negotiating potential (and thus the potential for husband's sharing of family tasks), researchers have identified other variables which also influenced task sharing (Nye, 1976; Scanzoni and Fox, 1980). It is important to identify those variables in order to expand and hopefully give empirical justification to theoretical assumptions concerning the sharing of family tasks.

One variable which previous researchers (Farkas, 1976; Stafford, Backman and Dibona, 1977; Scanzoni, 1978) found to be predictive of wife-husband sharing of family tasks was sex-role orientation. Sex-role orientation referred to the degree of preference (traditional or egalitarian) for roles which reflected normative prescriptions for behavior in the social positions of wife/mother and husband/father (Scanzoni, 1975; Tomeh, 1978).

In the above-mentioned studies having a traditional sex-role orientation was associated with the belief that family roles should be the primary responsibility and major source of reward and satisfaction for married women while married men should receive their primary life rewards from employment roles. Having an egalitarian sex-role orientation was identified with a belief in role interchangeability; that family roles and employment roles were the joint responsibility as well as a source of reward and satisfaction for both wife and husband. Evidence from past studies (Farkas, 1976; Stafford et al., 1977; Scanzoni, 1975, 1978, 1980) suggested that an egalitarian sex-role orientation was predictive of increased participation of the husband in family tasks, but more research is needed in order to substantiate those preliminary findings.

Role salience, or the degree of importance wives and husbands attach to family and employment roles also appeared to be a variable which could have an effect on the extent to which spouses participate in family tasks. Masih (1967) was one of the first scholars to examine individual differences in the importance attached to employment roles. He identified the following three dimensions of career salience

(a) the degree to which a person is career motivated, (b) the degree to which occupation is important as a source of satisfaction, and (c) the degree of priority ascribed to occupation among other sources of satisfaction. (p. 653-654)

In a later study, Bailyn (1970) suggested that distinctions similar to those used by Masih to describe career salience could also be applied to family roles. Family salience, as Bailyn concluded, could refer to the value husbands and wives placed on the enactment of family roles. Her research, however, was not concerned with allocation of family tasks.

Though empirical testing of the impact of role salience on the sharing of family tasks was not found in the literature reviewed, it appeared theoretically to be a relevant variable to include in the study. The relative importance wives and husbands attach to family as opposed to employment roles should influence the degree of participation in family tasks.

A final variable which was related to the employment of wives and seemed worthy of further investigation was family type. Scanzoni (1980) utilized a sample of 386 wives and empirically tested a method of categorizing family types by the individual income and job commitment of the wife. He labeled the families studied as head-complement, senior partner-junior partner and equal partner-equal partner.

Head-complement families were those in which the wife was not employed outside the home. The senior partner-junior partner family type was identified as being composed of couples where the wife described the husband as the major family earner, while the equal partner family type was descriptive of families in which wives identified themselves as coproviders of the family income. Scanzoni reported the results of his study as follows:

It was found that equal partners . . . evidence greater labor force commitment, possess higher levels of material resources, participate more fully with their husbands in household task performance, control fertility more rigorously . . . and hold less traditional sex roles than do junior partners. Similarly, junior partners emerge as significantly different from complements. (p. 137)

More research is needed to verify and expand on the above findings. In addition, men need to be included in future samples in order to get a more complete understanding of family type as a research variable.

Statement of the Problem

Research cited in the preceding section of this study implied that the employment of wives in the paid labor force brought about changes in family expectations concerning the allocation of family tasks (Pleck, 1977; Brown, 1978; Rawlings, 1978; Bird, 1979). Recognition was given to the impact of the wife's income and job commitment on her ability to negotiate for changes in the allocation of family tasks (Pleck, 1978; Scanzoni and Fox, 1980).

Little was known about variables other than the income of the wife that could have an effect on the division of family tasks between wives and husbands. The literature, however, revealed some possible links between husband's sharing of family tasks and sex-role orientation (Farkas, 1976; Stafford et al., 1977; Scanzoni, 1978), role salience (Masih, 1967; Bailyn, 1970), and family type (Scanzoni, 1980). The problem which was the focus of this study was, what is the impact of sex-role orientation, role salience, income, and family type on the sharing of family tasks by wives and husbands and how do groups of husbands and wives compare in regard to these same characteristics?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine the effect of sex-role orientation, role salience, income and family type on the sharing of family tasks by wives and husbands. Specific objectives were to:

1. determine if there are differences between wives and husbands on sex-role orientation, role salience and sharing of family tasks and
2. identify the extent to which sex-role orientation, role salience, income and family type predict sharing of family tasks.

Hypotheses

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant differences between groups of wives and husbands on sex-role orientation.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant differences between groups of wives and husbands on role salience.

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant differences between groups of wives and husbands on sharing of family tasks.

Hypothesis 4: Sex-role orientation, role salience, income, and family type will not predict sharing of family tasks

- a. for wives or
- b. for husbands.

Assumptions

For this study it was assumed that wives and husbands could accurately express their preferences for sex-role norms as well as assess the amount of importance placed on roles performed and social positions held within the family. In addition, it was assumed that spouses could

accurately report the extent to which they shared family tasks with their husbands or wives.

The assumption was also made that responses to items assessing sex-role orientation, role salience, and the sharing of family tasks for respondents to this survey would not differ from those of other wives and husbands of the defined population except for sampling error. And finally, it was assumed that data from nonrespondents would not have significantly altered the findings reported in this study.

Limitations

One limitation of this study, which is common to most survey research in family studies, is that it must rely on the reports of respondents (rather than on direct observation) for information about personal values, family relationships and individual and family role behavior. Such a research design suggests the possibility of a variety of measurement errors. For example, respondents do not always apply the same meaning to variables selected, conceptualized and operationalized by the researcher. Even when both researcher and respondent are in agreement with the meanings of variables, the accuracy of measurement can be affected by mathematical errors, the faulty memory of respondents or respondent reticence.

Another limitation is that the sample selected for study may well represent administrators of land-grant institutions, but may not be representative of administrators at other institutions or educated career-oriented individuals in general. Overgeneralization can be a

problem under those circumstances. Larger samples of spouses from all socioeconomic groups, ages, and educational backgrounds would be necessary for investigators to more accurately predict relationships between the sharing of family tasks, sex-role orientation, role salience, income and family type.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this literature review is to explore existing theory as well as research summaries and conclusions related to the impact of sex-role orientation, role salience, income, and family type on wife-husband sharing of family tasks. First an overview of the literature on sharing of family tasks is presented. Secondly, the review identifies studies concerned with each of the following variables: sex-role orientation, role salience, income, and family type. The review of each variable includes studies relating that variable to the sharing of family tasks.

The Sharing of Family Tasks

Certain daily or weekly tasks must be performed in order for the individual to successfully function in various roles as a family and community member. Wives and husbands usually have the primary responsibility for directly or indirectly accomplishing those family tasks which include such activities as meal preparation, food shopping, child care, bill paying and lawn mowing. Yet, the allocation of family tasks is one of the most neglected aspects of family studies. As Berk and Berk (1979) pointed out:

Despite the fact that people invest enormous amounts of time and energy in their household lives, we have little empirical foundation on the nature of these dynamic allocations or the mechanisms by which they occur. (p. 10)

Preferences about task allocation are brought to marriage by both wife and husband who, through a process of negotiation (and sometimes conflict), make decisions about the division of tasks. As family circumstances change, negotiation continues. Working out the terms of their unwritten marital contract is a never-ending process for couples. That contract concerns the responsibilities and rights they agreed to either implicitly or explicitly when they married (Gowler and Legge, 1978; Scanzoni, 1979).

One factor which has accelerated husband-wife discussion of changes in marital expectations concerning allocation of family tasks is the increasing numbers of married women in the paid labor force (Rawlings, 1978). Dual-earner families (families in which both wife and husband hold jobs) rose by approximately 25 percent between 1968 and 1978. By 1978 "51 percent of all married couples were dual-earner families while just under 33 percent were of the traditional-earner type" (Hayghe, 1981, p. 47). Traditional-earner families were defined by Hayghe (1981) as families in which the husband was the only income provider in the family.

Employed wives who labored full-time in the work force in addition to having the primary responsibility for household and child care tasks were sometimes described as suffering from role overload: a situation characterized by Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) as having many employment, family and community responsibilities with only limited time for their accomplishment. Role overload was identified as a common source of

stress in two-earner families, especially among wives (Epstein, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973; Lein, Durham, Prutt, Schudson, Thomas, and Weiss, 1974; Heckman, Bryson, and Bryson, 1977; St. John-Parsons, 1978).

Rapoport and Rapoport (1976) suggested that four conditions affected feelings of overload:

(a) the degree to which having children and a family life was salient; (b) the degree to which the couple aspired to a high standard of domestic living; (c) the degree to which there was satisfactory reapportionment of tasks; and (d) the degree to which the social-psychological overload compounded the physical overloads. (p. 302)

The Rapoports further stated that the equitable division of family tasks was a coping strategy which helped to decrease the amount of role overload and thus the amount of stress in the two-career family. Rapoport and Rapoport (1975) defined the concept of equity as follows; "it implies the 'fair' distribution both of opportunities and of constraints without regard to gender" (p. 422).

A husband's increased sharing of family tasks was commonly viewed as a means of reducing role overload for employed wives (Fogarty, Rapoport, and Rapoport, 1971; Miller, 1971; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971). One method of examining the extent of overload experienced by employed wives was to analyze how family tasks and paid employment responsibilities were divided between wives and husbands. From that knowledge it was commonplace to extrapolate the extent to which either spouse was overloaded with role commitments (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973; Pleck and Rustad, 1981).

A number of studies examined the relationship between wife's employment and husband-wife participation in family tasks. Though there was general agreement among the studies that employed wives continued to have the primary responsibility for family organization and

functioning, some studies found that wife's employment led to increased sharing of family tasks by husbands. Specific studies and research reviews are discussed below.

Blood and Wolfe (1960) were among the first researchers to study the effects of wife's employment on the family-task sharing of husbands. They viewed the employment of wives as an important variable which had affected change in American family life. Utilizing interviews with 731 urban and suburban wives and 178 farm wives, Blood and Wolfe (1960) concluded that husbands of employed wives increased their participation in eight family tasks not including child care. The authors went on to explain that this departure from tradition only held for dual-earner families. In higher-income families the employment of the wife resulted in less task participation on the husband's part. Blood and Wolfe equated the rise in the wife's family task performance with the increase of the husband's absorption in his career. No findings were reported for dual-career families.

Other studies based on time-budget data indicated that there had been few changes in the distribution of family tasks when wives were employed. For example, in a 1967-68 time-budget study of 1,296 husband-wife families in Syracuse, New York, Walker (1970) found that husbands' sharing of family tasks was not appreciably greater in families where wives were employed compared to nonemployed-wife families. Vanek (1974) analyzed data from the 1965-66 United States Time Use Survey which included time budgets from respondents in 44 metropolitan areas and stated that employed women spent one-half as many hours doing family tasks as nonemployed women. She also concluded that "husbands of employed women gave no more help than husbands of nonemployed women"

(p. 118). Robinson (1977) also based his analysis on the 1965-66 time-budget data, substantiating findings of Walker (1970) and Vanek (1974).

Meanwhile, Walker and Gauger (1973) further analyzed the data from the Walker (1970) study in New York and reported that the time husbands contributed to family tasks was related to their own employment hours rather than to wives' employment. And the findings of other researchers (Berheide, Berk, and Berk, 1976; Farkas, 1976) led to the conclusion that regardless of employment status, the main responsibility for family tasks still belonged to the wife.

In a more recent study, Berk and Berk (1979) conducted research using the time diaries of 750 households. Their data, based on input from both wives and husbands, confirmed that wives did most of the household tasks, including child care. The researchers stated, "husbands of employed wives pick up some of the burden although not nearly enough to reach parity with their employed wives" (p. 231).

In an article summarizing the findings of other researchers, Hedges and Barnett (1972) concluded that even among two-career couples there was little observed sharing of family tasks. That conclusion is examined below on the basis of past research.

Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) were pioneers in the study of two-career families. They interviewed 16 British families intensively over a two-year period and identified husband-wife sharing of family tasks as a "stressor" which influenced the amount of conflict and tension between spouses in the two-career family (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971, p. 304). Later, Rapoport and Rapoport (1976) reached the following conclusion in a reexamination of data based on interviews of couples from their 1969 study:

Most of the women we studied felt fortunate that they had a career at all. They tended to accept as 'inevitable' that women would have to bear the main brunt of child care and domestic organization, and that there would 'naturally' tend to be more strain on the wife's career-family cycling problems than on husband's. (p. 318)

Epstein (1971) reached similar conclusions when she studied a group of two-career couples who worked as law partners. She noted discrepancies between egalitarian attitudes toward husband-wife responsibilities concerning family and employment roles and reported behavior among the two-career couples interviewed. Epstein concluded that the wives still accepted primary responsibility for home and child care and confined their employment roles to those which were observed to be less prestigious and less demanding of administrative skills than those of the husbands.

In a similar study, Poloma and Garland (1971) reported finding a range of task-sharing behavior (on a continuum from no sharing of family tasks to equal sharing) between professionally employed wives and husbands. Of the 53 couples studied, 38 percent reported that the husbands shared no family tasks. In those families, the wife working alone or with the aid of hired help accomplished all of the family tasks. Safilios-Rothschild's (1970) findings based on a study of Greek families were in agreement, suggesting that when income was high, and the wife's commitment to employment was also high, there was an increase in husband's task allocation. However, as Safilios-Rothschild explained, wives with high employment commitment were also more likely to hire help, thus reducing the husband's need to assist with family tasks.

Another significant study (Holmstrom, 1973) was based on interviews from 20 two-career couples. She found that some husbands

contributed substantially to family tasks. Though slightly over one-third of the husbands reported that they shared three of nine listed family tasks at least half the time, most of the couples stated that the major portion of the tasks was done by the wife or by hired help. Holmstrom concluded, "no matter how much help the woman received, the domestic realm was defined as her responsibility" (p. 155).

More recently, Weingarten (1978) focused on a sample of 32 two-career couples in which the husbands were employed full-time and the wives were employed either full-time or part-time. Weingarten stated her findings as follows, "couples with a similar employment history distribute the family work more equitably than couples with a dissimilar employment history" (p. 49). Yet, Weingarten noted no significant differences in the relative proportions of family tasks accomplished by wives who had full-time, continuous work histories versus those who had part-time and/or discontinuous work histories. There were also no significant differences in the distribution of child care responsibilities.

To summarize to this point, the allocation of family tasks between wives and husbands when the wife is employed is partly explained by the assumption that it is the wife's employment role, not the husbands, which requires flexibility if the family is to adjust satisfactorily to the employment of both spouses (Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Epstein, 1971; Poloma and Garland, 1971; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976; Pleck, 1977). Evidence revealed that task allocation was unevenly divided between employed spouses, with the wife accepting the major responsibility for task accomplishment (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973; Lein et al., 1974). Time-budget studies (Walker, 1970; Vanek, 1974;

Robinson, 1977; Berk and Berk, 1979) concluded that the wife's employment only minimally affected husband's task performance. The low incidence of husband-wife sharing of family tasks sometimes led to an overload of roles for the wife even though she decreased the amount of time allocated to task accomplishment (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976; Holmstrom, 1973; Pleck, 1977).

In some families, husband-wife sharing of tasks did increase when the wife was employed (Poloma and Garland, 1971; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973; Weingarten, 1978; Berk and Berk, 1979). If there is diversity in the sharing of family tasks among some employed couples, the next logical step is to explore the factors which have been reported to lead to greater sharing behavior. The remainder of this chapter addresses those factors.

Factors Influencing the Sharing of Family Tasks

Among factors studied as influencers of wife-husband sharing of family tasks were sex-role orientation, role salience, income, and family type. Research regarding these factors is reviewed in this section of the literature review.

Sex-Role Orientation

Sex-role orientation refers to the degree of preference (as indicated on a continuum from traditional to egalitarian) individuals have for roles which reflect normative prescriptions for behavior in social positions such as wife, mother, husband or father (Scanzoni, 1975; Tomeh, 1978). Evidence accumulated from the work of family scholars gives credence to the hypothesis that role behavior is influenced to

some extent by the beliefs, attitudes and preferences held by each spouse. For example, when Nye (1976) studied the attitudes and behavior of 210 husband-wife families, he concluded that:

the cultural content, the normative prescriptions and proscriptions, have relatively large influence on the behavior of husbands, wives, fathers, mothers, and children and, therefore it is important in describing and explaining family behavior that these cultural guidelines to role behavior be measured and analyzed. (p. 8)

If a preference for particular expectations for role performance is predictive of husband-wife behavior as indicated by Nye (1976), then it follows that the sex-role orientation of each spouse would be a predictor of the sharing of family tasks.

Other research supports the above assumption as reported in a decade review of sex-role literature from the 1970s. Scanzoni and Fox (1980) cited evidence that preferences for particular sex-role norms "indicate the strength with which [wives and husbands] prefer the sets of rewards and costs which flow from current patterns of gender stratification and division of labor" (p. 744). The authors also noted that the sex-role orientation of men and women was gradually becoming more egalitarian. Men, however, continued to be less egalitarian than women (Sexton, 1979) and better educated individuals tended to hold more egalitarian sex-role preferences than the lesser educated (Scanzoni, 1978).

The relationship between the sex-role orientation of couples and wife's employment (particularly through the use of multidimensional sex-role orientation scales) was not pursued in depth in much of the research located, although a number of studies (Bayer, 1975; Mason and Bumpass, 1975; Parelius, 1975; Scanzoni, 1975, 1978, 1979) examined

the sex-role orientation of various populations. Several researchers urged the investigation of the influence of sex-role orientation on family and employment roles (Pleck, 1977; Perrucci et al., 1978; Scanzoni and Fox, 1980).

