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CONTRIBUTION TO HOUSEHOLD TASKS

BY UTAH HUSBANDS AND WIVES

By

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A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

CONTRIBUTIONS TO HOUSEHOLD TASKS
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The purpose of this research was to examine the time spent doing household tasks by two-parent, two-child Utah families, and to explore the relationship of the division of tasks between husband and wife and their ages, level of education, church affiliation and activity, and sex role ideology.

Data were collected from 210 two-parent, two-child families from May 1977 through August 1978. The time use of all family members six years of age and over was recorded by the homemaker for two days. The time reported in this research is the average of the time use for the two days recorded.

Analysis of variance and Pearson's Product Moment Correlation were used to analyze the data in order to answer the following research questions:

1. Is the amount of time spent in household tasks by Utah families similar to the amount reported by researchers who have studied other populations?
2. To what extent are household tasks shared by the husband and the wife?

3. Does the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the age of the husband and the wife?
4. Does the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the level of education of the husband and the wife?
5. Does the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the hours of paid employment of the husband and the wife?
6. Does the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the church affiliation of the husband and the wife?
7. Does the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the sex role ideology of the husband and the wife?

Conclusions based on the research findings were:

1. Household tasks required a significant amount of time for the Utah families studied and most of that time was contributed by the wives.
2. Husbands contributed very little time to household tasks and their contributions were mainly to maintenance tasks traditionally considered to be the husband's responsibility.
3. Time spent in paid work reduced the time spent in housework for both men and women.
4. Time contributed to household tasks was very stable for men and women. It did not change significantly with changes in age, education, church affiliation and activity, or sex role ideology.
5. When housework time and time spent in paid employment are combined, women employed full-time had less discretionary time than their male counterparts.

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I would like to thank Barrie Thorne for her suggestions and encouragement. As Alison had helped with my M. S. thesis, it was a happy coincidence to have Barrie's help with my doctoral dissertation.

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My parents have, throughout my life contributed to my education. They taught me to respect knowledge, not to settle for an easy, obvious answer and to take pleasure in work well done. I appreciate the many sacrifices they willingly made for my benefit.

The encouragement and "incessant guidance" from my husband helped more than words can express. His pleasure in my achievements means a great deal to me.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

There are certain tasks that must be done by someone in order for a family to function. These tasks are usually referred to as housework or household tasks. They include such things as care of family members, dishwashing, shopping, and house cleaning. Families have varying opinions as to how often and to what extent the tasks must be done. Housework, regardless of how accomplished, is an on-going necessity for most families. Many resources are necessary to accomplish the varied tasks and a major one is time.

It generally has been assumed that housework, particularly those tasks carried on inside the house, belong to the housewife, that housework is a natural part of being a wife. Doing household tasks is at least a part-time occupation for most women in the United States (Robinson, 1977a; Nickols, 1976). As Jessie Bernard (1972) points out, most women marry with the intention of becoming wives and mothers; few with the intention of becoming housewives.

All too much, alas, they soon learn. For marriages do not operate in a vacuum; they have to be lodged somewhere or other. Meals do not automatically and by themselves appear on the table three times a day; clean sheets and towels do not grow in the linen chest; dishes do not wash themselves nor does dust independently disappear (Bernard, p. 194).

Husbands and children could also be used as a resource to accomplish household tasks. Family members other than the wife, however, are usually regarded as helpers, or as individuals who help the housewife do her work.

Although most families are involved with housework in one form or another, it was long regarded as being beneath the interest of serious scholars. Sociologists and economists, two groups of academicians who typically study work, have by and large ignored housework. As Oakley (1974) points out, housework is often defined as non-work because the housewife is not paid for doing it and work is what one is paid to do.

Home economists, since the beginning of the home economics movement, studied housework. They were usually concerned with methods and techniques of making household tasks easier and with upgrading the image of housework and housewives (Ehrenreich & English, 1976). Some of the earliest U. S. time budget studies were conducted by home economists as a means of measuring time inputs to household tasks. They hoped to identify conditions and practices that would make household tasks require less time and less human energy.

Currently housework is being studied and written about by persons in many disciplines (Berch, 1978), particularly economists, sociologists, historians, and home economists. Part of the interest can be traced to women's increased participation in the labor market and the implications of that for what occurs in the household. The questions about the traditional division of labor between husbands and wives raised by the woman's movement have also increased interest in housework--how much is being done, who is doing it and why (Nye, 1976). Economists tend to be interested mainly in the value of housework and sociologists are interested in questions about the division of labor and the relation of paid work and family raised by the women's movement. Home economists are interested in many aspects including time spent doing housework, allocation of tasks within the family, the effects of technology on housework, human resource

development and learning in the family, and factors related to all of these.

Rationale

Major studies on household work have been conducted recently by Vanek (1973), Oakley (1974), Nickols (1976), Berk (1976) and Sanik (1979). The approach and methodology used and conclusions reached have varied. As far as could be determined, a study on household tasks and their allocation, using a time budget approach has not previously been conducted with Utah families as the subjects. There are reasons to suspect that factors different from those in other regions may affect the division of household tasks in some Utah families, particularly in families that are active members of the Mormon Church. The Church has a strong position regarding what adult men and women should do. Men are to be the supporters of the family while women are to be wives and mothers, responsible for caring for family members and for their home. Philosophies which differ from this position have often been attacked by Church leaders (Harvey, 1975). The impact of this philosophy on adult household task performance has not been researched, at least not in any published research.

Some psychologists have long held that personality traits significantly influence the responsibilities that individuals assume in adult life (Pleck, 1977). They also relate certain personality traits to the sex of the person. Being male or female, according to some psychologists, while not determining who will be responsible for household tasks, does have an influence. Most measures of personality characteristics and their relationship to behavior are based on laboratory experiments (Bem, 1976). No research relating personality traits to behavior in natural settings could be found. Such a personality measure, the Bem Sex Role

Inventory, will be related to division of household tasks in the families studied.

The purpose of this study is to examine the time spent doing household tasks by two-parent, two-child Utah families and to explore the relationship of the division of tasks between husband and wife and their ages, level of education, church affiliation and activity, and sex role ideology.

Conceptual Framework

Family resource management is concerned with the allocation of resources to achieve goals or, as Ella Cushman stated, "Home management is using what you have to get what you want." The "what you have" are resources and "what you want" are goals. The unit being studied can be an individual, a family, or a household.

