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Hiatt, Ann Renigar

CAREER AND EARNER WIVES' PREFERENCES FOR THE USE OF TIME AND USE OF STRATEGIES FOR COPING WITH TIME CONSTRAINTS

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro PH.D. 1986

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CAREER AND EARNER WIVES' PREFERENCES FOR THE USE OF TIME AND USE OF STRATEGIES FOR COPING WITH TIME CONSTRAINTS

by

Ann Renigar Hiatt

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Greensboro
1986

Approved by

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APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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February 24, 1986

HIATT, ANN RENIGAR, Ph.D. Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time and Use of Strategies for Coping With Time Constraints. (1986) Directed by: Dr. Sarah Shoffner. 252 pp.

Data from a mailed survey were used to compare preferences for the use of time between two groups of randomly selected, employed women, career (N = 85) and earner (N = 150) wives. Factor analysis produced seven dimensions of wives' preferences for their time and six dimensions for husbands' time.

Although most wives wanted to spend more time in all activities except employment, ANOVA procedures indicated that more career wives wanted to spend more time in Social and Volunteer, Personal Maintenance and Leisure, and Away-from-Home Household Production, but less time in Employment than did earner wives. No differences were found in career and earner wives' preferences for husbands' time use; they wanted their husbands to spend more time in all activities. A MANCOVA procedure revealed that career wives were as satisfied with their own or husbands' time use as earner wives, which disputes previous suggestions that role overload is a problem for career-oriented wives.

Another purpose was to investigate career and earner wives' frequency of use of strategies for coping with time constraints. All wives frequently reduced time in personal activities but infrequently communicated or negotiated with others; wives looked to themselves to resolve time constraints.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Appreciation is given to my advisory committee, Dr. Sarah Shoffner, Dr. Deborah Godwin, Dr. Barbara Clawson, and Dr. Thomas Petit, for their constructive suggestions, guidance, and general assistance. To Dr. Sarah Shoffner, chair, I express my esteem and gratitude for her unfailing encouragement in the completion of my graduate study and this research.

I am especially indebted to Dr. Deborah Godwin for her knowledge, insight, suggestions, and unselfish donation of her time. She has served as my mentor, statistician, quality control supervisor, time management expert, confidante, and genuine friend.

Recognition is made to the employed wives who participated in the study. Their willingness to share information about their lives is greatly appreciated.

Family members and friend, Michelle Rokes, graciously assisted with the tedious tasks of the mailout procedure. To Dale and Alex, I give my heartfelt thanks for the numerous ways they have supported me and for the sacrifices they have made. Words cannot express the acknowledgement due my mother, Roberta Sides Renigar, for her constant encouragement and support and for repeatedly assuming my child care responsibilities so that this project and others could be accomplished.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The increasing participation of married women in the labor force over the last few decades has been termed "the subtle revolution" (Smith, 1979), and has been well documented (Hayghe, 1976; Herman, 1979; Waldman, Grossman, Hayghe, & Johnson, 1979). In 1960, 12.3 million (30.5%) married women were in the paid labor force compared to 26.9 million (52.8%) in 1984 (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1985). From 1960 to 1984, the percent of employed, married women with children between ages six and 17 rose from 39% to 65.4%, and employed, married women with children under age six, increased from 18.6% to 51.8% (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1985). Economic necessity, changing tastes for higher levels of living, higher levels of education among women, increased job opportunities, smaller families, longer life expectancies, and the social and psychological rewards associated with employment are often cited as reasons for and, sometimes, results of the increased labor force participation of these women (Bowen & Finnegan, 1969; Yogev, 1982).

Empirical studies have documented shifts in attitudes away from the traditional view that women's primary roles should be those of wife, mother, and housekeeper

(Bronfenbrenner, 1974; Burke & Weir, 1976; Ferber, 1982; Order & Bradburn, 1969). In 1967, 60% of all adult women generally or definitely agreed that "a woman's place is in the home", whereas by 1977, the percentage of women agreeing with that statement had decreased to 26% (Reynolds, Crask, & Wells, 1977). In a recent study of the orientations of men and women toward employment, young women were closer to young men in the choice of "self-actualization" as an important value than they were to the values of older women (Douvan, Veroff, & Kulka, 1979). Moreover, evidence from younger men and women has suggested labor force attachment of mothers are likely to become more like fathers', and that more married women will continuously work at full time jobs (Masnick & Bane, 1980).

For most married women, involvement in the labor force adds to the number of roles they perform, and, therefore, increases the demands on time, energy, and commitment needed to adequately perform these roles. Time use and division of labor studies have consistently indicated that wives are still the primary household workers, contributing more time and performing a wider array of tasks than husbands (Berk & Berk, 1978; Fox & Nichols, 1983; Hill, Hunt, & Kiker, 1979; Nichols & Metzen, 1978; 1982; Robinson, 1977; Sanik, 1979; 1981; Vanek, 1980; Walker & Woods, 1976; Wheeler & Arvey, 1981). Employed wives allocate approximately 36 hours a

week to household work as opposed to 52 hours weekly allocated by their non-employed counterparts (Walker & Woods, 1976). Regardless of wives' employment status, married men allocate approximately 11.5 hours weekly to household work but the majority of this time is spent in yard work, home repairs, shopping, travel on household errands, and to a limited degree, child care (Vanek, 1980).

Researchers studying time use and the "inequities" in the division of household labor have investigated whether recent time-diary data would indicate that husbands are assuming more of the "burden" of housework. Comparisons of 1965 and 1976 national time-dairy data did indicate an overall drop of 20% in the time women were allocating to housework and family care (Robinson, 1979). However, when adjustments were made for differences between the two samples in employment status, marital status, family composition, age, and socio-economic status, women in 1975 spent only about two and one-half less per week doing housework than did women ten years earlier. The differences were not due to greater participation in housework by husbands because after demographic differences between the two samples were adjusted, men in 1975 were also spending less time doing housework (Robinson, 1979). Sanik's (1981) comparisons of 1967 and 1977 time data collected in upstate New York indicated that, overall, average time devoted to housework by

the total family and by husbands remained unchanged over the ten-year period, although wives were spending less time in some categories of housework, such as in dishwashing and clothing care. Therefore, given these results, it is not surprising that Voydanoff and Kelly (1984) found that time shortage is an important problem for employed women, and that women are significantly more likely to report time shortages than are men.

A number of social scientists have posited that families are becoming more egalitarian, as more familial "power" is accrued by employed wives due to their increased earnings, occupational prestige, and education relative to their husbands (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Pleck, 1977; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970; Scanzoni, 1972; 1978; Young & Wilmott, 1973). However, predictive studies that have analyzed time use data have explained very little of the variance in husbands' time allocations to housework by wives' educational levels, income, or occupational status (Bloch, 1973; Hunt & Kiker, 1978; Nichols & Metzen, 1978). Nichols and Metzen (1978) found that wives' earnings explained only 3.8% of the variance in husbands' household production time. When the b-values were interpreted, the relationship was rather weak:

> . . . for every one dollar increase in the wife's average hourly earnings, the husband increased his time inputs to housework by almost 18 hours per year; in other words, about 20 minutes per week. (Nichols & Metzen, 1978; p. 95)

Part of the reason that wives' increased power (as measured by occupational prestige) has had little effect on husbands' time allocations to housework may be the fact that women still earn much lower wages than men in the labor force. In 1975, 41% of the wives in the labor force were fully and steadily employed but they provided only 39% of family income (U. S. Department of Labor, 1975). Model (1981) succinctly summarized the problem:

> Buying her way to equal partnership is no easy task for a woman. A segregated labor market employs most women in lower-paying, poor status posts. (p. 235)

Recently, an increasing body of literature has concerned role strain and role overload experienced by employed, married women (Voydanoff, 1980). Psychologists have found that work satisfaction and liberal equalitarian sex role are important mediators of overload and strain (Kessler & McCrae, 1982). In the sociological literature, much of this research has focused on documenting the rewards and strains experienced by women in "dual-career" families in which two spouses exhibit high commitment to occupations that are continuous and developmental in nature (Rapaport & Rapaport, 1976). Pendleton, Poloma, and Garland (1982) and Poloma and Garland (1978) indicated that dual-career marriages are basically rewarding for both spouses, but there are also strains, particularly for wives who struggle to balance the demands of multiple roles. While some empirical

studies have found that dual-career couples rapidly change their perspectives on roles which influences greater sharing of household responsibilities (Pleck, 1977), studies of the division of household labor within dual-career families have indicated that husbands are allocating no more time or effort toward housework than are their more traditional counterparts (Perruci, Potter, & Rhoades, 1978; Weingarten, 1978). Yogev (1981) reported that dual-career wives believe that their husbands possess egalitarian attitudes but do not exhibit egalitarian behaviors (i.e., greater participation in housework). Even in families where a wife's occupation has higher prestige than her husband's, both husbands and wives reported time shortage, but husbands were not responding to this time shortage in ways that affected the time shortage of wives, i.e., they did not increase their performance of family duties (Voydanoff & Kelly, 1984).

Even though there is increasing research on the division of household labor and the problems and stresses of managing multiple roles of employed, married women, there are two major areas of concern that have received little attention. First, although methodologically sound time use data have documented the time allocations of large numbers of employed women (i.e., behavior), very few researchers have collected data concerning women's attitudes, perceptions, and satisfactions with the ways in which they use

their time. Very important questions remain unanswered. Do wives perceive that these time constraints are indeed burdensome? Are they satisfied with the ways in which they allocate their time and the ways their husbands use time? Are wives who are committed to high-status careers more satisfied with their time use than wives who exhibit less commitment to their jobs?

Second, as wives undoubtedly vary in their satisfaction regarding time use, do these differences influence the ways they handle role requirements and overload? Do they actively try to encourage increased participation in household tasks by husbands and other family members? Do they simply work harder or more efficiently under the pressure of time constraints or do they "tune out" the stress? In short, what coping strategies, if any, do employed women use to deal with perceived time constraints? What is the relationship between level of satisfaction and use of coping behaviors? Also, are career-committed wives similar to other wives in their use of coping strategies? This study will seek answers to these questions and thus provide a better understanding of employed, married women's attitudes toward their use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study were to:

1. Investigate preferences for the use of time of employed, married women;

2. compare preferences for the use of time between married women who are committed to careers in higher status occupations (career wives) and married women who are employed in lower status occupations (earner wives);

3. compare preferences for the use of time between career and earner wives, controlling for sex role attitudes, locus of control, weekly employment hours, age, education, family income, family size, presence of a child under age six, and number of rooms in the family dwelling;

4. investigate the strategies for coping with time constraints used by employed married women;

5. compare the use of strategies for coping with time constraints between career and earner wives;

6. compare the use of strategies for coping with time constraints between career and earner wives, controlling for sex role attitudes, locus of control, weekly employment hours, age, education, family income, family size, presence of a child under age six, and number of rooms in the family dwelling; and

7. compare preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints between career and earner wives, controlling for sex role attitudes, locus of control, weekly employment hours, age, education, family income, family size, presence of a child under age six, and number of rooms in the family dwelling.

Inherent in these purposes is the dichotomization of married, employed women into two groups: (a) career wives, committed to continuous employment in careers that are developmental in nature and whose occupations are in the top three categories of the occupational scale of the

Hollingshead (1958) Two Factor Index of Social Position; and (b) earner wives, employed in the labor market who don't fit the previous criteria.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations were imposed by use of the sampling area, Guilford County, North Carolina, and by use of the city directory for obtaining the population list. The results are only generalizable to the population of that sampling area.

The data were collected using mailed questionnaires, which was deemed appropriate given time and monetary constraints. However, the results pertain only to those women who were willing to provide written self-report data.

Although existing scales for the measurement of sex role attitudes and locus of control were used, and these scales have been repeatedly tested for validity and reliability, scales for the measurement of wives' preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints were developed by the researcher for use in the present study. Items were included in the scales based on the theoretical perspectives of other researchers and empirical results. Factor analysis procedures were performed to determine their dimensionality. However, the items lack repeated, rigorous testing for the establishment of their validity and reliability.

Respondents' estimations of their actual time allocations to employment and employment-related activities were included as covariates in the data analyses. Robinson (1977) has demonstrated that recall estimates of time allocations lack the exactness of time-diary data. However, given the major purposes of the present study and resource constraints, the use of recall estimates was deemed adequate.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

An empirical investigation of employed wives' perceptions of the use of time and the use of strategies for coping with time constraints mandates a review of the literature of several disciplines. First, the differing theoretical views of family sociologists and economists regarding the household division of labor will validate the need for further work on wives' subjective evaluations of their time allocations and will demonstrate the importance of a research model that employs a variety of economic, sociological, and demographic variables.

Second, a review of the research by home economists and family sociologists on wives' attitudes toward household production and their home roles will emphasize the importance of further analysis of wives' preferences for the use of time, per se. Family sociologists have focused on differentiating roles and assessing the amount of responsibility for household task performance between husbands and wives. Studies empirically measuring employed wives' attitudes toward and satisfaction with multiple roles are of primary interest and particularly relevant to the present study. Researchers from family economics and management

have been primarily concerned with wives' time allocations and wives' satisfactions with household work and individual household tasks. Indepth analyses of employed wives' satisfaction with their time use are virtually nonexistent.

Third, organizational psychologists and family sociologists have repeatedly established the relationship between role conflict and time pressures. However, the majority of empirical studies have investigated the pressures that arise from competing roles rather than employed wives' perceptions of time constraints and pressures.

Fourth, over the last decade, there has been a great deal of interest among social scientists in documenting the problems faced by wives who have chosen to simultaneously pursue careers and maintain families. These wives have been considered prime candidates for increased levels of role strain and role conflict. Results of these studies have demonstrated the importance of time constraints in the lives of many wives who are committed to pursuing careers.

Organizational, sociological, and family economics' studies of strategies used by employed wives to cope with multiple roles and time pressures will be reviewed in the last section. Although each of these disciplines has relied upon unique research traditions, many of the strategies that have been identified are similar across disciplines.

Theoretical Perspectives on the Division of Household Labor

Scientists from various disciplines have developed and tested theoretical models to provide plausible explanations of families' division of household labor. Family sociologists have proposed theories centering on the importance of personal resources, time available, and salience of traditional attitudes toward appropriate sex role behavior. Economists and family economists have focused on the economic model, often referred to as "the economic efficiency" hypothesis, which emphasizes the importance of the relative productivity of spouses' time in household labor.

Sociological Perspective

Family sociologists have proposed three major hypotheses for explaining the division of labor within families. These include: (a) resource theory, (b) the time available hypothesis, and (c) the socialization or social structural hypothesis.

Resource Theory. Resource theory as conceptualized by Blood and Wolfe (1960) posited that the relative resources brought to a marital relationship by spouses (i.e., occupational prestige, income, and education), determine the distribution of "power" in the family. Families become more "symmetrical" (Young & Wilmott, 1973), that is, share a greater proportion of family roles including household tasks, as wives increase their labor force participation and

accrue higher levels of income, education, and occupational status relative to their husbands. Many studies have supported the validity of the hypothesis (Emerson, 1962; Heer, 1963; Hoffman, 1963; Pleck, 1977; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970; Scanzoni, 1972, 1978). Other studies (Condran & Bode, 1982; Model, 1981) have provided only limited support or none at all (Farkas, 1976; Perruci, Potter & Rhoades, 1978; Weingarten, 1978).

The Time Available Hypothesis. Blood and Wolfe (1960) also proposed a time available hypothesis that posited an employed wife should receive more assistance from her husband with household tasks because she has less time for them. Studies firmly grounded in the sociological tradition that have examined the relationship between wives' employment status and household task involvement of husbands have both supported the hypothesis (Bahr, 1974) and refuted it (Bryson, Bryson, Licht & Licht, 1976; Stafford, Backman, & Diblona, 1977). However, there has been little methodological consistency in the measurement of the dependent variable, husbands' and wives' contributions to household labor.

The Socialization Hypothesis. The socialization or social structural hypothesis was based on the assumption that sex roles are culturally prescribed, are learned prior to marriage, and are not the result of bargaining within the family. Therefore, the division of household labor is conditioned by the social roles ascribed to each spouse and the

extent to which these roles are internalized (Heer, 1962; Turk & Bell, 1972, Berk & Shih, 1978). Studies that have included attitudinal measures of sex role ideology have generally provided only modest support for the hypothesis (Berheide, Berk, & Berk, 1976; Berk & Berk, 1978; Farkas, 1976; Perrucci, et al., 1978). However, based on the findings of their study of the division of labor in five household tasks (i.e., preparing meals, paying bills, performing home repairs, child discipline, and taking a child to the doctor) among 317 currently married couples, Condran and Bode (1982) concluded that socialization strongly influenced husbands' and wives' behavior and that most of the families in their 1980 sample were still operating under traditional sex role norms.

In general, sociological studies that have examined the division of household labor within families have varied in perspective as to the antecedents of that behavior and also have presented mixed results. There has been considerable variation in the operationalization of the dependent variables, some have concentrated mainly on power and decision making, while others have examined reports of behavior or attitudes toward the division sion of labor.

Economic Perspective

Becker's (1965, 1973, 1974) economic efficiency model of household production posited that household commodities (not market goods) were the immediate source of utility

(well-being) for families. This theory suggested that the household attempts to achieve the highest level of well-being possible, based on the relative productivity of spouses, subject to practical contraints on their ability to do so (time and income constraints). If the wage of one spouse exceeds the wage of the other, and the spouse with the lower wage is at least as efficient as the other in the production of household commodities, the low-wage spouse (typically the wife) will allocate more time to household production and less time to the labor force.

Accurate time use data and data on relative wage rates of family members are required for valid testing of the theory. Although some empirical studies have supported the theory (Gramm, 1974; Godwin, 1980; Gronau, 1974, 1977; Nichols & Metzen, 1978), time-budget studies have found that when spouses are employed full time, even at relatively equal wages, women still carry more of the household production responsibility than do men (Berk & Berk, 1978; Nichols & Metzen, 1978; Sanik, 1979).

Predictive analyses using time-budget data have generally found that wives' educational level, occupational status, and income explain little of the variance in husbands' time allocations to housework (Bloch, 1973; Gronau, 1976; Hill, Hunt, & Kiker, 1979; Nichols & Metzen, 1978). However, using data from the 1974 Panel of Income Dynamics collected yearly by the Survey Research Center at the

University of Michigan, Nichols and Metzen (1978) explained 25.5% of wives' time allocations to household work. Wives' annual labor force hours (which explained 21.4% of the total variance), wives' average hourly earnings, age of the youngest child, family money income, and wives' educational level were negatively related, but family size, husbands' annual labor force hours, and husbands' average hourly earnings were positively related to wives' time allocations to household work. Other empirical studies have generally found that variables other than wives' labor force hours explain little of the variance in wives' time allocations to household work (Hafstrom & Schram, 1983).

Recently, a number of limitations in Becker's economic efficiency model have been noted (Berk, 1980): (a) "Psychic rewards" gained from household production efforts are not recognized; (b) the theory assumes that the family engages in altruistic decision-making as a unit, that is, they maximize family utility, not the utility of a single individual; and, (c) researchers have experienced difficulty in operationalizing many of the critical variables in the household production function (e.g., they just use "reservation wage" as an estimation of the price of time of household members who are not employed).

In summary, sociologists have provided valuable theoretical frameworks for the study of the division of household labor. The mixed findings of studies employing these

frameworks are probably due, in part, to the imprecise measurement of husbands' and wives' actual contributions to household labor. Becker's economic efficiency theory has been repeatedly tested using time-budget data. These studies have provided valuable insights into family members' household production time but have also indicated that much work remains to be done in identifying and measuring factors that affect families' time use. Sex role attitudes, norms, and other social variables not included in traditional economic thought may play an important role in explaining the division of household labor within families (Berk, 1978; Vanek, 1980). The success of future studies in better explaining the division of household labor may depend upon the adoption of a multi-disciplinary framework as well as the implementation of improved data collection devices.

Recently, the literature concerning wives' attitudes toward their household labor inputs has been steadily growing. Again, family sociologists and family economists and management researchers have differed in their perspectives and measurement techniques. While family sociologists have focused on wives' satisfaction with the homemaker role, family economists and family management professionals have directed their attention on wives' satisfaction with the content of household work and the characteristics of household tasks. The various approaches and relevant results are presented in the following section.

Satisfaction with Household Work

Research concerning wives' attitudes toward and satisfaction with household work can be separated into four categories: (a) satisfaction with the homemaker role, (b) satisfaction with the division of household labor, (c) satisfaction with the characteristics of household tasks, and (d) satisfaction with time allocations to household work. Each of these will be discussed in the following sections.

Satisfaction with the Homemaker Role

Wives' satisfaction with roles has received a great deal of empirical attention probably due to two reasons. First, during the 1960's, the quality of life became an important area of concern of many social scientists. Researchers measuring the quality of life found that individuals' satisfaction with various aspects of their lives (e.g., standard of living, job satisfaction, leisure time, housing, health, and family life) were related to overall happiness or satisfaction with life (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). The rise in the number of married women in the paid labor force, and the publication of national time use data documenting that employed wives typically spend more time working (i.e., performing employment and family work) and less time engaging in leisure activities than wives who were not employed (Campbell, et al., 1976; Robinson, 1977; Vanek, 1974; Walker & Woods, 1976) spurred empirical analyses of the relationships

between wives' performance of multiple roles, satisfaction with those roles, and overall satisfaction with life (Wright, 1978). Second, the women's liberation movement raised many issues pertaining to sex biases. Since the role of "housewife" had traditionally been ascribed to women, the "nature of housework" was of increasing concern to those wishing to correct biased attitudes (Ferree, 1980).

Empirical studies investigating differences between employed and non-employed wives in satisfaction with employment versus homemaking roles have provided mixed results. While some found that employed wives were more satisfied with their lives (Ferree, 1976; Hall & Gordon, 1973; Nye, 1963), others found no significant differences in general satisfaction between employed wives and non-employed housewives (Campbell et al., 1976; Wright, 1978). Nye (1963) found no significant differences between employed wives and non-employed wives in four areas of life (income, housing, recreation, and children), but women who were employed full time found more satisfaction in their work than non-employed wives found in housework. Ferree (1976) concluded that employed wives accrued certain "psychic" benefits (in addition to the obvious monetary benefits) over housewives which included higher levels of competence, self-esteem, and greater opportunities for independence and self-determination. Wright (1978) compared the results of six large national surveys conducted by the University of Michigan and the

National Opinion Research Center between 1971 and 1976 and concluded that the data did not confirm Ferree's (1976) findings that women with outside employment were happier or more satisfied than housewives.

Recently, Ferree (1984) argued that caution must be exercised in relying upon results of studies using "global" measures of satisfaction or overall happiness because satisfaction is often reported after an individual has come to terms with circumstances that may be less than ideal. Generations of wives have enjoyed positive sanctions accrued from their attendance to family and home roles, but employment has been associated with role conflict and costs versus benefits to families:

> Normatively, housewives are supposed to be happier than women who have to juggle the demands of "two roles"; it would not be surprising if they attempted to conform to this norm in their reported happiness. (Ferree, 1984; p. 1059)

Satisfaction with the Division of Household Labor

Pleck (1981) concluded that, based on existing survey data, a majority of wives, regardless of employment status, prefer to have primary responsibility for performing household tasks. Slocum and Nye (1976) investigated attitudes toward the housekeeper role among 210 couples and found that employed wives tended to think that husbands should be more involved with housework. However, 56.7% of all employed wives stated that wives should perform more of the housework activities than husbands, and 40% stated that the wife only

should be responsible for the housekeeping role. Only 2.2% believed that both husbands and wives should perform the housekeeping activities equally.

Contrary to the general expectation that the attitudes of younger wives would be more supportive of sharing the housework role, Albrecht, Bahr, and Chadwick (1979) found that there were no differences between age groups in their preferences for the division of labor in child-care, kinship, and housekeeping roles. When asked, "Who should do the housekeeping?", 74% of wives under 30 years of age, 76% of wives 30-44 years of age, 78% of wives 45-54 years of age, and 69% of wives 65 years or age and older stated that the wife should do more than the husband. Furthermore, 18% 17%, 14%, and 19% of the wives in those respective age categories stated that the wife should be entirely responsible for the housekeeping. Although attitudes toward the housekeeper role remained traditional, there was a statistically significant difference between wives in the younger age group and older wives in the attitude that wives should share a greater proportion of the "provider" role. It would seem that although wives' attitudes toward participating in the labor force are becoming more liberal, this is not accompanied by a change of attitudes concerning responsibility for household work.

In speculating on the reasons for the continued role segregation in the performance of household work, Berk

(1976) commented that many women have accepted household work inequalities as normative and prescriptive for themselves. Their attitudes may be influenced by the perception that their efforts are "labors of love", by the fear of disapproval, or by the fact that they perceive they have few alternatives:

> For many, their homemaker role dominates even if they are employed. More than men, their aspirations, self-images and esteem may be linked to the smooth functioning of a "happy" household. In short, should the home environment begin to deteriorate as a result of their pressing for more involvement in housework from husbands, the wife may experience the rancor more intensely. (Berk, 1976; p. 352)

The research on wives' satisfaction with roles in general indicates that the broader roles of wife, mother, and homemaker are satisfying to many women, regardless of employment status. As Degler (1980) has indicated, as long as wives continue to find their greatest satisfaction from family roles, they will not press for changes in household labor arrangements.

Satisfaction with the Characteristics of Household Tasks

During the 1960's and 1970's while many researchers were investigating women's roles in general, a few but important studies of wives' satisfaction with household tasks were undertaken by family resource management professionals. It is interesting to note that this research closely parallels the business research on job satisfaction within the business organization. Hackman and Oldham (1976, 1980)

found that job satisfaction is enhanced and workers react positively to their jobs when the work itself provides three "critical psychological states" for the workers: (a) experienced meaningfulness of the work, (b) experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work, and (c) knowledge of the results of work activities. These three psychological states are created by the presence of five "core" job dimensions that include: (a) skill variety in the work, (b) personal identification with a complete and whole piece of work, (c) task significance (degree to which a job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of others), (d) autonomy, and (e) feedback about job performance. Instruments have been developed for the measurement of job satisfaction (Hackman & Lawler, 1975; Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) and these have repeatedly been subjected to tests of validity and reliability (e.g., Brief & Aldag, 1978; Dunham, 1976; Dunham, Smith, & Blackburn, 1977; Ferratt, Dunham, & Pierce, 1981; Green, Armenakis, Marbert, & Bedian, 1979; Griffin, 1981; Golembiewski & Yeager, 1978; Lee & Klein, 1982; Pierce & Dunham, 1978; Yeager, 1981).

It would seem that household work would provide a significant source of satisfaction if it were examined employing a framework similar to Hackman and Olham's (1976) "critical psychological states" and "core" job dimensions. A major reason that empirical analyses along these lines

have been lacking may be that as a whole, housework includes tasks which are both complex and simple, some which require high levels of cognitive skills (e.g., attention, judgement, and planning), and others which are less demanding in time, effort, and procedural matters (Steidl, 1975a). Studies concerning individual tasks within the whole of household work could become quite lengthy and unwieldy if each task were examined separately.

Two studies (Maloch, 1963; Ronald, Singer, & Firebaugh, 1971) were undertaken by home economists who proceeded on the assumption that satisfaction or dissatisfaction with household work was not endemic but was characteristic of certain identifiable features of each task. Subjects were asked to identify the most and least-liked tasks and indicate reasons why tasks were were either liked or disliked. Subjective responses were categorized as either situational factors (characteristics of the work setting and equipment, appreciation of the results by family members, short-term results from the work itself, and social isolation while completing tasks), and/or "intrinsic factors" (time spent, pride in results, setting of own pace, monotony, creativity, and mental effort required). The work was largely descriptive and the fact that it has not been refined and given further empricial attention represents a very real deficiency in the literature on wives' satisfaction with the content of household work.

Steidl (1975b) investigated wives' satisfaction with household tasks but did not succeed in proving her hypothesis that wives like high-cognitive tasks and dislike low-cognitive ones. Both employed and non-employed wives reported reasons for liking and disliking high-cognitive and low-cognitive tasks. High-cognitive tasks were liked because pleasure was derived from the results, they were interesting, varied, creative, and the process of completing the tasks was enjoyed. Low-cognitive tasks were liked because pleasure was derived from the results. Dislike of low-cognitive tasks was associated with the inability to finish a task once it was begun, short-term results, monotony, and lack of creativity inherent in the task. Reasons for disliking high-cognitive tasks pertained to the time factor (i.e., they were time consuming, inability to set one's own pace, and feelings of being rushed). This last point is especially relevant for this study and will be given further attention in a later section.

One study by Arvey and Gross (1977) attempted to integrate wives' attitudes toward the homemaker role and attitudes toward the components of that role. Satisfaction with household tasks was measured by thirteen items from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire that were judged to be applicable to the homemaker role and included such concepts as feelings of accomplishment, the chance to use their own methods, the chance to do different things, and being able

to keep busy all of the time. There were no significant differences between homemakers and job holders in satisfaction with the homemaker role on age, education, income variables, number of children at home, or sex role orientation. Descriptive results indicated that 74.5% of the homemakers and 73% of the job holders were satisfied or very satisfied with the homemaker role.

Clearly, additional empirical research is needed to provide a better understanding of the dimensions of satisfaction with household work and the factors that contribute to wives' satisfaction or dissatisfaction. It may be concluded from the few studies that have been completed that although some tasks within the whole of household work may be boring, tedious, fatiguing, and disliked (Oakley, 1974a) wives view the performance of them as necessary and derive some satisfaction from the results, appreciation from family members, and from the knowledge that they are contributing to overall family welfare.