Scanzoni (1975) predicted that increased egalitarian sex-role preferences of wives and husbands would eventually modify employment and family role constraints which operated to sanction men and women wishing to have interchangeable family and work roles. Scanzoni (1979) further suggested that egalitarian preferences influenced women to aspire to higher education and higher job positions. He hypothesized that:

Once involved in their occupations, their sex-role orientation may have motivated them to perform at a higher level (i.e. work harder) which, in turn, may have resulted in more rapid advancement . . . if their husbands actually did participate more fully in domestic chores--then that situation would probably 'release' women to make greater inputs into and receive greater benefits from their occupations. (p. 797)

The conclusion was that employed wives who were more egalitarian in their preference towards sex-role norms were more likely to be in career positions and were more likely to have negotiated with husbands to share more of the family tasks.

Other research added evidence to support the above hypothesis expressed by Scanzoni (1979). For example, when Heckman et al. (1977) described the factors producing adverse effects on the career performance of women, they mentioned that the primary factor was "women's own internalized values, which included some traditional stereotyped female role expectations" (p. 323). They studied 200 two-career couples and concluded that the wives' career performances were poorer than husbands' because wives placed their career secondary to

family needs as well as to husbands' career needs. Coser and Rokoff (1974) referred to this phenomenon when they discussed the conflicting family and employment roles of professional women. To their thinking, this conflict was inspired by an underlying value system by which professional women "are expected to be committed to their work 'just like a man' at the same time as they are normatively required to give priority to their family" (p. 501).

Other researchers (Mortimer, Hall, and Hill, 1978) cautioned against considering only the wife's beliefs about family role enactment when designing research studies. These authors pointed out that husbands also experienced contradictions between traditional values and behavioral expectations regarding the importance of family and employment roles. The researchers described the phenomenon as follows, "men experience role strain due to an inability to fulfill, according to their own expectations, their work and family responsibilities" (p. 288). These scholars theorized that since highly educated men had a more egalitarian ideology, they were likely to suffer more acute strain. An egalitarian ideology increased husbands' expectations to share family tasks and to take a more active interest in parenting and spousal responsibilities, while their employment-role demands made the synchronization of work and family responsibilities difficult.

A few research studies focused directly on the relationship between sex-role orientation and the division of family tasks. One such study (Stafford et al., 1977) utilized a sample of married college students. The findings suggested that the husband's traditional sex-role orientation was among variables associated with his participation in fewer family tasks. Another study by Perruci et al. (1978)

found that variables reflecting the respondent's sex-role ideology were predictors of husband's sharing of family tasks. These researchers explained that a "husband's performance behavior results from an acquired belief that he should or should not assist with household tasks" (p. 63).

Scanzoni (1978) used multidimensional sex-role scales to assess respondent's sex-role orientation. He observed that wives who were career-oriented, self-confident and who had continuous employment histories were more likely to contribute a larger portion to the family income and to share family tasks with their husbands. Scanzoni further pointed out that there was a relationship between the sex-role orientation of wives and the development of differing life philosophies. Wives labeled "traditional" in their orientation believed that "if the family does well, I do too," while wives labeled egalitarian or "modern" believed that "if I do well, the family does too" (p. 116). This difference in orientation led to life style differences among the groups studied. Wives who preferred egalitarian sex roles were more likely to be active in employment roles and to avoid high levels of childbearing and child care. They were more likely to be effective at negotiating with their husbands for more equal division of family tasks. Fine-Davis (1979) drew conclusions similar to the above research from data received from 240 married women. She also found employed wives significantly less traditional in their sex-role orientation.

It appears from the literature reviewed that sex-role orientation is a variable which has some relative impact on wife-husband sharing of family tasks. Using it in combination with other variables known to influence sharing behavior should prove to be productive.

Role Saliency

A review of the research revealed that the influence of role saliency on the division of family tasks was seldom examined directly, rather the importance of the relationship was inferred. In keeping with that finding, this section of the literature review will focus on research findings and theoretical conclusions based on role saliency as a variable in other types of research.

Role saliency refers to the relative importance or value individuals place on various family, employment and community roles. Several family sociologists have suggested that a relationship exists between role saliency and role performance. For example, Burr (1973) proposed that "the value of a phenomenon influences the amount of effect this phenomenon has in social processes" (p. 48). Slocum and Nye (1976) agreed and further suggested that "the more important a role, the more rewarding competence in that role would be" (p. 182).

Masih (1967) studied a variable he identified as career saliency. This variable was labeled as the degree to which an individual was motivated to pursue a career position, viewed that position as a source of satisfaction, and prioritized employment roles above other roles as a source of satisfaction. The findings suggested that careers, as opposed to jobs, required large inputs of time and energy.

Persons involved in highly salient, time-demanding occupations found it difficult to segregate work time from family time (Kanter, 1977a). Work time often extended into hours normally spent with family members or in pursuit of personal interests (Kanter, 1977b). High prestige occupational groups earning high incomes worked longer hours

than other less prestigious groups (Wilensky, 1961; French, Tupper, and Mueller, 1965). Ridley (1973) noted that time devoted to employment roles in excess of the normal work day influenced the amount of time available to carry out family roles. And Kanter (1977a) added, "work effectiveness bears some relation to total family effort, and family life is dominated by work in absorptive occupations" (p. 26).

Other research disputed the findings of Ridley (1973) and Kanter (1977a). For example, research focusing on two-career families revealed that when both spouses were involved in absorptive careers, the synchronization of work and family roles was even more difficult to manage than in a one-career family (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973). These studies indicated that the largest management problems encountered in two-career families involved the use of time and energy. Time and energy were a problem because two-career couples had high commitments to family and work roles and wished to satisfy the demands of both sets of roles with equal fervor (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976).

Bailyn (1978) theorized that couples committed to equally sharing the responsibilities of employment and family roles had the potential of experiencing a rewarding life; but a life requiring more attention to the complexities of integrating the promotional cycles of two careers with the developmental cycles of a family. Weingarten (1978) called such a relationship "interdependent." Both scholars agreed that initiating such an equitable relationship was more complex than initiating a traditional arrangement, but could offer significant personal and family rewards.

Other studies not concerned directly with two-career couples have also shown that high levels of commitment to employment roles do not

necessarily diminish the enactment of family roles. For example Clark, Nye and Gecas (1978) found evidence which suggested that husbands who placed a high value on family roles tried to allocate time to those roles before committing time to other responsibilities. These researchers reported that husbands "who worked long hours generally gave high priority to marital roles and so [contrary to the findings of Kanter (1977a)] did not allow their work involvement to interfere with marital interaction" (p. 19).

Two other studies, Bailyn (1970) and Rapoport, Rapoport, and Thiessen (1974) addressed the concept of role salience. Bailyn (1970) categorized husbands as career or family oriented. In marriages where the wife was employed, and valued the employment highly, marital satisfaction was high if the husband was family oriented, but low if the husband was employment oriented. Rapoport et al. (1974), using a similar classification system, reported that couples described themselves as receiving greater enjoyment from everyday activities with spouses if the husband was family oriented rather than career oriented. Both studies concluded that it was the husband's employment or family orientation, rather than the wife's which had the strongest effect on marital variables.

It would be consistent with the literature reviewed to suggest that the degree of importance wives and husbands place on family, employment and community roles would influence their participation in family tasks. In other words, role salience would be expected to be predictive of husband-wife sharing of family tasks.

Income

It has repeatedly been shown that husbands who earn high incomes are less likely to have an employed wife (Bowen and Finegan, 1969; Kreps, 1971; Sweet, 1973; Young and Willmott, 1973). As Bird (1979) stated:

The higher the man's income, the more he needs the emotional, social, and housekeeping support of a traditional wife. The higher a woman's income, the less she needs the economic and social support of a husband. (p. 53)

High-income positions often required the support of two persons, husband and wife. Papanek (1973) and Kanter (1977a) discussed the assumptions made about time inputs of the corporate wife. The corporate wife was seen as an extension of the husband; as expecting to have her life shaped by the employment demands of the husband. Kanter (1977a) addressed the problems of the corporate wife as follows:

As an instrument of diplomacy and a critical part of her husband's image, the corporate wife must often hide her own opinions in order to preserve a united front, play down her own abilities to keep him looking like the winner and the star. The women's intelligence and superior education--assets when the men looked for wives--gave way to other, more social traits such as gregariousness, adaptability, attractiveness, discretion, listening ability, and social graces. (p. 121)

Kanter also indicated that universities, like corporations, were highly absorptive of administrator's lives and thus would most likely require some of the same involvement by the wives.

Given the time requirements of administrative positions, husbands of high status and income may well find it difficult as well as unrewarding to participate in family tasks. Research is not available concerning the influence of individual income or family income on the division of family tasks when the wife is also in a career position.

Research does exist on the influence of income on task sharing in two-earner families. Nickols and Metzen (1978) reported that participation of husbands in family tasks was associated with the wife's average hourly earnings. "For every one dollar increase in the wife's average hourly earnings, the husband increased his time inputs . . . by about 20 minutes per week" (p. 95). Scanzoni (1978) reported similar findings in a study of couples 22-33 years of age. As the wife's income rose so did husband's participation in cooking and dishwashing.

On the other hand, Ericksen et al. (1979) found a negative relationship between husband's earnings and his participation in family tasks. And Model (1981) concluded that "the smaller the income differential between spouses, the greater male housework participation becomes" (p. 227).

Research reviewed which related individual income to wife-husband sharing of family tasks revealed that career men married to nonemployed wives were not expected to share family tasks (Papanek, 1973; Kanter, 1977a). Marriage of an employed husband to a wife who was also employed did, however, complicate the relationship. The individual incomes of wife and husband seemed to have some separate influence on husband's task participation (Nickols and Metzen, 1978; Scanzoni, 1978; Ericksen et al., 1979). The direction of the relationship between income earned and the sharing of family tasks was usually found to be positive (Nickols and Metzen, 1978; Scanzoni, 1978), though there was some disagreement (Ericksen et al., 1979; Model, 1981). Family income (the combined earnings of the married couple) was not a variable in the studies reviewed.

Family Type

Research focusing on families and employment includes families of various descriptions or types. One method of categorizing families into types was suggested by Scanzoni (1972). He theorized that families could be categorized into at least three groups based on the wife's degree of job commitment and extent of financial contribution to the family. In two co-authored texts, Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1976, 1981) recommended that the following classification system be used by researchers examining differences among groups by family type: head-complement (husband employed full-time, wife not employed), senior partner-junior partner (husband employed full-time, wife employed full- or part-time, but not considered a coprovider of family income), and equal partner-equal partner (husband and wife both employed full-time, employment and family roles viewed as interchangeable).

Drawing on data gathered in 1975 from a sample of 596 married white wives aged 22-33, Scanzoni (1980) empirically tested the above-mentioned method of classifying respondents into family types. Family type was used as "a master criterion against which comparisons were made over five clusters of variables" (p. 136). The results indicated that "use of this sort of criterion variable appears to be a valid way to distinguish among contemporary marriage types" (p. 137).

The following review of the literature includes information on three family types, the composition of which is based on categories empirically examined by Scanzoni (1980); one-career (husband in a career position, wife not employed), career-earner (husband in a career position, wife employed full- or part-time in a job), and two-

career (husband and wife both employed in career positions). The review is confined to these three family types because those are the types used as independent variables in the present study.

One-Career Families. As stated previously, one-career families are those in which the husband holds a career position and the wife is not working in the paid labor force. In previous studies (Pahl and Pahl, 1970; Lopata, 1971; Papanek, 1973) nonemployed wives of successful, high status men often described their position of wife as including the expectation that they provide a support system for the husband's career. Wives reported that they helped to maintain husbands' status by providing social contacts and engaging in activities which reflected favorably on the husbands. Wives also attended to the "therapeutic role" by giving husbands empathetic as well as intellectual stimulation (Nye, 1976).

The cultural expectation was that the husband's employment role had precedence over family or community roles. His career provided the family with status and economic security (Bailyn, 1970). The position of wife in the one-career family was multifaceted. To her fell the primary responsibility for family tasks including child care, integrative and supportive functions, as well as maintenance of contact with kin, friends and business associates (Holmstrom, 1973; Papanek, 1973). These services performed by the wife were important to the career success of the husband and neither spouse necessarily felt their set of roles was the most costly or the most beneficial in the marital relationship (Kanter, 1977a).

Career-Earner Families. The career-earner family type is characterized by the husband having a career position and the wife being employed either full-time or part-time in a job. Researchers have pointed out that there is a difference between a career position and a job or earner position. For example Rapoport and Rapoport (1971, 1976, 1978) maintained that the crucial elements distinguishing a career from a job were that a career required a great amount of commitment, a high degree of education, and had a continuous developmental character.

Scanzoni (1980) also expressed the hypothesis that certain characteristics separated a wife employed in an earner position from a career employed wife. He empirically tested that hypothesis (Scanzoni, 1980) and clarified those differences as follows:

Equal partners [career-oriented wives] evidence greater labor force commitment, possess higher levels of material resources, participate more fully with their husbands in household task performance, control fertility more rigorously so as to enhance occupational participation, and hold less traditional sex roles than do junior partners [earner-oriented wives]. (p. 137)

Based on the research cited above, Scanzoni concluded that employed wives who viewed their husbands as the major family-income provider were significantly different from wives in two-career families across at least five variables and recommended further research.

In a similar vein, Ericksen et al. (1979) further suggested that a highly successful husband married to an educated, full-time employed wife:

is likely to 'permit' his wife to work only if it does not inconvenience him in any way (e.g., he does no housework). However, if he is not so successful, he is likely to help with the house in return for her contribution to the family income. (p. 304)

From data collected from 1,212 respondents, Ericksen et al. (1979) found that employed wives exercised more power and influence within their marriages than nonemployed wives. Yet, it was still expected that the husband's occupation provide more status, income and prestige than the wife's occupation. His employment schedule was still the most influential to the family's organization, management, and leisure activities.

The findings of Rapoport and Rapoport (1971, 1976), Ericksen et al. (1979) and Scanzoni (1980) help to substantiate an earlier hypothesis offered by Goode (1964):

Toward the upper strata, men are less likely to assert the values of patriarchal authority, but in action manage to have more power anyway. On a common sense basis, it can be seen that these men have resources by which to have their way. Their wives are less likely to work and even if they do work, they contribute a smaller percentage of the total family income . . . husbands are less dependent on their wifely services. Thus, the husband's position in the role bargaining is stronger. (pp. 74-75)

Because of the constraints mentioned above, some women married to career-oriented men chose part-time rather than full-time employment. Ericksen (1977) pointed out that educated women tended to marry educated men who aspired to high status careers. Because husbands' careers were so time demanding, wives had less chance of negotiating a shared division of family tasks. Women in situations of this type, reported Ericksen (1977), were more apt to work part-time rather than full-time so they could more readily handle the commitments required of the two-person career (Papanek, 1973) in addition to household responsibilities and their own employment roles.

Two-Career Families. In the two-career family, both spouses are employed in equally demanding occupations (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973; Scanzoni, 1980). Because of the time demands of two professional occupations, neither spouse receives the assistance with employment roles which were typical of one-career, and to some extent, of career-earner families (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976; Mortimer, 1977). Lack of support services is documented as a significant source of stress in two-career families, but one they manage through increased planning and a tendency to redefine role expectations (Bryson, Bryson, Licht, and Licht, 1976; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976).

Past research documented the fact that individuals in career positions tended to work much longer hours than individuals in low-prestige occupations (Gerstl, 1961; Wilensky, 1961; Young and Willmott, 1973) and it was characteristic of career-oriented spouses to have a high level of commitment to both employment and family roles (Mortimer, 1977). Couples expected to perform in several roles simultaneously; career, spouse, household manager, parent. They established high standards for all roles (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971) which were at times a source of personal and marital tension.

When asked about their personal and family lives, married career women reported that their involvement in high status jobs had a positive impact on family relationships (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976) and provided them with increased responsibility, security, autonomy and self-esteem (Kanter, 1977a). Women in high status jobs were observed to integrate family and work roles in a manner similar to that of career men. As Pleck (1977) reported, career wives often need to give priority to employment roles over family or community roles. In

addition, Pleck stated, "women holding jobs more equal in status to their husbands will give greater legitimization to the demand for more equal sharing of family work" (p. 425). Married-career men also discussed the benefits of the life style in terms of having a closer more intimate relationship with their wives and children as well as being less pressured to succeed as the sole provider of family income (Pleck, 1977).

Division of family tasks was especially important in a two-career family where both wife and husband had interchangeable roles as income provider, parent and spouse. However, as previously mentioned, research evidence (Holmstrom, 1973; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976) revealed that task division was still an issue in two-career families. Ideology seemed to lag behind behavior when it came to dividing up everyday tasks such as laundry, vacuuming or lawn mowing. One researcher (Oakley, 1974) suggested that the accomplishment of family tasks was not very respected or rewarded, yet failure to do the tasks was a daily reminder that some family member or members had not taken time for their completion.

Most past studies were in agreement that, in general, two-career couples still assigned the major responsibility for tasks to the wife (Epstein, 1971; Poloma and Garland, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973). Yet, more recent studies argued that husband's participation in tasks increased when the wife was in a career position. For example, Perrucci et al. (1978) found that husbands, whose wives were employed professionally did 12 percent more of the family tasks than husbands whose wives were in earner positions. In like manner, Scanzoni (1980) reported that husbands in "equal-partner" marriages shared "child care, cooking,

dishwashing, clothes washing and food shopping to a greater degree" than was true for husbands in "senior-partner/junior-partner" or "head-complement" marriages (p. 366). He also suggested that wives in two-career families seemed less likely to accept gender-linked patterns of role performance and more likely to be better negotiators for family arrangements and patterns of task division which promoted role interchangeability rather than role segregation.

The literature reviewed indicated that family type was an important research variable which should be considered when designing a study to assess the factors influential in predicting wife-husband sharing of family tasks (Scanzoni, 1972, 1980; Scanzoni and Scanzoni, 1976; 1981). Members of one-career families, career-earner families and two-career families were found to have unique characteristics which influenced the manner in which they allocated family tasks (Bailyn, 1970; Pahl and Pahl, 1970; Holmstrom, 1973; Papanek, 1973; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971, 1976; Perrucci et al., 1978; Ericksen et al., 1979; Scanzoni, 1980). The studies cited above revealed that, in general, as the wife's education, income and job status increased, she was more likely to exert pressure toward and negotiate for an increase in the husband's participation in family tasks.

