

EFFECT OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES
ON ROLE REWARD FOR HUSBANDS AND
WIVES IN THREE FAMILY TYPES

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Family Life in a State of Change

In the past three decades, family members in America have experienced either explicitly or implicitly what some experts describe as substantial changes in attitudes, beliefs and behavior due in part to a rise in the employment of wives and mothers (Scanzoni, 1975, 1978; Moore and Sawhill, 1976; Rallings and Nye, 1979). A long term trend in the increased labor force participation rate of married women and mothers had been observed in the United States since the 1940's, but the most dramatic change was recorded in the 1960's and 1970's (Sweet, 1973). By the mid-1970's, studies focusing on labor force trends revealed that employed women were making important financial contributions to their family's welfare (Women's Bureau, 1975).

Hayghe (1981) reviewed Bureau of Labor Statistics data from the decade of the 1970's and concluded that the proportion of employed wives was continuing to rise and the majority of them held full-time jobs, were younger, better educated and had smaller families than non-employed wives. As the decade ended, slightly more than 50 percent of all married women were employed and statisticians from the department of Labor projected that married women would continue to seek

employment in ever larger numbers in the future (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980).

The employment of married women on such a large scale contributed to changes in the roles of husbands and wives. As wives increasingly shared the income provider role in the family, there was increased pressure on husbands to also share a larger proportion of the parenting and household responsibilities. Nye and Berardo (1973) described other modifications in the roles of married women as some of their traditional responsibilities were increasingly being performed outside the home. For example, a mother's care of a preschool child could be delegated to a nursery school and meals formerly cooked at home could be prepared for the family in a restaurant.

Time with which to perform all of their chosen and necessary roles became one of the most scarce resources for employed husbands and wives. Men and women in career positions described the lack of time to perform family and employment roles as one of the biggest problems in maintaining their lifestyle (Holmstrom, 1973). Nickols and Metzen (1978) noted that the same time constraints and role overload problems previously described by spouses in career positions also affected employed women in general.

The key to maintaining commitments to multiple roles appeared to be the management of time use (Holmstrom, 1973; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976). A number of authors theorized that the use of certain time-management strategies would reduce the internal conflict husbands and wives felt about choosing between roles of equal importance as well as alleviate the time constraints felt by having many responsibilities and little time to divide among them (Toby, 1952; Merton, 1957, Goode,

1960; Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977). While there was general agreement among authors on the likely benefits of using various time-management strategies, the few empirical studies which investigated the use of those strategies found that not all of them worked in the manner predicted.

Hall (1972) analyzed the responses of 229 employed women while Cornwall (1976) studied a sample of 662 Utah residents, 355 women and 307 men. Cornwall (1976) had responses from married men and women, but not husbands and wives from the same families. Although the samples surveyed were large enough for statistical analysis, each had a substantially different population. Because of the limitations of those studies, the results were not easily applicable to the general population.

Attempting to build upon past research, the present study examined the use and effectiveness of time-management strategies used by husbands and wives in three family types. The sample partly compensates for past research deficiencies by utilizing a national sample, but is limited to one segment of the population from the standpoint of the nature of employment of one member of the family, the husband or the wife in an university administrative position.

Statement of the Problem

Many studies have identified lack of time to perform role responsibilities as a primary concern of employed women and as an increased concern for husbands of employed women (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969; Hall, 1972; Hall and Gordon, 1973; Holmstrom, 1973; Robinson, 1977; Nickols and Metzen, 1978; Pleck, 1979). Yet only a few studies have

examined the time-management strategies used by family members to lessen the time constraints and role overload created by various patterns of employment (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969; Hall, 1972; Hall and Gordon, 1973; Cornwall, 1976). Time-management strategies can alleviate time constraints and role overload. The research problem of this study was (1) assessment of the impact of time-management strategies on the relationship between role demand and role reward and (2) identification of the time-management strategies used by husbands and wives in three family types, their role demand and their role reward.

Definitions of Terms

Some of the terms which are in this study need to be clarified at this point. Additional terms will be defined as needed.

Family type: A family typology based on the commitment of husband and wife to employment and the income-provider role.

Position: The status of men and women in socially recognized categories, such as husband/father and wife/mother (Heiss, 1976).

Role: The behavior associated with a particular social position. Nye and Gecas (1976) described the roles of housekeeping and child care as being associated with wife/mother and income provider with husband/father.

Role demand: The perceived extent of time required in performing roles.

Role overload: The condition in which (1) role demand exceeds perceived time available and (2) constraints of time are confronted as obligations increase from performance of multiple roles (Sieber, 1974).

Role reward: The rights, privileges, pleasures, gratifications and satisfactions which serve as inducements to engage in and continue performance of roles or behaviors (Sieber, 1974; Nye, 1976).

Time-management strategies: Mechanisms which function to reduce role demands and possible role overload which result from performance of multiple roles (Merton, 1957; Goode, 1960).

Objectives and Hypotheses

The primary objective of this research project was to assess the impact of time-management strategies on the relationship between role demand and role reward. A secondary objective was identification of the time-management strategies used by husbands and wives in three family types, their role demands, and their role rewards. In achieving the primary objective, the following hypothesis was tested for husbands and for wives, for each family type, for each set of roles: Scores on role demand in combination with each time-management strategy do not predict role reward.

Assumptions

Accomplishment of the objectives of this study was dependent on the following assumptions:

1. Husbands and wives in three family types could accurately identify the demands and rewards of the various roles they perform.
2. Husbands and wives in three family types could accurately identify the time-management strategies they use to cope with conflicting role demands and the lack of time to perform roles.

3. The responses of college and university administrators and their husbands or wives on items assessing role demand, role reward and time-management strategies would be representative of families with one person employed in similar types of educational employment.

4. Nonrespondents did not differ from subjects who did respond to the questionnaires.

Limitations of the Study

Data were collected from a specific sample of college and university administrators and their husbands or wives. The findings reflect the attitudes and behaviors of the sample and are inferred statistically to the population of administrators employed in colleges and universities which are members of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges, and the husbands or wives of those administrators.

Dividing 166 men and 166 women into three distinct family types reduced sample size and may limit generalization to those particular family types. However, this study is exploratory in nature and further research with larger samples for each family type is recommended for generalization of results.

This study does not attempt to deal with persons who are employed in careers other than in higher education. It is not known if there are significant differences between administrators in higher education and persons in other types of careers.

Organization of the Study

Following this introductory chapter, Chapter II reviews the literature on employment of women, family types, role theory, role demand, role reward, and time-management strategies. Chapter III (Procedures) includes the research design, development of the questionnaires, details of data collection, hypotheses, and procedures of statistical analysis. Chapter IV describes the demographic characteristics of the sample and presents the findings as they relate to a model developed to explain the use of time-management strategies by men and women in three family types. Chapter V presents a summary of the study. Included are conclusions, interpretations and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter is divided into two substantive sections. The first section consists of a discussion of role theory, factors related to the labor force participation of women and the development of contemporary family types. The second section reviews the theoretical approaches to fulfillment of multiple roles: role demand, role reward and time-management strategies. The discussion of theory also includes the presentation of previous empirical tests and research summaries relevant to the variables explored in the present study.

Role Theory

The concept of role was central to the development of this study. Roles of men and women are discussed in general terms in Chapter I. Though role and several terms related to the concept of role are briefly defined in that chapter, those terms are discussed in greater detail as the theoretical base for this study is developed.

Several family theorists have identified role theory as being relevant to the explanation and understanding of human behavior and family processes. For example, Ridley (1973) stated that "role theory provides a useful point of departure for conceptualizing the work-family relationship" (p. 229). Nye (1976) subsequently expressed the idea

that the role concept was "employed in most theoretical approaches and conceptual frameworks for the study of the family" (p. 177). And Burr, Leigh, Day and Constantine (1979) identified role theory as a means of understanding and explaining human behavior and family relationships.

The term, role, has proved to be somewhat difficult to apply in the context of the present research problem as the definitions and uses of role varied among the many authors using the term. Nye and Gecas (1976) noted that this confusion resulted in part from use of the term, role, by many different disciplines. Because of the confusion in definition, researchers often choose not to define role, but let their readers supply their own sense to the meaning.

Additional problems have resulted from confusing "role" with "position". Merton (1957) and Heiss (1976) provided clarification of the relationships between these two terms. Men and women occupy positions in a social system, while the behaviors associated with those positions are considered to be roles.

Two commonly recognized positions for men and women are those of husband/father and wife/mother. The position of husband/father is made up of several roles, including income provider and child disciplinarian. The roles of housekeeper and child caregiver are likewise associated with the position of wife/mother (Heiss, 1976; Nye and Gecas, 1976). Nye and Gecas (1976) noted that in recent years the division of roles has become less clear-cut with wives sharing the income-provider role and husbands taking on the housekeeper and child-caregiver roles.

Role theorists agree in general that roles represent the behavior of persons performing in those roles. For instance, Toby (1952) stated that "social roles are the institutionally proper ways for an

individual to participate in society" (p. 323). He went on to explain that the roles are demands upon the individual, the normative behavior expected by society. Merton (1957) agreed, declaring social roles to be "major building blocks of social structure" (p. 110). He pointed out that role behavior was oriented toward what others expected of us and that "roles become concepts serving to connect culturally defined expectations with . . . relationships which make up a social structure" (p. 110).

Heiss (1976) expressed two assumptions made by role theorists. The first assumption was that roles are behaviors learned through interaction with others. The second assumption was that as people interact with others in similar positions, they act in accordance with what they know about the expectations associated with those positions.

In practice, there has been a blending of the definition of position with that of role. For example, Burr (1972) referred to parent, work and marital roles while Orthner and Axelson (1980) discussed in a similar vein, occupational, parental and household roles. Meanwhile Condie and Doan (1977, 1978) intermixed the terms position and role, referring to each as roles. The positions of husband, wife and parent were deemed by these researchers to be roles along with housekeeper, income provider and participator in religious activities. Their approach, while not theoretically correct, is practical when conducting research with a lay audience. References to both positions and roles as roles is considered less confusing given the interchangeability of roles traditionally segregated by gender (Nye and Gecas, 1976).

Income provider, for example, may refer to a role occupied by either a man or a woman. In this case it becomes necessary to

distinguish between the income-provider role and the positions of husband and wife which connote the familial relationship of spouse, a primary familial role. Participants in studies concerned with role behavior bring their own meanings to the roles explored. They have their own sense of such culturally defined roles as mother, father, husband and wife, with the normative prescriptions and proscriptions learned during interaction with others in those roles (Nye and Gecas, 1976).

For the present study, roles chosen for inclusion in the research were similar to those used in the Utah Role Study by Condie and Doan (1977). Four familial and five extra-familial roles were selected which preliminary interviews revealed to be some of the more salient roles to the respondents. Condie and Doan (1977) believed "this number of roles was large enough to . . . obliquely measure some of the assumptions of Sieber's (1974) theory of role accumulation and Marks' (1977) theoretical framework regarding multiple roles and role strain" (p. 4).

The Employment of Married Women

One impetus for the changing definitions of male and female roles in families has been the increasing rate of labor force participation of wives and mothers (Scanzoni, 1972, 1980; Boulding, 1976; Nye and Gecas, 1976). The employment of married women on a large scale is a recent phenomenon in the United States. The percentage of married women employed outside the home nearly doubled from 4.6 percent during the 30 year time span from 1890 to 1920 (Table I). Most of the increase came after 1900. In the following 30 years the labor force participation rate more than doubled, reaching 23.8 percent by 1950

(Hayghe, 1976). More recently, in the 30 years from 1950 through 1980, the rate doubled again to approximately 50 percent (U. S. Department of Labor, 1979; Johnson, 1980; U. S. Department of Labor, 1980)

TABLE I
LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE OF MARRIED WOMEN

Year	Percent
1890	4.6
1900	5.6
1920	9.0
1950	23.8
1960	30.5
1970	40.8
1978	47.9
1979	49.4
1980	50.2

Bureau of Labor Statistics data for 1968 noted a corresponding trend among husband-wife families, 45 percent were dual-earner (both husband and wife employed) and 45 percent were traditional-earner (husband only employed) families. "Over the ensuing decade, the number of dual-earner families rose by about one-fourth, so that in 1978, 51 percent of all married couples were dual-earner families while just 33 percent were of the traditional-earner type" (Hayghe, 1981, p. 47).

Factors Related to Labor Force

Participation of Women

Supply Factors

In the past, several factors tended to constrain women's employment outside the home. Until the United States entered World War II, married women primarily performed in roles related to family and home life. Correspondingly, husbands were the family-wage earner. The industrial revolution moved men's work from the home to the factory and the marketplace. Women, bound to the home by child-bearing and child-rearing functions in addition to having major responsibility for household tasks, found few opportunities for employment. Boulding (1976, p. 95) referred to this division of labor as giving women the "breeder-feeder" roles, with the "producer" role shared by both men and women. The "producer" role for women was primarily within the home; for men it was in the marketplace. Up through the 1970's, the presence of young children continued to be a constraint to the employment of mothers. A sense of guilt and ambivalence about assuming the role of wage earner often accompanied employment outside the home (Waldman, 1972; Nye and Berardo, 1973; Darian, 1976; Laws, 1976).

Beliefs of husbands and wives about the appropriateness of the employment of married women discouraged some women from seeking jobs. Wives were seen as performing a valuable supporting role for the husband's role of income provider. The non-paid, but essential tasks of entertaining business associates, shopping for the needs of the family, and providing a stable home life were reserved exclusively as the wife's contribution to family life and to the husband's occupational

and economic success (Parsons, 1954; Spiegel, 1960; Scanzoni, 1972; Papanek, 1973; Hunt and Hunt, 1977).

Some constraints to employment declined in recent years as women became better educated. Regardless of whether a wife had children or not, the more years of school she had completed, the more likely she was to be a member of the labor force. Wives' earnings were closely correlated with educational achievement, which further encouraged educated women to seek employment (Kreps, 1971; Kreps, Somers, and Perlman, 1974; Rawlings, 1978). As education increased, women were able to qualify for skilled and professional jobs and "all studies show that a disproportionate number of mothers who have taken graduate work are employed" (Nye and Berardo, 1973, p. 274).

Family size and age of children were also related to employment. Women with smaller families or with older children less dependent on the mother's supervision and care, had a greater likelihood of employment. Hayghe (1976) noted that the declining birth rate in the last half of the 1960's was related to an increase in the labor force participation rate of younger wives in the prime child-bearing ages of 20 to 34.

Another factor encouraging women to seek employment was the need for additional family income. Employment because of financial need was relatively unchanged over nearly two centuries. In the late 18th Century, Alexander Hamilton noted that when women entered into paid employment, families benefitted from having a new source of income (Abbott, 1910).

During the depression years of the 1930's, relatively few married women were employed. A family economist, Kyrk (1933), described

employed married women as working because of financial need. The granddaughters of those women from the 1930's were employed in the 1970's and early 1980's for the same reason, economic need. The money was being used to "raise the family's standard of living, or pay for a home or their children's education" (Harbeson, 1971, p. 41). Nye and Berardo (1973) agreed that married women work for financial reasons, but modified this by saying that "a more complete answer would be that unless they work they cannot have the level of living and security that they have with two incomes" (p. 274).

Another factor which influenced the labor force participation of women was the prevalence and availability of part-time employment. Part-time employment was defined by the U. S. Department of Labor as working from 1 to 34 hours per week (Deuterman and Brown, 1978). Since 1954, the number of employees in part-time work has increased at the rate of four percent a year. This was double the rate of increase of all employees for that period with women accounting for two-thirds of the increase (Deuterman and Brown, 1978).

Most persons employed part-time chose that pattern voluntarily. Reasons for choosing part-time work schedules included school attendance, family responsibilities, and a preference for leisure time (Deuterman and Brown, 1978). Like women employed full-time, those employed part-time were most likely to be in white-collar occupations. While full- and part-time employed women differed little in educational attainment, the part-time employees tended to be somewhat older (Leon and Bednarzik, 1978).

Demand Factors

Despite the various constraints on women's labor force participation, women have continued to seek employment in increasing numbers. This employment is documented in part in Table I.

In the pre-World War II period, most employed women were young, unmarried, and in "traditional" female occupations. In an essay written in 1942, Parsons (1954) stated that the majority of married women were not employed and that secretarial positions predominated for those who were employed. By the Fall of 1943, the middle of World War II, one-third of the nation's labor force was comprised of women. These 17 million women performed in traditional female positions as well as in nontraditional ones such as welder, aircraft worker, newspaper editor, or stock broker (Byrd, 1979). Temporarily, some barriers to women's employment were lowered.

Other barriers were lowered by the continuing demand for female labor in the post-World War II period. An expanding economy was striving to fulfill a demand created by a nation unable to buy most goods and services during the depression and World War II (Harbeson, 1971; Waldman, 1972; Oppenheimer, 1973). The majority of jobs "were those which women were accustomed to doing which society found acceptable for women to perform, and which women themselves expected to perform" (Kreps, 1971, p. 34). The increased labor force participation by women in the 1950's and 1960's related not so much to the types of jobs held by women (traditional women's jobs), but rather to the gradual societal acceptance of larger numbers of married women in the marketplace. The employment of wives was becoming a natural occurrence,

unlike the temporary approval given by society as a consequence of the war emergency.

It was previously noted that the majority of part-time employees were women who preferred that employment pattern. There is another aspect of part-time employment related to demand for labor. Some persons preferred full-time jobs, but were employed part-time as they could not find full-time jobs. Of those persons who were employed part-time involuntarily, more than three-fifths were women (Terry, 1981).

Mothers and Employment

As previously noted, the labor force participation rate of married women has increased in recent decades. Within this group of employed women, the employment of mothers has increased the most rapidly. Employment of mothers with children aged 6 to 18 years increased 500 percent between 1940 and 1970. Though mothers of preschool children under six years of age were the least likely to be employed, their employment rate increased 300 percent in 22 years from 1948 to 1970 (Nye and Berardo, 1973). The trend of increased participation of mothers in the labor force continued as the decade of the 1980's began. By March, 1980, 54.1 percent of the women with children under age 18 were employed (U. S. Department of Labor, 1980). Within this group of mothers of young children, three of every five mothers (61.8 percent) of older children aged 6 to 17 years had jobs.

