

BLACK PROFESSIONAL WOMEN IN DUAL-CAREER FAMILIES:
THE RELATIONSHIP OF MARITAL EQUITY AND SEX ROLE IDENTITY
TO THE CAREER COMMITMENT OF THE WIFE

by

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(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship of marital equity and sex role identity to the career commitment of black dual-career wives and to determine who does what in the family. Five research questions guided the study: a) What is the relationship of selected demographic variables (education, income, age and number of children) of husbands and wives to the career commitment of the wife? b) Is there a significant difference between husbands and wives and their commitment to pursue a career? c) Is there a significant difference between husbands and wives in sex role identity and marital equity? d) Is there a correlation between the career commitment of wives and the extent to which marital equity exists? e) What is the relationship of sex role identity of husbands and wives to the career commitment of the wife?

A sample of 200 dual-career couples were systematically selected from a predominantly Black sorority. The instruments

used to collect the data were: Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), career commitment and marital equity scales (Nicola, 1980), and a demographic questionnaire. Data were analyzed using frequencies, means, percentages, correlation coefficients, analysis of variance, t-tests, and multiple comparisons. Study results indicated that while the couples' education and income were not significantly associated with the wife's career commitment, wives were more educated. Although the number of children did not matter, the age of the oldest child was significantly related to the mother's career commitment. The mean career commitment scores for husbands (41.03) and wives (41.61) indicated that partners shared similar attitudes about time and emotional investment in careers and family pursuits.

Mean marital equity scores for husbands and wives revealed that wives did significantly more than husbands in the areas of household tasks and child care. Similarly, wives did most of the initiation for family communication and problem solving. Data supported equal sharing in decision-making (eg. vacations, relocation, financial matters). While couples' sex role identity scores were significantly different, they had no significant effect on the wife's career commitment.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving mother and deceased father. Their spirit of togetherness and sharing gave special meaning to this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	Page
Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	v
Dedication	vi
List of Tables	ix
1. Introduction	1
Problem Description and Background:	
The Dual-Career family	5
Sex Role Influences	5
Black women and family roles	9
Marital equity in dual-career marriages	10
Statement of the Problem	11
Significance of the Study	13
Rationale for the Study	16
Theoretical Rationale for Examining the Black Family	17
Assumptions	21
Limitations of the Study	22
Definition of Terms	22
Organization of the Study	24
Summary of Chapter	26
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	27
Introduction	27
The development of sex roles	27
Sex role behavior in dual-career marriages	31
Socialization of the Black Family	37
The Woman as Matriarch in the Black Family	38
Balancing Career and Family	41
The Impact of Children in the Dual-Career Family	42
Career Commitment and the Relationship of Achievement and Success in the Dual-Career Family	47
Work and Family Roles in the Dual-Career Family	51
Role Interchangeability in Dual-Career Marriages	54
Equity and Equality in the Distribution of Family Work	60
Effects of Race on Household Division of Work	67

Conceptual Framework	69
Summary of Chapter	72
3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	74
Population and Sample	74
Sampling	80
Research Design	80
Instrumentation	81
Demographic Questionnaire	81
Sex role identity scale	82
Career commitment scale	85
Role interchangeability scale	86
Data Collection Procedure	88
Statistical Analysis	89
Hypotheses	90
Summary of Chapter	91
4. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA	92
Description of Sample	92
Data Analysis	102
Summary of Chapter	120
5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	121
Introduction	121
Summary of the Study	121
Summary and Discussion of the Findings	124
Conclusions	135
Recommendations	138
Summary of the Chapter	142
REFERENCES	142
APPENDICES	159
A. Demographic Questionnaire	159
B. Bem Sex Role Inventory	161
C. Career Commitment and Role Interchangeability Scales	164
D. Letter of Transmittal	177
E. Letter of Support from AKA Mid-Atlantic Regional Director	179
F. Follow-up Postcard to Nonrespondents	181

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Duvall's (1971) Eight Major Stages of the Family Life Cycle.....	45
2. Gallop Poll Survey of Attitudes on Equality and Gender.....	61
3. Virginia Index of Independent Cities With Populations Over 40,000 With AKA Graduate Chapters.....	76
4. North Carolina Municipal Populations Over 40,000 With AKA Graduate Chapters.....	77
5. The Number of Dual-Career Couples in Virginia Who Received Survey Packets and the Number of Survey Packets Returned.....	78
6. The Number of Dual-Career Couples in North Carolina Who Received Survey and the Number of Survey Packets Returned.....	79
7. Percent of Participation by Husbands and Wives Surveyed in Virginia and North Carolina.....	93
8. Number and Percent of Dual-Career Wives Surveyed by Age.....	95
9. Educational Level of Dual-Career Wives and Husbands.....	96
10. Number and Age of Children in Dual-Career Families.....	98
11. Marital Information Reported by Wives on the Demographic Survey.....	100
12. Dual-Career Couples' Employment Information.....	101
13. Combined Annual Income of Dual-Career Couples...	103
14. Analysis of Variance Test of the Relationship of Wife's Education to her Career Commitment.....	106
15. Analysis of Variance Test of the Husbands' Education in Relation to the Wife's Career	

Commitment.....	107
16. Analysis of Variance Test of the Wife's Career Commitment in Relation to the Couples' Education	108
17. Mean, Standard Deviation and F-Ratio of Wives' Career Commitment Mean in Relation to Family Income.....	109
18. Relationship of Career Commitment Scores of Husbands and Wives as Measured by the Career Commitment Scale.....	113
19. The Relationship of Husbands' and Wives' Standardized T-Scores for the Femininity Minus Masculinity Difference.....	115
20. Mean Score, Standard Deviation, and F-Ratio of Husbands and Wives Bem Sex Role Identity (BSRI) Classification to the Wife's Commitment.....	116
21. Mean, Standard Deviation, and Paired T-Values of the Husbands' and Wives' Marital Equity Scores..	119

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Problem Description and Background: The Dual Career-Family

The dual-career family phenomenon represents a growing lifestyle in society for many married couples. As the number of women seeking professional careers continues to increase, the dual-career family model will become even more prevalent (Inglehart, 1979; Rice, 1979; Nicola, 1980; Sekaran, 1983a). Rapoport & Rapoport (1976, p. 9) defined the dual-career family as one in which both husband and wife pursue "job sequences that require a high degree of commitment and that have a continuous developmental character." Unlike the traditional family concept with the husband as the breadwinner and the wife at home, or the dual-worker lifestyle where husband and wife work at jobs that are not career directed, the dual-career couple is committed to achieving their individual career goals while at the same time pursuing mutual family goals. Therefore, the dual-career couple must coordinate the career demands of two professionals in one family (Bailyn, 1970; Handy, 1978; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971a, 1976; Yogev, 1981).

Major impetus was given to the study of families pursuing career and domestic goals when the research of Rapoport & Rapoport (1969) brought attention to the complexity of this lifestyle. They are credited with the term "dual-career family" and characterized the concept as "enabling" families to breakout of stereotypical roles and strive for personal accomplishments (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969). Subsequent studies have examined the sociological and psychological aspects of dual-career families noting the successes and conflicts that they have generated (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971b; Holmstrom, 1972). Findings indicated that dual-career couples are confronted with a vast array of problems and challenges inherent in their dual commitments. These couples are faced with the problems of concurrent job seeking (Wallston, Foster, & Berger, 1978), employer attitudes (Handy, 1978; Holmstrom, 1972; Rosen, Jerdee, & Presturch, 1975), internal competition (Douvan, & Pleck, 1978), coordination of domestic and parental tasks (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969), as well as societal expectations that are incompatible with their lifestyle (Douvan & Pleck, 1978).

Dual-career families are different from two-earner couples in their attitudinal support of the equalization of power and domestic responsibilities, and in their belief in each other's career aspirations. Rachlin (1987) stated that

at least one partner in the dual-earner profile is involved in a job not a career and she views the dual-career couple as a sub-type of the broader category of dual earner. Unlike the dual earner couple, in the dual-career family both partners are committed to combining professional and family roles (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971a, 1971b). The dual-career situation places demands on husbands and wives for some degree of coordination, integration and balance between career and family roles both individually and as a couple (Rachlin, 1987). Several studies have shown that in reality these goals are not achieved and that for the most part women continue to be responsible for the home (Bryson et al., 1976; Epstein, 1973). In fact, despite the stress that both partners encounter in achieving their desired goals, it is the 'female' partner who faces additional pressure and experiences role conflict stemming from societal expectations that she assume traditional female responsibilities as wife, mother and homemaker (Yohalem, 1979; Coser & Rokoff, 1971; Johnson & Johnson, 1977; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971a, 1971b). As a result, the careers of the wife in the dual-career lifestyle are likely to be obstructed or delayed by forces within the family unit and by forces from the work arena. For example, employers often presume that a woman's family will have a negative influence upon her work decisions. Such presumptions

can lead to biased treatment in terms of promotions, and mobility, with males making greater gains (Yohalem, 1979).

These external and internal social pressures encourage women to modify or abandon their career goals until after marriage or childbearing. Personal expectations based on sex role socialization further encourage women to subordinate their career goals to their husband's career or to other family demands (Bryson et al., 1976; Stein & Bailey, 1975). The husband traditionally, has been the non-accommodating partner with respect to domestic responsibilities, and the wife has accommodated, placing her primary emphasis on the family and not on job or career goals (Nadelson, 1980; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976).

Rice (1979) has suggested that the area of childrearing provides the greatest set of societal expectations that work against the dual-career lifestyle. Research has shown that the presence of children may especially affect the women's involvement in her career, since wives in dual-career families have reported that they undertake major responsibility in most areas of childrearing at the expense of time devoted to career (Hoffman & Nye, 1974a, 1974b).

Women who maintain their professional careers during their children's early years can expect to feel overload while juggling these multiple roles. Unless the working mother

employs outside help, she performs most of the household tasks (Bryson et al., 1976). Many women make sacrifices in terms of neatness, socializing, and leisure activities (Angrist, 1967, 1974). This often leads to feelings of guilt about their incomplete performance as wife and mother (Hoffman & Nye, 1974a). One significant finding in dual-career research is that mothers require and desire cooperation and support from their husbands to handle their multiple role demands (Gaddy, 1982; Hoffman & Nye, 1974b). Women in the dual-career lifestyle may experience both negative and positive impacts on their career pursuits because of their multiple roles in the home and at work. How well career women are able to balance or reduce these responsibilities can greatly affect the amount of time, physical, and mental energy available for career investment.

Sex Role Influences

Malmaud (1984) reported that sex roles are a product of heredity, culture, and society. She contends that sex roles are systematically inculcated in people through parental tuition, education, peers, the media, and religious institutions (Malmaud, 1984, p. 19). By the traditional standards in American society, the male is expected to work

and be the breadwinner (Bernard, 1972), while the woman remains at home to care for the family. However, when the woman decides to pursue a career, she creates an additional role for herself and in so doing deviates from the traditional norm (Almquist & Angrist, 1971).

Ransford and Miller (1981) argue that the joint effects of race and gender will lead to distinctive sex role attitudes. Further, they suggest that black women who have historically been in subordinate positions on two dimensions (race and gender) may hold distinct perceptions about their role performance with regard to family and careers (Ransford & Miller, 1981). These include attitudes about their careers and their roles as a wife and mother. Historically, according to Ransford and Miller, Black women have always worked, and as a result their expectations may differ from those of their white counterparts.

Several research studies on racial comparisons have indicated that black wives expect to work and that black husbands are more accepting of this than white husbands (Beckett, & Smith, 1981). Beckett (1981, p. 465-466) concluded that:

Black men are more willing than white men to make tentative, temporary or long range accommodations to the special needs of working wives for instance, more willing to stay home with a sick child - or to be amenable to the wife's absence from home overnight because of work requirements.

Lerner (1978) reports that the crucial differences between black women and white women are those of expectations and orientations. She explains that a greater percentage of black women than white women work after marriage and childbirth and that for the majority of white middle and upper class women, the decision to pursue a career is optional. Yet, black women are raised with the expectation that whether or not they marry or have children, they will work most of their adult lives.

These expectations are consistent with Epstein's (1973, p. 923) generalization that "black women are more concerned with the economic rewards of work than are white women." Further Lerner (1978) concluded that these factors help account for the fact that as a group black career women feel less guilt than do their white counterparts about spending less time with their family due to the demands their careers place on them.

In the last two decades, there has been increased interest in research relating to the changing roles of women and men in dual-career families and the issues affecting them.

The literature reports that sex role attitudes and beliefs are important in understanding relationships between the sexes. As the dual-career family becomes more the norm, the roles of men and women will continue to be challenged

(Ransford & Miller, 1981).

Several dual-career researchers have studied the relationship between working women and sex role identity, particularly, the impact of androgyny (Bailyn, 1970; Ferree, 1983; Hoffman, 1977; Rotherman & Weiner, 1983). Basically, androgyny describes individuals who are less restricted by conventional sex roles (Bem, 1974). Rotherman and Weiner (1983) concluded that an androgynous person integrates stereotypically perceived attributes of masculinity and femininity into her/his self-concept, providing a wider range of social behaviors.

Studies investigating the relationship between sex role identity and psychological adjustment of dual-career couples suggest that androgyny is positively related to marital satisfaction (Hiller & Philliber, 1982; Rotherman & Weiner, 1983). While these research studies have contributed to our understanding of the impact of sex role identity in the dual-career marriage, there has not been an effort to determine the influence of race.

As it becomes more apparent that women are choosing to combine career and marriage, there is concern that both partners, particularly women, develop strategies to reduce role overload. The sex role study conducted by Burke & Weir (1976a, 1976b) found that "masculine" personality

characteristics such as self-reliance, self-sufficiency, and assertiveness were greater among women who worked outside the home than in homemakers. Rapoport and Rapoport, (1978a, 1978b) described career women as more independent and flexible in their thinking and perceptions. The career women in Rand's (1968) sex role preference study scored high not only on masculine traits of leadership, aggressiveness, independence, and drive to achieve, but also scored high on a number of feminine traits (e.g. sensitivity, sociability). Rand (1968) concluded that these women had redefined their roles to include behaviors appropriate to both sexes. Other studies support the growing breakdown of sex role stereotypes (Shab, 1967; Gump, 1972).

Black Women and Family Roles

While there has been considerable research on the dual-career family, there has been minimal systematic attention devoted to the study of Black professional women in the dual-career family structure. Historically, literature on the black woman has either paralleled or been a part of Black family research which generally defined her role in the family as domineering, pathological, and matriarchal (e.g. Moynihan, 1965). A review of the research on the black family has shown

the black woman to be controversial. For example, Staples (1986) and other researchers have presented a more positive characterization of the black woman (Staples, 1986; Hill, 1971; Willie, 1986).

The economic, social, and political history of the relationship of Black women to their families has been noticeably different from that of all other women in America (Wilkinson, 1984). Their roles as wife, mother, and worker are often linked to their slave and servant background (Davis, 1971; Malveaux, 1980). From an economic perspective the middle class status for most Black families is a function of the dual employment of the husband and wife. Willie (1986, p. 225) reported:

The economic foundation for middle class Black families is a product of the cooperation of the husband and wife. Few, if any, family functions including cooking, cleaning, and buying are considered to be the exclusive prerogative of the husband and wife.

His writings also suggest that the husband and wife in the Black middle class family have acted as partners out of necessity and thus have carved out an equalitarian pattern of interaction in which neither husband nor wife has ultimate authority (Willie, 1986, p. 226). From a functional perspective, husbands and wives did what had to be done within their family structure to maintain its stability and economic survival.

Lerner (1978) suggests that the ease with which black women cope with the conflicting role demands of career and homemaker roles rest, in part, with the view that her work is necessary, rather than optional, and in so doing she contributes rather than detracts from the stability of the family.

Marital Equity in Dual-Career Marriages

A number of researchers have investigated the concept of marital equity in the dual-career marriage (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975; Hopkins & White, 1978; Walster, Walster & Berscheid, 1978). According to Rachlin (1987, p.190), equity in a marriage "introduces a sense of fairness rather than a condition of equality as the essential component for evaluation of a relationship and may entail inequality of conditions at times." Unlike traditional marriages, the equalitarian marriage is based on equity and permits both partners to distribute work, domestic, and emotional tasks fairly over time. According to Rapoport & Rapoport (1975, p. 56), the feeling of "fairness in the allocation of constraints" as well as in perceived benefits from the relationship is important. While both partners in the dual-career marriage expect mutual support and reinforcement,

it is the female partner who is likely to experience feelings of inequity.

Some researchers have shown through sex role identity studies that women who exhibit traditionally masculine personality characteristics (e.g. assertive, goal oriented) and have relatively equalitarian marriages (i.e. partners practice equal sharing of roles and responsibilities) may have more flexibility for the pursuit of a career, particularly, during periods of childbearing and childrearing. While women who are more feminine in their sex role identity (e.g. nurturant, supportive) and have traditional marriages (i.e. husband as breadwinner and wife as homemaker) may be expected to make greater career sacrifices for their families (Haas, 1982; Kanter, 1977; Rotherman & Weiner, 1983; Bem, 1976). Therefore, a major concern of this study will be to investigate whether there is a relationship between marital equity and the career commitment of Black professional women in dual-career marriages.

Statement of the Problem

In 1988, 57.1% of married women with children under 6, and 72.5% of married women with children between the ages of 6 and 17 were employed outside the home (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1989). Moreover, women now constitute nearly 39% of the professional labor force.

Behind these facts and figures are men, women, and children working out alternative lifestyles within the context of changing societal trends. As women pursue career goals with the intent of having it all - marriage, children, and career - they are faced with the challenges of successfully balancing their occupational and family roles. While there has been considerable research on the dual-career family there is a general lack of adequate information with regard to the study of Black women , their work, and family roles. Historically, black women have worked, not as an option but out of economic necessity. Staples (1986) reported that for many black families, the clear cut distinction of sex roles never existed with the father as provider and the mother as homemaker. Additionally, other literature has shown that the middle class status for many black families has been achieved and maintained with the combined incomes of both partners (Staples, 1986). This study will further examine how roles

are divided in selected middle class black dual-career families.

Specifically, the following research questions guided the study:

1. What is the relationship of selected demographic variables (education, income, age and number of children) of husbands and wives in the black dual-career family to the career commitment of the female partner?

2. Is there a significant difference in commitment to pursue a career between husbands and wives in the black dual-career family?

3. Is there a significant difference between husbands and wives in sex role identity and marital equity as measured by the BSRI and Role Interchangeability scales?

4. Is there a correlation between the career commitment of wives and the extent to which marital equity exists in the black dual-career marriage?

5. What is the relationship of the sex role identity of the male and female partners in the black dual-career marriage to the career commitment of the wife?