In summary, the purpose of this literature review was to explore existing theory as well as research summaries and conclusions relative to the influence of sex-role orientation, role salience, income and family type on wife-husband sharing of family tasks. Research utilizing these variables as separate or partially combined indicators of family-task sharing has born results consistent with theoretical ideas (Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Hoffman, 1960; Kanter, 1977b; Scanzoni, 1980

Scanzoni and Fox, 1980), yet has failed to establish a consistent generalizable relationship.

The present study was designed to utilize multiple measures of sex-role orientation, role salience, income and family type as predictors of the sharing of family tasks. Identification of the nature of the relationship between these variables could provide both theoretical and substantive contributions to the field of family studies.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The review of literature documented the fact that there have been a variety of approaches to the study of family task allocation. The present study differs from those reported in the literature by examining the relationship between variables which had not previously been empirically linked. To be specific, the objectives of this study were two-fold. First, the investigator wished to determine if wives and husbands differed in their degree of preference for sex-role norms (sex-role orientation), the amount of importance they attached to family, employment, and community roles (role salience), and the degree to which they reported sharing family tasks. The second objective was to identify the extent to which sex-role orientation, role salience, income and family type predicted wife-husband sharing of family tasks.

A nationwide survey of university administrators and their spouses provided a sample to address the research problem. University administrators were selected because of their involvement in time-intensive occupations and the developmental nature of their career patterns; traits identified by previous researchers and social theorists as being

important criteria for defining career-oriented people (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973; Rice, 1979).

The data were collected from a cross-section of the identified population utilizing self-administered questionnaires sent by mail. The survey was explanatory and analytical in nature. Compton and Hall (1972) and Simon (1978) stated that analytical survey research attempts to draw inferences about relationships between the variables selected for study. Babbie (1973) added that such a survey could be used to determine relationships between variables at the time of the study.

Population and Sample

The population of this study was all married administrators and their spouses in 130 of the 133 state universities and land-grant colleges having institutional membership in the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC) (Facts '78, 1978, pp. 2-3). Only member institutions located in the 50 states of the United States of America were included in the study.

Names, occupational status and office addresses of individuals were obtained from a listing of administrators in the Education Directory, College and Universities, 1978 (Podolsky and Smith, 1977). Listed administrators included those in central administrative positions as well as deans of academic and research units. Administrators listed as president or chancellor of an institution were excluded from the population as women were underrepresented in these positions in comparison with other administrative positions.

Examination of the list of names revealed that there was a disproportionate number of male administrators. Funding limitations made

it impossible for the research to include all male and female administrators; therefore, a census was taken of the 299 listed female administrators. A simple random sample was taken of the listed male administrators. The computer program "shuffle" was used to systematically select 300 male administrators from a population of 2,959. This procedure resulted in a potential sample size of 599.

Instrumentation

Four scales (Appendix B) were used to obtain data regarding the major variables included in the study. The scales included: the social-position-of-wife scale and the social-position-of-husband scale which were used to identify the sex-role orientation of respondents; the role-importance scale which was utilized to determine the role salience of subjects; and a scale for assessing the sharing of family tasks. The measurement of the major variables included in this study is discussed in the following pages.

Measurement of Sex-Role Orientation

The scales examining sex-role orientation, Part E of the questionnaire (see Appendix B), were adapted from scales used by Scanzoni (1975) to measure the sex-role preferences of a sample of married women. The scales consisted of items developed to identify sex-role norms intrinsic to the family positions of wife/mother and husband/father. Scanzoni factor analyzed items within each social-position scale and identified several factors comprising the above-mentioned family positions. He reported that the factors or "dimensions" were continua of traditionalism-egalitarianism and appeared to have "considerable

face validity as well as conceptual and theoretical validity" (p. 30). Scanzoni (1975) used the instrument again to assess the sex-role orientation of a sample of college students and reported that "separate factor analyses for students produced dimensions very similar to those that emerged for married adults" (p. 61).

Tomah (1978) also used the social-position-of-wife and social-position-of-husband scales to examine the sex-role orientations of male and female college students. She reported a reliability of at least .84 for each sex-role dimension by using the Pearson's r statistical technique to correlate each item with the total scale score. Tomah suggested that:

While it is feasible to consider the scales as part of the same general concept, there appears to be some independence among the different scales to warrant treating them as separate variables. (p. 343)

For this study, the social-position-of-wife scale consisted of eleven items based on normative definitions of wife/mother roles. Respondents were asked to use a seven point response pattern ranging from 1, strongly disagree, to 7, strongly agree. For purposes of analysis, all items were coded with 1 representing a preference for traditional sex roles and 7 representing a preference for egalitarian sex roles.

The social-position-of-husband scale consisted of 11 items based on normative definitions of husband/father roles. Respondents were again requested to use a seven point response pattern ranging from 1, strongly disagree, to 7, strongly agree. Items were coded with 1 representing a preference for traditional sex roles and 7 representing a preference for egalitarian sex roles.

Measurement of Role Salience

The role importance scale, Part D of the questionnaire (Appendix B), was adapted from a scale developed by Condie and Doan (1976) to assess respondents' perceptions of the importance of family roles. This study utilized eight of the nine family roles identified in the Condie and Doan research. Some wording was deleted or revised from the original instrument. Respondents were requested to indicate role importance as follows: a response of 0 indicated the role was not at all important to the respondent's well-being; a response from 1 to 9 indicated the degree to which the role was important to well-being, with 10 indicating the role was extremely important to well-being.

Measurement of Family Task Sharing

The sharing of family tasks among wives and husbands (Part B of the questionnaire, see Appendix B) was measured by a scale especially constructed for this research. A review of the literature on family time use and task performance led to the development of a list of tasks identified by the researcher as commonly associated with management and maintenance of the household. Particular attention was given to the tasks identified by a regional family time-use study, part of which was conducted by the Family Study Center at Oklahoma State University.

Part B of the questionnaire contained 22 items. For each item, respondents were asked to choose from six alternative responses (wife only, wife more than husband, wife and husband about same, husband more than wife, husband only, neither husband nor wife) to indicate husband-wife division of family tasks. The response scale was adapted from a

study of normative expectations of family roles by Nye (1976). Since the purpose of the research was to identify the degree of task sharing rather than to identify which spouse had the major responsibility for each task, the responses were recoded to reflect the amount of sharing reported by husband and wife. Figure 1 presents the 22 family tasks used for the scale in addition to information pertinent to the recoding process.

Family Tasks:

1. Planning Menus
2. Shopping for Food
3. Food Preparation
4. After-meal Cleanup
5. Shopping for Clothing
6. Laundry
7. Vacuuming
8. Other Cleaning
9. Repair and Maintenance
10. Gardening
11. Lawn Mowing and Care
12. Washing Car(s)
13. Minor Car Repairs
14. Chauffering Children
15. Attending Functions with Child(ren)
16. Daily Care of Children
17. Feeding and Care of Pets
18. Paying Bills and Balancing Checkbook
19. Planning Investments
20. Coordinating Day-to-Day Family Activities
21. Planning Family Recreation
22. Organizing Social Activities (Entertaining)

Possible Responses:

1. Wife Only
2. Wife More Than Husband
3. Husband and Wife About Same
4. Husband More Than Wife
5. Husband Only
6. Other

Codes:

1. Family Tasks Not Shared
2. Family Tasks Partly Shared
3. Family Tasks Equally Shared

Coding Criteria:

Responses 1 and 5 were coded as 1.
 Responses 2 and 4 were coded as 2.
 Response 3 was not recoded.
 Response 6 was coded as missing data.

Figure 1. Coding of Family Task Performance Responses to Reflect Sharing Behavior

Finalizing the Questionnaire

In addition to the four scales already described, the questionnaire contained a section, Part F (Appendix B), designed to elicit background information. The following demographic characteristics were obtained for each respondent: family type, age, education level, individual and family income, number of children and age of the youngest child living at home. The format of most questions was open-ended, though there were some multiple-choice items.

The questionnaire was reviewed by members of two doctoral committees supervising the studies of the researchers involved in the study. Each committee member was asked to review the questionnaire and make comments or suggestions about its construction. Those suggestions aided in the first revision. In addition, the questionnaire was pilot tested by 10 couples having characteristics similar to the sample being studied. The pilot study resulted in a second revision. Suggestions of the 20 respondents were considered and incorporated into the second draft.

The final instrument was 12 pages in length. It was printed in the form of a booklet, 6 1/8 inches by 8 1/4 inches in size. The front cover of each instrument contained a graphic illustration designed to distinguish it from other correspondence received by the administrator. Bold type at the bottom of the cover announced for whom the instrument was intended: either the husband or wife. The title of the study, address of the Family Study Center, mail identification number, and the fact that the study was a nationwide survey were also noted on the front cover. The back cover contained space for additional comments of

the respondents and an offer to send a summary of the results to subjects who sent their names and addresses to the researchers.

A questionnaire packet containing two copies of the instrument, two return envelopes, a gold nonrespondent form and a cover letter were sent by first class mail to each administrator. Administrators were asked to share the information with their spouses.

The cover letter explained the purpose of the research project, how the subjects' names and addresses were obtained and the importance of the subject's response to the study. It also informed the respondent that the study was funded by the American Home Economics Foundation. Administrators who were not married or not currently living with their spouse were asked to return an enclosed gold form which indicated their reasons for ineligibility. The cover letter explained that achieving the purpose of the research depended on having responses from both husband and wife (see Appendix A).

Data Collection

Data were collected during the months of April through June 1979. The first questionnaire packet was mailed to the administrators on April 13, 1979. One week later, on April 20, a postcard reminder was sent to each respondent. The postcard explained the purpose of the study and requested a prompt reply. It also thanked all respondents who had already completed and returned the questionnaires. Administrators who failed to receive the questionnaires were asked to call or write the researchers in order to receive a questionnaire packet.

Four weeks after the first mailing, on May 11, a follow-up letter was sent to all administrators who had not yet responded. The ?

reminded the administrator of the importance of his or her response to the study and again appealed for a prompt return of the questionnaires. On June 11, eight weeks after the initial mailing, replacement questionnaires and another letter were sent to all nonrespondents.

Questionnaires were received from 180 couples and 22 individuals whose spouses did not respond. Gold forms were received from 135 administrators not married or not living with their spouse and an additional 34 did not return questionnaires for other reasons. Of the 599 administrators, 371 (61.9 percent) returned either a questionnaire or indicated nonresponse for other reasons, including ineligibility. The 202 questionnaires received from administrators were 46.7 percent of the 433 administrators who either responded and were eligible or did not respond--making their eligibility unknown. Completed questionnaires were received from 180 couples, 41.6 percent. For a more complete description of the response rate, refer to Bird (1981).

Analysis of Data

Preparation of Data

Responses to questionnaire items were coded and transferred to opscan sheets. The opscan sheets were then read by a scanner machine which transferred the data onto a computer disc. Analyses were conducted using the Statistical Analyses System (Helwig and Council, 1979).

Methods of Analysis

Factor analysis was utilized for the construction of three scales: the social-position-or-wife scale, the social-position-of-husband scale

and the role importance scale. A scale for assessing the division of family tasks was also factor analyzed for the purpose of reducing the data for further analysis. The factors extracted from the analyses were described as dimensions or categories of the variables to be studied. The SAS 79 factor procedure with iterated principal axis factoring and the varimax rotation technique was the statistical analysis employed.

Demographic data were analyzed by means of frequency tables. Numbers and percentages were obtained for every category of each background variable in order that sample characteristics could be reported. A correlation matrix was generated in order to determine if significant relationships existed between identified dimensions of the research variables. The statistical procedure used was the Pearson product-moment correlation.

The t test procedure was used to compute a t statistic for testing for significant differences in the mean scores of wives and husbands on identified dimensions of the following variables: sex-role orientation, role salience and the sharing of family tasks. Where t tests were used, F values were calculated to check for equality of the variances between populations. In cases where the population variances were unequal, Satterthwaites Approximation for populations of unequal variance was administered to compute the t value (Helwig and Council, 1979).

The statistical technique used to complete the data analysis was multiple regression. Identified dimensions of sex-role orientation and role salience in addition to individual and family income and family type were inserted into a series of regression analyses for the purpose of predicting the sharing of family tasks for wives and for

husbands. The number of potential predictor variables was gradually reduced by eliminating those with little impact (Betas) on sharing behavior. Having little impact was defined as not contributing to the regression model at least at the .05 significance level. The final regression models were composed of those variables having the strongest significant influence on the sharing of each of the seven categories of family tasks.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of sex-role orientation, role salience, income and family type on the sharing of family tasks. Useable data were collected from 332 respondents, 166 couples. This chapter presents the results of the analysis from four scales: the social-position-of-wife scale and the social-position-of-husband scale, which were used to identify sex-role orientation; the role-importance scale, which was used to measure role salience; and a scale used to assess the division of family tasks.

Demographic Characteristics of Sample

Responses to items concerned with demographic characteristics of couples in the study are presented in three following tables. Table I includes information on the family type, age and educational level of the respondents. Percentages were rounded to facilitate the reporting of information.

Of the 166 couples who participated in this study, approximately 36 percent were members of one-career families; 23 percent were members of career-earner families; and 42 percent were two-career family members. The majority of husbands (96 percent) and wives (74 percent) reported

TABLE I
 DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY FAMILY TYPE,
 AGE AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Variable	Wives		Husbands	
	Number	Percent ^a	Number	Percent
<u>Family Type</u>				
One-Career	59	35.5	59	35.5
Career-Earner	38	22.9	38	22.9
Two-Career	69	41.6	69	41.6
<u>Age</u>				
29-39 years	37	22.4	20	12.1
40-49 years	62	37.6	55	33.3
50-59 years	49	29.7	61	37.0
60-69 years	17	10.3	29	17.6
<u>Educational Level</u>				
Some High School	1	.6	0	0.0
Completed High School	11	6.7	2	1.2
Some Technical or Vocational Training	3	1.8	0	0.0
Completed Technical or Vocational Training	1	.6	0	0.0
Some College	26	15.9	4	2.4
Associate Degree	1	.6	0	0.0
Bachelor's Degree	38	23.1	22	13.4
Some Graduate Work	8	4.9	3	1.8
Master's Degree	50	30.5	37	22.6
Doctoral Degree	25	15.2	96	58.5

^aIn this and subsequent tables the percentages may not total 100 percent because of rounding discrepancies.

having a Bachelor's degree or above. Fifteen percent of the wives and 58 percent of the husbands had earned a Doctoral degree. Most wives (67 percent) and husbands (70 percent) were in the age range from 40-59 years.

Data regarding individual and family income are presented in Table II. Of wives reporting an individual income, 56 percent earned between \$10,000 and \$29,999 in 1978. Thirty-six percent reported earning no 1978 income. Wives reporting no income were members of one-career families. The majority of husbands (76 percent) disclosed an individual income of between \$20,000 and \$44,999 during 1978. Most wives (66 percent) indicated their family income in 1978 was between \$35,000 and \$59,999. The majority of husbands (66 percent) concurred with figures.

Table III presents data on respondent's number of children and age of youngest child at home. Approximately 37 percent of the couples reported having two children and 23 percent had three children. Less than 14 percent of the couples were childless and less than six percent had five or more children. No one had more than six children. Some discrepancies existed between reports of husbands and wives of how many children the couples had, but with divorce as prevalent as it was in 1979 those discrepancies could have been due to whether or not step-child relationships were reported. The subjects were not asked to distinguish between children of their present marriage and step-children.

Forty-three percent of the couples had no children living at home. This finding was not surprising considering the age (most were aged 49-59 years) of the respondents. It appears from the data that indivi-

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY INDIVIDUAL
INCOME AND FAMILY INCOME

Variable	Wives		Husbands	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>Individual Income</u>				
Less Than \$5,000	22	21.6	0	0.0
\$ 5,000-\$ 6,999	4	3.9	0	0.0
\$ 7,000-\$ 9,999	6	5.9	0	0.0
\$10,000-\$12,999	8	7.8	0	0.0
\$13,000-\$15,999	14	13.7	3	1.9
\$16,000-\$19,999	13	12.7	7	4.5
\$20,000-\$24,999	14	13.7	17	11.0
\$25,000-\$29,999	8	7.8	37	24.0
\$30,000-\$34,999	4	3.9	17	11.0
\$35,000-\$39,999	4	3.9	20	13.0
\$40,000-\$44,999	3	2.9	26	16.9
\$45,000-\$49,999	1	1.0	15	9.7
\$50,000 And Over	1	1.0	11	7.1
<u>Family Income</u>				
Less Than \$25,000	6	3.7	6	3.7
\$25,000-\$29,999	14	8.7	13	8.0
\$30,000-\$34,999	14	8.7	11	6.8
\$35,000-\$39,999	19	11.8	19	11.7
\$40,000-\$44,999	23	14.3	24	14.8
\$45,000-\$49,999	22	13.7	25	15.4
\$50,000-\$54,999	24	14.9	20	12.3
\$55,000-\$59,999	13	8.1	19	11.7
\$60,000-\$64,999	11	6.8	8	4.9
\$65,000-\$69,999	3	1.9	5	3.1
\$70,000-\$74,999	3	1.9	2	1.2
\$75,000-\$79,999	2	1.2	3	1.9
\$80,000 And Over	7	4.3	7	4.3

TABLE III
 DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN
 AND AGE OF YOUNGEST CHILD AT HOME

Variable	Wives		Husbands	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>Number of Children</u>				
None	23	13.9	18	10.8
One	17	10.2	17	10.2
Two	62	37.3	60	36.1
Three	39	23.5	38	22.9
Four	19	11.4	24	14.5
Five	4	2.4	5	3.0
Six	2	1.2	3	1.8
Seven	0	0.0	1	.6
<u>Age of Youngest Child</u>				
<u>At Home</u>				
0	71	47.8	70	42.2
1-5	18	10.8	18	10.8
6-10	26	15.7	28	16.9
11-15	27	16.3	26	15.7
16-24	24	14.5	24	14.5

duals do not usually move into university-level administrative positions until they are at least age 40.