Satisfaction with Time Allocations to Household Work

Knowledge of how people use time has been deemed a powerful indicator of the quality of societal life (Robinson, 1977). Over the years, sociologists (Bevans, 1913; Lundberg, Komorovsky, & McInerny, 1934; Reiss, 1959; Sorokin & Berger, 1939) have added valuable insights into ways in which Americans use time and have laid the methodological "groundwork" for the more recent "time-budget" studies that

have used time-diaries or time-logs to collect data from large national samples (Robinson & Converse, 1965, 1972; Walker & Woods, 1976) and from multi-national samples (Szalai, Converse, Feldheim, Scheuch, & Stone, 1972). Their importance has been succinctly stated:

> . . . one can visualize these 24 hours as available input to all members of a population, with the output, in the form of choice of activities, representing a combination of preferences and contraints within the population. This output, particularly for the less constrained uses of time, comprises rather solid behavioral evidence of the preferences and values of individuals. (Robinson, 1977; p. 6)

Although time-budget studies have provided valuable aggregate information about time allocations to various activities across different groups and across time periods, only a few of these elaborate studies have attempted to provide insight into the psychological meanings of activities to their participants or any information concerning satisfactions with the amount of time allocated to various activities. Robinson (1977) has observed this deficiency:

> Analyses of time use are always haunted by the spectre of Parkinson's (1957) famous law, namely activities expand to fill the time available for their completion. Two individuals (or the same individual at two time points) are classified as "working", "preparing meals", or "watching television" when one is doing so to kill time and the other to transcend the level of his environment; or when one is actively enjoying the activity and the other performing it perfunctorily. (p. 8)

Robinson has pioneered several attempts to provide some insight into the meanings attached to everyday activities (e.g., the amount of satisfaction gained by participation in

various activities, and feelings individuals have about the "high-points" and "low-points" of their day, not satisfaction with time allocations, per se). Sections eliciting subjective information were included in the 1965-1966 national time study conducted by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan, and in two smaller studies, one in Jackson, Michigan, and the other, the Interim Survey of the Survey Research Center (Robinson, 1977; Robinson & Converse, 1972).

The 1965-1966 data yielded information on differences in men's and women's satisfaction with household work activities. Women indicated that they were moderately satisfied with cooking food and shopping but men were less satisfied with these activities. However, men and women were moderately satisfied performing "housework", a term that was defined by the respondents.

For the 1975 data, obligatory activities were separated from free-time activities and respondents were asked to state whether each activity within the two categories was something he or she "wanted to do". Unfortunately, results were not presented separately for men and women and for employed versus non-employed women so that little of the data pertains to this study.

In summary, although the literature on wives' satisfaction with the homemaker role has received a great deal more empirical attention than either wives' satisfaction with the

tasks that are included in "household work" or satisfaction with time use, conclusive evidence that employed women are more or less satisfied with that role than their non-employed counterparts has not been presented. Attitudes toward the division of household labor have remained fairly "traditional", with wives indicating that household tasks are clearly their responsibility and they prefer for them to be. It has been speculated that wives' expressions of relatively high levels of satisfaction with their homemaker roles may be attributed to their perceptions that they have no other choices regarding the performance of household work (Berk, 1976) and have therefore "internalized" the housework role (Ferree, 1980).

The limited research into satisfaction with the content of household work (i.e., the different tasks that comprise the whole of "housework") has revealed that although some tasks are disliked, pleasure is generally derived from the results and from overall contributions to the functioning of the family. Therefore, it follows that if working wives are not unduly dissatisfied with household work and indeed find some pleasure in performing household tasks, perceived time constraints may be a primary source of dissatisfaction.

Unfortunately, few empirical studies have contributed toward a better understanding of wives' satisfactions or dissatisfaction with their time allocations. This represents a serious deficiency in the literature in light of the

evidence that a fairly common complaint about time in daily life in the United States is the "pressure" of time (Robinson, 1976; Robinson, Yerby, Fieweger, & Somerick, 1977), and an often mentioned reason for "dislike" of certain household tasks included time factors (i.e., they were time consuming, feelings of being rushed, and the inability to finish a task once it was begun) (Steidl, 1975b).

Recently, there have been several empirical studies of role conflict and role strain among married, employed women. These studies have often included time pressures as one component of role conflict. The relationships between role conflict, role strain, time constraints, and time pressures will be discussed and relevant research findings reviewed in the following section.

Role Conflict, Role Strain, and Time Constraints

In response to the advent of married women into the paid labor force, many researchers have empirically documented the conflicts and strains associated with the acquisition and performance of multiple roles. Academicians in two separate disciplines--organizational psychology and family sociology--have defined and measured role strain and role conflict. Although there are similarities in the definitions of these constructs between the two disciplines, the underlying research motivations have differed.

Among organizational psychologists, "role" has been defined as:

> . . . a set of expectations applied to the incumbent of a particular position by the incumbent and by role senders within and beyond the organization's boundaries. (Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981; p. 43)

Scholars grounded in the family sociological research tradition have generally accepted a "structural" definition of roles which acknowledges cultural influences:

> A role represents the dynamic aspect of a status. The individual is socially assigned to a status and occupies it with relation to other statuses. When he puts the rights and duties which constitute the status into effect, he is performing a role. (Linton, 1936; p. 114)

Theorists from both disciplines have adopted "role strain" as a term that refers to pressures that can result from the competing demands of expectations and duties within a single role (intra-role conflicts) or from competing but fluctuating roles (inter-role conflict) (Goode, 1960; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Nye, 1976). Komorovsky (1973) and Merton (1966) have indicated that there is a range of freedom of role performance within a single role that allows people to fill that role without experiencing role strain. However, role strain can also result from inter-role conflict when norms or behavior patterns of one role are inconsistent with those of a second role (Gross, Ward, & McEachern, 1958).

Researchers from both disciplines have demonstrated the relationships between time pressures and role conflict among the incumbents of single and multiple roles. However, in the business literature, role overload has been accepted as one dimension of role conflict, whereas family sociologists have focused on time constraints in the performance of the activities associated with multiple roles. Relevant research and the differences in the various approaches to the study of role strain are reported in the following sections.

The Organizational Perspective

There has been a growing body of literature over the last two decades relating role theory to employee stress and strain within the organization. Kahn et al. (1964) posited that "role ambiguity" and "role conflict" are two separate concepts but that each are important in measuring role strain. Role ambiguity was defined as the degree to which clear information is lacking regarding: (a) expectations associated with a role, (b) methods for fulfilling known role expectations, and (c) the consequences of role performance. "Role conflict" was defined as the incongruity between the expectations associated with a role which included: (a) intra-role conflict or incompatible expectations within one role; (b) inter-role conflict or role pressures arising from different roles; and (c) role overload or pressures arising from expectations that the role incumbent

engage in several role behaviors, all of which may be mutually compatible in the abstract, but within too short a time period they are incompatible (Kahn et al., 1964).

Two notable and widely used instruments have been developed for the empirical measurement of role strain (Kahn et al., 1964; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Considerable attention has been devoted to validating the underlying dimensions of these instruments (Breaugh, 1980; MacKinnon, 1978; Tracy & Johnson, 1981). Empirical studies have investigated the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction (Abdel-Halim, 1981; Bedian & Armenakis, 1981; Keller, 1975), and job stress (Miles, 1976; Sales, 1970; Seers, McGee, Serey, & Green, 1983).

Empirical research investigating the sources of stress within business organizations have demonstrated the importance of workload and time. In a multi-national study of 33 different sub-populations, Hofstede, Kraut, and Simonetta (1976) found that the variables that exhibited the highest consistent correlations with higher levels of stress at work (measured by responses to a single item, "How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?") were associated with more work expected, additional time spent on the job, and less satisfaction with time for personal or family life. Kraut and Ronen (1975) performed multiple regression analyses on data collected from five countries and two occupations to identify factors that contributed to work tension (measured

by one general question), and found that the work facet that predicted the largest share of work tension variance was satisfaction with personal time. That is, individuals who were less satisfied with personal time expressed higher levels of work tension.

Few organizational studies have focused specifically on either role strain or stress among employed, married women. Nevill and Damico (1975) investigated the relationship between marriage as a stressful role and dysfunctional behavior on the job. Herman and Gyllstrom (1977) studied 500 employees of a major midwestern university to determine if men and women holding multiple roles perceived different levels of inter- and intra-role conflict. Married women with at least one child present in the home and who were employed full time reported no more inter-role conflict than did men in the sample who held a comparable number of roles. Neither the number of roles nor the employee's sex were related to intra-work conflict as measured by the Job Tension Index (Kahn et al., 1964). However, the separation of employees into three groups which included faculty, academic professionals, and non-academics, revealed that although female faculty indicated the highest levels of job satisfaction, they also expressed higher levels of job-related tension than did male faculty. Quality of supervison and promotional opportunities were identified as sources of job-related tension. Based on the results, the researchers

concluded that an employer could not justify hiring a male over an equally competent female on the grounds that women will experience greater inter-role conflict.

Hall and Gordon (1973) found that there was no support for the hypothesis that married, employed women experience greater inter-role conflict than women who are not employed or employed part-time. Validated instruments were not used to measure conflict and pressure; rather, conflicts were expressed by the subjects and coded according to the source of conflict: (a) home, (b) non-home, (c) self, and (d) time (time did not involve any particular role but was mentioned frequently). Correlation coefficients indicated that the presence of conflict related negatively to overall happiness and life satisfaction for full-time housewives and full-time employed women only, not part-time employed women. Women employed full time expressed the highest level of overall satisfaction (as measured by one global question), but experienced the greatest time pressures and indicated that home roles were a source of some conflict. However, housewives also indicated that home roles and self-induced pressures were the sources of conflict.

Two major limitations of the Hall and Gordon (1973) study deserve attention. First, data were collected from two non-random samples. The first included 109 women who attended a university seminar on roles and was under-representative of full-time employed women. The fact that

subjects attended the seminar may have meant that they were somewhat unhappy with their home roles. Second, an additional sample of 299 subjects was drawn from lists of college graduates of the university and included a greater proportion of women employed full time. However, their educational attainment may have produced higher levels of overall satisfaction.

Additional studies utilizing larger, more representative samples are needed to gain a better understanding of *inter-role conflict among female employees* and subsequent role strain. Many of the empirical studies of role conflict within organizations have either pertained solely to men, or to women who are relegated to sex-stereotyped positions (e.g., secretaries) (Johnson & Green, 1973).

The Sociological Perspective

The widespread expansion of women's roles to include occupational ones has spurred a great deal of interest among family sociologists to document the relationships between work involvement and familial interaction (Aldous, 1969; McDonald, 1977; Nye, 1974, 1976; Pleck, 1977; Rodman, 1972; Raven, Centers, & Rodrigues, 1975; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970; Scanzoni, 1972, 1975). Researchers have generally assumed that time and energy are limited resources (Marks, 1977), and that the assumption and performance of multiple roles naturally leads to role conflict (i.e., difficulty in meeting given role demands) (Goode, 1960). Research

investigating the relationships between multiple roles, role conflict, and role strain are particularly relevant to this study. In his indepth analysis of roles within the family, Nye (1976) identified eight major family roles (socialization, child care, provider, housekeeper, therapeutic, sexual, kinship, and recreational), and defined "role strain" as the extent to which subjects in his study worried about their performance of each role. Sources of "role conflict" were identified as: (a) conflicting expectations among two or more people concerning the behavior appropriate for a single role, (b) lack of role enactment, (c) disagreements on role sharing, and (d) conflicts over role competence.

It has generally been accepted that individuals tend to prioritize roles (Goode, 1960; Nye, 1976). The roles given highest priority are those carrying the greatest social rewards and those which directly or indirectly affect the performance of other roles (Goode, 1960). Nye (1976) found that strong negative sanctions result from non-compliance with norms associated with child-socialization, child care, provider, and housekeeper roles. Therefore, based on the assumption that time and energy are limited, an employed, married woman would be pressed to place primary importance on child-socialization, child care, housekeeper, and occupational roles, and to relegate therapeutic, sexual, kinship, and recreational roles to a lower status.

It has been well documented that women who allocate time and energy to employment and family roles are caught in two mutually exclusive sets of priorities (Bailyn, 1974; Mintz & Patterson, 1969; Navin, 1972). Pleck (1977) has argued that traditional American cultural norms influence the performance of multiple roles, and therefore, role priorities have been different for women than for men. For women, the demands of the family role are permitted to intrude upon the work role more than the work role intrudes into the family role. For men, however, work roles take precedence the family roles.

Descriptive data from the 1971 national study on the quality of life in America (Campbell et al., 1976) verified that individuals with more roles, and especially women with multiple roles, expressed higher levels of feeling rushed. Married, employed women with three or more children (at least one preschool age) exhibited the highest mean (5.8 on a 7-point scale with 7 corresponding to "always feeling rushed") on this indicator of all groups. By comparison, the mean for men with similar roles was 4.2, and the mean for women who were not employed but who exhibited the same family characteristics was 4.8. The lowest mean of all groups was 3.0 for non-employed, unmarried women with no children.

In their study of determinants of work-related family problems among 468 working parents, Voydanoff and Kelly (1984) found that gender had the highest zero-order correlation with time shortage. Women were significantly more likely to report time shortage as a problem than men. Life-cycle characteristics such as the presence of preschool or school-age children were also significantly and positively related to perceived time shortage.

Not all studies have indicated that women with multiple roles feel rushed or experience role strain. Katz and Piotrkowski (1983) measured role strain by respondents' perceptions of difficulties in scheduling ten family-related activities. The sample was composed of 51 black, employed mothers who volunteered their participation. Most of the women did not report extreme difficulty in managing family roles. In fact, 40.8% indicated relative ease in arranging their time to fulfill family role obligations, while 30.6% indicated neither ease nor difficulty in performing role obligations. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses indicated that 57% of the variance in role strain was explained by job autonomy and job demands (the extent of time pressure, effort, and work load on the job), which were negatively related to role strain, and by number of children, which had a positive relationship to role strain. Education, age, presence or absence of husband, job hours,

job satisfaction, and age of the youngest child were not statistically significant in explaining role strain among these black women.

In summary, the importance of time constraints and time pressures as antecedents of role strain and the relationship between perceived time pressures and role conflict have been demonstrated by organizational psychologists and family sociologists. However, with the exception of a study by Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981), concerning the relationship between flexible employment scheduling and family role strain, and that of Katz and Piotrowski (1983) which utilized a small, non-random, homogeneous sample, family research has measured role strain in terms of competing roles, rather than perceptions of time pressures. Hansen and Johnson (1979), in their review and integration of the literature on family stress theory emphasized the importance of time and its interplay with other variables:

> Time, however, has not played a great part as a concept in family research. . . Temporal factors, we believe, should be given close and continuing attention in family research and theory, and particularly in areas concerned with change, such as stress study. (p. 589)

Future empirical research will undoubtedly place greater emphasis on the study of time constraints to clarify and explain the relationships between multiple roles and role strain.

Role Conflict and Role Strain Among Dual-Career Wives

Since the latter part of the 1960's, many scholars have sought to gain a better understanding of the relatively "new" family form, the dual-career couple. Recognition of the need for studying dual-career families as a distinct and "structural type" of family emerged from the literature that focused on the changing roles of women (Nye & Hoffman, 1963; Orden & Bradburn, 1969; Rossi, 1964). "Dual-career" was first coined by Rapaport and Rapaport (1969) and was defined as: "A type of family in which both heads of household pursue careers that are developmental in character and which require a continuous and high degree of commitment" (p. 18).

Initial studies of dual-career families, labeled as "first generation" studies by Rapaport and Rapaport (1980), were generally descriptive and qualitative in nature and charted many of the structural strains, the rewards, and the processes through which the dual-career pattern was sustained (Epstein, 1971; Garland, 1972; Poloma, 1972; Rapaport & Rapaport, 1969, 1971). Most emphasized the stresses associated with maintaining a dual-career family under the circumstances and ideological setting of the late 1960's.

The second generation of dual-career studies utilized cross-sectional samples and were designed to test hypotheses rather than formulate them (Rapaport & Rapaport, 1980). For example, Bebbington (1973) sought to determine reasons why couples opted for the dual-career pattern when not forced to

do so. The results indicated that many dual-career wives viewed the dilemmas as "challenges" and felt that they would be bored with more traditional lifestyles. Many of the dual-career wives were reared in homes in which their mothers worked, and many observed high levels of tension during their socialization experiences and, thus, became acclimatized to relatively high stress levels.

Since the mid 1970's, the third generation of dual-career studies have been more focused and research methods have become more diverse. A number of studies have documented the "strain" placed on dual-career couples by the rigid occupational environment, male bias, and demanding or "greedy" careers (Bailyn, 1978; Handy, 1978; Rosen, Jerdee, & Prestwich, 1975). Role strain experienced by dual-career wives has been well documented but various methods have been employed for its measurement (Darley, 1976; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979; Kuiper, 1977; Rapaport & Rapaport, 1976).

Keith and Schafer (1980) operationalized the measurement of work-family role strain by assessing the frequency by which subjects in their sample of 135 dual-career couples felt bothered by four situations: (a) feeling that their job outside the home interfered with their family life, (b) feeling that their family interfered with their job outside the home, (c) thinking that the amount of work interfered with how it was done, and (d) feeling that others in the family did not do household tasks as well as they should be

done. Approximately 10% of the variance in role strain was explained by hours per week worked, spouse's weekly hours of employment, and number of children in the home, which were positively related, and by age, which was negatively related to role strain. The extent of involvement in either masculine or feminine household tasks (measured by who usually did each of six household tasks) was not related to role strain of husbands or wives.

Rapaport and Rapaport (1976) found that feelings of role overload and role strain experienced by various couples depended upon and were positively related to the degree to which: (a) having children and a family life was salient, (b) the couple aspired to a high standard of domestic living, (c) the social-psychological overload compounded the physical overloads, and (d) there was a satisfactory reapportionment of domestic tasks (a coping strategy).

Pines and Kafry (1981) examined the similarities and differences between 96 male and 95 female professionals in their experience of "tedium", defined as:

> . . . a general experience of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion characterized by depression; emotional and physical depletion; burnout; and negative attitudes toward one's life, one's environment, and oneself. (p. 963)

Women in their non-random sample were found to have fewer positive work features than men, and to consider their lives outside of work as more important than work, but there were no statistically significant differences between women and

men in their overall report of tedium. Females reported less of such positive features at work as variety, autonomy, influence, rewards, and appreciation, and more negative features such as environmental pressures and emotional overextension. There were far less significant differences between males and females in life characteristics than in work characteristics. Women reported experiencing more guilt and more overextension in their lives outside of work, but had better personal relations and emotional support.

In spite of the evidence that many dual-career wives perceive the satisfactory fulfillment of their family obligations and advancement on the job as two conflicting goals (Hall & Hall, 1979; Kuiper, 1977), empirical investigations have found that most dual-career wives are unwilling to downgrade the importance of family life and children (Hester & Dickerson, 1981; Rosen, Jerdee, & Prestwich, 1975). Poloma, Pendleton, and Garland (1981) succinctly summarized the dilemma faced by the 45 professional women in their study:

> . . . while combining a professional career, marriage, and motherhood is very appealing in ideal terms, it may require a 'superwoman' to do so in the face of current American cultural norms. (p. 205)

Contrary to the notion promoted in the popular literature that dual-career wives perform fewer household tasks than wives who are less committed to careers or who are not employed in the labor market, two empirical studies have

found no differences in household work by women who were employed professionally versus those who were not employed (Perrucci et al, 1978; Weingarten, 1978). Perrucci et al. (1978) tested hypotheses concerning the division of household and child-care labor between spouses and found that sex role ideology had more influence on husbands' task performance than did wives' resources (education, income, occupational status) or time availability. Johnson and Johnson (1980) indicated:

> Women continue to bear the primary responsibility for child rearing at the same time that they are actively engaged in careers. Their greatest problems are guilt and anxiety over perceived failures in mothering. In contrast, the husbands, while quite supportive of their wives' endeavors, approached these pressing demands from a more rational, non-emotional perspective, so they did not bear the emotional costs of role strain so prominent among the wives. In other words, individuals continued to act out the sex roles established early in life. (p. 145)

In summary, empirical studies have verified that married women who have chosen to be continually committed to pursuing demanding careers are susceptible to strains and conflicts among their multiple roles. In addition to coping with the stresses inherent in their work roles in a highly competitive and demanding labor market, even professional women continue to carry the major responsibility for household work. Traditional sex role attitudes have prevailed and continue to influence family role behavior as well as the emotional adjustment of dual-career wives.

Many sociological studies have found that for many dual-career wives, a supportive family environment mitigates the effects of role strain, and that perceptions of greater spousal sympathy serve preventative and therapeutic functions (Burke & Weir, 1977). However, major questions remain unanswered. How do wives actually cope with time constraints resulting from multiple roles? Do wives who are committed to careers differ in their use of coping behaviors from wives who are holding jobs rather than pursuing careers? The following section is devoted to a review of the studies that have addressed these issues.

Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

Many social scientists have asserted that the "context" of coping adequately defines the concept. For example, Pearlin and Schooler (1978) defined coping as, "The things people do to avoid being harmed by life strains" (p. 2). Lazarus, Averill, and Optin (1974) defined coping as including both the most casual and realistic forms of problem-solving as well as the most highly motivated and pathological attempts to remove oneself from real or imagined dangers.

As Pearlin and Schooler (1978) have indicated, little empirical attention has been directed toward identifying "coping" strategies; and this is particularly true in relation to household production. This is in striking contrast to the number of studies that have focused on identifying

"circumstances" that are potentially harmful to individual and family well-being. By centering on the conditions that require coping behaviors, social scientists have left knowledge of coping behaviors and strategies primarily to clinical workers (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978).

Organizational psychologists have developed a number of standardized questionnaires that measure psychological defense mechanisms (Blum, 1956; Finney, 1965; Gleser & Ihilevich, 1969; Haan, 1965, Joffe & Naditch, 1977; Schultz, 1967). These instruments have been used mainly in the clinical assessment of responses to stress (Vickers & Hervig, 1981). It is beyond the scope of this study to include an indepth analysis of psychological defense mechanisms used by employed, married women in coping with time pressures. The primary focus of the following discussion will be the review of empirical studies that have identified coping behaviors used by employed women in their management of time constraints and strains resulting from multiple roles.

The Organizational Literature Related to Coping

Much of the organizational research has focused on the relationship between role strain and coping within the business organization. Theorists who have developed models of organizational stress have acknowledged the importance of coping behaviors and responses in alleviating the effects of role stress (Beehr & Newman, 1978; Burke & Weir, 1980; Kahn et al., 1964). A few researchers have empirically examined

and assessed the efficacy of strategies used by individuals in mitigating the effects of role strain at work (Burke & Belcourt, 1974; Hall, 1972; Parasuraman & Cleek, 1984; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). Burke and Belcourt (1974) isolated successful and unsuccessful patterns of coping with specific types of role conflict. Kahn et al. (1964) maintained that the most successful strategy for handling role conflict involved rational attempts to change the external reality of role demands and thus make them more congruent with an individual's goals. Schuler (1979) verified that direct intervention into situations of high role conflict and ambiguity was an effective way to break dysfunctional role patterns. Parasuraman and Cleek (1984) identified adaptive managerial coping behaviors (e.g., planning, organizing, and prioritizing assignments, enlisting the support of powerful others, requesting needing resources, and finding better ways of accomplishing the work), and maladaptive behaviors (e.g., working harder but making more mistakes, sticking to one solution to problems, leaving the workplace, trying to do two things at once, and telling one's supervisor that "something must give") that modify felt stress and job satisfaction.

One organizational study of coping that identified strategies used by employed women in the management of their multiple roles was undertaken by Hall (1972). Utilizing data from two samples of highly educated women, the

following general strategies or methods of coping with role conflict were delineated: (a) structural role redefinition strategies, which included direct interventions to alter external, environmentally imposed expectations; (b) personal role redefinition strategies, or attempts to change one's own perceptions and attitudes regarding role responsibilities and behaviors; and (c) reactive role behaviors, or attempts to find ways to meet all role expectations. Initial analyses using data from a pilot sample indicated that structural role redefinition strategies were the only group of strategies that were statistically significantly related to life satisfaction (as measured by one general question), and the direction of the relationship was positive. In short, greater use of structural tural role redefinition strategies produced higher levels of life satisfaction. For this group of college educated women, the reactive role strategies (e.g., working harder, working longer hours, assuming that all expectations must be met and that there is no way to cope but to meet them) were negatively related to life satisfaction.

Based on the results of his study, Hall (1972) posited that for some women, coming to terms with one's own attitudes may be the most effective method of coping with role conflicts. Attitude clarification and acceptance may be preliminary to implementing structural role redefinition strategies. In addition, he concluded that reactive role

strategies were defensive, and therefore, were not technically coping strategies.

In a later study of the same data, Hall (1975) reported that age and stage in the family life cycle were not related to the use of coping strategies. However, women with more roles experienced more conflicts arising from time pressures and performed more personal role redefinition strategies such as changing attitudes and expectations regarding role performance.

Beutell and Greenhaus (1983) utilized Hall's (1972) framework of coping strategies in their study of 115 married women who had children living at home and who were college students. A hypothesis developed by Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble, and Zellerman (1978), that rigid sex role attitudes are related to the development of inflexible coping strategies, was tested. Analyses indicated that although women with non-traditional attitudes experienced more home-nonhome conflicts than women who held more traditional sex role attitudes, these women were more likely to use structural role redefinition and personal role redefinition strategies. Moreover, the structural and personal redefinition strategies were deemed more successful by these women than reactive role behaviors. However, reactive role behaviors (e.g., working harder and longer) were used more frequently by the entire sample than structural or personal role redefinition strategies. The authors concluded that,

given the limitations of the study, a husband's sex role attitudes may be associated with his wife's home-nonhome conflicts and that a wife's sex role attitudes may be associated with her choice of strategies to cope with conflict.

Family Sociological Literature Related to Coping

An examination of the family sociological literature concerning coping behaviors reveals that many of the empirical studies have centered on family responses to "stressors" which are commonly defined as "life events" or occurrences of sufficient magnitude to bring about change in the family system (Hill, 1949). These have included investigations of family responses to both non-normative events (e.g., wars, loss of family members, changes in health status, unemployment, etc.) and normative life events (changes in major roles, life-stage transitions, etc.) (McCubbin, Joy, Cauble, Comeau, Patterson, & Needle, 1980).

Other family sociological studies of coping have explored the use of personal resources (including psychological resources) (George, 1980; Hansen & Johnson, 1979; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978) and family resources Burr, 1973; Olson, Sprenkle, & Russell, 1979) in the management of normative and non-normative stressors. Family resources that have been found effective in coping have included the family's problem solving abilities (Aldous, Condran, Hill, Straus, & Tallman, 1971; Klein & Hill, 1979; Reiss, 1971) and social support networks such as neighborhoods, kinship,

and mutual self-help groups (Caplan, 1976; Litwak & Szelenyi, 1969).

Based on the assumption that individuals actively respond to forces that affect them, Pearlin and Schooler (1978) investigated the relationships between strains resulting from multiple roles and the effectiveness of a number of coping strategies. The coping behaviors were organized according to the protective function of that behavior: (a) eliminating or modifying conditions that produce the problem, (b) perceptually controlling the meaning of the experience in a manner that neutralizes the problem, and (c) keeping the emotional consequences of problems within manageable bounds. The sample included 2300 men and women between the ages of 18 and 65 from the urban areas in and around Chicago, Illinois, and was a part of a larger study of the origins of personal stress. Results indicated that individuals' coping strategies were most effective when dealing with problems encountered in family roles and least effective in dealing with problems found in occupational roles. The use of specific coping strategies were unequally distributed in the sample. However, men, individuals with higher educational levels, and the more affluent tended to use more efficious strategies (defined as those strategies which reduced the relationship between role strains and emotional stresses). The most effective responses in marital and parental coping involved reflective problem-solving.

Career wives' use of coping strategies. Descriptive results of studies investigating dual-career wives' attempts to manage their multiple roles have revealed that these wives use a variety of coping strategies. In interviews with 53 dual-career couples, Paloma (1972) found that the sample of professional women used four coping strategies in dealing with work and family role overload and conflict: (a) defining the situation of having a two-career family as positive, (b) creating a heirarchy of values, (c) compartmentalizing home and employment into separate spheres, and (d) compromising career goals.

Skinner (1980) reported that compromise was an important coping strategy often employed by dual-career wives to relieve conflicts between roles and to resolve competing demands within roles. Bernard (1974), Epstein (1971), Heckman et al. (1977), and Holstrom (1973) indicated that dual-career wives often compromise career goals if there are competing family demands. Moen (1982) found that common coping strategies employed by wives in two-provider families included establishing priorities, reducing involvement in one role, working part-time, having fewer children, postponing childbearing, temporarily dropping out of the labor force, and seeking support from outside the family (e.g., child care).