Each person has both human and material resources. Intelligence, talents, skills, and abilities are common human resources. Material resources include such things as money and goods. Agreement is lacking among family resource management specialists as to where time fits in a resource classification, i.e. as a human or non-human resource; but most seem to agree that it is a resource. Resources available for use vary from person to person. The only resource equally distributed to all persons is time, with everyone having just twenty-four hours a day.

A family or household's resources could be looked at as the sum of the resources of all the individual members. This view, however, might over state the case as some resources would not be available for the use of the group.

Resources have alternative uses. There are usually competing needs and wants for the resources available. Families, it is assumed, try to



allocate their resources in order to achieve their goals. Goals are often thought of as a desired future condition. They can vary from important and long term goals to those that are mundane and short term.

A common goal of most families is to complete the tasks that are necessary for the household to function; food must be prepared, laundry must be done, and children and adults must be cared for. Although many resources are necessary to reach these goals, a major one is time. Usually the time used is that of family members. Which family member will contribute time to household tasks and how much time is a concern of many persons.

The study of the allocation of resources is an important part of the field of family resource management. Knowledge about factors which affect how families as a whole or specific family members allocate their resources is important. It is particularly important currently, when increased demands on the time of family members are being made both inside and outside the household.

Research Objective

The objective of this research is to answer the following research questions:

1. Is the amount of time spent in household tasks by Utah families similar to the amount reported by researchers who have studied other populations?
2. To what extent are household tasks shared by the husband and the wife?
3. Will the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the age of the husband and the wife?

4. Will the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the level of education of the husband and the wife?
5. Will the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the hours of paid employment of the husband and the wife?
6. Will the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the church affiliation and activity of the husband and the wife?
7. Will the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the sex role ideology of the husband and the wife?

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Time Spent Doing Household Tasks

History

Housework, it has often been said, is what no one notices, unless it isn't done (Ehrenreich & English, 1976). Household tasks are the tasks such as food preparation, housecleaning, and laundry, that must be done by someone to some degree in order for a household to function. According to Nye (1976, p. 89), "Housekeeping involves a set of responsibilities as old as the family itself, which stem from the capacity of humans to prepare and cook food, mend and care for clothing and household equipment, and respond to concepts of cleanliness and order."

Tracing the history of housework in the United States, Ehrenreich and English (1976), point out that housework as we know it today is quite a recent invention. They contend that the pre-industrial home was a manufacturing center and the females in the home utilized a wide variety of skills to produce what was necessary for the family. Their activities included producing food, fabric, clothes, candles, and other necessities. Few items were purchased. The time that was necessary for production left little time for maintenance and cleaning. The typical rural household did not contain many objects to clean and maintain and, "By all accounts, pre-industrial revolution women were sloppy housekeepers by today's standards" (Ehrenreich & English, 1978, p. 129).

The industrial revolution of the 19th century brought many changes resulting in much home production being transferred from homes to factories. The poor, including women, sold their labor to the factories while the married middle class women remained at home. What women would do with their time as it became possible to produce less and purchase more became a concern. According to Ehrenreich and English (1976, p. 13) some people worried that, "With less and less to make in the home, it seemed as if there would soon be nothing to do in the home."

The fact that housework did not wither away and eventually disappear can, according to Ehrenreich and English (1978), at least in part, be blamed on or credited to the domestic science movement of the late 19th and early 20th century. It addressed the void that was feared would occur within homes, as more and more production was transferred to factories. The solution posed by the movement was to use discoveries and knowledge from any and every discipline possible to upgrade everyday tasks. The goal was to eliminate or redefine drudgery and elevate housekeeping to a challenging activity. Ehrenreich and English (1976) contend that the domestic science movement actually caused women more work by teaching them to strive for higher and higher standards in their housekeeping.

Research

It was thought, and continues to be contended by many (Boulding, 1972) that modern labor saving appliances and other household technology would or will eliminate, or at least drastically reduce, the time required for housekeeping (Walker & Woods, 1976). Cowan (1976) surveyed women's magazines from the late 1800's to the 1930's, hoping to determine the effects of new household technology on middle-class American women. She concluded that the beginning of the depression brought drastic changes in households

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with the addition of electricity, running water, central heating, bathrooms, and numerous appliances to most middle class homes. And what effect did technology have on time spent doing housework? Evidently it had very little. Cowan concluded that time spent on some household tasks decreased, but new jobs were added and time expenditures for other jobs increased, so there was little overall change in time.

Vanek (1973) using a different approach, compared the early time budget studies sponsored by the Bureau of Home Economics with data collected in 1965 by the University of Michigan Survey Research Center. Once again, because of the many changes that had occurred in households between the 1920's and the 1960's it was assumed that time spent in housekeeping would have decreased. Time spent doing housework by full-time homemakers had, however, increased from 52 to 55 hours a week. While time spent in some individual tasks had decreased in others it had increased.

Vanek's (1973) conclusions were much the same as Cowan's (1976), that qualitative change and additional tasks had more than replaced any time saved by increased technology within homes. The increased time spent on some tasks had cancelled out the decreased time devoted to others and had caused total time to increase slightly.

In a time use study conducted in Syracuse, New York in 1967-68 (Walker & Woods, 1976) the average time of all family members devoted to household work was 10.5 hours per day. Wives contributed the major proportion of time to household work, 72 percent when they were not employed and 62 percent when they were employed. Husbands and children contributed most of the additional time.

Nickols (1976) analyzed time use data of 1,156 husbands and wives from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics conducted by the Survey Research

Center at the University of Michigan. A cross-sectional analysis of 1973 data revealed that wives devoted 32.4 hours per week to housework and husbands 2.4 hours. This would total 34.8 hours being devoted to housework, which in this particular study did not include time inputs to care of children, home repairs and yard work, and shopping. Sixty-five percent of husbands and about two percent of wives reported that they spent no time in housework.

Robinson (1977a) in a progress report on a 1975 Survey Research Center time use study reported a total of 20.5 hours per week by male and female respondents to family care which included child care and routine household cleaning and upkeep. This was nearly five hours less than the 25.4 hours reported in a similar study conducted ten years earlier. Women reported less time spent in family care in 1975 than in 1965 and men, both married and single, reported more. There was an overall drop of twenty percent in family care, mainly in the categories of routine household cleaning, rather than child care.