Family Type

Scanzoni (1972) conceptualized a means of classifying families into three types based on the commitment of the wife to employment and income-provider status. The wife's status in the three family types was described as complement, junior partner and equal partner. In later works, Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1976, 1981) expanded on the earlier descriptions and names of the contemporary family types labeling them as follows; head-complement, senior partner-junior partner and equal partner-equal partner. The validity of this family typology was tested empirically by Scanzoni (1980) who concluded, "use of this sort of criterion variable appears to be a valid way to distinguish among contemporary marriage types" (p. 137). Scanzoni (1980) further contended that in order to best assess alternative family types, it was necessary to study responses of both men and women.

A better understanding of family life could emerge with the discovery of how husbands and wives operate within the identified family types. The three contemporary family types described below correspond to the family types described by Scanzoni (1972, 1980) and Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1976, 1981).

One-Career Families

Scanzoni (1972, 1980) described the one-career family as the head-complement family type. The head-complement family was characterized by a belief in traditional family norms which determined that the husband was the family head. As such, his chief role was that of income provider. The wife was the husband's "complement". Her primary roles

were family coordinator, housekeeper and child caregiver. Freed from the necessity of employment, the wife participated in community activities such as charitable work, religious service, political activities, scouting, and parent-teacher organizations (Papanek, 1973).

In an essay written in 1942, Parsons (1954) described the traditional family norms of the one-career family. The husband/father was the sole provider of family income, with considerably less participation in the operation of the household than the wife. The wife/mother had management of the household and care of the children as her primary function. The wife could expand her interests away from the household in two directions. The first was an appreciation of cultural interests and the second was development of an interest in and obligation for community welfare.

The description of the one-career family life style in the 1940's differed little from that of writers and researchers in the 1970's. For example, Bailyn (1970) characterized the traditional, one-career family as existing when the husband was highly oriented to receiving satisfaction from his job/career outside the home. The wife's orientation was to activities within the home to family maintenance as opposed to job or career.

In a comparative study of one- and dual-career families, Holmstrom (1973) made the following observations. One-career families followed a pattern of division of household labor primarily on the basis of gender. The husband performed maintenance and repair tasks; the wife performed the remainder of the household and child-care tasks.

In her observations on the traditional one-career family, Papanek (1973) described the wife's role as "supporter, comforter, backstage

manager, home maintainer, and main rearer of children" (p. 853) as a role for educated women. The wife's "vicarious achievement" through the husband's career success was a combination of roles she called the two-person career. Involvement in support activities for the husband's career reduced the desire and/or opportunity of wives for development of independent careers of their own. The husband's involvement in career allowed for less involvement in family life. Papanek (1973) referred to the career man as being a "vicarious homemaker" through his wife's household work and care of the children. Husband and wife performed complementary roles in the traditional husband/wife relationship.

Hunt and Hunt (1977) agreed with the description by Papanek (1973) of the two-person career element of the one-career family type. When the husband was employed in a profession, the husband's ability to thrive in the business world was often due, in part, to the wife's role of providing support services. The Hunts stressed that women choosing this arrangement were qualified for employment in their own right but chose not to pursue it.

There was general agreement among all authors previously cited that the one-career family adhered more to the conventional or traditional family type of highly differentiated productive roles of husband at work and the wife at home. Gowler and Legge (1978) added that there was generally more of a sharing of leisure/consumption activities, with husband and wife each taking part.

Career-Earner Families

Scanzoni (1972, 1980) described the senior partner-junior partner marriage relationship as occupying a position between the head-complement (one-career) and equal partner-equal partner family types. The husband as senior partner was the chief income provider while the wife as junior partner earned less than her husband and had a lower job commitment. Depending on varying circumstances, she moved in and out of the job market. These circumstances included the perceived needs of the children for maternal care and being uprooted from her job by the upward career mobility of the husband

From her earned income in the junior partner status, the wife gained power in family decision making as compared to the complement status of the nonemployed wife. As senior partner, the rights and duties of the husband changed moderately too. Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1981) characterized these changes first for the wife, then for the husband as follows:

It is still considered her duty to fulfill her wife-mother role in caring for the children and looking after household matters-although the husband might (when it is convenient) be more willing to help with such tasks than is the case under the head-complement arrangement where . . . it is considered the husband's right to have these domestic duties performed by his wife. (p. 336)

Lein (1979), in a study of career-earner families, noted some discrepancies between attitude and behavior of employed couples. Most men and women believed that employment of wives required some changes in family structure. In fact, often little or no change occurred. Men often perceived no inconsistency between attitude and behavior as they considered earning an income as their primary contribution to the family. Wives were also sometimes reluctant to relinquish primary

responsibility for traditional family roles in the household. No single pattern of role change occurred in family structure within the career-earner families studied by Lein (1979). There was a diversity in the sharing of income provider and housekeeper roles by husbands and wives.

Dual-Career Families

Scanzoni (1972) conceptualized the dual-career family as the equal partner-equal partner family type. This family type was characterized by both the husband and wife being equally committed to their respective careers. The education, job status, and income of the wife were roughly equal to the husband's allowing the wife to bargain for equal status and decision-making power in the marriage. Scanzoni viewed the equal status in an equal-partner marriage as leading to "role interchangeability". The wife would not be the "unique homemaker" while the husband would not be the "unique income provider" (Scanzoni, 1972, p. 131). Husband and wife would share the roles of income provider and homemaker, rather than specialize in the traditional gender specific roles as characterized in the one-career family type.

The first researchers to study dual-career families as a unique family type were Rapoport and Rapoport (1969, 1971). Their definition of dual-career families was used by many research studies and essays of the 1970's (Martin, Berry, and Jacobsen, 1975; Burke and Weir, 1976; Hunt and Hunt, 1977; Gowler and Legge, 1978; Huser and Grant, 1978; St. John-Parsons, 1978; Weingarten, 1978). The definition remained relevant for the 1980's, used by Poloma, Pendleton, and Garland (1981) in their longitudinal study of dual-career families, Rapoport and

Rapoport (1969) defined dual-career families as:

families in which both husband and wife pursue careers (i.e. jobs which are highly salient personally, have a developmental sequence and require a high degree of commitment) and at the same time establish a family life with at least one child. (p. 3)

The emphasis on career commitment was important in differentiating dual-career families from other family types in which husband and wife did not maintain equal commitments to work and family roles. The salience of work roles varied by type of employment. Careers in the professions required the highest commitment, and offered the most potential for conflict with family life (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1965; Holmstrom, 1971; Hall and Hall, 1979; Rice, 1979).

The high commitment of the wife to a career differentiated her from other employed women. The combination of motherhood and high career commitment led to an even greater differentiation. The career-employed woman who chose not to interrupt her career for marriage or motherhood (or who allowed for only minimal interruption for child bearing) found that her decision created considerable sacrifice and strain (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1971; Bebbington, 1973).

The combination of career, parent, and spouse roles affected not only the wife but also the husband. A descriptive expression of this combination came from a husband in a dual-career family (Holmstrom, 1973) who described it as follows, "At least over the past year, in terms of time, our lives have been pretty much like the countdown for a rocket" (p. 89). Other men in dual-career families indicated they felt this time pressure either "because of their own responsibilities, the time they felt their family demanded, or the complications from the fact that the wife also had a career" (Holmstrom, 1973, p. 89).

In an essay on the dual-career life style, Hunt and Hunt (1977) argued against this family type as appropriate for enhancement of women's status. The support services provided by wives in one-career families were seen as essential for optimal career development. The wives in dual-career families were seen as being hampered in their career advancement because they lacked the support services of a non-employed spouse. Presumably, the same problems would hinder career advancement of husbands in dual-career families.

There was agreement by other authors that the lack of support services for husbands and wives in dual-career families created dilemmas for each in pursuing their individual careers and family life (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969, 1971; Holmstrom, 1973; Poloma et al., 1981). There was agreement that an "understanding and helping husband . . . helps to alleviate only a few of the family pressures, and cannot eliminate them (Poloma et al., 1981).

Role Demand

An essential element in maintaining multiple roles is the ability to find the time to perform those roles. In regard to fulfilling the demands of multiple roles, Goode (1960) theorized that "the individual is thus likely to face a wide, distracting, and sometimes conflicting array of role obligations" (p. 485). He went on to say that fulfilling the demands of one set of role obligations would make fulfilling other roles difficult. Goode stated that the difficulty in meeting one's given role demands is normal and the "individual's total role obligations are overdemanding" (p. 485).

Observation of persons with commitment to both family and employment roles led Edgell (1970) to agree with Goode (1960), stating that "any degree of commitment to one role will detract from . . . commitment and chances of success, in the other, simply in terms of the availability of time" (p. 320). This availability of time was stated another way by Linder (1970) who said work "affects both the supply and the demand for time on other activities" (p. 13). Blood and Wolfe (1960) in an earlier study of husbands and wives concluded that "as more and more wives have taken jobs outside the home, there has been increased pressure on husbands to lighten the double load of job-plus-housework which falls on the working wife" (p. 48). Availability of time for all role obligations was seen as influencing participation in housework by husbands (Blood and Wolfe, 1960).

Toby (1952) noted that roles are "norms which prescribe certain acts and forbid others" (p. 32) and are demands on the individual. Nickols and Metzen (1978) concluded that the time needed to fulfill multiple roles leads to "an overload of roles" (p. 96). The problem of commitment to multiple roles and an overload of roles is derived from the concept of role demand, defined as the perceived extent of time required in performing roles. Role overload is a condition in which role demand exceeds perceived time available and the constraints of time are confronted as obligations increase from performance of multiple roles (Sieber, 1974).

In their early research on dual-career families, Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) described role overload as one of the problem areas of maintaining the dual-career family life style. They attributed role overload to the addition of the income-provider role to the role

obligations of the wife and the addition of the housekeeper role to the role obligations of the husband (p. 25). Blood and Wolfe (1960) much earlier observed that the choosing of the income-provider role by the wife had an impact upon family division of labor. They expected an increase in the activity in the home by husbands and a decrease in the activity of wives.

While the decrease in employed wives' household work time (compared to nonemployed wives) has been described, several studies reported no corresponding increase observed in household work time by husbands (Walker and Woods, 1976; Robinson, 1977; Nickols and Metzen, 1978). There was either no change or only a slight increase in household work time of husbands of employed wives when compared to husbands of nonemployed wives. These findings were not confirmed by other authors who found that the share of household tasks of husbands of employed wives increased markedly (Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Young and Willmott, 1973). In a more recent study, Pleck and Rustad (1981) found a substantial increase in the household work time by the husbands of employed wives. Much of the increase occurred in child care by fathers. They found no significant difference between the total work time (the sum of paid work and household work) of employed wives and husbands. The role overload was confirmed for employed wives who had greater total work time than did nonemployed wives, but the overload had declined relative to the husbands of employed wives when comparisons were made to data from the 1960's (Pleck and Rustad, 1981).

Perhaps the difference between the expectations and the realities of the time contribution by husbands to household work lay in the educational level and family commitment of husbands and the career

commitment of wives. Mortimer, Hall and Hill (1978) noted that men experienced role overload from the contradictions in traditional values on the importance of work, family and children and their own ability to fulfill work and family responsibilities to the level of their own expectations.

In another study from the same research project as the present study, Bird (1981) explored the extent of sharing of household work of 166 career-employed men, of whom 95 percent were college educated. As the job commitment of wives increased from nonemployment, through non-career jobs to career employment, the extent of sharing of traditional female household tasks by husbands also increased.

Role demand would also be expected to be higher for men in dual-career families. Even though the time spent on household work declined for employed wives, their total time for job and home increased as they moved from nonemployment to noncareer jobs, to career employment (Nickols and Metzen, 1978). Role demand would be higher for women in dual-career families when compared to the other family types.

The concept of role overload was described by Marks (1977) as the scarcity approach to managing multiple roles. With a scarcity of time, performing in all of an individual's roles was over-demanding, as previously mentioned (Goode, 1960). Goode (1960) noted that not all role demands are responded to automatically. There may also be constraints to performance due to conflicts of time, place or other resources.

Role Reward

Considering the documentation of the previous section, there would seem to be little doubt of the existence and reality of role demand and role overload. But an alternative hypothesis to the scarcity approach to fulfilling multiple roles has been advocated by several researchers and theorists. Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977) rejected the assumption that the roles of an individual are overdemanding and that fulfilling multiple roles leads to role overload.

Rather than assuming that time constraints in fulfilling multiple roles leads only to some extent of role overload (role demand), rewards were also associated with performing those roles. Sieber (1974) and Nye (1976) described role reward as the rights, privileges, pleasures, gratifications and satisfactions which served as inducement to engage in and continue performance of roles or behaviors. Sieber (1974) stated that "every role carries with it certain rights as well as duties" (p. 569); some of these rights are inherent in the role whereas others arise from interaction with other persons while in the role. It can then be generalized that when fulfilling multiple roles "the greater the number of roles . . . the greater the number of privileges [rewards] enjoyed by an individual" (Sieber, 1974, p. 569). He went on to say that the more roles assumed, the more resources accumulated for performing in other roles. Marks (1977), building on the work of Sieber (1974), examined the rewards gained from fulfilling multiple roles. Marks (1977) called it an "expansion approach" as a contrast to the theory of Goode (1960) which Marks described as the "scarcity approach".

Several studies have examined the rewards derived from role behavior. In addition, two studies examined behavior in multiple roles using the expansion and scarcity approaches. The first of the studies to be discussed is a re-examination by Rapoport and Rapoport (1976) of the 16 dual-career families in their earlier study (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969, 1971). From in-depth interviews, role overload was identified as a significant problem of those husbands and wives in dual-career families. Several rewards were mentioned by family members as "giving them . . . psychological payoffs in return for the struggle and discipline involved in developing and operating the dual-career family structure" (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976, p. 320). The most commonly mentioned reward was the wife's self-realization.

Rapoport and Rapoport (1976) described other rewards for dual-career families committed to highly demanding roles. For example, "a happier relationship resulted when both partners balanced their career aspirations with an involvement in family life" (p. 322). In addition "the children's development was a source of gratification. The dual-career pattern encouraged more independence and resourcefulness than in one-career families" (p. 322). The husbands especially benefitted from the extra contact with the children. Also, the "husbands got vicarious gratifications from their wives' achievements and enjoyed the idea that both were continuing to develop as people" (p. 323).

In their essay regarding constraints on employment of wives, Mortimer et al. (1978) noted the role rewards for husbands and wives in the traditional one-career family life style. If the wife has contributed to the career success of the husband through her supporting functions, she may identify with the high occupational prestige and

income of the husband. The husband gained his reward from the wife's support, as an educated wife "frees [him] of many family responsibilities to let [him] concentrate on [his] employment which may often have heavy time commitments" (Mortimer et al., 1978, p. 292).

In a study of the satisfaction of women with employment, Andrisani (1978) found that "more than half of the highly satisfied [with employment] reported on intrinsic reward as the best thing about their jobs" (p. 595), thus the work itself served as its own reward. Other findings of Andrisani (1978) indicated that women, who were highly committed to employment, thought that employment was a proper role for women, and had husbands who approved of their employment, were more likely to derive rewards from employment.

Two studies examined aspects of reward and the expansion approach as well as the scarcity approach to multiple roles. Spreitzer, Snyder and Larson (1979) used the scarcity and expansion approaches in examining the performance of multiple roles. The researchers said the data suggested a modest linear relationship between the number of roles performed and psychological well-being among both men and women. Among women who performed only the work role, 36 percent reported a high degree of marital happiness. For women who performed all five of the roles studied, 46 percent responded that they had a high degree of marital happiness. Among male respondents, 36 percent of the men reporting satisfaction only from the work role and 50 percent of men with satisfaction from all five roles reported a high degree of marital satisfaction. The findings of Spreitzer et al. (1979) supported only the expansion theory, that higher rewards were associated with performance of multiple roles.

Orthner and Axelson (1980) explored the relationship between employment of the wife and marital interaction. Two alternative hypotheses were tested, a role scarcity model and a role expansion model. Research findings supported both models.

In regard to the role scarcity hypothesis, Orthner and Axelson (1980) anticipated that employed women performing in multiple roles would prioritize their roles and perform those with the greatest social rewards. Husband-wife interaction was expected to be lowest among employed wives. The findings supported the hypothesis as "employed wives are more likely to participate in individual activities compared to non-employed wives" (Orthner and Axelson, 1980, p. 542).

From the theoretical work of Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977), a role expansion hypothesis was formulated. Performing in multiple roles increased the role reward of the individual due to increases in privileges, status, resources and personality and ego gratification. Therefore, as the wife enjoyed greater reward from employment, husband-wife marital interaction would increase. The findings also supported the expansion hypothesis. Orthner and Axelson (1980) found:

higher proportions of marital companionship activities among wives employed in professional-managerial positions as compared to wives in clerical-sales positions. If we assume that the occupational roles of the former are more demanding, yet more rewarding, it follows that they may also provide the opportunity for greater privileges and more understanding on the part of the husband. (p. 542)

The differences in husband-wife marital interaction by wives did not differ on the basis of employment versus nonemployment. The difference was between employed women with higher status professional-managerial positions and women in lower status clerical-sales positions. Employed women with higher status positions and mothers who

were not employed had high marital interaction with husbands. Employment of wives in lower status positions was associated with lower levels of marital interaction.

Theoretical and empirical evidence has been presented to support both theoretical approaches, scarcity and expansion. Goode (1960) and Sieber (1974) viewed multiple role performance from opposing points of view, but shared a common view for managing those role commitments. Sieber (1974) stated that since individuals are not incapacitated by role overload:

some process must be adduced by role theorists to account for the absence of social havoc and psychological dismay. A number of 'mechanisms' are therefore postulated as helping to articulate the individual's role system, thereby precluding or reducing tension and disruption. (p. 568)

The ensuing discussion by Sieber (1974) of those mechanisms ameliorating role reward was derived from the work of theorists Merton (1957) and Goode (1960). In an earlier paper, Toby (1952) described several mechanisms as being important for preventing role conflict. He further stated:

In spite of these various mechanisms to prevent incipient conflicts from developing, individuals do find themselves in situations where two or more groups make incompatible demands upon them. This is due in part to the imperfect integration of all social systems. (p. 326)

Toby (1952) concluded that the mechanisms do not function perfectly. Goode (1960) in describing these mechanisms stated that the individual could reduce role overload by careful selection of roles that are mutually supportive and secondly by choosing from among several mechanisms to manipulate the individual's role structure and relationships with others.

Time-Management Strategies

In the literature previously cited, various "mechanisms" were suggested by Toby (1952), Merton (1957), Goode (1960), Sieber (1974), and Marks (1977) to manage the performance of multiple roles and conflicting roles. From the mechanisms suggested in the literature, eight were chosen for further study and are referred to as time-management strategies (TMS). Already seen to influence the relationship between role demand and role reward, the TMS will be described as theorized and then as previously tested empirically for effectiveness in previous research.