Dimensions of Sex-Role Orientation

Two scales, the social-position-of-wife and the social-position-of-husband scales, were used to assess sex-role orientation. The scales were developed to examine the degree of preference (traditional or egalitarian) respondents had for roles which reflected normative prescriptions for behaviors of wives and husbands. Factor analysis was used to identify dimensions of sex-role orientation within the two scales on social position. The type of factor analysis used for this and all following analyses was principal factoring with iteration. This method of analysis extracted the number of factors with an eigenvalue greater than or equal to 1.0. An orthogonal-varimax rotation technique was employed.

Table IV presents the factor analysis of the social-position-of-wife scale. Scores of wives and husbands ($n = 332$) were used for this and all following factor analyses because separate analyses by gender revealed that items factored similarly for wives and husbands. The amount of variation explained across items as well as unrotated and rotated factor loadings are included in Table IV. Unrotated loadings refer to the unidimensionality of all scale items. Kerlinger (1973) recommended that items loading less than .30 on the unrotated factor be eliminated from the scale.

Though items seven and nine met Kerlinger's criteria for the first unrotated factor loading, they were later eliminated from the study. Separate factor analyses by sex of respondent revealed that items seven

TABLE IV
 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL-POSITION-OF-WIFE SCALE

Item	Mean ^a	Standard deviation	Factor 1 unrotated	Factor 1 rotated	Factor 2 rotated	Factor 3 rotated
E1	6.56	.95	.46	.09	<u>.72</u> ^b	.01
E2	4.12	2.08	.67	<u>.82</u>	.06	.20
E3	4.57	1.88	.64	<u>.79</u>	.12	.12
E4	4.23	2.26	.57	.38	-.04	<u>.67</u>
E5	6.18	1.21	.58	.09	<u>.78</u>	.17
E6	6.18	1.20	.70	.22	<u>.77</u>	.25
E7 ^c	5.81	1.71	.45	.51	.36	-.16
E8	4.25	2.02	.70	<u>.60</u>	.14	.44
E9 ^c	5.78	1.67	.62	.44	.39	.22
E10	5.27	1.76	.48	.08	.12	<u>.69</u>
E11	5.47	1.87	.55	.04	.23	<u>.76</u>

Proportional contributions to common variances by rotated factors:

Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
2.32 ^d	2.13	1.92
21.1% ^e	19.4%	17.5%

58% of total variation explained by 11 items in three factors

^a Items were coded from 1-7 with 1 representing "Strongly Disagree" and 7 representing "Strongly Agree" with the exception of items E2, E3, E4 and E8 which were coded in reverse.

^b The highest factor loading for each item is underlined.

^c Item loaded on more than one factor. The item was not included in any factor for further analysis.

^d Eigenvalue.

^e The proportion of total variance accounted for by the rotated factor.

and nine loaded on factor two for males, but for females created a unique fourth factor. The researcher decided to use only those items for the scale which loaded similarly for both wives and husbands.

Identification of the dimensions of the social-position-of-husband scale was accomplished by means of factor analysis. Table V contains the information extracted from the data. The amount of explained variation is included in the table along with factor items and loadings. The results of the two factor analyses of the social-position-of-wife scale (three factors) and the social-position-of-husband scale (two factors) were combined to form the five dimensions of sex-role orientation shown in Table VI. The dimensions were labeled as follows, in accordance with the content of the items in each factor: wife as complement (WC), wife as coprovider and codecision-maker (WCC), wife as employed parent (WEP), husband as provider and head (HPH), and husband as coprovider and coparent (HCC).

The WC role consisted of three items which emphasized the importance of a married woman giving priority to the interests of husband and children above personal interests, especially above job interests. By contrast, the WCC role was concerned with the wife's interests being of equal importance to those of her husband. The three items making up the WCC role described the wife as having equal authority with the husband in family decision-making. Emphasis was also placed on the importance of a woman's job, ranking the wife's job as having equal priority with encouraging her husband in his job. The wife's need to make long-range plans for her occupation (just as her husband does) was also a part of the WCC role.

TABLE V
 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL-POSITION-OF-HUSBAND SCALE

Item	Mean	Standard deviation	Factor 1 unrotated	Factor 1 rotated	Factor 2 rotated
E12	4.74	1.86	.44	.01	<u>.79</u> ^b
E13	3.96	1.94	.45	.03	<u>.77</u>
E14	5.09	1.83	.62	<u>.68</u>	.09
E15	5.99	1.53	.64	<u>.70</u>	.11
E16	4.01	2.14	.68	.42	<u>.61</u>
E17	4.97	1.65	.44	.04	<u>.74</u>
E18	5.86	1.52	.59	<u>.66</u>	.07
E19	5.15	2.01	.63	.37	<u>.58</u>
E20	6.32	1.09	.69	<u>.76</u>	.10
E21	6.31	1.08	.71	<u>.79</u>	.09
E22	4.44	1.80	.62	<u>.65</u>	.13

Proportional contributions to common variances by rotated factors:

Factor 1	Factor 2
3.34 ^c	2.53
30.4% ^d	23.0%

53.4% of total variation explained by 11 items in two factors.

^a Items were coded from 1-7 with 1 representing "Strongly Disagree" and 7 representing "Strongly Agree" with the exception of items E12, E13, E16, E17 and E19 which were coded in reverse.

^b The highest factor loading for each item is underlined

^c Eigenvalue.

^d The proportion of total variance accounted for by the rotated factor.

TABLE VI
FACTORS ON SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION

Factor Name	Item	Factor Loading
Wife as Complement (WC)	E2 ^a A married woman's most important task in life should be caring for her husband and child (ren).	.82
	E3 ^a A married woman's greatest reward and satisfaction come through her child(ren).	.80
	E8 ^a A wife should give up her job whenever it interferes with fulfilling her roles as wife and mother.	.80
Wife as Coprovider and Codecision-maker (WCC)	E5 A woman's job should be just as important to her as encouraging her husband in his job.	.78
	E6 A wife should be able to make long-range plans for her occupation just as her husband does.	.77
	E1 A wife should have equal authority with her husband in making family decisions.	.72
Wife as Employed Parent (WEP)	E11 An employed mother is able to establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who is not employed.	.76
	E10 More day care centers and nursery schools should be available for mothers who choose to work.	.69
	E4 ^a A mother of young children should work only if the family needs the money.	.67

TABLE VI (Continued)

Factor Name	Item	Factor Loading
Husband as Provider and Head (HPH)	E12 ^a A married man's chief responsibility should be his job.	.79
	E13 ^a A married man's most important task in life should be providing economic support for his wife and child(ren).	.77
	E17 ^a A married man's greatest reward and satisfaction should be through his job.	.74
	E16 ^a The husband should be the head of the family.	.61
	E19 ^a A husband should have final authority in making family decisions.	.58
Husband as Coprovider and Coparent (HCC)	E21 If both husband and wife are employed, he should be willing to share child care responsibilities.	.79
	E20 If both husband and wife are employed, he should be willing to share household tasks.	.76
	E15 A husband should be just as willing as a wife to stay home from work and care for a sick child.	.70
	E14 A husband should not be bothered if his wife makes more money than he does.	.68
	E18 A husband should not be upset if his wife's job sometimes requires her to be away from home overnight.	.66
	E22 If both husband and wife are employed, he should be willing to move if she is offered a better job in another town.	.65

^aCoding for item was reversed from that shown on questionnaire.

In like manner, the WEP role included items which described a mother's employment interests as being similar in priority to her child-care responsibilities. It addressed the issues of mothers of young children being employed, of the availability of community facilities for child care, and of the relationship between an employed mother and her children.

The items which clustered on the HPH role were involved with the husband's image as authority figure and income provider for the family. Husbands were seen as family heads and final decision-makers. On the other hand, items composing the HCC role suggested that employed husbands and wives should have an equitable division of work both on the job and at home. Emphasis was on the sharing of household work and child care responsibilities. Husbands, it was stated, should be accepting of a wife who earned a greater share of the family income and mobility decisions in favor of the wife's job were viewed as positive occurrences.

Dimensions of Role Salience

Role salience was measured by the role importance scale which was developed as a means of assessing the value placed on the enactment of eight culturally prescribed responsibilities or duties. The scale was scored to reflect the degree of importance each responsibility or role was judged to have on personal well-being.

Identification of the factors or dimensions of role salience within the role importance scale was accomplished by means of factor analysis. Table VII contains the results of the factor analysis. Unrotated and rotated factor loadings as well as explained variation are noted in the table. Though the importance of being an income provider (I-Income)

TABLE VII
 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ROLE IMPORTANCE SCALE

Item ^a	Mean ^b	Standard deviation	Factor 1 unrotated	Factor 1 rotated	Factor 2 rotated	Factor 3 rotated
I-Income	7.33	3.38	-.28	-.07	<u>.85</u> ^c	.09
I-H-Task ^d	5.46	2.86	.40	.36	-.33	.48
I-W/H	8.77	1.78	.40	.08	-.03	<u>.78</u>
I-Commun	3.95	2.94	.81	<u>.82</u>	.22	.13
I-Parent	8.07	3.09	.37	-.01	.20	<u>.72</u>
I-Profes	4.39	3.16	.65	.50	<u>.69</u>	-.02
I-Social	5.42	2.94	.48	<u>.68</u>	-.14	-.07
I-Relig	4.20	3.66	.64	<u>.63</u>	.09	.19

Proportional contributions to common variances by rotated factors:

Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1.92 ^e	1.43	1.44
24.0% ^f	17.8%	18.0%

59.8% of total variation explained by the three factors

^a Item abbreviations were coded as follows: I-Income=Income Provider, I-H-Task=Performer of Household Tasks, I-W/H=Wife or Husband, I-Commun=Participant in Community Services, I-Parent=Parent, I-Profes=Member of Professional Organization, I-Social=Participant in Social and Recreational Activities and I-Relig=Participant in Church or Other Religious Activities.

^b All items were coded from 0 to 10 with 0 representing "Not At All Important" and 10 representing "Extremely Important".

^c The highest factor loading for each item is underlined.

^d Item loaded on more than one factor. The item was not included in any factor for further analysis.

^e Eigenvalue.

^f The proportion of total variance accounted for by the rotated factor.

loaded on the unrotated factor at .28, the researcher elected to leave the variable intact due to its high loading on the rotated factor and its theoretical value to the study of role salience. The importance of being a performer of household tasks (I-H-Task) loaded on the unrotated factor, but failed to load convincingly on any of the rotated factors. That item was eliminated from the analysis.

Table VIII illustrates the three dimensions of role salience which emerged from the analysis. The three dimensions were labeled community role, employment role and family role. The community role dimension involved being a participant in activities which were available to community members. The employment role consisted of items usually involved with occupational interests of respondents. The dimension labeled family role consisted of items which allowed the respondent to judge the importance they attached to being a spouse or parent.

TABLE VIII
FACTORS ON ROLE SALIENCE

Factor Name	Item	Factor Loading
<u>Community Role</u>	D20 Participant in Community Services	.82
	D23 Participant in Social and Recreational Activities	.68
	D24 Participant in Church or Other Religious Activities	.63
<u>Employment Role</u>	D17 Income Provider	.85
	D22 Member of Professional Organization(s)	.69
<u>Family Role</u>	D19 Husband or Wife	.78
	D21 Parent	.72

Categories of Family Tasks

The sharing of family tasks was assessed by a scale that allowed the respondent to report the amount of responsibility they and their spouse took for the completion of 22 tasks. Each task was seen as being essential to the management of day-to-day family life.

The 22 items making up the scale were factor analyzed in order to reduce the data to implement further analysis. Item means, standard deviations and factor loadings are presented in Table IX. Two items were eliminated because they each loaded moderately on three different factors. Those items were shopping for clothing and feeding and care of pets. Because the research did not depend on this scale being unidimensional the unrotated factor loadings are not presented. The factor analysis led to the clustering of tasks into seven categories. Table X summarizes and identifies in greater detail the seven task categories extracted from the data.

The categories which emerged from the analysis were labeled as follows: meal-preparation tasks, child-care tasks, maintenance-and-repair tasks, management of family activities, financial management, cleaning tasks and lawn-and-garden tasks. The item concerned with laundry tasks was found to load by approximately the same amount on two factors. The researcher decided that laundry tasks had the best conceptual fit with the factor labeled cleaning tasks.

Examination of Hypothesis 1

The first objective of this study was to determine if there were differences between wives and husbands on sex-role orientation, role

TABLE IX
FACTOR ANALYSIS OF FAMILY TASKS

Item	Mean ^a	Standard Deviation	Factor 1 rotated	Factor 2 rotated	Factor 3 rotated	Factor 4 rotated	Factor 5 rotated	Factor 6 rotated	Factor 7 rotated
Menu	1.74	.93	<u>.86^b</u>	.18	-.01	.04	.06	.07	.05
Shopfood	2.19	1.10	<u>.68</u>	.25	.17	.18	.01	.26	-.07
Prep	1.88	.92	<u>.88</u>	.07	.03	.02	-.09	.13	.02
Cleanup	2.41	1.01	<u>.48</u>	.07	.01	-.01	-.18	.39	.11
Shopclo ^c	2.35	.79	-.12	.35	.09	.37	-.09	.42	-.17
Laundry	1.71	1.04	.44	.00	-.09	-.10	.15	<u>.48</u>	.12
Vacuum	2.59	1.62	.30	.08	.07	-.10	-.10	<u>.77</u>	.11
Cleaning	2.41	1.27	.31	-.03	.03	.01	.02	<u>.76</u>	.13
Repair	4.22	.91	-.04	.09	<u>.54</u>	-.04	.31	.32	-.08
Garden	3.83	1.33	.04	.03	.07	.17	.01	.11	<u>.80</u>
Lawnmow	4.54	1.00	.05	.19	.27	-.17	.01	.08	<u>.73</u>
Washcar	4.41	1.14	.04	-.06	<u>.69</u>	.04	.04	-.05	.27
Carrepr	4.59	.94	.07	.14	<u>.77</u>	-.15	-.01	-.03	.09
Chauffer	3.56	1.67	.14	<u>.90</u>	.10	.02	.05	.04	.07
Function	3.37	1.48	.14	<u>.90</u>	.05	.06	.05	-.07	.05

TABLE IX (Continued)

Item	Mean ^a	Standard Deviation	Factor 1 rotated	Factor 2 rotated	Factor 3 rotated	Factor 4 rotated	Factor 5 rotated	Factor 6 rotated	Factor 7 rotated
Care	3.27	1.73	.13	<u>.90</u>	.05	.06	.05	-.07	.05
Pets ^c	3.76	1.71	.11	.38	-.17	-.15	.37	.31	-.00
Paybill	2.89	1.40	-.02	.07	.21	.04	<u>.71</u>	.12	-.06
Invest	3.72	1.03	-.05	-.05	-.01	.01	<u>.70</u>	-.27	.10
Coordact	2.68	.80	.17	.28	-.15	<u>.48</u>	.11	.25	.20
Planrec	2.92	.58	-.01	-.01	-.09	<u>.74</u>	.15	-.09	.01
Organize	2.69	.78	.06	-.03	.00	<u>.75</u>	-.17	-.09	-.02

Proportional contributions to common variances by rotated factors:

Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
2.77 ^d	2.96	1.61	1.64	1.38	2.17	1.41
12.6% ^e	13.5%	7.3%	7.5%	6.3%	9.9%	6.4%

63.5 percent of total variation explained by the seven factors

^aAll items were coded from 1 to 3 with 1 representing "Family Tasks Not Shared", 2 representing "Family Tasks Partially Shared", and 3 representing "Family Tasks Equally Shared".

^bThe highest factor loading is underlined.

^cItems loaded on more than one factor. The item was not included in any factor for further analysis.

^dEigenvalue.

^eThe proportion of total variance accounted for by the rotated factor.

TABLE X
FACTORS ON FAMILY TASK SHARING

Factor Name	Item	Factor Loading
Meal Preparation Tasks	B3 Food Preparation	.88
	B1 Planning Menus	.86
	B2 Shopping for Food	.68
	B4 After-Meal Cleanup	.48
Child Care Tasks	B14 Chauffering Child(ren)	.90
	B15 Attending Functions with Child(ren)	.90
	B16 Daily Care of Child(ren)	.90
Maintenance and Repair Tasks	B13 Minor Car Repairs	.77
	B12 Washing Car(s)	.69
	B9 Repair and Maintenance of the House	.54
Management of Family Activities	B22 Organizing Social Activities	.75
	B21 Planning Family Recreation	.74
	B20 Coordinating Day-to-Day Family Activities	.48
Financial Management	B18 Paying Bills and Balancing the Checkbook	.71
	B19 Planning Investments	.70
Cleaning Tasks	B7 Vacuuming	.77
	B8 Other Cleaning	.76
	B6 Laundry	.48
Lawn and Garden Tasks	B10 Gardening	.80
	B11 Lawn Mowing and Care	.73

salience and sharing of family tasks. Three hypotheses were examined in order to determine differences between responses of wives and husbands on the identified variables.

As stated previously sex-role orientation was conceived as a variable which embraced two concepts, social position of wife and social position of husband. Scales were developed to assess the respondent's degree of traditional or egalitarian orientation on items concerned with those two social positions. Factor analysis revealed that sex-role orientation consisted of five dimensions labeled WC, WCC, WEP, HPH, and HCC. After identification of the factors, the following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant differences between mean scores of groups of wives and husbands on dimensions of sex-role orientation.

Table XI presents mean scores of wives and husbands on dimensions of sex-role orientation. Low mean scores of 1 to 3 indicate varying degrees of a traditional sex-role orientation or preference on the part of the respondents. A mean score of 4 indicates an undecided or uncertain response. High mean scores of 5 to 7 represent varying degrees of an egalitarian sex-role orientation. Differences between scores of wives and husbands were examined through use of t tests.