The most recent time budget study of family time use was a 1977 update of the 1967-68 Cornell study (Walker & Woods, 1976). Sanik (1979) analyzed the data to determine whether, in the intervening decade, any significant changes had occurred in time devoted to housework. For urban family members, time spent in household work had increased from 10.5 hours per day in 1967 to 10.8 hours in 1977. The change was not statistically significant. The time reported for all family members, urban and rural was 11.3 hours per day in 1977. Time devoted to housework by women had decreased from 7.8 hours per day to 7.5, not a significant change. Males had increased their time by a half hour per day, from 1.7 hours in 1967 to 2.2 hours in 1977, a statistically significant difference.

One conclusion that can safely be drawn from the studies reviewed is that housework has not disappeared. While some researchers report increases and others decreases, the time spent doing household tasks is still a significant part of life for most persons.

Distribution of Household Tasks Between
Husbands and Wives

Traditional Division

During the past century in the United States there has been an assumed or "traditional" division of labor between husbands and wives. Husbands were to go out and earn an income and wives were to stay home and take care of children and other household tasks (Coser & Rokoff, 1971; Pleck, 1977; Tavis & Offir, 1977). "In traditional thinking, the husband brought home the bacon and the wife cooked it" (Nye, 1976, p. 151).

In recent years, there has been much questioning and philosophizing and some research on the division of labor between men and women. The questioning seems to center around the origin and universality of this arrangement. The rationale behind much of the writing is that if the origins could be determined then perhaps it would be possible to demonstrate that what is usually taken for granted as "normal" or "natural" is in reality not a biological mandate and that there is more flexibility than has often been assumed. If numerous examples of different arrangements can be found, both cross-culturally and historically, perhaps the tasks men and women are assigned in a given culture can be re-assigned or re-arranged without devastating the culture.

The reasons given for the current traditional division are often tied to physiology. Women bear and nurse children and it is believed by some

that women, on the average, do not have as much physical strength, as men on the average. These two facts are often used as a rationale for women staying at home to care for children. Since they were at "home", the argument goes, women naturally did the tasks around the fire, campsite, household, or whatever. Someone had to go out into the world and bring back food to feed the group. Women needed to be more proximate, therefore men went off to be the hunters and gatherers.

Although the physiological facts behind the above arguments are at least currently correct, the theory that the current traditional division of labor naturally followed from them has been disputed by many scholars (Brown, 1970; Tavris & Offir, 1977). Brown (1970) for example, after surveying studies done on tribal and peasant societies, concluded that the division of labor was not based on physiological reasons, but was based on child care responsibilities that were assigned to women. The child care responsibilities necessitated that the other work women did be repetitive, interruptible, not dangerous, and that did not require extensive excursions, hence homework.

A second rationale often used to justify or explain the division of labor between men and women is a psychological explanation. "In every society, in every country, people have assumed that males and females are different not merely in basic anatomy but in elusive qualities of spirit, soul, and ability. They are not supposed to do the same things, think the same way, or share the same dreams and desires" (Tavris & Offir, 1977, p. 2). Consequently a division of necessary tasks, not a sharing of tasks was inevitable.

Probably the most famous, most quoted and most attacked theory of the division of labor between men and women is Parsons' instrumental/

expressive dichotomy. In the modern family, Parsons argued, men are the instrumental leaders and specialize in problem-solving, decision-making, and relating the family to the outside world. Women are the expressive leaders maintaining solidarity and morale, and controlling inter-personal conflict. Thus an assumption of different, dichotomous roles, linked to gender was used as a justification for men being involved in the labor market and women being assigned household tasks (Parsons & Bales, 1955).

Possibility of Change

The time required to do household tasks and their division between husbands and wives is currently receiving much attention, both from scholars and the popular press. The impetus for this attention seems to be the well documented increase in the number of women in the labor market as well as the feminist movement. The increase in the number and percentage of women who are now "working" causes concern and much speculation as to who is or will do the housework: husbands, children, wives, or is it just not getting done?

The feminist movement's interest in housework centers on questions of equity concerning the traditional arrangement between husbands and wives. It questions the assumption that all women want to or should be totally responsible for the household chores and that all men want to or should be totally responsible for the financial support of the family. It points out that Americans put more value on, or accord more prestige to work that is paid and that because women are tied to housework, their chances to excel in a job or career are greatly diminished (Stafford, Backman & Dibona, 1977).

The conclusions drawn by researchers who have studied the division of household tasks between husbands and wives have varied (Glazer-Malbin,

1976). Some of the differences seem to be related to the researcher's methodology.

Studies based on questionnaires. Lopata (1972) interviewed 205 housewives in the Chicago area as the basis for her book, Occupation Housewife. As part of her research she asked specifically about how much help the husbands contributed to various household activities. There were ten response categories for each task, which ranged from "their responsibility, not mine" to "I do it, no help."

Although in open-ended comments, the suburban housewives Lopata interviewed stressed that their husbands helped with or shared home-maintenance functions, their responses to closed-ended items in a questionnaire did not totally support this view. The largest percentage of wives checked the "I do, no help" category for cook the meals; wash, dry, put away dishes; beds, straighten, clean house; laundry, care of clothes; shop for food, other; and care of children, feed, bed. Greatest help from husbands came in care of money, bills, finances; garden; and heavy cleaning.

As Lopata (1971) stressed, "The whole area of 'help' or 'help with' needs greater research." A statement that, "husbands help more now," can be interpreted in many ways. It could mean, "my husband helps more than he used to," or, "men in general do more housework than men in general used to," or, "the men I am now around talk about helping with household tasks more than they formerly did." There are other interpretations for the statement, all equally ambiguous.

As part of a research project on family roles, Nye (1976) collected data on housekeeping. The subjects were 210 couples in Yakima County, Washington who all had a child in the third grade. Separate, but nearly

identical questionnaires, were filled out by the husband and the wife. The study was carried out in the summer of 1970.

Two questions were asked about housekeeping. One asked, "Who do you think should do the housekeeping?" and the other "Who does the housekeeping?" The possible responses varied from "husband entirely" to "wife entirely." Seventy percent of the men said they should share the household tasks, while 56 percent said they actually do share the tasks. The wives perceived less participation by the men than did the men themselves. Fifty-four percent said men should share housekeeping duties, while 39 percent said husbands actually do share the housework. Obviously what the husbands did was not perceived the same by their wives as by themselves and vice versa. Nye reports that neither men nor women were very pleased with their performance as housekeepers, only about one-third rating themselves above the "fair" category. Nye sees this as possible evidence for a decline in the importance of housekeeping functions.