Bird, Bird, and Scruggs (1983) analyzed frequency of use of role management strategies among 69 dual-career and

38 career-earner wives randomly drawn from college and university administrators. Career-earner wives were defined as residing in families in which the husband was the college administrator and the wife was employed either part-time or full time in a non-professional, non-career position. Dual-career wives were from families in which either the husband or wife was the college administrator and the spouse was employed in an equally demanding position that required similar levels of education. Role management strategies were measured by 23 items that had been identified by previous researchers and theorists as potentially relieving time constraints and role overload. A factor analysis procedure using the varimax method resulted in eight role management factors: (a) the legitimate excuse, (b) stalling, (c) compartmentalization, (d) empathy, (e) barriers against intrusion, (f) reducing responsibilities, (g) delegation, and (h) organization. A series of t-tests revealed that career-earner wives reported greater use of compartmentalization (i.e., separating and partitioning role requirements so that full attention is directed toward one role at a time while that role is being performed), barriers against intrusion (i.e., implementing techniques that reduce or eliminate additional role demands), and reducing responsibilities (i.e., changing or reducing standards of performance and also, not accepting additional responsibilities within a role). Bird et al. (1983) posited that differences between

the two groups of wives in use of the strategies were the result of differences in the demands of careers versus jobs:

> Due to the demanding nature of their occupations, it may be more difficult for dual-career wives to mentally or physically separate work time from family time and more difficult to implement barriers against intrusion because of their desires to satisfy both employment and family roles with equal fervor. (Bird et al., 1983, p. 68)

Also, dual-career women may have felt that lowering performance standards or refusing additional responsibilities would reflect negatively on their abilities to manage their multiple roles. In short, the authors believed that the dual-career wives' behaviors were influenced by guilt and their needs to demonstrate effectiveness in managing multiple roles.

Gilbert, Holahan, and Manning (1981) investigated the use of role redefinition strategies previously identified by Hall (1972) and role expansion strategies (i.e., trying to get everything done in the time available) among 22 female parents in dual-career families. Wives who perceived their various roles as nearly equal in importance reported higher levels of role conflict. The degree of conflict resolution was somewhat higher and the level of conflict slightly lower for the group of wives using role redefinition strategies, but the differences were not statistically significant. The group who employed role expansion strategies attributed significantly higher legitimacy to the role demands of both professional and maternal roles than did the group using

role redefinition strategies. The role redefinition group was older and more established in their careers and "may have learned to give up doing everything and redefine their role expectations in order to meet their professional aspirations" (Gilbert et al., 1981; p. 424). The authors argued that lower satisfaction with maternal roles indicated by the group of wives who used role redefinition stragegies was probably due to feelings of guilt stemming from beliefs that they had neglected aspects of their maternal roles.

Rice (1979) has reported personality patterns typical of dual-career wives:

> . . . a strong need for achievement, reliance on an extrinsic reward system (promotion, spousal recognition of efforts), hesitance in making sustained interpersonal commitments, and vulnerability to self-esteem injury through dependency frustrations and fear of failure. (p. 47)

If dual-career wives' needs for achievement and fear of failure apply to family roles as well as occupational ones, "role expansion" or reactive role behaviors may be desirable strategies for the performance of family roles. Gilbert et al. (1981) indicated that the women in their sample who used role expansion strategies tended to view the perfect solution to their conflicts as "the 40 hour day". That is, these women exhibited signs and symptoms of the "superwoman syndrome".

The Family Resource Management Perspective of Coping

Since the latter part of the 1960's, systems theory has been utilized as a major analytical framework to explain family management behavior (Deacon & Firebaugh, 1975, 1980; Gross, Crandall, & Knoll, 1980; Paolucci, Axinn, & Hall, 1977). Human and physical resources and demands (e.g., unexpected events) serve as inputs into the family managerial sub-system; managerial processes (i.e., planning, organizing, decision-making, and communication) are the throughputs of the systems model; and, outputs are met goals and demands which ultimately produce satisfaction. The theory is based on two assumptions: (a) The family is active rather than passive in allocating scarce resources within the contexts of constraints, needs, and opportunties, and (b) rationality will enable the family to obtain greater levels of outputs, and therefore, satisfaction.

Davis (1982) concluded from her indepth interviews with 30 families that rational techniques such as planning and scheduling were effectively applied in the management of simple and repetitious housework tasks. Employed wives and housewives in her sample reported that under time pressures, they tended to organize, schedule, and coordinate their activities to make their lives as predictable as possible and, therefore, lessen the strain.

Researchers studying dual-career families have noted that wives reported becoming more "organized" in their ap-

proach to housework. Safilios-Rothschild (1976) indicated that the dual-career families in her study heeded precise and elaborate time schedules to coordinate their activities. Rapaport and Rapaport (1976) found that many of the dual-career couples in their study tended to give great attention to the efficiency of organization and applied administrative practices of negotiation and rational management at home as well as at work. In her study of British wives, Oakley (1974a) found that the highly organized women were more satisfied with their home roles than less organized women.

Factors associated with greater or lesser attempts to plan and organize have received little empirical attention. Walker and Parkhurst (1982) differentiated between effective and ineffective time managers in their study of 253 male and female family members. A time management score for each subject was calculated based on answers to the following questions:

a. When you estimate how long it takes to do a familiar task, how often do you find your estimation is correct?

b. How often do you keep appointments or meet deadlines?

c. How far in advance to you plan for the general use of your time?

The more effective time managers were either men or women in their middle years of adult life with above average education. They were very busy people, scoring high on "pace of life", and indicated higher levels of home production

(measured as the variety of household tasks performed). Family cohesion was positively related to time management effectiveness, as were respondents' perceptions that they maintained "orderly storage areas" within their homes. A multiple regression procedure explained approximately 25% of the variance in time management scores. The authors concluded that families develop more effective time management strategies as their pace of life accelerates and that the "payoff" is a more satisfying lifestyle.

The identification of strategies for coping with time constraints been an increasing area of concern of many family economists over the last decade. Strober and Weinberg (1977) examined family's purchasing decisions for time-saving durables (i.e., dishwashers, dryers, refrigerators, stoves, and washers). Data for the study were obtained from the 1968 Michigan Survey Research Center 1967-1970 Panel Survey of Consumer Finances. Family income, assets, and whether a family had recently moved to a different home were statistically significant in the purchase decisions of time-saving durables but there was no relationship between wives' employment status and purchase decisions.

Weinberg and Winer (1983) replicated the previous study (Strober & Weinberg, 1977) using data collected a decade later by the Michigan Survey Research Center Survey of Consumer Credit. Results verified that wives' labor force behavior was not statistically significant in explaining

either purchase or expenditure decisions for time-saving durables when income, stage of the life cycle, and other situational variables were held constant.

Strober and Wineberg (1980) studied 1,266 non-farm women to determine whether employed wives differed from non-employed wives in their use of strategies to reduce time pressures. The strategies included: (a) substituting capital equipment (e.g., microwave ovens, dishwashers, etc.) for their own nonmarket labor; (b) substituting the labor of others for their own nonmarket labor; (c) reducing the quality or quantity of household production; (d) working more intensively or efficiently when engaging in household production; (e) decreasing time allocations to volunteer and community activities; and (f) decreasing time allocations to leisure and/or sleep. Holding income and life-cycle stage constant, neither wives' employment status nor their recent entry into the labor force were significant determinants of the purchase or ownership of capital equipment. Employed wives were similar to non-employed wives in their methods of meal preparation and shopping behavior. Although some employed wives used paid help more often than non-employed wives, employed wives' primary strategies involved decreasing time allocations to household production, volunteer and community activities, leisure, and sleep. The authors concluded that wives' use of these strategies may be in response to the failure of other strategies.

Nichols and Fox (1983) analyzed data collected as part of a multi-state time use study to identify "time-buying" and "time-saving" strategies used by wives from 1,639 two-parent, two-child families. Time-buying strategies included: (a) ownership of capital goods (i.e., trash compactor, microwave oven, freezer, dishwasher, clothes washer and dryer); (b) use of convenience foods, and (c) use of services (e.g., child care, home maintenance, housecleaning, laundry, drycleaning, meal preparation, appliance repair, and meals purchased away from home). Time saving strategies included: (a) reduction of time spent in household production; (b) substitution of the household labor of other family members; (c) implementation of a number of time management principles (e.g., preparing food ahead of time for another day, combining loads when washing clothing, etc.); and (d) decreasing time spent in volunteer activities, leisure, personal care, and sleep. Employed wives used three time-buying strategies (i.e., meals away from home, disposable diapers, and child care), and three time-saving strategies (i.e., preparing fewer meals at home, reducing time in household production, and reducing time in leisure) more often than non-employed wives. Wives' employment status did not affect the time spent in household production by other family members. Higher family income was positively related to increased use of disposable diapers, number of breakfasts and lunches purchased away from home, meals

purchased in restaurants, child care, purchased housecleaning, and drycleaning and laundry services. Also, wives employed in higher status jobs (i.e., the top three categories of the Occupational Scale of the Hollingshead Index of Social Position) used child care, purchased lunches, and had their children eat lunches prepared in school cafeterias more often, but spent more time pereforming household work and prepared more meals at home than did employed wives with lower status jobs.

The study (Nichols and Fox, 1983) contributed significantly to the body of knowledge concerning wives' behavior in response to time constraints. Data collection methods were rigorously pretested, and subjects' reports of time allocations were gathered by using time diaries for two days. The validity of the time-diary method of data collection has been repeatedly demonstrated (Robinson, 1977). However, much work remains to be done in exploring behavior in response to perceived time constraints. The authors felt that numerous factors not included in their study, such as attitudes and life style preferences, should be included in future studies.

In summary, the preliminary conceptual work of Kahn et al. (1964) and Hall's (1972) structural role redefinition, personal role redefinition, and reactive role strategies have provided useful frameworks for additional research concerning behaviors and responses to role overload and role

conflict. Much of the subsequent organizational research has focused on coping behaviors used by employees or on the efficacy of categories of coping strategies.

Sociologists interested in the problems and strains inherent in the lives of employed wives, and specifically dual-career wives, have identified a variety of coping strategies to relieve the time pressures associated with multiple roles. Many of the coping responses and behaviors delineated by sociological studies could be categorized using Hall's (1972) framework. For example, structural role redefinition strategies used by dual-career wives have included working part-time, temporarily dropping out of the labor force, compromising career goals, postponing child-bearing, etc. Personal role redefinition strategies that involve changing one's attitude regarding role requirements have included re-evaluating priorities and values, reducing standards, mentally compartmentalizing role requirements, etc. Reactive strategies such as working harder or more intensely, organizing, and in general, trying to be a "superwoman" are often used by dual-career wives who place a high value on family roles. These strategies are frequently labeled "role expansion" strategies by family sociologists.

Family economists have analysed time use data collected by large, national samples to better understand the differences between employed and non-employed wives' use of

strategies for coping with time constraints. They have found that employed and non-employed wives do not differ in their purchase decisions or ownership of capital goods and labor-saving household equipment. Substituting the labor of other family members for their own time and energy has not been a plausible strategy for most employed wives. Rather, they frequently use money to purchase services and decrease the time they spend sleeping and engaging in leisure activities in response to time constraints.

Family economists (Strober & Weinberg, 1908; Nichols & Fox, 1983) have posited that wives decrease time allocations to volunteer activities, leisure, and sleep as a result of the failure of other strategies. However, they have viewed wives' attempts to implement time management principles (e.g., planning and organizing work so that more work can be accomplished in less time) as viable strategies for coping with time constraints; whereas organizational theorists (Hall, 1972; Kahn et al., 1964) have viewed planning, scheduling, and organizing as reactive role behaviors, as are working harder or more intensely to get everything done.

While the three disciplines have varied in their perspectives, they have provided valuable insights into wives' responses to multiple role demands which require time and energy. Much work remains to be accomplished in delineating and documenting employed wives' use of strategies for coping with time constraints. McCubbin et al. (1980) hypothesized

that the identification and measurement of coping strategies will be more prevalent in future family research:

> As our focus shifts from trying to understand why families fail to how they manage or even thrive on life's hardships, we can envision the emergence of a wealth of research which will add in an appreciable way to an understanding of why families often do so well with so little. (McCubbin et al., 1980, p. 137)

Summary

With the advent of increased numbers of employed, married women into the paid labor force over the last two decades, social scientists have increased their efforts to investigate and document the concomitant changes within families and especially changes in the attitudes, behaviors, and lifestyles of these women. Conflicts within and between roles, wives' attitudes toward roles, time allocations, and the division of household labor have been deemed timely issues that have received much empirical attention.

The review of the literature related to wives' satisfaction with their time allocations and to strategies used by wives in response to time constraints has required an examination of the perspectives and methodological approaches taken by researchers from three disciplines, organizational psychology, family sociology, and family economics and management. Although the results of the studies from these disciplines have varied, conclusions emphasize the importance of the present study.

First, culturally prescribed sex role norms continue to influence the division of labor within families. Although women are increasing their participation in the labor force and have assumed multiple roles, time use studies and studies of role performance have repeatedly found that women are still responsible for the majority of household tasks with very little time being spent by husbands or other family members, regardless of wives' income, job status, or commitment to careers. When employment and household labor hours are totaled, employed women spend over seventy hours weekly performing these roles.

Second, empirical studies have indicated that many women, regardless of their employment status, perceive that household tasks should be their responsibility. Employed and non-employed women have indicated that they receive satisfaction from the results of their household labor. Studies have documented that dual-career wives who exhibit a great deal of commitment to their careers still regard their family roles as extremely important and often experience guilt feelings from perceived conflicts and role demands.

Third, numerous studies have revealed that employed women feel the pressure of time constraints and role overload. Organizational researchers and family sociologists have viewed role overload as one component of role conflict. Empirical studies of role conflict and role strain have both supported and refuted the existence of more strain and

conflict among employed, married women than among men with similar numbers of roles. However, family sociologists have consistently documented the strains experienced by wives who are committed to careers and to maintaining families.

Finally, empirical studies describing coping strategies implemented by employed wives in attempting to allieviate conflict and strain resulting from multiple roles have provided mixed results. A number of useful frameworks for the measurement of coping strategies have been proposed by organizational and sociological studies focusing on multiple roles and by family economists focusing on constraints and and household labor. Clearly, more work is needed to better measure employed wives' use or non-use of coping strategies, and specifically, the relationship between perceived time constraints and use of coping strategies. Additional research utilizing multi-disciplinary frameworks that incorporate significant findings of past research and proven methodologies may better explain wives' preferences for and satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their time allocations and the use of strategies for coping with time constraints.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The major issues addressed in this study were: (a) career and earner wives' preferences for use of time; (b) career and earner wives' frequency of use of strategies for coping with time constraints; and (c) the differences between career and earner wives' preferences for use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints, controlling for the effects of various attitudinal and demographic variables. This chapter includes a description of the sampling procedure, the development of the questionnaire and scales, descriptions of established scales and other dependent variables, the procedure for classifying subjects as career wives or earner wives, and the statistical analyses that were performed.

Selection of Sample

The data for this study were collected from a sample of married, employed women. The sampling frame was the 1983 edition of the Greensboro, North Carolina, city directory published by R. L. Polk Company. The city directory was selected because it included husbands' employment and wives' employment, and thus, was the most available complete population list of married, employed women in the Greensboro

area. A systematic random sampling procedure was used to select 500 names from the directory; it involved using a table of random numbers to select page number, flipping a coin to select right or left page column, and a table of random numbers to select listing in the column. If the listing selected identified a husband and employed wife, the name and home address of the wife was added to the sample; if not, the next husband and employed wife listing on the page was included.

A mailed questionnaire in booklet form, a cover letter, and stamped, self-addressed return envelope were sent to the 500 wives in October, 1984, immediately following completion of the random sampling procedure. Follow-up postcards were sent as reminders to those wives who had not responded ten days after the initial mailing. A second mailing which included a letter requesting completion of the questionnaire, a second questionnaire, and return envelope were mailed to non-respondents three weeks after the initial mailing.

The results of the mailout procedure are summarized in Table 1. Twenty-five (5%) of the 500 questionnaires were returned undeliverable. Thirty-seven (7.4%) were defined ineligible because they were no longer employed or married, and 183 (36.6%) did not respond. A total of 58.2% were returned from eligibles and, of those, 235 (53.7%) were usable in the analyses.

Table 1

Results of Mailout Procedure

Description		Number
Original mailing to names from population list		500
Minus: Nondeliverable questionnaires	25	
Returned, but not eligible	37	
Original names eligible for study		438
Returned questionnaires from eligibles:		
Complete	235	
Incomplete	11	
Refusals	9	
Total		255
Non-returned questionnaires		183

Note: Return rate = 58.2%. Usable response rate = 53.7%

Questionnaire Development

The questionnaire was constructed applying principles from Dillman's (1978) total design method for mail questionnaires. The total design method emphasized the importance of each aspect of the questionnaire and its overall effect in the recipient's decision to respond. The booklet format was chosen to enhance the initial impact, encourage further examination of the questionnaire, and promote positive perceptions of the importance of the study.

The cover letter (see Appendix A) explained the content of the study, its importance and usefulness, the significance of the recipient's participation to the success of the study, and an assurance of confidentiality. The front cover of the booklet (see Appendix B) was designed to include the title of the study, a graphic illustration to attract the recipient's attention, provide directions, and identify the name and address of the study sponsor.

The questions were ordered as recommended by Dillman (1978) so that "easy" but "socially relevant" questions came first. Questions were grouped by content area and answer format to take advantage of cognitive ties that respondents were likely to make among groups of questions (Dillman, 1978). Careful attention was given to establishing a vertical flow to the overall questionnaire. Each subset of questions was prefaced by a transitional statement that promoted

continuity and relevance. Whenever feasible, multiple columns were used to conserve space and simplify answer formats. Questions that were likely to be objectionable to respondents (e.g., personal and family information such as income) were placed at the end.

Research Instruments and Measures

The following includes a discussion of the criteria used for categorizing wives as "career" or "earner", and a description of the instruments that were developed by the researcher to measure the dependent variables, wives' preferences for the use of time and frequency of use of strategies for coping with time constraints. Also discussed is the measurement of other variables in the study: (a) sex role attitudes, (b) three dimensions of locus of control (i.e., internal control, powerful others control, and chance control), (c) actual time allocations to employment, (d) age, (e) educational level, (f) family income, (g) family size, (h) the presence of a child under age six, and (i) number of rooms in the family dwelling.

Independent Variables

Rapaport and Rapaport (1969) defined the dual-career family as a family in which both heads of household pursue careers that are developmental in character and which require a continuous and high degree of commitment. As noted in the literature review, many studies have focused on

either dual-career couples or dual-career wives. Although the unit of analysis for this study is wives, Rapaport and Rapaport's (1969) definition pertaining to career wives and additional information was used to establish criteria for dividing the sample. Respondents were categorized as career wives if their occupation was classified as falling in the top three categories of the Hollingshead (1968) Occupational Scale (i.e., higher executives or proprietors of businesses, business managers, major or lesser professionals, administrators, small independent businessmen, and teachers), and if a positive answer (strongly agree or agree) was given to each of the following items on the questionnaire:

(a) Except for possible short-term interruptions, I plan to be continuously employed until retirement age.

(b) I view my employment as more than a job; it is a career which requires a great deal of commitment on my part.

(c) My work provides me with opportunities for personal growth and development.

Eighty-five respondents met these criteria and were classified as career wives. One hundred and fifty respondents were classified as earner wives, even though the occupations of 32 of these women were in the top three categories of the Hollingshead Occupational Scale.

Wives' Preferences for Use of Time

Two similar scales were developed (see Appendices C and D): (a) one for wives' perceptions of and preferences for use of their own time, and (b) one for wives' perceptions of and preferences for husbands' time allocations. Activities included those identified and previously used by Walker and Woods (1976) in a national study of time use: employment and employment-related activities, various household production activities (i.e., food preparation, meal cleanup, grocery shopping, housecleaning, car and yard care, clothing care, bill paying and record keeping, and discussing and making financial arrangements), child-related activities (i.e., caring for, teaching skills to, transporting and playing with children), personal maintenance activities (i.e., sleeping, eating, and care of self), leisure and recreational activities, and community and volunteer activities. Subjects estimated and recorded actual time allocations on an "average" weekday and weekend day for two purposes: (a) recalling actual time allocations to activities may provide some criteria or basis for formulation of attitudes regarding time use preferences, and (b) data on perceived time allocations would aid in describing and interpreting the results on time use preferences.

Wives indicated preferences for time allocations to

each activity. Possible responses included:

1. GDLT -- would prefer to spend a great deal less time.
2. LT -- would prefer to spend less time.
3. LLT -- would prefer to spend a little less time.
4. RT -- spend about the right amount of time.
5. LMT -- would prefer to spend a little more time.
6. MT -- would prefer to spend more time.
7. GDMT -- would prefer to spend a great deal more time.

Wives' preferences for their own and husbands' time allocations were coded from one to seven as labeled above.

Statistical analyses of wives' preferences for the use of time. Descriptive results included mean scores of wives' preferences for time allocations in each of the activities for themselves and husbands. Two factor analysis procedures were performed using the varimax rotation method, one for wives' preferences for their own, and a second for wives' preferences for husbands' time allocations. Factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or greater were retained and defined. To comprehensively investigate statistically significant differences between career and earner wives' preferences for the use of time, one-way analysis of variance procedures were performed on factor scores and responses to individual items.

A multivariate analysis of covariance procedure was performed with groups of career and earner wives as the independent variable and wives' factor scores for preferences for the use of time as dependent variables, controlling for wives' sex role attitudes, wives' locus of control, and a set of demographic variables.

A final multivariate analysis of covariance procedure was performed with wives' employment status (career or earner) as the independent variable and wives' preferences for use of time factor scores as one group of dependent variables, wives' frequency of use of strategies for coping with time constraints (which will be discussed in the following section) as a second group of dependent variables, and a set of attitudinal and demographic covariates.

Wives' Use of Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

An instrument for the measurement of employed wives' perceptions of their behavior when confronted with time constraints is included in Appendix E. Items representing specific behaviors and responses were included based on research findings and frameworks developed by theorists as potentially relieving time constraints and role overload (Bird et al., 1983; Hall, 1972; Nichols & Fox, 1983; Strober & Weinberg, 1980). Items were classified as: (a) structural role redefinition strategies, (b) personal role redefinition

strategies, (c) reactive role strategies, (d) management strategies, (e) comsumption strategies, and (f) mental responses.

Structural role redefinition strategies. Structural role redefinition strategies (Hall, 1972) consisted of those behaviors that alter external, environmentally imposed expectations. Specific structural role redefinition strategies and the items reflecting these strategies that were included in the scale are as follows:

1. Elimination of role activities but not entire roles:
   (a) Spend less time in employment or employment related activities.
   (b) Spend less time on household work.
   (c) Spend less time attending to family matters.
   (d) Decide that I will not do some of the of the tasks I usually perform.
   (e) Simply refuse to take on any new family activities.
   (f) Simply refuse to take on any new personal activities (activities that do not include family or work).
2. Gaining role support from role senders at work:
   (a) Get my employer or supervisor to reduce the demands on me.
   (b) Get others at work to do some of the tasks I usually perform.
3. Gaining role support from role senders at home:
   (a) Get my husband to reduce the demands he makes on me.
   (b) Get my children to to reduce the demands they make on me.

(c) Get my husband to do some of the work.

(d) Get my children to do some of the work.

(e) Get others (relatives or friends) living with or near me to do some of the work.

4. Problem solving with role senders:

(a) Discuss the situation with my employer or supervisor and get them to help decide how to resolve the problem.

(b) Discuss the situation with my family and get them to help decide how to resolve the problem.

5. Integrating roles:

(a) Find ways to combine work and family activities.

(b) Involve family members in my employment related activities.

Personal role redefinition strategies. Personal role redefinition strategies (Hall, 1972) involved changing one's perceptions and attitudes rather than attempting to change the environment.

1. Establishing priorities:

(a) Decide which tasks and activities at work are most important and do those first.

(b) Decide which family tasks and activities are most important and do those first.

2. Partitioning and separating roles (i.e., choosing not to attend to one role while performing another):

(a) When at work, concentrate my full attention on my work activities instead of things I need to do at home.

(b) When at home, concentrate my full attention on one task at a time and try not to think about the other things that need doing.

3. Overlooking role demands (i.e., within oneself rather than involving others):

   (a) Ignore some of the tasks I usually perform at work.

   (b) Ignore some of the tasks I usually perform at home.

4. Changing attitudes toward roles:

   (a) Overlook or relax standards for how well I do certain things at work.

   (b) Overlook or relax standards for how well I do certain things at home.

   (c) Work to change my attitude about what is and what is not important.

5. Eliminating roles by suppressing important personal interests:

   (a) Do the things that are important to others rather than the things that are important to me.

   (b) Spend less time sleeping.

   (c) Spend less time caring for myself (grooming, resting, etc.).

   (d) Spend less time on personal leisure or recreational activities.

   (e) Spend less time in social activities.

   (f) Spend less time in volunteer or community related activities.

   (g) Eat meals while "on the run".

6. Rotating among roles by shifting patterns of selective attention and inattention:

   (a) Do one thing at a time and try not to think about other things.

7. Giving greater priority to developing one's own interests and self-sent expections:

   (a) Do the things that are important to me rather than trying to fulfill all of the demands of others.

   (b) Do the things at work that I feel are important rather than meeting the demands of others.

Reactive role strategies. Hall (1972) defined reactive role strategies as behaviors designed to meet all role expectations.

1. Increasing energy inputs so that all expectations can be met:

   (a) Work harder (take fewer breaks, exert more effort, etc.).

   (b) Devote more time and energy so that I can do everything that is expected of me.

   (c) Take work home.

   (d) Take less time for lunch.

   (e) Go to work earlier, or stay later.

2. Using no conscious strategy but assuming that all expectations must be met and there is no way to cope but to meet them:

   (a) Assume that things need to be done and that I am the one to do them.

   (b) Keep working until everything is completed.

Management strategies. Hall (1972) viewed strategies involving planing, scheduling, and organizing as reactive role behaviors. Family economists (Nichols & Fox, 1983; Strober & Weinberg, 1980) have proposed and tested a number of strategies that included reductions in quantity or quality of household production, reductions in time spent

in leisure and sleep, working more intensively and/or efficiently, substituting the labor of others, and various consumption behaviors. Several of these strategies fit Hall's (1972) conceptual framework and have been included in the previous items. For the purposes of this study, "management" strategies (e.g., planning, scheduling, and organizing) and "consumption" strategies (e.g., purchase or use of "time-saving" capital equipment, services, etc.) were categorized separately from reactive role strategies.

1. Planning, scheduling, and organizing time and energy inputs:

   (a) At work, I try to plan and organize my work so that everything can be done in less time.

   (b) At home, I try to plan and organize better so that everything can be done in less time.

   (c) Overlap tasks at home and do more than one thing at a time.

   (d) Keep lists of tasks that need doing.

   (e) Try to improve my efficiency by working out better and quicker ways to do things.

2. Increasing efforts to plan and organize the environment:

   (a) Save time by making sure that work areas are organized and things are conveniently located.

   (b) Save time by increasing my use of labor-saving devices around the house.

Consumption strategies. Nichols and Fox (1983) identified "time buying" strategies which involved purchasing capital goods or services to substitute for or reduce demands on one's own time. Items that were consumption

strategies included:

1. Substitution of money for one's own efforts:

   (a) Hire someone to help in my home.

   (b) Plan to purchase or actually purchase labor-saving appliances (for example, microwave oven, frost-free refrigerator, etc.).

   (c) Eat out more often.

   (d) Increase my use of purchased services (for example, child care, laundry or drycleaning, car or yard care, etc.).

   (e) Increase my use of puchased goods (for example, frozen foods, mixes, permanent press clothing, etc.).

2. Influencing the use of goods or services:

   (a) Urge my employer to hire additional workers.

   (b) Urge my employer to purchase labor-saving devices.

Mental response strategies. In their study pertaining to role strain, Pearlin and Schooler (1978) identified a group of strategies that neither alter the situation generating the strain or create congenial perceptions of the situations, but function to keep people from being overwhelmed by the strain. Subjects in their sample reported frequently trying not to worry because time itself solves the problem, accepting the hardship because it was meant to be, avoiding confrontation, trying to relax so that the difficulties will become less important, and stating that everything works out for the best. These responses are similar to Hall's (1972) reactive strategy of assuming that all expectations must be met and that there is no way to

cope but to meet them. A group of items were added to expand the reactive dimension that focuses on internal feelings and external verbal responses rather than concrete problem-solving behaviors.

1. Feelings and responses:

   (a) Worry about the things at home that don't get done.

   (b) Worry about the things at home that aren't done as well as they should be done.

   (c) Accept the time pressures as a natural part of life.

   (d) Tell myself that everything will work out for the best.

   (e) Tell myself to relax.

   (f) Tell myself that tomorrow will be a better day.

2. Verbal responses:

   (a) Yell and let off steam.

   (b) Verbally inform others of my dissatisfaction.

A five-point Likert-type scale was used to measure wives' frequency of use of each strategy. The data were coded so that five indicated that the strategy was always used, and one meant that it was never used.

Statistical analyses of wives' use of strategies for coping with time constraints. The mean scores of career and earner wives' frequency of use of each of the strategies were computed and presented. The data from all wives were factor analyzed using the principal components method, varimax rotation. Only those items loading .40 or

higher were retained in each factor, and only those factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or greater were defined.

One-way analysis of variance procedures were performed using wives' factor scores and wives' scores on the individual strategies to determine statistically significant differences between career and earner wives in use of the strategies. Further analysis included a multivariate analysis of covariance procedure with wives' factor scores for frequency of use of strategies as dependent variables, controlling for wives' sex role attitudes, locus of control, and other demographic variables.

Wives' factor scores for use of strategies for coping with time constraints were also included with wives' factor scores for preferences for use of time as dependent variables in a final multivariate analysis of covariance procedure, controlling for the effects of attitudinal and demographic variables.

Attitudinal and Demographic Covariates

Covariates included: (a) wives' sex role attitudes, (b) locus of control measured on three dimensions (i.e., internal control, powerful others control, and chance control), (c) wives' weekly time allocations to employment, (d) age in years, (e) education in years completed, (f) family income, (g) family size, (h) the presence of a child under age six (entered as a dummy variable), and (i) number of rooms in the family dwelling.