Theory of Time-Management Strategies

The Legitimate Excuse. Toby (1952) described the legitimate excuse as "an approved technique for avoiding sanctions by asserting that an equally high or higher claim prevented the individual from fulfilling his obligations" (p. 324). This strategy is most commonly used in informal relationships, in pleading that work responsibilities come before home activities. Marks (1977) noted that in the middle and upper classes, the use of excuses, pleading scarce time and energy "typically will not be honored within work activities" (p. 932). Marks (1977) went on to say that:

those people holding the highest positions will have the least latitude for scarce time and energy excuses within those positions (nor would they want to appeal to them)On the other hand, for the traditional housewife, whose daily activities are not even reckoned culturally as real work, there is little power of appeal to any excuses. (p. 932)

Stalling Until Pressures Subside. Stalling until pressures subside was recognized as being successful when the individual was under temporary pressures from two or more groups or to perform in two or more conflicting roles. Toby (1952) described stalling as "not passive waiting it involves placating and promising while the competing obligations are not being fulfilled" (p. 327). It may be possible to avoid making a decision or performing a specific activity until one or two groups relax their demands, making performance of the activity unnecessary.

Compartmentalization. Compartmentalization or segregation of roles "is the definition of roles so that attendant circumstances have to be appropriate in order to activate the role behavior in question" Toby, 1952, p. 326). Compartmentalization works on the basis of location and context so that behavior in work roles was called for only with co-workers at the job location (Goode, 1960). When the individual returned home, the work role was left behind, replaced by the now appropriate roles of parent, spouse, or performer of household tasks. Several of the wives in dual-career families studied by Rapoport and Rapoport (1976) utilized compartmentalization to separate home life from the career roles performed in employment.

Empathy. Empathy, or mutual social support, was available to persons sharing the same roles or circumstances. While under pressure to perform in a particular role or set of roles, the individual has the support of one or more persons. In the context of the family, that person providing support was the husband or wife of the individual (Merton, 1957). Using the expansionist approach, any supportive and

sympathetic atmosphere gave an individual more energy to meet role demands (Marks, 1977).

The support services provided by a nonemployed wife to a career-employed husband are described in the family type section on one-career families. Burke and Weir (1976), Hunt and Hunt (1977) and Mortimer et al. (1978) stated that this active system of emotional, social and physical support or empathy by wives was important to the occupational success of their husbands. These authors agreed that the employment of the wife tended to lessen the empathy or support for the husband. When the wife is employed, especially in a career position, the husband's empathy or support become important to reducing the wife's overload of home, family and employment responsibilities (Burke and Weir, 1976; Mortimer et al., 1978).

Barriers Against Intrusion. Goode (1960) described the barriers against intrusion as techniques for "preventing others from initiating, or even continuing role relationships" (p. 487). These techniques included the use of a secretary to make appointments to prevent intrusions upon an individual's time and to deliberately make choices as to how time will be used.

Reducing Responsibilities. This strategy has two facets. One is changing the standards of performance so that either more time is available for responsibilities in that role or to gain time to perform tasks in other roles. The second facet is not accepting additional responsibilities in a role, pleading an overload of responsibilities already (Toby, 1952; Goode, 1960); Hall, 1972; Marks, 1977).

Delegation. In the delegation strategy, another person is assigned to carry out various role activities. Most commonly these activities include the housekeeper and childcare functions to be delegated to other family members, usually the husband or perhaps to older children. Sometimes these tasks are delegated to hired help when it is available (Goode; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969; Hall, 1972).

Organization. The last strategy to be described is organization. "By this process the individual rank orders the importance of various activities and performs the most important ones" (Hall, 1972, p. 477). Holmstrom (1973) in her study of two-career families, noted that the couple and especially the women, were conscious of planning their time and organizing their schedules.

Effectiveness of Time-Management Strategies

Toby (1952), Merton (1957), Goode (1960), and Marks (1977) described various time-management strategies, theorized about the use of various strategies and assumed each to be effective. While specific situations were mentioned as to when certain strategies would or would not work, effectiveness of strategies was not tested. Only a few studies have empirically tested the strategies. In addition, only the scarcity approach was hypothesized, not the expansion approach which was the focus of this study.

Hall (1972) tested the effectiveness of strategies in his study of college educated, married women. The employment status of the women was not specified. His purpose was to develop a systematic model of coping related to satisfaction, not to scarcity or expansion. Strategies used were divided into three categories. Type I strategies

(including delegation and empathy) were associated with satisfaction with roles ($p \leq .07$) and Type III strategies (including organization) were negatively related to satisfaction ($p \leq .01$) (Hall, 1972). Type II strategies (including compartmentalization, reducing responsibilities, and some aspects of organization) were positively associated with satisfaction, but not significantly.

It is difficult to compare the results above to the purely descriptive work of Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) where the sample was too small for statistical analysis. Several of the wives consciously segregated their work and family roles. This compartmentalization was one way the wives dealt with the problem of overload from conflicting roles. These families were also quite likely to hire household help for the cleaning and child care which was effective use of the delegation strategy.

Cornwall (1976) used the data from the Utah study of Condie and Doan (1977) from which the role reward, role demand, and some TMS questions of the present study were adapted. Cornwall (1976) examined the use of strategies in relation to reducing stress and pressure, related to but not the same as the scarcity approach. Cornwall (1976, p. 66) found that the excuse and empathy were positively associated with increased feelings of stress, but were not necessarily effective in reducing stress. Organization, delegation, and compartmentalization were negatively associated with role stress and seemed to be protecting the individual from stress. Cornwall also found "that increased stresses are more closely associated with the increased use of mechanisms [strategies] for women than for men" (p. 70). Additional findings indicated differences in strategy use between men and women, that

"men were more likely to use organization and delegation and women were more likely to use compartmentalization" (p. 72). One deficiency of the study was the use of only one question each to represent organization, delegation, and compartmentalization.

Six of the eight TMS identified for use in the present study were tested for effectiveness in previous studies. Two strategies, stalling and barriers against intrusion, were not previously tested empirically.

Concluding Rationale

In conclusion, literature relevant to the development of the present study was reviewed in this chapter. Included was an examination of research findings and theoretical essays concerned with role theory, the employment of wives, family type as well as the following major research variables; role demand, role reward, and time-management strategies.

One of the first researchers to theoretically link role demand and role reward was Sieber (1974), who stated that roles were both demanding and rewarding. Sieber theorized that as the number of roles and obligations the individual was expected to perform increased, the number of rewards for performing those roles were also likely to increase.

Studies by Cornwall (1976) and Condie and Doan (1977) further established the relationship between role demand and role reward. Both investigations utilized the same data for examining role demand and role reward, but for different purposes. Condie and Doan (1977) developed their study in part to examine marital satisfaction. They measured role demand and role reward and computed role profits (rewards

minus demands) for each of nine life roles as an indirect measure of marital satisfaction. Their analysis assumed a relationship between role demand and role reward.

Cornwall (1976) tested the effectiveness of several strategies (some similar to the time-management strategies utilized in the present study) on the relationship between role demand and role reward. She measured role stress for the nine roles as a ratio of the role demand divided by the role reward scores. In testing the effectiveness of strategies to relieve role stress, Cornwall (1976) found that men and women differed in the types of strategies they utilized.

In the present study, like those of Cornwall (1976) and Condie and Doan (1977), role demand and role reward are assumed to be related, however this study was designed to examine role demand as a predictor of role reward. Each time-management strategy was then examined to determine if individually the strategies impacted on the relationship between role demand and role reward, for three sets of roles, for husbands and wives in three family types. Determination of the use of time-management strategies as described above could either substantiate or refute the theoretical assumptions made by previous researchers regarding time-management strategies as affecting the relationship between role demand and role reward.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

Design of the study

The analytic survey method of research was chosen for this study to achieve the objectives identified in Chapter I. Babbie (1973) stated that "explanatory analyses in survey research are aimed at the development of generalized propositions about human behavior" (p. 47). The usefulness of survey research is the "survey research focuses on people, the vital facts of people, and their beliefs, opinions, attitudes, and behavior" (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 411).

Data were collected by self-administered questionnaires mailed to participants. Simon (1978) listed the following advantages of mail questionnaires for social science research:

1. Wider and more representative distribution of sample possible
 2. No field staff
 3. Cost per questionnaire relatively low
 4. People may be more frank on certain issues
 5. No interviewer bias
 6. Respondent can answer at his leisure, has time to 'think things over'
 7. Certain segments of population more easily approachable.
- (p. 199)

Disadvantages of this method listed by Simon (1978) were:

1. Bias due to nonresponse often indeterminate
2. Control over questionnaire may be lost
3. Interpretation of omissions difficult
4. Only those interested in subject may reply
5. Now always clear who replies. (p. 199)

The research plan of the present study incorporated the following procedures to counter the above disadvantages:

1. Nonresponse was expected to be lessened by including a reply form for those who were not eligible for the study (gold form).
2. Three follow-up mailings were made to encourage response.
3. Instructions which guided respondents through the questionnaire minimized omissions.
4. The relevance of the topic to the subjects' own lives was a factor in obtaining the response of many subjects, according to comments written on some questionnaires.
5. The high level of educational achievement and involvement in an academic setting (for one spouse in each family) would contribute to familiarity with similar research efforts and increase the subject's ability to respond appropriately.
6. The questionnaires were clearly marked "Husband" and "Wife" on the cover to identify them for respondents. It was assumed that a high degree of integrity on the part of the subjects would lead them to respond personally and only if eligible.

Population and Sample

The population of the study was intact families in which either husband or wife was an administrator in a college and university belonging to the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC) in 1978. The 133 NASULGC institutions represented all 50 states, excluding the member institutions in Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands (Facts '78, 1978, pp. 2-3). NASULGC

institutions were chosen as they provided a national sample, had the commonality of being state-supported institutions, and had a large group of administrators from which a random sample could be drawn for purposes of statistical analysis.

The Education Directory, Colleges and Universities, 1978 (Podolsky and Smith, 1978) was the source of names and addresses of the population. The directory listed deans and directors of academic or research units and persons in central administration identified as chief administrative officers by their institution. The only administrative position not considered in the population was that of president or chancellor. In comparison with other administrative positions, women were underrepresented in the position of president or chancellor. In a 1976 survey by NASULGC, there was only one woman heading a NASULGC institution as president or chancellor (Phillips, 1976, p. 1).

A census was taken of all eligible women administrators with the exception of those who were assumed to be single because of being listed by the title of Miss. Women with the title of Miss were excluded as only married persons were qualified for the study. Those women listed with no title or status designation and those with the title or status of Dr., Mrs., or Ms. were selected to receive questionnaires. It was recognized as improbable that all of the 299 women administrators were married and living with their husbands and therefore eligible to be included in the study.

Male administrators listed in the directory outnumbered women administrators by nearly 10 to 1 with 2959 men listed. Since there was no way of predetermining the marital status (and therefore eligibility for the study) of the men, all were assumed to be eligible until

response indicated otherwise. The men were numbered from 1 to 2959. A computer program, Shuffle, printed a randomized list of the numbers 1 to 2959. The first 300 numbers on the list were chosen for the male sample. As with the female sample, only those eligible were ultimately included in the analysis.

Development of Questionnaires

Format of Questionnaires

Two forms of a questionnaire (See Appendix) were developed for assessment of time-management strategy use by husbands and wives in three family types. A husband's questionnaire and a wife's questionnaire were developed so there would be personal references to the subject's own roles and reference to the subject's spouse as the husband or wife. A graphic design was created for the front cover with "Husband" and "Wife" as part of the design. With this identification, subjects could select the appropriate questionnaire. The two questionnaires (one for husband and one for wife) had identical questions and format except for the personal references to the subject's own roles and reference to the subject's spouse as the husband or wife. Questions from four sections of the questionnaires were utilized in this study.

Role Demand Questions

The independent variable, the extent to which roles were perceived as being demanding of time, was assessed by the role-demand questions (See Questionnaire Part D, items 9 through 16 in Appendix). The role-

demand questions assessed the extent to which each of the eight roles listed was demanding of the subject's time.

The role demand questions were adapted from a questionnaire developed for the Family Research Center of Brigham Young University by Condie and Doan (1977, p. 7). Cornwall (1976) used the scale to assess demands on time associated with nine major life roles. Eight of those nine roles were used in this study, including income provider, performer of household tasks, husband or wife, participant in social and recreational activities, and participant in church or other religious activities.

The educational role in the questionnaire developed by Condie and Doan (1977) was deleted. Since all of the administrators in the present study and some of their husbands or wives were employed by educational institutions, the professional role as educator could have been confused with the personal educational role. In addition, graduate degrees were common prerequisites for the administrative positions. Requests for demands on time in educational roles would likely have yielded little information as the formal education of the administrators would be mostly completed. An administrator's current involvement in personal educational endeavors could have been informal in nature and thus might not be considered as part of the educational role.

Demands on time for the eight roles were scaled differently from the questionnaire of Condie and Doan (1977). A 100-point scale was used by Condie and Doan (1977), ranging from 0 for not at all demanding to 100 for extremely demanding. The subjects assigned any value from 0 to 100 to each role.

A pilot test of these questions on role demand with 10 couples revealed that responses clustered around increments of 5 and 10 on the scale. The couples reported difficulty in responding to such a broad scale of 0 to 100. The 100-point scale was revised to 11 points, from 0 to 10, so that it would be similar to the Likert-type seven-point scale used elsewhere in the questionnaire, yet different enough to discourage a response set among the respondents. A response of 0 was to be circled if the role was not at all demanding of the subject's time. Numbers 1 to 9 represented a continuum of being demanding of one's time with 10 being extremely demanding.

Role Reward Questions

The dependent variable was assessed by the role-reward questions (See Questionnaire Part D, items 1 through 8 in Appendix). The role-reward questions assessed the extent to which each of the eight life roles listed were perceived as being satisfying and rewarding. Like the role-demand questions, the role-reward questions were adapted from a questionnaire developed by Condie and Doan (1977). Adaptations included reducing the nine major life roles to the eight roles listed in the role-demand questions and changing the 100-point scale to the 11-point scale as was done with role demand. The subjects were instructed to circle 0 if the role was not at all rewarding. Numbers 1 to 9 indicated varying degrees of reward with 10 being extremely rewarding.

Time-Management Strategy Questions

Use of time-management strategies, measured by the time-management strategy questions (See Questionnaire Part A, Questions 1 through 22

and 35 in Appendix) was the intervening variable theorized as influencing the relationship between the independent variable, role demand and the dependent variable, role reward.

Chapter II contains a review of the literature on time-management strategies. The works of Toby (1952), Merton (1957), Goode (1960), Rapoport and Rapoport (1969), Hall (1972) and Cornwall (1976) identified time-management strategies for relieving the stress resulting from having to perform too many activities and tasks in a number of different roles.

In the present study, items were adapted from Hall (1972) and Cornwall (1976). Adaptations were made to reflect more accurately the dilemmas faced by families who maintain a variety of familial, career, and community responsibilities. A pilot test of 27 items designed to elicit information on the use of time-management strategies was conducted on December 9, 1978. Copies of the items were distributed to 45 persons who participated in two workshops at the Dual-Career-Working Families Conference at Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas. Responses were tallied and four items were eliminated because there was very little variation in response patterns among respondents. In a second pilot test with 10 couples, no such difficulties were encountered. The 23 remaining items were incorporated into the final questionnaire prepared for the study.

Items concerned with the use of time-management strategies were written to represent activities in home, employment, and community activities. Respondents who were not employed were asked to complete the first 14 items only. Those respondents who were employed were asked to complete the first 14 items which related to home activities

in addition to items 15 through 22 on employment activities. Item 35 was to be answered only by those who were parents.

Each item representing a time-management strategy was responded to on a seven-point Likert-type scale. Subjects indicated their degree of agreement or disagreement with items based on their personal experiences in various roles (such as husband or wife, parent, or income provider). Respondents were reminded that there were no right or wrong responses to the items; the right answers were what was true for them. The scale represented a continuum from a response of 1 for strongly disagree to 7 for strongly agree.

Demographic Information

Demographic information was obtained on each subject from questions in Part F of the questionnaire (See Appendix). Demographic questions and format were adapted from those suggested by Dillman (1978, pp. 135-135). Table II identifies the demographic-information items and the location of these items in Part F of the questionnaire (See Appendix) by the number of the question.

Collection of Data

Name and office address of administrators were obtained from Podolsky and Smith (1977). On April 13, 1979, a cover letter was mailed to administrators explaining the purpose of the study and requesting their participation. Each administrator was asked to share the letter (See Appendix) with his or her spouse and to arrange for the two of them to complete their questionnaires independently. A husband's

TABLE II
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Item	Item Number
Age of subject	1
Level of educational achievement	5
Number of children	6
Individual income	15

questionnaire, a wife's questionnaire, two postage-paid return envelopes (one for each questionnaire) and a gold form (for response by those not eligible) were included in the first mailing. The first and subsequent follow-up mailings were by first-class mail.

Eligibility for the study was limited to married couples. Those who were not married or were married but not currently living with their husband or wife were asked to return the gold response form (See Appendix) instead of the questionnaire. They did not receive follow-up mailings.

On April 20, 1979, one week after the original mailing of questionnaires, a post card reminder was sent to all 599 administrators. The post card (See Appendix) served as both a thank you for those who had responded and as a friendly and courteous reminder for those who had not yet responded.

Four weeks (May 11, 1979) after the mailing of the questionnaires, a second reminder (See Appendix) was mailed to nonrespondents. The letter, nearly the same in appearance as the original cover letter, stated again the purpose of the study and encouraged response to the questionnaires. As with the preceding post card reminder, an offer was made to send questionnaires to those who did not have them.

The final mailing was sent on June 11, 1979, eight weeks after the first set of questionnaires was mailed. The cover letter was similar to the one that preceded it (See Appendix). Replacement questionnaires with a postage-paid return envelope for each questionnaire and the gold form for noneligible administrators were enclosed.

Questionnaires received by August 8, 1979 were included in the study. Respondents fell into four categories: (1) not married or married but not living with husband or wife, (2) nonresponse for other reasons, (3) questionnaire received from either husband or wife, but not both, and (4) completed questionnaires from both husband and wife.

Questionnaires were received from 180 couples and 22 individuals whose spouses did not respond (Table III). 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 (Table III). 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, so their eligibility was unknown. Completed questionnaires were received from husband and wife from 180 couples, 41.6 percent.