A variety of data gathering techniques were utilized by Berk (1976) in a study conducted in Evanston, Illinois. Two, three hour observations and interviewing of 20 homemakers were carried out. A questionnaire was administered to an additional 309 women via telephone. Of the 309 telephone interviewees, 138 filled out a 24 hour diary. During the observations and interviews Berk asked her subjects to retrospectively account for daily routines, to discuss the "meanings" of the work being observed, to generally discuss housework standards, the division of household tasks and decision-making, and extra household roles.

Berk asked her respondents who "generally" did each household activity. Generally was defined as equal to or more than 50 percent of the time the task was done. Women generally did most household tasks including

meal preparation, cleaning the kitchen, laundry, straightening, outside errands, and "other." The major contribution for husbands was for outside errands and they undertook 54 percent of those activities. Women also did more than half of the work in some areas often regarded as the husband's work including emptying the garbage, going to the gas station, handling financial matters, and paying bills.

Berk refers to the allocation of tasks in the families she studied as the non-division of household labor and sees it as being linked to "a complex web of objective household constraints, societal sex roles and broader sexist institutions" (1976, p. 348).

In an effort to determine whether there would be a difference in the division of labor among cohabiting and married couples, Stafford, Backman and Dibona (1977) analyzed questionnaires completed by 25 men and 29 women who were currently cohabiting and 30 men and 29 women currently married. The researchers asked for responsibility for household tasks and the actual performance of the tasks. The possible responses for the questions concerning responsibility included "mine," "partner's," and "not applicable." An extensive list of household tasks was asked about, including some which could be considered neutral.

The responses in both samples reflected a traditional division of household labor. This was true for both responsibility and performance of household tasks. The women in both groups did most of the household tasks. The tasks shared most often were dishwashing and finances and those shared least often were snow shoveling and the maintenance tasks of child care.

One hundred couples who had just had their first child were the subjects for the study of household task performance roles of husbands and wives by Lovingood (Lovingood & Firebaugh, 1978). The husbands and wives

were asked 25 identical questions about who makes and who implements certain household task decisions. A Blood and Wolfe type scale was used with 1 designating "husband always" and 5 "wife always." Response means between 1.0 and 2.5 were considered to be part of the husband's role, 2.5 to 3.5 an indication of shared roles, and 3.5 to 5.0 as tasks that were part of the wife's role.

As in the Nye (1976) study, wives saw themselves as having more responsibilities than their husbands acknowledged and husbands saw themselves as having more responsibility than did their wives. The division of responsibilities was along traditional lines with the husband performing the role of decision implementer in buying the car and life insurance, in making housing arrangements, and household repair. Wives were responsible to implement decisions regarding decorating and furnishing the house, preparing the family dinner, doing the grocery shopping, contacting the doctor, performing child care, doing the family laundry, preparing breakfast for husbands on work days, and doing the evening dishes. The only shared task was keeping track of the money and the bills. From the results it was concluded (Lovingood & Firebaugh, 1978, p. 25) "Wives have somewhat more total responsibility than husbands, especially in implementing decisions."

Time budget studies. In her analysis of the 1965-66 time use study conducted by Robinson and Converse of the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan, Vanek (1973) looked at the allocation on household tasks between men and women. The study was based on a national sample, but since individuals, not husbands and wives, were studied, there were some limitations in using the data.

Female respondents were requested to estimate about how many hours their husbands had helped them with the housework during the past week. It was estimated that husbands contributed about seven hours per week to household work. The task that received the largest block of time was shopping, which accounted for about two and one-half hours per week. The time budget data from the men in the survey lent some support to the estimates from the women. In commenting on the division of housework between women and men Vanek (1973, p. 198) states, "I have described work in the household as if it were solely the sphere of women and not men. The data reviewed appear to indicate that in contemporary society housework is primarily women's responsibility."

Nickols (1976), as mentioned earlier, analyzed longitudinal data on 1,156 families. To be included in the study both husband and wife had to be present in the home during the six years of the study, both had to be less than 65 years old, and neither spouse could suffer from disability that precluded working. Although a restricted definition of housework was used in the study (child care, home repairs and yard work, and shopping were not included), the results agreed with those of other researchers; most of the time spent in housework was contributed by the wives.

Nickols did report some changes that had occurred between 1968 and 1973, the years covered by the study. There was a slight increase both in the number of husbands who did some housework and in the hours worked per week. The number who did any housework rose from 330 in the first three years of the study to 399 by the last year. While husbands reported a slight increase in time devoted to housework, by 1973 they were contributing 2.4 hours per week, wives reported a four hour decline over the six years to 32.4 hours per week (Nickols & Metzen, 1978).

Robinson (1977b) in a progress report on time use data gathered by the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center in 1975, compared that data with their 1965 data. He reported that married employed men had increased their contributions to family care from 9.0 to 9.7 hours per week in the ten year period. Employed married women had decreased family care time from 28.8 hours to 24.9, while married full-time housewives had an even larger decrease, going from 50 hours in 1965 to 44.3 hours in 1975. The decrease was mainly in routine household cleaning and upkeep and not from child care.

In comparing the 1967-68 Cornell data with the 1977 Cornell data, Sanik (1979) found more change in time spent doing household tasks by men than by women. In 1967-68 women had spent 7.8 hours per day and this had decreased to 7.5 hours a day by 1977, not a significant difference. Husbands, on the other hand, had increased their contribution from 1.7 hours per day to 2.2 hours, which was a statistically significant change.

Sanik analyzed time contributed to eight categories of household tasks to determine whether there had been changes in the components of housework. For the homemaker there had been a significant decline in time spent in dishwashing and in clothing care and construction. There was an increase in time used shopping. The other five categories, which had not changed significantly, included food preparation, home-yard-car care, physical care of family members, nonphysical care of family members, and management. For the husbands, the only category in which a significant change had occurred was nonphysical care of family members. Their time spent in this category had increased from 10 to 27 minutes per day in the ten year period.

Factors Related to The Division
of Household Tasks

Although the research reviewed indicates that most household tasks are done by women, the division of household tasks between husbands and wives is not exactly the same in all households in the United States. Every mean time reported represents a range, with some men and women devoting little time to household tasks and some devoting many hours (Nichols, 1976). There are also households where tasks are considered to be not only the responsibility of both the husband and the wife, but where both contributed equal or nearly equal amounts of time. A number of factors and their relationship to the allocation of household tasks have been investigated, often with conflicting results.