Sex role attitudes. Wives' sex role attitudes (see Appendix F) were measured by items reflecting one dimension of sex role attitudes identified by Tomeh (1978) from items originally developed by Scanzoni (1975, 1976). That dimension, termed problematic husband-wife alterations role, placed emphasis on the real possibility of a husband's sacrifices in his time, energy, and interests to accommodate the wife's occupational interests. A number of sex role attitude scales were reviewed and rejected for this study either because of their length or because they included a variety of items which measured attitudes toward the women's liberation movement, women's involvement in business or politics, and/or women's motherhood roles.

Tomeh (1978) indicated a reliability coefficient of .84 for this dimension of the scale. The six attitudinal items were worded in a non-traditional way; that is, non-traditional sex roles are characterized by flexibility and role sharing between the sexes. Tomeh (1978) argued that viewing sex roles from this perspective highlights the role-sharing model which is becoming more prevalent in American life.

Subjects responded on a four-point Likert-type format with possible choices including strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree. Responses were coded from one to four with four representing strong agreement and one indicating strong disagreement, so that after scores were summed, higher scores reflected non-traditional attitudes.

Locus of control. The locus of control construct was derived from Rotter's (1954) social learning theory. Internal-external locus of control refers to the degree to which an individual perceives that successes and failures are contingent upon personal initiative (Rotter, 1966). At one end of the internal-external continuum are the highly internal individuals, or those who perceive that individual or personal effort is instrumental in the attainment of success. At the opposite end are the highly external individuals who view failure as unrelated to ability and effort, but as extrinsic to themselves (e.g., fate, chance, luck, etc.).

Family management theorists have posited that a family member's internal or external orientation affects family goal setting and planning (Deacon & Firebaugh, 1981), decision making within families (Paolucci, Hall, & Axinn, 1977), and behavioral outcomes:

> When associated with successful decision making, an internal orientation can lead to feelings of competence; when associated with failure, it can lead to self-blame. . . Highly externally motivated people feel they are at the mercy of the environment. When they are manipulated, they take it in stride better than internally oriented persons. A focus on the external factors may be motivationally healthy if it results in assessing one's chances for success against real external obstacles. (Paolucci et al., 1977, p.56)

The construct has not been widely used in empirical investigations of family resource management, probably due in part to the "infancy" of the discipline. Its inclusion

as a covariate in this study was deemed relevant for two reasons. First, employed women who believe that their world is ordered by chance (externals) may indicate different preferences for their use of time and may use some strategies for coping with time constraints more or less frequently than employed women who feel that they are personally in control of the events in their lives (internals). Second, a multidisciplinary research model including a number of psychological, sociological, and demographic variables may explain more effectively wives' preferences for use of time and frequency of use of strategies for coping with time constraints than a model with fewer variables.

Researchers (Dixon, McKee, & McRae, 1976; Gurin, Gurin, Lao, & Beattie, 1969; Levinson, 1974; Lindbloom & Faw, 1982; Lao, 1970; Mirels, 1970; Walkey, 1979) have presented empirical evidence that Rotter's (1966) I-E Scale is not unidimensional. Levinson (1974) revised the scale and validated three dimensions: (a) internal control, (b) powerful others control, and (c) chance control, which were used in the present study.

Levinson (1974) indicated that Kuder-Richardson reliability coeficients were .64 for the I (internal control) factor, .77 for the P (control by powerful others) factor, and .78 for the C (chance control) factor. Test-retest reliabilities for a one week period were .64, .74, and .78

respectively. The factor structure of the Levinson scale has recently been confirmed by Lindbloom and Faw (1982) and Walkey (1979).

Subjects responded to the 24 items (see Appendix G) on a six-point Likert-type format with six indicating strong agreement with the statement and one indicating strong disagreement. Items were phrased to measure the degree to which individuals feel that they have control over what happens to them, not what they believe regarding people in general. Scores were factor analyzed using the varimax rotation method (replicating Levinson's study), and the results verified the three dimensions. Wives' scores on each of the dimensions were included as covariates (along with the other variables) in the multivariate analysis of covariance procedures.

Wives' weekly time allocations to employment and employment-related activities. Wives in the sample recalled their time allocations to employment and employment-related activities both on an "average" weekday and weekend day. Although recall methods of collecting time use data have been deemed less accurate than time-diary methods (Szalai, 1972; Walker and Woods, 1976), Robinson (1977) investigated differences between "yesterday" recall and record types of time dairies and found no evidence of systematic bias in either of the two methods. Asking subjects to recall usual time allocations on an average day may

result in over- or under-estimations but also helps adjust for situations where yesterday's time allocations were extremely atypicial of normal life patterns.

Wives' weekly time allocations to employment and employment-related activities were computed by multiplying the time allocated on an average weekday by five and time on an average week-end day by two and summing the products. Total weekly minutes was entered as a dependent variable in the multivariate analysis of covariance procedures.

Additional demographic variables. Additional demographic variables included the following:

(a) Wife's age in years,

(b) wife's education indicated by number of years of school completed,

(c) total annual family income indicated by the selection of one of fourteen income categories (recoded to the midpoint for that category for use as a continuous variable),

(d) family size indicated by summing the number of individuals residing in the household,

(e) the presence of a child under age six living in the household, and

(f) actual number of rooms in the family dwelling excluding hallways and entry halls.

Statistical Analyses

Statistical analyses were performed to accomplish the following objectives:

Objective 1: Frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations were computed to describe demographic data for the sample and career and earner wives' actual time allocations in 21 activities.

Objective 2: Means and standard deviations were computed to describe career and earner wives' preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints.

Objective 3: Factor analyses procedures using the principal components method were performed on wives' preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with constraints. Composite variables were constructed via the factor scale procedure used by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSX, 1983).

Objective 4: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures were performed to determine if there were statistically significant differences between career and earner wives in each preference for the use of time in a specific category of activities and in computed factor scores.

Objective 5: A multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) procedure was performed to determine if there were statistically significant differences between career and earner wives' preferences for the use of time when dimensions of preferences were analyzed together, controlling for: (a) wives' sex role attitudes, (b) wives' locus of control (measured on three dimensions (internal, powerful others, and chance control), (c) weekly employment hours, (d) age, (e) educational level, (f) family income, (g) family size, (h) presence of a child under age six, and (i) number of rooms in the family dwelling.

Objective 6: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures were performed to determine if there were statistically significant differences between career and earner wives in each use of specific strategies for coping with time constraints and in computed factor scores.

Objective 7: A multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) procedure was performed to determine if there were statistically significant differences between career and earner wives' use of strategies for coping with time constraints when dimensions of strategies were analyzed together, controlling for: (a) wives' sex role attitudes, (b) wives' locus of control measured on three dimensions (internal, powerful others, and chance control), (c) weekly employment hours, (d) age, (e) educational level, (f) family income, (g) family size, (h) presence of a child under age six, and (i) number of rooms in the family dwelling.

Objective 8: A multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) procedure was performed to determine if there were statistically significant differences between career and earner wives' preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints when dimensions of preferences and strategies were analyzed together, controlling for: (a) wives' sex role attitudes, (b) wives' locus of control measured on three dimensions (internal, powerful others, and chance control), (c) weekly employment hours, (d) age, (e) educational level, (f) family income, (g) family size, (h) presence of a child under age six, and (i) number of rooms in the family dwelling.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first part of the chapter includes descriptive data on the demographic characteristics of career wives and earner wives. In addition, mean time allocations to various activities on an average weekday and weekend day are reported and discussed. For clarity in reporting results, all analyses pertaining to wives' preferences for the use of time, including descriptive analyses, factor analyses, analysis of variance procedures, and a multivariate analysis of covariance procedure, will be presented first and separately from the analyses of wives' use of strategies for coping with time constraints. The results of statistical analyses of career and earner wives' use of strategies for coping with time constraints will also include factor analyses and analysis of variance and multivariate analysis of covariance procedures.

Finally are presented the results of the multivariate analysis of covariance procedure with groups of career and earner wives as the independent variable, and wives' preferences for use of time and wives' use of strategies for coping with time constraints as dependent variables, controlling for the effects of attitudinal and demographic variables.

Description of the Sample

The descriptive data for the sample of married, employed wives are presented in Table 2. The sample was predominantly white (90.6%), with approximately 5% of the subjects not indicating race. The mean ages of groups of career and earner wives were very close (45.8 and 44.7, respectively). The ages of earner wives were normally distributed, but slightly higher percentages of career wives were in the 30 to 39 and 60 and over age groups.

Mean years of education of career wives was 15.0 years compared to 13.4 for earner wives. These were higher than the mean educational level (12.8 years) reported for all women 25 years an over in North Carolina (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1982). Approximately 50% of the career wives were college graduates and one-half of those reported post-graduate work. By comparison, 20% of the earner wives were college graduates, and only 5% reported post-graduate work.

The mean for years of marriage was slightly higher among career wives (22.8 years) than for earner wives (21.8 years). Mean family size was smaller for career wives (2.0 versus 2.2), and approximately 46% of career wives but only 33.3% of earner wives resided in two-person households.

The Occupational Scale of the Hollingshead Two-Factor Index of Social Position (1958) was used to classify occupational status. Recall that wives were classified as career

Table 2

Demographic Data for the Sample

Characteristic	Career wives		Earner wives		All wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Race						
White	78	91.8	135	90.0	213	90.6
Black	2	2.4	7	4.7	9	3.8
Other	—	—	1	.7	1	.4
Totals	80	94.1	143	95.3	223	94.9
Age						
Less than 30	5	5.9	11	7.3	16	6.8
30 - 39	26	30.6	40	26.7	66	28.1
40 - 49	19	22.4	45	30.0	64	27.2
50 - 59	24	28.2	43	28.7	67	28.5
60 and over	11	12.9	10	6.7	21	8.9
Totals	85	100.0	149	99.3	234	99.6
Mean age of wives	45.8		44.7		45.1	
Education						
Less than 12 years	2	2.4	4	2.7	6	2.6
High school graduate	16	18.8	60	40.0	76	32.3
Partial college, technical training	23	27.1	56	37.3	79	33.6
College graduate	21	24.7	22	14.7	43	18.3
Post graduate work	21	24.7	8	5.3	29	12.3
Totals	83	97.6	150	100.0	233	99.1
Mean years of education	15.0		13.4		14.0	
Years married						
Less than 10	13	15.3	24	16.0	37	15.7
10 - 19	25	29.4	41	27.3	66	28.1
20 - 29	15	17.6	43	28.7	58	24.7
30 and over	31	36.5	42	28.0	73	31.1
Totals	84	98.8	150	100.0	234	99.6
Mean years married	22.8		21.8		22.2	

Table 2 (continued)

Characteristic	Career wives No.	Career wives %	Earner wives No.	Earner wives %	All wives No.	All wives %
Household size						
Wife and husband	39	45.9	50	33.3	89	37.9
Three	18	21.2	44	29.3	62	26.4
Four	21	24.7	41	27.3	62	26.4
Five	7	8.2	9	6.0	16	6.8
Six			3	2.0	3	1.3
Seven	—	—	3	2.0	3	1.3
Totals	85	100.0	150	100.0	235	100.0
Mean household size	2.0		2.2		2.1	
Occupational status						
Professionals	8	9.4	4	2.7	12	5.1
Managers, administrators, and technicians	41	48.2	17	11.3	58	27.4
Teachers and small independent business persons	36	42.4	11	7.3	47	20.0
Sales and clerical			97	64.7	97	41.3
Skilled manual employees			9	6.0	9	3.8
Semi-skilled employees and machine operators			7	4.7	7	3.0
Unskilled employees	—	—	1	.7	1	.4
Totals	85	100.0	146	97.3	231	98.3
Husbands' occupational status						
Professionals	15	17.6	10	6.7	25	10.6
Managers, administrators, and technicians	38	44.7	64	42.7	102	43.4
Teachers and small independent business persons	2	2.4	2	1.3	4	1.7
Sales and clerical	11	12.9	24	16.0	35	14.9
Skilled manual employees	3	3.5	24	16.0	27	11.5
Semi-skilled employees and machine operators	2	2.4	12	8.0	14	6.0
Unskilled employees			1	.7	1	.4
Unemployed	1	1.2			1	.4
Disabled	2	2.4			2	.9
Retired	9	10.6	9	6.0	18	7.7
Totals	83	97.7	146	97.3	229	97.5

Table 2 (continued)

Characteristic	Career wives No.	Career wives %	Earner wives No.	Earner wives %	All wives No.	All wives %
Annual income						
Less than $5,000	2	2.4	7	4.7	9	3.8
$5,000 - $8,999	2	2.4	17	11.3	19	8.1
$9,000 - $12,999	9	10.6	39	26.0	48	20.4
$13,000 - $15,999	11	12.9	24	16.0	35	14.9
$16,000 - $19,999	18	21.2	24	16.0	42	17.9
$20,000 - $29,999	20	23.5	19	12.6	34	16.6
$30,000 - $39,999	9	10.6	4	2.7	13	5.6
$40,000 - $49,999	7	8.2	2	1.3	9	3.8
$50,000 and over	3	3.6	5	3.3	8	3.4
Totals	81	95.3	141	94.0	222	94.5
Mean annual income	$23,598.77		$16,120.67		$18,849.17	
Median annual income	$18,000.00		$14,500.00		$14,500.00	
Annual family income						
Less than $13,000	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
$13,000 - $15,999	1	1.2	1	.7	2	.9
$16,000 - $19,999	0	0.0	7	4.7	7	3.0
$20,000 - $24,999	3	3.5	11	7.3	14	6.0
$25,000 - $29,999	7	8.2	15	10.0	22	9.4
$30,000 - $39,999	21	24.7	41	27.3	62	26.4
$40,000 - $49,999	16	18.8	31	20.7	47	20.0
$50,000 and over	33	38.8	34	22.7	67	28.5
Totals	81	95.3	140	93.3	221	94.0
Mean annual income	$46,882.72		$39,703.68		$42,334.91	
Median annual income	$45,000.00		$38,000.00		$45,000.00	

wives if their occupations were included in the top three categories of the Hollingshead occupational scale and if they either agreed or strongly agreed that: (a) they planned to be continuously employed until retirement age, (b) their jobs were careers that required a great deal of commitment, and (c) their work provided opportunities for personal growth and development. As indicated in Table 2, some earner wives (approximately 20%) were professionals, managers, administrators, technicians, teachers, or independent business persons, but the majority were sales and clerical workers (approximately 65%), and only 10% were skilled, semi-skilled, or unskilled workers.

A higher percentage of husbands of career wives than husbands of earner wives were executives, proprietors of large businesses, or major professionals, and a lower percentage were skilled, semi-skilled or unskilled workers. Similar percentages were managers or proprietors of medium sized businesses or lesser professionals. A higher percentage of husbands of career wives were retired (10.6%) than earner husbands of earner wives (6%). In addition, three husbands of career wives were either disabled or unemployed.

Information on wives' income and total family income was collected by income categories and recoded to the midpoints for statistical and reporting purposes. Mean annual income of the entire sample of wives was $18,849.17,

considerably higher than the 1979 mean annual income of $7,781.00 for females, 18 years and older who resided in the metropolitan statistical area that included Greensboro, North Carolina (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1982), and higher than the mean annual income of $12,235.00 for white females in the South Atlantic states (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1983). The mean annual income for career wives ($23,598.77) was much higher than that for earner wives ($16,120.67).

Total mean family income of all wives in the sample was $42,334.91, much higher than $24,858.00 which was indicated for married-couple families with wife in the labor force who resided in the Greensboro metropolitan statistical area (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1982). Mean family income of career wives ($46,882.72) was higher than mean family income reported by earner wives ($39,703.68).

In summary, the entire sample of wives may be described as married, predominantly white, educated, well-paid, white-collar workers. The groups of career and earner wives were very similar in race, age, years married, and household size. Career wives' occupational status, educational level, and personal and family incomes were higher than earner wives'.

Descriptive Results of Time Allocations

Wives were asked to estimate their own and their husbands' actual time allocations to specific activities on an average weekday and average weekend day. Means and standard deviations are reported and discussed in the following sections. Readers desiring further information may refer to the frequency distributions and percentages presented in Appendices I and J.

Time Allocations of Career and Earner Wives

The mean time allocated by career and earner wives to the activities on an average weekday and average weekend day are included in Table 3. On a weekday, career wives spent more time in employment and employment-related activities, discussing and making financial arrangements, and sleeping and eating than did earner wives. Among those with children living at home (33% of career wives and 36% of earner wives), career wives spent more time caring for children and teaching skills to children than did earner wives. However, career wives reported spending less time performing household production activities, caring for themselves, and in leisure and recreation, volunteer, and social activities than did earner wives.

On a weekend day, career wives allocated approximately 70 minutes more to employment and employment-related activities, and a little more time housecleaning, discussing and making financial arrangements, sleeping and eating, in

Table 3

Mean Time Allocations of Career and Earner Wives

Activity	Wives' weekday time (in mins.)				Wives' weekend day time (in mins.)			
	Career		Earner		Career		Earner	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Employment and related activities	508	123	469	107	120	150	49	99
Meal planning	25	29	29	28	54	62	52	55
Food preparation	62	34	73	55	107	63	106	79
Kitchen cleanup	41	28	44	32	70	55	67	44
Grocery shopping	28	32	38	33	47	42	52	51
Housecleaning	41	44	62	57	173	133	156	109
Car and yard care	6	26	15	34	53	59	50	56
Home repairs	3	11	7	16	21	33	21	41
Clothing care	45	63	59	59	94	87	93	79
Bill paying and record keeping	30	43	31	88	23	28	25	38
Discussing and making financial decisions	25	30	19	21	34	46	21	31
Caring for children	245	300	175	222	385	389	383	379
Teaching skills to children	59	98	29	26	61	63	55	83
Transporting children	39	30	31	34	42	50	51	59
Playing with children	60	107	55	78	103	118	122	146
Sleeping and eating	488	81	463	92	518	94	496	79
Care of self	66	44	75	70	80	53	88	76
Leisure and recreation	56	73	72	78	165	139	152	128
Volunteer activities	21	36	34	50	23	43	41	72
Keeping in touch with friends	29	50	32	51	63	86	54	54
Keeping in touch with relatives	21	23	30	46	58	62	54	58

leisure and recreation, and social activities than did earner wives. Career and earner wives reported spending similar amounts of time in most household production activities (except for housecleaning) and child-related activities.

Time Allocations by Husbands of Career and Earner Wives

Husbands' mean time allocations to specific activities are reported in Table 4. On a weekday, husbands of career wives spent more time in leisure and recreation and social activities, but less time in employment and employment-related activities, car and yard care, home repairs, and child-related activities than did husbands of earner wives. Both groups of husbands allocated very little time to household tasks traditionally ascribed to females (i.e., meal preparation, grocery shopping, and housecleaning).

On a weekend day, husbands of career wives spent more time in leisure and recreation and social activities, but less time in child-care activities and car and yard care. The groups were similar in time spent in employment, most household production activities, and sleeping and eating.

Summary and Discussion of the Time Allocations Data

Career wives' greater time allocations to employment and employment-related activities on an average weekday and weekend day was expected, given their career commitment and the job responsibilities associated with higher level occupational statuses. Although career wives reported spending

Table 4

Mean Time Allocations of Husbands of Career and Earner Wives

Activity	Husbands' weekday time (in mins.)				Husbands' weekend day time (in mins.)			
	Career		Earner		Career		Earner	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Employment and related activities	487	175	541	137	137	182	129	177
Meal preparation and kitchen cleanup	24	30	25	37	29	40	31	41
Grocery shopping	13	24	12	30	19	27	17	32
Housecleaning	10	21	15	39	30	53	25	37
Car and yard care	24	48	37	54	91	87	115	99
Home repairs	13	30	24	41	57	77	57	29
Washing and ironing	7	19	8	21	9	43	9	29
Bill paying and record keeping	16	33	21	37	19	43	21	37
Discussing and making financial decisions	22	37	21	26	30	39	27	30
Caring for children	33	41	49	78	62	93	106	163
Teaching skills to children	19	23	27	38	33	53	45	56
Transporting children	12	15	17	36	11	19	30	51
Playing with children	25	34	40	64	74	109	86	115
Sleeping and eating	498	75	493	93	523	85	520	99
Care of self	75	57	87	89	96	104	103	104
Leisure and recreation	125	125	100	110	249	153	216	167
Volunteer activities	23	58	19	48	19	54	21	47
Keeping in touch with friends	39	66	24	37	72	95	52	64
Keeping in touch with relatives	21	28	18	27	74	74	55	72

slightly less time in household production activities on a weekday (which was logical given their time inputs to employment), they still spent much time performing these activities. Some of the career wives obviously compensated for spending less time in household production tasks on a weekday by allocating more time on weekends. Those career wives with children living at home allocated more time to child care and teaching skills to children on a weekday than did earner wives. Perhaps these women felt guilty about their career commitment and time inputs to employment (Bird, et al., 1983; Johnson & Johnson, 1980) and reacted by spending more time with their children.

Overall, both career and earner wives reported spending much of their time in employment activities, household production activities, and child-related activities, and much less time in leisure and recreation and social activities. If time allocations reflect role salience (Nye, 1976), both groups of employed married women spent more time performing, and therefore placed greater importance on child-socialization, child care, housekeeper, and occupational roles, while relegating social, kinship, and recreational roles to a lower status as predicted by Nye (1976).

On a weekday, husbands of career wives spent less time in employment than husbands of earner wives and the career wives. However, the larger standard deviation for employment time by husbands of career wives indicated that

some career husbands worked many more hours than others. Recall that more husbands of career wives were either retired, disabled, or unemployed than husbands of earner wives. In addition, some career wives and especially those over 60 indicated that their husbands were retired but worked part-time. These sample characteristics may also explain the slightly higher means for weekday time allocations to leisure and recreation and social activities by husbands of career wives.

Except for employment, the major differences between time allocations of groups of husbands was in child-related activities. Husbands of earner wives spent more time on a weekday and weekend day in these activities (the means for child-related activities pertained only to those households with minor-aged children living at home). Perhaps the earner wives allocated less time to child-related activities than career wives because their husbands assumed more of these responsibilities.

Compared to their wives, husbands spent more time in leisure and recreation and social activities, regardless of day, but less time in household production activities. Recall that national studies of time use have also found that husbands typically spend more time in leisure and recreational activities but less time in household production activities than wives (Robinson, 1977; Walker & Woods, 1976). Therefore, the sample of wives, regardless of their

career commitment, resources (i.e., occupational status, educational level, or income), or time allocations to employment, was rather traditional in their allocations of time to various activities.

Descriptive Results of Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

A second objective was to describe career and earner wives' preferences for the use of time. Wives recorded preferences for the use of their time and husbands' time on seven-point Likert-type scales with one indicating a preference to spend a great deal less time and seven indicating a preference to spend a great deal more time in each of the activities. The descriptive results include mean scores, standard deviations, and frequency distributions for groups of career and earner wives. To simplify presentation of the data, the response categories were collapsed (after calculation of means and standard deviations) and percentage distributions are presented separately for career and earner wives in three categories: (a) prefer to spend less time, (b) spend about the right amount of time, and (c) prefer to spend more time.

Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

Career and earner wives' preferences for the use of their time are reported in Table 5. The mean for employment time was lower for career wives (3.2) than for earner wives

Table 5

Descriptive Data on Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for Use of Their Time

	Career wives (N=85)						Earner wives (N=150)					
			Less time	Right time	More time	Total			Less time	Right time	More time	Total
Wives' activities	M	SD	%	%	%	%	M	SD	%	%	%	%
Employment and related activities	3.2	1.0	56.5	32.9	10.6	100.0	3.5	1.2	42.0	40.7	9.4	92.0
Meal planning	4.5	1.3	10.6	42.4	43.5	96.5	4.6	1.3	12.7	28.0	52.0	92.7
Food preparation	4.5	1.2	11.8	34.1	50.6	96.5	4.3	1.3	17.3	35.3	40.7	92.7
Kitchen cleanup	3.9	1.3	22.4	49.4	22.4	94.1	3.5	1.4	38.7	37.3	16.0	92.0
Grocery shopping	4.0	1.0	20.0	56.5	15.1	94.1	3.6	1.2	31.3	50.7	9.3	93.3
Housecleaning	4.2	1.6	23.5	27.1	38.1	95.3	4.0	1.6	32.0	25.3	31.1	88.7
Car and yard care	4.6	1.3	8.2	43.5	39.9	91.8	4.2	1.4	19.3	30.0	36.7	86.0
Home repairs	4.5	1.2	5.9	41.2	33.0	80.0	4.3	1.4	11.3	38.7	28.7	78.7
Clothing care	4.1	1.4	24.7	36.5	34.1	95.3	4.1	1.2	16.0	46.0	27.4	88.0
Bill paying and record keeping	3.8	1.1	23.5	56.5	12.9	92.9	3.8	1.1	18.0	56.0	13.3	87.3
Discussing and making financial decisions	4.2	1.0	10.6	56.5	27.1	92.9	4.6	1.1	5.3	44.7	37.3	87.3
Caring for children	4.6	1.3	5.9	27.1	22.4	55.3	4.6	1.3	4.0	28.7	21.3	54.0
Teaching skills to children	4.9	1.0	0.0	23.5	23.6	47.1	5.0	1.1	.7	20.7	27.3	48.7
Transporting children	3.7	1.0	10.6	29.4	1.2	41.2	3.7	.9	11.3	32.7	3.4	47.3
Playing with children	5.1	1.1	0.0	17.7	25.9	43.5	5.1	1.2	0.0	24.0	28.7	52.7
Sleeping and eating	4.6	1.0	2.4	54.1	35.3	91.8	4.3	1.0	6.0	54.7	30.0	90.7
Care of self	5.2	1.0	1.2	23.5	68.3	92.9	4.9	1.0	2.7	34.0	54.7	91.3
Leisure and recreation	5.8	1.0	0.0	10.6	78.8	89.4	5.4	1.1	1.3	18.7	70.7	90.7
Volunteer activities	4.8	1.3	5.9	28.2	48.2	82.4	4.7	1.2	5.3	32.0	38.7	76.0
Keeping in touch with friends	5.7	.9	0.0	7.1	83.5	96.5	5.2	1.0	3.3	21.3	66.7	91.3
Keeping in touch with relatives	5.2	1.1	2.4	24.7	63.6	90.6	5.0	1.1	2.0	32.7	54.0	88.7

(3.5). The majority of career wives (approximately 57%), but not earner wives (42%), wanted to spend less time in employment. This result was not expected given their career commitment. However, since many career wives did indeed allocate more time to employment than earner wives (see Table 3), some obviously felt that they were spending too much of their time in employment activities.

Over 50% of both groups felt that they spend the right amount of time in certain household production activities including grocery shopping, bill paying, and record keeping, although the means for both groups on these activities were above the mid-points, indicating that many wanted to spend more, rather than less time in these activities. High percentages of both groups indicated preferences to spend more time in meal planning and food preparation activities, and one-third or more of both groups wanted to spend more time housecleaning and caring for car and yard. Higher percentages of career wives indicated preferences to spend more time cleaning the kitchen and grocery shopping; whereas higher percentages of earner wives indicated preferences to spend more time discussing and making financial decisions. Perhaps the lower incomes of earner wives influenced their perceptions regarding the need to spend more time carefully allocating their resources.

The percentages for child-related activities were calculated using the total number in each group rather than just those wives who had children living at home. These percentages also included wives with adult children or grandchildren who expressed preferences regarding child-related time. The means for career and earner wives' preferences for teaching skills to children (4.9 and 5.0, respectively) and for playing with children (5.1 for both groups) were moderately high. Few wives preferred to spend less time in any activities with children, but some wanted to spend less time transporting children.

The highest means (indicating stronger perferences to spend more time) for both groups were for leisure and recreation, keeping in touch with friends, keeping in touch with relatives, and care of self. However, the means were slightly higher for career wives versus earner wives as were the percentages who wanted to spend more time in these activities.

Wives' Preferences for Husbands' Use of Time

Presented in Table 6 are the descriptive data for wives' preferences for husbands' use of time. Slightly more than 50% of both groups felt that their husbands spend the right amount of time in employment and employment-related activities, and only 11% of the career wives and 6% of earner wives wanted their husbands to spend more time in employment.