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES

Response	Number	Percent
Original sampling units	599	100.0
Responded - not eligible	166	27.7
Responded - eligible	205	34.2
No response - eligibility unknown	228	38.1
Sampling units eligible or eligibility unknown	433	100.0
Completed questionnaires		
From husband and wife	180	41.6
From Husband or wife	22	5.1
Response indicating refusal	3	0.7
Nonresponse	228	52.7

Preparation of Data for Analysis

As questionnaires were being received, coding was begun on machine-readable forms. The data forms were read by a scanner machine located in the Oklahoma State University's Bureau of Tests and Measures which transferred the data to computer tape for analysis. Next, a printout of the raw data was checked for coding errors. The responses of each subject were reviewed, with comparison of the printout to questionnaires.

Analysis of Data

The first step in the analysis of data was factor analysis of responses to the items on role demand, role reward and time-management strategies to reduce and organize the data. The principal-components method of factor analysis was utilized. Initially, three factors were extracted for role demand and role reward with eight factors extracted for time-management strategies. For each variable, the varimax method was used to rotate the axis orthogonally, which resulted in three terminal factors for role demand and role reward and eight terminal factors for time-management strategies. The next step in the analysis of data was regression analysis utilizing the rotated factors from the factor analysis of role demand, role reward and time-management strategies. Mean scores of the items making up the factors were used as the scores on the factors in the regression analysis.

In the regression analysis, statistics were calculated in separate regressions for husbands and wives for each of three sets of roles, for each of three family types and for eight time-management strategies. The first statistic to be examined was the coefficient of

determination, the R^2 . The R^2 represented the proportion of the variation in the dependent variable explained by the independent variable or variables.

As the eight time-management strategies were introduced into the regressions individually, the difference in R^2 between the simple and subsequent multiple regression equations was calculated. This difference in explained variation was represented as ΔR^2 .

The simple unstandardized regression equation in which role demand was used to predict role reward was $Y = a + bX$. The dependent variable, role reward, was represented as Y . The intercept or constant on the Y axis is a . Role demand, the predictor variable, was X in the equation. Finally, the proportion of change in Y associated with a one unit change in X was b , Beta. In standard form, a change in the independent variable X of one standard deviation unit results in b standard deviation units change in Y , the dependent variable, on the average.

The multiple regression equations in which the time-management strategies were introduced individually and sequentially took the form of $Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2$. Like X in the simple regression model, X_1 represented the predictor variable, role demand. The time-management strategies were entered sequentially into the regression as X_2 , with b_2 indicating the proportion of Y associated with one unit of change in X_2 . As in the simple regression model, the data were standardized.

Three regression models were tested for statistical significance. Each model represented one of three sets of roles; family, employment and community. Within each set of roles and for husbands and wives in each family type, role demand was regressed on role reward for the

purpose of predicting role reward. Next, the eight identified time-management strategies were introduced into each regression model in order to assess the impact of each strategy on the relationship between role demand and role reward. These analyses were used to determine if the diagram (Figure 1) explained the relationships among three aspects of role behavior for husbands and wives in three family types, rather than for purposes of comparing the family types.

The hypothesis tested for husbands and for wives for each set of roles for each family type was: Scores on role demand in combination with a time-management strategy do not predict role reward. The three sets of roles were; family, employment and community. The three family types were one career, career earner and dual career. The eight time-management strategies were; the legitimate excuse, stalling until pressures subside, compartmentalization, empathy, barriers against intrusion, reducing responsibilities (on the job), delegation and organization. The exception to this procedure was that women in one-career families did not respond to items making up the strategy of reducing responsibilities. This strategy was concerned only with employment roles. For women in one-career families, the hypothesis was tested for only the other seven time-management strategies.

This study was part of a larger research project, Motivation and Management: A Nationwide Survey of Administrators and Their Families. Other reports of that project include Bird (1981) and others not completed at the time of this report.

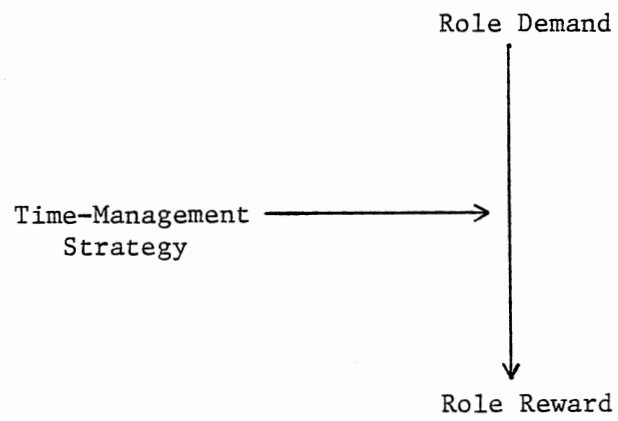


Figure 1. Diagram of Role Behavior
for Husbands and Wives
in Three Family Types

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

In this chapter, the sample is described in terms of several demographic characteristics (family type, age, level of educational achievement, number of children, and individual income). Then results of factor analysis of responses to the three sets of items to be analyzed (role demand, role reward, and time-management strategies) are described. Finally, results are reported of entering variables into regression analysis to test the effect of time-management strategies upon the relationship between role demand and role reward for three sets of roles (family, employment, and community).

Sample for Analysis

Usable responses were received from 360 subjects (180 husband-wife couples), but it was determined that not all couples could be used for analysis. The couples were categorized in three family types (one career, career earner, and dual career) described in Chapter II.

In the one-career family type, there were 64 couples (Table IV). Each family had one spouse in a career and one spouse who was not employed outside the home. Of those employed, 59 were men and five were

TABLE IV
CAREER STATUS BY FAMILY TYPE AND SEX

Career Status	<u>One Career</u>		<u>Career Earner</u>		<u>Dual Career</u>	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Career Employment	59	5 ^a	38	9 ^a	69	69
Non Employed	5 ^a	59				
Earner Employment			9 ^a	38		

^a Respondents removed from sample before further analysis.

women. Conversely, 59 of the non-employed persons were women and five were men.

Since the analysis was conducted on all men and all women in one-career families, it could be expected that career-employed men would respond differently from non-employed men on the items to be analyzed. The same differences could be expected between the career and non-employed women.

The non-employed men not experiencing the pressures of employment would not be expected to respond the same as career men on the extent of role reward or role demand, for employment, job or family activities. The same would be expected of the women. On this basis, since the five couples were a small part of the overall sample of one-career families and were too few in number to treat as a separate group representing one type of one-career family, they were dropped from the analysis. Thus, 59 one-career families were retained for analysis.

Similarly, in the career-earner families, 38 of the 47 men were employed in careers, while nine were employed in earner positions, not in careers (Table IV). Those nine men were married to career-employed women, while the 38 career men had wives employed in earner positions. The nine earner husbands and nine career wives would not be expected to experience the same extent of job pressures nor to respond to role demand and role reward the same as the other 38 couples. The 38 couples with career-employed husbands and wives employed in earner positions were retained for further analysis. The nine couples of the reverse pattern were dropped from analysis at this point because of their small number.

The dual-career family type proved to be an exception to the other family types. Since both husband and wife in each of the 69 couples

were employed in career positions (Table IV), all couples were retained for analysis.

The sample selected for analysis was composed of 332 persons. This included 59 one-career, 38 career-earner, and 69 dual-career couples.

Description of Subjects

Age

The median age of the men and women in one-career families was higher than for the other family types (Table V). There was a five year difference in median age among the men and seven years difference among the women in the three family types.

Proportionally, there were more one-career men and women in the oldest age range (age 60 - 69) than for the other family types (Table V). There was much less difference among family types in proportions in the youngest age range (age 28 - 39) as the one-career and dual-career families had almost the same percentages in that age range. The dual-career and career-earner families tended to be younger than the one-career families. Approximately one-half of the men and two-thirds of the women in dual-career and career-earner families were aged 49 or under; whereas, only 37 percent of the men and 45 percent of the women in one-career families were aged 49 or younger.

Educational Level

The level of educational achievement of subjects ranged from some college for career persons to the doctoral level (Table VI). For non-career persons, the range was much wider, from as high as a doctorate

TABLE V
AGE BY FAMILY TYPE AND SEX

Age	<u>One Career</u>		<u>Career Earner</u>		<u>Dual Career</u>	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
28 - 39	7 ^a	12	5	10	8	15
	(11.9) ^b	(20.3)	(13.2)	(26.3)	(11.6)	(21.7)
40 - 49	15	15	14	15	26	32
	(25.4)	(25.4)	(36.8)	(39.5)	(37.7)	(46.4)
50 - 59	23	20	15	11	23	18
	(39.0)	(33.9)	(39.5)	(28.9)	(33.3)	(26.1)
60 - 69	14	11	3	2	12	4
	(23.7)	(18.6)	(7.9)	(5.3)	(17.4)	(5.8)
Unknown ^c		1	1			

^aFrequency.

^bPercentage.

^cAge not specified.

TABLE VI
LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT BY FAMILY TYPE AND SEX

Level of Educational Achievement	One Career		Career Earner		Dual Career	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Some High School		1 ^a (1.7) ^b				
Completed High School		7 (11.9)		2 (5.3)	2 (2.9)	2 (2.9)
Some Technical or Vocational Training		2 (3.4)		1 (2.6)		
Completed Technical or Vocational Training						1 (1.4)
Some College	1 (1.7)	18 (30.5)		6 (15.8)	3 (4.3)	2 (2.9)
Associate Degree						1 (1.4)
Bachelor's Degree	8 (13.6)	14 (23.7)	6 (15.8)	13 (34.2)	8 (11.6)	11 (15.9)
Some Graduate Work	1 (1.7)	2 (3.4)		3 (7.9)	2 (2.9)	3 (4.3)
Master's Degree	16 (27.1)	12 (20.3)	5 (13.2)	11 (28.9)	16 (23.2)	27 (39.1)
Doctoral Degree	33 (55.9)	1 (1.7)	26 (68.4)	2 (5.3)	37 (53.6)	22 (31.9)
Unknown ^c						

^aFrequency.

^bPercentage.

^cEducational level not specified.

to some high school. The widest range was among non-employed women, from some high school to one woman having a doctoral degree.

Career men in the career-earner families ranged in education from a bachelor's degree to a doctorate (Table VI). Men in dual-career families ranged from a high school education to the doctoral level, the same as their wives. The range for wives in career-earner families was from a high school diploma to a doctoral degree.

Of the 332 subjects, a majority (62.5 percent) had a graduate degree (Table VI), regardless of their employment status. Including the 71 subjects (21.9 percent) with a bachelor's degree but less than a master's, 279 (84 percent) of the sample had at least a bachelor's degree.

Another 31 subjects (9.34 percent) reported attending some college or had an associate degree (Table VI). Only four persons had completed technical or vocational training or had some technical or vocational training as their highest level of education and all four were women. An additional 13 persons (less than five percent) listed high school as their highest level of educational achievement. Only one person reported having some high school and four more did not report their educational level.

Children

The number of children illustrated some differences among the family types. Women in dual-career families were more likely to be childless than were women in the other two family types (Table VII). Wives in career-earner families were likely to have less than two children than were the other family types.

TABLE VII
NUMBER OF CHILDREN BY FAMILY TYPE AND SEX

Number of Children Per Family	<u>One Career</u>		<u>Career Earner</u>		<u>Dual Career</u>	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
None	3 ^a 5.1 ^b	5 8.5	5 13.2	5 13.2	10 14.5	13 18.8
One	5 8.5	5 8.5	7 18.4	7 18.4	7 7.3	7 7.3
Two	25 42.4	26 44.1	9 23.7	9 23.7	26 37.7	27 39.1
Three	13 22.0	12 20.3	10 26.3	12 31.6	15 21.7	15 21.7
Four	8 13.6	7 11.9	6 15.8	6 13.2	10 14.5	7 11.2
Five	2 3.4	2 3.4			3 4.4	2 2.9
Six	2 3.4	2 3.4	1 2.6			
Seven	1 1.7					

^aFrequency.

^bPercentage.

In each family type, there was some disagreement between husbands and wives on the number of children per family (Table VII). This disagreement was possibly the result of divorce and remarriage. One spouse may have counted children only from the present marriage while the other spouse included children from a previous marriage as well as the current marriage. There was enough agreement though, to indicate that one-career families tended to have more children than the other family patterns. The one-career families had the highest range of up to seven children, while the career-earner families had a maximum of six and the dual-career families had the smallest range, up to five children.

Individual Income

All men in the study were classified as having career-status employment. This probably accounted for less variation in their individual incomes as compared with the women (Table VIII). The men in the career-earner and one-career families reported the highest incomes, with the yearly median income in the \$35,000 to \$39,999 category. The men in dual-career families had a broader range of incomes than did the other groups of men. More men in dual-career families reported earnings at lower levels and fewer at higher levels of income which resulted in a lower median yearly income (\$25,000 to \$29,999).

The median yearly income of women varied directly with their employment status (Table VIII). Due to their non-employment status, the women in one-career families did not have any income. The women in career-earner families had the widest range of incomes, from less than

TABLE VIII
INDIVIDUAL INCOME BY FAMILY TYPE AND SEX

Individual Income	<u>One Career</u>		<u>Career Earner</u>		<u>Dual Career</u>	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Less than \$5,000			20 ^a (52.6) ^b		2 (2.9)	
\$ 5,000 - \$ 6,999			4 (10.5)			
\$ 7,000 - \$ 9,999			4 (10.5)		2 (10.5)	
\$10,000 - \$12,999			2 (5.3)		6 (8.7)	
\$13,000 - \$15,999	1 (1.7)		4 (10.5)		2 (2.9)	10 (14.5)
\$16,000 - \$19,999	2 (3.4)		1 (2.6)		5 (7.3)	12 (17.4)
\$20,000 - \$24,999	3 (5.1)		1 (2.6)		13 (18.8)	14 (20.3)
\$25,000 - \$29,999	7 (11.9)		10 (26.3)	1 (2.6)	20 (29.0)	7 (10.1)
\$30,000 - \$34,999	6 (10.2)		5 (13.2)		6 (8.7)	4 (5.8)
\$35,000 - \$39,999	6 (10.2)		6 (13.2)		9 (13.0)	4 (5.8)
\$40,000 - \$44,999	15 (25.4)		6 (15.8)		5 (7.3)	3 (4.4)
\$45,000 - \$49,999	7 (11.9)		6 (15.8)		2 (2.9)	1 (1.5)
\$50,000 and Over	4 (6.8)		4 (10.5)		3 (4.4)	1 (1.5)
Unknown ^c	8		1	2	4	3

^aFrequency.

^bPercent.

^cIndividual income not specified.

\$5000 to the \$25,000 to \$29,999 income bracket. Since 20 of the women in career-earner families earned less than \$5000, this was also their median yearly income as a group. The career women in the dual-career families had a much higher median yearly income than the earner women. Those career-employed women reported their yearly income had a median in the \$20,000 to \$24,999 bracket. Their income was much lower than that of the career-oriented men in each of the family types, but was closer to the median income of the men in dual-career families than to the other men.

Role Demand

Means and standard deviations were computed on responses of subjects to indicate the extent to which each of eight life roles was demanding. On a scale from 0 to 10 with 10 being the most demanding, the income-provider role was judged to be the most demanding of time with a mean score of 7.03 (Table IX). Being a participant in church or other religious activities was the least demanding with a mean score of 2.61.

In the factor analysis of role demand, factor loadings, for the first unrotated factor ranged from .44 to .72 except for the income-provider role which had a loading of only .08 (Table IX). From this first unrotated factor there appeared to be a moderate to relatively high relationship among demands for seven of the eight roles.

After orthogonal rotation, six of the eight roles loaded strongly on only a single factor. Of the two remaining roles, the role of being a member of professional organizations loaded .68 on factor

TABLE IX
FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ROLE DEMAND QUESTIONS

Roles	Mean ^a	Std dev	Factor 1 unrotated	Factor 1 rotated	Factor 2 rotated	Factor 3 rotated
				Community	Employment	Family
Community Services	3.6	2.79	.79	<u>.82^b</u>	.11	.06
Social	4.09	3.40	.66	<u>.66</u>	-.04	.21
Religious	2.61	3.06	.64	<u>.73</u>	-.05	.07
Income Provider	7.03	3.39	.08	-.07	<u>.89</u>	.06
Professional	4.03	2.91	.55	.51	<u>.68</u>	.10
Household Tasks ^c	5.63	2.60	.44	.25	-.54	.53
Wife or Husband	6.82	2.48	.61	.19	.00	<u>.81</u>
Parent	6.40	3.27	.46	.03	.09	<u>.76</u>

N = 360

Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
2.01 ^d	1.57	1.57
25.1% ^e	19.6%	19.6% = 64.3% of total variation explained by eight items in three factors.

^aAll items were coded from 0 - 10 with 0 representing "Not at all Demanding"; 10 "Extremely Demanding"; and 1 - 9 varying degrees to which roles are demanding.

^bHighest factor loading for each role is underlined.

^cHousehold tasks loaded approximately the same on two factors; therefore it was not included in either factor for further analysis.

^dEigenvalue.

^eProportion of total variance accounted for by the rotated factor.

two and .51 on factor one. The difference of .17 and the relatively high loading of .68 justified classifying the role of being a member of professional organizations in factor two.

The eighth role, that of performer of household tasks loaded at nearly the same level on two factors (Table IX). It loaded .53 on factor three with the roles of spouse and parent and -.54 on factor two, with income provider and member of professional organizations. Performing household tasks appears to be the opposite of the roles of being an income provider and a professional. The loading of -.54 indicated that performing household tasks was less demanding than the other roles in the employment factor. The loading of .53 indicated household tasks were more demanding (factor three) as the roles of spouse and parent also become more demanding.

Other studies have confronted similar situations regarding the role of performing household tasks. Slocum and Nye (1976) noted that this role comprises the parent role and many activities of being a wife. Hall (1972) found many women unable to distinguish the performance of household tasks from the other roles of wife and parent. From analysis of the same subjects in the present study, Bird (1981) concluded that husbands of employed wives are more likely to share household tasks than are the husbands of non-employed wives. For husbands of employed wives, the roles of husband and parent may also be somewhat synonymous with the role of performing household tasks.

The literature cited above supports the idea that the roles of parent and wife/husband include the activities of performing household tasks. With nearly equal loadings on two factors, the role of performer of household tasks was dropped from further analysis, but the

activities involved appeared to be retained in factor three which included the roles of parent and wife/husband.