Age

It has been thought that age might be related to the division of tasks. One reason for thinking that division of labor might be related to age is that younger men and women grew up and married during a time when there was much discussion about life patterns, male and female stereotypes, equal opportunity for women and alternative life styles. It is believed that men and women marrying during this period of time might have married with different attitudes toward labor market and household responsibilities than those of earlier generations. A different perspective suggests that people become more "set in their ways" as they age and that although the time demands of paid work and household work might change, habit would prevent this from altering time devoted to household tasks.

In an article on family responsibilities and social stratification Olson (1960) commented that there was a marked negative correlation

between the age of the subjects and the tendency toward joint sharing of responsibilities. The author (Olson, 1960, p. 63) posed the question, "Do young couples today share more home responsibilities than they have in the past?" As this study was done before the feminist movement of the 1960's the finding would probably be more related to flexibility assumed to be found in younger persons than to concerns about equality.

Robinson (1977a) found little variation based on age in how Americans used time in any aspect of life. Although he did not comment on any changes in division of labor related to age he did note that both men and women spent more time on housework as they grew older.

According to Kreps and Clark (1975, p. 50), "attitudes as to which sex engages in the home production of goods are also changing. Among young couples, particularly the husband is expected to perform some household tasks." This supposedly results from a shift that has occurred in attitudes toward the roles of family members.

The prevailing conventional wisdom is that young people are being reared with different attitudes toward the distribution of household tasks. Their attitudes, perhaps are different, but three studies that examined children's contributions to household work did not support the idea that there is less stereotyping in household tasks. Lynch (1975a & 1975b) analyzed the time data of children aged six to 17 gathered in the 1967-68 Cornell project. After examining the contributions to household tasks of 387 girls and 419 boys she concluded that girls performed a greater number of tasks and also spent more time in household work. Boys contributed mostly to the tasks performed outside the house and girls to those performed within the house.

O'Neill (1978) analyzed the 1977 Cornell data on children and household tasks and compared it to the 1967-68 data. The 1967-68 sample was the same group analyzed by Lynch. The 115 boys and 104 girls between ages six and 17 were the sample for the 1977 study. O'Neill found that time contributions of both boys and girls had increased in the ten year period and that the contributions of boys had increased more than those of the girls. With just one exception, girls in all age groups studied spent more time in household tasks and engaged in more tasks than did the boys. Boys aged 15 to 17 spent six more minutes per day in household work than the girls. The stereotyped division of who did which particular tasks still remained, boys worked outside the house and girls inside.

Osborne (1979) analyzed the time use data of the children in the Utah project. She studied the contributions to household tasks of 200 children, 113 boys and 87 girls, who participated in the research project. She found no significant difference in time contributed to household tasks by girls and boys. She did find, as had Lynch (1975a) and O'Neill (1978) that girls did the traditional female tasks, boys the traditional male tasks and that this division became more pronounced as their ages increased.

Level of Education

The relationship between level of education and household work has typically been examined in two ways. One way is to look at the relationship between the level of education of the husband or the wife and time spent in household work, either looking at household work in total or at specific tasks such as food preparation or child care. A second approach has been to examine what relationship, if any, exists between the wife's level of education and the time husbands devote to household work.

Educational levels of wives. Strzemińska (1976) analyzed the relationship between time devoted to household tasks and the woman's educational level in a twelve nation time budget study (Szalai, 1972). While she was examining the time use of only employed women, the findings are still relevant. She concluded that time devoted to household tasks decreased as educational level of wives increased. This trend was true in all the countries studied.

Leibowitz (1975) analyzed the relationship between level of education of women and their time devoted to child care. She used the Walker (Walker & Woods, 1976) and Manning (1968) data for her study. She concluded that more educated mothers spent more time on child care and that husbands of more educated women also spent more time with their children.

Sanik (1979) reported that the relationship between level of education and time spent in household tasks differed according to the task. The higher the educational level of the homemaker the more time she generally devoted to food preparation, physical and nonphysical care of family members, shopping and management. The reverse was true for housecleaning, with more education she spent less time in this activity.

Educational level of husbands. The educational level of men and its relationship to time devoted to household tasks was examined by Strzemińska (1972). She found that time spent doing household tasks increased as level of education increased, the opposite of the trend found in women. Specifically, the time spent preparing meals, cleaning up, and caring for children increased with education. This increase was in the percentage of men who participated in each category and also in the average amount of time contributed. Strzemińska (1972, p. 387) hypothesized that "families of the intelligentsia have overcome their prejudice against 'women's

work,' which is still a very deeply ingrained attitude among the families of workers."

Nye (1976) studied both who is considered responsible for various family roles and who actually performs them. In regard to housekeeping he found that men with more education, which was defined as a high school diploma or more, were more likely to accept at least some responsibility for the housekeeper role. Those with less than a high school diploma regarded housekeeping as being entirely the responsibility of the wife. Nye reported, however, that the relationship between education and acceptance of responsibility was not linear. Husbands with more education were also more likely to report actually performing the housekeeper role.

After studying working women in nine countries, Cook (1975) concluded that most working women are nearly totally responsible for household tasks, but also that more educated husbands were more likely to be open-minded about sharing the tasks. Other researchers such as Robinson (1977a), Berk (1976), Nickols (1976), and Campbell (1976) have reported that more education does tend to increase men's contributions to household work, if not to the total, at least to some specific task or tasks.

Effect of wives' education on husbands. Some researchers have studied the relationship between the wives' educational level and the amount of time devoted to household work by husbands. Vanek (1972), when examining the data both for employed and nonemployed women, did not find a linear relationship. She noted that differences in amount of help received by wives from husbands with different amounts of education were very small.

Nye (1976) in his study of family roles, looked at the effect of the wife's education on who she thought should be responsible for the housekeeper role. Women with college degrees were more likely to support

the idea of shared responsibility for housekeeping tasks than were women with less education. They also reported more often that their husbands actually did perform household work.

Employment

Wives' employment and housework time. A safe generalization could be made about the effects of paid employment on the time a woman devotes to household tasks: it is reduced. This is an obvious outcome, since there are just twenty-four hours each day to allocate. If a woman allocates some hours to paid employment, they must come from somewhere and part of them seem to come from reduced time spent doing household tasks.