Conditional: If there is a significant relationship for hypotheses 4 and 5 then,

6. What is the interaction between marital equity and sex role identity to the career commitment of black women in dual-

career marriages?

Significance of the Study

Although the literature on the dual-career family is extensive, there is no clear cut agreement on whether joining two careers in one family leads to any substantial changes in family structure or gender roles. The Rapoports (1971a, 1971b, 1976), for example, concluded that the dual-career marriage has the potential for greater equality in task performance and in family responsibilities for each spouse. Yogev (1981), found that women in dual-careers continued to assume most of the responsibilities for child care and housework, while perceiving themselves and their husbands as equals.

Moreover, the research on the black dual-career family is limited. Despite what is known in the area of dual-career family research, investigations have primarily involved non-ethnic groups. A focus on ethnic or sub-groups can strengthen and expand what is known about dual-career family functionality. Further there is a lack of accord among researchers in delineating the roles of male and female partners in the black middle class family. Therefore, this study will help define more clearly who does what in the black

dual-career family and its impact on the career commitment of the wife.

Rationale of the Study

The Dual-Career Family Phenomenon

The dual-career family represents a growing contradiction to the traditional concept of the "family." Men in many dual-career families are experiencing role changes and role expansion with regard to family and household responsibilities. Studying the dual-career family, and more importantly the black dual-career family, is appropriate because of the lack of adequate focus on this ethnic group in dual-career family research.

While the dual-career family, with its inherent complexities has been studied for nearly three decades, very little systematic study has been done with particular regard to black couples. Consequently, it is necessary to conduct investigations that seek to close the gap in this area of dual-career family research.

Despite the commitment of women to careers, marriage, and family, the tendency is still for women to subordinate or put on hold their career goals and aspirations for those of

their husbands or until after childbearing and childrearing. St. Johns-Parsons (1978) found that it is invariably the woman who compromises on career goals to keep the family running smoothly, especially when there are children. Coser and Rokoff (1971) viewed this as a logical sequence of our cultural mandate which prescribes that a woman's primary allegiance is to the family, while men provide the economic means and social status for the family. According to Hardesty and Betz (1980), men and women do not significantly differ in their perceived career commitments. Yet, despite the equality women have with men in their commitment to careers, women seem to be significantly less job involved than men (Sekaran, 1982).

As the dual-career family learns to cope with the problems of a two-career household, the roles of husbands and fathers will continue to shift from traditional roles to nontraditional roles (i.e. child care and household responsibilities) in order to reduce the multiple role demands of the working wife and mother. With more women pursuing career goals while simultaneously balancing the traditional roles of wife, mother, and housekeeper, more empirical research will be needed to facilitate the quality of life in dual-career families.

The heritage of the Black family in America is unlike that of all other ethnic groups. The foundations and traditions of black families have revolved around the strength of the woman, giving rise to a matricentric family structure (Staples, 1972). Ladner (1972, p. 280) argued that "the tremendous hardships from which Black women suffered, allowed for the development of a personality that is rarely described in the scholarly journals for its obstinate strength and ability to survive." Wallace (1979, p.100) added support to this view when he explained that the socioeconomic context from which contemporary Afro-American families have evolved is a "unique interplay between the Black woman's family role and her work role."

Wilkinson (1984) concluded that women in the black middle income strata have different family organizations, work ethics, political beliefs, and behavior from those in the black 'struggling poor' or in working non-poor families. These distinctions represent the uniqueness of the Black dual-career family and further validate studying this population.

Theoretical Perspective for Examining the Black Family

Allen (1978a, 1978b) summarized three theoretical positions that have been used to examine black families.

First, the "cultural equivalent" perspective which assumes that black families have cultures similar to those of white families. Consequently, it is reasoned that black families are easily compared to white families. Second, the "cultural deviant" model, views black families as aberrations of middle class white families. In this context, the cultural differences found in black families are deviations from the normalcy represented in middle class white families and, therefore, are characterized as pathological. Finally, the "cultural variant" perspective sees the differences in black family form and structure as strengths in their social structure rather than as weaknesses. Where differences are either denied or viewed as abnormal in the first two models, the cultural variant model interprets variations in role behavior and functioning as attempts to function in society, often under adverse conditions (Billingsley, 1968). Because of its non-judgmental interpretation of the black family, the cultural variant perspective will provide a framework to describe the outcomes of this study.

A number of theorists have examined the relationship between the economy and the family, and for the most part, have focused on the erosion of the black extended family and the emergence of the conjugal family in society (Scanzoni, 1971). To explain, Scanzoni (1971, p. 197) stated that "full understanding of what goes on between husbands and wives requires knowledge of what occurred to them prior to marriage." By definition the conjugal family form is part of an on going cyclical or developmental process. Therefore, as couples join to form a new conjugal family each brings his/her background family of orientation. In this regard, an individual's prior family experiences and socialization impacts on the new family structure.

Although, there has been little evidence to indicate that the black family has adopted or devised any new or unique conjugal patterns (Nobles, 1978), research contends that there are special features found in Black families. Four critical positions were isolated (Nobles, 1978, p. 687):

1. The traditional black family is a unique cultural form enjoying its own inherent resources and/or features;

2. The family performs important social and psychological functions;

3. Some of its features may be situational (i.e. caused by the pressures of the moment) or adaptational;

4. In periods of "crises" and at "ceremonial" times, the "African nature" of the family is most visible and provides needed emotional and economic support for its constituent members.

While the black woman has been a cohesive link and source of strength in the evolutionary growth of the black family, it is important to conduct further inquiry to determine the roles of black women and their partners in the dual-career family life, which requires the strength of both partners to function at its best.

Assumptions

1. It is assumed that the potential career development of women, although not fundamentally different than that of men, is a great deal more complex due to that combination of attitudes, role expectation behaviors and the socialization process.

2. It is assumed that each partner in the dual-career marriage is interested in advancing his/her career while maintaining familial roles.

Limitations

The study was limited geographically to black families living in North Carolina and Virginia. Only married couples between the ages of 25-55 with at least one child were selected to participate in the study because of the relevance of parenting roles. Both partners were to be employed in their career choices.

Definition of Terms

1. Androgyny: the blending of attributes stereotypically perceived as masculine and feminine traits into an individual's personality, - a person having qualities of both males and females e.g. being "strong " yet "tender" (Lewis, et al., 1986).
2. Commitment: a pledge or intention to do something in the future, or a state of being obligated or emotionally impelled to do something (Lewis, 1986).
3. Egalitarian marriage: a marital relationship where there is equal sharing of authority, tasks and responsibilities, but is often used interchangeably with equalitarian marriage.

4. Expressive roles: social expectations which involve love, nurturance, moral support, and trust; non-judgmental and accepting (Lewis, et al., 1986).
5. Family work: housework and child care tasks, generally unpaid work when performed by family members.
6. Instrumental roles: expectations centered in tasks and specific goals, where performance is measured and judged, such as in one's occupation, decision-making, and organized activities (Lewis, et al., 1986).
7. Role: a group of norms that defines the rights, obligations and privileges of a person who occupies a particular status (Lewis, et al., 1986).
8. Socialization: the process of becoming a human being and part of a specific social group.
9. Role expectations: norms, rules and patterns for behavior.
10. Sex role attitudes: beliefs that are in regard to what is appropriate behaviors for males and females.
11. Sex role stereotypes: beliefs that it is only natural and fitting for males and females to adhere to traditional sex-role patterns (Lewis, et al., 1986).
12. Dual-career family: a family life pattern in which both husband and wife are committed to work that has a continuous developmental character.

13. Marital equity: marital relationships in which husbands and wives share in traditionally sex segregated family roles and exchanges that balance the relative gains of both partners.
14. Traditional marriage: one in which the husband works and the wife remains in the home to care for the family.
15. Sex role identity: is the degree to which a man or a woman incorporates traditional masculine and/or feminine role definitions, into his or her own self-concept. Sex role identity is often referred to as gender role identity (Hiller & Philliber, 1982).
16. Role interchangeability: is the extent to which husband or wives are willing to share, exchange, or cross traditional sex typed roles or behaviors in their relationships.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 includes a discussion of the following: introduction, statement of the problem and background, research questions, rationale for the study, theoretical perspective, limitations of the study, and definition of terms.

Chapter 2 presents a review of dual-career literature and research relevant to this study. These will include: the cultural sex roles of women and men, the matriarchal family, marital equity or equality, sex role identity, the black family, the impact of children and the division of family work on dual-career life patterns. In addition, the cultural variant perspective (Allen, 1978) provided the frame of reference to present the findings in the study. The survey of relevant literature will include psychological androgyny and career involvement of women.

Chapter 3 includes a description of the research methodology used in the study, population and samples, research design, instrumentation, data collection, statistical tests used, and procedures for analyzing and reporting the data.

Chapter 4 provides an analysis and interpretation of the data.

Chapter 5 presents a summary of the data, findings, conclusions, discussion, recommendations and implications for further research.

Summary of Chapter

This chapter presented a description of the problem addressed in this study, the importance of the study, assumptions, limitations of the study, and definitions of terms which were frequently used in the study.

The lack of adequate research concerning the black family in the dual-career life style provided support to conduct this study. Specifically, this research will contribute to the literature by investigating the relationship of marital equity and sex role identity to the career commitment of women in this population. Additionally, this study will assess the involvement of black dual-career husbands and wives in family work roles.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter presents an examination of the literature related to gender identity and the relationship of sex role behavior and role interchangeability in the dual-career marriage. Literature concerning the dual-career family, the black family in this lifestyle, and relevant background literature on the black female is presented. This research also includes a review of literature on women and career commitment and the relevance of equity and work roles in the dual-career lifestyle. A conceptual framework for the study is also presented.

The Development of Sex Roles

In all societies there are dominant attitudes about sex and gender. These ideas are considered societal norm and are accepted as such regardless of individual gender, ethnicity, or family background (Walum, 1977). Although, the terms gender identity and sex role identity have been used

interchangeably in the literature, the sex roles of men and women are linked to "role performances, personality structures, attitudes, and behaviors" (Walum, 1977, p. 6) and are determined by social and environmental influences.

According to Walum (1977, p. 5):

One's biological sex (even consistent on all indicators) may be totally independent of one's gender identity.... Gender identity ("I am a boy" or "I am a girl") is one of our most basic self-definitions. The concept should not be confused with masculinity or femininity. A boy playing with dolls knows that he is a boy; a tomboy knows she is a girl. Few people worry about knowing what gender they are, although many struggle with whether they are feminine or masculine enough.

Bem (1976, p. 48) stated that "sexual (or gender) identity refers to people's security in their maleness or femaleness." Men and women learn from birth appropriate sex role behaviors from external and internal cultural systems that are inclusive of parents, schools, friends, and religion (Polk, 1974; Nickols, 1975; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). In the family structure, sex roles are inculcated for future behaviors as men and as women in accordance with societal expectations. Traditional expectations are for boys to grow up and work to support their families, while girls are expected to assume primary responsibility for the home and care of the family. Gaddy (1982, 1983) also argues that sex role socialization shapes the learning process that determines what we think and how we act. We learn what "toys are okay

to play with and what jobs are all right to aim for" (Tavris & Offir, 1977, p. 186).

It has been suggested that sex role preferences and behaviors are learned through cognitive development and socialization (Scanzoni & Fox, 1980). According to Kohlberg (1966), a toddler learns early to categorize himself or herself as male or female. He maintains that "the development of gender identity is antecedent to processes of imitation that facilitate the acquisition of sex role preferences and behaviors" (1966, p. 164-165). Additionally, Scanzoni and Fox (1980), reported that by age six children are able to articulate stereotypical expectations for appropriate and inappropriate behaviors for men and women. Unlike cognitive development, social learning suggests that "social agents, particularly parents, shape the child's performance by articulating experiences regarding gender-appropriate behavior, positively reinforcing desired behaviors, punishing those that are deemed unacceptable, and providing models for the child to emulate" (O'Leary, 1977, p. 37).

During adolescence, boys and girls develop interdependence and begin joint decision making (Scanzoni & Fox, 1980). Douvan and Adelson (1966), indicated that adolescence is a period when the sexes begin to diverge in terms of their thinking and preparation for future

instrumental life interests and adult roles.

In this context, early socialization is a strong determinant in developing the sex role attitudes that influence our adult behaviors. In the dual-career marital dyad, it is generally the female partner who makes concessions in her career development with interruptions for childbearing and childrearing (Poloma & Garland, 1971a, 1971b, 1980; Sales, 1978; Weingarten & Daniels, 1978). While drastic interruptions or forgoing a career may not occur, women may choose to follow a traditional course of action and to make career adjustments for the sake of her family, such as declining promotions and reducing hours (Bryson, et al., 1976; Holmstrom, 1972; Poloma & Garland, 1980).

The ability to combine the positive aspects of independence and dependence can be linked to the concept of androgyny (Gaddy, 1982; Gaddy, et al., 1983). The concept of androgyny and the dual-career family has been explored in several studies. For example, Gaddy (1982) studied the influence of sex role identity on the career involvement of professional women. Evidence indicated that masculine typed women experienced less career interruption and that the more egalitarian the marriage the more likely mothers were to continue their careers after having children (Gaddy, 1982). However, the investigation by Rotheram and Weiner (1983) on

androgyny and the dual-career relationship found little support that androgynous persons experienced less role overload. It has been theorized that when independent (linked to masculinity) and dependent (linked to femininity) behaviors are equally available to both partners a wider range of role flexibility is available (Rotherman & Weiner, 1983; Gaddy, 1982; Bem, 1974, 1976).

Sex Role Behavior in Dual-Career Marriages

When both partners want to achieve in their careers, it is unlikely that traditional sex role expectations will prove mutually satisfying, particularly if there are children present. Despite the distinctive dual commitment of both husband and wife in the dual-career family structure to their individual career pursuits, there are also distinct variations within this marital dyad with regard to work and family roles. In Peplau's (1983) classification of the dual-career couple, three types emerged: traditional, participant, and equalitarian. In the traditional dual-career marriage, the woman assumes the responsibility for family work and adds her career work to the familial role. (Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987; Gilbert, 1985; Peplau, 1983). In the participant type, the parenting role is shared by both spouses while the woman

retains responsibility for household duties. For this group, the dominance of the male role is muted and less extensive gender role specialization is evident. Couples in the equalitarian marriage are more actively involved in sharing economic, parental and household responsibilities than traditional or modern husbands and wives (Rachlin, 1987; Peplau, 1983; Pendleton, Poloma & Garland, 1980; Gilbert, 1985; Gilbert & Rachlin, 1987). However, several researchers have described this situation as the ideal rather than the common pattern among dual-career couples (Rachlin, 1987; Gilbert, 1985).

In a review of sex role literature, Scanzoni (1982, p. 751) pointed out that: a. working wives continue to have the primary responsibility for home and family; b. the husbands' participation in household tasks does not necessarily increase when wives' work; c. wives who work add more hours to their day for home and family maintenance tasks; d. less time is spent in housework (although it is unclear whether this is because of an efficiency increase or decrease or both); and e. there is an increase in the participation of older children in domestic tasks (Kreps & Leaper, 1976; Berk, et al., 1978; Hofferth & Moore, 1979). Scanzoni (1982) reported that the lack of participation of husbands in household tasks may be attributed to the sex role preferences.

Much of the literature on dual-career marriages draws upon sex role socialization at both the individual and societal levels to explain the dynamics that exists within this family structure (Bailyn, 1978; Pleck, 1977; Nicola, 1980; Gaddy, 1982). In her study of dual-career couples, Gaddy (1982, p. 13) reported that the "problem for the dual-career is that when sex role socialization has resulted in expectations that the man plays the breadwinner role and the woman plays the homemaker role, the realities of both partners assuming some aspects of each role, may be uncomfortable or awkward."

Social scientists have written about the traditional provider role validating a man's masculinity (Yankelovich, 1974; Pleck, 1977; Hiller & Philliber, 1982). In this regard, Hiller & Philliber (1982) contend that satisfaction for dual-career couples is related to the compatibility of gender identities of the spouses. Their research led to the development of a topology of marital relationship by cross classifying the gender identities of husbands and wives producing sixteen possible marriage types. Using this categorization, androgynous couples (both partners are androgynous) experienced more equilibrium in the relationship than other matched types. To illustrate, Hiller & Philliber (1980,1982) findings suggest that an androgynous person, male

or female, will not experience dissatisfaction when the wife's career achievements exceed those of the husband. Bem (1975) and Spence and Helmreich (1978) maintain that in gender or sex role identification, some persons may be strongly masculine or feminine or androgynous (high on both the masculine and feminine dimensions). Hiller and Philliber (1982, p. 57) stated that "for androgynous people, traditional gender roles are less important; but for the non-androgynous people, self esteem, ego strength and status itself may be integrally tied to the traditional gender role."

Hiller and Philliber's (1982) theory suggests that some couples are able to change their gender identities, make compensations or change their role expectations and self concepts to meet the social circumstances in which they find themselves and as a result are able to maintain marital equilibrium. The researchers noted however, that for the individuals who are either unable or find adaptation difficult, marital equilibrium and the wife's career may be jeopardized (Hiller & Philliber, 1982, p. 60). Similarly, Jorgensen and Klein (1979) in a study of heterogamous couples (couples of similar backgrounds) and hypogamous couples (those in which the husband marries up) found that the hypogamous couples were less likely to experience adaptation problems because of efforts they were already putting forth to

consciously overcome, or adapt to their background dissimilarities.

Burke and Weir (1976) reported that women who pursue outside employment are found to be more internally controlled and able to be less concerned about fulfilling needs for affection and inclusion (the need for belongingness) than housewives. Research further suggests that women are able to draw on traditionally masculine personality characteristics and who have a relatively egalitarian marriage, may have the flexibility necessary to pursue a career (Gaddy, 1982). Gaddy argues that women who are more traditional in their sex role identity or marriage may be expected to make greater career sacrifices for their family. On the other hand, Simpson and England (1981) suggested that involvement in career pursuits may keep women from becoming as involved in traditionally domestic and child rearing roles as they might otherwise be (Simpson & England, 1981).

Conflicting data exist regarding the extent to which husbands of working women share household and parenting responsibilities. Much of the research in this area agrees that women basically assume the additional role of provider without a commensurate reduction in the responsibility for the traditionally feminine, domestic and child rearing functions (Beckman & Houser, 1979; Bird & Bird & Scriggs,

1984; Maret & Finley 1984; Yogev, 1981; Scanzoni, 1980).

Yogev (1981) found that employed women expressed stronger preference than did unemployed women for more equalitarian roles, and less sex role specialization in both domestic and extra familial spheres.