Factor one (Table IX) was composed of the roles of being a participant in (1) community services, (2) social and recreation activities, and (3) church or other religious activities. These three roles did not load highly with either of the other two factors, but did load highly on the first factor. They represent a separate factor of activities performed away from the job and outside of the familial roles. Factor one was named the Community factor.

Factor two (Table IX) was judged to be the Employment factor. It included (1) the income-provider role and the role of being a member of professional organizations. The remaining roles loaded on the third factor, representing Family. This family factor included the (1) role of husband or wife and (2) role of parent. Factors one, two, and three explained 64.3 percent of the total variation (Table IX).

Role Reward

Role reward was composed of the same eight roles as for role demand. While the income-provider role was judged to be the most demanding by having the highest mean score, this was only the third most rewarding role with a mean of 7.61 on a scale of 0 to 10, with 10 representing the most rewarding (Table X). The role of husband or wife proved to be the most rewarding with a mean score of 8.71. Parenting was scored the second most rewarding with a mean of 8.24.

TABLE X
FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ROLE REWARD QUESTIONS

Roles	Mean ^a	Std dev	Factor 1 unrotated	Factor 1 rotated	Factor 2 rotated	Factor 3 rotated
				Community	Employment	Family
Community Services	5.14	3.05	.73	<u>.72</u> ^b	.23	.22
Social	6.66	2.67	.43	<u>.71</u>	.05	-.16
Religious	4.91	3.74	.65	<u>.74</u>	-.05	.28
Income Provider	7.61	2.92	.36	-.06	<u>.87</u>	.02
Professional	4.03	3.27	.64	.32	<u>.77</u>	.13
Household Tasks ^c	5.54	2.66	.37	.23	-.24	.56
Wife or Husband	8.71	1.81	.54	.08	.16	<u>.73</u>
Parent	8.24	2.84	.47	-.03	.15	<u>.74</u>

N = 360

Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1.74 ^d	1.51	1.56
21.8% ^e	18.88%	19.5%

= 60.18% of total variation explained by eight items in three factors.

^aAll items were coded from 0 - 10 with 0 representing "Not at all Rewarding"; 10 "Extremely Rewarding"; and 1 - 9 varying degrees to which role are rewarding.

^bHighest factor loading for each role is underlined.

^cHousehold tasks were not included in any factor for further analysis.

^dEigenvalue.

^eProportion of total variance accounted for by the rotated factor.

Being a participant in church or other religious activities was relatively consistent in being the least demanding (mean = 2.61) and also the next to least rewarding (mean = 4.91). It was rated by the subjects to be more rewarding than demanding.

Three initial factors resulted from the factor analysis. Factor loadings for the eight roles on the first unrotated factor ranged from .36 to .74. All roles loaded at least moderately to strongly on the first unrotated factor (Table X). After orthogonal rotation of the axis, three factors remained.

Factor one, rotated, was the Community factor (Table X). It was composed of roles performed away from jobs and home. The three roles were performing as a participant in (1) community services, (2) social and recreational activities, and (3) church or other religious activities. After rotation, factor two represented the Employment factor: the (1) income-provider role combined with that of (2) member of professional organizations.

The role of performer of household tasks loaded strongly only on the third factor, at .56. It loaded .23 on factor one and had a -.24 loading on factor two. The negative loading on role reward was the same as for role demand in regard to factor two.

There was an adequate difference between the factor loadings of household tasks on factors two (-.24) and three (.56) to include the items in factor three (Table X). However, for consistency in the regression analysis conducted later, factor three needed to contain the same items for both role reward and role demand. Therefore, as

for role demand, factor three for role reward, Family, consisted of the roles of (1) husband or wife and (2) parent.

The three factors formed by the factor analysis of the role reward questions explained 60.18 percent of the total variation. This was slightly less than the 64.3 percent explained by factor analysis of role demand.

Time-Management Strategies

The third and last of the sets of items analyzed in this study, measured the extent of use of time-management strategies by husbands and wives in all three family types. Use of time-management strategies (TMS) was measured by items A1 to A22 and A35 (See Appendix).

Not all subjects responded to all TMS items. Items A1 through A14 were designed for all respondents to answer, while items A15 through A22 were only to be answered by those individuals who were employed. The women in one-career families were not employed and did not respond to items A15 through A22. Item A35 was to be answered only by those who were parents.

The 23 TMS items were factor analyzed, which resulted in eight unrotated factors (Table XI). Factor loadings for the first unrotated factor ranged from $-.02$ to $.59$. From this variability it may be concluded that the TMS items were not an overall time-management strategy. Rather, it could be concluded that these items constituted several distinctive strategies.

Orthogonal rotation of the axis resulted in eight terminal factors (Table XI). Of the 23 TMS items, 19 loaded strongly on only a single factor. Items A2 and A14 loaded strongly on Factor one. Three items,

TABLE XI
FACTOR ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT QUESTIONS

Item	Mean ^a	Standard deviation	Factor 1 unrotated	Factor 1 rotated	Factor 2 rotated	Factor 3 rotated	Factor 4 rotated	Factor 5 rotated	Factor 6 rotated	Factor 7 rotated	Factor 8 rotated
A2	3.92	1.88	.56	<u>.76^b</u>	.12	.06	-.05	.09	.05	-.05	.12
A7 ^c	5.33	1.59	.04	.40	.26	-.30	.14	-.04	-.20	.12	.11
A11 ^c	2.67	1.73	.54	.41	.17	.27	.02	-.07	.20	-.18	-.13
A14	3.18	1.83	.56	<u>.72</u>	.03	.06	-.17	.06	.11	.03	-.14
A15 ^d	2.03	1.50	.59	.45	-.03	.18	.00	-.00	.34	-.09	-.31
A1	4.62	1.68	.27	.07	<u>.81</u>	.04	.06	.07	-.03	.04	.12
A5	4.51	1.85	.46	.18	<u>.76</u>	.04	-.08	.12	.18	.02	.03
A3	4.06	1.87	.34	.05	.08	<u>.55</u>	.09	-.09	.19	.24	.23
A12	3.24	1.89	.52	.35	.22	<u>.54</u>	.12	-.17	-.00	.16	-.15
A16	3.65	2.02	.48	.06	-.04	<u>.73</u>	-.01	.21	.06	-.09	-.18
A20	4.09	1.80	.38	.00	.00	<u>.75</u>	-.01	.09	.09	-.06	.17
A22	5.78	1.72	-.07	-.05	-.02	.02	<u>.90</u>	.04	-.04	.04	.05
A35	5.96	1.55	-.02	-.07	.02	.05	<u>.88</u>	.01	.04	.02	.04
A9	4.52	1.95	.31	.07	.14	.06	.11	<u>.76</u>	.15	-.01	.05
A10	4.47	1.85	.11	-.10	.19	.21	-.14	<u>.58</u>	-.19	.16	-.01
A18 ^c	4.40	1.96	.22	.42	-.21	-.23	.10	.55	.17	-.01	.22
A17	2.38	1.61	.50	.31	.02	.02	-.01	-.18	<u>.59</u>	.21	-.18
A19	3.06	1.77	.52	-.03	.35	.09	.04	.25	<u>.66</u>	.01	-.09
A21	2.57	1.73	.31	.09	-.05	.17	-.02	.05	<u>.77</u>	-.09	.06
A8	4.95	1.67	-.17	.16	.17	-.09	-.06	-.01	-.01	<u>.70</u>	.28
A13	2.91	2.04	.11	.07	-.07	.09	.11	.11	.12	<u>.76</u>	-.12
A4	5.67	1.38	-.25	-.11	-.02	.06	-.00	.11	-.08	.09	<u>.81</u>
A6	6.03	1.19	-.18	-.06	.16	.02	.10	.01	-.03	-.03	<u>.80</u>

N = 360

Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8
2.13 ^d	1.68	2.06	1.73	1.47	1.76	1.32	1.78
9.26% ^a	7.30%	8.96%	7.52%	6.39%	7.65%	5.73%	7.73%

= 60.54% of total variation explained by 23 items in three factors.

^aAll items were coded from 1 - 7 with 1 representing "Strongly Disagree"; 7 "Strongly Agree"; and 2 - 6 varying degrees of agreement with the item.

^bHighest factor loading for each role is underlined.

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

^dEigenvalue.

^aProportion of total variance accounted for by the rotated factor.

A7, A11, and A15 loaded highest on factor one, but the loadings were lower than for the other two items, in the range of .40 to .45.

In addition, item A7, which loaded .40 on factor one, loaded $-.30$ on factor three and .26 on factor two (Table XI). Item A15 loaded .34 on factor six, .31 on factor eight, and .45 on factor one. Considering the relatively low loadings (.40 to .45) on factor one, the secondary loadings on other factors suggested that these three items be deleted from factor one and not be used in the regression analysis.

The remaining two items (A2 and A14) with loadings of .76 and .72 were stronger representatives of factor one than were the original five items. Items A2 and A14 had in common with the deleted items, some justifiable reason for not fulfilling tasks or obligations which were disliked. Sanctions by one's spouse or co-workers were avoided through assertion that an equally high or higher claim or an unforeseen event prevented fulfillment of the obligation. The common theme of the items in factor one was using an excuse to avoid selected obligations. Therefore, factor one was named The Legitimate Excuse (Table XII).

Factor two was composed of two items which had in common too many things to do and too little time to complete them. Selected tasks would be put off until a later time. This strategy was identified as stalling until pressures subside and was labeled, Stalling (Table XII).

A common element in factor three was the separation of the job from family life. It dealt with performing varying expectations in different roles by keeping family and employment separated from each other. In keeping family and job apart, there was Compartmentalization (Table XII), the title given factor three.

TABLE XII
TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGY FACTORS

Name of Factor	Factor Number	Time Management Strategy Question	Factor Loadings
The Legitimate Excuse	1	A 2 Tasks I am required to do allow me to legitimately avoid tasks I dislike.	.76
		A14 I can find legitimate excuses to keep from fulfilling obligations I dislike.	.72
Stalling (until pressures subside)	2	A 1 When asked to do too many things at the same time, it doesn't bother me to postpone certain ones.	.81
		A 5 I don't mind putting off certain tasks that I don't have time to do.	.76
Compartmentalization	3	A 3 I make definite plans for leisure so that my duties cannot interfere.	.55
		A12 If my responsibilities and pressures become too great I put my work aside until I feel I am ready to continue.	.54
		A16 I don't take my work home so that I can spend time with my family.	.73
		A20 I separate my work life from my family so that I can concentrate my efforts in one area at a time.	.75
Empathy	4	A22 My job responsibilities are made easier because of the support I get from my wife/husband.	.90
		A35 My parenting responsibilities are made easier because of the support I receive from my wife/husband.	.88
Barriers Against Intrusion	5	A 9 I can easily say "No" when asked to assume additional responsibilities in community organizations.	.76
		A10 When I am busy, I arrange for people to be informed that I am not available.	.58
Reducing Responsibilities	6	A17 If my job demands become too great, I change my standards of job performance.	.59
		A19 I can easily say "No" when asked to assume an overload of responsibilities of my job.	.66
		A21 My home responsibilities justify my not accepting more responsibilities on the job.	.77
Delegation	7	A 8 Certain tasks that I don't have time to do, I assign to others.	.70
		A13 When my time is limited at home, I hire someone to take care of the overload.	.76
Organization	8	A 4 When I am pressured to do many things at once, I organize and plan my time.	.81
		A 6 When increased demands are made of me, I set priorities and do the most important things first.	.80

Items A22 and A35, which made up factor four, were unique from the rest of the TMS items. As shown in Table XI, these items had two of the lowest loadings on the first, unrotated factor. Loadings of $-.07$ for item A22 and $-.02$ for item A35 indicated virtually no relationship with the other TMS items.

Factor four (Table XII) was made up of two items not related to the other items, but very highly related to each other. This factor was composed of items which stated that either job responsibilities or parenting responsibilities were made easier because of support received from the spouse. This support was a somewhat intangible factor which was entitled Empathy.

Factor five dealt with a method of accomplishing set goals by performing current or required tasks or activities without assuming additional responsibilities or letting other persons intrude when busy. This was true especially in not letting community activities intrude upon other responsibilities. This involved setting up Barriers Against Intrusion, the title assigned to factor five (Table XII).

Three items loaded strongly on factor five (Table XII). However, item A18 not only loaded ($.58$) on factor five but also loaded ($.42$) on factor one. Since the loading of A18 was moderately strong on two factors, it was deleted from further analysis. The remaining two items loaded strongly on factor five and represented the concepts of that factor, Barriers Against Intrusion (Table XII).

The sixth factor involved three items related to preventing an overload of activities on the job. This factor involved doing less on the job by refusing to accept an overload of work or changing standards if there was too much to do. The third part of the factor was pleading

an overload of home responsibilities. Thus, factor six (Table XII) was named Reducing Responsibilities (on the job).

Factor seven (Table XII) represented a different approach to an overload of activities. If there was too much to do, have someone else do it. Extra help could be hired to perform household tasks. Tasks at home or on the job could be assigned to others, family members or subordinates on the job, respectively. This time-management strategy was entitled Delegation.

The last factor, number eight, involved taking advantage of an ability to reduce demands while under pressure (Table XII). This TMS utilized the skills of better planning and scheduling to increase the efficiency of role performance. This was named Organization (of work for increased output and improved efficiency).

Regression Analysis of Family Roles

Men in One-Career Families

In the simple regression model for family roles, role demand was a significant predictor of role reward (Table XIII). The explained variation R^2 , was .16 ($p \leq .01$). Thus 16 percent of variation in role reward of family roles was explained by role demand for men in one-career families. A standardized Beta of .40 meant that as scores on role demand increased one standard deviation unit, role reward increased .40 standard deviation units.

As the eight TMS were introduced sequentially into the regression model, all resulting multiple regressions were significant ($p \leq .01$). In only one regression did the introduction of a TMS increase the R^2

TABLE XIII
REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR FAMILY ROLES OF
MEN IN ONE-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.16	---	.40**	10.61**
Role Demand The Excuse	.18	.02	.40** -.15	6.14**
Role Demand Stalling	.16	.00	.41** -.06	5.36**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.16	.00	.40** .06	5.36**
Role Demand Empathy	.41	.25	.29** .50**	18.73**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.16	.00	.40** .00	5.21**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.17	.01	.41** -.09	5.29**
Role Demand Delegation	.16	.00	.39** -.01	5.22**
Role Demand Organization	.16	.00	.40** -.02	5.22**

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
N = 59

**p \leq .01
*p \leq .05

significantly, to .41 ($p \leq .01$). The TMS was empathy, with 41 percent of the variation in role reward explained by role demand and empathy.

Empathy increased R^2 by 25 percentage points. The relatively strong relationship of empathy to role reward was indicated by a standardized Beta of .50 for empathy, making empathy the largest contributor to role reward (Table XIII). The standardized Beta of .50 meant that while controlling for demand, a one unit increase in empathy was associated with an increase in role reward of .50 units, on the average.

For the men in one-career families, the support they received from their non-employed wives greatly increased the reward received from their roles as parent and husband. The mean of 6.20 (Table XIV) for empathy was higher than the mean scores for the other TMS, indicating a higher extent of use of empathy as compared to other strategies.

No other strategy increased R^2 significantly at $p \leq .05$. The excuse strategy had the next greatest contribution, increasing R^2 by two percentage points. All remaining TMS increased R^2 by less than one percentage point.

Women in One-Career Families

For women in one-career families, role demand was a significant predictor of role reward for family roles (Table XV). The explained variation, R^2 , was 20 percent ($p \leq .01$). Role demand had a Beta of .44, so that as role demand increased one unit, role reward increased .44 units.

Since these women were not employed, they did not respond to items making up the strategy, reducing responsibilities. For the remaining

TABLE XIV
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGY FACTORS

Strategy	<u>One-Career</u>		<u>Career-Earner</u>		<u>Dual-Career</u>	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
The Excuse	3.08 ^a	4.06	3.22	3.31	3.48	3.69
	1.51 ^b	1.67	1.40	1.49	1.37	1.66
Stalling	4.40	4.39	4.61	4.61	4.86	4.45
	1.51	1.62	1.65	1.43	1.38	1.55
Compartment- alization	3.52	3.89	3.88	4.43	3.69	3.38
	1.16	1.72	1.12	1.11	1.31	1.55
Empathy	6.20	5.86	5.66	6.09	5.78	5.83
	1.34	1.62	1.43	1.64	1.54	1.54
Barriers	4.58	4.50	4.38	4.80	4.51	4.10
	1.25	1.72	1.35	1.73	1.15	1.21
Reducing Re- sponsibilities	2.65	5.33	2.78	3.02	2.73	2.33
	1.21	1.15	1.03	1.53	1.15	1.21
Delegation	4.25	2.60	4.14	4.04	4.18	4.28
	.99	1.28	1.27	1.51	1.23	1.65
Organization	5.93	5.75	5.71	5.89	5.70	6.07
	1.02	1.31	1.05	1.12	1.24	1.00

^aNumbers in first row for each strategy are mean scores.

^bNumbers in second row for each strategy are standard deviations.

TABLE XV
REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR FAMILY ROLES OF
WOMEN IN ONE-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.20	---	.44**	13.13**
Role Demand The Excuse	.25	.05	.50** -.24*	8.72**
Role Demand Stalling	.20	.00	.44** -.07	6.62**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.20	.00	.45** -.02	6.45**
Role Demand Empathy	.20	.00	.41** .27	5.21**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.20	.00	.44** -.06	6.59**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	Women in one-career families did not respond to items in this factor			
Role Demand Delegation	.25	.05	.43** -.24*	8.89**
Role Demand Organization	.20	.00	.44** .00	6.44**

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
N = 59

**p \leq .01
*p \leq .05

seven TMS, the multiple regressions were significant ($p \leq .01$) although only two of the strategies increased R^2 significantly (Table XV).

The strategy of delegation had an R^2 of 25 percent. This was an increase in the explained variation of role reward by five percentage points. The Beta of $-.24$ ($p \leq .01$) indicated that when controlling for demand, as scores on delegation decreased one unit (expressing disagreement with the items making up the factor of delegation) role reward increased .24 units.

This relationship between role reward, role demand, and delegation was explained by the rather low mean scores for delegation and the high mean scores for role reward and role demand for family roles. These women in one-career families who were not employed had the highest mean score (7.09) of any group for role demand for family roles (Table XVI). This was their most demanding set of roles. Similarly, role reward on family roles was their most rewarding set of roles (mean = 8.65).