The mean scores of husbands on the WC role was in the direction of their being more egalitarian than wives, but the difference in the means was not significant at the .05 level. Spouses did not differ in their degree of support for items which suggested that the interests of the wife should be secondary to the interests of husband and children. Both mean scores (4.14 for wives and 4.44 for husbands)

TABLE XI
 MEAN SCORES OF WIVES AND HUSBANDS ON
 DIMENSIONS OF SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION

Dimension	Mean Score ^a	
	Wives	Husbands
Wife as Complement (WC Role)	4.14 (1.75) ^b	4.44 (1.56)
Wife as Coprovider and Codecision-Maker (WCC Role)	6.40* (.87)	6.19* (.95)
Wife as Employed Parent (WEP Role)	5.11* (1.54)	4.79* (1.41)
Husband as Provider and Head (HPH Role)	4.79* (1.40)	4.28* (1.31)
Husband as Coprovider and Coparent (HCC Role)	5.68 (1.09)	5.56 (1.08)

^aAll items were coded from 1 to 7, with 1 representing the traditional end of the continuum and 7 representing the egalitarian end of the continuum. Mean scores are the means for the 332 participants. Scores for each individual for each factor (dimension) were attained by summing the scores for items included in the factor and dividing by the number of items in the factor; thus individual scores are expressed in terms of means of item scores within a factor.

^bStandard deviations are reported within parentheses.

* $p \leq .05$, significant t tests

were grouped near the middle of the response scale, with 4 representing uncertainty of response.

An examination of mean scores on the WCC role shows that wives are significantly different ($p \leq .05$) from husbands on items in this dimension which advocate the wife having equal authority with her husband in making family decisions, considering her job just as important as encouraging her husband in his job, and making long-range plans for her occupation. Scores indicated that both husbands (mean = 6.19) and wives (mean = 6.40) approached the egalitarian end of the continuum on the WCC role. Items comprising that role placed job interests of the wife on equal priority with those of the husband and suggested that she have equal authority with the husband in making family decisions. Wives, however, were significantly more egalitarian in their orientation on the WCC role than were husbands.

Analysis of WEP role scores illustrated that wives (mean = 5.11) and husbands (mean = 4.79) were significantly different, but still moderately egalitarian in their orientation on the WEP role, indicating that more day-care centers should be available for use by employed mothers and that employed mothers are able to establish just as warm and secure a relationship with their children as are mothers who are not employed. Again, wives tended to be more egalitarian in orientation on the WEP role than did husbands.

Table XI also presents mean scores of husbands and wives on the HPH role. Wives (mean = 4.79) were found to disagree significantly ($p \leq .05$) more strongly than husbands (mean = 4.28) with items reflecting traditional norms for husband's behavior. For example, husbands were more uncertain than wives of their disagreement with items

such as; a husband's chief responsibility should be his job; his most important task in life is to provide economic support for his family; and he should be the head of the family. Though the responses of husbands were significantly less egalitarian than were the responses of wives, mean scores for both groups were near the uncertain midpoint of the scale, 4.0.

Husbands and wives did not differ significantly ($p \leq .05$) on the HCC role. Examination of mean scores disclosed that both groups were moderately egalitarian (husbands' mean = 5.56; wives' mean = 5.68) in their agreement with items comprising the HCC role. Those items included statements about the husband being willing to stay home with a sick child; the husband not being upset if the wife's job keeps her away overnight; and the husband of an employed wife being willing to share child care and household tasks.

On the average, husbands were less egalitarian in their sex-role orientation than were wives. Husbands responded less toward the egalitarian end of the scale than did wives on all role dimensions except the WC role. It is interesting that the mean scores of husbands indicated that they were the most egalitarian on the WCC role which emphasized placing the occupational interests of the wife on equal priority with those of the husband. Though less egalitarian on the HCC role dimension than wives (but not significantly so), the mean scores of husbands indicated an acceptance of the expanded role definitions which were most clearly related to the employment of married women. For example, husbands by their agreement with items comprising the HCC role indicated a favorable attitude toward the husbands of employed wives sharing child care and household tasks.

There was also an indication of willingness to believe that husbands should accept the overnight commitments that were increasingly expected of employed wives.

Husbands were the least egalitarian on the HPH role dimension. The mean score (4.28) reflected their indecision concerning items based on cultural norms about the husband maintaining positions as head and final decision-maker in the family.

On the average, the mean scores revealed that wives were more egalitarian on the WCC role, than on other roles. For example, wives expressed strong agreement with items which suggested placing women's job importance on an equal basis with maintaining a support system for the husband's job, the need for employed women making long-range job plans, and that wives should have equal family decision-making authority with husbands.

Wives egalitarian support of the WCC role went hand-in-hand with their strong agreement with items on the HCC role. Wives strongly agreed that husbands of employed wives should indicate supportiveness by sharing household tasks and child care, including a willingness to stay home with a sick child. In addition findings on the WEP role indicated that wives were not only willing to give moderate support to items suggesting an expansion of women's traditionally-defined roles of wife/mother, but they agreed that such expansion should not be harmful to mother-child relationships.

The sometimes conflicting responses of wives and husbands to dimensions of sex-role orientation may reflect the struggle family members sometimes feel both internally (self expectations) and externally (societal expectations) when they believe in the need to expand

roles beyond the traditional realm, but are unsure of the consequences for themselves or their families. Other researchers have documented the results of such conflicting ideologies (Hoffman, 1961; Bernard, 1975; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976; Scanzoni, 1979).

In summary, significant differences were found between the mean scores of wives and husbands on three of the five dimensions of sex-role orientation; wife as complement, wife as coprovider and codecision-maker, and husband as provider and head. As a result, the null hypothesis that no significant differences existed between mean scores of wives and husbands on dimensions of sex-role orientation was rejected for three of the five dimensions.

Examination of Hypothesis 2

Role salience was examined by use of a scale to identify the importance of roles. Survey participants were asked to indicate how important each of eight life roles was to their personal well-being. Factor analysis of the data led to the organization of scale items into three dimensions or factors which were labeled community role, employment role and family role. After identification of the dimensions of role salience, the following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant differences between mean scores of groups of wives and husbands on dimensions of role salience.

Mean scores of wives and husbands on three dimensions of role salience are reported in Table XII. Differences between mean scores of wives and husbands were identified by the use of t tests.

Husbands indicated that the community role (mean = 4.59) was less important to their well-being than either the employment (mean = 7.00)

or the family role (mean = 8.34). Wives attached slightly more importance, though not significantly ($p \leq .05$) more, to the community role (mean = 4.75) than did husbands. The community role consisted of items assessing the importance of being a participant in church or religious activities, social or recreational activities or community services.

TABLE XII
MEAN SCORES OF WIVES AND HUSBANDS ON
DIMENSIONS OF ROLE SALIENCE

Dimension	Mean Score ^a	
	Wives	Husbands
Community Role	4.75 (2.28) ^b	4.59 (2.34)
Employment Role	4.63* (3.20)	7.00* (1.76)
Family Role	8.60 (2.05)	8.34 (1.96)

^aAll items were coded from "0" to "10" with "0" representing "Not At All Important" to "10" representing "Extremely Important".

^bStandard deviations are reported within parenthesis.

* $p \leq .05$, significant t tests

Significant differences were found between mean scores of wives and husbands on the degree of importance attached to employment roles. This was to be expected since husbands were all employed in career positions while wives' employment ranged from not being employed to

*Distorted as it
includes non-emp.
career + casual
women*

being employed in a career position. The variation among wives on the importance of the employment role was reflected in their standard deviation of 3.20. By contrast, the mean score of the husbands was 7.00, with a standard deviation of 1.76 which reflected less variation in the perceived importance of employment roles. The employment role included the importance of being an income provider and member of professional organizations.

The family role was judged most important by both wives (mean = 8.60) and husbands (mean = 8.34). The family role included the importance of being a spouse and a parent. Wives rated the family role more important than did husbands, but not significantly more.

As reflected in the mean scores, husbands indicated their most salient roles were (in order of importance) family, employment, and community. Wives, on the other hand, responded that their most salient roles were family, community and employment. Again, it should be stressed that one explanation for why the employment role was scored as less important by wives was because 59 out of 166 wives were not employed outside the home. All husbands, however, were employed full-time in professional positions.

The t test results indicated that statistically significant differences existed between wives and husbands when compared on one of three dimensions of role salience. To be specific, husbands indicated that employment roles were significantly more important than did wives. As a result, the null hypothesis that no significant differences existed between wives and husbands on dimensions of sex-role orientation was rejected for the employment role, but not for the family or community roles.

Examination of Hypothesis 3

The extent of sharing of family tasks was assessed by use of an instrument to determine the division of tasks between wife and husband. Twenty-two tasks were factor analyzed. Seven factors were extracted from the data. Those factors or categories of family-task sharing were labeled as follows; meal-preparation tasks, child-care tasks, maintenance-and-repair tasks, management of family activities, financial management, cleaning tasks and lawn-and-garden tasks. After identification of categories of family-task sharing, the following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant differences between the mean scores of groups of wives and husbands on categories of family-task sharing.

Table XIII displays mean scores of wives and husbands on the seven categories of family tasks. Differences between mean scores of wives and husbands were identified through the use of t tests.

Mean scores of wives and husbands on meal preparation tasks were significantly different ($p \leq .05$). Wives (mean = 1.74) reported a lesser amount of sharing behavior than did husbands (mean = 1.85). Meal-preparation tasks included planning menus, shopping for food, food preparation and after-meal cleanup.

No significant difference existed on the sharing of child care tasks. However, mean scores of spouses (wives' mean = 1.80; husbands' mean = 1.64) reflected a significant difference in the reported amount of sharing of maintenance and repair tasks. Items comprising the category of maintenance-and-repair tasks were repair and maintenance of the house, washing car(s) and minor car repairs.

TABLE XIII
 MEAN SCORES OF WIVES AND HUSBANDS ON
 CATEGORIES OF FAMILY TASKS

Category	Mean Scores ^a	
	Wives	Husbands
Meal-Preparation Tasks	1.74* (.53) ^b	1.85* (.50)
Child-Care Tasks	2.33 (.47)	2.40 (.41)
Maintenance-and-Repair Tasks	1.80* (.58)	1.64* (.55)
Management of Family Activities	2.56 (.45)	2.62 (.39)
Financial Management	1.98 (.62)	2.05 (.57)
Cleaning Tasks	1.63* (.53)	1.80* (.49)
Lawn-and-Garden Tasks	1.71 (.65)	1.69 (.64)

^aAll items were coded from 1 to 3 with 1 representing "Family Tasks Not Shared", 2 representing "Family Tasks Partly Shared", and 3 representing "Family Tasks Equally Shared".

^bStandard deviations are reported within parentheses.

^c $p \leq .05$, significant t tests

No significant differences were found between husbands and wives on mean scores for the management of family activities, financial management, or lawn-and-garden tasks. Yet, mean scores on cleaning tasks did differ significantly. Wives (mean = 1.63) judged cleaning tasks as less shared than did husbands (mean = 1.80). Laundry, vacuuming and other cleaning were included in the category of cleaning tasks.

The data analysis indicated that on the average, husbands and wives reported a greater amount of sharing for categories of tasks not traditionally assigned to the spouse of their sex. For instance, wives indicated that maintenance-and-repair tasks, financial management and lawn-and-garden tasks were shared to a greater degree than did husbands. Meanwhile, husbands reported greater sharing of meal-preparation tasks, child-care tasks, management of family activities and cleaning tasks than did wives.

This reporting discrepancy could be due to several factors. First, individuals who share tasks which are not considered by tradition to be the responsibility of spouses of their sex may be more cognizant of any effort on their part to share, and thus report more sharing than their spouse. Or the spouse having main responsibility for a task may not notice the other spouse's contribution and thus not report it. This could be especially true if one spouse feels that any sharing of non-traditional tasks takes excess negotiation. The spouse initiating the negotiation might devalue the sharing behavior produced by the negotiation process.

Another possibility is that changes in sharing behavior once negotiated become the expected, routine behavior. Routine behavior may

go unnoticed and unappreciated. Still a final possible explanation is that survey respondents simply tend to overestimate their own contributions to task performance while underestimating the contributions of the spouse (Scanzoni, 1965; Safilios-Rothschild, 1969).

A task which husbands (mean = 2.62) and wives (mean = 2.56) described as being shared to a greater extent than other tasks was management of family activities. Included in that task category were coordinating day-to-day family activities, planning family recreation and organizing social activities. What prompts a greater sharing of these tasks?

One explanation could be that the management of family activities such as recreation and social activities have built-in rewards. Family leisure activities need not be considered costly experiences in terms of the time and energy expended versus the amount of satisfaction obtained. Coordination of day-to-day activities, though not viewed as leisure, does involve planning, management, and decision-making skills which may be evaluated as requiring more administrative knowledge than some other family tasks. Such coordination may carry with it a higher degree of status and power and a lower degree of the routine repetitiveness of other family tasks.

A second category of family tasks which husbands (mean = 2.40) and wives (mean = 2.33) reported sharing to a large extent was child-care tasks. Again, care of children may offer more rewards and fewer costs when compared to other family tasks. Other research (Oakley, 1974; Lein, 1974) indicated that husbands were likely to share child care more than other family tasks. Perhaps, husbands feel under

increased social pressure to take part in their children's upbringing. It could be speculated that by participating in child care, husbands gain societal rewards such as praise from wives, kin, and friends while also gaining personal satisfaction from a physical and emotional closeness with their children.

In conclusion, significant differences were found between the mean scores of wives and husbands on three of the seven categories of family task sharing, meal-preparation tasks, maintenance-and-repair tasks and cleaning tasks. The null hypothesis was rejected for these three task categories and accepted for the other four task categories.

Examination of Hypothesis 4

The second objective of this study was to identify the extent to which sex-role orientation, role salience, income and family type predicted the sharing of family tasks. Preceding pages of this chapter included a discussion of the identified dimensions of sex-role orientation and role salience as well as the categorization of family tasks. Other variables selected for inclusion in the following analysis were individual income, family income and family type. Three dummy variables were created to represent family type. Respondents were categorized as to whether or not they were each of the following: One-career, career-earner, or two-career family members. Categorization was based on responses to questions about employment status. The following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 4: Scores on five dimensions of sex-role orientation, three dimensions of role salience, individual income, family income and family type will not predict scores on seven categories of family task sharing a) for wives and b) for husbands.

Multiple regression analysis was used to test hypothesis four. Table XIV presents the zero-order intercorrelations on which the regression equations were based. Table XV presents statistically significant results of the regression analysis on the data from the sample of wives. Statistics presented are the standardized beta, explained variance, and F-value for each regression model.

The 11 independent variables (five dimensions of sex-role orientation, three dimensions of role salience, individual income, family income, and three family types) were entered into separate stepwise regression analyses with each of the seven categories of family tasks. The stepwise technique eliminated variables having little impact (Std B) on the family task to be explained. Only those variables entering the analysis at $p \leq .05$ were retained in the regression model. The data reported in Table XV represent those variables accounting for the most variance and having the strongest significant influence on each of the dependent variables. Because some of the correlates of family task sharing differed significantly for husbands and wives, separate regression analyses were performed on the data from the two groups.

Determinants of Task Sharing for Wives

Meal-Preparation Tasks. The results of the regression analysis on meal preparation tasks (Table XV) indicated that the only independent variable to enter the regression model was individual income. The R^2 obtained for this model was .13, statistically significant at the .01 level. On the average, 13 percent of the variance in the sharing of

TABLE XIV

INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG FAMILY TASK SHARING, DIMENSIONS OF SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION,
DIMENSIONS OF ROLE SALIENCE, AND INDIVIDUAL AND FAMILY INCOME

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Meal-Preparation Tasks	.27 ⁺	.48 ⁺	.01	-.05	.21 ⁺	.13 [*]	-.08	.16 ⁺	.16 ⁺	.17 ⁺	.13 [*]	.20 ⁺	.12 ⁺	.07 [*]	.14 ⁺	.14 ⁺	
2. Child-Care Tasks		.30 ⁺	.15 [*]	.03	.07 ⁺	.24 ⁺	-.04	.08 ⁺	-.05	-.05	.02	-.01	.04 ⁺	-.11	.07 ⁺	.04	
3. Cleaning Tasks			-.01	-.00	.17 ⁺	.16 ⁺	.02	.19 ⁺	.11	.20 ⁺	.06	.12	.14 ⁺	.07	.20 ⁺	-.04	
4. Lawn and Garden Tasks				.29 ⁺	.07	.05	-.01	-.06	.09	.01	-.07	.00	-.03	-.07	-.03	-.17	
5. Maintenance & Repair Tasks					.08	.07	-.10	-.12 [*]	.00	-.04	-.01	.08	.01	-.02	-.09	-.02	
6. Financial Management						.08	-.01	.12 [*]	-.01	-.08	.08	.16 ⁺	.12 [*]	.08	.05	.07	
7. Management of Family Activities							.07	.08	.08	-.02	-.08	.03	-.10	-.04	.05	-.09	
8. Community Role								.25 ⁺	.19 ⁺	-.30 ⁺	-.08	-.18 ⁺	-.22 ⁺	-.23 ⁺	-.04	-.08	
9. Employment Role									.08	.14 ⁺	.10	.15 ⁺	-.18 ⁺	-.03 ⁺	.55 ⁺	.07	
10. Family Role										-.24 ⁺	-.02 ⁺	-.17 ⁺	-.09 ⁺	-.16 ⁺	-.02 ⁺	-.06 ⁺	
11. Wife as Complement Role											.33	.48 ⁺	.41 ⁺	.61 ⁺	.22 ⁺	.15 ⁺	
12. Wife as Coprovider/Codecision-Maker Role												.31 ⁺	.55 ⁺	.40 ⁺	.02	.10	
13. Wife as Employed Parent													.44 ⁺	.38 ⁺	.11 [*]	.18 ⁺	
14. Husband as Coprovider/Coparent Role														.36 ⁺	.10	.16 ⁺	
15. Husband as Provider Role															.01	.10 ⁺	
16. Individual Income																	.29 ⁺
17. Family Income																	

+ p ≤ .01; * p ≤ .05

TABLE XV
SIGNIFICANT MULTIPLE REGRESSION MODELS OF
FAMILY TASK SHARING FOR WIVES

Dependent Variable ^a	Independent Variable(s) ^b	Std B	R ²	F
Meal-Preparation Tasks	Individual Income	.36**	.13	23.84**
Child-Care Tasks	Two-Career Family	.24**	.06	5.50**
Maintenance-and-Repair Tasks	(No variable was significant at .05)			
Management of Family Activities	Husbands as Coprovider/ Coparent (HCC)	-.21**	.04	7.00**
Financial Management	Career-Earner Family Wife as Coprovider/ Codecision-maker (WCC)	-.24**	.10	8.73**
Cleaning Tasks	Individual Income	.27**	.08	6.36**
Lawn-and-Garden Tasks	Family Income	-.15**	.02	3.35**

^a Categories of Family Task Sharing.