Generally, education of both husbands and wives is positively related to sharing of family work roles, but may change depending on the husband's income (Smith & Reid, 1986). The higher the wife's education, the more likely housework and child care are to be shared (Ericksen et al., 1979; Haas, 1981, 1982). Also, husbands with lower education are less involved in housework than husbands with higher education (Farkas, 1976; Mortimer et al., 1978; Aldous et al., 1979; Model, 1982; Geerken & Gove, 1983). Other studies indicate that as the husbands' income goes up, he is less likely to participate in domestic work (Ericksen et al., 1979; Model, 1982). The wife's status and income relative to her husband's seems to be a key in these trends. Model (1982) found that the higher the wife's status relative to her husbands, the more likely she is to work and he to perform tasks at home. Therefore, it appears that higher education and the relatively equal incomes of husbands and wives are associated with greater sharing of family roles (Mortimer et al., 1978; Aldous et al., 1979; Model, 1981). It has also been noted that when

the higher education of the husband is combined with an egalitarian ideology more domestic role sharing is likely to occur (Perrucci, et al., 1978; Bird et al., 1984).

Socialization of the Black Family

While many socialization practices for white children apply to black children (e.g. parental expectations, parental teaching, childrearing practices), differences do exist. Several researchers attribute these differences to class socialization (Willie, 1981; Richmond-Abbott, 1983). Richmond-Abbott (1983, p. 99) states:

In the working class black home, sex roles may be handled in a somewhat different fashion from the middle class black home. For one thing, more adult models may be present with whom a young child can identify....Very young children are often watched closely until around the age of three or so, usually by the grandmother or other kin.... Older girls almost always have child and home care responsibilities, while boys are usually free from these. Boys and girls learn early that sex roles are divided in this way, although the older men may "help out."

Several research reports indicate that there are greater expectations for responsibility and independence for young black girls than their white counterparts (Staples, 1986; Richmond-Abbott, 1983). More specifically, black females are taught to depend upon themselves for future economic survival, and they may be encouraged in academics more than their

brothers (Richmond-Abbott, 1983, p. 100). Thus, young black females learn an androgynous conception of sex roles. She learns to be independent, capable and assertive while the young black male usually learns an exaggerated male stereotype (Richmond-Abbott, 1983, p. 100).

Most black marriages involve a wife who is more highly educated than her husband (Spanier & Lewis, 1980). In the dual-career black family however, both partners are generally college graduates. Staples (1985, p. 1011) indicated that black college educated women tend to have their children later and in smaller numbers than any other socio-economic or racial group in our society. The sex roles of the husband and wife have been shown to be more egalitarian than not in the black dual-career family (Staples, 1985; Willie, 1986; Ladner, 1972).

The Woman as Matriarch in the Black Family

A survey of literature on the Black family indicates that the matriarchal familial concept is not a new phenomenon; however, it is commonly misunderstood. According to Lerner (1972), the term itself is deceptive, since matriarchy implies the exercise of power by women, while black women have been among the most powerless groups in our society. Macmillan's

(1981, p. 578) dictionary defined matriarchy as "a form of society in which the woman is the head of a family or tribe, and descent is traced through the maternal line." Similarly, Margaret Mead (1949), as cited in Staples (1970, p. 9), viewed women as the leaders in society when she stated that a "matriarchy is a society in which some if not all of the legal powers relating to the ordering and governing of the family - power over property, over inheritance, over marriage, over the house, - are lodged in women rather than men." However, in rejecting the power associated with its definition, Goode (1964, p. 14) proposed that by definition "no matriarchy i.e. a society ruled by women is known to exist." Therefore, he contends that research assertions that black women are matriarchal are invalid.

The Moynihan Report (1965) fueled the matriarchal literature by claiming that the dominance of the black woman in the family was the reason for the many problems black families encountered in society. Contrary to this conceptualization of the black family, Staples (1970, p. 12) argues that:

what semblance of black female dominance that is found in our society can be traced to the persistent rate of unemployment among black males which prevents them from becoming the major economic support of the family.... Black males have suffered from irregularity of employment more than any other segment of American proletariat. Thus they have been placed in a weak economic position which prevents them from becoming steady providers for their family.... The net effect of this phenomena (sic) is in reality, not black female dominance but

greater economic deprivation for families deprived of the father's income.

Billingsley (1968, p. 362) asserted that it would be difficult to get an adequate description of Blacks or understand the role and future of Black people without looking more closely at the various structures and patterns existing in Black families in America. More specifically, Rainwater cited in Billingsley (1968, p. 362) stated "as long as Negroes have been in America, their marital and family patterns have been subjects of curiosity and amusement, moral indignation and self congratulation, puzzlement and frustration, concern and guilt on the part of white America." Hare and Hare (1970, p. 93) described the black female situation this way:

Ever since she first stepped off the slave ship, the black woman has occupied a peculiar position in American society, not only did she play a leading part in helping her race survive slavery she has had to be, under many circumstances and in many ways both male and female in the socioeconomic arena. For her efforts to compensate for her predicament, she has been labeled aggressive, or "matriarchal" by white scholars and castrating female by blacks.

The literature suggests that the characterization of the black woman as a more powerful figure in the family has been based on her participation in making major decisions and because she usually has more education than her mate (Staples, 1970, 1986). Ransford and Miller (1981) claim that the black working woman was essential to the survival of the family and that historically, she has worked longer, harder, and made a

more significant contribution to the household than have white women.

Balancing Career and Family

Sex role socialization dominates the literature as a prevailing factor influencing how women combine marriage, career, and family. Nicola (1980, p. 313) in a study of career and family roles of dual-career families maintains that there are three major sex role attitudes that were limitations for the women in her study:

1) Women's ambivalence to enter careers due to achievement anxiety;

2) The belief that husbands should excel or equal wives in intelligence and / or occupational status;

3) The belief that women must raise children to prove their femininity.

Other researchers have shown that sex role attitudes of spouses influence their roles and marital satisfaction. For example, Nicola's (1980) findings indicated that sex role modern husbands were more accepting of their wives high career commitment and were more willing to share in household and child care tasks.

Richmond-Abbott (1983) emphasizes that although there are several models to describe black families, upper and middle class black families are more similar to white families in their socialization. Despite this parallel she makes the distinction that in all black families a socialization occurs that must deal with being black in a predominantly white society.

The Impact of Children In The Dual-Career Family

The presence of children in the dual-career family greatly increases the complexities of familial and work roles particularly for mothers. Research has shown that the family is associated with low marital happiness or satisfaction, especially for the woman with young children (Spanier, 1976; Bryson, Bryson & Johnson, 1978; Spanier, Lewis, & Cole, 1975). Gaddy's (1982, p. 3) literature review suggested that the reasons for the detrimental impact of children on the marriage and the woman's multiple roles include "interference with the spouse's interaction, jealousy or competition for attention, childrearing disagreements or exacerbation of an already unsatisfactory marital relationship."

Johnson's and Johnson's (1977, 1980) study of the impact of children on dual career families indicated that the

professional woman still retained major responsibility in most areas of childrearing. Where children are involved it is generally, the professional woman more so than the husband, who has to make adjustments to meet the demands of parenting.

Husbands have been socialized to be the provider while many wives have been removed from the work sector because of what Safilios- Rothschild (1974, p. 18) calls the "motherhood cult." The motherhood cult has throughout history enslaved women more than all other beliefs and values (Safilios-Rothschild, 1974). The idea that only children brought up with twenty four hours per day care by their natural mothers can have a normal development have cut women off from a large number of educational occupational political and social options.

Rice (1979) has suggested that the area of childrearing provides the greatest set of societal expectations working against the dual-career lifestyles. In recent studies on the career development of women in dual-career families, the presence of children has been a significant factor (Poloma & Garland, 1980; Weingarten & Daniels, 1978; Yohalem, 1979).

For example, Weingarten's (1978) study of dual career couples with similar and dissimilar employment histories suggested that social conditioning of men and women impacts on the distribution of their involvement in work in the home.

Thus, "couples negotiate with each other so that wives consciously and unconsciously take on the child care tasks as a means of 'compensation' for their hours away from home, and husbands work consciously so that they do include the tasks that are less threatening to their masculine selves" (Weingarten, 1978, p. 51).

Duvall's (1971, p. 54) model of the eight stages of the family life cycle (see Table 1, P. 45) has been used as a framework for several studies of dual career families. Poloma and Garland (1980) employed Duvall's (1971) paradigm to discuss the career pattern of his dual-career woman, while Gaddy (1982) used it to study the impact of children on dual career families. Poloma & Garland (1980) reported that the women in Duvall's (1971) first stage (married couples without children or women who had remained childless) did not report a significant change to their career progression due to marriage. The career paths of these women closely resemble those of their male counterparts. For families in the second stage and third stages in Duvall's (1971) framework (childbearing families with pre-school children), Poloma et al. (1981) reported that most of the women experienced less career involvement because of time and energy spent for child-

Table 1

Duvall's (1971) Eight Major Stages of the Family Life Cycle

Stage	
1.	Beginning families (married couples without children)
2.	Childbearing families (oldest child birth - 30 months)
3.	Families with preschool children (oldest child 30 months 6 years)
4.	Families with school age children (oldest child 6-13 years)
5.	Families with teenagers (oldest child 13-20 years)
6.	Families as launching centers (first child gone to last child leaving home)
7.	Families in middle years (empty nest to retirement)
8.	Aging families (retirement of both spouses)

Note. From Family development (p. 54) by E. Duvall, 1971, Philadelphia: J.P. Lippincott. Adapted by permission.

rearing. The women who continued full-time employment still found the need to eliminate travel, research, and other professionally related pursuits in which they had previously participated (Poloma, Pendleton, & Garland, 1981).

The influence of education in the career process was explored by Astin (1967) in a longitudinal study that concluded women with doctoral degrees experienced less career interruptions for childbearing and childrearing (median = 4 months out). Waite (1976) however, found that there were no significant differences for highly educated women with regard to career interruptions attributed to parenting roles.

One study looked at how the husband's degree of participation in household and child care activities inhibited or facilitated the wife's participation in a career. Perrucci, et al., (1978, p. 63) in a study of male family role performance found strong support for their socialization ideology hypothesis, that is, "a husband's performance behavior results from an acquired belief that he should not assist with household tasks." The socialization-ideology hypothesis posits that the household division of labor depends upon the nature of sex-role ideology acquired by women and men as children and adults. Accordingly, the prescribed traditional sex-role ideology for household work and child care has been considered the major role of married women, not men (Bem,

1970; Poloma & Garland, 1971c, 1980).

Career Commitment and the Relationship of Achievement and Success in the Dual-Career Family

For decades, researchers have argued that career commitments differ in men and women due to their childhood socialization experiences (Parsons, 1964; Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1976). Through gender-role socialization males are prepared for dominant work role participation in the labor force while women are generally socialized to see their role as supportive. "They were socialized to develop nurturant qualities which would provide their husband with a home atmosphere to retreat from the turmoil of business and to encourage men to great achievements" (Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1976).

With the advent of women in the labor force and many pursuing careers that traditionally were held by men, research on the career achievement of women has gained momentum. Further review of the literature in the area of achievement and success illustrates the depth of its inculcation into the American value system (Williams, 1970). Success has been labeled as one of the measures of an individual's self worth and personal merit in our society (Peterson et al.,

1978). Williams (1970, p. 454-456) in his analysis points out:

The comparatively striking feature of American culture is its tendency to identify standards of personal excellence with competitive occupational achievement... [however] The value attached to achievement does not comprehend the person as a whole but only his accomplishments, emphasizing the objective results of activity.

McClelland's (1967) pioneering work in early studies of achievement motivation quite naturally focused on men, and white middle class men, in particular. Some literature has been directed towards women and their achievement orientation. Several investigations revealed that women differed significantly from men in their achievement behavior. For example, Horner (1974) proposed that many people, particularly women, have a motive to avoid success because they expect negative consequences which might include such feelings as being unfeminine, or being socially rejected by men. She concluded that this is more characteristic of women because men and women experience different patterns of socialization. Additionally, Horner et al. (1974, p. 139) stated that "women still tend to view competition, independence, and leadership as basically in conflict with femininity."

Peterson (1978) found that women in the dual-career family extend the traditional concept of femininity and the male provider role by including work achievement motivation in her perception of self. She explained:

Both members of two-career families are achievement oriented. Had they not been, they would not have pursued professionally oriented roles and careers. The choice of these roles initially required a strong commitment to pursue the necessary training and acceptance of the value of differed gratification. The major adjustment that both the male and female career-oriented individuals have to face is combining career aspirations with family aspirations. (Peterson, 1978, p. 126)

To this end, Peterson (1978, p. 128) suggests that both partners in the dual-career structure "understand the cultural background for their aspirations and define its implications in the context of a family where the participants derive maximum satisfaction in their various roles."

In relation to black women, Willie's (1981, p. 11) research on the black family suggests that middle class black families in America, probably more than any other population group, manifests a work ethic that is "very consuming." He further points out that while women in our society face occupational barriers because of their sex, the black female not only faces sex discrimination but the added burden of race discrimination.

Wessman (1978) reported that Vernoff's et al., (1975) study of motivation found women lower than men in assertive competence, higher in the hope of success, and lower in the fear of failure. No differences were found however, between the sexes on task competence. The researchers concluded:

Women are explicitly taught to value achievement only under circumscribed settings. They do not especially learn to value assertive competence above other goals,

but they do learn to value task competence. Furthermore, if women are put in a constrained setting where achievement is clearly relevant, they evidently anticipate gratification in successful performance more than men do and are not as inhibited by potential failure as men are. (Vernoff, 1975, p. 187-188)

Other researchers also argue in support of the socialization dichotomy of men and women. Prather (1971) posited that a career for a man is like motherhood for a woman. According to Wessman (1978, p. 138), achievement and career success is "a reflection of the dominant attitudes and behavior of the American middle class male, with certain allowances of the middle class female." Therefore, he attributes to this sociological perspective, the unequal, often inferior, status for married women interested in pursuing a career.

Malmaud (1984), in a study of life cycles and the dual-career family, suggests that age is an important factor influencing occupational roles. She reported that the twenties was a period for obtaining degrees and starting careers while the thirties focused on combining career and familial goals.

Work and Family Roles in the Dual-Career Family

Study after study on the division of family and work roles within the home have shown little change in the

husband's behavior when wives participate in the work force (e.g. Walker & Woods, 1976; Robinson, 1977; Nickols & Metzen, 1982; Geerken & Gove, 1983). A review of relevant literature suggests that for the most part, wives continue to do most of the cooking, housework, and child care for their families (Masnick & Bane, 1980). Pleck's (1979) research findings showed that the employed wives spend less time on house and leisure activities than non-employed wives. Vanek (1980) reported a marked division of household task by sex with men tending to perform yard work, home repairs, shopping on household errands, and to a limited degree child care, while wives were responsible for routine home and family care, which includes such tasks as meal preparation, and clean-up, laundry, mending and care of children. According to Vanek (1980), the only tasks divided somewhat equally were shopping, travel and household errands.

Additionally, other studies support the view that wives still do more in the areas of housework and child care and that the activities involved in performing these roles are sex segregated (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Lopata, 1971; Poloma, Pendleton & Garland, 1980; Rapoport & Rapport, 1971b, 1976; Weingarten, 1978; Robinson, 1977; Pleck, 1979; Vanek, 1980; - Bryson & Bryson, & Johnson, 1978; Geerken & Gove, 1983). Despite the vast number of studies in support of the inequity

in family roles, there are variations in the findings depending on the chores or tasks used by the researchers.

Haas (1980, p. 289) summed up the research on allocation of family roles among dual-career couples when she stated that "while the wife is committed to a career, her basic family responsibilities typically remain intact and her husband's career has precedence over hers."

Whether wives want a more equal division of family roles is unclear. In describing some of the techniques that the professional women in her dual-career study used to facilitate balancing their multiple roles, Poloma (1972) indicated that seeking help from her family was not identified as one of them. Similarly, the female paradox found in Yogev's (1981, p. 868) study revealed that "it was important for them to have this unfair division so it will enable a wife to feel that she is the mother in the family."

Research findings indicate that the maternal role is the dual-career woman's Achilles' heel (Smith & Reid, 1986; Yogev, 1981). Role conflict among professional women is due primarily to guilt from perceived neglect of the female parenting role (Johnson & Johnson, 1977; Gilbert et al., 1981). In support of this view, Heckman (1977, p. 328) concluded that "women often fit their careers around children and husbands because they believe the children will suffer if

they do not have their mother's care."

Historically, society, researchers and clinicians have placed an inordinate importance on motherhood, mothering, to the point of delimiting the father's role in child care. It appears that this motherhood phenomenon is still seen by many women as part of the female psyche and a source of tremendous satisfaction and gratification. Therefore, as Hoffman (1983) suggests, sharing mothering with the husband may be threatening to mothers and lead to a loss of autonomy and control of the intrinsic value placed on the mother-child relationship. Studies on the effects of maternal employment on children (e.g. Zimmerman & Bernstein, 1983) however, have concluded that the mother's employment status per se, seems to have limited influence on children's development and adjustment. Despite behavior to the contrary, more and more women appear to be moving in the direction of egalitarianism in their attitudes about family roles than men (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976; Sexton, 1979; Lopata et al., 1980).

With regard to social class, conflicting research exists. Some findings indicate that working class or lower income husbands do less housework than middle class husbands (Schneider & Smith, 1973; Oakley, 1974a, 1974b), while other research literature presents an opposite view (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Ericksen et al., 1979). Several studies have found that

black husbands participate more in housework than white husbands do (Farkas, 1976; Ericksen et al., 1979; Maret & Finley, 1984; Model, 1982; Beckett & Smith, 1981). An opposing view of this comparison is revealed in the work of Pleck (1983) and Blood and Wolfe (1960) and indicates that white men do more than their black male counterparts.

Role Interchangeability in the Dual-Career Marriage

After the Industrial Revolution, the work place became separated from the home for men and women and prescribed attitudes about what constituted men's work and what was women's work became more pronounced. According to Chafe (1977), it was at this time that the activities of women divided sharply along class and ethnic lines. While white middle class women became homemakers, black and immigrant women entered the labor market to help support the family (Smith & Reid, 1986). Wives were generally seen as temporary workers and took jobs that would permit them to continue fulfilling their primary roles as mother and homemaker (Tentler, 1977) Thus, the normative behavior for men and women work roles was determined by the middle class, with the woman remaining in the home and the husband was the economic provider for the family.

With the women's movement came a rapid increase of female participation in the labor force - many were white middle class educated women both single and married. The literature indicates that work outside the home was not a new experience for black, immigrant, and poor white wives and that they had already found it difficult to follow prescribed sex role behaviors.