Table 6

Descriptive Data on Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for Husbands' Use of Time

	Career wives (N= =85)						Earner wives (N=150)					
			Less time	Right time	More time	Total			Less time	Right time	More time	Total
Husbands' activities	M	SD	%	%	%	%	M	SD	%	%	%	%
Employment and related activities	3.9	1.2	21.1	51.8	10.6	83.5	3.5	1.1	28.0	52.7	6.0	86.7
Meal preparation and kitchen cleanup	4.0	1.2	2.4	43.5	41.2	87.1	4.8	1.1	3.3	36.7	48.0	88.0
Grocery shopping	4.6	1.2	4.7	44.7	35.3	84.7	4.5	1.2	4.7	46.0	35.3	86.0
Housecleaning	4.8	1.2	2.4	38.8	40.0	81.2	4.8	1.2	4.0	36.0	48.7	88.7
Car and yard care	4.6	1.2	4.7	49.4	34.1	88.8	4.5	1.1	5.3	53.3	32.0	90.7
Home repairs	4.9	1.1	2.4	37.7	44.7	84.7	4.8	1.1	3.3	38.7	49.4	91.3
Washing and ironing	4.4	1.0	3.5	50.6	24.7	78.8	4.5	1.2	4.0	47.3	29.3	80.7
Bill paying and record keeping	4.5	1.0	3.5	52.9	29.7	85.9	4.5	1.1	4.0	52.0	29.3	85.3
Discussing and making financial decisions	4.6	.9	0.0	50.6	33.0	83.5	4.6	1.0	4.7	48.0	34.6	87.3
Caring for children	4.8	1.0	0.0	25.9	21.2	47.1	4.7	.8	.7	22.7	26.0	49.3
Teaching skills to children	4.8	1.1	0.0	25.9	22.3	48.2	4.9	.9	0.0	19.3	29.4	48.7
Transporting children	4.5	.9	0.0	28.2	11.8	40.0	4.6	.9	0.0	30.0	17.3	47.3
Playing with children	4.9	1.2	0.0	21.2	18.8	40.0	4.8	.9	0.0	23.3	26.0	49.3
Sleeping and eating	4.2	.9	10.6	50.6	21.5	82.4	4.1	.9	15.3	54.7	18.0	88.0
Care of self	4.4	.8	4.7	54.1	28.2	87.1	4.3	.8	4.7	56.7	27.3	88.7
Leisure and recreation	4.7	1.2	8.2	31.8	44.7	84.7	4.6	1.2	12.0	32.0	43.3	87.3
Volunteer activities	4.7	.9	3.5	29.4	42.4	75.3	4.5	.9	4.7	37.3	35.3	77.3
Keeping in touch with friends	4.9	1.0	2.4	22.4	57.7	82.4	4.7	.9	2.7	34.7	49.3	86.7
Keeping in touch with relatives	4.7	1.1	3.5	35.3	43.6	82.4	4.6	1.1	7.3	36.7	43.3	87.3

Except for employment, the means for career and earner wives' preferences for husbands' use of time in all activities ranged from 4.0 to 4.9, indicating that overall, they wanted their husbands to spend a little more time in most activities. However, many wives in both groups were satisfied with husbands' time allocations--that is, they indicated that their husbands spent about the right amount of time in many activities. For example, approximately 50% or more of the wives in both groups felt their husbands spent the right time in car and yard care, washing and ironing, discussing and making financial decisions, sleeping and eating, and in care of self (grooming, dressing, resting, etc.).

As in the previous table, percentages for child-related activities are of the total number in each group rather than of women with children at home. Thus, about one-half all wives indicating their preferences for husbands' time in child-related activities felt that their husbands spent the right amount of time in these activities, even though as discussed in the section on actual time allocations, husbands of both groups, but especially the career wives' husbands, spent considerably less time in child activities than did wives.

The groups of career wives and earner wives were similar in their preferences for husbands' time allocations to leisure and recreation, and keeping in touch with relatives.

A majority of career wives preferred that their husbands spend more time in leisure and recreation, volunteer activities, and keeping in touch with friends and relatives even though, as noted in the section on time allocations, these husbands spent slightly more time on a weekday and weekend day in these activities than did the husbands of earner wives, and much more time than their career wives.

Summary and Discussion of Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

For most activities, career and earner wives were very similar in their preferences for the use of time--they wanted to spend more time in most activities except employment. Slightly higher percentages of career wives preferred to spend less time in employment and employment-related activities but more time caring for themselves (i.e., resting, grooming, etc.), in leisure and recreation, volunteer activities, and social activities than earner wives. Since many of the career wives spent more time in employment on an average weekday and weekend day, they may have felt that they needed more free time.

Career and earner wives were more similar in their preferences for their husbands' use of time in most activities than in their preferences for their own time. The majority of both groups indicated that their husbands spend the right amount of time in traditionally masculine

activities such as employment, car and yard care, bill paying and record keeping, and discussing and making financial decisions. Also, over 50% of both groups were satisfied with husbands' time allocations to sleeping, eating, and self-care activities.

Since both groups of wives reported allocating much more time to household production activities than did their husbands and many wives, whether career or earner, felt that their husbands allocated the right amount of time to these activities, traditional attitudes regarding the division of household labor were obviously present. These results are in accordance with the findings of sociological studies of attitudes toward the division of labor concerning the performance of household tasks (Pleck, 1981; Slocum & Nye, 1976).

The major differences between career and earner wives' preferences for their husbands' use of time (although the differences were small) were for husbands' employment time. Although the means for the two groups were similar for most activities, some of the differences between career and earner wives may have been obscured by collapsing the data from seven to three categories. In the following sections, the raw data on wives' preferences for time use will be further analyzed using univariate and multivariate procedures to test for overall differences between groups.

Results of Factor Analyses of Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

Separate factor analysis procedures using the varimax rotation method were performed on wives' preferences for the use of time and wives' preferences for husbands' use of time. The analyses were performed to test the dimensionality of wives' preferences and to use these results to create a smaller number of variables for use in subsequent analyses.

Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

The results of the factor analysis procedure for wives' preferences for the use of their time in the activities are presented in Table 7. Seven factors with eigenvalues greater than one were extracted, which together explained 66.2% of the variability in the original data. Each of the original 21 items loaded .43 or higher on one of the seven factors.

Activities that have been collectively referred to as "household production" by family resource theorists and researchers loaded on Factors 1,2,3, and 6. For this sample, wives' preferences for the use of their time in "household production" was not a unidimensional concept.

Factor 1 was named General Household Production because a variety of activities such as bill paying and record keeping, home repairs, clothing care, car and yard care, housecleaning, discussing and making financial decisions and

Table 7

Factor Analysis of Wives' Preferences for the Use of Their Time

Factor	Factor name	Wives' use of time in:	Loading
1	General Household Production Activities (21.7%)	Bill paying and record keeping	.71
		Home repairs	.70
		Clothing care	.67
		Car and yard care	.63
		Housecleaning	.52
		Discussing and making financial decisions	.50
		Kitchen cleanup	.43
2	Child-Related Activities (12.4%)	Teaching skills to children	.82
		Playing with children	.81
		Care of children	.70
3	Food Preparation Activities (8.4%)	Meal planning	.89
		Food preparation	.89
4	Social and Volunteer Activities (7.3%)	Keeping in touch with relatives	.82
		Keeping in touch with friends	.80
		Volunteer activities	.69
5	Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities (6.2%)	Sleeping and eating	.82
		Care of self (resting, grooming, dressing, etc.)	.69
		Leisure and recreation	.50
6	Away-from-Home Household Production Activities (5.3%)	Transporting children	.75
		Grocery shopping	.57
7	Employment Activities (4.8%)	Employment and employment-related activities	.85

Note: The amount of variability explained by each factor is presented in parentheses after the factor name.

kitchen cleanup were included in the factor. Approximately 22% of the variability was explained by Factor 1. Three items pertaining to child-related activities loaded on Factor 2; therefore, this factor was named Child-related Activities. Factor 3 was named Food Preparation Activities, and only two activities loaded on the factor. Together, Factors 2 and 3 explained an additional 20.8% of the variability. Household production activities that are performed away from home (i.e., transporting children and grocery shopping) were included in Factor 6, Away-from-Home Household Production Activities, which explained an additional 5.3% of the variability.

Three items loaded highly on Factor 4, which was named Social and Volunteer activities. Although economists have referred to these activities as included in "leisure", leisure and recreation loaded on Factor 5 along with sleeping and eating and care of self (resting, grooming, dressing, etc.). Factor 5 was named, Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities. Together, factors 4 and 5 explained 13.5% of the variability.

Only one item loaded on the last factor, Employment Activities, which explained the remaining 4.8% of variability. The fact that wives' time preferences for employment were separate from preferences for other activities supports the observation that many employed, married women mentally separate or compartmentalize roles and role responsibilities (Nye, 1976; Pleck, 1977).

Wives' Preferences for Husbands' Use of Time

Factors and factor loadings resulting from the analysis of wives' preferences for husbands' use of time are reported in Table 8. Using the varimax rotation method, six factors with eigenvalues greater than one were extracted, and explained approximately 68% of the variability in the original items. Overall, the item loadings on each factor were higher than those obtained in the factor analysis of wives' preferences for their own time allocations. The lowest loading of any item was .58.

All child-related activities loaded on Factor 1, including transporting children, which was not the case for wives' preferences for their own time allocations. This factor explained a full 25.3% of the variability, which was expected given the wide range of ages of respondents and the differences in time allocations to child-related activities by husbands of career and earner wives (see Table 4).

Two "household production" factors were extracted for husbands' use of time. Activities traditionally labelled as "female" household production such as grocery shopping, meal preparation and kitchen cleanup, housecleaning, and washing and ironing, loaded on Factor 2, which was named Housekeeping Activities. Two activities traditionally performed by males, car and yard care and home repairs, loaded on Factor 4, which was named Traditional Male Household Production Activities. Factor 2 explained 13.2%, but Factor 4 only 7.5%, of the variability in the original data.

Table 8

Factor Analysis of Wives' Preferences for Husbands' Use of Time

Factor	Factor name	Husbands' use of time in:	Loading
1	Child-Related Activities (25.3%)	Teaching skills to children	.86
		Caring for children	.83
		Playing with children	.81
		Transporting children	.78
2	Housekeeping Activities (13.2%)	Grocery shopping	.84
		Meal preparation and kitchen cleanup	.82
		Housecleaning	.73
		Washing and ironing	.65
3	Social and Volunteer Activities (9.9%)	Keeping in touch with relatives	.80
		Keeping in touch with friends	.77
		Volunteer activities	.70
4	Traditional Male Household Production Activities (7.5%)	Car and yard care	.82
		Home repairs	.81
5	Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities (6.4%)	Care of self (resting, grooming, (etc.)	.85
		Sleeping and eating	.71
		Leisure and recreation	.58
6	Employment and Financial Resource Management Activities (5.8%)	Discussing and making financial decisions	.67
		Employment and employment-related activities	.66
		Bill paying and record keeping	.58

Note: The amount of variability explained by each factor is presented in parentheses after the factor name.

Two factors, 3 and 5, were similar to two factors extracted in the previous analysis of wives' preferences for the use of their time. Factor 3, Social and Volunteer Activities, was almost identical to Factor 4 for wives. The three items loaded in the same order and loadings were similar for both analyses. Factor 5 for husbands, Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities, was very similar to Factor 5 for wives, except item loadings were slightly higher for wives' preferences for husbands' time allocations to personal maintenance and leisure activities. Factor 3 explained 9.9%, and Factor 5 accounted for 6.4% of the variability.

Factor 6, Employment and Financial Resources Management Activities, was so named because items pertaining to financial resources management (i.e., discussing and making financial decisions and bill paying and record keeping) loaded with wives' preferences for husbands' use of time in employment and employment related activities. This factor explained the remaining 5.8% of variability.

Summary and Discussion of the Results of the Factor Analyses of Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

The factor analyses procedures produced seven factors for wives' preferences for the use of their time and six factors for wives' preferences for husbands' use of time. The dimensionality of the wives' preferences for their own time and their husbands' time was similar with two

exceptions. First, four household production factors were produced for wives and three for husbands. Second, wives' preferences for the use of their time in employment and employment-related activities loaded separately on one factor; whereas, their preferences for husbands' use of time in employment loaded with financial resource management items.

Wives' patterns of responses for preferences for husbands' use of time reflected a rather traditional view of husbands' roles as financial supporters and financial managers of families and of these roles as being separate and distinct from the performance of household work. Wives' preferences for their own use of time in financial resource management activities were similar to their preferences for the use of their time in General Household Production Activities (i.e., home repairs, clothing care, etc.). Their attitudes toward their employment roles were separate.

The results suggest that traditional categorizations of time use that have been employed in previous studies of time allocations, although conceptually logical, may have inaccurately represented subjective attitudes regarding the use of time. While family resource researchers have collected valuable time data using time diaries that delineated specific activities, certain combinations of activities have differed from those indicated by the present factor analyses procedures. For example, social and recreational activities have been defined as one activity and unpaid work as another

(Technical Committee for NE-113, 1981). In the present study, keeping in touch with friends, keeping in touch with relatives, and volunteer activities loaded on the same factor and leisure and recreation loaded with sleeping and eating and care of self, both for husbands and wives.

Although it is beyond the scope of this study to investigate the psychological meanings attached to the factors that emerged in the analyses of the present data, it is important to note that the results produced categories of activities that were different from those used in past studies, and different from previous theories of actual time allocations. For example, in traditional economic thought, time was conceptualized as either market work or leisure. More recently, theorists proposing a "new economics of the family" have conceptualized time allocations as market work, household production, or leisure, the latter including personal maintenance activities such as sleeping and eating as well as leisure and recreational activities (Becker, 1974). Conceptual models more closely associated with consumer behavior have divided time into four components including job, necessities (i.e., self-maintenance activities), homework, and leisure (Feldman & Hornik, 1981). The present findings suggest that future studies focusing on individuals' attitudes, feelings, and preferences for the use of time may contribute significantly to an understanding of individuals' time allocation processes.

Results of Analysis of Variance Procedures of Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

To determine whether career and earner wives differed in their preferences for the use of time, a series of one-way analysis of variance procedures were completed, first using factor scores on each of the time preference factors, then using wives' preferences for use of time in each of the activities as dependent variables. Additional ANOVA procedures were performed for wives' preferences for husbands' time allocations on each activity as well as for scores on the six factors. Statistical differences between career and earner wives on the factors and on separate activities are reported and discussed.

Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

As indicated in Table 9, there were no statistically significant differences found between career and earner wives on Factors 1, 2, or 3, which were General Household Production Activities, Child-related Activities, and Food Preparation Activities. However, there were statistically significant differences between the groups in preferences for the use of time in two of the activities that loaded on Factor 1, discussing and making financial decisions and kitchen cleanup. More earner wives indicated preferences to spend more time discussing and making financial decisions, which may be partly explained by their lower time allocations to this activity (see Table 3). Also, since earner

Table 9

Analysis of Variance of Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Their Time

Factors and activities	Career wives		Earner wives		
	M	SD	M	SD	F
Factor 1 - General Household Production Activities	3.8	1.20	3.8	1.17	.01
Bill paying and record keeping	3.8	1.01	3.8	1.06	.12
Home repairs	4.5	1.08	4.3	1.19	1.26
Clothing Care	4.1	1.31	4.1	1.13	.18
Car and yard care	4.6	1.24	4.2	1.32	3.57
Housecleaning	4.2	1.54	4.0	1.57	.93
Discussing and making financial decisions	4.2	.93	4.6	1.05	8.24**
Kitchen cleanup	3.9	1.26	3.5	1.29	5.09*
Factor 2 - Child-Related Actitivies	4.5	.85	4.7	.91	1.83
Teaching skills to children	4.9	.70	5.0	.77	.33
Playing with children	5.1	.71	5.1	.84	.01
Care of children	4.6	.95	4.6	.95	.11
Factor 3 - Food Preparation Activities	2.8	1.17	2.8	1.25	.13
Meal planning	4.5	1.25	4.6	1.24	.67
Food Preparation	4.5	1.22	4.3	1.22	1.49

Table 9 (continued)

Factors and activities	Career wives		Earner wives		
	M	SD	M	SD	F
Factor 4 - Social and Volunteer Activities	9.7	1.92	9.1	1.92	4.55*
Keeping in touch with relatives	5.2	1.03	5.0	1.04	2.00
Keeping in touch with friends	5.7	.88	5.2	.97	13.80***
Volunteer activities	4.8	1.16	4.7	1.00	1.05
Factor 5 - Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities	5.1	.97	4.8	.97	4.72*
Sleeping and eating	4.6	.94	4.3	.90	4.81*
Care of self (resting, grooming, dressing, etc.)	5.2	1.00	4.9	.98	4.36*
Leisure and recreation	5.7	.94	5.4	1.00	6.65**
Factor 6 - Away-from-Home Household Production Activities	3.1	.91	2.8	1.00	6.09**
Transporting children	3.7	.65	3.7	.61	.15
Grocery Shopping	3.9	.96	3.6	1.17	4.65*
Factor 7 - Employment and Employment-Related Activities	3.4	.99	3.8	1.14	5.34*
Employment and employment-related activities	3.3	1.00	3.4	1.15	1.72

Note: Mean factor scores are underlined.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

wives had lower personal and family incomes, they may have perceived a need to spend more time managing that income. More career wives indicated a preference to spend more time in kitchen cleanup, although, as previously reported, the mean time allocations of the two groups were very similar (see Table 3). Since many career wives had larger incomes, perhaps they had larger or more elaborate kitchens that they felt required extra time for cleaning and maintenance.

Statistically significant differences between career and earner wives were found on Factors 4 through 7. Career wives preferred to spend more time in Social and Volunteer, Personal Maintenance and Leisure, and Away-from-Home Household Production Activities but less time in Employment and Employment-Related Activities.

Univariate analysis of variance procedures revealed major sources of the differences between career and earner wives on each of the factors. The groups differed on only one item that loaded on Factor 4, keeping in touch with friends. Career wives wanted to spend more time keeping in touch with friends, but the means on this individual activity were moderately high for both groups (5.7 and 5.2, respectively). Career wives actually spent only three minutes less than earner wives (29 versus 32 minutes) on a weekday but 9 minutes more (63 versus 54 minutes respectively) on a weekend day keeping in touch with friends (see Table 3). Perhaps their higher educational levels, occupational

statuses, and incomes were related to their preferences. For example, they may have developed a wider spectrum of friendships through their college or work experiences and their higher incomes were potential resources for social activities.

Statistically significant differences were found between career and earner wives on each activity that loaded on Factor 5, sleeping and eating, care of self, and leisure and recreation. The strength of the preference to spend more time in each of these activities was greater for career wives than earner wives. Referring back to the means for actual time allocations to these activities (Table 3), on an average weekday, career wives reported spending about 25 minutes more sleeping and eating, but approximately 9 minutes less caring for themselves, and 16 minutes less in leisure and recreation. Thus, the actual mean time allocations for these activities when summed, were similar for both groups. Moreover, career wives reported spending a few minutes more sleeping and eating and in leisure and recreation on an average weekend day.

Career and earner wives differed on Factor 6, Away-from-Home Household Production Activities, but only one activity included in the factor contributed to the difference, grocery shopping. Again, more career wives indicated the preference to spend more time (although the means were near the mid-range), probably because they reported

actually spending less time grocery shopping (see Table 3). Some career wives may have felt that they should spend more time comparing prices, examining new products, etc., than their schedules allowed.

While career wives preferred to spend less time in employment, the mean for employment activities for career wives (3.2) was near the midpoint and that for earner wives was at the mid-point, reflecting the attitude that they spent the right amount of time in employment.

Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for Husbands' Use of Time

As indicated in Table 10, there were no statistically significant differences found between career and earner wives on factor scores for preferences for husbands' use of time. The means for preferences on each activity indicated that both groups preferred for their husbands to spend a little more time in all activities, except most earner wives were satisfied that their husbands spent the right amount of time in employment activities. There were statistically significant differences between career and earner wives in preferences for husbands' time in employment and employment-related activities. Career wives wanted their husbands to spend a little more time in employment, probably due, in part, to the fact that some career husbands actually spent less time in employment than their wives.

Table 10

Analysis of Variance of Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for Husbands' Use of Time

Factors and activities	Career wives M	Career wives SD	Earner wives M	Earner wives SD	F
Factor 1 - Child-Related Activities	3.9	.58	3.9	.71	.19
Teaching skills to children	4.9	.72	4.9	.65	.29
Caring for children	4.7	.65	4.7	.58	.08
Playing with children	4.9	.73	4.8	.63	.36
Transporting children	4.5	.56	4.6	.61	.17
Factor 2 - Housekeeping Activities	8.6	1.53	8.7	1.39	.21
Grocery shopping	4.6	1.07	4.5	1.08	.22
Meal preparation and kitchen cleanup	4.8	1.08	4.8	1.06	.01
Housecleaning	4.8	1.07	4.8	1.09	.06
Washing and ironing	4.4	.87	4.5	1.11	.50
Factor 3 - Social and Volunteer Activities	4.3	.93	4.2	.87	.68
Keeping in touch with relatives	4.7	.95	4.6	1.10	.61
Keeping in touch with friends	4.9	.86	4.8	.81	2.33
Volunteer activities	4.7	.75	4.6	.79	1.48

Table 10 (continued)

Factors and activities	Career wives M	Career wives SD	Earner wives M	Earner wives SD	F
Factor 4 - Traditional Male Household Production Activities	3.2	.93	3.2	1.08	.07
Car and yard care	4.6	1.11	4.5	1.05	.66
Home repairs	4.9	1.04	4.8	1.06	.90
Factor 5 - Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities	6.2	.86	6.0	.83	1.81
Care of self (resting, grooming, etc.)	4.4	.79	4.3	.75	.40
Sleeping and eating	4.2	.81	4.1	.81	1.81
Leisure and recreation	4.6	1.13	4.6	1.08	.30
Factor 6 - Employment and Financial Resources Management Activities	4.6	1.07	4.5	.91	1.83
Discussing and making financial decisions	4.5	.81	4.6	.96	.19
Employment and employment-related activities	3.8	1.08	3.6	1.03	4.16*
Bill paying and record keeping	4.5	.91	4.5	.99	.15

Note: Mean factor scores are underlined.

*$p < .05$.

Summary and Discussion of Analysis of Variance Procedures for Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

There were statistically significant differences found between career and earner wives on four of the seven time preferences factors regarding their own time. Major differences pertained to their personal activities and employment activities rather than to family activities--career wives preferred to spend more time in personal activities but less time in employment activities than did earner wives. All wives, regardless of career commitment or occupational status, were similar in their preferences to spend more of their time attending to family needs and family role responsibilities, and all wanted to spend more time in personal maintenance, care of self, and leisure activities but these preferences were especially strong for career wives.

In speculating on possible reasons for the differences, it is important to remember that most career wives in the sample allocated more than eight hours on an average weekday to employment plus additional time on the weekends. Although they spent a few minutes less than earner wives on an average weekday performing household work, many who had children at home spent more time in child-related activities. Also, both groups reported spending similar and large amounts of time on an average weekend day performing household work and caring for children. Their family role

responsibilities were obviously very important to these women. The time allocated to personal maintenance, social, and leisure activities was low compared to their time allocations to family work and employment. Therefore, a possible explanation for career wives' higher preferences for more time in these rather "personal" activities may be related to their longer hours of employment in demanding occupations (Bailyn, 1978; Handy, 1978; Rosen et al., 1975). The combination of employment time and time allocated to family responsibilities also may have created perceptions of greater needs for more time in these activities. Too, their higher incomes and commitment to their employment may have contributed a certain "legitimization" of these preferences, especially since their husbands were spending more time in these activities.

No statistically significant differences were found between career and earner wives in factor scores for preferences for husbands' use of time. The groups differed in preferences on one activity, husbands' employment time, with career wives preferring husbands to spend more time in employment, probably because many husbands of career wives spent less time in employment than their wives and also less time than earner husbands (see Table 4). The means for all activities other than employment ranged from 4.1 to 4.9, indicating that wives were either satisfied or preferred husbands to spend a little more time in all activities other

than employment. Overall, the groups of wives were rather similar in their preferences for the use of time. They wanted more time for themselves and their husbands in most activities other than employment, although most were not extremely dissatisfied with time inputs into employment. Seemingly, an attractive option for these women, if possible, would include a "thirty hour day". Interestingly, the strength of their preferences for more time in personal activities such as sleeping and eating, personal maintenance, social, and leisure activities were stronger for their own time than for husbands' time, suggesting that they were less traditional in their attitudes toward their own roles, but more traditional in their attitudes toward husbands' roles.

Results of the Multivariate Analysis of Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

A third purpose of the study was to compare career and earner wives' preferences for the use of time, controlling for the effects of sex role attitudes, locus of control, weekly employment hours, age, education, family income, family size, presence of a child under age six, and number of rooms in the family dwelling. A multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) procedure was performed on career and earner wives' factor scores for their own and husbands' use of time. A Wilks' lamda of .098027 was not statistically significant at the .05 level (see Table 11). Therefore,

Table 11

Multivariate Analysis of Covariance and Discriminant Analysis of Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

Variables	Standard discriminant function	Correlation with discriminant score	Significance level
Wives' time in Away-from-Home Household Production	-.60338	-.66876	.01
Wives' time in Personal Maintenance and Leisure	-.30969	-.48693	.05

Note: Wilks' lambda = .90827 (p = .078)

there were no overall statistically significant differences between career and earner wives in their preferences for use of time.

Summary and Discussion of Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time

Although the univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures produced statistically significant differences between career and earner wives in their preferences for the use of time on factors representing social and volunteer, personal maintenance and leisure, household production activities performed away from home, and employment activities, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) procedure indicated that there were no significant differences between the groups of women. One or more of the covariates were probably important in producing the statistically significant differences regarding time preferences that were observed in the univariate analyses.

Regardless of level of commitment to employment and occupational status, the sample of employed, married women were very similar in their preferences for the use of time. The data did not reveal overall dissatisfactions with the use of time which would have been indicated by preferences to spend less time in various activities. Rather, for this sample of employed married women, the time preference data verified the desire for more time for the performance of a variety of personal and family activities, but at the same

time, their feelings that they were spending the right amount of time performing their employment roles.

Perhaps many of these women felt that their employment time was an area over which they had little control, and therefore many had accepted and were fairly satisfied with employment-related time demands. Also, the acceptance and internalization of family role responsibilities meant that the allocation of much of their time away from employment was rather predetermined. Although the study was not designed to measure stressors or the effects of conflicts associated with the performance of multiple roles, the results suggest that, for both career and earner wives, major consequences of their lifestyles were unfulfilled preferences for more personal and family time.

Results of Factor Analyses of Strategies Used by Wives for Coping with Time Constraints

Wives' frequency of use of 67 strategies identified by previous research as behaviors used by employed wives in the performance of their multiple roles were analyzed using the principal components method of factor analysis. Although three separate rotation methods were performed (varimax, quartimax, and equamax), the procedures failed to converge in 25 iterations. The strategies were then divided into groups, one general group included personal and family-related strategies, and the second included strategies that

pertained to employment roles. Factor analysis procedures were then performed on wives' responses to items in each group.

Family-Related Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

All wives' responses reflecting frequency of use of 45 personal and family-related strategies were factor analyzed using the varimax rotation method. Nine factors with an eigenvalue greater than one were extracted, explaining 50.6% of the variance in the original set of items. Only those strategies that loaded .40 or greater on one of the nine factors were included. Four items did not load on any factor. Factors and factor loadings are presented in Table 12.

Factor 1 explained 9.7% of the variance and was named Personal Time Reduction. Many of the items loading on the factor (e.g., working harder, eating meals while "on the run") were reactive role strategies (Hall, 1972), that involved finding ways to meet all role expectations. Others referred specifically to time reductions in leisure and recreation and self-maintenance activities and were previously identified by Strober and Weinberg (1980) as typical coping strategies used by employed wives.

Factor 2 explained an additional 9.1% of the variance and was named Resource Expansion/Substitution. With the exception of two strategies that were typical work-simplification strategies (i.e., (keeping lists of tasks that need

Table 12

Factor Analysis of Wives' Use of Family-Related Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

Factor	Factor Name	Strategy	Loading
1	Personal Time Reduction (9.7%)	Eat meals while "on the run".	.72
		Work harder (take fewer breaks, exert more effort, etc.).	.62
		Spend less time on personal leisure or recreational activities.	.59
		Do the things that are important to me rather than trying to fulfill all of the demands of others.	-.58
		Spend less time in caring for myself (grooming, resting, etc.).	.56
		Spend less time sleeping.	.60
		Overlap tasks at home and do more than one thing at a time.	.47
		Do the things that are important to my family or others rather than the things that are important to me.	.44
2	Resource Expension/ Substitution (9.1%)	Increase my use of purchased services (such as child care, laundry or dry-cleaning, car or yard care, etc.).	.69
		Plan to purchase or actually purchase labor-saving appliances (such as microwave oven, frost-free refrigerator, etc.).	.64
		Save time at home by increasing my use of labor-saving devices.	.60
		Hire someone to help in my home.	.59
		Eat out more often.	.50
		Keep lists of tasks that need doing.	.44
		Save time by making sure that areas of my home are organized and things are conveniently located.	.43
		Increase my use of purchased goods (such as frozen foods, mixes, permanent press clothing, etc.).	.43
3	Passive/Mental Response (6.7%)	Worry about the things at home that aren't done as well as they should be done.	.84
		Worry about the things at home that don't get done.	.82
		Concentrate my full attention on one task at a time and try not to think about the other things that need doing.	.57

Table 12 (continued)

Factor	Factor Name	Strategy	Loading
4	Household Task/Standards Reduction (5.6%)	Ignore some of the tasks I usually perform at home.	.72
		Overlook or relax my standards for how well I do certain tasks at home.	.71
		Spend less time on housework.	.66
		Spend less time attending to family matters.	.56
5	Negotiated Time/Energy Reduction (4.6%)	Get my husband to reduce the demands he makes on me.	.71
		Get my children to reduce the demands they make on me.	.65
		Spend less time in employment or employment-related activities.	.50
		Get my husband to do some of the work.	.48
		Get my children to do some of the work.	.48
6	Internal Dissonance Reduction (4.3%)	Work to change my attitude about what is and what is not important.	.70
		Tell myself to relax.	.68
		Tell myself that everything will work out for the best.	.60
		Plan and organize the housework so that more can be done in less time.	.40
7	Communication with Others (3.8%)	Verbally inform others of my dissatisfaction.	.74
		Yell and let off steam.	.71
		Discuss the situation with my family and get them to help decide how to resolve the problem.	.50
		Get others living with or near me (relatives or friends) to do some of the work.	.40
8	Reduction of Social Roles (3.6%)	Spend less time in social activities.	.72
		Spend less time in volunteer or community-related activities.	.60
9	Limiting and Protecting Time (3.2%)	Simply refuse to take on any new family activities.	.74
		Simply refuse to take on any new personal activities (activities that do not involve family or work).	.63
		Find ways to keep people from interrupting me when I am trying to get things done.	.61

Note: The amount of variability explained by each factor is presented under the factor name.

doing, and saving time by making sure that areas of the home are organized and everything conveniently located), other items included "time-buying" strategies identified by Nichols and Fox (1983), and defined as the use of money resources to purchase services, convenience items, or the labor of others.