^b Significant regression models after any independent variable providing a nonsignificant contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable was removed via the SAS Stepwise Procedure.

**
p ≤ .01

meal-preparation tasks could be explained by the amount of income earned by the wives.

As the amount of earned income increased one standard deviation unit, the amount of task sharing increased .36 standard deviation unit, controlling for other independent variables. No other variables entered the regression model.

Previous analysis had shown that meal-preparation tasks were among the least shared family tasks as reported by wives, yet the mean score (1.73) indicated that some sharing did take place. For this sample, wife's income was the only significant predictor of the sharing of meal-preparation tasks which included food preparation, meal planning, shopping for food and after-meal cleanup. Income was a resource which may have increased the wives bargaining power, allowing for negotiation of the sharing of the meal-preparation tasks.

Child-Care Tasks. Taking the other independent variables into account, the only variable contributing significantly ($p \leq .01$) to the sharing of child care tasks was family type. For wives ($B = .24$), being a member of a two-career family as opposed to being a one-career or career-earner family member was positively associated with increased sharing of child-care tasks. The R^2 obtained for the regression model was .06. Six percent of the variance in task sharing was explained by membership in a two-career family.

Wives in two-career families reported more wife-husband sharing of the tasks associated with child care which included chauffeuring children, attending functions with children, and daily care of children. Past research (Ridley, 1973; Kanter, 1977a) revealed that careers have a time

consuming nature. Personal development and promotional cycles usually require more than an eight hour work day. This leaves less time for all family tasks. Child care can be a physically and emotionally demanding task which carries with it heavy societal sanctions for laxity in performance (Weingarten, 1978). It seems understandable that given their accumulated resources (education, social status, income) and time demands wives in two-career families could become very powerful negotiators for joint child care. Other tasks by comparison could be left unattended, or could be accomplished by hired help.

Previous analysis of these data revealed that, by wives reports, couples shared child care (mean = 2.33) more than several other family tasks. Family type (being in a two-career family as opposed to not being in a two-career family) was the best predictor of that sharing for this sample.

Management of Family Activities. The HCC role was a significant predictor of the allocation of family-management activities (Table XV). The Beta of $-.21$, significant at the $.01$ level, indicated that wives agreeing less strongly with items comprising the HCC role were more likely to share the management of family activities with husbands. The HCC role accounted for four percent of the variance in task allocation.

On the average, wives who were less egalitarian in their agreement with sex-role norms suggesting that a husband should be willing to share child care and household responsibilities if his wife was employed, be willing to stay home with a sick child, not be bothered if his wife made more money than he, and not be upset if his wife's job

required her to be away from home overnight, were more likely to share the management of family activities with their husbands. Family activities included organizing family recreation and coordinating day-to-day activities of family members. By wives' reports management of family activities was the most shared family task.

Financial Management. Two independent variables in the regression model were significant ($p \leq .01$) predictors of the division of financial-management tasks. Collectively, wives' orientation on the WCC role and their family type (being in a career-earner family as opposed to being in a one- or two-career family) explained 10 percent of the variance in allocation of tasks. Family type had the strongest influence on task sharing ($B = -.24$), significant at the .01 level. Wives who were members of career-earner families reported less sharing of financial-management tasks.

The next strongest predictor of sharing of financial-management tasks was agreement with items comprising the WCC role. The Beta was .19, significant at the .01 level. On the average, wives who agreed more strongly with items suggesting that a woman's job should be just as important as encouraging her husband in his job, should be able to make long-range job plans, and should have equal decision-making authority with husbands, were likely to report more sharing of tasks related to financial management. As previously stated, financial management consisted of the following family tasks: paying bills, balancing the checkbook, and planning investments.

For each additional unit of increase in egalitarian orientation on the WCC role, wives could be expected to report an additional .19

units of sharing of financial-management tasks, taking into account the joint influence of family type. In other words, wives who were in family types other than career earner and those who, on the average scored more toward the egalitarian end of the scale on the WCC role shared financial tasks to a greater degree with their husbands.

Cleaning Tasks. Individual income ($B = .27$) was the only independent variable which was found to significantly ($p \leq .01$) predict the sharing of cleaning tasks for wives. The R^2 obtained for this model was .08. As the individual income of wives increased by one unit, the sharing of cleaning tasks increased by .27 units.

For this sample, the findings support the idea that the income of the wife is a more important predictor of increased sharing of cleaning tasks than sex-role orientation, perceived importance of employment, community or family roles or family type. Cleaning tasks included vacuuming, laundry and other cleaning tasks. Wives reported previously that these were the least shared of all family tasks.

Lawn-and-Garden Tasks. Controlling for other variables, family income was the only predictor of the sharing of lawn-and-garden tasks. The Beta ($-.15$), significant at the .01 level, indicated that as the amount of family income decreased by one unit, the amount of task sharing increased by .15 units. Family income explained two percent of the variance in lawn-and-garden task allocation. One possible explanation for this relationship is that as family income decreased there was less opportunity to hire help with lawn and garden tasks, therefore spouses were more likely to share them.

Determinants of Task Sharing for Husbands

Meal-Preparation Tasks. According to data presented in Table XVI, husbands' reported orientation on the HCC role, judged importance of the family role, and family type collectively accounted for 14 percent of the variance in the sharing of meal-preparation tasks. Scores on the HCC role had the greatest influence on task sharing between husbands and wives ($B = .24$). A one standard deviation unit increase in egalitarian orientation on the HCC role was responsible for a .24 standard deviation increase in the sharing of meal-preparation tasks.

The next most influential independent variable was family type. Controlling for other independent variables and taking into account the joint influence of egalitarian orientation on the HCC role and the judged importance of the family role, the membership of husbands in a one-career family as opposed to being in a career-earner or two-career family was negatively related to the sharing of meal-preparation tasks. The Beta ($-.20$) was significant at the .01 level. According to husband reports, members of family types other than one-career, shared those tasks to a greater degree than did members of one-career families.

The independent variable in the significant regression model which had the least impact on task allocation was the importance of the family role. The greater the value husbands placed on the family role ($B = -.16$), the less they shared meal-preparation tasks with their wives. The family role included the importance of being a spouse and a parent.

On the average, husbands who were members of family types other than one-career, who were more egalitarian regarding the HCC role, and who reported a lower score on family role salience, were more likely to

TABLE XVI
SIGNIFICANT MULTIPLE REGRESSION MODELS OF
FAMILY TASK SHARING FOR HUSBANDS

Dependent Variable ^a	Independent Variable(s) ^b	Std B	R ²	F
Meal-Preparation Tasks	Husband as Coprovider/ Coparent (HCC)	.24**	.14	8.88**
	One Career Family	-.20**		
	Family Role	-.16*		
Child-Care Tasks	Two Career Family	.25**	.13	5.03**
	Husband as Coprovider/ Coparent (HCC)	.23**		
	Wife as Complement (WC)	-.22**		
Maintenance-and- Repair Tasks	Community Role	-.20**	.04	6.38**
Management of Family Activities	Family Role	.19**	.04	6.00**
Financial Manage- ment	Two Career Family	.25**	.06	10.52**
Cleaning Tasks	Two Career Family	.29**	.15	9.10**
	Family Income	-.20**		
	Wife as Complement (WC)	.20**		
Lawn-and-Garden Tasks	Family Income	-.20**	.04	6.22**

^a Categories of Family Task Sharing.

^b Significant regression models after any independent variable providing a nonsignificant contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable was removed via the SAS Stepwise Procedure.

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

share meal-preparation tasks. Being more egalitarian on the HCC role meant being in relatively strong agreement with beliefs such as the following: that employed spouses should share child care and household tasks, that husbands should be willing to stay home with a sick child, and that husbands should not be upset if a wife's job requires her to be away from home overnight.

Previous analysis of these data revealed that husbands reported meal-preparation tasks were partly shared with wives. It seems understandable, given the time constraints of two jobs in the family, that husbands with employed wives would increase their meal-preparation tasks and would favor sex-role norms supporting role interchangeability. However, it is difficult to interpret findings which reveal that husbands who share meal-preparation tasks place less importance on family roles. Examination of mean scores (Table XII) reveals that as a group husbands valued family roles very highly, more highly than employment or community roles.

Child-Care Tasks. The results of the regression analysis on child-care tasks revealed that three independent variables entered the regression model. Thirteen percent of the variance in the division of child-care tasks could be explained by the linear combination of orientation on the HCC role, orientation on the WC role, and family type.

Membership in the two-career family accounted for the most explained variance in the sharing of child-care tasks ($B = .25$). Two-career as opposed to one-career and career-earner husbands tended to share such tasks to a greater degree. The second independent variable to enter the regression model was the HCC role. A one standard

deviation unit increase in egalitarian orientation on the WCC role was predictive of a .23 unit increase in the sharing of child-care tasks. By contrast, a one unit decrease in egalitarian orientation on the WC role was predictive of a .22 increase in the sharing of those tasks.

In other words, husbands who shared child-care tasks to a greater extent had a greater tendency to agree with items suggesting that men with employed wives should share household tasks and child care, be supportive of wives' overnight trips and career mobility, and not be bothered if wives earned more than husbands. Husbands sharing child care also tended to be less egalitarian in their support of items suggesting that a married woman's most important task in life should be caring for her husband and children, that her greatest reward and satisfaction should come through her children, and that she should give up her job if it interferes with fulfilling wife/mother roles.

To summarize, it was shown that the following variables predicted a significant amount of variance in the dependent variable of husband's sharing of child-care tasks, with increased sharing associated with membership in a two-career family, scoring more toward the egalitarian end of the scale on items comprising the HCC role, and scoring less toward the egalitarian end of the scale on items making up the WC role.

Maintenance-and-Repair Tasks. Among variables in the regression equation, only the salience of the community role was a significant predictor of the sharing of maintenance-and-repair tasks. The R^2 was .04, significant at the .01 level (Table XVI). A decrease of one unit

in husbands' judged importance of the community role was accompanied by an increase of .20 units in sharing of maintenance-and-repair tasks.

Community role salience referred to the importance of being a participant in community services, in social and recreational activities and in church and other religious activities. Maintenance-and-repair tasks included minor car repairs, washing the car and repair and maintenance of the house. In general, husbands who felt that being a participant in community activities was important were less apt to share maintenance and repair tasks with wives.

Management of Family Activities. Regression analysis indicated that salience of the family role explained four percent of the variance in allocation of the management of family activities. For each additional unit of importance husbands attached to the family role, they increased sharing of the management of family activities by .19 units, significant at the .01 level.

The family role included the importance of being a spouse and a parent. Management of family activities included organizing family social activities, planning family recreation and coordinating day-to-day activities of family members. It is understandable that husbands who valued the family role might take a more active part in management of family social, recreational and everyday activities.

Financial Management. According to the findings presented in Table XVI, family type was the only independent variable significant to the prediction of division of financial management tasks ($B = .25$). The R^2 was six percent, significant at the .01 level. For husbands in the sample, being a member of a two-career family as opposed to being

in a one-career or career-earner family increased the likelihood of sharing the financial management with wives.

On the average, controlling for other independent variables, two-career husbands shared the checkbook balancing, bill paying and investment planning with wives more often than did one-career or career-earner husbands. One explanation for these findings could be that career-oriented wives want and need to take an active interest in the management of the family's finances. The ratio of wife-to-husband earnings in a two-career family is usually higher than for other family types (Rawlings, 1978). Financial management in those higher-income families may require specialized knowledge of investments and tax shelters. It appears that for these reasons the information gathering, planning and bill paying would likely be shared to a greater degree in a two-career family than in other family types included in this study.

Cleaning Tasks. Of the independent variables, the three which significantly predicted the division of cleaning tasks were family type, family income and sex-role orientation. Family type had the greatest impact on sharing behavior. The largest Beta (.29) was associated with husbands' membership in a two-career family. Family income ($B = -.20$) was slightly less important as a predictor of shared cleaning tasks. As family income decreased by one unit, the sharing of cleaning tasks increased by .20 units, on the average.

For this sample, scoring more toward the egalitarian end of the scale on items comprising the WC role has as strong an impact ($B = .20$) on task sharing as that of family income, but in the opposite

direction. As egalitarian orientation on the WC role increased by one unit, the sharing of cleaning tasks increased by .20 units. Fifteen percent of the variance in cleaning tasks was explained by the collective influence of the three above-mentioned independent variables.

To summarize, the data analysis indicated that the following variables predicted a significant amount of variance in the dependent variable of husband's sharing of cleaning tasks: membership in a two-career family, earning less family income, and scoring more toward the egalitarian end of the scale on items comprising the WC role. As previously stated, the WC role included items which suggested that a wife's most important task in life was caring for her husband and children, that her greatest reward and satisfaction come through her children, and that she should give up her job when it interferes with fulfilling wife/mother roles.

Is there an explanation for lower family income influencing increased husband sharing of cleaning tasks? Possibly less income translated into fewer alternative ways for getting the cleaning tasks done. Less family income could have meant the difference between hiring part-time household help or a cleaning or laundry service and doing the cleaning themselves. Other reasons may exist. Additional research is needed before this question can be thoroughly addressed.

Lawn-and-Garden Tasks. Family income was the only variable with a significant impact on lawn-and-garden tasks. No other variables entered the regression model. The Beta (-.20) revealed that as a family's income decreased, lawn-and-garden tasks were more often

shared by husbands. The R^2 for the model was significant at the .01 level and explained four percent of the variance in lawn-and-garden tasks division. Lawn-and-garden tasks included lawn mowing and care and gardening. Previous analysis revealed that husbands indicated lawn-and-garden tasks were the least shared family tasks.

It is possible that a smaller family income would decrease the likelihood that the lawn-and-garden tasks be shared with hired personnel rather than with the wife. It is also likely that since lawn-and-garden tasks are seasonal and usually do not require daily attention, there is not as much concern about them being largely unshared. Previous research revealed that wives have the primary responsibility for most family tasks, therefore wives might feel that they have sufficient family tasks to attend to without assuming the lawn-and-garden responsibilities too. Husbands who have been encouraged to share traditionally "feminine" tasks might in the future wish to complain about the unequal division of lawn-and-garden tasks.

To summarize the regression results, hypothesis 4 stated that scores on five dimensions of sex-role orientation, three dimensions of role salience, individual income, family income, and family type would not be predictive of scores on seven categories of family-task sharing for wives or for husbands. Multiple regression analysis led to rejection of the hypothesis for wives and for husbands.

For wives, two dimensions of sex-role orientation were found to be significantly related to the sharing of family tasks. The HCC role dimension (husband as coprovider and coparent) was the only significant

predictor of the sharing of management of family activities ($B = -.21$), while the WCC role dimension (wife as coprovider and codecision-maker) was one of two significant predictors of the division of financial-management tasks ($B = .19$). The WC, WEP, and HPH sex-role dimensions did not enter any of the regression models at the .05 level of significance.

Role salience was not a significant predictor of any category of family-task sharing for wives; however, income was found to have a significant linear relationship with the sharing of several family tasks. The results of the regression analysis on meal-preparation tasks and cleaning tasks indicated that the only independent variable to enter those regression models was individual income with Betas of .36 and .27, respectively.

Family type was found to be a significant predictor of the sharing of two family tasks for wives. Being a member of a two-career family ($B = .24$) as opposed to being a member of a one-career or career-earner family was positively associated with an increased sharing of child-care tasks. And of the two independent variables found to be significant predictors of the sharing of financial-management tasks, the wife's membership in a career-earner family type ($B = -.24$) was the strongest predictor.

For husbands, regression analysis revealed that two dimensions of sex-role orientation were significant predictors of task sharing. The HCC role dimension (husband as coprovider and coparent) had the largest influence of three significant predictors on meal-preparation tasks ($B = .24$). The HCC role was also one of the three significant predictors of child-care tasks ($B = .23$). Similarly, the WC role dimension

(wife as complement) was found to be one of three significant predictors of child-care tasks ($B = -.22$) as well as being predictive of cleaning tasks ($B = .20$). The WCC, WEP, and HPH role dimensions failed to enter any of the significant regression models at the .05 level.

Two dimensions of role salience, family role and community role, were found to be predictive of the sharing of family tasks for husbands. The family role ($B = -.16$) was one of three significant predictors of meal-preparation tasks. The family role was also the only significant predictor of the sharing of management of family activities ($B = .19$). On the other hand, the community role was a significant predictor of the sharing of maintenance-and-repair tasks ($B = -.20$). The employment role did not enter any of the regression models at the .05 level of significance.

Family income ($B = -.20$) was one of three predictors of shared cleaning tasks and was the only predictor ($B = -.20$) of lawn-and-garden task sharing. Individual income was not significantly predictive of any family task for husbands.

Family type was found to be a significant predictor of the sharing of several family tasks. For example, the membership of husbands in a one-career family as opposed to a career-earner or two-career family was one of three independent variables significantly related ($B = -.20$) to the sharing of meal-preparation tasks. And of the three independent variables entering the regression model for the sharing of child-care tasks, membership in the two-career family accounted for the most explained variance ($B = .25$). Similarly, being a member of a two-career family was the only independent variable significant to the prediction of husband-wife sharing of financial-management tasks ($B = .25$).

Finally, family type had the largest impact (of three significant independent variables) on the sharing of cleaning tasks. The largest Beta (.29) in the regression model was associated with husbands' membership in a two-career family.