The Rapoport (1969, 1971) were among the first to explore the concept of role sharing among dual-career couples. Role sharing represents the extent to which each partner participates equally in the economic as well as in areas of tasks and child care. This egalitarian view, however, runs counter to the traditional family theory. With the concept of role sharing comes increased autonomy for both sexes, especially women (Scanzoni, 1979; Smith & Reid, 1986).

Some dual-career researchers have found a pattern among dual-career couples in which the husband assumes some of the domestic and child care responsibilities that traditionally belonged to their wives (Dizard, 1968; Bailyn, 1970; Holmstrom, 1972; Bahr, 1974; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969, 1971, 1976). Yogev (1981) found evidence in these studies to support role interchangeability of tasks and for distributing household labor according to availability, skill, interest, and employment rather than solely by sex. He points out

however, it would be unrealistic to conclude that shifts in familial roles even for the dual-career couple is widespread. Research still maintains that women have most of the responsibility for the domestic and child care roles.

Role sharing or role interchangeability in the dual-career marriage departs from the traditional notion that calls for specialized functions for husbands and wives. While it offers couples the opportunity to cross over traditional sex role boundaries, role interchangeability does not totally wavier the traditions of the marital union or of the family unit. Instead, "it offers a pathway to highly independent relationships" (Smith & Reid, 1986, p. 191).

Nicola (1980) found evidence of role interchangeability in her study of dual-career families. The data from this study suggest that the more husbands share in housework and child care, the lower their own career achievements. Nicola (1980) and Ericksen, et al., (1979) offer findings that suggest when a wife has higher education and occupational status than her husband, the more likely she is to share in the provider role and alternately, the more her husband is willing to share in housework and child care.

When it comes to performing tasks or chores that are traditionally male in nature (e.g. household repairs) wives who are more successful outside the home in their occupational

environment are likely to assume responsibility for such tasks (Nicola,1980). Scanzoni (1975a, 1975b) concludes that women who find themselves in two traditionally male roles (e.g. provider and household repairs) are more likely to see themselves as more instrumental or task oriented, active, competitive, and aggressive (traditionally masculine sex role characteristics).

Scanzoni (1978) distinguishes rights and duties in the dual-career marriage. While duties are socially recognized and often carry negative sanctions if not performed, rights on the other hand, carry strong individual commitment; however, this commitment may not have strong societal support. For example, a wife may feel it is her right to work, but few would punish her if she did not, whereas, a husband has by custom and law the duty to provide for his family. Scanzoni (1978) theorizes that "until the continuum of work definitions for a wife moves from option, to right, to duty, i.e. when she is seen as a co-provider with her husband, only then will household and child care duties be equally shared" (Nicola, 1980, p. 178). To this end, Scanzoni (1979, p. 440) suggests that men and women should be free to form interdependent relationships in matters of love, sex, marriage, parenting, and so on to achieve "maximum joint profit."

Gaddy (1982, p. 4) defined role interdependence as "the ability to shift on a daily basis from an independent to a dependent position allowing the individual to alternate responsibility and advancement." Although this practice would provide an equitable distribution of responsibilities and rewards between the dual-career husband and wife, however, Gaddy (1982) found that situations may occur that require both partners to simultaneously exercise dependence (i.e. in case of crisis) or independence (i.e. different work schedules, traveling).

Further, Smith and Reid (1986, p. 5) suggest that:

dependency on the opposite sex should not be a requirement to achieve important life goals. Thus, a woman should not have to depend on a man for economic support because she is a woman. Nor is a man obligated to depend on a woman to provide necessary care for his children.

They support interdependency and contend that "equal partners are not constrained to follow any particular course but are free to determine the shape and conditions of these interdependencies" (Smith & Reid, 1986, p. 5). Based on this framework, husbands and wives are not bound by traditional sex role orientations.

Smith and Reid (1986, p. 6) further characterized the black family as having "flexible and interchangeable role definitions and performance." However, they observed that in childrearing a clear distinction is maintained between role

definition considered to be sex linked and role performance which is not sex linked. Wilkinson (1984) noted that although both spouses assume appropriate parenting behaviors, mothers are the fulcrum around which household functions revolve. Early research suggests that in black middle income families there appears to be a synthesis or blending of spousal and occupational roles with decision making being a joint responsibility (Staples, 1970).

Both Nye (1976) and Scanzoni (1976) presented the social exchange theory to explain marital roles. The Scanzonis (1976) focused on the instrumental roles (i.e. provider, performer of household tasks, decision maker) and the expressive roles (i.e. physical love/sex, empathy, companionship) in their study. In her literature review, Nicola (1980, p. 180) maintains that unless a wife has tangible resources (income, education, social status), egalitarian norms would not be realized. She suggests that without these resources wives will be in a more difficult position to negotiate provider or decision maker roles with their husbands (Nicola, 1980).

The role sharing marriage may, in fact, promote familial interaction. Nicola (1980) suggests greater need for communication between couples because of the duality that exists due to work and family commitments.

Equity and Equality in the Distribution of Family Work

In 1988, 57.1% of married women with children under 6 and 72.5% of married women with children between the ages of 6 and 17 were in the labor force (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1989). For nearly three decades, a plethora of research has focused on the pluralism of career and family roles of women in dual career families. A review of literature in this area however, points to a growing recognition that this is no longer simply a women's issue or problem, but one that has important implications for husbands and children as well (Gregg, 1986).

According to a 1989 Gallup Poll, the view that men have it better than women dominates. Twenty-two percent believed that women have it better and 21 percent believed men and women have a similar quality of life (Table 2, p. 61). DeStefano and Colasanto (1990, p. 1) cited Dr. Pepper Schwartz (professor of sociology at the University of Washington) in a recent news article. Schwartz suggests that women need a new criterion for success. She proposed that "if women want to be successful at work, they can't handle too many family

Table 2

Gallop Poll Survey of Attitudes on Equality and Gender

Are Job Opportunities Equal for Men and
Women?

Year	Yes	No	Don't know
1975	48%	48%	4%
1989	42%	56%	2%

Who Has a Better Life in this Country Men or
Women?

Year	Men	Women	Same	Don't Know
1975	32%	28%	31%	9%
1989	49%	22%	21%	8%

Note. From "Americans Think Men Have it Better" by L. DeStefano and D. Colasanto, 1990, The Richmond News Leader, February, 11.

Gallop poll results are based on telephone interviews with a randomly selected national sample of 1,234 adults (18 and older) conducted December 18-21, 1989 by the Gallop Organization.

responsibilities. And if they want to be like the mothers they had, they can't spend too much energy on the job. Men have only one theatre - their job - in which they have to shine." Among those polled, 52 percent of all couples reported that the woman does more of the household chores. Men and women have different views about how housework is shared in their relationships. From the male perspective, just under half (46 percent) of all couples share equally in housework and 53 percent of working women say they do the majority of the household chores (Gallop Organization, 1989). Evidence indicates there is a division of housekeeping and child care in accordance with traditional sex stereotyping (Beckman & Houser, 1979; Berk & Berk, 1978; Yogev, 1981).

The concept of equity refers to a feeling of fairness derived from an individual's perception of the overall balance of rewards and constraints in a relationship (Rachlin, 1987). According to Rachlin (1987), equity recognizes the importance of the element of fairness rather than conditions that represent equality. Therefore, equitable relationships may entail inequality of conditions at times (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975). Rachlin (1987) contends that equity differs from equality in the explanation of how reward allocation affects relationship satisfaction. The equity theory predicts that individuals who are in unequitable relationships will be

dissatisfied over time (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978). Hertz (1986) reported that although marriage shapes to some degree the individual careers of spouses, ultimately careers have relatively more effect in altering the traditional roles of the husband and wife.

Martin (1985) suggested that married couples minimize equity and equality comparison and instead rely on perceptions of individual reward levels in determining relationship satisfactions. Reward level, when viewed as independent of equity and equality, appears to be a significant factor affecting satisfaction within intimate exchanges.

Family and marital literature on the dual-career family have proposed that the distribution of family work is one of the most critical issues dual-career couples face (Rice, 1979; Yogev, & Brett, 1985). The increased importance of wives earnings to successful family functioning supports the ideology that a wife who works has the right to expect more from her husband at home (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975).

Other researchers have challenged whether husbands' participation in wives' traditional domains (housekeeping & child care) has, in fact, increased and if so, what impact these changes have had on family structure and gender roles. Weingarten & Daniels (1978), for example, found that although couples negotiated a division of labor that allowed wives to

compensate for the time they spent away from the home, a number of men still chose not to do housework because it threatened their masculinity. Yogev (1981), in a study of female academic professionals reported that the women themselves did not want to change the traditional aspects of their lives; that is they continued to assume most of the responsibilities for child care and housework. Yet, these women perceived themselves and their husbands as equals. Yogev (1981) concluded that these women were undergoing role expansion, adding new responsibilities without relinquishing old ones rather than role redefinition.

Holmstrom (1972) concluded that while a career for a married woman may have helped diminish slightly the extent of inequality traditionally associated with marital roles, her status as a woman and as a wife continued to act as a major obstacle to marital equality. The research of Hertz (1985) on dual-career couples in corporate organizations, a decade after Holmstrom (1972), demonstrated a greater degree of equality in terms of household chores, marital decision making and career evaluation. Hertz (1985) attributes the contrast to the decade separating the couples; a decade in which the woman's movement evolved and women in the job market continued to increase. Further, Hertz (1985) proposes that couples work to achieve parity. One husband in her study revealed that

communication was a critical ingredient to this end: " if one of us thinks the other one is not doing what they should be doing overall, he has to come out and say it, and she has got to tell me as well" (Hertz, 1985, p. 66).

Scanzoni (1979) theorized that employed wives who exhibit an egalitarian sex role orientation are more likely to be career oriented and thus, are more likely to negotiate for equity in the division of family tasks. He postulated:

Once involved in their occupations, sex role orientation may have motivated them to perform at a higher level (i.e. work harder) which in turn, may have resulted in more rapid advancement....If their husbands did participate more fully in chores then that situation would probably "release" women to make greater inputs into and receive greater benefits from their occupations (Scanzoni, 1979, p. 796-797).

Still other researchers caution against considering only the wife's sex role orientation as a predictor variable pointing that husbands also experience contradictions between expectations regarding sex roles (Nicola, 1980; Rachlin, 1987). Mortimer, et al., (1978) expressed the belief that having an egalitarian sex role orientation increases husbands expectations for sharing family roles, even though their employment role demands make the synchronization of employment and family responsibilities difficult (Stafford, et al., 1977). Perrucci et al., (1978) and Scanzoni (1978) propose utilization of sex role orientation as a variable associated

with the husband's participation in family work. Both researchers agree that the husbands' participation in familial tasks increases to some extent when the wife has a career. Consequently, marriage to career-oriented wives has been associated with more sharing of family work such as child care, meal preparation, and cleaning (Walker & Woods, 1976; Robinson, 1977, 1980).

For the most part, the dual-career marriage is an extension of the asymmetrical marital structure which exists in virtually all societies, that is, there are unequal or inequitable exchanges with men receiving higher overall individual rewards/resources (Safilios-Rothschild, 1978). Therefore, husbands and wives who accept the asymmetric assumption may view inequitable and unequal marital exchanges as perfectly acceptable and as a result, attribute little importance to unequal distribution of roles when assessing relationship satisfaction (Martin, 1985). Alternately, the acceptance of a symmetrical assumption, equal distribution of rewards and resources, increases movement towards a more equitable or egalitarian division of power and resources within the relationship (Martin, 1975). Consequently, as one moves from traditional to modern on a gender-role continuum, the acceptance of asymmetry should decrease, and more emphasis should be placed upon exchange related comparisons involving

equity and equality (Scanzoni, 1979). Scanzoni's findings demonstrated that the effects of equity and equality should be greater for modern than for traditional dual career couples.

The Rapoport (1971a, 1976) concluded that the dual-career marriage has the potential for greater equality in task performance and in responsibility for each spouse. These conclusions are based on research investigating the division of labor in dual-career families, which found that husbands had assumed more responsibility for household chores and child care (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976; Dizard, 1968, 1972; Bailyn, 1970).

The Effect of Race on Household Division of Family Work

The effect of race on household division of family work is unclear, although race tends to be an important factor in many roles. Willie (1981, p. 48) argues that for most black families, particularly middle and upper class, "few if any functions, including cooking, cleaning, and shopping are considered to be the exclusive prerogative of the husband or the wife."

In a comparative study of black and white families, Willie (1986) used race and gender to determine whether black

2families varied in role adaptations and functional relationships. On the basis of the data analysis, for black families, particularly two parent households, an egalitarian pattern emerged. Willie's (1986) evidence depicted a structure in which neither husband or wife was fully in charge but one that required cooperative behavior between spouses for family finances , child care, and household responsibilities. According to Willie (1986), egalitarian approaches in the black dual career family, not only encourage greater participation in family affairs, but influence family values and aspirations of offspring. Other family theorists contend that sex role segregation is less pronounced in the black family (Staples, 1986, 1976; Willie, 1986; Billingsley, 1968). Staples (1985, 1986) suggests that within the black nuclear family there is a fluid interchange of both instrumental (i.e.economic support) and expressive (i.e. domestic and emotional) roles between husbands and wives. He stated that "it was out of the harsh economic conditions of the late nineteenth century that a certain equalitarianism developed within black families and the sharp dichotomy between male and female roles, so common to Antebellum Southern white families, failed to develop" (Staples, 1986, p. 7).

Similarly, Maret and Finley (1984) found that after adjustment for the effects of income and residence, black

women still had lower levels of home responsibility than white women. This argument tends to support Willie (1981) and to contradict the earlier results of Blood and Wolfe (1960) that found white husbands had more household responsibility. Maret and Finley (1985) concluded that the more equal a spouse's perception of his own or the partner's share in the distribution of family work the greater marital satisfaction will be experienced.

Pleck (1979, 1983) also found that men's time in the family usually increase when wives work, but added that the same was found to exist for husbands whose wives do not work.

Conceptual Framework for Analyzing the Dual-Career Family

The conceptual frame for this study relies heavily on that proposed by Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1976) and Nicola (1980). In their view, marriage among dual-career couples becomes an exchange process with each partner having certain "rights and duties":

...marriage exist when two or more persons maintain ongoing instrumental and expressive exchanges. The expressive or person-oriented dimension includes sexual gratification, but it may also include other elements such as companionship (someone to do things with, joint participation in leisure activities) and empathy (someone to listen and talk to, someone who understands and cares). The instrumental or task oriented dimension of marriage includes economic behaviors (earning and spending income) and the performance of necessary household tasks (Scanzoni, 1976, p. 110).

The dual-career family, while maintaining the nuclear family form-father, mother, and children, breaks with traditional view of men as providers and women as housewives and mothers for the view that both men and women can pursue individual careers while maintaining a family life together (Rapoport and Rapport, 1971a, 1971b).

Husbands in the last two decades began to recognize the needs and desires of their wives, although the resources and authority was still in their domain. According to Scanzoni (1976), when the woman began to work outside the home, she became a "junior partner", subordinating her role to the husband as the primary provider conflicting evidence from Blood and Wolfe (1960).

In Scanzoni and Scanzoni's (1976) "equal partner" model there is equal commitment to each partner, shared decision making, and interchangeability with respect to provider and domestic roles. As the number of dual career couples struggle to balance career commitments with family life, traditional view of male and female roles will continue to be questionable. The dominant role of the male in our society and in the family contributes to male resistance to a more egalitarian marriage structure - hence resistance in the dual career family structure.

To this end Scanzoni (1980, p. 127), stresses that "the primary contingency in an equal partner marriage is that of role interchangeability which implies that if both spouses hold the right to be achievers, or maintain extensive occupational involvement then both have the responsibility to be household providers."

Scanzoni (1975a) found that husband's income was the strongest predictor of the wife's economic satisfaction and her level of economic satisfaction was a strong indicator of her marital satisfaction as measured by the degree of empathy (communication and understanding). He concluded that the reverse should hold for the husband (i.e. husband gaining economic satisfaction from the wife's career which would include his understanding/empathy towards her). Thus, Scanzoni and Scanzoni (1976, p. 131) posit that "as more marriages follow the equal partner premise, marital communication will be enhanced because of the strengthened circuits of the marital exchange process."

Scanzoni's (1976) "equal partner" model reduces the role domains of the female partner. He contends that the couples most likely to be the least sex role typed are also the most highly educated and from higher socioeconomic background (Scanzoni, 1975b; Brogan and Kunter, 1976).

Within this broad framework, several general questions arise that will be addressed in this study. How demographic factors influence career commitment for male and female partners in dual career families? Second, to what extent does role interchangeability exist in the marital relationship in the instrumental area (e.g. career commitment, household tasks decision making. Thirdly, what is the relationship of the marital equity and sex role identity of black dual-career couples to the career commitment of the wife?

Summary of Chapter

The review of the literature relevant to dual-career families presented a definition and overview of its inherent complexes and challenges. The emergence of sex role attitudes was discussed with regard to sex role behavior in dual-career marriages. A survey of literature concerning the socialization of the black family and the controversy over the matriarchal concept of the woman's role in the black family was presented. Further synthesis of the literature revealed research relevant to how men and women adjust to parenting and work roles. The shift of the traditional male and female role in the dual-career was explained in a number of studies. Several looked specifically at how husbands participate in household and

child care activities.

With the number of dual-career couples increasing, a review of literature in the area of achievement and success offered insight into the perceived differences between men and women. This chapter reported on the significance of marital equity and its relevance to the dual-career couple. A review of research that centered on race and gender and the black dual-career family was also presented. The conceptual framework of the study provided a schematic for interpreting findings. The chapter also provided a foundation for development of the demographic variables: age, income, education, and children.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS

This chapter describes the method for completing this study. Specifically, this chapter presents a description of the population and sample, research design, instrumentation, procedure for collecting and analyzing the data.

Population and Sample

Population

The population for this study was the 55 graduate chapters in the Mid-Atlantic region of Alpha Kappa Alpha (AKA) Sorority Inc. The A K A International Membership Directory (1988) for the predominantly black sorority was used to secure a listing of all of the graduate chapters in the Mid-Atlantic region. This region included graduate chapters located in North Carolina and Virginia. Only urban locations were targeted for this study. The Virginia Department of Economic Development was used to secure a listing of the urban areas in Virginia and the North Carolina Office of State Budget and Management was used to determine the urban areas in North

Carolina. Counties and municipalities with populations over 40,000 were identified, and as a result, 13 urban areas were selected in Virginia (Table 3, p. 76) and 12 urban areas in North Carolina (Table 4, p. 77) were selected to obtain graduate chapter membership lists with regard to study requirements. The researcher targeted urban centers because of the potential for greater numbers of dual-career couples and larger graduate sorority chapter memberships.