Factor 3, which included strategies that were mental responses to time constraints, such as worrying about things at home that are not done or not completed at a level comensurate with one's expectations, and mentally compartmentalizing tasks, was named Passive/Mental Response. Factor 3 explained an additional 6.7% of the variance. Although these strategies are not rational behaviors that actively change external reality (Kahn et al., 1964), psychologists have studied the function of these reactive responses in mediating the consequences of stress (Lazarus et al, 1966). Regardless of their function, these strategies represented a very real dimension of the employed wives' responses to feelings of having too much to do and too little time available.

The fourth factor, which explained an additional 5.6% of variability, was named Household Task/Standards Reduction because strategies included ignoring household tasks that were usually performed, overlooking or reducing standards relating to task completion, and actually spending less time on housework or on family matters. This factor was similar

to a group of strategies identified by Strober and Weinberg (1980) that pertained to reductions in the the quality or quantity of household tasks.

Factor 5 was named Negotiated Time/Energy Reduction because items described wives' efforts to elicit cooperation from husbands and children to either reduce their demands or actually perform some of the tasks. One item, spending less time in employment or employment-related activities, was included in the factor and probably reflected the perception among many wives that actual reduction of work time (and subsequent reduction of pay) requires some level of family discussion and/or negotiation. The portion of variability explained by Factor 5 was 4.6%. Similar strategies have been identified by family resource management researchers Nichols and Fox (1883) and Strober and Weinberg (1980).

The sixth factor, called Internal Dissonance Reduction, included items that were labeled as personal role redefinition strategies by Hall (1972). Working to change one's attitudes about what is and what is not important reflects attempts to change perceptions rather than behaviors, therefore reducing dissonance or internal discord. One item, planning and organizing the housework so that more can be done in less time, was included but received the lowest loading (.40) and may reflect the internal attitude change associated with the ultimate goal of becoming more organized in one's approach to work. Two items, "Telling myself to

relax" and "Telling myself that everything will work out for the best", are typical of a group of psychological stress-reduction responses. This factor explained an additional 4.3% of the variability in the original set of items.

Factor 7 was named Communication With Others because it included verbal notification of dissatisfaction, by discussing the situation and yelling and letting off steam. Although one item, "Get others living with or near me (relatives or friends) to do some of the work", received a low loading (.40), its inclusion in this dimension may be explained by the likelihood that communication regarding one's workload and time constraints would be required to elicit their cooperation and help of others.

Two items loaded on Factor 8, Reduction of Social Roles (i.e., spending less time in social activities and in community or volunteer activities). Although the portion of explained variability was small (3.6%), the fact that this factor was separate and distinct from Factor 1, Personal Time Reduction, indicated that time reduction in all activities cannot be conceptualized as a single strategy.

The final factor, Limiting and Protecting Time, was so named because behaviors such as refusing to assume any new family or personal activities and finding ways to prohibit interruptions when trying to get things done were included. A similar factor, Barriers Against Intrusion, was identified by Bird et al. (1983) in their factor analysis of role

management strategies, which involved the implementation of techniques that reduce or eliminate additional role demands. The function of this dimension may also be related to the coping behavior identified by Pearlin and Schooler (1978), eliminating or modifying conditions that produce the problem.

Items not loading on any factor. Four items did not load on any family-related factor, perhaps because of the content interpretation of the items. One item, "Involve family members in my employment related activities", concerned overlapping family and employment role performance. A second item, "Decide which family tasks and activities are most important and do those first", involved management through prioritizing.

The remaining two items, "Assume that things need to be done and that I am the one to do them" and "Accept time pressures as a natural part of my life", may be more accurately interpreted as attitudes which may be related to certain personality variables rather than as coping strategies useful in mitigating the effects of time constraints.

Employment-Related Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

A factor analysis procedure of all wives' frequency of use of 23 employment-related strategies for coping with time constraints was performed using the varimax rotation method. Eight factors with eigenvalues greater than one were

extracted, together explaining 63% of the total variability in the original items. Each item loaded .40 or higher on one of the factors. Factors and loadings are presented in Table 13.

Factors 1 and 2, respectively, explained 14.2% and 12.5% of the variance. Factor 1 was named Work Reduction and/or Redefinition because five strategies that loaded on the factor described active behaviors to reduce work-related demands or hours spent at work, eliminate some of the work activities, shift part of the workload to others, and find ways to combine work and family activities. Conversely, strategies included in Factor 2, Work Time Expansion, involved allocating more time to employment (i.e., going to work earlier, staying later, spending less time eating lunch, and taking work home).

Two items that pertained to overlooking or relaxing levels of performance at work loaded on Factor 3. Thus, the name Work Standards Reduction was given to the factor, which explained an additional 8.1% of the variability. Although family resource management researchers (Strober & Weinberg, 1980; Weinberg & Winer, 1983) have widely discussed and investigated the use of standards reduction strategies in the performance of household work, researchers investigating role overload have focused little empirical attention on the use of strategies to decrease or lessen performance levels at work. Hall (1972) categorized standards reduction

Table 13

Factor Analysis of Wives' Use of Employment-Related Strategies for Coping With Time Constraints

Factor	Factor Name	Strategy	Loading
1	Work Reduction/ Redefinition (14.2%)	Reduce the number of hours I spend at work so that I can have more time to do other things.	.74
		Decide that I will permanently eliminate some of the activities that I have been performing at work.	.61
		Get my employer or supervisor to reduce the demands that they make on me.	.56
		Get others at work to do some of the tasks I usually perform.	.54
		Find ways to combine work and family activities	.47
2	Work Time Expansion (12.5%)	Go to work earlier, or stay later.	.86
		Take less time for lunch.	.78
		Take work home.	.69
3	Work Standards Reduction (8.1%)	Overlook or relax standards for how well I do certain things at work.	.81
		Ignore some of the tasks I usually do at work.	.79
4	Work Efficiency Expansion	Improve my efficiency by working out better and quicker ways to do things.	.87
		Plan and organize the work so that everything can be done in less time.	.81
5	Work Intensity Expansion (7.7%)	Keep working until everything is completed.	.70
		Devote more time and energy so that I can do everything that is expected of me.	.64
		Use my lunch time to run personal and family errands.	-.48

Table 13 (continued)

Factor	Factor Name	Strategy	Loading
6	Work Load Negotiation (5.4%)	Get my employer or supervisor to discuss the situation and help resolve the problem.	.83
		Urge my employer to hire additional workers.	.54
		Urge my employer to purchase labor-saving equipment or devices.	.45
7	Mental Organization and Prioritizing (4.5%)	When at work, concentrate my full attention on my work activities instead of things I need to do at home.	.70
		Decide which tasks and activities at work are most important and do those first.	.65
		Do the things at work that I feel are important rather than meeting the demands of others.	.44
8	Passive/Mental Response (4.4%)	Consider quitting my job.	.69
		Tell myself that tomorrow will be a better day.	.68

Note: The amount of variability explained by each factor is presented under the factor name.

strategies as personal role redefinition strategies, or attitude changes occurring within individuals.

Two items that described managerial behaviors (i.e., improvising quicker and better ways to perform work tasks and increasing planning and organizing efforts) loaded on Factor 4. Since the items pertained to increasing efficiency levels in performing work, the factor was named Work Efficiency Expansion. An additional 7.7% of the variability was explained by the factor.

The strategies that loaded on Factor 5 (6.2% of the variability explained) generally described increasing energy inputs to perform work tasks (e.g., "Keep working until everything is completed", and "Devote more energy so that I can do everything that is expected of me"). Therefore, the factor was named Work Intensity Expansion. Hall (1972) labeled similar strategies as reactive role behaviors which are sometimes used in response to the failure of role redefinition strategies. Regardless of wives' motivations for using these strategies, they represented a single dimension of wives' responses to perceptions of having too much to do and too little time.

Factor 6 was named Work Load Negotiation because discussing the situation and enlisting the cooperation of superiors at work to resolve time constraints loaded highly (.83) on this factor. Also, items that involved verbal communication to influence employers to hire additional workers

or procure labor-saving equipment or devices loaded on the factor. An additional 5.4% of total variability was explained by this factor.

Factor 7, Mental Organization and Prioritizing, included items that described mental activities such as concentrating on work tasks being performed instead of thinking about family-related tasks and responsibilities, prioritizing tasks, and making decisions regarding work task importance. Bird et al. (1983) identified a similar role management factor, "Compartmentalization" or directing attention toward one role while while performing tasks or behaviors associated with that role.

Factor 8, Passive/Mental Response, was so named because items that were mental responses rather than "active" physical behaviors loaded on the factor. For example, "Consider quitting my job" and "Telling myself that tomorrow will be a better day" have been classified by social psychologists as behavioral transactions with the environment, but of the reactive rather than the active type (Stokols, 1978). The function of similar reactive responses in allieviating certain internal stresses which result from situations where environmental conditions interfere with a range of personally important goals and activities has been researched and documented (Lazarus et al., 1966). Whether these responses can be labeled as "coping strategies" is a matter of continuing discussion and study among psychologists.

Summary and Discussion of Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

Nine family-related and eight employment-related strategies used by wives in coping with time constraints resulted from the two factor analysis procedures. As discussed in Chapter 2, a classification framework of strategies used by employed women in coping with multiple role responsibilities was developed by Hall (1972). These included: (a) structural role redefinition strategies (active alteration of external expectations), (b) personal role redefinition strategies (perception and attitude change), and (c) reactive role behaviors (attempting to find ways to meet all role demands). While some of the family-related factors extracted in the present analysis may be categorized using Hall's conceptual schema (e.g., Negotiated Time/Energy Reduction and Limiting and Protecting time as structural role redefinition, Internal Dissonance Reduction as personal role redefinition, and Personal Time Reduction as reactive role strategies), close analysis of items loading on various factors revealed overlap. For example, Household Task/Standards Reduction included attitude change strategies (i.e., overlook or relax standards) as well as structural role redefinition strategies (i.e., spend less time on housework). Of the employment-related factors, Work Load Negotiation included structural role redefinition strategies and Work Time Expansion, Work Efficiency Expansion, and Work Intensity Expansion were

clearly reactive role strategies. However, items loading on the Mental Organization and Prioritizing factor included structural role redefinition, personal role redefinition, and reactive role behaviors. It is problematical depending upon one's interpretation of "reactive role behaviors" as to whether family-related or employment-related Passive/Mental Responses are "behaviors" or "coping responses".

Several of the factors extracted by the two analyses shared similar interpretations (e.g., the family-related factor, Personal Time Reduction and the employment-related factor, Work Reduction and/or Redefinition). However, in this analysis, they pertained to separate and distinct roles performed by the sample of married, employed women. Future methodological analyses of family-related and employment-related strategies may further illuminate relationships that may exist between the two groups of strategies.

The major purposes of using the factor analysis procedures were accomplished. First, underlying dimensions in a relatively large number of strategies used by married, employed women in coping with time constraints were produced. Second, strategies previously identified and pertaining to time allocations and resource use (Nichols & Fox, 1982; Strober & Wineberg, 1980) and role management behaviors (Bird et al., 1984; Hall, 1972) were conceptually revalidated. Also, the integration of many strategies previously defined by researchers from various disciplines into

discrete factors, each capturing a portion of the variability, simplified further analyses which are reported and discussed in the following sections.

Results of Analysis of Variance Procedures of Career and Earner Wives' Use of Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

A fifth purpose of this research was to investigate differences between career and earner wives in use of strategies for coping with time constraints. A series of analysis of variance procedures were performed using career and earner wives' factor scores on the nine family-related and eight employment-related factors as well as each strategy included in each factor as dependent variables.

Career and Earner Wives' Use of Family-Related Strategies

Means, standard deviations, and statistically significant differences between the two groups in their frequency of use of family-related strategies for coping with time constraints are reported in Table 14. Highly significant statistical differences were found between groups of career and earner wives in their scores on three of the family-related factors, Personal Time Reduction, Resource Expansion/Substitution, and Passive Mental Response. Career wives used Personal Time Reduction and Resourse Expansion/Substitution strategies more often but Passive/Mental Responses less often than did earner wives.

Table 14

Analysis of Variance of Career and Earner Wives' Use of Family-Related Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

Strategy	Career wives M	Career wives SD	Earner wives M	Earner wives SD	F
Factor 1 - Personal Time Reduction	4.3	.89	3.8	.87	15.70***
Eat meals while "on the run".	3.7	.81	3.3	.96	7.04**
Work harder (take fewer breaks, exert more effort, etc.).	3.8	.85	3.6	.80	2.10
Spend less time on personal leisure or recreational activities.	3.8	.96	3.6	.91	1.81
Do the things that are important to me rather than trying to fulfill the demands of others.	2.4	.81	2.5	.79	.40
Spend less time in caring for myself (grooming, resting, etc.).	3.5	.87	3.2	1.04	6.73**
Spend less time sleeping.	3.3	1.07	3.1	.93	1.26
Overlap tasks at home and do more than one thing at a time.	3.8	.88	3.6	.91	3.84*
Do the things that are important to my family or others rather than the things that are important to me.	3.7	.85	3.8	.76	.56
Factor 2 - Resource Expansion/Substitution	4.8	1.33	4.3	.98	12.68***
Increase my use of purchased services (such as child care laundry or dry cleaning, car or yard care, etc.).	2.6	1.30	1.9	1.04	19.80***
Plan to purchase or actually purchase labor-saving appliances (such as microwave oven, frost-free regrigerator, etc.).	3.6	1.22	3.5	1.26	.67

Table 14 (continued)

Strategy	Career wives M	Career wives SD	Earner wives M	Earner wives SD	F
Factor 2 (continued)					
Save time at home by increasing my use of labor-saving devices.	3.6	.82	3.4	1.04	1.40
Hire someone to help in my home.	2.5	1.69	1.6	1.20	19.48***
Eat out more often.	3.2	1.08	3.1	1.07	.76
Keep lists of tasks that need doing.	3.3	1.33	2.9	1.38	5.98*
Save time by making sure that areas of my home are organized and things are conveniently located.	3.5	.85	3.3	1.12	1.53
Increase my use of purchased goods (such as frozen foods, mixes, permanent press clothing, etc.).	3.5	1.00	3.5	.96	.01
Factor 3 - Passive/Mental Response	1.5	1.06	2.1	.96	17.59***
Worry about the things at home that are not done as well as they should be done.	3.1	1.11	3.5	1.05	6.89**
Worry about the things at home that don't get done.	3.1	1.02	3.5	1.06	7.68**
Concentrate my full attention on one task at a time and try not to think about the other things that need doing.	3.2	.95	2.8	1.10	6.88**
Factor 4 - Household Task/Standards Reduction	2.7	.79	2.6	.96	.58
Ignore some of the tasks I usually perform at home.	3.2	.76	3.1	.88	1.29
Overlook or relax my standards for how well I do certain tasks at home.	3.1	.83	3.0	.94	1.12
Spend less time on housework.	3.9	.84	3.7	.96	2.17
Spend less time attending to family matters.	2.7	.86	2.7	.88	.07

Table 14 (continued)

Strategy	Career wives M	Career wives SD	Earner wives M	Earner wives SD	F
Factor 5 - Negotiated Time/Energy Reduction	.8	.90	.6	.90	1.61
Get my husband to reduce the demands he makes on me.	2.4	1.11	2.3	.92	1.37
Get my children to reduce the demands they make on me.	2.4	.97	2.4	1.02	.01
Spend less time in employment or employment related activities.	2.1	.87	2.1	.90	.01
Get my husband to do some of the work.	3.1	.98	2.9	.99	1.95
Get my children to do some of the work.	2.7	.91	2.8	.93	.96
Factor 6 - Internal Dissonance Reduction	5.3	.93	5.2	.90	.82
Work to change my attitude about what is and what is not important.	3.5	.88	3.2	.91	3.83*
Tell myself to relax.	3.4	.94	3.4	.89	.03
Tell myself that everything will work out for the best.	3.7	.93	3.5	.88	3.21
Plan and organize the housework so that more can be done in less time.	3.5	.94	3.1	.93	9.98**
Factor 7 - Communication with Others	3.4	.82	3.5	.97	.07
Verbally inform others of my dissatisfaction.	2.7	.89	2.8	.96	1.07
Yell and let off steam.	2.6	1.05	2.6	1.06	.04

Table 14 (continued)

Strategy	Career wives M	Career wives SD	Earner wives M	Earner wives SD	F
Factor 7 (continued)					
Discuss the situation with my family and get them to help decide how to resolve the problem.	2.8	.96	2.5	1.05	3.72*
Get others living with or near me (relatives or friends) to do some of the work.	1.4	.82	1.4	.71	.12
Factor 8 - Reduction of Social Roles	2.1	.98	2.2	1.02	.86
Spend less time in social activities.	3.5	.99	3.5	.99	.06
Spend less time in volunteer or community related activities.	3.5	1.17	3.5	1.14	.01
Factor 9 - Limiting and Protecting Time	3.0	.99	2.8	.95	1.82
Simply refuse to take on any new family activities.	2.6	.98	2.4	.97	1.21
Simply refuse to take on any new personal activities (activities that do not involve family or work).	3.4	1.01	3.1	.96	4.47*
Find ways to keep people from interrupting me when I am trying to get things done.	2.9	.95	2.5	.93	9.73**

Note: Factor scores are underlined.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Analysis of variance procedures on each of the items that loaded on the factors revealed that major differences on the Personal Time Reduction factor were accounted for by career wives frequently eating meals while "on the run", spending less time in self-care activities, and overlapping performance of household tasks. However, the univariate means indicated that both groups reported rather frequent use of most of the strategies that loaded on the factor. Career wives also used three Resource Expansion/Substitution strategies more often than earner wives. These included increasing one's use of purchased services, hiring household help, and keeping lists of things that need to be done.

Statistically significant differences were found between career and earner wives on all strategies that loaded on the Passive/Mental Response factor. Earner wives worried more often about things at home that did not get done or were not done at a level commensurate with their expectations, but career wives reported greater use of "mental compartmentalization" of tasks at home--that is, they tried to focus their attention on one task at a time rather than thinking about other things that needed their attention.

There were no statistically significant differences between career and earner wives on any of the remaining factors, or any strategies that loaded on Household Task and Standards Reduction, Negotiated Time and Energy Reduction, or Reduction of Social Roles. While both groups reported

moderately high use of Internal Dissonance Reduction strategies, career wives used two of these strategies, work to change my attitude about what is and what is not important, and plan and organize the housework so that more can be done in less time, more often than did earner wives.

Although many career and earner wives indicated rather infrequent use of Communication with Others strategies, statistically significant differences between groups were found on discussing the situation with family members and eliciting their help in resolving the problem. Career wives used this strategy more often than earner wives. Career wives also reported more frequent use of two Limiting and Protecting Time strategies, refusing to assume any new personal activities and finding ways to keep others from interrupting when performing tasks.

Career and Earner Wives' Use of Employment-Related Strategies For Coping with Time Constraints

Statistically significant differences were found between career and earner wives on five of the eight Employment-Related factors (see Table 15). Career wives used Work Reduction and Redefinition, Work Time Expansion, Work Efficiency Expansion, and Mental Organization and Prioritizing more often but Passive/Mental Response strategies less often than did earner wives.

Although career wives used Work Reduction and Redefinition strategies more often than earner wives, use of these

Table 15

Analysis of Variance of Career and Earner Wives' Use of Employment-Related Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

Strategy	Career wives		Earner wives		
	M	SD	M	SD	F
Factor 1 - Work Reduction/Redefinition	1.9	1.03	1.6	.87	5.74*
Reduce the number of hours I spend at work so that I can have more time to do other things.	2.0	.98	1.9	.95	.52
Decide that I will permanently eliminate some of the activities that I have been performing at work.	2.2	.96	1.8	.80	7.10**
Get my employer or supervisor to reduce the demands they make on me.	1.8	.85	1.6	.75	2.06
Get others at work to do some of the tasks I usually perform.	2.4	.99	1.9	.84	19.92***
Find ways to combine work and family activities.	2.4	1.21	2.3	1.20	1.30
Factor 2 - Work Time Expansion	3.6	1.14	2.9	1.07	19.10***
Go to work earlier, or stay later.	3.4	1.08	3.1	1.12	5.61*
Take less time for lunch.	3.3	1.19	2.9	1.16	5.46*
Take work home.	3.1	1.32	2.0	1.12	39.87***
Factor 3 - Work Standards Reduction	2.3	.85	2.1	.89	1.11
Overlook or relax standards for how well I do certain things at work.	1.8	.88	1.7	.85	.23
Ignore some of the tasks I usually do at work.	2.0	.86	1.9	.84	.73

Table 15 (continued)

Strategy	Career wives M	Career wives SD	Earner wives M	Earner wives SD	F
Factor 4 - Work Efficiency Expansion	4.4	.84	4.2	.85	3.62*
Improve my efficiency by working out better and quicker ways to do things.	3.9	.78	3.8	.81	2.14
Plan and organize the work so that everything can be done in less time.	3.8	.73	3.7	.82	.26
Factor 5 - Work Intensity Expansion	2.0	.90	1.9	1.06	1.24
Keep working until everything is completed.	3.8	.95	3.7	.95	.30
Devote more time and energy so that I can do everything that is expected of me.	3.7	.86	3.6	.93	.32
Use my lunch time to run personal and family errands.	3.3	1.29	3.4	1.15	.01
Factor 6 - Work Load Negotiation	1.6	.90	1.7	1.08	.38
Get my employer or supervisor to discuss the situation and to help resolve the problem.	2.6	1.03	2.3	1.14	3.50*
Urge my employer to hire additional workers.	1.9	1.05	1.8	1.08	.69
Urge my employer to purchase labor-saving equipment or devices.	2.5	1.09	2.0	1.03	9.60**

Table 15 (continued)

Strategy	Career wives M	Career wives SD	Earner wives M	Earner wives SD	F
Factor 7 - Mental Organization and Prioritizing	3.9	.86	3.7	.82	2.93[a]
When at work, concentrate my full attention on my work activities instead of things I need to do at home.	4.4	.69	4.1	.78	7.34**
Decide which tasks and activities at work are most important and do those first.	4.4	.60	4.1	.77	7.20**
Do the things at work that I feel are important rather than meeting the demands of others.	3.3	1.08	3.2	1.14	.79
Factor 8 - Passive/Mental Response	3.6	.98	3.9	.99	4.64*
Consider quitting my job.	2.0	1.00	2.3	1.08	4.19*
Tell myself that tomorrow will be a better day.	3.7	.96	3.7	.93	.01

Note: Factor scores are underlined.

[a]$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

strategies was moderately low for both groups. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures revealed that much of the differences between groups was explained by use of two of the strategies, deciding to permanently eliminate some of the activities performed at work, and getting others at work to perform some of the tasks. The higher level occupational statuses of the career wives may have enabled some of these wives to use legitimate power and, therefore, direct others to perform some of the tasks, and also have greater freedom to make decisions regarding the content of their work.

Highly significant statistical differences between groups of career and earner wives were found on the Work Time Expansion factor. The ANOVA procedures for individual strategies revealed statistically significant differences between career and earner wives on each of the three strategies included in the factor: (a) go to work earlier, or stay later, (b) take less time for lunch, and (c) take work home. Career wives used these strategies more often than did earner wives (recall that career wives spent more time in employment and employment related activities). With the exception of earner wives taking work home, the factor scores and strategy means indicated that both groups used these strategies more frequently than the Work Reduction and Redefinition strategies discussed in the previous paragraph.

Although career wives' scores on the Work Efficiency Expansion factor were significantly higher than earner wives' scores, the ANOVA procedures on each of the strategies revealed no statistically significant differences between groups on any one of the individual strategies. All wives, but especially career wives, reported rather frequent use of the individual strategies.

Statistically significant differences were found between career and earner wives in their use of Mental Organization and Prioritizing strategies, although both groups reported frequent use of concentrating attention on work activities while at work instead of things that need doing at home and prioritizing work activities. In addition, career wives reported more frequent (but moderate) use of "Doing the things at work that I feel are important rather than meeting the demands of others", which again, may have resulted from higher levels of freedom and power inherent in their occupational statuses.

Career and earner wives differed in their use of Passive Mental Response strategies. Given the commitment of career wives to remaining employed to retirement age, it was logical that they would infrequently consider quitting their jobs. The means for both groups were identical and moderately high on a passive optimism item, "Tell myself that tomorrow will be a better day".

There were no statistically significant differences between career and earner wives on factor scores for Work Standards Reduction and Work Load Negotiation, which were used infrequently. However, career wives differed from earner wives on one individual Work Load Negotiation strategy. They reported urging their employers to purchase labor-saving equipment or devices more often than did earner wives. Use of this strategy may have been included in many career wives' on-the-job responsibilities, given their higher occupational statuses. In employment roles, lowering one's work standards is a rather negative behavior since pay is accrued on the basis of acceptable performance and productivity. Admitting frequently lowering standards is simply not socially or economically feasible.

Work Intensity Expansion strategies were frequently used by career and earner wives. Although these strategies were labeled as reactive behaviors (Hall, 1972), working until everything is completed and devoting more time and energy so that everything can be completed is usually expected of employees by employers.

Summary and Discussion of Career and Earner Wives' Use of Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

Statistically significant differences between career and earner wives were found on three of the nine family-related factors and five of eight employment-related factors representing strategies for coping with time constraints.

In their family roles, career wives used Personal Time Reduction strategies (e.g., eating "on the run", spending less time caring for oneself, and overlapping performance of household tasks) and Resource Expansion and Substitution strategies more often than did earner wives. Although commitment to a career was accompanied by reductions in career wives' personal time, career wives were very similar to earner wives in that they continued to do the things that were important to their families and infrequently refused to participate in new family activities. Some relief was provided for career wives by their higher incomes that enabled them to purchase services and hire household help more often than did earner wives, although the means were moderately low for both groups of wives on these two strategies, but especially low for earner wives (even though earner wives' median family incomes were high compared to national and regional data). However, both groups reported frequently purchasing goods, labor-saving appliances or devices, and eating out.

There were highly significant differences between career and earner wives in use of Passive/Mental Response strategies. Although career wives reported less frequent worry about tasks at home that were not completed or were not completed as well as they preferred, they used a mental compartmentalization technique more often than did earner wives (i.e., they concentrated on the task at hand rather

than thinking about the other things that needed their attention). Perhaps some of the career wives had accepted the time constraints imposed by their work schedules and multiple roles and had decided that worrying and thinking about everything that needed doing was non-productive. The groups were very similar in their moderate use of strategies that involved ignoring household tasks and overlooking or relaxing performance standards for the tasks.

In their employment roles, career wives used Work Reduction and Redefinition, Work Time Expansion, Work Efficiency Expansion, and Mental Organization and Prioritizing strategies more often but a Passive/Mental Response, "Consider quitting my job", less often than earner wives. Many of these differences in use of employment-related strategies were probably related to the higher occupational statuses of the career wives. For example, higher levels of self-direction and control are often required in many professional, semi-professional, and managerial positions. Therefore, career wives may have possessed the authority to make decisions concerning priorities and workloads and to delegate or assign responsibilities to others. However, such positions usually involve more responsibility and higher levels of accountability, thus explaining more frequent use of Work Time and Work Efficiency Expansion strategies.

Career and earner wives reported infrequent use of communication and negotiation strategies in their family and

employment roles. The descriptive data verified that married, employed women, when under time constraints, look to themselves for solutions and that in most instances, the solutions involved working harder and longer rather than restructuring perceived responsibilities and negotiating workloads.

In summary, married, employed wives in the sample were rather traditional in their performance of family roles under conditions of having too much to do and too little time. The differences that existed, were, in all likelihood, a function of differences in career commitment and related attitudes and status accompanying such commitment. Career wives' more frequent use of Personal Time Reduction was a necessity given their time commitments to their jobs, their more frequent use of Resource Expansion and Substitution was made possible by their higher incomes, and their less frequent worry about the performance of household tasks probably functioned as an important mental resource in dealing with their continual, long-term commitment to their careers and families.

Career wives' more frequent use of a wider variety of employment-related strategies were probably related to the higher occupational statuses and higher levels of career commitment of these wives. When faced with time constraints, career wives frequently used strategies that are generally expected of individuals in professional or

managerial positions regardless of gender--they increased their employment time allocations, their work intensity, and work efficiency.

Results of Multivariate Analyses of Career and Earner Wives' Use of Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

A major purpose was to investigate differences between career and earner wives' use of strategies for coping with time constraints, controlling for sex role attitudes, locus of control, weekly employment hours, age, education, family income, family size, presence of a child under age six, and number of rooms in the family dwelling. A multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) procedure produced a Wilks' lambda of .87100 which was statistically significant at the .05 level, indicating that there were significant differences between career and earner wives' frequency of use of strategies when all dependent variables (factor scores) were simultaneously analyzed.

A discriminant analysis procedure using a Roy-Bargman stepdown analysis is appropriate when possible correlation exists between between dependent variables (which was deemed likely since the factor scores representing family-related strategies and employment-related strategies were derived in two separate analyses). Such an analysis was performed in conjunction with the MANCOVA to determine the major sources

of differences between career and earner wives. The stepdown procedure required entering the dependent variables in order of assumed importance. Therefore, wives' factor scores representing use of strategies were specified in order of highest to lowest correlation with wives' status (career and earner). The results are presented in Table 16.

The major sources of the differences between career and earner wives in their use of strategies for coping with time constraints were on two family-related strategies, Personal Time Reduction and Passive Mental Response, and one employment strategy, Work Time Expansion. When faced with time constraints, earner wives reduced their personal time and expanded their employment time less frequently, but worried more about things at home that were not being done more than did career wives.