Walker and Woods (1976) reporting on the 1967-68 Cornell study demonstrated that paid employment has a large effect on time spent doing housework. Wives in the study who were full-time homemakers spent 8.1 hours per day on housework, while those who were employed 30 or more hours a week spent 4.8 hours per day. Walker and Woods (1976, p. 255) summarized their findings by stating, "For all of the regular household work except marketing, employed wives spent less time than those nonemployed in all or nearly all family size and age of youngest child categories." In families with a full-time homemaker 72 percent of the total housework time of all family members was contributed by the homemaker. This contribution was reduced to 62 percent when the homemaker was employed in the labor market.

Vanek (1972) analyzing data from a Survey Research Center national sample reached conclusions similar to those of Walker and Woods (1976). She divided the respondents into three categories according to their reported hours of paid employment per week, non-employed; employed part-time, worked less than 35 hours per week; and employed full-time, worked

more than 35 hours per week. The non-employed spent 55.4 hours per week doing household tasks, the part-time employed spent 34.7, and the full-time employed had reduced their time to 26 hours per week, or less than half the time of the full-time homemakers.

The same relationship between paid work and hours spent in housework was reported by Nickols (1976). In her study of time devoted to productive work, the variable which had by far the greatest impact upon the time the wives spent doing housework was time spent in paid employment. Each additional hour spent in the labor force was related to a decrease of .4 of an hour less spent in housework. A wife who worked 40 hours per week in paid employment spent 15 hours per week less doing housework than a full-time homemaker.

In a progress report on the Survey Research Center's 1975 time use survey, Robinson (1977b) reported that all women, employed and housewives, married and single, had reduced their housework time in comparison to the 1965 survey data. The differences between employed women and full-time housewives had not disappeared. Employed married women reported 24.9 hours per week devoted to housework, while married full-time homemakers reported 44.3 hours per week. During the ten year period, the employed women had reduced their time by 3.9 hours per week and the full-time homemakers by 5.7 hours.

Sanik (1979) also reported that employment was a significant variable in explaining time devoted to housework by homemakers. Homemakers employed 40 hours a week outside the home averaged 2.7 hours per day less in all household work than full-time homemakers. Employment reduced the time the homemakers spent in all of the individual household task categories, except shopping and management.

International data as reported by Szalai (1972) and Cook (1975) support the idea that in many parts of the world, the relationship between paid employment and the time women devote to housework is the same as that reported in studies done in the United States. They also point out that while employed homemakers do reduce their housework hours, the combination of housework time plus time in the labor force results in an extremely long work day. Kreps and Leaper (1976, p. 74) point out that women have seldom protested the stress of carrying out these dual careers and that, "they have seemed eager to demonstrate that they can manage both home and market work without making heavy demands on the rest of the family."

Husbands' employment and housework time. The relationship between the time husbands contribute to household work and their hours of paid employment has not been studied as extensively as the same relationship for wives. This could be due to the widely held view that women, not men are responsible for household tasks.

Walker and Woods (1976) reported that of all the variables studied in relation to the time husbands spent doing household tasks, employment time was the one most closely related. The average contribution to housework by husbands employed less than 40 hours per week was 2.1 hours per day while it was 1.2 for those employed 50 or more hours. This relationship applied not only to total housework time but to time contributed to the individual categories of all food preparation, all house care, after-meal cleanup, and special food preparation.

Nickols (1976) in a cross-sectional analysis of 1973 data from the Survey Research Center found a negative relationship between husbands' labor force hours and their time allocations to housework. Time spent

in housework was reduced by only three minutes per year for each additional hour spent in the labor market (Nickols & Metzen, 1978).

As part of a study on how blue-collar workers on 4-day work weeks use their time, Maklan (1977) studied differences in the time allocated to family activities by four and five day workers. He used both a questionnaire and a time diary for his study and from the time diary he constructed a hypothetical week. The 4-day workers, as a group, did not take on more routine housework, but did spend additional time doing major household chores such as gardening, errands, and repair work. Maklan (1977, p. 26) notes that, "Of probably greater significance, 4-day workers allocated more than five times as many minutes to activities of child care. The opportunity to so engage oneself appears to be a principal advantage of working a 4-day week."

In Sanik's (1979) analysis of the Cornell data, husbands' hours of paid employment was the only variable that was significant in explaining husbands' time spent in household work. There was an average decrease of two minutes per day for every one hour increase per week in time spent in paid employment. This negative relationship applied not only to all household work, but to the individual categories of food preparation, home-yard-car care, physical care of family members, nonphysical care of family members, and shopping.

Wives' employment and husbands' housework time. A popular assumption is that when wives are in the labor market, husbands contribute more time to household tasks. Many opinions on the subject have been voiced, some backed by research and some not. Some authors such as Pifer (1976), Brown (1977), and Mott (1978) seem to feel that, "Other things

being equal, the wife as wage earner implied the husband as homemaker" (Brown, 1977, p. 22).

Bahr (1975), summarizing a number of research studies, concluded that when the wife was employed the husband increased his household labor. The studies Bahr reviewed were based on a Blood and Wolfe methodology as opposed to time budget studies. Bahr commented that although husbands of employed women perform significantly more household tasks than husbands of full-time homemakers, the employed women still retain the primary responsibility for household work.

Most studies have found that the wife's employment has very little effect on the husband's contribution to household tasks. This conclusion has been reached in international studies and in many U. S. studies, both those that used questionnaires as the data gathering instrument and those that relied on time budget data.

Cook (1975), who studied the problems of working women in nine countries, concluded that one of their problems was carrying the double burden of paid work plus housework. In response to the rhetorical question, "Aren't husbands helping more?" she gives a firm negative response. When husbands help they assist with self-selected tasks and for small amounts of time. Cook found that even in countries, such as the United States and Australia where sharing and equal opportunity are discussed, the ideas have not yet had much impact on what actually happens. As Bernard (1972) points out, it's easier to talk about sharing housework equally than to actually carry out the plan for doing so.

Holstrom (1972) conducted extensive interviews of 20 families in which both the husband and the wife had professional occupations. One aspect of the interview dealt with division of household tasks. In slightly

over a third of the couples, the husband helped regularly with a number of household tasks. The tasks they reported as most likely to be done by the husband included emptying the garbage and trash, repair work, and heavy yard work. Cooking dinner and grocery shopping were most likely to be done by the wife, while cooking breakfast and washing dishes were most likely to be shared. Sixteen of the couples had children and in 12 of these the husband helped with child rearing on a regular basis. Two-thirds of the women interviewed reported that they were pleased with the division of household tasks in their family.