The presidents of each of the urban graduate chapters were contacted to provide the researcher with the names of members who met the criteria established for study participants. Tables 5 and 6 (see pp. 78-79) show a summary of the Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority Inc. graduate chapters' dual-career couples who were mailed survey packets and the number of respondents who returned their survey packets.

The criteria established for study participants included women who were married, between the ages of 25-55, and had at least one child. The researcher chose to include only couples with children because it was felt the presence of children intensified issues and pressures related to the sex roles of couples in the dual-career family structure. Also, since a majority of couples aged 25-55 do have children, studying couples with children provided data applicable to this majority.

TABLE 3

Virginia Index of Independent Cities of Populations Over
40,000 With Alpha Kappa Alpha Graduate Chapters

City	Population*
Alexandria	103,217
Cheasapeake	144,486
Danville	45,642
Hampton	122,617
Lynchburg	66,743
Newport News	144,903
Norfolk	266,979
Petersburg	41,055
Portsmouth	104,577
Richmond	219,214
Roanoke	100,220
Suffolk	47,621
Virginia Beach	262,199

Note. * based on 1980 U. S. census data for Virginia.

Table 4

North Carolina Municipal Populations Over 40,000 With
Alpha Kappa Alpha Graduate Chapters

City	Population *
Asheville	60,429
Charlotte	388,995
Durham	121,111
Fayetteville	73,043
Gastonia	54,606
Greensboro	184,098
Greenville	43,130
High Point	67,060
Raleigh	213,879
Rocky Mount	49,191
Wilmington	55,458
Winston Salem	150,246

Note. * data based on 1980 U. S. census data for North Carolina.

Table 5

The Number of Dual-Career Couples in Virginia Who Received Survey Packets and the Number of Survey Packets Returned

City	Packets Mailed	Survey Packets Returned			
		Couples	Males	Females	Total
Alexandria	15	5	1	3	14
Chesapeake	6	5	5	0	10
Danville	8	2	0	0	4
Hampton	27	12	1	0	25
Lynchburg	8	4	0	0	8
Newport News	9	5	0	0	10
Petersburg	4	2	0	0	4
Portsmouth	25	9	0	1	19
Richmond	20	14	2	4	33
Roanoke	12	8	0	0	16
Suffolk	7	4	0	0	8
Virginia Beach	7	3	1	0	7
Total	148	73	5	8	159

Note. The 159 husbands and wives who returned surveys represent 53.7% of the 148 packets mailed to couples in Virginia (5 packets were returned). A total of 200 surveys were mailed to respondents in Virginia and North Carolina.

TABLE 6

The Number of Dual-Career Couples in North Carolina Who Received Survey Packets and the Number of Survey Packets Returned

City	Packets Mailed	Survey Packets Returned			
		Couples	Males	Females	Total
Asheville	5	1	0	0	2
Charlotte	19	9	1	0	19
Fayetteville	6	3	0	0	6
Gastonia	20	5	0	0	10
Greensboro	36	10	1	2	23
Greenville	5	3	0	1	7
Rocky Mount	4	1	0	0	2
Wilmington	7	3	0	0	6
Total	102	35	2	3	75

Note. The 75 husbands and wives returning surveys represent 36.5% of the 102 packets mailed to couples in North Carolina (4 packets were returned). A total 200 surveys were mailed to respondents in North Carolina and Virginia.

Sampling

According to Kerlinger (1973, p. 118), "sampling is taking any portion or universe as representative of that population or universe." Therefore, a systematic sample was drawn from the study population by drawing every third person until 200 were chosen.

Chadwick, Bahr, and Albrecht (1984, p. 69) stated that if samples "are drawn correctly, results from the study of samples will accurately represent the wider population from which the samples were drawn." They also suggest that the process of sampling reduces the time and money required to conduct social research.

Cohen et al. (1976) maintain that with a population of 1000 a sample size of 200 was appropriate. He further stated that there is an 89 percent chance of finding a significant correlation if the actual correlation is .2. Consequently, a sample size of 200 (200 women and their husbands) was selected for this study.

Research Design

A survey research design was used in this study. Kerlinger (1973) pointed out that survey research studies

rarely study whole populations, but rather infer the characteristics of the defined population from the samples drawn. Further, it was noted that survey research methods may be used for hypothesis testing. According to Kerlinger (1973, p. 411), the nature of survey research is revealed by the nature of its variables, which can be classified as sociological facts and opinions and attitudes that represent attributes of individuals e.g. sex, income, education, age, race, etc.

Ary et al. (1979, p. 133) stated that:

Surveys can be used not only for describing existing conditions but also for comparing these conditions with predetermined criteria or for evaluating the effectiveness of programs. Surveys can also be used to study relationships or test hypotheses.

Kerlinger (1973, p. 236) however, cautioned that:

Although the approach and techniques of survey research can be used on any set of objects that can be well defined, survey research focuses on people, vital facts of people, and their beliefs, opinions, attitudes, motivations, and behavior.

Instrumentation

Ary et al. (1979) reported that questionnaires are identified as structured or unstructured. "A structured questionnaire contains the questions and alternative answers to them" (Ary et al., 1979, p. 175). Borg (1963, p. 206)

reported: "open-form questions yield many unusable replies because of inadequate information or misinterpretation of the questions by the subjects." The structured questionnaire was used to develop the three instruments used in this study (Nicola, 1980; Bem, 1974).

Demographic Questionnaire

A confidential demographic questionnaire was developed to gather relevant personal, family, and career information (Appendix A). Questions were asked relevant to the research such as continuity of employment after children, education, ages of children, and background information. Each instrument was coded for follow-up purposes.

Sex Role Identity Scale

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) was used to measure sex role preference (Bem, 1974). The BSRI (Appendix B) has been validly structured with masculinity and femininity as two separate orthogonal continua (Spence, 1978). The Original Form of the Inventory was used and consists of 20 personality characteristics judged "more desirable in American society for a man than for a woman (e.g., ambitious, dominant, self-

reliant)", 20 characteristics judged "more desirable for a woman than for a man (e.g., affectionate, gentle, understanding)" and 20 social desirability terms that are sex role neutral (e.g., likable, helpful, truthful) (Bem, 1974, p. 635). A person's responses to each of the sixty items are measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale from "never or almost never true to "always or almost always true" (Bem, 1974).

On each scale individual item scores were summed and a mean score calculated to produce a score for masculinity and femininity. The Femininity score is the mean of the respondent's ratings on the feminine adjectives, and the Masculinity score is the mean of the respondent's ratings on the masculine adjectives. As part of the standard scoring procedure, each respondent's Femininity and Masculinity scores are converted to standardized T-scores, and the standardized difference between these T-scores is now used to replace the androgyny t -ratio that was used in the old scoring procedure (Bem, 1981). Bem (1981) further explained that high scores in either direction indicate a tendency to be strongly sex-typed (or sex reversed), positive scores indicate femininity, and negative scores indicate masculinity. Classifications of respondent's as feminine, masculine, androgynous, or undifferentiated were based on the median split, using the median raw scores of the sample.

The androgynous score is defined by Bem (1974) as the normalized difference score between an individual's cumulative response to masculine items and the feminine items. In general, the greater the absolute value of the androgyny score, the more the person is sex typed or sex reversed, with high positive scores indicating femininity and high negative scores indicating masculinity (Bem, 1974). Bem (1974, 1975) concluded from psychometric analyses that the Masculinity and Femininity scales are empirically and logically independent (average $r = -.03$), and that the androgyny score was internally consistent (average $\alpha = .86$) with a reliability average of $r = .93$.

With this instrument, research has demonstrated that persons with androgynous sex role concepts exhibit greater flexibility in sex-role behavior (Bem, 1975) and healthier social psychological adjustment. Specifically, androgyny is seen as increasing satisfaction, reducing stress, and facilitating adoption of shifting role patterns for men and women (Bem, 1975; Bem, & Lenney, 1976; Bem, Martyna & Watson, 1976; Block, 1973, 1976; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975). Rotherman and Weiner (1983) reported that androgyny is frequently seen as a means of reducing stress experienced by men and women in dual-career marriages.

Career Commitment Scale

Nicola (1980) developed a career commitment scale to measure three dimensions of career commitment: income; status; and relative time and emotional investment in career compared to other life interests. The survey centered on questions relative to distribution of time, energy, and emotional investment in work by the female and her spouse in relation to family life. In developing this survey instrument, Nicola (1980) began with 30 career commitment statements that respondents answered on a 5 point Likert-like scale: 1-strongly agree, 2-agree, 3-disagree, 4-strongly disagree, 5- not applicable. The wording of some statements were reversed so that approximately half the "strongly agree" responses would indicate a strong career commitment and for the other half "strongly disagree" would mean strong career commitment" (Nicola, 1980, p. 78).

The original 30 items were factor analyzed combining husbands and wives to confirm the structure of the three dimensions on career commitment scale: (a) respondents desire to obtain status or prestige; (b) significance of respondent's income; and (c) respondent's commitment to career role versus family role. Nine statements were eliminated from Nicola's career scale because they did not load on any factor or their

interpretation was considered too ambiguous. Therefore, the final career commitment scale consisted of 21 items (Nicola, 1980). This researcher further deleted items that had factor loading of .41 or less, reducing the number of total items to 17 (Appendix C).

Role Interchangeability Scale

The role interchangeability scale developed by Nicola (1980) was used in this study to measure marital equity or role interchangeability in three areas: (a) household tasks and child care, (b) decision making, and (c) expressive role. The household tasks items selected by Nicola (1980) were based on the most frequently mentioned tasks found in related research (e.g. Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971a, 1971b, 1973; Duncan & Duncan, 1978; Scanzoni, 1978). Nicola (1980, p. 190) included the following task areas in the household tasks scale: (1) food shopping; (2) housecleaning; (3) yard work; (4) routine child care; (5) emergency child care; (6) household repairs; (7) cooking; (8) dishwashing; (9) clothes care; (10); bill paying and checkbook balancing; (11) car repairs or arranging for such; (12) managing household help; (Appendix C).

Respondents were asked to respond on a 5 point scale by circling the answer that represented their task involvement role. The household tasks role reversal scale scored husbands and wives in reverse order on the traditionally male or female tasks. That is, explained Nicola (1980, p. 191), "husbands received scores from 5 (I do much more) to 1 (Spouse does much more), whereas wives scored 1 to 5 on the following items: grocery shopping, cleaning, child care, cooking, dish washing, and clothes care." Further, wives scored from 5 (I do much more) to 1 (Spouse does much more) and husbands scored 1 to 5 on the following items: yard work, household repairs, bill paying, and car repairs. A total score was computed by averaging across all 12 items, with a high score (5) indicating the more a person assumed tasks traditionally done by a member of the opposite sex.

The decision making scale centered on issues that could affect the wife or the husband's career (Appendix C). These included three items on reproduction, two on geographic mobility, three involved money matters and the other issues involved family issues and childrearing (Nicola, 1980).

Again, a 5 point scale was used from 5 (I decide all) to 1 (Spouse decides all). Responses were averaged across all questions and individual scores ranged from 1 to 5 with higher scores representing the spouse making more decisions. A score

of 3 indicated equal sharing in decision making or the spouse's perception that a balance of power existed.

The relationship role score revealed which partner initiated the communication behavior in selected familial situations (Nicola, 1980). A 5 point Likert scale was used to score individuals. Both positive and negative statements were included to avoid bias in scoring. Responses were averaged across all items with individual high scores indicating the partner who initiated more of the expressive and communication role (Nicola, 1980). As a result of factor analysis, Nicola deleted four items from the original scale.

The researcher modified the role interchangeability scale by deleting all items that loaded on factor III (Sex/Physical Affection) since they were not relevant to this study. Those items with a factor loading of .41 or below were eliminated, thereby, allowing participants to fill out a shorter instrument (Appendix C).

Data Collection Procedure

The 200 dual-career couples participating in the study were mailed packets containing separate questionnaires for the husband and for the wife. The packets also contained a letter of transmittal (Appendix D) which stressed the purpose

of the study, and the confidentiality of the information provided to the researcher, a letter of support from the sorority's regional president (Appendix E), and a stamped, self-addressed envelope to return the questionnaires.

Follow-up was initiated two weeks after mailing the original questionnaire. A postcard (Appendix F) was forwarded to nonrespondents to encourage them to return the instrument. A second follow-up involved telephone contacts to non respondents. Comments from non-respondents (eg. "I forgot to fill out the forms, "I was too busy", "I missed your deadline") suggested that their schedules prohibited giving attention to the study.

Statistical Analysis

Data collected from the instruments were entered into the computer and analyzed using SAS. Descriptive statistics were compiled to describe the sample. The hypotheses were tested and the data analyzed using frequencies, means, percentages, t-tests, correlation coefficients, analysis of variance, and Tukey's HSD multiple comparisons.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses guided this study:

Hypothesis 1 -- There is no relationship between the demographic variables (education, income, children) of husbands and wives and the career commitment of the female.

Hypothesis 2 -- There is no significant difference between husbands and wives in the dual-career family on their commitment to pursue a career.

Hypothesis 3 -- There is no significant difference between husbands and wives in sex role preference and marital equity as measured by the BSRI and Role Interchangeability scales.

Hypothesis 4 -- There is no correlation between the career commitment of wives and the extent to which role interchangeability exists in the dual-career marriage.

Hypothesis 5 -- There is no relationship between the sex role identity of the male and female partners in the black dual-career marriage to the career commitment of the female partner.

Hypothesis 6 -- There is no interaction for marital equity and sex role identity to the career commitment of black women in the dual-career marriage.

Hypothesis 1 was analyzed using two-way analysis of variance and the paired t -tests were used to interpret

hypotheses 2 and 3. The independent t -test was designed to compare the means of two groups that were selected independently. Hypotheses 4 and 5 were tested using Pearson product moment correlation coefficient. According to Tyler (1963, p. 18), when it is necessary to relate one score to another, the correlation coefficient is appropriate and also pointed out that the product moment coefficient is the most widely used index for correlation. Hypothesis 6 calculations were conditional and are dependent on significant results for hypotheses 3 and 5.

Summary of Chapter

This chapter provided a description of the methodology used to conduct the study. A systematic sample of black couples in the dual-career family located in urban areas of Virginia and North Carolina were selected for this study.

A survey research design was utilized in this study. The marital equity survey instruments employed were modified from research conducted by Nicola (1980). The Bem Sex Role Inventory was used to measure sex role identity. Appropriate statistics were selected to analyze the data collected.

Chapter 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This study was designed to determine the relationship of marital equity as measured by three sub scales: household tasks, decision making, and relationships and sex role identity to the career commitment of black females in dual-career marriages. This chapter will describe the study sample and present analysis of the data collected from the sample.

Description of the Sample

The systematic sample for this study consisted of 200 black dual-career couples selected from 12 Virginia cities and 8 cities in North Carolina. Survey instruments were completed and returned by 58.7 percent of the black dual-career couples surveyed. Table 7 (see p.93) shows the rate of return for respondents in Virginia and North Carolina.

The demographic information collected was reported to provide a description of the black dual-career families included in the study. Wives were directed to fill out the demographic survey and provided the following data: age,

TABLE 7

Percentage of Participation by Husbands and Wives Surveyed in Virginia and North Carolina

State	n	Surveys Returned			Total	%
		Couples	Husband Only	Wife Only		
Virginia	148	73	5	8	159	39.8
North Carolina	102	35	2	3	75	18.9
Total	200	108	7	12	235	58.7

Note. n represents the number of couples in the sample. Of the 200 couples sampled, 9 survey packets (5 in Virginia and 4 in North Carolina) were returned due to incorrect addresses.

education, couples' employment, years married, children, and income.

Age

The number and percent of wives by age are presented in Table 8 (see p. 95). The majority (43.3 percent) of the wives surveyed were in the 40-44 age category. Only 2.5 percent of the female respondents were under thirty or in the younger age category while 8.3 percent were in the older age category or between 44 - 55. Nearly 76 percent of the 120 women in the study were 30-44 years of age.

Educational Attainment

Data are cited regarding the educational level of respondents with the masters degree the most frequently identified category (51.7 percent) for wives and the bachelors degree the most frequent category (45.1 percent) for husbands (Table 9 see p. 96). More than half of the wives (58.4 percent) had education beyond the bachelors degree while only 32.7 percent of the husbands had degrees beyond the bachelors. Wives and husbands were nearly equal

TABLE 8

Number and Percent of Dual-Career Wives Surveyed by Age

Age	<u>n</u> =120	%*
25 - 29	3	2.5
30 - 34	20	16.7
35 - 39	19	15.8
40 - 44	52	43.3
45 - 49	16	13.3
50 - 55	10	8.3
Total	120	100.0

Note. * due to rounding

n represents the number of dual-career wives in the sample.

TABLE 9

Educational Level of Dual-Career Wives and Husbands

Educational level	Highest Level of Education			
	Wives		Husbands	
	n=120	%	n=115	%
BS/BA	50	41.7	51	45.1
MA/MS/MBA	62	51.7	30	26.5
PHD/EdD/JD/MD	7	5.8	7	6.2
OTHER	1	.8	25	22.1
Total	120	100.0	103	100.0

Note. Data for educational level of husbands was not completed by 12 husbands as reflected in 103 total.

in attaining the doctorate, legal, and medical degrees. While less than 1 percent of the wives were in the category entitled "other", over 20 percent of the husbands listed educational attainments in this area.

Children

Seventy-six percent (76%) of the dual-career couples reported having small families. Table 10 (see p. 98) shows 53.7 percent of couples had two children while 22.31 percent had one child. The ages of the children ranged from 1 to 30 years. Sixty-one percent (61%) of couples surveyed had children 15 to 30 years of age. Younger children were in fewer families, with 16 percent of families having children under 9 years of age and 21.6 percent of families with children 10 to 14 years old. Demographic data further revealed that an overwhelming majority of the women surveyed (93.3 percent) indicated that they did not plan to have additional children. Only 6.6 percent of respondents planned to have more children.

TABLE 10

Number and Age of Children in Dual-Career Families Surveyed

Number	Families (n=120)	%
1 Child	27	22.5
2 Children	65	54.1
3 Children	23	19.2
4 Children	3	2.5
5 Children	2	1.7
Total	120	100.0

Age	n*	%
0 - 4	8	6.6
5 - 9	11	9.1
10 - 14	28	23.1
15 - 19	42	34.7
20 - 25	25	20.7
26 - 30	6	5.8

Note. n reflects the number of families in the sample that reported demographic data (only females completed demographic data).

n* reflects the actual number of families with children in each age range.

Marriage

The mean age of wives when first married was 22.93 percent. The majority of wives were in their first marriage, with 9.2 percent previously divorced (Table 11, see p. 100). The data indicated that 38.84 percent of couples surveyed were in their current marriage 16 to 20 years.