The stepdown analysis computes each successive F-value only after the effects of the previous dependent variable is removed. Therefore, Personal Time Reduction explained the greatest amount of variability in the data, Passive Mental Reponse was second, and Work Time Expansion third. The other strategies that were statistically significant in the previous univariate analysis of variance procedures were not significant, suggesting some correlation among factors derived in the two separate analyses.

Table 16

Multivariate Analysis of Covariance and Discriminant Analysis of Career and Earner Wives' Use of Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

Variables	Standard discriminant function	Correlation with discriminant score	Significance level
Family strategy--Personal Time Reduction	-.44847	-.50862	.05
Family strategy--Passive Mental Response	.35043	.46144	.01
Employment strategy--Work Time Expansion	-.33890	-.51040	.01

Note: Wilks' lambda = .87100 ($p < .05$)

One or more of the covariates were related to the use of the strategies since the overall significance of the multivariate analysis of covariance was less than that obtained by a preliminary analysis not controlling for their effects. Regression analyses of the covariates on each of the factors indicated that wives with higher scores on control by powerful others (they felt more controlled by powerful others) indicated more frequent use of Work Time Expansion strategies. Also, wives with more rooms in their family dwellings, reported more frequent use of Personal Time Reduction strategies such as eating meals while on the run, spending less time caring for self, etc. Wives indicating lower levels of Internal locus of control (that is, not feeling in control of events), younger wives, and those with less education used Passive Mental Responses more often (e.g., worrying about things at home that were not done or not completed on a level commnesurate with one's expectations). Logically, greater weekly employment time was related to frequent use of Work Time Expansion--that is, wives who spent more time in employment reported more frequent use of that strategy.

Results of Multivariate Analyses of Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time and Use of Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

A final objective of the present research was to compare career and earner wives' preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints, controlling for attitudinal and demographic variables. To simultaneously test all dependent variables, a multivariate analysis of covariance procedure (MANCOVA) was performed, controlling for sex role attitudes, locus of control (Internal Control, Powerful Others Control, and Chance Control), weekly employment hours, age, education, family income, family size, presence of a child under age six, and number of rooms in the family dwelling. Possible correlations among the dependent variables were accounted for by the MANCOVA procedure, and therefore, the possibility of finding and reporting differences between career and earner wives that did not exist was reduced. A major limitation that could not be controlled was the large number of dependent variables (extracted factors) relative to the total number of respondents which reduces the likelihood of finding a significant overall difference between the two groups (in effect, making this a conservative test of group differences).

The MANCOVA procedure produced a Wilks' lambda of .78586 which was highly significant ($p < .01$). A discriminant analysis procedure with stepdown method of computing each successive F-value after eliminating the effects of the previous dependant variable was performed, entering dependent variables in order of greatest to least correlation with the independent variable (career or earner status). The results are presented in Table 17.

Two time preference variables that were statistically significant in the univariate analyses but not in the multivariate analysis of wives' preferences for the use of time were important sources of differences between career and earner wives when analyzed simultaneously with strategies for coping with time constraints. Earner wives preferred to spend less time engaging in Away-from-Home Household Production Activities and in Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities than did career wives. Three strategies for coping with time constraints that were significant in the univariate analyses and the multivariate analysis of career and earner wives' use of strategies for coping with time constraints were also significant sources of differences between the groups of wives in the multivariate analysis of all dependent variables. Earner wives reported more frequent use of family-related Passive/Mental Response strategies but less frequent use of Personal Time Reduction than career wives. Also, earner wives reported less frequent use of an employment strategy--Work Time Expansion.

Table 17

Multivariate Analysis of Covariance and Discriminant Analysis of Career and Earner Wives' Preferences for the Use of Time and Use of Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

Variables	Standard discriminant function	Correlation with discriminant score	Significance level
Wives' time in-- Away-from-Home Household Production	-.33914	-.40714	.01
Family strategy-- Passive/Mental Response	.32790	.34035	.01
Family strategy-- Personal Time Reduction	-.29987	-.37497	.05
Wives' time in-- Personal Maintenance and Leisure	-.29046	-.29644	.05
Employment strategy-- Work Time Expansion	-.26046	-.37628	.01

Note: Wilks' lambda = .78586 ($p < .01$)

Recall that analysis of variance procedures produced statistically significant differences between career and earner wives on four time preference factors, three factors representing family-related coping strategies, and five employment-related coping strategies. The results of the final multivariate analysis of covariance procedure indicated that dependent variables were either correlated to some extent or, differences were produced by one or more of the covariates, which were controlled in the multivariate analysis, but not in the univariate analyses.

Future empirical investigations of wives' attitudes toward the use of time and use of strategies used by wives for coping with time constraints may find a summary of the results of a regression of the dependent variables on the set of covariates informative, although variables related to wives' preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints were not a major focus of the present study. The b-values generated for covariates on each of the dependent variables produced by the MANCOVA procedure are reported in Table 18.

No overall relationships between any one covariate and all dependent variables were found. However, each of the covariates was related to one or more of the dependent variables. Sex role attitudes were related to wives' preferences for the use of their time in Away-from-Home Household Production, preferences for husbands' time in Housekeeping

Table 18

Multivariate Analysis of Covariance Showing Relationships between Socio-Psychological and Demographic Variables and Preferences for the Use of Time and Use of Strategies for Coping with Time Constraints

Dependent variable (factor score)	Sex role attitudes	Locus of control: Internal	Locus of control: Powerful others	Locus of control: Chance	Weekly employment hours	Age	Education	Family income	Family size	Child under age 6	Number of rooms
Wives' preferences for the use of time:											
General Household Production	.117	.143	-.053	.132	.0001	.034*	.095*	-.0001**	.027	.233	-.060
Child-Related Activities	.113	.033	-.049	-.095	.0003*	-.015*	.019	.000004	.087	.297	-.012
Food Preparation Activities	-.238	-.070	.144	-.029	.0002	-.018*	.014	-.0001*	.154*	-.119	-.006
Social and Volunteer Activities	.403	-.354	-.052	.152	.0003	.017	.010	-.00003***	-.057	.701	-.025
Personal Maintenance and Leisure	.096	-.321**	.172*	-.249*	.0001	-.008	-.023	-.000002	.033	.464*	.043
Away-from-Home Household Production	-.389*	-.007	-.014	.161	.00006	.005	-.071*	-.0000001	-.152**	.627**	-.032
Employment Activities	-.307	.052	.152	-.112	-.0005***	.014*	-.033	.00001	.113	.158	-.004
Wives' preferences for husbands' use of time:											
Child-Related Activities	.117	.143	-.053	.132	.0001	.014*	.095*	-.00002**	.027	.233	-.060
Housekeeping Activities	.753**	.250	.008	.214	-.00006	-.012	-.006	-.00001	.113	-1.039**	.021
Social and Volunteer Activities	.118	.140	-.126	.165*	.0001	.003	.029	-.000001	-.042	-.265	.001
Traditional Male Household Production	.273	-.252*	.016	-.062	-.000002	-.006	.067*	-.00001*	.049	.045	-.005
Personal Maintenance and Leisure	-.124	-.011	-.014	.106	.0001	-.005	-.001	-.00001*	.001	-.074	.052*
Employment and Financial Management	.311*	-.052	-.012	.012	.0001	.006	-.027	-.00001	.002	.169	-.004

Table 18 (continued)

Dependent variable (factor score)	Sex role attitudes	Locus of control: Internal	Locus of control: Powerful others	Locus of control: Chance	Weekly employment hours	Age	Education	Family income	Family size	Child under age 6	Number of rooms
Family-related strategies for coping with time constraints:											
Personal Time Reduction	.056	-.014	.207*	-.057	.0003**	-.007	.030	-.00001*	.085	.070	.064*
Resource Expansion/ Substitution	.464*	.120	.054	-.222*	-.0002	-.005	-.014	.00002***	-.249***	.459*	.066*
Passive/Mental Response	.057	-.280*	.140	-.002	.0001	-.018**	-.105**	-.000001	.035	.286	.059*
Household Task/ Standards Reduction	.367*	-.115	.112	-.201*	.0001	.016*	.020	-.000004	.184**	-.237	-.045
Negotiated Time/ Energy Reduction	-.177	-.091	-.011	.042	.0002*	-.021***	.036	.00001	.080	.003	-.007
Internal Dissonance Reduction	.021	.332**	-.083	.122	.00001	.008	.008	-.00001**	-.059	.033	.024
Communication with Others	.101	.152	-.141	.172*	-.00004	-.013*	-.045	-.00001*	.199***	-.369*	.005
Reduction of Social Roles	.188	-.097	.140	-.188*	.00001	-.011	.060*	-.000003	.024	.189	-.049
Limiting and Protecting Time	.179	.267*	.009	-.114	-.0001	-.003	.009	.000002	-.018	-.263	.034

Table 18 (continued)

Dependent variable (factor score)	Sex role attitudes	Locus of control: Internal	Locus of control: Powerful others	Locus of control: Chance	Weekly employment hours	Age	Education	Family income	Family size	Child under age 6	Number of rooms
Employment-related strategies for coping with time constraints:											
Work Reduction/ Redefinition	-.039	.049	-.046	.011	-.0001	.003	.056*	.000001	-.038	-.031	-.011
Work Time Expansion	.347*	-.004	.023	.063	.0003**	-.001	.008	.00001	.056	-.281	-.013
Work Standards Reduction	.014	.095	.017	-.005	.0002*	.007	.042	-.00001	.134*	-.496*	.021
Work Efficiency Expansion	.002	.369***	.009	-.056	-.0001	-.009	-.040	-.000001	.002	.159	-.003
Work Intensity Expansion	-.019	.260*	-.071	.047	-.0001	-.011	-.035	-.000004	-.029	.081	.018
Work Load Negotiation	.041	.189	.084	.109	-.0001	.010	-.008	-.00001	-.046	-.436	.045
Mental Organization and Prioritizing	.212	.219*	-.010	-.099	.00003	.021***	.021	-.000001	.002	-.058	.044
Passive/Mental Response	.068	-.055	.036	.183*	.0004**	-.023***	-.055*	-.00001	-.045	.054	.050

$^{*}p < .10$.

$^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Activities, and Resource Expansion/Substitution and Household Task/Standards Reduction strategies. Sex role attitudes were not related to the use of employment-related strategies. Of the three dimensions of locus of control, a greater number of significant relationships between Internal Control and dependent variables were produced than for Powerful Others or Chance Control. Age and education of wives were related to several factor scores representing time preferences and use of coping strategies. In general, more statistically significant relationships were found between family characteristics such as income, family size, and the presence of a child under age six and wives' preferences for the use of their own time and their use of family-related strategies for coping with time constraints than between these characteristics and wives' preferences for their husbands' use of time or use of employment-related strategies for coping with time constraints. Number of rooms in the family dwelling was related to only one family-related coping factor, Personal Time Reduction.

Summary and Discussion of Multivariate Analyses

Although no statistically significant differences between career and earner wives' preferences for time use were produced by a multivariate analysis of covariance procedure, statistically significant differences between the two groups were produced by the multivariate analysis of covariance procedures of frequency of use of strategies for coping with

time constraints, and of all dependent variables. However, there were fewer statistically significant sources of differences than were expected, given the results of the univariate analysis of variance procedures. Compared to earner wives, career wives preferred to spend more time performing Away-from-Home Household Production Activities and Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities. Differences were found in frequency of use of two family-related and one employment-related strategy for coping with time constraints. Since career wives reported more frequent use of Personal Time Reduction strategies such as reducing personal maintenance time, overlapping tasks at home, and eating meals while "one the run", and more frequent use of Work Time Expansion strategies such as going to work earlier, staying later, spending less time eating lunch, and taking work home, their preference to spend more time in Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities was reasonable. However, career and earner wives' mean time allocations to sleeping, eating, personal maintenence, and leisure were very similar (see Table 3). The speculation made by Kingston and Nock (1985) that longer work days may produce needs for more free time may indeed be a valid assumption for the wives in the present study.

Another source of differences between career and earner wives was that even when sex role attitudes were held constant, career wives worried less about home-related work

that was not done or was completed at a lower than acceptable level. Also, they reported frequently concentrating on the task at hand rather than worrying about the things at home that needed their attention. Baruch et al. (1983) reported that more prestigious jobs allow women employed in those jobs to shed many of the unwanted aspects (e.g., household tasks) of other roles and that the variety and richness of higher level occupations are emotionally rewarding in that they promote and enhance feelings of competence and positive self-concept. Consequently, the work at home that was left undone may not have proved threatening to the career wives' concepts of their self-worth and competence, since they realized these feelings in relation to their employment.

Overall, the multivariate procedures were beneficial in that they provided results upon which several conclusions may be based. First, career and earner wives were similar in their preferences for the use of time. While preliminary, univariate analyses led to the conclusion that the groups of wives did not differ in preferences for their husbands' use of time (i.e., they were satisfied with husbands' time inputs in employment but preferred them to spend more time in other activities), major differences were reported in their preferences for their own time use. The multivariate analysis of differences when all preference factors were simultaneously considered, produced insignificant

results, probably indicating some correlation among factor scores for preferences for their own and their husbands' time use.

Second, significant differences between career and earner wives were found in their frequency of use of strategies for coping with time constraints, controlling for the effects of the covariates. However, a stepdown discriminant analysis procedure produced fewer statistically significant sources of differences than expected. After accounting for the variability contributed by frequency of use of two family-related strategies and one employment-related strategy, additional variables were not significant. Future studies that address possible correlations among employed wives' use of family-related and employment-related coping strategies are needed.

Third, relationships between preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints were indicated by the statistical significance of the final multivariate of covariance procedure, in which all dependent variables were simultaneously analyzed. Therefore, subsequent investigations of employed wives' use of strategies to cope with time constraints should not discount the importance of time use attitudes and preferences.

Finally, the importance of the set of covariates, especially in relation to the use of strategies for coping with time constraints, was noted. Future studies focusing

on these relationships should provide additional information and contribute significantly to a better understanding of differences among employed wives in their attitudes and preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The influx of married women into the paid labor force over the last two decades has stimulated a growing body of literature concerning employed wives' feelings about and management of their multiple roles. Since the late 1960's, sociologists and home economists have explored differences in the attitudes and behavior of employed wives who are committed to careers and those who are not committed to long-term employment in careers.

While family sociologists, social psychologists, and organizational psychologists have identified strategies used by employed women in coping with role overload and role strain resulting from multiple role performance, family resource management researchers have investigated employed wives' use of various consumption strategies and time reduction strategies. One major purpose of this study was to comprehensively measure employed wives' use of strategies for coping with time constraints and investigate similarities and differences between career and earner wives in their frequency of use of these strategies.

Although empirical examinations of family members' actual time allocations have occurred within the disciplines of economics, home economics, and sociology, few studies

have focused on individuals' satisfaction with their use of time. Employed wives' use of strategies for coping with time constraints and their preferences toward their use of time were thought to be related. Therefore, a second major purpose of the study was to compare career and earner wives' preferences for the use of their time. The final purpose was to investigate the relationship between career and earner wives' preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints.

A mailed questionnaire was sent to 500 married, employed wives randomly sampled from the Greensboro, North Carolina City Directory. Usable responses were received from 235 wives. The sample included a high percentage of white-collar employees who were above national averages in educational levels and family income. Eighty-five respondents who agreed that they were pursuing careers that were developmental in nature, intended to be employed until retirement age, and whose occupations were classified in the top three categories of the Hollingshead Occupational Scale were included in the group of "career" wives. One hundred and fifty employed wives did not meet these criteria and were included in the "earner" group.

In general, time allocations to various activities by all wives were typical of national time use data collected by previous studies. Career and earner wives reported spending little time in leisure or social activities.

Career wives spent more time in employment and employment-related activities than did earner wives. Both career and earner wives reported spending more time than their husbands maintaining their families and households.

Factor analysis produced seven dimensions of wives' time preferences: (a) General Household Production, (b) Child-Related Activities, (c) Food Preparation Activities, (d) Social and Volunteer Activities, (e) Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities, (f) Away-From-Home Household Production Activities, and (g) Employment and Employment-Related Activities. These dimensions of wives' preferences for time allocations were somewhat different from categories of activities presented by previous studies of time use. Six dimensions of wives' preferences for their husbands' use of time were found: (a) Child-Related Activities, (b) Housekeeping Activities, (c) Social and Volunteer Activities, (d) Traditional Male Household Production Activities, (e) Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities, and (f) Employment and Financial Resource Management Activities. Overall, wives' preferences for husbands' time use reflected a rather traditional view of the division of household labor between husbands and wives.

Most wives indicated that they preferred to spend more time in all activities except for Employment and Employment-Related activities. Career wives preferred to spend less time in employment activities than did earner wives,

probably because they actually spent more time in these activities. Statistically significant differences were found between career and earner wives in time preferences for Social and Volunteer Activities, Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities, and Away-From-Home Household Production Activities. Career wives wanted to spend more time in these activities than did earner wives, although mean time allocations to these activities by both groups were very similar. Seemingly, higher employment hours or perhaps occupational demands associated with higher status occupations influenced career wives' preferences for more personal time and leisure time.

Career and earner wives were very similar in their preferences for time allocations to General Household Production, Child-Related, and Food Preparation Activities; that is, they wanted to spend more time performing these activities. These attitudes were probably indicative of the importance of family roles to these wives and the actual time they allocated to employment.

No differences were found in career and earner wives' preferences for husbands' time allocations; they wanted their husbands to spend more time in all activities. Although both career and earner wives preferred their husbands to spend a little more time in employment and employment-related activities, the strength of this preference was slightly higher for career wives. Many husbands of career

wives did, in fact, spend less time in employment activities than their wives and less time than husbands of earner wives.

Although the univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures produced several statistically significant differences between career and earner wives in their preferences for the use of their time, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) procedure indicated no statistically significant differences. Overall, then, career wives were no more or less satisfied with their own or their husbands' time use patterns than were earner wives, a finding which disputes previous suggestions that role overload is a particularly serious problem for career-oriented wives and mothers.

Factor analysis produced nine family-related strategies and eight employment-related strategies used by employed wives in coping with time constraints. Differences between career and earner wives' frequency of use of the strategies were tested by analysis of variance procedures. Previous studies have found that a strategy frequently used by employed, married women is the reduction of time spent in personal activities. Both groups reported frequent use of a Personal Time Reduction strategy, but career wives in the study used the strategy more often than did earner wives. The salience of their employment roles together with moderately high use of other strategies probably explained this

difference. Career wives also reported more frequent use of outside resources such as hiring household help and purchasing services, which was logical given their higher incomes. Career wives worried less frequently than earner wives about work at home that was left undone. Possible reasons for this difference included higher levels of resignation among career wives concerning time constraints produced by their longer employment hours, and career wives' derivation of greater personal rewards and enhanced feelings of self-worth associated with higher status occupations. For earner wives, negative feelings regarding their self-worth may have resulted from not completing family-related tasks.

Career and earner wives were similar in their moderate use of Household Standards Reduction, Internal Dissonance Reduction, and Reduction of Social Roles strategies, and in their low-to-moderate use of Negotiation, Communication, and Limiting and Protecting Time strategies. That is, both groups reported more frequent use of strategies that were more personal and did not involve others, but less frequent use of strategies that involved or affected their family members. In their family roles, these wives looked to themselves to solve their time allocation problems.

In their employment, career wives used Work Reduction/Redefinition, Work Time Expansion, and Work Efficiency Expansion strategies more often but Passive/Mental Response strategies less often than did earner wives, probably

because of the higher occupational status and career commitment of the career wives. Employers generally expect higher level employees such as professionals, semi-professionals, and managers to be organized and work longer, if necessary, to complete their responsibilities. Career wives thought about quitting their jobs less frequently than earner wives which was logical given their commitment to long-term employment.

Career and earner wives were similar in their frequent use of Mental Organization and Prioritizing and moderate use of Work Intensity Expansion. As in use of family-related strategies, both career and earner wives infrequently used strategies that involved communication and negotiation with others. Also, strategies that may lower others' evaluations, such as ignoring tasks or lowering performance standards, were not frequently used in employment roles by either group.

Statistically significant differences were found between career and earner wives in frequency of use of the strategies for coping with time constraints, when factor scores of the strategies were used as dependent variables in a MANCOVA. The major sources of differences identified by a discriminant analysis procedure were in career wives' more frequent use of Personal Time Reduction and Work Expansion strategies but less frequent use of Passive/Mental Responses.

When all dependent variables representing preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints were simultaneously analyzed using a MANCOVA procedure, statistically significant differences were found between career and earner wives. Two preferences for the use of time and three strategies for coping with time constraints were important sources of the overall differences between career and earner wives. Career wives preferred to allocate more time to Away-from-Home Household Production and to Personal Maintenance and Leisure Activities than did earner wives. As in the previous MANCOVA, career wives used Work Time Expansion strategies such as going to work earlier, staying later, taking less time for lunch, and taking work home, and Personal Time Reduction such as hurriedly eating meals, overlapping tasks, and reducing self-care time more often, but worried about tasks at home that were either not done or completed at a lower level than desired less often than did earner wives.

The final MANCOVA procedure verified that relationships existed between preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints. Also, relationships between one or more of the covariates and factor scores for preferences for the use of time and use of strategies were found. Future analyses focusing on these relationships as well as other factors will undoubtedly provide

valuable information concerning the differences in time use attitudes and coping behaviors of career and earner wives.

Clearly, further research concerning preferences for the use of time and use of strategies for coping with time constraints is needed. Sample homogeneity may have contributed to or produced the similarities between career and earner wives. More heterogeneous samples that include a greater proportion of women of different races, younger ages, blue collar workers, and families with lower incomes as well as unmarried women or women not employed in the labor force may indicate very different results. Although it is impossible to determine, wives who did not repond to the mailed questionnaire may have done so because they were especially constrained by demands on their time. Telephone or personal interviews may prove more effective in gathering data from these individuals. Further refinement in the measurement of preferences for the use of time, and use of strategies for coping with time constraints may result in further illumination of the differences and similarities between career and earner wives.

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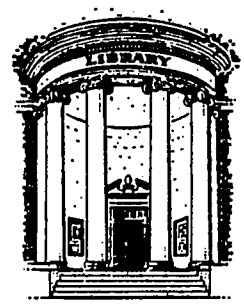
APPENDIX A

LETTER TO WIVES

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
AT GREENSBORO



School of Home Economics
Department of Child Development - Family Relations
(919) 379-5315; 5307

October 22, 1984

Mrs.

Greensboro, N. C.

Dear Mrs.

Not having enough time seems to be a common complaint these days. No one has stopped to ask how women like yourself really feel about your lives, your schedules, and how you cope with having many things to do.

Researchers and faculty in the School of Home Economics at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro are committed to understanding and improving the QUALITY of people's lives. Knowing your feelings will help in designing community programs that meet the needs of women like yourself and in preparing young people for the realities of the work-a-day world.

You are one of a small number of women who are being asked to give their opinions on these matters. Your name was drawn in a random sample of Greensboro, N. C. In order that the results truly represent the thinking of the women in our city, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so that we may check your number off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire or revealed in any way. PLEASE, Mrs. won't you answer the questions today, fold the questionnaire, and return it by November 6 in the enclosed, stamped envelope.

Would you like to receive a summary of the results of the study and a copy of a free pamphlet, "Time Saving Tips for Busy Women"? If so, write your name and address on the back of the return envelope (NOT ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE ITSELF). Please allow about two months for the results to be compiled.

THANK YOU for your willingness to share your thoughts and feelings!

Sincerely,

Deborah D. Godwin Ann R. Hiatt

Deborah D. Godwin
Assistant Professor

Ann R. Hiatt
Doctoral Candidate

P. S. If you have any questions, you may contact us at the University, telephone number 379-5307.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE COVER

A SURVEY OF WORKING WOMEN

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gain information about the working women in North Carolina. The information we are asking of you is not available from any other source. It is only through your cooperation that we can better understand the changes occurring in working women's lives, how you feel about your time use, and how you cope with time pressures.

IT IS IMPORTANT THAT YOU ANSWER EACH OF THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS. IF AT ALL POSSIBLE, WE ASK THAT YOU FILL-OUT YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE BY YOURSELF AND RETURN IT IN THE ENCLOSED, POSTAGE-PAID ENVELOPE. DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE ITSELF. ALL ANSWERS WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL AND USED ONLY FOR STATISTICAL PURPOSES.

. . . . . THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP! . . . . . .

SCHOOL OF HOME ECONOMICS
THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO
GREENSBORO, NORTH CAROLINA 27412

APPENDIX C

TIME PREFERENCES INSTRUMENT

YOUR ATTITUDES ABOUT HOW YOU SPEND YOUR TIME

3. How do you feel about the amount of time you spend in different activities? For each each of the activities below, please circle the response that corresponds to how you WOULD PREFER to spend your time. ALSO, in the blanks to the right, fill-in the time you actually spend in these activities on an AVERAGE WEEKDAY and an AVERAGE WEEKEND DAY. Please include any travel time in the activity which you traveled to do.

PREFER TO SPEND A GREAT DEAL MORE TIME	PREFER TO SPEND SOME MORE TIME	PREFER TO SPEND A LITTLE MORE TIME	SPEND ABOUT THE RIGHT AMOUNT OF TIME	PREFER TO SPEND A LITTLE LESS TIME	PREFER TO SPEND SOME LESS TIME	PREFER TO SPEND A GREAT DEAL LESS TIME		HOW MUCH TIME DO YOU SPEND ON AN AVERAGE WEEKDAY HOURS/MINS.	WEEKEND DAY HOURS/MINS.
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	In employment and employment related activities	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Meal planning	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Food preparation	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Kitchen cleanup	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Grocery shopping	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Housecleaning	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Car and yard care	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Home repairs	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Clothing care	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Bill paying and record keeping	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Discussing and making financial decisions	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Caring for children	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Teaching skills to children	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Transporting children	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Playing with children	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Sleeping and eating	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Care of yourself (resting, grooming, dressing, etc.)	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Leisure and recreation	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Volunteer activities	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Keeping in touch with friends	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Keeping in touch with relatives	____ ____	____ ____
							Others: (please fill-in)		
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	_____	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	_____	____ ____	____ ____

APPENDIX D

PREFERENCES FOR HUSBANDS' TIME INSTRUMENT

YOUR ATTITUDES ABOUT YOUR HUSBAND'S TIME

10. Please circle the response that corresponds to how you WOULD PREFER your husband to spend his time. ALSO, in the blanks to the right, fill-in the time he actually spends in these activities on an AVERAGE WEEKDAY and an AVERAGE WEEKEND DAY. Please include any travel time in the activity which he traveled to do.

								HOW MUCH TIME DOES HE SPEND ON AN AVERAGE	
PREFER HIM TO SPEND A GREAT DEAL MORE TIME	PREFER HIM TO SPEND SOME MORE TIME	PREFER HIM TO SPEND A LITTLE MORE TIME	HE SPENDS ABOUT THE RIGHT AMOUNT OF TIME	PREFER HIM TO SPEND A LITTLE LESS TIME	PREFER HIM TO SPEND SOME LESS TIME	PREFER HIM TO SPEND A GREAT DEAL LESS TIME		WEEKDAY HOURS/MINS.	WEEKEND DAY HOURS/MINS.
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	In employment and employment related activities	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Meal preparation and kitchen cleanup	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Grocery shopping	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Housecleaning	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Car and yard care	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Home repairs	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Washing and ironing	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Bill paying and record keeping	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Discussing and making financial decisions	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Caring for children	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Teaching skills to children	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Transporting children	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Playing with children	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Sleeping and eating	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Care of himself (resting, grooming, etc.)	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Leisure and recreation	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Volunteer activities	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Keeping in touch with friends	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	Keeping in touch with relatives	____ ____	____ ____
							Others: (please fill-in)		
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	_____	____ ____	____ ____
GDMT	MT	LMT	RT	LLT	LT	GDLT	_____	____ ____	____ ____

APPENDIX E

STRATEGIES FOR COPING WITH TIME CONSTRAINTS INSTRUMENT

YOUR BEHAVIOR WHEN YOU HAVE TOO MUCH TO DO AND TOO LITTLE TIME

4. People react to time pressures and hectic periods in various ways. We want to understand how you react when you feel that you simply have too much to do and too little time in which to do everything. Please circle the letter that indicates HOW OFTEN you do each of the following.