Nye (1976) found some differences in how husbands and wives viewed the housekeeper role depending on whether or not the wife was employed in the labor market. When the wife was in the labor market, one-third of the wives and less than one-fifth of the husbands allocated full responsibility for household work to the wives.

When it came to who actually did the housekeeping, more men and women reported that the wife actually performed the tasks than had stated she should have full responsibility for the housekeeper role. According to both the husbands and wives the employed and nonemployed wives were responsible for most housekeeping. Husbands reported that they were more involved in housework than did their wives, but the differences were not large.

After analyzing the relationship between wife's labor force hours and husband's contribution to housework Nickols (1976, p. 212) concluded, "Wife's labor force hours had virtually no effect upon the time the husband contributed to housework." In families where both spouses were employed full time husbands allocated 3.5 hours and wives 19 hours to housework. An analysis of the six years longitudinal data lent further support

to the contention that husbands do not help more at home when their wives are in the labor market. Nickols noted a pattern of stability in the time husbands devoted to housework regardless of change in the labor market work of their wives.

Berk (1976), although using a different approach than Nickols to measure contributions to household work, concluded that employment of wives had very little effect on the contributions of husbands. Forty-three percent of the women in Berk's sample were employed full-time but the division of labor in their households was as one sided as that in homes of full-time homemakers. She did report that wife's outside employment significantly increased the husband's contributions to child care, but also that he contributed less with younger children. The division of labor was more equitable in homes when the wife had a highly "rewarding" job (Berk, 1976, p. 338) "but not at a level where the practical consequences could be great."

Robinson (1977a) commented that the distribution of housework was particularly inequitable when the wife had a job outside the home. Husbands with wives in the labor force spent 10 percent more time doing household tasks than those whose wives were at home full time. The 10 percent increase, however, only amounted to five additional minutes per day. The husbands in Robinson's study did not increase the time spent in child care.

The relationship between homemaker's hours of employment and husband's contribution to household work in Sanik's (1979) analysis were significant at the .10 level, which indicated a likely positive relationship. For each increase of one hour per week in time the homemaker spent in paid

work there was an increase by the husband of .2 minutes per day in food preparation and .1 minute per day in dishwashing.

Sex Role Ideology

In this day of much discussion about the lives that men and women lead, particularly the roles that are thought to belong to one or the other and how they came to be considered appropriate, the term sex roles has become a common phrase. There seems to be a folk definition that male sex roles are the activities that are considered to be appropriate for men in our culture and that female sex roles are those activities appropriate for women. Seldom, when the phrase is used, particularly in popular writing, such as magazines and newspapers, is it defined; it seems to be assumed that everyone knows what it means.

There is currently examination of and discussion about terms such as "sex roles," "gender," and "gender roles." When reviewing literature it becomes apparent that the terms are not used consistently, that the implied or stated definitions vary. One area of concern regarding the term sex roles is that, except for very few acts which are related directly to male or female physiology, being male or female is not a role. If one's biological sex decreed a role then males and females in all parts of the world would do much the same thing.

Gender is another term in current scholarly use. It has been defined as, "learned behavior differentiated along the lines of biological sex" (Lopata & Thorne, 1978, p. 719). Gender has been called an unfocused role (Angrist, 1969) or a basic role (Banton, 1965) that, "infuses the more specific roles one plays" (Lopata & Thorne, 1978, p. 719). Gender is regarded as a deep and relatively unchanging part of a person. The

term gender roles is used by some authors, but the problems with its use are somewhat the same as those with sex roles.

Until the time when there are agreed upon terms with precise definitions there will probably continue to be confusion. In the meantime research on men and women, their similarities and differences, will go on. The terms in this review will be the terms that were used by the authors quoted.

In research, the term "sex roles" has been used in two different ways. Psychologists and sociologists give different meanings to the term. Psychologists have typically used it in reference to different personality traits which are believed to be consistent with biological sex. Pleck (1977) points out that most American psychologists traditionally supported the position that men and women differ substantially on a wide variety of personality traits, attitudes and interests, and that to a large degree these differences are biologically based. The traditional view also held that beyond the differences based on biology, males and females need to develop further differences in order to have a "secure" sex identity. Psychologists often carried this theory one step farther and assumed that men and women take on different social responsibilities because they have different personality traits.

In many tests that have been developed by psychologists to measure "masculinity" and "femininity," the assumption made is that, "most biological males will be high in psychological masculinity and most biological females will be high in psychological femininity" (Deux, 1976, pp. 134-135). The assumptions involve circular reasoning: the test developers determine what most men or women do or think or believe men or women should do or think and then these attitudes become the measure of

what is masculine and feminine. As Deux (1976, p. 135) points out, "These assumptions are clearly rooted in the development of questionnaires designed to measure masculinity and femininity. Masculinity is what men typically do and femininity is what women typically do."

Sociologists have tended to define sex roles according to adult social responsibilities or actual or expected behavior (Pleck, 1977). Consequently they are interested in the duties or tasks a given society assigns to men and women. The Nye (1976) study and the Berk (1976) study are examples of this approach. Nye and colleagues investigated the provider, housekeeper, recreational and therapeutic roles to determine who was considered to be responsible for them and who actually performed them. Berk was interested in household tasks and who usually contributed the time and labor to accomplish them. It is probably the sociological definition that most people have in mind when they say that traditional sex roles are changing, i.e. they mean that the "male role" as the provider and the "female role" as homemaker are changing.

In 1968 Lipman-Blumen (1972) conducted a study of female role ideology, which referred primarily to a woman's system of beliefs regarding the appropriate behavior of women with respect to men. She did the study because she felt that, "ideologies can predict the values and behavior of women with remarkable accuracy" (Lipman-Blumen, 1972, p. 34). She was interested in both the antecedents and consequences of female role ideologies.