Employment

The data reported in Table 12 (see p. 101) revealed that most of the wives in the study were employed in the field of elementary or secondary education, with more than half (60.8 percent) in this area. Further data analysis indicated that 16.7 percent of the female partners had careers in management, while 39.3 percent of the husbands were employed in this field. The information reported indicated that none of the wives had careers in sales, law, or as artists/writers. Similarly, there were no husbands employed as an attorney, physician, or artist/writer.

TABLE 11

Marital Information Reported by Wives on Demographic Survey

Mean age when first married	=	22.9
Mean years in current marriage	=	17.5
Respondents in first marriage	=	90.8% (109)
Respondents previously divorced *		9.2% (11)

Years in current marriage	Families (%)
---------------------------	--------------

0 - 5	8 (6.61)
6 - 10	14 (11.57)
11 - 15	21 (17.36)
16 - 20	47 (38.84)
21 - 25	17 (14.05)
26 - 32	14 (11.57)

Additional Children Planned

Number of children	number of families	%
0	112	93.3
1	6	5.0
2	2	1.7
Total	120	100.0

Note. * one wife's first marriage ended due to death of spouse

TABLE 12

Percent and Number of Wives' and Husbands' by Specific Employment Categories

Employment Category	Wives		Husbands	
	number	(%)	number	(%)
Management	20	(16.7)	45	(39.1)
Engineering	4	(3.3)	13	(11.3)
Education	73	(60.8)	12	(10.4)
University/research	7	(5.8)	4	(3.5)
Sales	0	(0)	6	(5.2)
Writer/artist/entertainer	0	(0)	1	(.9)
Physician	2	(1.7)	0	(0)
Attorney	0	(0)	1	(.9)
Mental health professional	1	(.8)	0	(0)
Nurse/medical technician	4	(3.3)	2	(1.7)
Other	9	(7.5)	31	(27.0)
Total	120	(100.0)	115	(100.0)

Note. Employment information was provided for 120 wives and 115 husbands.

Income

The data for combined incomes of husbands and wives are shown in Table 13 (see p. 103). The combined income for 4.1 percent of the families studied was in the lower range of 25,000 - 34,999, with another 5.8 percent of families earning in the highest income range of over \$105,000. The greatest percentage (26.7 percent) of couples indicated that they earned between \$55,000 - \$64,999. The majority of the wives (76.6 percent) reported that they contributed more than 40 percent of the couples' combined income.

Data Analysis

The data were statistically analyzed by the use of t-tests, Pearson product moment correlation, One and two - way analysis of variance and multiple comparisons. The hypotheses were tested by using scores from the three survey scales: career commitment, marital equity, and sex role identity (BSRI). Means, standard deviations, and appropriate statistics were presented for each hypothesis. Hypothesis statements were tested at the .05 level of confidence.

The career commitment of the female respondents and their partners were measured by the career commitment scale

TABLE 13

Combined Annual Income of Dual-Career Couples

Combined Income		<u>n</u>	%
under ---	34,999	0	0
35,000 ---	44,999	5	4.3
45,000 ---	54,999	10	8.7
55,000 ---	64,999	22	19.1
65,000 ---	74,999	27	23.5
75,000 ---	84,999	19	16.5
85,000 ---	94,999	14	12.2
95,000 ---	104,999	11	9.6
105,000 and over		7	6.1
Total		115*	100.0

Wife's Contribution to Annual Combined Income

Contribution	number	%
10% --- 25%	13	11.3
26% --- 50%	83**	72.2
51% --- 75%	17	14.8
76% --- 100%	2	1.7
Total	115*	100.0

Note. * n (115) represents couples who reported combined income data.

** Data indicated that 61.7 percent of the 83 wives in the 26%-50% range contributed 40%-50% of the combined income.

developed by Nicola (1980).

Questions on the career commitment scale centered on the distribution of time, energy, and emotional investment in work by the woman and her husband in relation to family life. A Likert scale rating of 1 to 5 indicated favorable to unfavorable responses. A total career commitment score was computed for respondents by summing the ratings of all career commitment statements.

The marital equity scale measured role interchangeability of dual-career partners in three areas: household tasks/child care, decision - making, and relationships (Nicola, 1980). Individual scores on the household tasks scale were averaged across items with a high score indicating a less sex stereotyped partner.

Responses to the decision-making statements revealed the degree of equity dual-career partners shared with regard to major family and career issues (Nicola, 1980). A total score was computed by averaging across all statements with scores ranging from 1 - 5. A score of 3 indicated equal sharing in decision-making or the spouse's perception that a balance of power existed.

Sex role identity was measured by the BSRI (Bem Sex Role Identity) scale (Bem, 1974). The BSRI consists of 60 personality characteristics structured to determine an

individual's sex role preference. Responses to all items are measured on a 7 point likert type scale. Individual scores were summed and a mean score calculated to produce a score for masculinity and femininity. An androgyny score was calculated as the t-ratio between the mean of the femininity and masculinity scales.

Null Hypothesis 1:

There is no relationship between the demographic variables (education, income, children) of husbands and wives to the career commitment of the female.

The demographic data from the variables education, income, and children were analyzed to determine whether there were significant relationships to the career commitment of wives in the black dual-career families surveyed. Analysis of variance was used to test the relationship of the couples' education to the wife's career commitment. Tables 14, 15, and 16 (see pp.106-108) show the relation of education on the career commitment of the women studied. When the education of the wife ($F(3, 116) = 1.72, p=.1675$), and the husband ($F(3, 109) = 1.62, p = .1886$) were analyzed separately and together ($F(6, 106) = 1.86, p = .0947$) there was no significant

TABLE 14

Analysis of Variance Test of the Relationship of Wife's
Education to Her Career Commitment

Education	<u>n</u>	Commitment		<u>F-</u>	
		<u>M</u> (wife)	<u>SD</u>	Ratio	
BA/BS	46	42.46	5.01	1.72	<u>p</u> =.1675
MA/MS	59	41.59	4.18		
PHD/EdD/JD/MD	7	39.57	1.13		
OTHER	1	34.00			

Note. n (113) represents the number of wives in the sample who provided both education and career commitment data.

TABLE 15

Analysis of Variance Test for the Husband's Education in
Relation to the Wife's Career Commitment

Education	<u>n</u>	Commitment		F-	
		<u>M</u> (husband)	<u>SD</u>	Ratio	
BS/BA	51	41.45	4.57	1.62	<u>p</u> =.1675
MA/MS	30	41.03	4.72		
PHD/EdD/JD/MD	7	44.86	5.55		
OTHER	25	42.36	3.51		
Total	113*				

TABLE 16

Analysis of Variance of the Wife's Career Commitment in
Relationship to the Couples' Education

Couples' Education	Commitment			F- Ratio	
	n(couples)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>		
BA/BS-BA/BS	26	41.65	4.63	1.86	p=.0947
BA/BS-MA/MS BA/BS-PHd/EdD/	9	41.89	6.17		
JD/MD	4	46.50	6.86		
BA/BS-OTHER	7	43.86	2.85		
MA/MS-BA/BS	23	41.39	4.77		
MA/MS-MA/MS	17	40.82	4.50		
MA/MS-PHd/EdD/ JD/MD	3	42.67	3.05		
MA/MS-OTHER	16	42.50	3.07		
PHd/EdD/JD/MD BA/BS	2	39.50	0.07		
PHd/EdD/JD/MD MA/MS	4	40.00	1.15		
PHd/EdD/JD/MD OTHER	1	38.00	0		
OTHER-OTHER	1	34.00	0		

Note. n (113) represents the number of couples who provided both education and career commitment data.

relationship to the wife's career commitment, consequently the null was not rejected.

Data analysis of the relationship of the variable income to the career commitment of wives revealed (Table 17 see p. 110) a significant relationship ($F(7, 112) = 2.73$, $p = .0119$) therefore, the null was rejected. Tukey's multiple comparison test was used to find the significant comparisons among the 9 income levels reported. These data indicated that of all possible comparisons for income levels, only incomes of \$65,000-\$74,999 and \$105,000 and over were significant to the wife's career commitment. Figure 1 (see p. 111) illustrates the wives' mean career commitment score in relation to the different family income levels of the couples in the sample. Because of inconsistencies in the wives' career commitment and family income levels (eg. the wives' peak career commitment mean score for couples in the \$65,000-\$75,000 income range is not consistent with the dip in the wives' career commitment mean score for the peak income range of \$105,000, Figure 1) no identifiable pattern was found.

Analysis of variance was also used to determine the influence of children on the mothers' career commitment. The age of the oldest child was significantly related to the mothers' career commitment ($F(5, 115) = 2.93$, $p = .0159$). Multiple comparison tests indicated that for the six age

TABLE 17

Mean, Standard Deviation, and F- Ratio of Wives' Career
Commitment Mean in Relation to Family Income

Family Income	n	Wife's career commitment		F- Ratio
		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	
0 - 34,999	0	0	0	2.73 p=.0119*
35,000- 44,999	5	43.6	6.19	
45,000- 54,999	10	40.2	4.13	
55,000- 64,999	22	40.95	4.18	
65,000- 74,999	27	43.69	4.23	
75,000- 84,999	19	40.0	4.12	
85,000- 94,999	14	41.36	4.70	
95,000-104,999	11	42.27	5.04	
over -105,000	7	37.42	2.88	

Note. n (115) denotes the number of couples in the sample who reported their combined income.

* p < .05

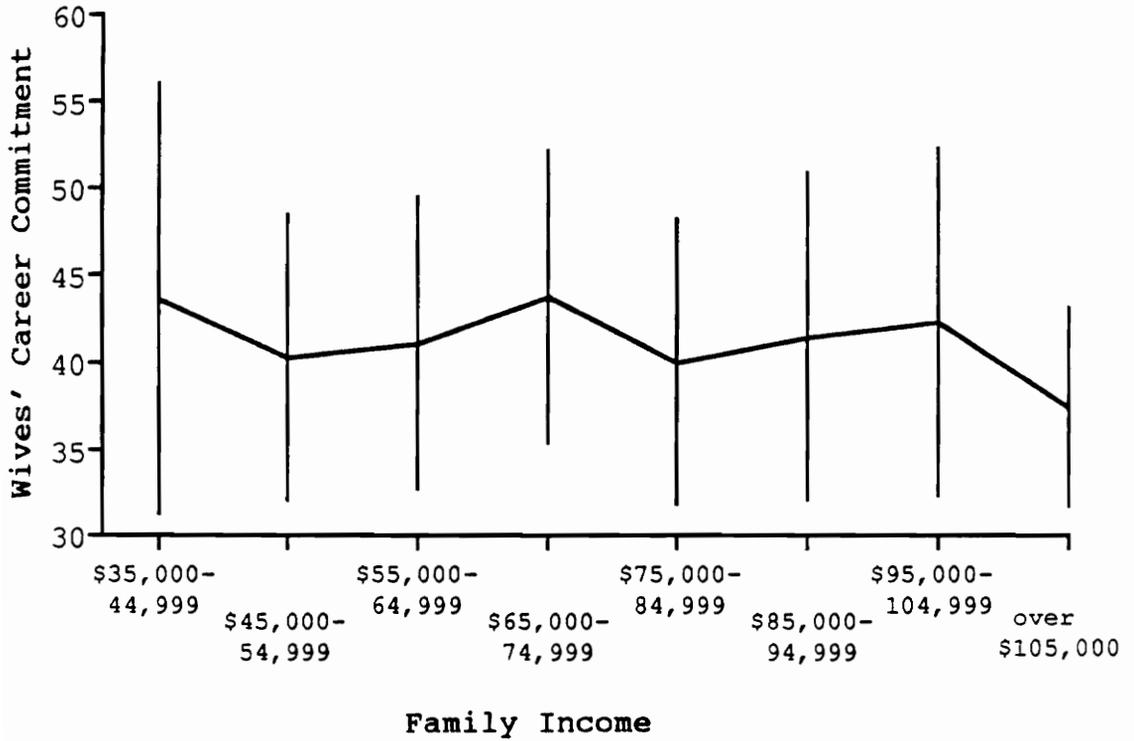


Figure 1.

Wives' Career Commitment in Relation to Family Income

Mean ± 2 Standard Deviations

levels compared, a difference was found between levels 0 and 3, 0 and 2, 3 and 5, 3 and 4, and 2 and 4. The number of children in the family did not influence the wife's career commitment ($F(4, 116) = .30, p = .8799$). An analysis of the age and number of children together revealed no further support for the effect of family size ($F(9, 111) = 2.02, p = .0437$) and the extent to which wives were committed to their careers.

Null Hypothesis 2

There is no difference in the commitment to pursue a career between husbands and wives in the dual-career family.

Seventeen statements were used to compute the total career commitment score for husbands and wives studied with the range for couples being 26 to 52. Paired t-tests were used to analyze the means of the two groups. As indicated in Table 18 (see p. 113), no statistical significance was found at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE 18

Relationship of the Career Commitment Scores of Husbands and Wives as Measured by the Career Commitment Scale

Commitment	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	paired-t	
Husbands	115	41.03	5.45	1.07	p=.287
Wives	120	41.61	4.62		

Note. The mean career commitment score for wives' (59.61) was significantly higher than the career commitment score for husbands' (55.08) in Nicola's study (Nicola, 1980).

Null Hypothesis 3

There is no difference between husbands and wives on the sex role identity and marital equity scales.

A summary of t-test analysis for mean sex role identity (BSRI) scores indicated that the mean androgyny score (50.20) for wives was higher than the mean androgyny score (43.45) for the husbands (the androgyny score represents the difference between the femininity and masculinity scores). The t-value was statistically significant at less than the .01 level (Table 19 see p.115). The null of no difference was rejected.

The marital equity scale measured role interchangeability in three areas: household tasks and child care, decision-making, and relationships. Couples responded to twelve household tasks items with individual scores summed and averaged across items. Paired t-test were used to analyze the data. Table 20 (see p. 116) shows the mean marital equity scores (household tasks, decision-making, relationships) and t-values for husbands and wives. The husbands' mean household tasks score (2.91) was higher than the mean household tasks score (2.65) for wives. The t-value (3.69) was statistically significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 19

The Relationship of Husbands' and Wives' Standardized T-Score
for the Femininity minus Masculinity Difference

Respondent	Standard T- Score			paired-t	
	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>		
Husbands	108	43.45	9.19	5.66	p=.0001*
Wives	120	50.20	9.34		

Note. Comparisons may be based on the transformed T-scores (Mean = 50; SD = 10) standardized on the 1978 Stanford normative sample of females and males (Bem, 1981). High scores in either direction indicate a tendency to be strongly sex-typed (or sex reversed), positive scores indicate femininity, and negative scores indicate masculinity (Bem, 1981).

* $p < .01$

TABLE 20

Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, and Paired T-Values of Husbands' and Wives' Marital Equity Scores

Marital Equity Sub-Scales	Husbands (<u>n</u> =115)		Wives (<u>n</u> =120)		paired-t	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>		
Household Tasks/						
Child care	2.91	.5785	2.65	.6027	-3.69	p=.0004*
Decision Making	2.89	.4657	2.79	.4054	-1.33	p=.1860
Relationships	2.85	.5698	2.54	.5287	-4.26	p=.0001**

Note. Husbands and wives marital equity scores ranged from 5 (high) to 1 (low). The higher the score the more the spouse assumed tasks traditionally done by a member of the opposite sex (Nicola, 1980).

* p < .05

** p < .01

Data analysis for the mean equity score for the decision-making scale showed a higher mean score (2.89) for husbands than for wives (2.79). The t -value (-1.33) revealed that there was not a significant difference for decision-making between partners.

T -tests analysis for the couples' mean marital equity score on the relationship sub-scale indicated that the wives' mean relationship score (2.54) was much lower than the mean relationship score (2.85) for the husbands. The t -value was statistically significant at the .001 level. The null of no difference between husbands and wives on the marital scale was rejected for the household tasks/child care and relationship sub-scales.

Null Hypothesis 4

There is no correlation between the career commitment of wives and the extent to which marital equity exists in the dual-career marriage.

Pearson product moment correlation revealed that there was no significant relationship between career commitment and the three marital equity sub-scales: household tasks/ child care, decision-making, and relationship. There was a positive correlation ($r = .38$, $p < .05$) however, found between household

tasks and the relationship role of black dual-career couples. Similarly, a correlation was found between couples' decision-making and their relationship ($r = .29$, $p = <.05$) dimension. As a result of these findings, the hypothesis of no difference between career commitment and marital equity was not rejected.

Null Hypothesis 5

There is no relationship between the sex role identity of male and female partners to the career commitment of the female partner.

Sex role attitudes of husbands and wives were measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). Results of analysis of variance revealed no significant difference between male ($F(3, 104) = .64$, $p = .5911$) and female ($F(3, 118) = 2.35$, $p = .0762$) partners. The career commitment mean scores for the four BSRI classification categories showed only a slight difference (Table 21 see p. 119). The undifferentiated group showed the highest career commitment mean (43.03) while the feminine group career commitment mean (41.83) was somewhat lower. Lower career commitment mean scores were found for the masculine (40.70) and androgynous (39.92) respondents. Because of the lack of statistical significance, the null of

TABLE 21

Mean Score, Standard Deviation, and F-Ratio of Husbands and Wives Bem Sex Role Identity (BSRI) Classification to the Wife's Career Commitment

Classification		Wife's Commitment			
Husbands	(<u>n</u> =108@)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>F</u> -Ratio	
Undifferentiated	34	41.44	4.69	.64	p=.5911
Masculine	33	42.58	4.56		
Feminine	10	41.10	4.12		
Androgynous	31	41.13	4.78		
Wives	(<u>n</u> =120)	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>F</u> -Ratio	
Undifferentiated	27	43.03	4.60	2.35	p=.0762
Masculine	20	40.70	4.35		
Feminine	48	41.13	4.78		
Androgynous	25	39.92	4.33		

Note. @ sample size indicate reductions due to missing data. The career commitment scores for husbands ranged from a minimum of 26 to a maximum of 52 while the career commitment scores for the wives ranged from a minimum of 31 to a maximum of 52.

no difference between husband's and wife's sex role identity and the career commitment of the wife was not rejected.

Summary of Chapter

This chapter presented a description of the sample and an analysis of the data collected. The sample for this study consisted of 200 black dual-career couples. Of the 200 dual-career couples surveyed, 234 individual questionnaires were returned. Sixty-one percent (61%) of the wives surveys were returned while only 58 percent of the husbands returned their surveys, for an overall return rate of 59 percent. The data were statistically analyzed by paired t-test, Pearson product moment correlation, one and two-way analysis of variance, and multiple comparisons.