A major finding of this research was that sex-role orientation influenced the husbands' sharing of meal-preparation, child-care, and cleaning tasks; tasks identified as more time consuming than other family tasks by past research (Walker and Woods, 1976; Robinson, 1977). Observation of the present data also revealed that for each of the above-mentioned dependent variables, family type was an additional significant predictor. For all three dependent variables, having an employed wife added to the explained variance in the regression model; and for two of the three, child-care tasks and cleaning tasks, having a career-oriented wife accounted for more explained variance than other significant predictors in the regression model. This finding seemed to reinforce the findings of other researchers. For example, Stafford et al. (1977) and Perrucci et al. (1978) found that the sex-role orientation of the husband was related to his task sharing. Similarly, Perrucci et al. (1978) and Scanzoni (1980) reported that husbands of career-oriented wives shared family tasks to a larger degree than other husbands.

It was particularly noteworthy that for wives the same time consuming tasks of meal preparation, cleaning and child care had significant linear relationships with independent variables which differed from, but were similar to, those found to influence husbands' sharing. Individual income predicted shared meal-preparation and cleaning tasks; the two-career family type predicted shared child-care tasks.

These results seemed to reinforce past theoretical assumptions and research findings. Scanzoni (1975) theorized that family type was a predictor of role sharing. He later (Scanzoni, 1978; 1980) observed that wives who were career-oriented were likely to contribute a larger portion of the family income and to share family tasks with their husbands more than noncareer-oriented wives. Nickols and Metzen (1978) also reported that increased participation of husbands in family tasks was associated with the average hourly earnings of the wife. The larger the wife's earnings the more the husband increased his time inputs.

Despite the significant influence of the independent variables on wife-husband sharing of family tasks, it should be noted that a great deal of the variance in each dependent variable remained unexplained. At best, the total variance explained by any of the independent variables (as indicated by the R^2 values) was 15 percent, which suggested that additional variables derived from these and other theoretical frameworks need to be identified and tested in future investigations so that a larger proportion of the variance in the sharing of family tasks might be taken into account.

The fact that none of the R^2 coefficients was very large did not mean, however, that none of the independent variables had more than a negligible effect on the sharing of family tasks. As Wesolousky (1976) pointed out:

R^2 may have high or low values as a result of chance or peculiarities in the data A low value of R^2 may argue not against the existence of a "good" linear relationship but may simply indicate that there was not enough variation in the values. (p. 61)

Since family tasks were still the primary responsibility of one spouse

or the other, depending on the nature of the task, the variance of the dependent variable (family-task sharing) probably was reduced, which in turn reduced the intercorrelations between the variables and also reduced the R^2 .

Another factor which may have reduced variance in the dependent variables was that responses on the items comprising the family-task sharing instrument were converted from a 5-point to a 3-point scale. This conversion could have also reduced the variance on each item and thus reduced the intercorrelations between variables and the R^2 .

Multicollinearity can also be a problem in research such as the present study. Multicollinearity refers to the use of independent variables which are highly related to each other and consequently explain the same variation in the dependent variables (Simon, 1978). While some multicollinearity does exist in this analysis, an inspection of the correlation matrix (Table XIV) indicates that only rarely does it exceed a moderate level. In those cases the strong interrelationships are between items comprising the dimensions of major independent variables such as those making up the sex-role orientation scale. Dimensions of scales are frequently intercorrelated because, as Scanzoni (1975) explained, the dimensions of a scale are different yet subtle aspects of the same concept and therefore must by design be intercorrelated.

On the whole, the predictor variables selected for this analysis on the basis of previous research explained relatively small but significant amounts of the variance in the sharing of family tasks. While the findings reported must be treated as tentative because of the size and nature of the sample, they do suggest that sex-role orientation,

role salience, income, and family type are relevant variables to consider when studying the variance in wife-husband sharing of family tasks.

In conclusion, regression analysis indicated that for wives sex-role orientation, individual income, family income and family type were separate or combined predictors of sharing in six of the seven categories of family tasks. Earlier studies had supported the importance of sex-role orientation (Scanzoni, 1975, 1978), individual income (Nickols and Metzen, 1978), and family type (Scanzoni, 1980) as influencers of the sharing of family tasks.

For husbands, data analysis revealed that sex-role orientation, role salience, family income, and family type were significant predictors (either separately or combined) of the sharing of family tasks. These findings are in agreement with previous studies which reported that the sex-role orientation of husbands was related to family-task sharing (Stafford et al., 1977; Perrucci et al., 1978). Previous research relevant to the identification and examination of role salience (Bailyn, 1970; Rapoport et al., 1974) did not relate that variable to family-task sharing. Research concerned with family type (Scanzoni, 1980) used the responses of wives rather than husbands for data analysis, and family income was not a variable in the studies reviewed.

Summary of Findings

The first objective of this data analysis was to determine if there were differences between wives and husbands on sex-role orientation, role salience, and the sharing of family tasks. Three null

hypotheses were used to test for differences between the mean scores of wives and husbands on the identified variables. Statistically significant differences were found between wives and husbands on three of the five dimensions of sex-role orientation (wife as coprovider and codecision-maker, wife as employed parent, and husband as provider and head), one dimension of role salience (employment role), and three categories of family tasks (meal-preparation tasks, maintenance-and-repair tasks, and cleaning tasks). The results of the analyses are summarized in Tables XI, XII, and XIII.

The second objective of this analysis was to identify the extent to which sex-role orientation, role salience, income, and family type predicted the sharing of family tasks for wives and for husbands. Hypothesis 4 stated that scores on five dimensions of sex-role orientation, three dimensions of role salience, individual income, family income, and family type would not predict scores on seven categories of family-task sharing for wives or for husbands. Multiple regression analysis was used to examine this null hypothesis.

For wives the null hypothesis was rejected for two dimensions of sex-role orientation (HCC role and WCC role), individual income, family income, and family type. Hypothesis 4 was accepted for three dimensions of sex-role orientation (WC role, WEP role, and HPH role) and all dimensions of role salience.

For husbands the null hypothesis was rejected for two dimensions of sex-role orientation (HCC role and WC role), two dimensions of role salience (family role and community role), family income, and family

type. Hypothesis 4 was accepted for three dimensions of sex-role orientation (WCC role, WEP role, and HPH role), one dimension of role salience (employment role), and individual income.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this research was to determine the effect of sex-role orientation, role salience, income, and family type on wife-husband sharing of family tasks. Though past research revealed some possible links between the sharing of family tasks and sex-role orientation (Stafford et al., 1977; Perrucci et al., 1978; Scanzoni, 1978), role salience (Bailyn, 1970; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970; Rapoport et al., 1974; Clark et al., 1978), income (Papanek, 1973; Nickols and Metzen, 1978; Scanzoni, 1978; Ericksen et al., 1979), and family type (Scanzoni, 1980), no prior research had been undertaken to assess the joint effect of these theoretically related variables. The problem was, under what conditions do wives and husbands increase their sharing of family tasks?

More specifically, the main objectives of this study were as follows:

1. To determine if there are differences between wives and husbands on sex-role orientation, role salience, and sharing of family tasks.
2. To identify the extent to which sex-role orientation, role salience, income, and family type predict sharing of family tasks.

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant differences between groups of wives and husbands on sex-role orientation.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant differences between groups of wives and husbands on role salience.

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant differences between groups of wives and husbands on sharing of family tasks.

Hypothesis 4: Sex-role orientation, role salience, income, and family type will not predict sharing of family tasks
a. for wives or
b. for husbands.

Design and Methodology

This study was part of a larger research project funded in part by the American Home Economics Association Foundation. The population was all married administrators (and their spouses) in 130 of the 133 state universities and land-grant colleges having institutional membership in the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC) (Facts '78, 1978, pp. 2-3).

Administrators were selected because of their involvement in time-intensive occupations and the developmental nature of their careers; traits identified by previous researchers as important criteria for defining career-oriented people (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973; Kanter, 1977a). Names, occupational status and office addresses of individuals were obtained from a listing of administrators in the Education Directory, Colleges and Universities, 1978 (Podolsky and Smith, 1977).

Data were collected during the months of April through June 1979. Self-administered questionnaires were sent to 599 administrators and their spouses. Responses were received from 720 of the possible 1198 subjects, a 61.9 percent return. Elimination of those subjects who were not married and those not completing useable questionnaires (as well as excluding from the analysis those administrators whose spouses failed to respond) reduced the number of respondents to 360, 180 couples. In order to have a more homogeneous sample, couples including househusbands or husbands employed part-time were not used for the analysis, leaving a total of 332 respondents, 166 couples.

The questionnaire contained four scales used to obtain data regarding the major variables included in the study. Two scales, the social-position-of-wife and the social-position-of-husband scales were used to assess sex-role orientation. These scales were developed to examine the degree of preference (traditional or egalitarian) respondents had for roles which reflected normative prescriptions for behaviors of wives and husbands.

Role salience was measured by the role-importance scale which was developed as a means of assessing the value respondents placed on the enactment of eight culturally prescribed responsibilities or duties. The scale was scored to reflect the degree of importance each responsibility or role was judged to have on personal well-being.

The sharing of family tasks was assessed by a scale which allowed the respondent to report the amount of responsibility they and their spouse took for the completion of 22 tasks. Each task was seen as being essential to the management of day-to-day family life. In addition to these four scales, the questionnaire contained a section designed to

elicit background information. The following demographic characteristics were obtained for each respondent; family type, age, educational level, individual and family income, number of children and age of the youngest child living at home.

Factor analysis was utilized for the construction of scales and for reducing the data for further analysis. The factors extracted from the data were described as dimensions or categories of the variables to be studied. Demographic data were analyzed by means of frequency tables. Numbers and percentages were obtained for every category of each background variable. A correlation matrix was generated in order to determine if significant relationships existed between identified dimensions of the research variables. The statistical procedure used was the Pearson product-moment correlation.

The t test procedure was used to compute a t statistic for testing for significant differences in the mean scores of wives and husbands on identified dimensions of the following variables: sex-role orientation, role salience, and the sharing of family tasks. Where t tests were used, F values were calculated to check for equality of the variances between populations.

The statistical technique used to complete the data analysis was multiple regression. Identified dimensions of sex-role orientation and role salience in addition to individual and family income and family type were inserted into a series of regression analyses for the purpose of predicting the sharing of family tasks for wives and for husbands.

Findings and Discussion

Of the 166 couples who took part in this study, approximately 36 percent were members of one-career families; 23 percent were members of career-earner families; and 42 percent were two-career family members. The majority of husbands (96 percent) and wives (74 percent) reported having a Bachelor's degree or above. Fifteen percent of the wives and 38 percent of the husbands had earned a Doctoral degree. Most wives (67 percent) and husbands (70 percent) were in the age range from 40 to 59 years.

Of wives reporting an individual income, 56 percent earned between \$10,000 and \$29,999 in 1978. Thirty-six percent reported earning no 1978 income. Wives reporting no income were members of one-career families. The majority of husbands (76 percent) disclosed an individual income of between \$20,000 and \$44,999 during 1978. Most wives (66 percent) indicated their family income in 1978 was between \$35,000 and \$59,999. The majority of husbands (66 percent) concurred with that figure.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 stated that there would be no significant differences between mean scores of groups of wives and husbands on dimensions of sex-role orientation, dimensions of role salience, and categories of family task sharing, respectively. All three null hypotheses were tested through the use of t tests.

Husbands in this sample exhibited a less egalitarian sex-role orientation than did wives. Only on one role dimension, the wife as complement role, did husbands respond more toward the egalitarian end of the continuum. It is interesting that husbands indicated that they

were the most egalitarian on the WCC (wife as complement) role which emphasized placing the occupational interests of the wife on equal priority with those of the husband.

Though less egalitarian on the HCC (husband as coprovider and coparent) role than wives, husbands nevertheless indicated an acceptance of the expanded role definitions which were most clearly related to the employment of married women. For example, husbands by their agreement with items comprising the HCC role indicated a favorable attitude toward husbands of employed wives sharing child care and household tasks. There was also an indication of willingness to believe that husbands should accept the overnight commitments that were increasingly expected of employed wives. By contrast, husbands were the least egalitarian on the HPH (husband as provider and head) role. They were undecided about the need for the husband to maintain positions as head and final decision-maker in the family.

Wives in the sample were more egalitarian on the WCC (wife as coprovider and coparent) role than on other roles. For example, wives expressed strong agreement with items which suggested placing women's job importance on an equal basis with maintaining a support system for the husband's job, the need for employed women making long-range job plans, and that spouses should have equal family decision-making authority.

Wives egalitarian orientation on the WCC role went hand-in-hand with their strong agreement with items on the HCC (husband as coprovider and coparent) role. Wives strongly agreed that husbands of employed wives should indicate their supportiveness by sharing household tasks and child care, including a willingness to stay home with a sick child.

In addition, findings on the WEP (wife as employed parent) role indicated that wives were not only willing to give moderate support to items suggesting an expansion of women's traditionally-defined roles of wife/mother, but they agreed that such expansion should not be harmful to mother-child relationships.

The some times conflicting responses of wives and husbands to dimensions of sex-role orientation may reflect the struggle family members sometimes feel both internally (self expectations) and externally (societal expectations) when they believe in the need to expand roles beyond the traditional realm, but are unsure of the consequences for themselves or their families.

When asked to indicate how important several life roles were to their personal well-being, husbands indicated that the community role was less important to their well-being than either the employment or the family role. Wives attached slightly more importance to the community role than did husbands. The community role consisted of items assessing the importance of being a participant in community services, social and recreational activities and church or religious activities.

Significant differences were found between wives and husbands on the degree of importance attached to employment roles. This was to be expected since husbands were all employed in career positions while wives' employment ranged from not being employed to being employed in a career position. The employment role included the importance of being an income provider as well as a member of professional organizations.

The family role was judged most important by both wives and husbands. Wives rated the family role only slightly higher than husbands. The family role included the importance of being a husband or wife and a parent.

Husbands indicated that their most salient roles were (in order of importance) family, employment, and community. Wives, on the other hand, responded that their most salient roles were family, community and employment. Again, it should be stressed that one explanation for why the employment role was scored as less important by wives was because 59 out of 166 wives were not employed outside the home. All husbands, however, were employed full-time in professional positions.

When reporting on the degree of sharing of family tasks, husbands and wives indicated a greater amount of sharing for categories of tasks not traditionally assigned to the spouse of their sex. For instance, wives indicated that maintenance-and-repair tasks, financial management tasks, and lawn-and-garden tasks were shared to a greater degree than did husbands. Meanwhile, husbands reported greater sharing of meal-preparation tasks, child-care tasks, management of family activities and cleaning tasks than did wives.

This reporting discrepancy could be due to several factors. First, individuals who share tasks which are not considered by tradition to be the responsibility of spouses of their sex may be more cognizant of any effort on their part or share, and thus report more sharing than their spouse. Or the spouse having main responsibility for a task may not notice the other spouse's increased contribution and thus not report it. This could be especially true if one spouse feels that

any sharing of nontraditional tasks takes excess negotiation. The spouse initiating the negotiation might devalue the sharing behavior produced by the negotiation process.

Another possibility is that changes in sharing behavior once negotiated become the expected, routine behavior. Routine behavior may go unnoticed and unappreciated. Still a final possible explanation is that survey respondents simply tend to overestimate their own contributions to task performance while underestimating the contributions of the spouse.

A task that husbands and wives described as being shared to a greater extent than other tasks was management of family activities. Included in that task category were coordinating day-to-day family activities, planning family recreation and organizing social activities. What prompts a greater sharing of these tasks?

One explanation could be that the management of family activities such as recreation and social activities have built-in rewards. Family leisure activities need not be considered costly experiences in terms of the time and energy expended versus the amount of satisfaction obtained. Coordination of day-to-day activities, though not viewed as leisure, does involve planning, management, and decision-making skills that may be evaluated as requiring more administrative knowledge than some other family tasks. Such coordination may carry with it a higher degree of status and power and a lower degree of the routine repetitiveness of other family tasks.

A second category of family tasks that husbands and wives reported sharing to a large extent was child-care tasks. Again, care of

children may offer more rewards and fewer costs when compared to other family tasks. Husbands may be likely to share child care more readily than other family tasks. Perhaps husbands feel under increased social pressure to take part in their children's upbringing. It could be speculated that by participating in child care, husbands gain societal rewards such as praise from wives, kin, and friends while also gaining personal satisfaction from a physical and emotional closeness with their children.

To summarize the t test results, statistically significant differences were found between the mean scores of groups of wives and husbands on three of the five dimensions of sex-role orientation; WCC role (wife as coprovider and codecision-maker), WEP role (wife as employed parent), and HPH role (husband as provider and head); one dimension of role salience (employment role); and three categories of family tasks (meal-preparation, maintenance-and-repair, and cleaning tasks). The null hypotheses were rejected for these variables and accepted for the remaining variables.

Hypothesis 4 stated that scores on five dimensions of sex-role orientation, three dimensions of role salience, individual income, family income, and family type would not predict scores on seven categories of family-task sharing a) for wives or b) for husbands. The 11 independent variables were entered into separate forward stepwise regression analyses with each of the seven categories of family tasks.

For wives, two of the five dimensions of sex-role orientation were found to be significantly related to the sharing of family tasks. The HCC (husband as coprovider and coparent) role was a significant

predictor of management of family activities. Wives who were less egalitarian in their orientation on the HCC role were less willing to believe that a husband should be willing to share child care and household responsibilities if his wife was employed, be willing to stay home with a sick child, not be bothered if his wife made more money than he, and not be upset if his wife's job required her to be away from home overnight and were more likely to share the management of family activities with their husbands.

The WCC (wife as coprovider and codecision-maker) role was one of two significant predictors of the sharing of financial-management tasks. Wives who believed more strongly that a woman's job should be just as important as encouraging her husband in his job, should make long-range plans for her occupation, and should have equal authority in making family decisions, shared financial tasks to a greater degree.

Though none of the three dimensions of role salience were significant predictors of family-task sharing, income was found to have a significant linear relationship with the sharing of meal-preparation and child-care tasks. Income was a resource which may have increased the wives bargaining power, allowing for negotiation of the sharing of those tasks.