Since family roles were the women's rewarding roles, their tasks and responsibilities were much less likely to be delegated to other persons. This is evident from the low mean score of 2.60 for delegation (Table XIV).

The legitimate excuse increased R^2 five percentage points to 25 percent explained variation ($p \leq .05$). This TMS operated very much like delegation. The Beta value of $-.24$ indicated that as the use of the excuse strategy decreased one unit, role reward on family roles increased .24 units on the average (Table XV). Although the mean score of the excuse was not as low as for delegation, the mean of the excuse was 4.06, the third lowest among the strategies. Again, as for

TABLE XVI

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ON ROLE DEMAND AND ROLE
REWARD ON FAMILY, EMPLOYMENT AND COMMUNITY ROLES

Demand and Reward of Roles	<u>One Career</u>		<u>Career Earner</u>		<u>Dual Career</u>	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Family Roles						
Role Demand	6.30 ^a	7.09	6.63	6.81	6.07	6.47
	2.70 ^b	2.70	2.24	2.63	2.50	2.27
Role Reward	8.67	8.65	8.45	8.78	8.51	8.23
	1.73	1.90	1.73	2.03	1.77	2.02
Employment Roles						
Role Demand	6.96	1.62	6.83	3.63	6.54	6.60
	1.61	2.18	1.88	2.48	1.75	1.88
Role Reward	8.02	3.62	7.39	5.37	7.46	7.43
	1.58	3.37	1.71	2.94	1.76	2.12
Community Roles						
Role Demand	3.73	3.86	4.07	3.71	3.83	3.45
	2.05	2.29	2.07	1.93	2.26	2.02
Role Reward	5.70	6.13	5.75	6.31	5.46	5.16
	2.23	2.38	2.24	2.07	2.35	2.43

^aNumbers in first row for each category of role demand and role reward are mean scores.

^bNumbers in second row for each category of role demand and role reward are standard deviations.

delegation, these non-employed women were less likely to find excuses to avoid their family roles which were so rewarding to them.

The remaining six strategies did not increase role reward for family roles significantly. In fact, there was no change in R^2 for all six strategies.

Men in Career-Earner Families

In the family roles model, demand was significant ($p \leq .01$) in predicting reward (Table XVII). Demand was a good predictor with a Beta of .60, explaining 36 percent of variation. Only one strategy significantly increased reward, the excuse. R^2 was increased by seven percentage points to 43 percent ($p \leq .05$). The negative Beta of -.26 indicated an inverse relationship with reward. The mean of the excuse was 3.22 (Table XIV). While not the lowest mean of the strategies, it had greater variation than reducing responsibilities with a mean of 2.78. Thus, the men in career-earner families tended not to use legitimate excuses to avoid performing tasks and responsibilities they disliked doing.

The husbands in career-earner families were the only group of men to rate family roles both the most demanding and the most rewarding. This was a different pattern from the other career-employed men who perceived their highest demand from employment with their highest reward from family roles. Thus these men in career-earner families associated the completion of tasks and responsibilities, with increased role reward in their family roles.

None of the other seven strategies significantly increased reward (Table XVII). Of those TMS, empathy increased reward the most, also by

TABLE XVII

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR FAMILY ROLES OF
MEN IN CAREER-EARNER FAMILIES

Independent variables	ΔR^2	R^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.36	---	.60**	20.35**
Role Demand The Excuse	.43	.07	.60** -.26*	13.14**
Role Demand Stalling	.36	.00	.60** .06	10.04**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.37	.01	.59** .06	10.06**
Role Demand Empathy	.42	.07	.63** .13	12.25**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.37	.01	.60** -.12	10.47**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.40	.04	.63** .02	11.39**
Role Demand Delegation	.38 .38	.02 .02	.59** -.15	10.83**
Role Demand Organization	.36	.00	.60** .00	9.89**

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
N = 38

**p \leq .01

*p \leq .05

seven percentage points. This was the same difference in R^2 as for the excuse, but the increase was not significant. The Beta for empathy was only .13 as compared to a Beta of -.26 for the excuse. Empathy contributed proportionately less to explained variation than did the excuse. All other strategies increased R^2 by four percentage points or less.

Women in Career-Earner Families

For the family model, the regression equation for demand predicting reward was not significant (Table XVIII) with only four percent of variation explained by demand. The Beta of .20 indicated little relationship between demand and reward on family roles for the women in career-earner families. For seven of the eight strategies, the model was also not significant, with R^2 increased five percentage points or less.

One TMS, empathy, did produce a significant regression for this model (Table XVIII). Controlling for demand, R^2 was increased by 11 percentage points to 15 percent ($p \leq .05$). In this regression, the Beta for demand was increased slightly from .20 to .28, making demand significant at the .10 level. The Beta of .34 indicated that empathy had a stronger relationship to reward and contributed more to explained variation than did demand.

The wives in career-earner families stated that the emotional support they received from their husbands made their job and parenting responsibilities easier. Their mean score of 6.09 on empathy (Table XIV) was the highest mean of any strategy for them. It was second only to the mean on empathy for the wives in one-career families which was the highest mean score on TMS for any group of men or women.

TABLE XVIII

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
 DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR FAMILY ROLES OF
 WOMEN IN CAREER-EARNER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.04	---	.20	1.50
Role Demand	.04	.00	.20	.73
The Excuse			-.01	
Role Demand	.05	.01	.22	.92
Stalling			.10	
Role Demand	.08	.04	.23	1.47
Compartmentalization			.20	
Role Demand	.15	.11	.28+	3.08*
Empathy			.34*	
Role Demand	.08	.04	.20	1.50
Barriers Against Intrusion			.20	
Role Demand	.09	.05	.30	1.24
Reducing Responsibilities			.00	
Role Demand	.04	.00	.20	.78
Delegation			.05	
Role Demand	.04	.00	.20	.77
Organization			.05	

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
 N = 38

**p < .01

*p < .05

+p < .10

Men in Dual-Career Families

Though explained variation was relatively small, 15 percent ($p \leq .01$), role demand was a significant predictor of role reward (Table XIX). All regression equations involving TMS were significant ($p \leq .01$), but four TMS did not increase R^2 significantly. Thus four strategies did increase explained variation significantly, when controlling for demand.

The largest increase in role reward ($R^2 = 23$ percent) was for the strategy, empathy. Empathy increased R^2 by eight percentage points ($p \leq .01$). The Beta for role demand increased slightly from .39 to .41 and Beta for empathy was .29. Every unit increase in empathy resulted in an increase of role reward by .29 units, on the average.

With an R^2 of 23 percent and an increase in R^2 of seven percentage points ($p \leq .01$), the strategy of reducing responsibilities explained the next most variation (Table XIX). The Beta of $-.28$ connotes an inverse relationship. The mean score for men in dual-career families on reducing responsibilities was 2.73, the lowest score for them on the strategies. Such a low score indicated little use of that strategy. These men were not likely to change their standard of performance on the job or plead home responsibilities to reduce job responsibilities. This is also indicated by the high mean score on demand for employment roles (Table XVI). The low score on reducing responsibilities meant that fulfilling their job requirements was important to them and that success led to increased role reward of family roles.

The legitimate excuse had a relationship to role reward similar to that of reducing responsibilities. The explained variation increased

TABLE XIX
REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR FAMILY ROLES OF
MEN IN DUAL-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.15	---	.39**	11.35**
Role Demand The Excuse	.20	.05	.37** -.23*	8.11**
Role Demand Stalling	.16	.01	.37** -.07	5.78**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.20	.05	.37** -.21	7.68**
Role Demand Empathy	.23	.08	.41** .29**	8.84**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.15	.00	.38** -.07	5.77**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.22	.07	.36** -.28*	8.59**
Role Demand Delegation	.15	.00	.39** .06	5.73**
Role Demand Organization	.20	.05	.39** .23*	8.03**

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
N = 69

**p \leq .01
*p \leq .05

by five percentage points ($p \leq .05$). The negative Beta of $-.23$ for the excuse indicated that decreased use of this strategy was associated with increased role reward. As the score on the excuse decreased one unit, the score on reward increased $.23$ units. With a mean of 3.48 , the excuse had the second lowest mean of strategies for the men in dual-career families. There was a slight tendency not to use excuses to avoid performing tasks or obligations that were disliked.

Inasmuch as these men had their highest mean score (5.78) on strategies for empathy which contributed significantly to role reward, organization had the second highest mean score (5.70) which was also significant (Table XIV). In the regression with organization and demand predicting reward for family roles, the R^2 was 20 percent and the increase in R^2 was five percentage points. The increase in explained variation due to organization was significant ($p \leq .05$), with a Beta of $.23$. Organization seemed to be the "rational" approach to managing time and responsibilities. It involved planning, scheduling, and getting "organized" to increase efficiency in performing at home and on the job.

Women in Dual-Career Families

Demand proved to be a good predictor of reward for family roles, $R^2 = 35$ percent, Beta = $.59$ ($p \leq .01$). All regression equations involving the strategies were significant ($p \leq .01$), with two of the strategies significantly increasing role reward (Table XX) while controlling for role demand.

The strategy of delegation had the largest increase in R^2 of seven percentage points to an R^2 of 42 percent ($p \leq .01$). A Beta of $.28$

TABLE XX
REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR FAMILY ROLES OF
WOMEN IN DUAL-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.35	---	.59**	35.45**
Role Demand The Excuse	.35	.00	.59** .05	17.07**
Role Demand Stalling	.40	.05	.60** .24*	21.41**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.36	.01	.60** .10	8.30**
Role Demand Empathy	.31	-.04	.57** .13	13.79**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.36	.01	.62** .12	18.01**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.29	-.06	.54** .00	12.71**
Role Demand Delegation	.42	.07	.66** .28**	23.05**
Role Demand Organization	.35	.00	.60** .07	17.30**

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
N = 69

**p < .01
*p < .05

indicated that for a one unit increase in delegation, role reward increased .28 units. A greater use of the delegation strategy, assigning tasks and responsibilities to other persons, increased the role reward of the women in dual-career families.

Stalling also increased role reward, by five percentage points, to an R^2 of 40 percent ($p \leq .05$). A Beta of .24 increased reward .24 units as stalling increased one unit, on the average. As demands upon the time of women in dual-career families increased, they had a tendency to put off or postpone certain tasks and responsibilities until pressures subsided.

Reducing responsibilities had the nearly equal, but opposite effect of stalling, by reducing role reward six percentage points. This strategy was least used by the women in dual-career families, with a low mean of 2.73. A Beta of .00 indicated no contribution of reducing responsibilities toward explained variation and reduced the contribution of demand to role reward. The remaining five strategies either did not increase R^2 , or had a maximum increase of one percentage point.

Unlike women in the other family types, these career-employed women rated demand on employment roles higher than for family roles, the same as their husbands. Again, like their husbands, the women rated reward highest for family roles (Table XVI).

Regression Analysis of Employment Roles

Men in One-Career Families

The simple regression model for employment roles was a significant predictor of role reward (Table XXI). Explained variation, R^2 , was 12

TABLE XXI

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR EMPLOYMENT ROLES OF
MEN IN ONE-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.12	---	.34**	7.55**
Role Demand The Excuse	.12	.00	.35** -.02	3.73**
Role Demand Stalling	.12	.00	.34** .08	3.91**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.13	.01	.35** .13	4.29**
Role Demand Empathy	.11	-.01	.33** .04	3.40**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.14	.02	.34** -.14	4.40**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.11	-.01	.31* -.07	3.15**
Role Demand Delegation	.12	.00	.34** .04	3.76**
Role Demand Organization	.12	.00	.34** .07	3.88**

^a Change in explained variation

^b Standardized regression coefficient
N = 59

**p \leq .01

*p \leq .05

percent ($p \leq .01$). A Beta of .34 made demand a moderate predictor of reward for employment roles. One unit of increase in the independent variable of role demand, resulted in .34 units increase in the dependent variable, role reward.

Even though explained variation in the simple regression was relatively small, none of the eight TMS significantly increased R^2 for role reward. The strategy which increased reward the most for men in one-career families was barriers against intrusion. Explained variation was 14 percent, an increase of only two percentage points. The remaining strategies increased reward from one percentage point or less down to a decrease of one percentage point.

Women in One-Career Families

Even though the women in one-career families were not employed, they were asked to respond to the items on the extent of reward and demand for employment roles. Since it was not known whether these women had ever been employed, their responses to the extent of reward and demand may have been based on their perception of what they anticipated for employment. Regardless of any possible prior experiences in employment, these women perceived little demand on their time, mean = 1.62 (Table XVI). Likewise, little reward (mean = 3.62) was perceived for employment.

In the simple regression, demand was a significant predictor of reward. Demand was quite a good predictor as $R^2 = 52$ percent ($p \leq .01$). A Beta of .72 indicated that a one unit increase in demand would result in a .72 unit increase in reward (Table XXII).

TABLE XXII

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR EMPLOYMENT ROLES OF
WOMEN IN ONE-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.52	---	.72**	52.25**
Role Demand	.55	.03	.71**	29.74**
The Excuse			-.19*	
Role Demand	.52	.00	.72**	25.63**
Stalling			-.02	
Role Demand	.52	.00	.73**	25.89**
Compartmentalization			-.06	
Role Demand	.54	.02	.70**	22.51**
Empathy			.14	
Role Demand	.52	.00	.72**	25.64**
Barriers Against Intrusion			-.02	
Role Demand		Women in one-carrer families did not		
Reducing Responsibilities		respond to items in this factor		
Role Demand	.52	.00	.71**	25.95**
Delegation			-.06	
Role Demand	.52	.00	.72**	25.70**
Organization			.03	

^a Change in explained variation

^b Standardized regression coefficient
N = 59

**p < .01
*p ≤ .05

Considering their non-employed status, the women in one-career families had the lowest mean scores on both reward and demand on employment roles. Since they did not respond to the items making up the strategy reducing responsibilities, no regression was run with that strategy. Six of the remaining strategies increased explained variation two percentage points or less.

One strategy, the legitimate excuse, did increase role reward significantly. Explained variation increased to 55 percent ($p \leq .05$). The negative Beta of $-.19$ connoted an inverse relationship between the excuse and reward. For every unit increase in the score on the excuse, a decrease in reward of $.19$ units would be expected, on the average. The mean of the excuse was 4.06 , the third lowest mean for these women's strategies (Table XIV). This mean score indicated some slight use of the excuse to avoid tasks or obligations that were disliked.

The women in one-career families had a mean score of 4.25 on the excuse. As there was only a slight agreement with use of the excuse (4.0 was the mid-point of the scale), as use of the excuse increased, reward for employment decreased. Examination of this relationship may indeed explain, in part, the non-employment status of the wives in one-career families. The required tasks provided to support the husband's career could be the legitimate excuse needed for the wives in one-career families to not seek employment. The excuse could be useful if the wife did not want a job of her own.

Men in Career-Earner Families

For the employment model, demand was significant in predicting reward for the men in career-earner families (Table XXIII). R^2 was 33

TABLE XXIII

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR EMPLOYMENT ROLES OF
MEN IN CAREER-EARNER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.33	---	.58**	17.59**
Role Demand The Excuse	.33	.00	.58** .02	8.74**
Role Demand Stalling	.38	.05	.57** -.21	10.63**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.36	.03	.60** .17	9.84**
Role Demand Empathy	.38	.05	.56** .20	10.24**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.34	.01	.56** -.07	8.91**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.36	.03	.58** .15	9.46**
Role Demand Delegation	.33	.00	.58** -.03	8.75**
Role Demand Organization	.33	.00	.58** .01	8.73**

^a Change in explained variation

^b Standardized regression coefficient
N = 38

**p \leq .01

*p \leq .05

percent ($p \leq .01$) and the Beta of .58 made demand a strong predictor. Although demand with a mean of 6.38 was close to the means on demand for the other men's groups, these men did perceive employment roles to be less demanding than did the other men (Table XIV). In addition, they also perceived slightly less reward for employment as compared with the other men.

None of the TMS produced a significant increase in explained variation of reward. Stalling and empathy had the highest increase in R^2 of five percentage points. The other strategies produced either no change or only a small increase of up to three percent.

Women in Career-Earner Families

For the women in career-earner families, demand with a Beta of .53 was a significant predictor for reward ($p \leq .01$). Explained variation for the simple regression was 28 percent (Table XXIV).

All TMS regressions were significant ($p \leq .01$), but none of the strategies significantly increased R^2 for reward while controlling for demand. Explained variation was highest for delegation at 34 percent, an increase of six percentage points (Table XXIV). With a mean score of 4.18, these women had a tendency to utilize delegation of tasks to other persons over any other strategy to increase role reward in employment. However, this was not a significant increase.

Men in Dual-Career Families

Demand with a Beta of .67 was a significant predictor of reward, explaining 45 percent of variation ($p \leq .01$) in role reward of employment roles (Table XXV). Employment roles were the most demanding roles

TABLE XXIV

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR EMPLOYMENT ROLES OF
WOMEN IN CAREER-EARNER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.28	---	.53**	14.01**
Role Demand The Excuse	.31	.03	.54** -.17	7.84**
Role Demand Stalling	.28	.00	.52** .05	6.90**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.28	.00	.53** .00	6.81**
Role Demand Empathy	.29	.01	.53** .09	7.11**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.28	.00	.54** -.04	6.87**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.29	.01	.47** .16	5.58**
Role Demand Delegation	.34	.06	.47** .25	8.91**
Role Demand Organization	.31	.03	.50** .18	7.97**

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
N = 38

**p \leq .01

*p \leq .05

TABLE XXV

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR EMPLOYMENT ROLES OF
MEN IN DUAL-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.45	---	.67**	53.88**
Role Demand The Excuse	.48	---	.65** -.19*	30.54**
Role Demand Stalling	.46	.01	.65** -.11	27.82**
Role Demand	.45	.00	.67**	26.45**
Role Demand Empathy	.43	-.02	.64** .07	23.77**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.46	.01	.64** -.11	27.87**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.44	-.01	.62** -.12	24.50**
Role Demand Delegation	.45	.00	.67** .01	26.55**
Role Demand Organization	.50	.05	.60** .24**	33.06**

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
N = 69

**p \leq .01
*p \leq .01

for men in dual-career families (Table XVI), but were less rewarding than family roles.