Five null hypotheses were used as a guide for testing, organizing, and reporting the data collected. Individual scores were calculated by summing item ratings and for several scales averaging across all items. Of the null hypotheses tested, two were rejected at the .05 level of significance and the remaining three were not rejected because of a lack of statistical significance.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study, and research findings. Discussion of each null hypothesis will be presented as well as implications and recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Study

Problem of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the relevance of marital equity and sex role identity of black dual-career couples to the career commitment of the female partner. In addition, this study examined the extent to which husbands and wives exercised role interchangeability within the family structure.

Investigation Procedures

The population for this study consisted of graduate chapters in the Mid-Atlantic region of the Alpha Kappa Alpha

Sorority Inc. Twelve urban locations in Virginia and North Carolina were chosen because of their large populations (over 40,000). A systematic sample was used to select the 200 graduate chapter members and their spouses surveyed in this study. Of the 400 husbands and wives sampled, 121 women (61 percent) and 115 men (58 percent) returned the survey instruments.

Three survey instruments were used to collect data from respondents. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) was used to measure sex role preference. The BSRI is a self-report scale designed to measure the extent of an individual's identification with stereotypically perceived masculine and feminine traits (Bem,1974). It consists of 60 personality characteristics, previously scaled as being desirable traits for males (20 masculine items), for females (20 feminine items), or desirable for males and females (20 neutral items). Bem (1974, 1975) conducted psychometric and empirical analysis to reveal that the masculinity and femininity scales were independent (average $r = -.03$) and that the androgyny score was internally consistent with a reliability average of $r = .93$.

The Career Commitment Scale (Nicola, 1980) was a structured questionnaire designed to measure three dimensions of career commitment: income; status; and emotional investment

in career compared to other life interests. Questions centered on respondent's desire for status or prestige; importance of income; and commitment to career and family roles.

The Marital Equity Scale (Nicola, 1980) was developed to measure role interchangeability between partners in three areas: household tasks/child care; decision-making ; and relationships. A likert-like scale was used to record respondent's selections on each section of the scale.

A survey package was mailed to the 200 dual-career couples selected for the study. The package contained a letter of transmittal which explained the scope of the study, its importance, and the confidentiality of the information provided. In addition, a stamped self-addressed return envelope and the survey instruments were included in the package. A postcard was mailed as a follow-up to non-respondents after two weeks. The second stage follow-up used telephone contacts to increase the return rate.

Data collected from the instruments were analyzed via SAS (Statistical Analysis System). The statistical tests used to analyze the data were paired t -test, Pearson product moment correlation, one and two-way analysis of variance and Tukey's multiple comparisons. In addition, frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were also used in data analysis. Five null hypotheses were used as a guide for

reporting the data.

Summary and Discussion of Findings

The summary of findings is based on the analysis of survey and demographic data. A discussion of each null hypothesis will be presented.

The demographic information revealed that a large proportion of the wives in the dual-career families sampled (76 percent) were between the 30-44 years of age. Wives were highly educated and out numbered the husbands 2 to 1 in attaining the master degrees, however, couples were more evenly divided in the number receiving their doctoral degrees. While less than 1 percent of women were in the education category "other", 22 percent of men were in this category. The majority (76 percent) of the dual-career couples surveyed had families with one or two children. A large number (93.3 percent) of women indicated that they did not plan to have more children.

Although the careers of the couples were varied, the majority (60.8 percent) of the wives were in the field of education. Husbands were largely in the management field (39.3 percent) with a similar number (27.4 percent) in the category "other."

The combined income data for couples indicated that 26.7 percent were in the income range of \$65,000 - \$75,000.

The earning power of the wives was close to that of the husbands with an average contribution of 44.22 percent to the family finances. Data reported that 40.7 percent of the wives contributed 50 percent or more of the combined incomes.

The five null hypotheses were tested and analyzed to determine statistical significance at the .05 level.

Null Hypothesis 1

There is no relationship between the demographic variables (education, income, and children) of husbands and wives to the career commitment of the female.

The variable education was found not to be significantly related to the career commitment of the wife. Despite the higher education levels of the wives in the study, couples reported shared decision-making in very critical areas of family development. Review of the literature indicated that black women are typically more educated than black males. This study not only adds support to the literature, but also raises questions about other social issues regarding the black male, for example, what factors contribute to the educational differential between black males and females? and are there indications among younger black males that this trend will change?

Analysis of the relationship of the variable income to the career commitment of wives was significant. Further, a statistically significant relationship for the variable children was found. While the number of children did not matter, the age of the oldest child was significantly related to the career commitment of the mother. The data showed a positive relationship between preschool aged children and teenagers and the career commitment of mothers. Although childrearing at any stage is demanding of the parenting role, the preschool and teenage years, might be particularly challenging. Based on Duvall's (1971) dual-career family typology, couples are more or less willing to make family sacrifices at different stages of the family cycle. During stage two to stage five, couples may make more sacrifices in favor of the family because they have preschool aged children or their children are moving through the teenaged years. The findings in this study on the impact of the age of the children lend some support to Duvall's family typology.

Null Hypothesis 2

There is no difference in the commitment to pursue a career between husbands and wives in the dual-career family.

The mean career commitment score computed for husbands (41.03) and wives (41.61) indicated that both partners shared similar attitudes about commitment to their careers. A paired t-test was used to analyze the means, however, no statistical significance was found. The study findings that both the husbands and wives surveyed had similar opinions about income, status, and their emotional investment in career goals are very close to research findings by Nicola (1980). While couples perceived their individual career accomplishments as a means of economic stability for their families, both husbands and wives agreed that spending time with each other and their children were important.

Null Hypothesis 3

There is no significant difference between husbands and wives on the sex role identity and marital equity scales.

A summary of t-test analysis for the mean sex role identity scores indicated that the mean BSRI standardized T-score for femininity minus masculinity for wives (50.2) was higher than the standardized mean T-score (43.45) for husbands (t = 5.66, p < .01). The sex role preference classification for the husbands was almost equally divided among the masculine, androgynous, and undifferentiated groups, however, a much

lower number of husbands (10) were in the feminine category. A plurality of the wives (48) were classified as feminine, while 29 were undifferentiated, 20 were masculine, and 25 were androgynous.

The mean marital equity score for husbands and wives was statistically significant on two of the three marital equity sub-scales: a.) household tasks and child care and b.) relationships. Therefore, the null of no difference was rejected on these two marital equity sub-scales and on the sex role identity scale.

According to survey returns, wives did significantly more work than men in the area of household tasks and childcare. Similarly, gender differences indicated that wives assumed the major responsibility for initiating family communication (eg. talking about personal and work related problems, sending birthday cards or keeping in touch with relatives, etc.). Husbands and wives did perceive equitable sharing in their decision-making, particularly on matters concerning how money was spent, taking vacations, and where to live.

In as much as, there were no significant differences found for couples' sex role attitudes (BSRI), the significant difference between husbands and wives on the marital equity sub-scales for household tasks and child care and

relationships may be explained in part by gender socialization. Males and females still face differing societal norms and expectations that influence their social roles and behaviors. Gender socialization may influence the kinds of concerns men and women have, the types of behavioral skills they are encouraged to develop, and the reinforcement they receive for exhibiting stereotyped masculine and feminine behaviors.

Further explanation for the differences between husbands and wives on the marital equity scales is offered by Staples' suggestion that middle class blacks can be compared to their white counterparts. This research suggests that women still bear major responsibility for family and home management. Findings in other research supports the evidence that women bear greater responsibility for family work with slow movement toward sharing (Scanzoni & Fox, 1980; Condran & Bode, 1982; Nicola, 1980).

Null Hypothesis 4

There is no correlation between the career commitment of wives and the extent to which marital equity exists in the dual-career marriage.

Pearson product moment correlation analysis revealed that there was no significant correlation between career commitment and the marital equity sub-scales: household tasks/child care, decision-making, and relationship. Because of the lack of statistical significance between career commitment and marital equity, the null was not rejected.

Both husbands and wives expressed the desire to pursue careers, that is, they shared similar attitudes about career status, income, and the time and emotional investment in career and family responsibilities. The lack of statistical significance may be attributed to the socialization of black women to work and take care of themselves whether or not they are married. Further because of the benefits women have gained from their careers (ie. income, independence, status), many may be more accepting of the lack of equity in their relationships and are seemingly willing to be caught in the super woman syndrome.

Although not expected, distribution of household tasks responsibilities among the black dual-career couples sampled followed traditional role patterns with most of the husbands doing men's work and most of the wives doing women's work. Wives did more of the tasks associated with homemaking, however, there was some role sharing, as a result of the husbands' contribution in some of the traditionally feminine

task areas.

These findings lend support to the class socialization research which suggests that girls almost always have child and home care responsibilities, while boys are usually free from such tasks. In this context, females learn to be independent and capable, while males acquire exaggerated stereotypically perceived masculine attributes (Richmond-Abbott, 1983). This results in boys and girls learning early on that sex roles are divided this way, although the older men may help out. Willie (1981) on the other hand, determined that for most black families, particularly middle and upper class, there are few tasks that are considered to be the exclusive prerogative of the husband or the wife. This study found that husbands were at least minimally involved in each of the feminine oriented task areas which suggests movement in the direction of equitable sharing with wives.

An interesting observation in this study was the lack of congruence of the spouses in their perceptions of how much the other contributed, with the husbands reporting that they contributed more in the tasks areas than the wives reported that they contributed. The lack of effective communication among couples explains to some extent the couples' perception of how much they contribute towards family and household responsibilities. Further this points to the inability of

couples to clarify with each other their perceptions of what constitutes equal sharing and equity.

Null Hypothesis 5

There is no relationship between the sex role identity of male and female partners to the career commitment of the female partner.

There was not a statistically significant difference in sex role identity between male ($F(3, 104) = .64, p = .5911$) and female ($F(3, 118) = 2.35, p = .0762$) dual-career partners to the career commitment of the wife. The career commitment scores for the four sex role preference groups were respectively: undifferentiated (43.03 percent), femininity (41.83), androgynous (40.70 percent) and masculinity (39.92 percent). The closeness of these scores suggest that couples are making adjustments to meet the demands of two careers. Further the wives' career commitment scores indicate that for the black dual-career women studied, career attitudes were not segmented by sex role preferences. Similarly, Hiller and Philliber's (1982) found that some couples are in a better position to maintain marital equilibrium when they can make compensations or change their role expectations and self concepts to meet their social circumstances.

Despite popular beliefs that work and achievement is the main concern of males and affiliative concerns preoccupy females, husbands and wives were very similar in their attitudes. Not only did couples share attitudes about commitment to pursue their careers, but also about income, discipline and care of children, financial matters, and sex role attitudes.

Based on these findings, the assumptions stated in chapter 1 (see pp. 19-20) remained tenable. The assumptions formed the basis for the study questions and subsequent analysis.

Conclusions

Several general inquiries were explored in this study: are partners in the black dual-career marriage similar in their opinions and attitudes about advancing their individual careers while maintaining familial roles, and do black dual-career couples have fundamentally different attitudes about their sex roles? Based on the analysis and interpretation of the data provided by the couples surveyed, the major conclusion was that black wives were not equitably supported in the distribution of household, childcare, and family tasks by their husbands. While the husbands and wives studied did not have significantly different perceptions about their commitment to pursue a career, wives did more work in the home than their husbands. According to survey returns, career commitment scores indicated that couples shared similar opinions and attitudes about their individual and family status and prestige, the importance of income for family needs, and career and family priorities.

Although, wives were more highly educated than their husbands, the educational level of the partners was not associated with the wife's desire to have a career or the participation of husbands in family and household tasks. The literature has consistently reported that black women tend

to exceed their male counterparts in educational achievements. Nevertheless, despite the lack of equitable sharing in the distribution of household tasks and childcare responsibilities, the black career women appear to view the benefits of her career over the multiple demands it places upon her.

Collective analysis of the findings in this study concluded that while there was evidence that marital equity does exist to some extent in several areas among the dual-career black couples studied, the socialization of black women and men account in part for the sex role behaviors that they bring to their dual-career marriages. Further, traditional socialization and the power structure that tells us men are stronger than women or that women play secondary roles to men makes it difficult to break down stereotypical notions of what it means to be a woman or what it means to be a man.

Further traditional socialization patterns were associated with the couples sex role behavior. Responses of husbands and wives indicated that, for the most part, their sex role behavior followed traditional expectations (women's work vs men's work) particularly, in the areas of household tasks. For example, husbands did more or all of the yard work, household, and car repairs while wives did more or all of the laundry, grocery shopping, cleaning, washing dishes, and cooking.

Few women interrupted their careers for long periods for childbearing or childrearing. While not expected, the majority of the women studied were 40 - 44 years of age, which may account for the study results. This age range represents a time when career women are established and have older children, consequently, reducing the stress associated with pre-school child rearing. A less homogeneous group may influence survey outcomes differently.

Finally, the sex role identity scores of husbands and wives were not significantly related to the career commitment of the wife. Therefore, it was concluded that regardless of the sex role attitudes of their husbands, wives in the black dual-career marriage are committed to having it all and are willing to juggle multiple roles to stay on track.

Recommendations

Future research would be beneficial in several areas. Based on the conclusions drawn in this study, more comprehensive approaches should be employed to look at the many complex relationships and issues associated with women, the dual-career family and work. Such research should enable women to make greater strides in the workplace, as well as in the home and provide support for men to contribute more to the well-being of their families. Continued empirical research is needed to strengthen the validity of existing instruments and marital equity scales.

Studies of ethnic or minority dual-career groups with emphasis on the couple's career, education, marital history, and background socialization should add a cultural perspective to what is already known. This study found while there was a relationship of the couples' income to the wife's career commitment, a pattern could not be identified. A closer investigation into this relationship should provide more conclusive analysis of the income variable. Additionally, despite the focus on middle class couples for this research, black females still exceeded the males in educational achievements. Therefore, further investigation of issues that impact the lack of parity in the education of black males and females may be helpful (ie. what are the causes and what

institutional, societal or socialization issues are involved? and does the education differential adversely impact relationships when both partners are career oriented).

Future dual-career research that includes husbands as respondents should provide data analysis based on responses from both male and female partners for a clearer picture of the dual-career family. It was particularly interesting to find that the husbands in the study rated themselves higher on the marital equity scale than did their wives, indicating that they believed that their contributions were greater than what was perceived by wives. Further, a less homogenous sample with regard to age, socio-economic status, and careers should be studied.

The high number of wives and husbands who were found to be committed to their careers suggests research to develop practical strategies that help women manage career goals before and after having a child. Results of this study, further suggest that dual-career couples may benefit from interventions that promote more effective communication. To this end, clinical applications may prove helpful. From a proactive perspective, premarital counseling for young couples who plan to simultaneously, pursue career and family goals can offer insight and clarify expectations. Also, married couples facing conflict should benefit marital counseling and intervention strategies.

Finally, implications for the field of adult education indicate research and program development that will help dual-career couples and the organizations who hire them, for example, conducting dual-career training, and publishing books or articles for personal development. From an educational perspective, increased knowledge should enable men and women to do a better job of analyzing their problems at home and in the workplace and see them in relationship to larger social issues. Enabling strategies can help the dual-career audience cope with their work and family demands as well as encourage institutions and organizations to adopt policy changes. These include providing daycare facilities for employees, parental leave, dual-career counseling, and negotiation of family roles.

Dual-career research in these areas should help both women and men achieve satisfaction from work and family roles. Women should be able to expand more fully into other areas while the role behaviors for men man expand to include enhanced family participation and involvement in the home. Ultimately, individuals regardless of gender, will have more options across the broad spectrum of life's choices.

Summary of Chapter

This chapter presented an overview of the study and a description of the investigative procedures used for the study. A summary and discussion of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations were included.

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APPENDIX A
Demographic Questionnaire

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (TO BE COMPLETED BY WIFE)

DIRECTIONS: Please fill in or check one answer as appropriate. The information that you provide will be kept in strict confidence.

1. Age _____
2. Educational level

	WIFE		HUSBAND
	_____	BS/BA	_____
	_____	MA/MS/MBA	_____
	_____	PhD/EdD/JD/MD	_____
	_____	Other	_____
3. Your current employment:

			HUSBAND
_____	01 Management		_____
_____	02 Engineering/science		_____
_____	03 Elementary/secondary education		_____
_____	04 University teaching/research		_____
_____	05 Sales		_____
_____	06 Writer/artist/entertainer		_____
_____	07 Physician		_____
_____	08 Attorney		_____
_____	09 Mental health professional		_____
_____	10 Nurse/medical technician		_____
_____	11 Other		_____
4. Age when first married _____
5. Number of years married to present spouse _____
6. Previously divorced Yes _____ No _____
7. List children (include age and sex)

8. Number of additional children planned _____
9. Years of career employment since birth of first child _____
10. Yearly family income (combined)

01	0	--	34,999
02	35,000	--	44,999
03	45,000	--	54,999
04	55,000	--	64,999
05	65,000	--	74,999
06	75,000	--	84,999
07	85,000	--	94,999
08	95,000	--	104,999
09	over 105,000		
11. Estimated percent of yearly combined income you contribute

APPENDIX B
Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI)

BEM INVENTORY

Developed by Sandra L. Bem, Ph.D.

Name _____ Age _____ Sex _____
 Phone No. or Address _____
 Date _____ 19 _____
 If a student: School _____ Yr. in School _____
 If not a student: Occupation _____

DIRECTIONS

On the opposite side of this sheet, you will find listed a number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use those characteristics to describe yourself, that is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true of you each of these characteristics is. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

Example: sly

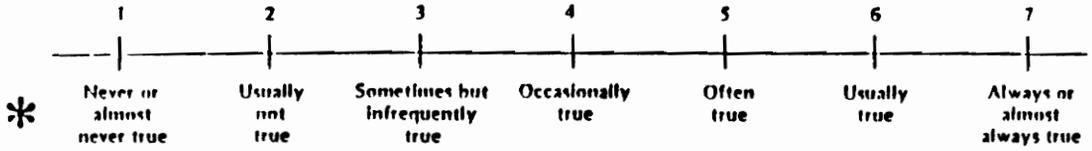
- Write a 1 if it is never or almost never true that you are sly.
- Write a 2 if it is usually not true that you are sly.
- Write a 3 if it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are sly.
- Write a 4 if it is occasionally true that you are sly.
- Write a 5 if it is often true that you are sly.
- Write a 6 if it is usually true that you are sly.
- Write a 7 if it is always or almost always true that you are sly.