Family type was found to be a significant predictor of two family tasks. First, wives in two-career families reported a greater tendency to share child-care tasks. This is not difficult to understand given the time-consuming nature of careers. Personal development and promotional cycles usually require more than an eight hour work day. This leaves less time for all family tasks. Child care can be a physically

and emotionally demanding task which carries with it heavy societal sanctions for laxity in performance. It seems understandable that given their accumulated resources (education, social status, income) and time demands, wives in two-career families could become very powerful negotiators for joint child care. Other tasks by comparison could be left unattended, or could be accomplished by hired help.

Secondly, wives in one-career and two-career families (as opposed to wives in career-earner families) reported a greater tendency to share financial-management tasks. It is possible that wives in one-career families are more likely to share financial management tasks such as paying bills, balancing the checkbook, and planning investments both because they have more time for involvement in those tasks and because lay publications have recently pointed out the necessity for women being involved in family financial decisions. Two-career wives, on the other hand, have less time for involvement, but may feel that their earnings make up a large portion of the family income and thus they are motivated to have an active interest in its distribution.

For husbands, two dimensions of sex-role orientation were significant predictors of task sharing. The HCC (husband as coprovider and coparent) role was one of three significant predictors of both meal-preparation tasks and child-care tasks. Being more egalitarian on the HCC role meant being in relatively strong agreement with beliefs such as the following: that employed spouses should share child care and household tasks; that employed spouses should be willing to stay home with a sick child; and that husbands should not be upset if a wife's job requires her to be away from home overnight.

It seems understandable, given the time constraints of two jobs in the family, that husbands with employed wives would share meal-preparation and child-care tasks to a greater degree than other husbands. It is also reasonable to expect that husbands who shared those tasks would favor sex-role norms that give support to roles which they were more likely to assume responsibility for in their own homes.

The WC (wife as complement) role was found to be one of three significant predictors of child-care tasks as well as being predictive of cleaning tasks. Husbands who had a less egalitarian orientation on items suggesting that a married woman's most important task in life should be caring for her husband and children; that her greatest reward and satisfaction come through her children; and that she should give up her job if it interferes with fulfilling her roles as wife and mother were more likely to share child-care tasks and less likely to share cleaning tasks.

Two dimensions of role salience were found to predict family-task sharing for husbands. The family role (the importance of being a spouse and parent) was one of three significant predictors of meal-preparation tasks as well as being the only significant predictor of the sharing of management of family activities. Management of family activities included organizing family social activities, planning family recreation and coordinating day-to-day activities of family members. It is understandable that husbands who valued the family role might take a more active part in management of family social, recreational and everyday activities.

The community role was a significant predictor of the sharing of maintenance-and-repair tasks. Community role salience referred to the

importance of being a participant in community services, social and recreational activities and church and other religious activities. Maintenance-and-repair tasks included minor car repairs, washing the car, and repair and maintenance of the house. In general, husbands who felt that being a participant in community activities was important were less apt to share maintenance-and-repair tasks with wives.

Family income was one of three significant predictors of shared cleaning tasks and was the only predictor of shared lawn-and-garden tasks. Individual income did not enter into any of the regression models for husbands.

Is there an explanation for lower family income influencing increased husband sharing of cleaning tasks? Possibly less income translated into fewer alternative ways for getting the cleaning tasks done. Less family income could have meant the difference between hiring part-time household help or a cleaning or laundry service and doing the cleaning themselves.

It is also possible that a smaller family income would decrease the likelihood that the lawn-and-garden tasks be shared with hired personnel rather than with the wife. Since lawn-and-garden tasks are seasonal and usually do not require daily attention, there is not as much concern about them being largely unshared. Previous research revealed that wives had the primary responsibility for most family tasks, therefore wives might feel that they have sufficient responsibilities without attending to the lawn-and-garden tasks too. Husbands who have been encouraged to share traditionally "feminine" tasks might in the future wish to complain about this unequal division.

Family type was found to be a significant predictor of family-task sharing. Husbands' membership in a one-career family was one of three independent variables significantly related to the sharing of meal-preparation tasks and his membership in a two-career family was one of three significant predictors of the sharing of child-care and cleaning tasks. Similarly, being a member of a two-career family was the only independent variable significant to the prediction of husband-wife sharing of financial-management tasks.

Two-career husbands shared the checkbook balancing, bill paying and investment planning with wives more often than did one-career or career-earner husbands. One explanation of these findings could be that career-oriented wives want and need to take an active interest in the management of the family's finances. The ratio of wife-to-husband earnings in a two-career family is usually higher than for other family types. Financial management in those higher-income families may require specialized knowledge of investments and tax shelters. It appears that for these reasons the information gathering, planning and bill paying would likely be shared to a greater degree in a two-career family.

To summarize the regression results, hypothesis 4 stated that scores on five dimensions of sex-role orientation, three dimensions of role salience, individual income, family income, and family type would not be predictive of scores on seven categories of family-task sharing for wives or for husbands. For wives the null hypothesis was rejected for the WCC and HCC dimensions of sex-role orientation, individual and family income, and family type and accepted for the WC, WEP, and HPH dimensions of sex-role orientation and all dimensions of role salience.

For husbands the null hypothesis was rejected for the HCC and WC dimensions of sex-role orientation, the family and community dimensions of role salience, family income, and family type and accepted for the WCC, WEP, and HPH dimensions of sex-role orientation, and the employment dimension of role salience, as well as for individual income.

Conclusions

A major finding of this research was that sex-role orientation had an important influence on husbands' sharing of meal-preparation, child-care, and cleaning tasks; tasks identified by past research as more time consuming than other family tasks (Walker and Woods, 1976; Robinson, 1977). Observation of the present data also revealed that family type was an additional significant predictor of those three tasks. For all three categories of family tasks (meal-preparation, child-care, and cleaning) having an employed wife increased the likelihood that husbands would share in the tasks. For two of the three, child-care tasks and cleaning tasks, having a career-oriented wife accounted for more task sharing than other significant predictors in the regression model.

Regardless of the division of family tasks between wives and husbands in the aggregate, for this sample of spouses, husbands' motivation to accept more responsibility for family tasks was related to their membership in a two-career family: A family type characterized by both spouses being employed in equally demanding occupations. Couples in career positions tend to work longer hours than couples in low-prestige occupations. In general, they establish high standards for all roles and expect to perform in several roles simultaneously;

income provider, spouse, household manager, parent. The division of family tasks is especially important in a two-career family where both wife and husband have interchangeable roles.

Wives in two-career families may be less likely to accept gender-linked patterns of task sharing and more likely to negotiate for shared task division. Husbands' degree of sharing in this study may have reflected such negotiation.

Having an egalitarian orientation also seemed to increase husbands' sharing of family tasks. Husbands who tended to agree that interchangeable rather than segregated roles were the preferred norms for behavior of wives and husbands, accepted more responsibility for family tasks. It is possible that husbands' acceptance of more responsibility for family tasks may have facilitated wives' achievement motivation and career advancement by providing them with a supportive environment in which to pursue career as well as wife/mother goals.

It was particularly noteworthy that for wives, sharing of the more time-consuming tasks of meal-preparation, cleaning, and child-care was associated with variables which differed from, but were similar to those found to influence the task sharing of husbands. For example, individual income had the most important influence on wives' sharing of time-consuming tasks. As wives' income rose so did husbands' participation in meal-preparation and cleaning tasks. In like manner, wives' membership in a two-career family was related to the sharing of child-care tasks.

Women in high-status positions had been observed to integrate family and work roles in a manner similar to that of career men. The

present study appears to suggest that for career-oriented wives, it is the income and career status more than any other independent variables studied that influence the sharing of family tasks. These two factors lend credence to the belief that wives who share the income-provider role in the family bargain for a more equitable distribution of family tasks at home. The larger the salary and the higher the job status, the more wives appear to expect and receive increased assistance from their husbands in carrying out child rearing and other family tasks.

On the whole, this study revealed that wives and husbands report differing, yet similar motivations for sharing the most time demanding of family tasks. For the wives it is tangible (money and employment status) resources which seem to translate into task sharing. For husbands, it is a mixture of tangible (wife's job status) and intangible (egalitarian sex-role orientation) resources which appear to influence sharing behavior.

Perhaps the most important finding of this research is that family type is a critical theoretical variable for explaining the household management and child-care arrangements for both wives and husbands. Wives holding jobs of equal status and earning power to their husbands expect more equal sharing of family work and husbands give attitudinal as well as behavioral support to wives' expectations.

Recommendations

Characteristics of this sample, such as the average age (40 to 59 years), high educational level, and career orientation (most husbands were university administrators) limit the generalizability of results.

However, this analysis serves as a reminder that future studies should not ignore the importance of sex-role orientation, role salience, income, and family type as predictors of family-task sharing. Even though multiple regression analysis revealed that a great deal of the variance in family-task sharing remained unexplained by the selected independent variables, those variables (cited above) did have a consistently significant influence on the dependent variables studied.

It was clear that there were individual differences (indicated by means and standard deviations), as well as differences by gender (indicated by t tests and regression analysis), and by family type (indicated by regression analysis) in the responses of wives and husbands on measures of family-task sharing. The task of future researchers interested in continuing the study of the determinants of task sharing is to base their research on larger, more representative samples that include other segments of the population. It is also important to include at least three and preferably more family types in future samples. In addition, it is critical that the responses of both wives and husbands be included in future research since the present study revealed that differences existed between these two groups.

A final recommendation is that future studies of family-task sharing accommodate some or all of the following additional independent variables; work history of respondents, indicators of self-esteem, and scales to tap both implicit and explicit negotiation processes between spouses. Attention should also be given to the part children play in those negotiation processes. Children are not quiet reactors; they are active participants in family negotiation and family maintenance activities.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE



Oklahoma State University

FAMILY STUDY CENTER

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
114 HEW BUILDING
(405) 624-5054

April 1979

Dear Administrator:

People in leadership positions are involved in many activities. Job, family, and community interests compete for limited time and energy. Choices must often be made between important activities or responsibilities. Yet, we have very little research-based information useful to the ever increasing number of families whose lifestyles require time commitments to many responsibilities, but whose day is limited to the same 24 hours that everyone else has.

A random sample of administrators serving in member institutions of the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges is being asked to assist with this research. Will you please share this letter with your husband or wife? In order for the results to be truly representative, it is important that each questionnaire be completed independently and returned promptly. The time (approximately 20 minutes) that you take to complete the survey will be greatly appreciated.

If you are not married, or are married but not currently living with your husband or wife, please return the enclosed gold form. You will not receive follow-up mailings.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaires have a code number for two purposes. The first is to identify husbands and wives as couples. You will note that the number is the same for both you and your husband or wife. The second purpose is for mail identification only. This is so we may check you off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire nor in any way associated with your responses.

This study is funded in part by the American Home Economics Association Foundation. We shall be most happy to answer any questions you may have. Please feel free to write or call.

Thank you for your assistance.

Gerald A. Bird
Gerald A. Bird
Assistant Professor
Project Director

Marguerite Scruggs
Marguerite Scruggs, Ph.D.
Director of Research
Family Study Center

If you are not married, or married but not currently living with your husband or wife, return this form and you will not receive follow-up mailings.

Since the purpose of our research depends on having husband-and-wife responses, we do not need your answers to the questions. However, if you would like to comment on how you manage your time and energy to meet competing demands of job, family, and community, do so on the back cover of the questionnaire.

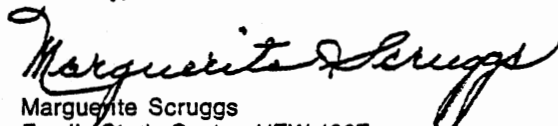
Thank you.

Last week, two questionnaires were mailed to you seeking information about how many people with busy lifestyles divide their time between job, family and community responsibilities. We asked you to share the cover letter with your husband or wife. Each of you was asked to complete a questionnaire independently and return it.

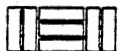
If you have already completed and returned them to us, please accept our sincere thanks. If not, your prompt response will be very much appreciated. It is important that your questionnaires be included in the study if the results are to be truly representative.

If by some chance you do not have the questionnaires, please call me immediately, collect (405—624-5054) or send me a note. I will mail another set to you.

Sincerely,



Marguerite Scruggs
Family Study Center, HEW 106E
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74074



Oklahoma State University

FAMILY STUDY CENTER

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
114 HEW BUILDING
(405) 624-5054

May, 1979

Dear Administrator:

About four weeks ago we wrote to you seeking information about how administrators and their families divide their time between job, family, and community responsibilities. If you have already completed and returned the questionnaires, please accept our sincere thanks and our apology for contacting you again.

Our research unit has undertaken this study because very little research-based information is available to busy families whose lifestyles require time commitments to many responsibilities and activities.

We are writing to you again because of the significance each questionnaire has to the usefulness of the study. In order for the results to be truly representative it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned promptly. The 20 minutes that you take to complete the survey will be greatly appreciated.

If by some chance you do not have the questionnaires, please send us a note or call us collect (405-624-5054). We will send another set to you.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Gerald A. Bird
Assistant Professor
Project Director

Cordially,

Marguerite Scruggs, Ph.D.
Director of Research
Family Study Center



Oklahoma State University

FAMILY STUDY CENTER

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
114 HEW BUILDING
(405) 624-5054

June 1979

Dear Administrator:

Your assistance is important to the success of a national study of how administrators and their families divide their time among job, family and community interests which compete for limited time and energy. We have not received any indication as to whether our first letter reached you.

The number of questionnaires returned is very encouraging. But, whether we will be able to describe accurately how families use their time depends on you and the others who have not yet responded. This is because our past experiences suggest that those of you who have not yet sent in your questionnaire may hold quite different preferences for time use than those who have.

This is the first national survey of this type that has ever been done. Therefore, the results are of particular importance to many people. We have very little research-based information useful to the ever increasing number of families whose lifestyles require time commitments to many responsibilities, but whose day is limited to the same 24 hours that everyone else has.

Will you please share this letter with your husband or wife? In order for the results to be truly representative, it is important that each questionnaire be completed independently and returned as soon as possible. The time (approximately 20 minutes) that each of you takes to complete the appropriate questionnaire will be greatly appreciated.

If you are not married, or are married but not currently living with your husband or wife, please return the enclosed gold form. You will not receive follow-up mailings.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaires have a code number for two purposes. The first is to identify husbands and wives as couples. You will note that the number is the same for both you and your husband or wife. The second is for mail identification only. This is so we may check you off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned.

Thank you for your assistance.

Most Sincerely,

Gerald A. Bird

Gerald A. Bird
Project Director

APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENT

PART D

While all of our roles are more or less satisfying, certain roles we perform are more important to our personal well-being than others. Please circle the number from 0 to 10 which indicates how important each role is in your own personal life. If the role described is not at all important to your well-being, circle a "0". If the role is important to your well-being, circle a number from "1" to "10" to indicate how important.

- | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | |
|------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|---|
| Not At All | | | | | | | | | | Extremely | |
| Important | | | | | | | | | | Important | |
| <u>0</u> | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | <u>8</u> | <u>9</u> | <u>10</u> | 17. Income provider (e.g. occupational/career activities) |
| <u>0</u> | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | <u>8</u> | <u>9</u> | <u>10</u> | 18. Performer of household tasks (e.g. shopping, cleaning, yardwork) |
| <u>0</u> | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | <u>8</u> | <u>9</u> | <u>10</u> | 19. Wife |
| <u>0</u> | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | <u>8</u> | <u>9</u> | <u>10</u> | 20. Participant in community services (e.g. civic or service clubs, PTA, Chamber of Commerce) |
| <u>0</u> | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | <u>8</u> | <u>9</u> | <u>10</u> | 21. Parent |
| <u>0</u> | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | <u>8</u> | <u>9</u> | <u>10</u> | 22. Member of professional organization(s) |
| <u>0</u> | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | <u>8</u> | <u>9</u> | <u>10</u> | 23. Participant in social and recreational activities (e.g. special interest groups, hobbies, leisure activities) |
| <u>0</u> | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | <u>8</u> | <u>9</u> | <u>10</u> | 24. Participant in church or other religious activities |

PART E

Now we would like to know how you feel about the following family roles: husband, father, wife, and mother. Circle the number from 1 to 7 which indicates how much you Disagree or Agree with each statement. A value of "1" indicates you Strongly Disagree (SD) with the statement, and a value of "7" indicates you Strongly Agree (SA) with the statement.

- | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | SA | |
|----|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----|---|
| | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | | 1. A wife should have equal authority with her husband in making family decisions. |
| | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | | 2. A married woman's most important task in life should be caring for her husband and child(ren). |
| | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | | 3. A married woman's greatest reward and satisfaction come through her child(ren). |
| | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>7</u> | | 4. A mother of young children should work only if the family needs the money. |

- | SD | SA | |
|----------------------|----|---|
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 5. A woman's job should be just as important to her as encouraging her husband in his job. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 6. A wife should be able to make long-range plans for her occupation just as her husband does. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 7. A woman who works, should not use the same strategies for job advancement that a man does. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 8. A wife should give up her job whenever it interferes with fulfilling her roles as wife and mother. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 9. A woman should not find her employment as satisfying as being a wife and mother. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 10. More day care centers and nursery schools should be available for mothers who choose to work. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 11. An employed mother is able to establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who is not employed. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 12. A married man's chief responsibility should be his job. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 13. A married man's most important task in life should be providing economic support for his wife and children. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 14. A husband should be just as willing as a wife to stay home from work and care for a sick child. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 15. A husband should not be upset if his wife's job sometimes requires her to be away from home overnight. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 16. The husband should be the head of the family. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 17. A married man's greatest reward and satisfaction should come through his job. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 18. A husband should not be bothered if his wife makes more money than he does. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 19. A husband should have final authority in making major family decisions. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 20. If both husband and wife are employed, he should be willing to share household tasks. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 21. If both husband and wife are employed, he should be willing to share child care responsibilities. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | | 22. If both husband and wife are employed, he should be willing to move if she is offered a better job in another town. |

VITA^r

Gloria Wanager Bird

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION, ROLE SALIENCE, INCOME, AND FAMILY TYPE
AS DETERMINANTS OF WIFE-HUSBAND SHARING OF FAMILY TASKS

Major Field: Home Economics

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ed Master of Science degree in General Home Economics from
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Home Economics Association, Virginia Council on Family
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