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOME-TIMES	SELDOM	NEVER	NOT APPLICABLE
a. Spend less time on housework.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
b. Spend less time attending to family matters.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
c. Spend less time in employment or employment related activities.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
d. Spend less time in volunteer or community related activities.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
e. Spend less time in social activities.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
f. Spend less time sleeping.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
g. Eat meals while "on the run".	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
h. Spend less time caring for myself (grooming, resting, etc).	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
i. Spend less time on personal leisure or recreational activities.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
j. Get my husband to reduce the demands he makes on me.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
k. Get my children to reduce the demands they make on me.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
l. Get my husband to do some of the work.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
m. Get my children to do some of the work.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
n. Get others living with or near me (relatives or friends) to do some of the work.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
o. Involve family members in my employment related activities.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
p. Discuss the situation with my family and get them to help decide how to resolve the problem.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
q. Decide which family tasks and activities are the most important and do those first.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
r. Concentrate my full attention on one task at a time and try not to think about the other things that need doing.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
s. Ignore some of the tasks I usually perform at home.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
t. Overlook or relax my standards for how well I do certain tasks at home.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
u. Work to change my attitude about what is and what is not important.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
v. Do the things that are important to my family or others rather than the things that are important to me.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOME-TIMES	SELDOM	NEVER	NOT APPLICABLE
w. Do the things that are important to me rather than trying to fulfill all of the demands of others.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
x. Work harder (take fewer breaks, exert more effort, etc.).	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
y. Assume that things need to be done and that I am the one to do them.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
z. Worry about the things at home that don't get done.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
aa. Worry about the things at home that aren't done as well as they should be done.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
bb. Accept time pressures as a natural part of my life.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
cc. Yell and let off steam.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
dd. Verbally inform others of my dis-satisfaction.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
ee. Tell myself that everything will work out for the best.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
ff. Tell myself to relax.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
gg. Plan and organize the housework so that more can be done in less time.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
hh. Overlap tasks at home and do more than one thing at a time.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
ii. Find ways to keep people from interrupting me when I am trying to get things done.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
jj. Simply refuse to take on any new family activities.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
kk. Simply refuse to take on any new personal activities (activities that do not involve family or work).	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
ll. Keep lists of tasks that need doing.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
mm. Save time by making sure that areas of my home are organized and things are conveniently located.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
nn. Save time at home by increasing my use of labor-saving devices.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
oo. Hire someone to help in my home.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
pp. Plan to purchase or actually purchase labor-saving appliances (such as microwave oven, frost-free refrigerator, etc.)	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
qq. Eat out more often.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
rr. Increase my use of purchased <u>services</u> (such as child care, laundry or dry-cleaning, car or yard care, etc.).	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
ss. Increase my use of purchased <u>goods</u> (such as frozen foods, mixes, permanent press clothing, etc.)	A	O	ST	S	N	NA

5. The following concern EMPLOYED women's reactions to having too much to do and too little time. If you are NOT EMPLOYED, go on to the next page.

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOME-TIMES	SELDOM	NEVER	NOT APPLICABLE
a. Decide that I will permanently eliminate some of the activities that I have been performing at work.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
b. Get others at work to do some of the tasks I usually perform.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
c. Get my employer or supervisor to reduce the demands they make on me.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
d. Find ways to combine work and family activities.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
e. Decide which tasks and activities at work are most important and do those first.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
f. When at work, concentrate my full attention on my work activities instead of things I need to do at home.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
g. Ignore some of the tasks I usually do at work.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
h. Overlook or relax standards for how well I do certain things at work.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
i. Get my employer or supervisor to discuss the situation and to help resolve the problem.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
j. Do the things at work that I feel are important rather than meeting the demands of others.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
k. Devote more time and energy so that I can do everything that is expected of me.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
l. Keep working until everything is completed.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
m. Tell myself that tomorrow will be a better day.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
n. Plan and organize the work so that everything can be done in less time.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
o. Improve my efficiency by working out better and quicker ways to do things.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
p. Urge my employer to hire additional workers.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
q. Take less time for lunch.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
r. Go to work earlier, or stay later.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
s. Use my lunch time to run personal and family errands.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
t. Take work home.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
u. Urge my employer to purchase labor-saving equipment or devices.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
v. Consider quitting my job.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA
w. Reduce the number of hours I spend at work so that I can have more time to do other things.	A	O	ST	S	N	NA

APPENDIX F

SEX ROLE ORIENTATIONS SCALE AND WORK ATTITUDES

YOUR ATTITUDES ABOUT ROLES

7. Not everyone feels the same about men, women, and work. The following gives you the opportunity to indicate how you feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Please circle the letter that corresponds to your opinion.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
a. A wife should be able to take a job which requires her to be away from home overnight while her husband takes care of the children.	SA	A	D	SD
b. When a child of working parents is ill, the husband or wife should be willing to stay home and care for the child.	SA	A	D	SD
c. If the wife makes more money than her husband, it should not upset the balance of power.	SA	A	D	SD
d. A married man should be willing to have a smaller family so that his wife can work if she wants to.	SA	A	D	SD
e. As a matter of principle, a man and a woman living together should share equally in housework.	SA	A	D	SD
f. Qualified women who seek positions of authority should be given such positions as equally qualified men.	SA	A	D	SD

YOUR EMPLOYMENT

8. Please circle the letter that represents to your feelings about your job.
☐ Check here if you are NOT EMPLOYED and go on to the next section.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
a. Except for possible short-term interruptions, I plan to be employed until retirement age.	SA	A	D	SD
b. I view my employment as more than a job; it is a career that requires a great deal of commitment on my part.	SA	A	D	SD
c. My work provides me with opportunities for personal growth and development.	SA	A	D	SD
d. My main interest in my employment is to get enough money to do the other things that are important.	SA	A	D	SD
e. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.	SA	A	D	SD
f. Because of my job, I feel better about myself as a person.	SA	A	D	SD

YOUR HUSBAND

9. Please circle the letter that represents your opinions.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
a. My husband would say that his work provides him with opportunities for personal growth and development.	SA	A	D	SD
b. My husband's main interest in his job is to get enough money to do the other things that are important.	SA	A	D	SD

APPENDIX G

LOCUS OF CONTROL INSTRUMENT

YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT YOURSELF AND YOUR LIFE

6. The following gives you the opportunity to express how you feel about yourself, your life, and the things that affect you. There are no right or wrong answers. Please circle the letter that best represents your feelings for each of the following.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	MILDLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
a. To a great extent my life is controlled by accidental happenings.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
b. I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
c. When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
d. Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interest from bad luck happinings.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
e. When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
f. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
g. People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
h. Whether or not I get into a car accident is mostly a matter of luck.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
i. It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
j. Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
k. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
l. I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
m. I am usually able to protect my personal interests.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
n. When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
o. My life is determined by my own actions.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
p. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD
q. My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others.	SA	A	MA	MD	D	SD

APPENDIX H

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

YOUR SITUATION

The following information on yourself and your living situation will help us compile and study the questionnaires. This information will be kept in strict confidence and will be used only for work on the study. Please fill-in the blanks and circle or check (✓) the answers that best describe you.

1. YOUR MARITAL STATUS: (circle one letter)

   a. never married
   b. first marriage
   c. remarried
   d. separated
   e. divorced
   f. widowed
   g. other _____

2. YEARS MARRIED: _____

3. YOUR AGE: _____

4. YOUR EDUCATION: _____ (years completed)

5. HUSBAND'S EDUCATION: _____ (years completed)

6. YOUR RACE: _____

7. HOME OWNERSHIP: (check one)
   _____renting
   _____buying
   _____paid for

8. TYPE OF RESIDENCE: (check one)
   _____apartment
   _____condominium
   _____house
   _____mobile home
   (please indicate) _____other

9. TOTAL NUMBER OF ROOMS IN YOUR HOME: _____ (not including hallways and entry halls)

10. WHO LIVES WITH YOU? (Please list by relationship and age)

Example:

Relationship	Age
husband	45
son	8
mother-in-law	68
neice	19
friend	30

Relationship	Age
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

11. BESIDES YOUR MAIN JOB AND YOUR FAMILY, DO YOU HAVE ANY OTHER REGULAR ACTIVITIES AWAY FROM HOME THAT YOU HAVE NOT INCLUDED? (For example, part-time jobs, evening courses, spa memberships, etc.) IF SO, WHAT? _____

_____TOTAL HOURS PER WEEK_____

12. YOUR OCCUPATION: _____
(Be as specific as possible. For example, computer programmer, typist, lawyer private practice, sewing machine operator, etc.)

13. YOUR HUSBAND'S OCCUPATION: _____
(For example, aircraft mechanic, high school teacher, etc.)

14. PLEASE INDICATE YOUR OWN AND YOUR FAMILY'S ANNUAL INCOME BY PLACING THE APPROPRIATE LETTERS IN THE SPACES BELOW:

a. Less than $4,999	h. 20,000 --- 24,999	YOUR ANNUAL INCOME:
b. 5,000 ---- 6,999	i. 25,000 --- 29,999	(place letter here) _____
c. 7,000 ---- 8,999	j. 30,000 --- 35,999	
d. 9,000 --- 10,999	k. 36,000 --- 39,999	
e. 11,000 --- 12,999	l. 40,000 --- 49,999	TOTAL ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME:
f. 13,000 --- 15,999	m. 50,000 --- 59,000	
g. 16,000 --- 19,999	n. Over 60,000	(place letter here) _____

This completes the questionnaire. Please turn to the back page.

APPENDIX I

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF WIVES' TIME ALLOCATIONS

Table I-1

Career and Earner Wives' Time Allocations to Employment and Employment-Related Activities on an Average Weekday

Time allocation	Career wives		Earner wives		All Wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 4 hours	2	2.4	2	1.4	4	1.7
4 hours - 5 hours 59 minutes	5	5.9	17	11.3	22	9.4
6 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	9	10.6	23	15.3	32	13.6
8 hours - 8 hours 59 minutes	24	28.2	54	36.0	78	33.2
9 hours - 9 hours 59 minutes	18	21.2	22	14.7	40	17.0
10 or more hours	18	21.2	15	10.0	33	14.0
Totals	76	89.4	133	88.7	209	88.9
Mean minutes	508.0		469.0		483.0	
Mean hours	8.5		7.8		8.1	
Standard deviation	123.0		107.0		114.0	
Coefficient of variation	14.0		9.0		8.0	
Maximum (in minutes)	810.0		720.0		810.0	
(in hours)	13.5		12.0		13.5	

Note: Includes time allocations to employment, employment-related activities, and travel time to and from work.

Table I-2

Career and Earner Wives' Time Allocations to Employment and Employment-Related Activities on an Average Weekend Day

Time allocation	Career wives		Earner wives		All wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	29	34.1	87	58.0	116	49.4
Less than 1 hour	2	2.4	4	2.7	6	2.6
1 hour - 1 hour 59 minutes	7	8.2	5	3.3	12	5.1
2 hours - 3 hours 59 minutes	12	14.1	8	5.3	24	10.2
4 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	13	15.3	12	8.0	25	10.6
8 or more hours	4	4.7	0	0.0	4	1.7
Totals	67	78.8	120	80.0	187	79.6
Mean minutes	120.0		49.0		75.0	
Mean hours	2.0		.8		1.3	
Standard deviation	150.0		99.0		73.0	
Coefficient of variation	18.3		5.4		5.4	
Maximum (in minutes)	540.0		450.0		540.0	
(in hours)	9.0		7.5		9.0	

Note: Includes time allocations to employment, employment-related activities, and travel time to and from work.

Table I-3

Career and Earner Wives' Time Allocations to Household Production Activities on an Average Weekday

Time allocation	Career wives		Earner wives		All wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 2 hours	5	5.9	4	2.7	9	3.8
2 hours - 2 hours 59 minutes	9	10.6	9	6.0	18	7.7
3 hours - 3 hours 59 minutes	8	9.4	8	5.3	16	6.8
4 hours - 4 hours 49 minutes	9	10.6	16	10.7	25	10.6
5 hours - 5 hours 59 minutes	9	10.6	9	6.0	18	7.7
6 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	8	9.4	16	10.7	24	10.2
8 or more hours	6	7.1	16	10.7	22	9.4
Totals	54	63.5	78	52.0	132	56.2
Mean minutes	310.6		367.8		344.4	
Mean hours	5.2		6.1		5.7	
Standard deviation	227.7		231.3		230.7	
Coefficient of variation	31.0		26.2		20.1	
Maximum (in minutes)	1467.0		1338.0		1467.0	
(in hours)	24.5		22.3		24.5	

Note: Includes time spent in meal planning, food preparation, kitchen cleanup, grocery shopping, housecleaning, car and yard care, home repairs, clothing care, bill paying and record keeping, and discussing and making financial decisions.

Table I-4

Career and Earner Wives' Time Allocations to Household Production Activities on an Average Weekend Day

Time allocation	Career wives		Earner wives		All wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 6 hours	8	10.6	11	7.3	19	8.1
6 hours - 9 hours 59 minutes	8	10.6	18	12.0	26	11.1
10 hours - 13 hours 59 minutes	13	15.3	15	10.0	28	11.9
14 or more hours	15	17.6	15	10.0	30	12.8
Totals	44	51.8	59	39.3	103	43.8
Mean minutes	718.6		625.2		665.1	
Mean hours	12.0		10.4		11.1	
Standard deviation	383.0		331.7		355.8	
Coefficient of variation	57.8		43.2		35.1	
Maximum (in minutes)	1950.0		1855.0		1950.0	
(in hours)	32.5		30.9		32.5	

Note: Includes time spent in meal planning, food preparation, kitchen cleanup, grocery shopping, housecleaning, car and yard care, home repairs, clothing care, bill paying and record keeping, and discussing and making financial decisions.

Table I-5

Career and Earner Wives' Time Allocations to Child-Related Activities on an Average Weekday

Time allocation	Career wives		Earner wives		All wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	4	4.7	9	6.0	13	5.5
Less than 2 hours	5	5.9	15	10.0	20	8.5
2 hours - 3 hours 59 minutes	6	7.1	9	6.0	15	6.4
4 hours - 5 hours 59 minutes	5	5.9	12	8.0	17	7.2
6 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	3	3.5	3	2.0	6	2.6
8 or more hours	5	5.9	6	4.0	11	4.7
Totals	28	32.9	54	36.0	82	34.9
Mean minutes	297.1		205.1		236.5	
Mean hours	5.0		3.4		3.9	
Standard deviation	336.4		217.0		265.5	
Coefficient of variation	63.6		29.5		29.3	
Maximum (in minutes)	1320.0		990.0		1320.0	
(in hours)	22.0		16.5		22.0	

Note: Includes time spent in caring for children, teaching skills to children, transporting, and playing with children.

Table I-6

Career and Earner Wives' Time Allocations to Child-Related Activities on an Average Weekend Day

Time allocation	Career wives		Earner wives		All wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	1	1.2	6	4.0	7	3.0
Less than 4 hours	6	7.1	12	8.0	18	7.7
4 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	4	4.7	2	1.3	6	2.6
8 hours - 11 hours 59 minutes	3	3.5	4	2.7	7	3.0
12 or more hours	8	9.4	20	13.3	28	11.9
Totals	22	25.9	44	29.3	66	28.1
Mean minutes	590.5		633.9		619.4	
Mean hours	9.8		10.6		10.3	
Standard deviation	490.0		532.4		515.2	
Coefficient of variation	104.4		80.3		63.5	
Maximum (in minutes)	1440.0		1749.0		1749.0	
(in hours)	24.0		29.2		29.2	

Note: Includes time spent in caring for children, teaching skills to children, transporting, and playing with children.

Table I-7

Career and Earner Wives' Time Allocations to Personal Maintenance Activities on an Average Weekday

Time allocation	Career wives		Earner wives		All wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 7 hours	2	2.4	12	8.0	14	6.0
7 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	10	11.8	15	10.0	25	10.6
8 hours - 8 hours 59 minutes	16	18.9	20	13.3	36	15.3
9 hours - 9 hours 59 minutes	19	22.4	29	19.3	48	20.4
10 hours - 10 hours 59 minutes	14	16.5	19	12.7	33	14.0
11 hours - 11 hours 59 minutes	6	7.1	11	7.3	17	7.2
12 hours or more	4	4.7	6	4.0	10	4.3
Totals	71	83.5	112	74.7	183	77.9
Mean minutes	551.8		539.1		544.0	
Mean hours	9.2		9.0		9.1	
Standard deviation	86.5		122.6		109.9	
Coefficient of variation	10.3		11.6		8.1	
Maximum (in minutes)	720.0		1140.0		1140.0	
(in hours)	12.0		19.0		19.0	

Note: Includes time spent in sleeping, eating, and care of self (e.g., resting, grooming, dressing, etc.).

Table I-8

Career and Earner Wives' Time Allocations to Personal Maintenance Activities on an Average Weekend Day

Time allocation	Career wives		Earner wives		All wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 7 hours	5	5.9	2	1.3	7	3.0
7 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	6	7.1	13	8.7	19	8.1
8 hours - 8 hours 59 minutes	5	5.9	16	10.7	21	8.9
9 hours - 9 hours 59 minutes	12	14.1	25	16.7	37	15.8
10 hours - 10 hours 59 minutes	15	17.7	22	14.7	37	15.8
11 hours - 11 hours 59 minutes	13	15.3	12	8.0	25	10.6
12 hours or more	12	14.1	16	10.7	28	11.9
Totals	68	80.0	106	70.7	174	74.0
Mean minutes	596.3		585.6		589.7	
Mean hours	9.9		9.8		9.8	
Standard deviation	110.8		122.2		117.6	
Coefficient of variation	13.4		11.9		8.9	
Maximum (in minutes)	810.0		1140.0		1140.0	
(in hours)	13.5		19.0		19.0	

Note: Includes time spent in sleeping, eating, and care of self (e.g., resting, grooming, dressing, etc.).

Table I-9

Career and Earner Wives' Time Allocations to Leisure, Recreation, and Social Activities on an Average Weekday

Time allocation	Career wives		Earner wives		All wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	4	4.7	5	3.3	9	3.8
Less than 1 hour	16	18.8	12	8.0	28	11.9
1 hour - 1 hour 59 minutes	17	20.0	14	9.3	31	13.2
2 hours - 2 hours 59 minutes	8	9.4	16	10.7	24	10.2
3 hours - 3 hours 59 minutes	8	9.4	9	6.0	17	7.2
4 hours - 4 hours 59 minutes	2	2.4	7	4.7	9	3.8
5 or more hours	2	2.4	10	6.7	12	5.1
Totals	57	67.1	73	48.7	130	55.3
Mean minutes	108.9		160.0		137.6	
Mean hours	1.8		2.7		2.3	
Standard deviation	101.3		143.0		128.5	
Coefficient of variation	13.4		16.7		11.3	
Maximum (in minutes)	630.0		696.0		696.0	
(in hours)	10.5		11.6		11.6	

Note: Includes time spent in leisure and recreation, volunteer activities, and keeping in touch with friends and relatives.

Table I-10

Career and Earner Wives' Time Allocations to Leisure, Recreation, and Social Activities on an Average Weekend Day

Time allocation	Career wives		Earner wives		All wives	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	0	0.0	4	2.7	4	1.7
Less than 2 hours	10	11.8	10	6.7	20	8.5
2 hour - 3 hours 59 minutes	14	16.5	15	10.0	29	12.3
4 hours - 5 hours 59 minutes	13	15.3	26	17.3	39	16.6
6 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	7	8.2	11	7.3	18	7.7
8 hours - 9 hours 59 minutes	4	4.7	4	2.7	8	3.4
10 or more hours	3	3.5	6	4.0	9	3.8
Totals	51	60.0	76	50.7	127	54.0
Mean minutes	281.4		293.1		288.4	
Mean hours	4.7		4.9		4.8	
Standard deviation	195.6		221.6		210.8	
Coefficient of variation	27.4		25.4		18.7	
Maximum (in minutes)	1020.0		1320.0		1320.0	
(in hours)	17.0		22.0		22.0	

Note: Includes time spent in leisure and recreation, volunteer activities, and keeping in touch with friends and relatives.

APPENDIX J

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF WIVES' REPORTS OF HUSBANDS' TIME ALLOCATIONS

Table J-1

Career and Earner Wives' Reports of Husbands' Time Allocations to Employment and Employment-Related Activities on an Average Weekday

Time allocation	Career wives' husbands		Earner wives' husbands		All husbands	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 6 hours	10	11.8	6	4.0	16	6.8
6 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	4	4.7	6	4.0	10	4.3
8 hours - 8 hours 59 minutes	21	24.7	38	25.3	59	25.1
9 hours - 9 hours 59 minutes	10	11.8	20	13.3	30	12.8
10 hours - 10 hours 59 minutes	13	15.3	25	16.7	38	14.9
11 hours - 11 hours 59 minutes	2	2.4	6	4.0	8	3.4
12 or more hours	4	4.7	16	10.7	20	8.5
Totals	64	75.3	117	78.0	181	77.2
Mean minutes	486.9		540.9		521.8	
Mean hours	8.1		9.1		8.7	
Standard deviation	175.0		137.0		153.2	
Coefficient of variation	21.9		3.4		11.4	
Maximum (in minutes)	840.0		840.0		840.0	
(in hours)	14.0		14.0		14.0	

Note: Includes time spent in employment, employment-related activities, and travel time to and from work.

Table J-2

Career and Earner Wives' Reports of Husbands' Time Allocations Employment and Employment-Related Activities on an Average Weekend Day

Time allocation	Career wives' husbands		Earner wives' husbands		All husbands	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	26	30.6	44	29.3	70	29.8
Less than 2 hours	3	3.5	16	10.7	19	8.1
2 hours - 3 hours 59 minutes	12	14.1	17	11.3	29	12.3
4 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	11	12.9	13	8.7	24	10.2
8 or more hours	4	4.7	10	6.7	14	6.0
Totals	56	65.9	100	66.7	156	66.4
Mean minutes	136.6		128.5		131.4	
Mean hours	2.3		2.1		2.2	
Standard deviation	181.8		176.8		178.0	
Coefficient of variation	24.3		17.7		14.3	
Maximum (in minutes)	840.0		640.0		840.0	
(in hours)	14.0		10.7		14.0	

Note: Includes time spent in employment, employment-related activities, and travel time to and from work.

Table J-3

Career and Earner Wives' Reports of Husbands' Time Allocations to Household Production Activities on an Average Weekday

Time allocation	Career wives' husbands		Earner wives' husbands		All husbands	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	3	3.5	7	4.7	10	4.3
Less than 1 hour	16	18.8	18	12.0	34	14.5
1 hour - 1 hour 59 minutes	11	12.9	21	14.0	32	13.6
2 hours - 2 hours 59 minutes	6	7.1	10	6.7	16	6.8
3 hours - 3 hours 59 minutes	3	3.5	8	5.3	11	4.7
4 hours - 4 hours 59 minutes	3	3.5	6	4.0	9	3.8
5 or more hours	5	5.9	13	8.7	18	7.7
Totals	47	55.3	81	54.0	28	54.5
Mean minutes	117.8		157.4		142.9	
Standard deviation	124.2		174.5		158.5	
Coefficient of variation	18.1		19.4		14.0	
Maximum (in minutes)	540.0		780.0		780.0	
(in hours)	9.0		13.0		13.0	

Note: Includes time spent in meal preparation, kitchen cleanup, grocery shopping, housecleaning, car and yard care, home repairs, washing and ironing, bill paying and record keeping, and discussing and making financial decisions.

Table J-4

Career and Earner Wives' Reports of Husbands' Time Allocations to Household Production Activities on an Average Weekend Day

Time allocation	Career wives' husbands		Earner wives' husbands		All husbands	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	3	3.5	4	2.7	7	3.0
Less than 2 hours	8	9.4	13	8.7	21	8.9
2 hours - 3 hours 59 minutes	12	14.1	18	12.0	30	12.8
4 hours - 5 hours 59 minutes	8	9.4	12	8.0	20	8.5
6 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	6	7.1	11	7.3	17	7.2
8 or more hours	8	9.4	16	10.7	24	10.2
Totals	45	52.9	74	49.3	119	50.6
Mean minutes	287.1		289.8		288.8	
Standard deviation	253.1		215.1		229.2	
Coefficient of variation	37.7		25.0		21.0	
Maximum (in minutes)	1080.0		840.0		1080.0	
(in hours)	18.0		14.0		18.0	

Note: Includes time spent in meal preparation, kitchen cleanup, grocery shopping, housecleaning, car and yard care, home repairs, washing and ironing, bill paying and record keeping, and discussing and making financial decisions.

Table J-5

Career and Earner Wives' Reports of Husbands' Time Allocation to Child-Related Activities on an Average Weekday

Time allocation	Career wives' husbands		Earner wives' husbands		All husbands	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	6	7.1	12	8.0	18	7.7
Less than 1 hour	6	7.1	12	8.0	18	7.7
1 hour - 1 hour 59 minutes	4	4.7	5	3.3	9	3.8
2 hours - 3 hours 59 minutes	6	7.1	5	3.3	11	4.7
4 or more hours	2	2.4	11	7.3	12	5.1
Totals	24	28.2	45	30.0	69	29.4
Mean Minutes	89.7		126.5		113.7	
Standard Deviation	84.9		183.5		156.7	
Coefficient of Variation	17.3		27.4		18.9	
Maximum (in Minutes)	240.0		930.0		930.0	
(in Hours)	4.0		15.5		15.5	

Note: Includes time spent caring for children, teaching skills to children, transporting, and playing with children.

Table J-6

Career and Earner Wives' Reports of Husbands' Time Allocations to Child-Related Activities on an Average Weekend Day

Time allocation	Career wives' husbands		Earner wives' husbands		All husbands	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	7	8.2	14	9.3	21	8.9
Less than 2 hours	7	8.2	10	6.7	17	7.2
2 hour - 3 hours 59 minutes	5	5.9	5	3.3	10	4.3
4 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	5	5.9	8	5.3	13	5.5
8 or more hours	3	3.5	10	6.7	13	5.5
Totals	27	31.8	47	31.3	74	31.5
Mean minutes	172.6		245.2		218.7	
Standard deviation	197.8		311.9		276.6	
Coefficient of variation	38.1		45.5		32.2	
Maximum (in minutes)	720.0		1170.0		1170.0	
(in hours)	12.0		19.5		19.5	

Note: Includes time spent caring for children, teaching skills to children transporting, and playing with children.

Table J-7

Career and Earner Wives' Reports of Husbands' Time Allocations to Personal Maintenance Activities on an Average Weekday

Time allocation	Career wives' husbands		Earner wives' husbands		All husbands	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 7 hours	0	0.0	10	6.7	10	4.3
7 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	8	9.4	7	4.7	15	6.4
8 hours - 8 hours 59 minutes	13	15.3	15	10.0	28	11.9
9 hours - 9 hours 59 minutes	12	14.1	24	16.0	36	15.3
10 hours - 10 hours 59 minutes	12	14.1	13	8.7	25	10.6
11 hours - 11 hours 59 minutes	7	8.2	10	6.7	17	7.2
12 or more hours	6	7.1	14	9.3	20	8.5
Totals	58	68.2	117	78.0	151	64.3
Mean minutes	570.2		574.2		572.7	
Mean hours	9.5		9.6		9.6	
Standard deviation	96.5		129.9		117.8	
Coefficient of variation	12.7		13.5		9.6	
Maximum (in minutes)	840.0		1020.0		1020.0	
(in hours)	14.0		17.0		17.0	

Note: Includes time spent in sleeping, eating, and self care (dressing, grooming, resting, etc.).

Table J-8

Career and Earner Wives' Reports of Husbands' Time Allocations to Personal Maintenance Activities on an Average Weekend Day

Time allocation	Career wives' husbands		Earner wives' husbands		All husbands	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 7 hours	0	0.0	4	2.7	4	1.7
7 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	6	7.1	7	4.7	13	5.5
8 hours - 8 hours 59 minutes	6	7.1	13	8.7	19	8.1
9 hours - 9 hours 59 minutes	12	14.1	10	6.7	22	9.4
10 hours - 10 hours 59 minutes	14	16.5	19	12.7	33	14.0
11 hours - 11 hours 59 minutes	8	9.4	20	13.3	28	11.9
12 or more hours	10	11.8	16	10.7	26	11.1
Totals	56	65.9	89	59.3	145	61.7
Mean minutes	616.3		616.6		616.5	
Mean hours	10.3		10.3		10.3	
Standard deviation	129.6		147.3		140.2	
Coefficient of variation	17.3		15.6		11.6	
Maximum (in minutes)	960.0		1140.0		1140.0	
(in hours)	16.0		19.0		19.0	

Note: Includes time spent in sleeping, eating, and self care (dressomg, grooming, resting, etc.).

Table J-9

Career and Earner Wives' Reports of Husbands' Time Allocations to Leisure, Recreation, and Social Activities on an Average Weekday

Time allocation	Career wives' husbands		Earner wives' husbands		All husbands	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	3	3.5	9	6.0	12	5.1
Less than 1 hour	4	4.7	8	5.3	12	5.1
1 hour - 1 hour 59 minutes	7	8.2	15	10.0	22	9.4
2 hours - 2 hours 59 minutes	13	15.3	20	13.3	33	14.0
3 hours - 3 hours 59 minutes	8	9.4	6	4.0	14	6.0
4 hours - 4 hours 59 minutes	6	7.1	9	6.0	15	6.4
5 hours or more	10	11.8	7	4.7	17	7.2
Totals	51	60.0	74	49.3	125	53.2
Mean minutes	210.8		141.1		169.5	
Mean hours	3.5		2.4		2.8	
Standard deviation	179.9		118.2		149.9	
Coefficient of variation	25.2		13.7		13.4	
Maximum (in minutes)	744.0		660.0		744.0	
(in hours)	12.4		11.0		12.4	

Note: Includes time spent in leisure and recreation, volunteer activities, and keeping in touch with friends and relatives.

Table J-10

Career and Earner Wives' Reports of Husbands' Time Allocations to Leisure, Recreation, and Social Activities on an Average Weekend Day

Time allocation	Career wives' husbands		Earner wives' husbands		All husbands	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	0	0.0	4	2.7	4	1.7
Less than 2 hours	3	3.5	6	4.0	9	3.8
2 hours - 3 hours 59 minutes	14	16.5	15	10.0	29	12.3
4 hours - 5 hours 59 minutes	10	11.8	20	13.3	30	12.8
6 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	6	7.1	7	4.7	13	5.5
8 hours - 9 hours 59 minutes	8	9.4	11	7.3	19	8.1
10 or more hours	12	14.1	11	7.3	23	9.8
Totals	53	62.4	74	49.3	127	54.0
Mean minutes	390.6		340.4		361.4	
Mean hours	6.5		5.7		6.0	
Standard deviation	226.0		212.9		219.0	
Coefficient of variation	31.0		24.8		19.4	
Maximum (in minutes)	900.0		900.0		900.0	
(in hours)	15.0		15.0		15.0	

Note: Includes time spent in leisure and recreation, volunteer activities, and keeping in touch with friends and relatives.