Thus, if you feel it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are "sly," never or almost never true that you are "malicious," always or almost always true that you are "irresponsible," and often true that you are "carefree," then you would rate these characteristics as follows:

Sly	3	Irresponsible	7
Malicious	1	Carefree	5

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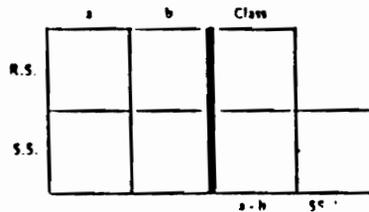
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Defend my own beliefs	
Affectionate	
Conscientious	
Independent	
Sympathetic	
Mood	
Assertive	
Sensitive to needs of others	
Reliable	
Strong personality	
Understanding	
Jealous	
Forceful	
Compassionate	
Truthful	
Have leadership abilities	
Eager to soothe hurt feelings	
Secretive	
Willing to take risks	
Warm	

Adaptable	
Dominant	
Tender	
Conceited	
Willing to take a stand	
Love children	
Tactful	
Aggressive	
Gentle	
Conventional	
Self-reliant	
Yielding	
Helpful	
Athletic	
Cheerful	
Unsystematic	
Analytical	
Sly	
Inefficient	
Make decisions easily	

Flatterable	
Theatrical	
Self-sufficient	
Loyal	
Happy	
Individualistic	
Soft-spoken	
Unpredictable	
Masculine	
Gullible	
Solemn	
Competitive	
Childlike	
Likable	
Ambitious	
Do not use harsh language	
Sincere	
Act as a leader	
Feminine	
Friendly	



*

APPENDIX C
Career Commitment and Role Interchangeability Scales
(husband and wife included)



(Husband)

QUESTIONNAIRE

A. CAREER STATEMENTS

Please answer each of the following in terms of whether you agree or disagree that the statement describes your BEHAVIOR or your SITUATION in your PRESENT MARRIAGE. For those statements which clearly require YES or NO response, circle STRONGLY AGREE for YES and STRONGLY DISAGREE for NO. If the item is not applicable to you now, and NEVER has been in your present marriage, circle N.A.

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Applicable</i>
1. I could stop working and the loss of my salary would <u>not</u> substantially alter our standard of living.	SA	A	D	SD	NA
2. I would not quit work if it were financially feasible.	SA	A	D	SD	NA
3. If my career demanded it, I would take (have taken) a separate residence from my spouse (may include part of week).	SA	A	D	SD	NA
4. I feel (or have felt) strongly compelled to achieve recognition in my career.	SA	A	D	SD	NA
5. If I really disliked my current job, I could stop working for a while with the assurance that my spouse would support me.	SA	A	D	SD	NA
6. The personal satisfaction and fulfillment I gain from my work are more important to me than the money I earn.	SA	A	D	SD	NA
7. Most of my income goes into a savings account, other investments, or "extras."	SA	A	D	SD	NA

- | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|----|----|
| 8. My spouse makes a point of mentioning my occupation to friends and acquaintances. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 9. The role of spouse/parent is more important to me than that of career person. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 10. When I'm under extreme pressure at work, I tend to put the needs of my spouse or children last. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 11. My career contributes to the prestige that we as a couple enjoy in the community. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 12. My income is as vital (or more so) to the economic well-being of our family as is my husband's. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 13. I obtain a great deal of prestige from my work. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 14. My income is used mostly for everyday necessities. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 15. I have worked late in the evening or on weekends when something important has come up, even though I had promised my spouse or children to do something with them. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 16. I have (would) cut back on my career involvement in order to meet the needs of my family. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 17. I am as career oriented or more so, than my professional colleagues. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |

B. HOUSEHOLD TASKS

Certain household tasks are necessary to keep things running smoothly. Who does each of these tasks more often, you or your spouse? If the decision is NOT currently relevant (e.g. children older or grown) ANSWER AS TO WHO DID THE TASK (e.g. childcare) in the PAST. Consider your present marriage only.

I Do This Slightly More
I Do This Much More
We Do This Equally
Spouse Does Slightly More
Spouse Does Much More
Neither of Us Does

1. Shops for GROCERIES	1	2	3	4	5	9
2. CLEANS house (vacuuming, dusting, mopping, cleaning windows, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	9
3. Maintains yard or arranges to have it done.	1	2	3	4	5	9
4. Does /did routine childcare (feeding, bathing, changing, chauffeuring, homework help, conferencing with teachers, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	9
5. Cares/cared for children in EMERGEN- CIES (stays home when child is ill, takes to doctor, cares for during school vacations or arranges for care).	1	2	3	4	5	9
6. Does HOUSEHOLD REPAIRS or arranges to have them done (carpentry, painting, fixing, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	9
7. COOKS the evening meal.	1	2	3	4	5	9
8. Washes DISHES and cleans kitchen after meals.	1	2	3	4	5	9
9. Cares for CLOTHES (washes, sorts, irons, mends).	1	2	3	4	5	9
10. PAYS BILLS and balances checkbook.	1	2	3	4	5	9
11. Makes or arranges for CAR REPAIRS (changing tires, oil, washing, routine maintenance).	1	2	3	4	5	9
12. Arranges for HIRED HOUSEHOLD HELP (e.g. advertising, interviewing, training, paying, firing).	1	2	3	4	5	9

C. DECISION MAKING

For each of the different decisions listed below indicate who usually has the most influence. If you have NEVER discussed an issue in your PRESENT MARRIAGE mark NOT APPLICABLE.

	<i>I Have All</i>	<i>I Have Slightly More</i>	<i>We Have Equal</i>	<i>Spouse Slightly More</i>	<i>Spouse All</i>	<i>Not Applicable</i>
1. Whether to have any children.	1	2	3	4	5	9
2. When to have our first child.	1	2	3	4	5	9
3. Which birth control method to use.	1	2	3	4	5	9
4. Whether/where to move because (or if) I was offered a better job requiring my relocation.	1	2	3	4	5	9
5. Whether to change neighborhoods locally for a more desirable location.	1	2	3	4	5	9
6. Which house or apartment to buy or rent the last time we moved.	1	2	3	4	5	9
7. How much money to spend on furniture, appliances, decorating, or other major household items.	1	2	3	4	5	9
8. Whether to buy our /my most recently purchased car.	1	2	3	4	5	9
9. When/whether to take our last vacation.	1	2	3	4	5	9
10. How to discipline our children.	1	2	3	4	5	9

D. RELATIONSHIP

Who is more likely to behave in the following ways in your present marriage, you or your spouse? If neither of you behave this way, or if both do equally, circle the appropriate response.

I Do This Much More
I Do This Slightly More
We Do This Equally
Spouse Does Slightly More
Spouse Does Much More
Neither of Us Does

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Talks over family problems (e.g. children or other relatives) with spouse. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 2. Keeps in touch with relatives on both sides of the family (phone calls, letters, cards). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 3. Shows one understands the kinds of problems the other has at work and gives support. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 4. Listens when spouse needs someone to talk to, no matter how busy one is. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 5. Helps spouse with job related work when spouse is under pressure. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 6. Shows active interests in occupational goals and ideas of spouse. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 7. Calls spouse to let him/her know of late arrival or change in plans. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 8. Gives into spouse's wishes to avoid confrontation with spouse. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 9. Takes extra time or effort to find/make just the right gift or card for spouse. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 10. Senses that the other is disturbed about something and initiates discussion. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 11. Offers to work on a project or hobby with spouse. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |

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|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. Initiates discussions about matters that may be causing tension between us. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 13. Prepares special meals or treats for spouse. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 14. Takes vacations or other non-work related trips without spouse. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 15. Arranges and adjusts one's personal activities to suit the demands of spouse's career. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 16. Initiates conversation at the dinner table. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 17. Alters habits and ways of doing things to please the other. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 18. Takes time out from other duties to prepare for family celebrations (birthdays, holidays, etc.). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 19. Expresses wide range of emotions with partner (sorrows and joys; anxieties and triumphs). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 20. Initiates discussion of a new division of responsibilities when demands on either of us change. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |



(Wife)

QUESTIONNAIRE

A. CAREER STATEMENTS

Please answer each of the following in terms of whether you agree or disagree that the statement describes your BEHAVIOR or your SITUATION in your PRESENT MARRIAGE. For those statements which clearly require YES or NO response, circle STRONGLY AGREE for YES and STRONGLY DISAGREE for NO. If the item is not applicable to you now, and NEVER has been in your present marriage, circle N.A.

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Applicable</i>
1. I could stop working and the loss of my salary would <u>not</u> substantially alter our standard of living.	SA	A	D	SD	NA
2. I would not quit work if it were financially feasible.	SA	A	D	SD	NA
3. If my career demanded it, I would take (have taken) a separate residence from my spouse (may include part of week).	SA	A	D	SD	NA
4. I feel (or have felt) strongly compelled to achieve recognition in my career.	SA	A	D	SD	NA
5. If I really disliked my current job, I could stop working for a while with the assurance that my spouse would support me.	SA	A	D	SD	NA
6. The personal satisfaction and fulfillment I gain from my work are more important to me than the money I earn.	SA	A	D	SD	NA
7. Most of my income goes into a savings account, other investments, or "extras."	SA	A	D	SD	NA

- | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|----|----|
| 8. My spouse makes a point of mentioning my occupation to friends and acquaintances. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 9. The role of spouse/parent is more important to me than that of career person. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 10. When I'm under extreme pressure at work, I tend to put the needs of my spouse or children last. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 11. My career contributes to the prestige that we as a couple enjoy in the community. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 12. My income is as vital (or more so) to the economic well-being of our family as is my husband's. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 13. I obtain a great deal of prestige from my work. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 14. My income is used mostly for everyday necessities. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 15. I have worked late in the evening or on weekends when something important has come up, even though I had promised my spouse or children to do something with them. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 16. I have (would) cut back on my career involvement in order to meet the needs of my family. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |
| 17. I am as career oriented or more so, than my professional colleagues. | SA | A | D | SD | NA |

B. HOUSEHOLD TASKS

Certain household tasks are necessary to keep things running smoothly. Who does each of these tasks more often, you or your spouse? If the decision is NOT currently relevant (e.g. children older or grown) ANSWER AS TO WHO DID THE TASK (e.g. childcare) in the PAST. Consider your present marriage only.

I Do This Slightly More
I Do This Much More
We Do This Equally
Spouse Does Slightly More
Spouse Does Much More
Neither of Us Does

1. Shops for GROCERIES	1	2	3	4	5	9
2. CLEANS house (vacuuming, dusting, mopping, cleaning windows, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	9
3. Maintains yard or arranges to have it done.	1	2	3	4	5	9
4. Does /did routine childcare (feeding, bathing, changing, chauffeuring, homework help, conferencing with teachers, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	9
5. Cares/cared for children in EMERGENCIES (stays home when child is ill, takes to doctor, cares for during school vacations or arranges for care).	1	2	3	4	5	9
6. Does HOUSEHOLD REPAIRS or arranges to have them done (carpentry, painting, fixing, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	9
7. COOKS the evening meal.	1	2	3	4	5	9
8. Washes DISHES and cleans kitchen after meals.	1	2	3	4	5	9
9. Cares for CLOTHES (washes, sorts, irons, mends).	1	2	3	4	5	9
10. PAYS BILLS and balances checkbook.	1	2	3	4	5	9
11. Makes or arranges for CAR REPAIRS (changing tires, oil, washing, routine maintenance).	1	2	3	4	5	9
12. Arranges for HIRED HOUSEHOLD HELP (e.g. advertising, interviewing, training, paying, firing).	1	2	3	4	5	9

C. DECISION MAKING

For each of the different decisions listed below indicate who usually has the most influence. If you have NEVER discussed an issue in your PRESENT MARRIAGE mark NOT APPLICABLE.

	<i>I Have All</i>	<i>I Have Slightly More</i>	<i>We Have Equal</i>	<i>Spouse Slightly More</i>	<i>Spouse All</i>	<i>Not Applicable</i>
1. Whether to have any children.	1	2	3	4	5	9
2. When to have our first child.	1	2	3	4	5	9
3. Which birth control method to use.	1	2	3	4	5	9
4. Whether/where to move because (or if) I was offered a better job requiring my relocation.	1	2	3	4	5	9
5. Whether to change neighborhoods locally for a more desirable location.	1	2	3	4	5	9
6. Which house or apartment to buy or rent the last time we moved.	1	2	3	4	5	9
7. How much money to spend on furniture, appliances, decorating, or other major household items.	1	2	3	4	5	9
8. Whether to buy our /my most recently purchased car.	1	2	3	4	5	9
9. When/whether to take our last vacation.	1	2	3	4	5	9
10. How to discipline our children.	1	2	3	4	5	9

D. RELATIONSHIP

Who is more likely to behave in the following ways in your present marriage, you or your spouse? If neither of you behave this way, or if both do equally, circle the appropriate response.

	<i>I Do This Much More</i>	<i>I Do This Slightly More</i>	<i>We Do This Equally</i>	<i>Spouse Does Slightly More</i>	<i>Spouse Does Much More</i>	<i>Neither of Us Does</i>
1. Talks over family problems (e.g. children or other relatives) with spouse.	1	2	3	4	5	9
2. Keeps in touch with relatives on both sides of the family (phone calls, letters, cards).	1	2	3	4	5	9
3. Shows one understands the kinds of problems the other has at work and gives support.	1	2	3	4	5	9
4. Listens when spouse needs someone to talk to, no matter how busy one is.	1	2	3	4	5	9
5. Helps spouse with job related work when spouse is under pressure.	1	2	3	4	5	9
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7. Calls spouse to let him/her know of late arrival or change in plans.	1	2	3	4	5	9
8. Gives into spouse's wishes to avoid confrontation with spouse.	1	2	3	4	5	9
9. Takes extra time or effort to find/make just the right gift or card for spouse.	1	2	3	4	5	9
10. Senses that the other is disturbed about something and initiates discussion.	1	2	3	4	5	9
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| 12. Initiates discussions about matters that may be causing tension between us. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
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| 14. Takes vacations or other non-work related trips without spouse. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
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| 19. Expresses wide range of emotions with partner (sorrows and joys; anxieties and triumphs). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 20. Initiates discussion of a new division of responsibilities when demands on either of us change. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9 |

APPENDIX D
Letter of Transmittal

7041 Mervine Road
Richmond, Virginia 23225
July 23, 1989

Dear Respondent,

As a doctoral student at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, I am conducting my dissertation research study on the topic "Black Professional Women in Dual-Career Families: The Relationship of Marital Equity and Sex Role Identity to Career Commitment. This study will examine the extent to which husbands and wives experience role reversals and whether such practice within the family unit impacts on the wife's ability to actively pursue her career goals.

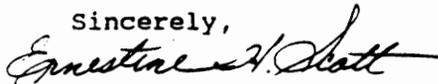
You are one of a number of Alpha Kappa Alpha women in the Mid-Atlantic region and their husbands being asked to participate in my data collection. The data collected from this study will be used to draw conclusions about who does what in the Black dual-career family and how marital equity and gender role typing influences the wife's career pursuits.

Your contribution and that of your spouse are equally important to this research study. Therefore, I am requesting that BOTH of you fill out the enclosed questionnaires. These packets have been labeled to distinguish husband and wife responses. Please take a few minutes to answer all of the questions in each section of the questionnaire. I must however, ask that you and your husband fill out your questionnaires separately to insure unbiased and individual answers. The responses that you give will be kept in strict confidence. I am only concerned with the total study, thus your name is not needed on the questionnaire, and individual responses will not be shared.

For your convenience a stamped self-addressed envelope has been enclosed to return both questionnaires.

This study is unique in that Husbands are included, it is my hope that you and your spouse will help in my efforts to add to the study of the Black family by returning your questionnaires by August 5, 1989. Thank-you for your help and I look forward to your reply.

Sincerely,



Ernestine H. Scott
Doctorial candidate

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

APPENDIX E
Letter of Support from AKA Mid-Atlantic Regional Director

AREA CODE 312 — TELEPHONE: 684-1282



Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority
INCORPORATED

ALPHA KAPPA ALPHA OFFICE: 5656 SOUTH STONY ISLAND AVENUE, CHICAGO, IL 60637

OFFICE OF

SOROR MARYE J. JEFFRIES
Mid Atlantic Regional Director
Route 1 Box #95A
Linden, North Carolina 28356
Home: (919) 822-4042
A.K.A. Phone: (919) 822-3147
Work: (919) 486-1226
Fax: (919) 822-0319

July 21, 1989

Dear Sorors:

Soror Ernestine Scott, a doctoral candidate at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, is writing her dissertation on the topic- "Black Professional Women in Dual-Career Families: The Relationship of Martial Equity and Sex Role Identity to Career Commitment." In that connection, Soror Ernestine will be using members of the Mid-Atlantic Region to collect her research data.

It is always a pleasure to recognize and encourage the professional and educational endeavors of Alpha Kappa Alpha women, and I applaud Soror Ernestine in this effort. She needs you to assist her by filling out the enclosed survey forms. I encourage you to support her research study by returning the survey forms as requested.

I appreciate your doing this and I know Soror Ernestine will also be most grateful.

Sisterly yours,

Marye J. Jeffries, Ed.D

APPENDIX F
Follow-Up Postcard to Nonrespondents

Follow - Up Postcard

August 3, 1989

Dear Respondents:

Two weeks ago you received a questionnaire packet from me seeking information relative to the Black Dual-Career family. Since you were selected as one of the dual-career couples to participate in this study, it is important that you complete and return your questionnaires. If you have not returned your questionnaires, please take a few minutes to fill them out and drop them in the mail today.

Your cooperation in this matter will be greatly appreciated. I look forward to your immediate reply.

Sincerely,

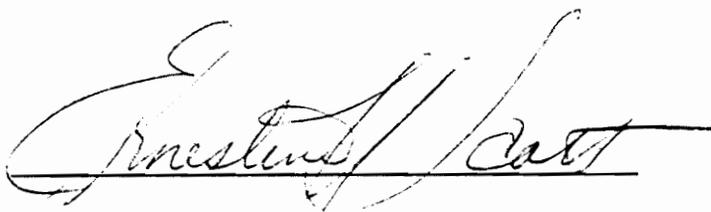
Ernestine H. Scott
Graduate Student

VITA

Ernestine H. Scott was born June 8, 1950 in Amelia, Virginia. She graduated from high school third in her class in 1968 and entered Virginia State University. There she majored in Fine Arts, graduating in 1972 cum laude.

After student teaching in New York, she was recruited to teach in the New York City Public School system where she spent two years working with inner city youth. In 1974, she returned to Richmond, Virginia and taught Art in the city schools for nine years. She received a masters degree in Art Education from Virginia Commonwealth University in 1979, and enrolled in a doctoral program at Virginia Polytechnic and State University. She joined the Virginia Cooperative Extension Service in 1982 as an Extension Agent and was later granted a two - year educational leave to continue work on her doctorate.

The author was awarded the Doctor of Education in Adult and Continuing Education in December, 1990. Ernestine and husband, Richard, have two children, Troy and Traci.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Ernestine H. Scott". The signature is written in black ink and is positioned above a horizontal line.