Since these men were in a life style reported as demanding in both family and employment roles, the "rational" response to increased pressures was organization (planning time and doing the most important things first). For the strategy of organization, explained variation increased to 50 percent, an increase of five percentage points while controlling for demand ($p \leq .01$). A Beta of .24 indicated that a one unit increase in organization was reflected by an increase of .24 units in reward (Table XXV). Organization, with a mean of 5.70, had the second highest mean of all strategies for the men in dual-career families (Table XIV).

The legitimate excuse strategy had the other significant regression, explaining 48 percent of variation in role reward, an increase of three percentage points (Table XXV). The Beta of -.19 indicated an inverse relationship with reward. A mean of 3.48 for the excuse, was the second lowest mean of the strategies (Table XIV). As the men tended not to use the excuse, reward on employment went up.

None of the other six TMS significantly increased R^2 . Explained variation was increased by two percentage points or less by each of these strategies.

Women in Dual-Career Families

For the women in dual-career families, demand was a significant predictor of reward, with an R^2 of 40 percent ($p \leq .01$). The Beta for demand was .63 (Table XXVI). For both the wives and husbands in dual-career families, employment roles was their most demanding set of roles.

TABLE XXVI
REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR EMPLOYMENT ROLES OF
WOMEN IN DUAL-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.40	---	.63**	44.27**
Role Demand The Excuse	.40	.00	.64** .12	22.04**
Role Demand Stalling	.39	-.01	.63** -.03	20.94**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.40	.00	.64** .04	21.92**
Role Demand Empathy	.38	-.02	.61** .06	19.77**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.39	-.01	.63** .05	21.04**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.40	.00	.66** .14	20.98**
Role Demand Delegation	.40	.00	.64** -.08	21.43**
Role Demand Organization	.39	-.01	.63** .06	21.14**

^a Change in explained variation

^b Standardized regression coefficient
N = 69

**p \leq .01
*p \leq .05

Only wives in dual-career families had a mean score on demand for employment roles nearly equal to their husband's mean demand for employment. But then the wives in dual-career families were the only women to share a commitment to career employment and to family life like their husbands. The spouses also shared in receiving their highest reward from family roles.

None of the strategies entered into a significant multiple regression with demand (Table XXVI). No TMS increased R^2 , while four strategies reduced R^2 , down to a decrease of two percentage points for empathy. Organization was the strategy used most (mean = 6.07), but had the least variation (standard deviation = 1.00) so it apparently was not associated with an increase in reward.

Regression Analysis of Community Roles

Community roles of participating in community services, religious activities, and social and recreational activities were perceived as being both less demanding and less rewarding than either family or employment roles. The only exception was that employment was even less rewarding and demanding for women in one-career families (Table XIII). On the scale of 0 to 10, only one group of men or women had role demand larger than 4.00. The mean for men in career-earner families was 4.07.

Men in One-Career Families

With a Beta of .71, demand was a good predictor of reward, explaining 51 percent of variation ($p \leq .01$). The TMS did form significant regression equations in this model for community roles, but seven of the strategies did not increase R^2 (Table XXVII). Explained variation

TABLE XXVII

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR COMMUNITY ROLES OF
MEN IN ONE-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.51	---	.71**	58.86**
Role Demand The Excuse	.51	.00	.72** -.01	28.92**
Role Demand Stalling	.51	.00	.71** -.05	29.21**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.51	.00	.71** .02	28.79**
Role Demand Empathy	.51	.00	.71** -.04	28.49**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.52	.01	.71** -.11	30.28**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.51	.00	.71** -.01	27.79**
Role Demand Delegation	.51	.00	.71** .01	28.93**
Role Demand Organization	.51	.00	.70** -.07	29.54**

^a Change in explained variation

^b Standardized regression coefficient
N = 59

**p \leq .01
*p \leq .05

increased only for barriers against intrusion, but only by one percentage point.

Since none of the strategies increased reward for employment and only empathy increased reward for family roles, it was not unexpected to find that none of the strategies increased reward for community roles which were much less demanding and rewarding than either family or employment roles (Table XVI).

Women in One-Career Families

Demand for these women was also a good predictor for reward with a Beta of .64 (Table XXVIII). R^2 was 42 percent ($p \leq .01$) in this regression of the community roles model. Since these women were not employed, perhaps it was to be expected that community roles were more demanding for them than for men or women in other family types, except for husbands in career-earner families (Table XIII). In addition, only the men in career-earner families received more reward from community roles than did the wives in one-career families.

The only TMS to significantly increase R^2 was delegation which had a Beta of -.22 ($p \leq .05$). Explained variation increased five percentage points to 47 percent, when controlling for demand (Table XXVIII). Since the women in one-career families had relatively more demand and reward from community roles (compared with other family types), delegation operated the same as in family roles for the women in one-career families. They were less likely to delegate tasks, to assign them to others or to hire someone to relieve them on any overload of activities they may have had. As scores on delegation decreased one unit, on the average, scores on reward increased .22 units. The score on delegation for these non-

TABLE XXVIII

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR COMMUNITY ROLES OF
WOMEN IN ONE-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.42	---	.64**	38.35**
Role Demand The Excuse	.42	.00	.64** -.07	19.23**
Role Demand Stalling	.44	.02	.67** .15	20.55
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.42	.00	.64** -.07	19.18**
Role Demand Empathy	.57	.15	.75** .04	28.08**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.42	.00	.65** .01	18.83**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	Women in one-career families did not respond to items in this factor			
Role Demand Delegation	.47	.05	.64** -.22*	22.99**
Role Demand Organization	.42	.00	.64** .09	19.47**

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
N = 59

**p \leq .01
*p \leq .05

employed women (mean = 2.60) was the lowest for any group of men or women on delegation and the second lowest score for any strategy among all groups.

Men in Career-Earner Families

In the community model for men in career-earner families, demand was a good predictor of reward with a Beta of .73 (Table XXIX). The R^2 was relatively high at 53 percent ($p \leq .01$). Community roles were relatively less demanding and rewarding than either family or employment roles and none of the TMS had any significant effect on increasing reward. All strategies did form significant regressions though.

Reducing responsibilities and empathy produced the highest increases in R^2 , nine and eight percentage points respectively, but the smaller N of this family type failed to yield a significant relationship for either strategy. Small N's require larger changes in R^2 to be significant than for larger N's. For the remaining strategies, R^2 increased from three percentage points down to no change.

Women in Career-Earner Families

These women perceived slightly less demand and slightly more reward for community roles than did their husbands. The relationship between demand and reward yielded a significant Beta of .44, but a low R^2 of 19 percent at $p \leq .01$ (Table XXX). Unlike their husbands, the wives significantly raised the R^2 of reward through use of one strategy, organization. Explained variation increased by eight percentage points ($p \leq .05$). When controlling for demand, a Beta of .31 for organization increased reward .31 units.

TABLE XXIX

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR COMMUNITY ROLES OF
MEN IN CAREER-EARNER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.53	---	.73**	41.04**
Role Demand The Excuse	.53	.00	.73** -.02	19.97**
Role Demand Stalling	.54	.01	.73** -.05	20.15**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.54	.01	.73** .06	20.28**
Role Demand Empathy	.61	.08	.78** .09	27.08**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.56	.03	.68** -.16	22.06**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.62	.09	.80** .11	27.70**
Role Demand Delegation	.55	.02	.71** -.13	21.44**
Role Demand Organization	.54	.01	.73** -.08	20.51**

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
N = 38

**p \leq .01
*p \leq .05

TABLE XXX

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR COMMUNITY ROLES OF
WOMEN IN CAREER-EARNER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.19	---	.44**	8.49**
Role Demand The Excuse	.21	.02	.44** .12	4.55**
Role Demand Stalling	.23	.04	.41** .20	5.14**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.20	.01	.43** -.10	4.38**
Role Demand Empathy	.21	.02	.50** .16	4.74**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.20	.01	.41** -.10	4.40**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.25	.06	.30 .34	4.48**
Role Demand Delegation	.19	.00	.44** .03	4.15**
Role Demand Organization	.28	.09	.50** .31*	6.80**

^aChange in explained variation

^bStandardized regression coefficient
N = 38

**p < .01

*p < .05

The reward for community roles was higher (6.13) for wives in career-earner families than for employment roles (5.37). Better organization, planning, and scheduling of time (strategy of organization), enabled the women in career-earner families to increase reward in community role activities (Table XXX).

Men in Dual-Career Families

The men in dual-career families had the second lowest demand and lowest reward of all the men on community roles (Table XVI). Demand explained 56 percent of the variation in reward ($p \leq .01$). A Beta of .75 made demand a significant predictor of reward (Table XXXI). One unit of increase in demand would result in .75 units of increase in reward, on the average.

None of the strategies increased R^2 significantly in the community model, although the regressions were all significant at $p \leq .01$. The largest increases in R^2 were for empathy and reducing responsibilities, each increased R^2 by six percentage points to 62 percent. All other strategies increased R^2 two percentage points or less.

Women in Dual-Career Families

There was little real difference between men and women in dual-career families on community roles. The women had the lowest means on demand and reward of all groups of men and women (Table XVI). Demand was almost as good a predictor of reward as it was for the men in dual-career families, with a Beta of .73 (Table XXXII). Explained variation was high, 53 percent ($p \leq .01$).

TABLE XXXI

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR COMMUNITY ROLES OF
MEN IN DUAL-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.56	---	.75**	84.69**
Role Demand	.56	.00	.75**	41.73**
The Excuse			-.01	
Role Demand	.57	.01	.73**	43.10**
Stalling			-.09	
Role Demand	.58	.02	.76**	44.59**
Compartmentalization			.13	
Role Demand	.62	.06	.79**	51.21**
Empathy			.08	
Role Demand	.58	.02	.71**	44.12**
Barriers Against Intrusion			-.12	
Role Demand	.62	.06	.79**	50.72**
Reducing Responsibilities			-.07	
Role Demand	.57	.01	.76**	42.68**
Delegation			.08	
Role Demand	.57	.01	.74**	43.78**
Organization			.11	

^a Change in explained variation

^b Standardized regression coefficient
N = 69

**p < .01
*p < .05

TABLE XXXII

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TIME-MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND ROLE
DEMAND ON ROLE REWARD FOR COMMUNITY ROLES OF
WOMEN IN DUAL-CAREER FAMILIES

Independent variables	R^2	ΔR^{2a}	Beta ^b	F
Role Demand	.53	---	.73**	76.88**
Role Demand The Excuse	.53	.00	.73** -.01	36.20**
Role Demand Stalling	.53	.00	.73** -.05	36.54**
Role Demand Compartmentalization	.55	.02	.71** .12	39.96**
Role Demand Empathy	.53	.00	.72** .05	35.89**
Role Demand Barriers Against Intrusion	.54	.01	.75** .10	37.65**
Role Demand Reducing Responsibilities	.53	.00	.72** .02	35.50**
Role Demand Delegation	.53	.00	.74** .05	36.49**
Role Demand Organization	.54	.01	.74** -.11	37.84**

^a Change in explained variation

^b Standardized regression coefficient
N = 69

**p \leq .01

*p \leq .05

Compartmentalization contributed the largest increase in R^2 (two percentage points) of all strategies, but was not significant (Table XXXII). The changes in explained variation for the other TMS were small, an increase of one percentage point down to no change in explained variation.

Testing of Hypotheses

Hypotheses were tested concerning the relationships among three sets of variables, role demand, role reward and time-management strategies for husbands and wives in each of three family types. The hypotheses were tested by regression analysis for family, employment, and community roles and eight time-management strategies and reported in Tables XIII, XV, and XVII through XXXII.

The hypotheses are summarized as follows: Scores on three factors of role demand when combined individually with eight time-management strategies do not predict scores on three factors of role reward (a) for men in three family types or (b) for women in three family types.

For the simple regressions of role demand predicting role reward the hypotheses were rejected for husbands and wives, for family, employment and community roles, for one-career, career-earner and dual-career family types (Table XXXIII), with one exception. The hypothesis was not rejected for wives in career-earner families for family roles, therefore role demand does not predict role reward significantly. This near uniformity of rejection of the hypotheses for the simple regressions allows for orderly progression of analysis to the next stage, testing of the impact of the time-management strategies on the relationship between role demand and role reward.

TABLE XXXIII
SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT REGRESSIONS

One-Career Families			Career-Earner Families			Dual-Career Families		
Time Management Strategies	Significant Strategies	Simple Regressions	Time Management Strategies	Significant Strategies	Simple Regressions	Time Management Strategies	Significant Strategies	Simple Regressions
Men			Men			Men		
		Role Demand			Role Demand			Role Demand
Excuse			Excuse	$-.26^* \text{ fam}$		Excuse	$-.23^* \text{ fam}, -.19^* \text{ emp}$	
Stalling			Stalling			Stalling		
Compartment-alization		$.40^{**} \text{ fam}^a$	Compartment-alization		$.60^{**} \text{ fam}$	Compartment-alization		$.39^{**} \text{ fam}$
Empathy	$.50^{**b} \text{ fam}$	$.34^{**} \text{ emp}^c$	Empathy		$.58^{**} \text{ emp}$	Empathy	$.29^{**} \text{ fam}$	$.67^{**} \text{ emp}$
Barriers		$.71^{**} \text{ com}^d$	Barriers		$.73^{**} \text{ com}$	Barriers		$.75^{**} \text{ com}$
Reducing Responsibilities			Reducing Responsibilities			Reducing Responsibilities	$-.28^* \text{ fam}$	
Delegation			Delegation			Delegation		
Organization			Organization			Organization	$.28^{**} \text{ fam}, .24^{**} \text{ emp}$	
Women			Women			Women		
		Role Reward			Role Reward			Role Reward
		Role Demand			Role Demand			Role Demand
Excuse	$-.24^* \text{ fam}, -.19^* \text{ emp}$		Excuse			Excuse		
Stalling			Stalling			Stalling	$.24^* \text{ fam}$	
Compartment-alization		$.44^{**} \text{ fam}$	Compartment-alization		$.20 \text{ fam}$	Compartment-alization		$.59^{**} \text{ fam}$
Empathy		$.72^{**} \text{ emp}$	Empathy	$.34^* \text{ fam}$	$.53^{**} \text{ emp}$	Empathy		$.63^{**} \text{ emp}$
Barriers		$.64^{**} \text{ fam}$	Barriers		$.44^{**} \text{ com}$	Barriers		$.73^{**} \text{ com}$
Reducing Responsibilities			Reducing Responsibilities			Reducing Responsibilities		
Delegation	$-.24^* \text{ fam}, -.22^* \text{ com}$		Delegation			Delegation	$.28^{**} \text{ fam}$	
Organization			Organization	$.31^* \text{ com}$		Organization		
		Role Reward			Role Reward			Role Reward

^afam - family roles

^bstandardized regression coefficient

^cemp - employment roles

^dcom - community roles

^{**}p < .01

^{*}p < .05

Hypotheses were not tested for women in one-career families on the strategy of reducing responsibilities for any of the three sets of roles. Those nonemployed women did not respond to the items making up the strategy of reducing responsibilities (on the job).

For family roles, the hypotheses were rejected for men in one-career families on the empathy strategy and women in one-career families on the strategies of legitimate excuse and delegation. In addition, the hypotheses were rejected for men in career-earner families on the legitimate excuse strategy and women in career-earner families on the strategies of empathy and organization. Finally, in family roles, the hypotheses were rejected for men in dual-career families on the strategies of the excuse, empathy, reducing responsibilities, and organization and women in dual-career families on the strategies of stalling and organization.

In employment roles, the hypotheses were rejected for women in one-career families on the legitimate excuse and men in dual-career families on the strategies of the legitimate excuse and organization. Finally, in community roles, the hypothesis was rejected only for women in one-career families on the strategy of delegation.

The hypotheses were rejected for all significant regressions of time-management strategies (Table XXXIII). In those regressions, role demand by itself and role demand in combination with individual time-management strategies did predict role reward. For all other regressions, the time-management strategies did not predict role reward and the hypotheses were not rejected.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Statement of the Problem

Many studies have identified the lack of time to perform all role responsibilities as a primary concern of employed women and as an increased concern for husbands of employed women (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969; Hall, 1972; Hall and Gordon, 1973; Holmstrom, 1973; Robinson, 1977; Nickols and Metzen, 1978; Pleck, 1979). Yet only a few studies have examined the time-management strategies used by family members to lessen the time constraints and role overload created by various patterns of employment (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969; Hall, 1972; Hall and Gordon, 1973; Cornwall, 1976). Time-management strategies can alleviate time constraints and role overload. The research problem of this study was identification of the time-management strategies used by husbands and wives in three family types.

Objectives and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to examine role behavior of husbands and wives in various family types. The relationship between the extent of role demand and amount of role reward was explored in the context of three groups of life roles; family, employment and community.

Of special interest was the effect of eight time-management strategies on the perceived role reward of respondents.

This study encompassed two broad objectives. The primary objective was to assess the impact of time-management strategies on the relationship between role demand and role reward. A secondary objective was identification of the time-management strategies used by husbands and wives in three family types, their role demands and their role rewards. It was hypothesized that for husbands and wives, for three family types, for three sets of roles, role demand when combined individually with eight time-management strategies would not predict role reward.

Procedures

Data were obtained from a national sample of college and university administrators and their husbands or wives. Questionnaires were sent to 599 administrators who were deans and directors of academic and research units and others in central administration identified as chief administrative officers by their institutions. Only married administrators were eligible and response was necessary from both husband and wife for inclusion in the study. Usable questionnaires were returned by mail from 332 subjects, including 59 one-career, 38 career-earner and 69 dual-career couples. Of the 599 administrators who received questionnaires, more than three-fifths (61.9 percent) returned either a questionnaire, or indicated ineligibility or non-response for other reasons (Table III). Usable questionnaires were received from 41.6 percent of those estimated to be eligible.

The items on role demand and role reward were adapted from a questionnaire by Condie and Doan (1977). For the time-management strategies, items were adapted from Hall (1972) and Cornwall (1976). A questionnaire was developed to include the items on role demand, role reward and time-management strategies as well as the demographic items; age of subject, number of children, individual income and level of educational achievement.

Responses to items making up the variables of role demand, role reward and time-management strategies were factor analyzed to organize data. The resulting factors including three sets of roles each for role demand and role reward (family, employment and community) and eight time-management strategies (legitimate excuse, stalling until pressures subside, compartmentalization, empathy, barriers against intrusion, reducing responsibilities, delegation and organization) were entered into regression analysis. In separate regression equations, role demand was regressed on role reward for the purpose of predicting role reward for family, employment and community roles. Time-management strategies were then entered into each regression equation sequentially, to determine the influence of each strategy upon the predicted relationship between role demand and role reward, for husbands and wives in three family types (one career, career earner and dual-career).

Conclusions

The results of the regression analyses are summarized in Table XXXIII. Standardized Betas are reported for each regression of role demand on role reward for family, employment and community roles.

Separate regressions are reported for men and women in one-career, career-earner and dual-career families. Betas are also reported for those strategies which increased significantly explained variation (R^2) in role reward.

Men

Men in the one-career and career-earner family types reported a significant increase in R^2 for family roles through the use of a single time-management strategy, though the strategy used was different for each group of men. In the dual-career family type, men had significant regressions for a greater variety of time-management strategies than did the men in one-career or career-earner families. From examination of both high and low mean scores of strategies in Table XIV, men in dual-career families used four strategies to increase role reward in family roles, with two of those strategies also increasing significantly R^2 for employment roles. The men in three family types (one career, career earner and dual career) did not realize an increase in explained variation in community roles by using any of the eight identified time-managment strategies.

For men in one-career families, the empathy strategy made a significant contribution to explained variation in family roles. The empathy or social support this group of career-oriented men received from their nonemployed wives greatly increased the reward received from their roles as parent and husband. This finding agrees with the literature that described the husband in one-career families as realizing his major contribution to the family through his role as income provider (Parsons, 1954; Bailyn, 1970; Papanek, 1973; Hunt and Hunt,

1977). In turn, the wife's role was viewed as a "complement" to that of the husband. One of the major roles of the wife was to provide social support and other career-enhancing services for the husband (Scanzoni, 1972, 1980; Papanek, 1973).

Husbands in career-earner families also had one strategy which entered significantly into the regression to increase reward for family roles. A negative Beta indicated an inverse relationship existed between the excuse strategy and role reward (Table XXXIII). Only reducing responsibilities had a lower mean score than the legitimate excuse (Table XIV, but the excuse had more variation, therefore as use of the excuse declined, role reward tended to increase. The inverse relationship could also occur. Men in career positions whose wives were employed in a nonprofessional capacity tended not to make excuses to delay performing family tasks and responsibilities they may have disliked doing. This is an important finding, reaffirming a report by Bird (1981) based on data analysis from this same sample that men in career-earner families married to employed women tended to perform more household tasks than men in one-career families.

Lein (1979) indicated that men employed in career positions participated in family tasks such as vacuuming, shopping, and meal preparation reluctantly and often grudgingly, but out of necessity to relieve their employed wives of an overload of responsibilities. The men in career-earner families in the present study were the only men to rate family roles both the most demanding and most rewarding (Table XVI), an indication of the importance they placed on family roles (parenting and being a husband). This group of men in career

earner families associated the completion of family tasks and responsibilities with increased reward in their family roles.

Men in dual-career families had the most time-management strategies contributing significantly to role reward. This unique situation for men in dual-career families would seem to be related to the inherent set of time constraints that accompany the life style or family type. Previous studies indicated that marriage to career-employed women seemed to put more pressure on men in dual-career families to participate in or at least share in the decision-making process about how household tasks would be accomplished (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969; Holmstrom, 1973). Bird (1981), using the same sample as the present study, confirmed that men in dual-career families on the average, shared family tasks to a greater degree than did men in one-career or career-earner families. Increased sharing of household tasks in family roles may have led to use of four strategies to increase significantly the role reward attached to being a spouse and a parent (family roles) and two strategies to increase reward in employment roles (Table XXXIII).

Men in dual-career families tended not to use the time-management strategies of reducing responsibilities and the legitimate excuse (indicated by low mean scores). Negative Betas for those strategies and a high mean score on role reward indicated that avoiding the use of those strategies increased role reward in family roles (Table XXXIII). The legitimate excuse operated the same way in employment roles as for family roles. Men in dual-career families were inclined to perform disliked tasks or responsibilities at home and on the job without making excuses or using home responsibilities as a means of reducing

their workload according to responses on use of the legitimate excuse. Significant increases in R^2 for the organization and empathy strategies indicated that for men in dual-career families, organization made parenting and job responsibilities more rewarding and empathy or social support of wives made family roles more rewarding.

It is interesting that men in dual-career families reported that empathy was a time-management strategy which increased role reward, just as men in one-career families had indicated and that avoiding the excuse strategy, the same as did the men in career-earner families, also enhanced family role reward. With the extra responsibilities that accompany the dual-career family life style, the strategy of organization may have been the pragmatic means of coping with it all. There appeared to be a consistency in the strategy useage by men in dual-career families, characterized by an intertwining of strategies used at work and at home.

Women

There was little consistency of strategy useage among women in the family types examined. This finding may have been due to the widely varying commitments the women had to employment and community activities, indicated by their mean scores on role reward and role demand for those sets of roles (Table XVI). The only strategy which significantly increased reward in family roles for two of the three groups of women was the strategy of delegation. Women in one-career families reported that they did not use delegation while women in dual-career families indicated that they used the strategy some (Table XIV).

Women in one-career families (husband in a career, wife not employed) reported that two strategies, the excuse and delegation, significantly increased explained variation of role reward for family roles. Negative Betas for the regressions and the mean scores indicated that the women were uncertain about using excuses and did not delegate tasks in their roles as spouse and parent. It was not surprising that nonemployed women married to career-oriented men would expect to perform traditional female tasks without feeling the need to delegate responsibilities to other family members. For these women, mean scores indicated that family roles were the most rewarding and demanding of the three identified sets of roles, and thus the roles least likely to be avoided (Table XVI). The women in one-career families also indicated that using the legitimate excuse significantly decreased their role reward in employment roles. This use of the excuse strategy may have explained in part why women in one-career families were not employed. The required tasks provided to support the career of the husband could be the legitimate excuse needed for the wives in one-career families to not seek employment. The excuse could be useful if the wife did not want a job or career of her own. The increased use of legitimate excuses decreased reward for employment, which may include tasks and responsibilities that were disliked by this particular group of women. The inverse relationship, indicated by the negative Beta, could also occur. As use of the excuse declined, reward in employment would increase.

Parsons (1954) identified community activities as being important to the traditional roles performed by the wives of career-employed men. Community involvement was seen as a means of enhancing the status of

the family in the community; of providing the family with valuable social contacts which also provided impetus for the career of the husband. The wife, in effect, was the family representative in community activities. Thus, the low mean score on the strategy of delegation indicated that the women in one-career families were not likely to delegate the community activities to others, especially when the community activities provided a relatively large amount of reward for them (Table XVI).

Employed women in career-earner families, compared to the women in one-career families, reported utilizing two quite different strategies to increase family role reward. Of the two strategies, the larger contributor to explained variation was the strategy of empathy, the social support received from husbands in parenting and employment. Though the study of Lein (1979) showed that husbands did not always willingly increase their sharing of household tasks when wives were employed, this study indicated that husbands did empathize with the role responsibilities of their wives and offered some degree of empathy or social support.

The other strategy used by women in career-earner families was organization. Organization increased the reward of participating in community activities, which were relatively more rewarding than for most other groups of husbands or wives. Community activities likely conferred higher status and opportunity for reward for relatively highly educated women than did their employment in noncareer status positions.

Two strategies appeared to work together to relieve the possible role overload and time constraints of women in dual-career families

in family roles. Delegation was the larger contributor to explained variation; it appeared that household tasks were delegated to others whenever possible. With this combination of strategies significantly increasing role reward it may be that tasks and responsibilities that could not be delegated were put off (stalling) until pressures subsided. It was logical, given the nature of life in a dual-career family, that delegation was used by women in dual-career families, while it was avoided by women in one-career families in this study.

Interpretations

Empirical testing of theorized relationships is a step toward expanding our knowledge of the events and processes which shape the lives of individuals and families. In this study there were indications that the time-management strategies may not operate as theorized. Specifically, two strategies, compartmentalization and barriers against intrusion, did not significantly increase role reward in any regressions. Yet, the results indicated that six strategies, the legitimate excuse, stalling until pressures subside, empathy, reducing responsibilities, delegation, and organization did significantly increase role reward in family, employment or community roles, but no more than four strategies functioned in this way for any group.

Most of the significant regressions for strategy useage (11 of 16) were for reward in family roles. No statement of causation is made, but an observable nonstatistical association between useage of time-management strategies and role reward in family roles is noted. Family roles were the most rewarding roles for husbands and wives in all

three family types. Perhaps it is useage of the strategies that made family roles so rewarding or it could have been the desire for reward that necessitated use of selected strategies. Conversely, time-management strategies had less impact on perceived reward in employment and community roles.

Another indication that the strategies may not operate as theorized was the negative Betas for several strategies. The legitimate excuse was related negatively to reward for women in one-career families and for men in career-earner and dual-career families. Marks (1977) had previously indicated that both professionals and homemakers had little latitude in using the legitimate excuse, which seemed to be verified by the present study. Previous theory did not indicate that avoidance of a strategy (low mean scores on the legitimate excuse) would be associated negatively to (and increase) role reward.

The strategy of delegation was also associated negatively to reward for women in one-career families. For the wives in one-career families, family and community roles were highly rewarding personally, which agreed with the description of the traditional roles of wives in the two-person career (Papanek, 1973). Therefore, it was not expected for these women to delegate their rewarding roles. The wives in dual-career families had two sets of rewarding roles too, family and employment. Delegation was associated positively to reward for family roles. This finding also agreed with the literature that indicated increased sharing of traditional roles of women by other members of the family of the employed wife (Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969; Bird, 1981; Pleck and Rustad, 1981). The difference between the two groups of women would appear to be the life

style as it related to the employment of the wife. The women in one-career families were nonemployed while the wives in dual-career families were employed in careers. To reduce possible or actual role overload, the wives in dual-career families delegated home responsibilities while the nonemployed women were not able to delegate family tasks to their husbands.

The strategy of empathy also did not operate as theorized (Burke and Weir, 1976; Hunt and Hunt, 1977; Mortimer et al., 1978) that employment of wives would tend to lessen empathy for husbands. When the wife was employed, especially in a career position, empathy by the husband for the wife was expected to become important by reducing the overload of family and employment responsibilities of the wife. In the present study, empathy received by the noncareer employed wives in career-earner families and by the husbands in dual-career families was a strategy that increased role reward significantly for family roles. Use of the empathy strategy in career-earner families agreed with previous theory, while use of empathy in dual-career families did not. Additional study is required to explain the apparent difference in contribution of use of the empathy strategy to role reward in career-earner and dual-career families.

Of the six strategies which were significantly contributing to role reward, the legitimate excuse and empathy strategies were significant for three of the six examined groups of men and women. Use of the legitimate excuse was always avoided, while empathy was utilized. Stalling and reducing responsibilities were significant for only one group each. The remaining strategies, delegation and organization, were significant for two groups of respondents.

Two strategies failed to increase significantly role reward as previously hypothesized, compartmentalization and barriers against intrusion. Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) examined 16 dual-career families by means of in-depth interviews and hypothesized that some dual-career families used compartmentalization as a way of coping with the stresses of the life style. The dual-career families that pioneered the life style in the 1960's may have felt a greater need to compartmentalize, to separate home and family life, than the men and women in dual-career families today. Compartmentalization was probably more used by women than men because career-employed wives and mothers in the 1960's were more likely to be subjected to the criticism of kin, friends, and colleagues for deviation from traditional norms. By the late 1970's, when the present study was conducted, the dual-career life style was more prevalent and more widely accepted, possibly making compartmentalization less necessary for the successful combination of family life and career employment.

It is difficult to speculate about the strategy of barriers against intrusion not increasing significantly the R^2 of role reward. There was some slight agreement with the items making up that strategy, with group means ranging from 4.10 to 4.80 on a scale of 1 to 7 (Table XIV). None of the groups expressed much variation of agreement or disagreement with the items making up the strategy, therefore, it appeared not to be related to role reward.

Recommendations

Further research is recommended to test the usefulness and effectiveness of time-management strategies on increasing role reward in

family, employment and community roles. The research design should continue to provide for a national sample, or at least a broad regional sample. A larger sample for each family type may possibly clarify the status of several unreported regressions that were very close to being significant. The sample should include a sample of persons employed in careers in addition to university administrators as well as persons employed in noncareer positions to broaden generalizability of the findings.

A larger sample would likely include other relevant family types. One expected family type would be the dual-earner family where husband and wife are both employed as wage earners, neither being in career positions. The dual-earner family would probably be considered a variation of the senior partner-junior partner marriage described previously by Scanzoni (1972, 1980). Studying additional family types would also increase the generalizability of the findings.

Additional research is called for to investigate other possible relationships of time-management strategies to role demand and role reward, for husbands and wives, for family, employment and community roles in varying family types. The negative Betas are one aspect of the above relationships that need further study. Another aspect is consideration of the scarcity of significant regressions of time-management strategies to reward in employment and community roles.

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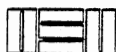
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APPENDIXES



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.

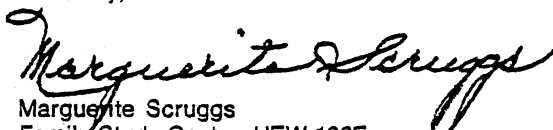
Thank you.

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.

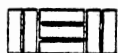
If you have already completed and returned them to us, please accept our sincere thanks. If not, your prompt response will be very much appreciated. It is important that your questionnaires be included in the study if the results are to be truly representative.

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,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Marguerite Scruggs". The signature is written in dark ink and is positioned above the typed name and address.

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.

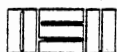
If by some chance you do not have the questionnaires, please send us a note or call us collect (405-624-5054). We will send another set to you.

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

PART A

Based on your experiences in various roles (such as husband or wife, parent, wage earner, etc.) indicate how much you Agree or Disagree with the following statements. There are no right or wrong responses to the statements. The right answers are what is true for you.

Circle the number from 1 to 7 which indicates how much you Agree or Disagree with each statement.

SD 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 SA
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree

SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	SA
Strongly								Strongly
Disagree								Agree

IF YOU ARE NOT EMPLOYED, PROCEED TO ITEM *23.

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| SD
<u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | 15. It is a relief when unforeseen events prevent me from carrying out my job obligations. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | 16. I don't take my work home so that I can spend time with my family. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | 17. If my job demands become too great, I change my standards of job performance. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | 18. My job duties justify my not accepting more responsibilities in community activities. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | 19. I can easily say "No" when asked to assume an overload of responsibilities on my job. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | 20. I separate my work life from my family life so that I can concentrate my efforts in one area at a time. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | 21. My home responsibilities justify my not accepting more responsibilities on the job. |
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | 22. My job responsibilities are made easier because of the support I get from my husband. |

IF YOU DO NOT HAVE CHILDREN, PROCEED TO PART B.

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</u> | 35. My parenting responsibilities are made easier because of the support I receive from my husband. |
|----------------------|---|

PART D

Another concern of this study is understanding how people view the various roles they perform.

Certain responsibilities and activities in our daily lives are more satisfying and rewarding than others. Please circle the number from 0 to 10 which indicates how rewarding each role is to you. If the role described is not at all rewarding, circle a "0". If the role is rewarding, circle a number from "1" to "10" to indicate how rewarding.

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

Some of our everyday responsibilities and activities are more demanding of our time than others. Please circle the number from 0 to 10 which indicates how demanding each of the following roles is for you. If the role described is not at all demanding of your time, circle a "0". If the role is demanding of your time, circle a number from "1" to "10" to indicate how demanding.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Not At All												Extremely
Demanding												Demanding

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| <u>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</u> | 9. Income provider (e.g. occupational/career activities) |
| <u>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</u> | 10. Performer of household tasks (e.g. shopping, cleaning, yardwork) |
| <u>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</u> | 11. Wife |
| <u>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</u> | 12. Participant in community services (e.g. civic or service clubs, PTA, Chamber of Commerce) |
| <u>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</u> | 13. Parent |
| <u>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</u> | 14. Member of professional organization(s) |
| <u>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</u> | 15. Participant in social and recreational activities (e.g. special interest groups, hobbies, leisure activities) |
| <u>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</u> | 16. Participant in church or other religious activities |

PART F

Finally, we would like to request some general information needed to help interpret the results of the study.

1. What is the year of your birth?

year

5. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?

level of education (years completed or degree)

OUR NEXT CONCERN IS CHILDREN. IF YOU DO NOT HAVE CHILDREN, PROCEED TO ITEM *10.

6. How many children do you have?

number of children

15. If you were employed in 1978, what was your approximate income, before taxes?
(respond to both columns)

<u>YOUR INDIVIDUAL INCOME</u>	
1	LESS THAN \$5000
2	\$ 5000 - \$ 6999
3	\$ 7000 - \$ 9999
4	\$10000 - \$12999
5	\$13000 - \$15999
6	\$16000 - \$19999
7	\$20000 - \$24999
8	\$25000 - \$29999
9	\$30000 - \$34999
10	\$35000 - \$39999
11	\$40000 - \$44999
12	\$45000 - \$49999
13	\$50000 AND OVER

<u>FAMILY INCOME FROM ALL SOURCES</u>	
1	LESS THAN \$25000
2	\$25000 - \$29999
3	\$30000 - \$34999
4	\$35000 - \$39999
5	\$40000 - \$44999
6	\$45000 - \$49999
7	\$50000 - \$54999
8	\$55000 - \$59999
9	\$60000 - \$64999
10	\$65000 - \$69999
11	\$70000 - \$74999
12	\$75000 - \$79999
13	\$80000 AND OVER

2
VITA

Gerald A. Bird

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: EFFECT OF TIME MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES ON ROLE REWARD FOR
HUSBANDS AND WIVES IN THREE FAMILY TYPES

Major Field: Home Economics

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Larned, Kansas, February 29, 1944, the son
of Mr. and Mrs. George W. Bird.

Education: Graduated from Garfield High School, Garfield, Kansas,
in May, 1962; received Bachelor of Science degree in Social
Science Education from Kansas State University in 1967; re-
ceived Master of Science degree from Kansas State University
in 1973; completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philos-
ophy degree at Oklahoma State University in December, 1981.

Professional Experience: Instructor, College of Home Economics,
University of Delaware, January, 1974-July, 1975; Instructor,
College of Home Economics, Oklahoma State University, 1975-77;
Assistant Professor, College of Home Economics, Oklahoma State
University, 1977-79; Assistant Professor, College of Home
Economics, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University,
1979-present.

Professional Associations: American Council on Consumer Interests,
American Home Economics Association, Consumer Education and
Information Association of Virginia, Virginia Extension Ser-
vice Association, Virginia Home Economics Association.