A detailed questionnaire was mailed to wives of graduate students in the Boston area. The 1,012 questionnaires that were returned by wives who had attended college were used in the analysis. Lipman-Blumen categorized the women as holding either a contemporary or traditional ideology. She

(1972, p. 35) defined the traditional ideology as, "the belief that under ordinary circumstances women belong in the home, caring for children and carrying out domestic duties, whereas men are responsible for the financial support of the families." She defined the contemporary ideology as holding, "that the relationships between men and women are ideally egalitarian and that husbands and wives may share domestic, child-rearing and financial responsibilities" (Lipman-Blumen, 1972, p. 35). Of the respondents, 27 percent of the women adhered to the traditional ideology and 73 percent to the contemporary.

The aspect of Lipman-Blumen's (1972) research that is pertinent to this review is the opinions of the women concerning homemaking tasks. The contemporary and traditional women did not differ in their satisfaction with their husbands and with their maternal role. They did, however, differ with respect to housekeeping tasks. Women who held the contemporary ideology were less enthusiastic about cleaning house and laundry. Cooking, entertaining, interior decorating, sewing, and shopping -- tasks that allow some self-expression and creativity -- were equally acceptable to the women in both groups.

Sandra Bem (1976) has developed a new approach to measuring the concepts of masculinity and femininity as referred to in psychological sex role measures. Bem believes that the traits thought to characterize both masculinity and femininity are necessary to function in a complex society. Bem constructed her instrument based on the assumption that it is possible, at least in principle, for one individual to have personality traits that have traditionally been considered masculine and feminine. A person who has a blending of the two is considered to be androgynous. "An

androgynous personality would thus represent the very best of what masculinity and femininity have to represent" (Bem, 1976, p. 51).

Using the Bem Sex Role Inventory, Bem and her co-workers carried out a number of research projects to assess how persons who scored differently on the test would react to tasks presented to them in laboratory experiments. The major question that they wanted to answer was whether or not holding traditional sex role ideologies actually leads some people to restrict their behavior e.g., do men who score high in masculinity and women who score high in femininity avoid some activities just because the activities are regarded as being more appropriate for the other sex? They also asked whether or not androgynous males and females would comfortably carry out activities traditionally thought to belong to males or females.

In summarizing her findings Bem (1976) noted that most but not all of the predicted relationships between the sex role inventory and actual behavior were found. Androgynous males were willing to perform any behavior, regardless of whether the culture would label it as male or female. Feminine males did well only in the "expressive" domain and masculine males only in the "instrumental." Androgynous women also willingly performed all tasks, whether usually labeled as suitable for men or women. Masculine women did not shun cross-sex activities while feminine women did. In fact, feminine women were not particularly willing to do anything, whether regarded as masculine or feminine, that wasn't "safe."

In commenting on Bem's research, Hoyenga and Hoyenga (1979, p. 223) point out that all of the predicted relationships have not been found and that androgyny may be, "too simplistic a concept to successfully predict behavior of people." They do concede that androgyny scales predict

behavior better than scales that assume a bipolar masculine-feminine dimension of gender roles.

No research could be located that had looked at the relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory and the behavior of individuals in everyday life. All research reviewed had been conducted in a laboratory setting.

Religion

Few researchers have tried to assess the impact of religion on division of labor in the household, either the denomination belonged to or the degree of church participation. In many areas of the country religion would probably not be an important variable in relation to time use (Robinson, 1977a), however, the opposite is often thought to be the case in Utah.

Well over half of the population of the state, often estimated to be between 60 and 70 percent, are members of the Mormon Church. A number of denominations take stands on appropriate life styles for their members and the Mormon Church has strong opinions on the responsibilities that adult men and women should assume. According to newspaper accounts (Harvey, 1975; Lichenstein, 1975) much discussion has been carried on within the Church to warn women members about the danger of following the urgings of the Feminist Movement to seek self-fulfillment outside the home. Women are urged to put the duties and responsibilities of being wives and mothers as their top priorities. While this would not preclude husbands from assisting with household tasks, the primary responsibility definitely belongs to the wife.

The effects of the teachings of the Mormon Church on how household tasks are allocated is not known. Stafford, Backman and Dibona

(1977, p. 47-48) did note that, "The sex-role ideology scales show consistent differences between religious groups, the more traditional religious groups have more traditional sex role ideology." Whether the scores on sex-role ideology tests are an accurate reflection of how one actually behaves, for example in regard to household duties, is still an open question.

Lipman-Blumen (1972) did find a strong association between the present religious affiliation of a woman and her attitude toward sex roles. Women who reported being atheist, who had no formal religion, professed Judaism or Eastern religions tended to favor the contemporary sex-role ideology which holds that "the relationships between men and women are ideally egalitarian and that husbands and wives may share domestic, child-rearing and financial responsibilities" (Lipman-Blumen, 1972, p. 35). The traditional view, "that under ordinary circumstances women belong in the home, caring for children and carrying out domestic duties, whereas men are responsible for the financial support of the family" (Lipman-Blumen, 1972, p. 35) was more likely to be held by Protestants and Catholics. Childhood religions, however, did not have a statistically significant influence on sex role ideology.

Nye (1976) analyzed religious preference and religious activity related to the responsibility for and enactment of the housekeeper role. He found religious preference not to be related to either the responsibility for housekeeping or to the actual performance of the tasks. Degree of religious participation was related to some aspects of responsibility. Men and women who never attend church were more likely to feel that the wife has the complete responsibility for housekeeping. For men there was a linear relationship between the proportion who thought the

responsibility should be shared and the frequency of church attendance. The only relationship found for women was that those who never attended church were more likely than the other women to see the responsibility for housekeeping as belonging completely to themselves.

Summary

Contrary to the opinions of some and the hopes of many, housework has not dwindled and disappeared. In recent studies, the average time recorded as spent doing household tasks is about the same as it was in the early time budget studies. Different reasons have been proposed for this finding and probably all of them are at least partly true.

Another popular assumption, that husbands are spending more time doing household tasks, has been refuted by most researchers. The tasks they contribute to are usually the traditional male tasks such as yard care and garbage. There were some exceptions found to this generalization but they were few in number.

Research relating some factors, such as age, education, and religion to division of household tasks has also produced mixed results. Being younger and having more education generally were related to an increased contribution from the husband. Increased education and paid employment were often related to a decrease in housework time by the wife. The paid employment of the wife, however, did not lead to an increased contribution from the husband.

Hopefully, the present research will add additional findings and insights into the division of household tasks between husbands and wives, particularly in Utah households.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The data for this study were gathered as part of the Northeast Regional Research Project NE 113, An Interstate Comparison of Urban/Rural Families' Time Use. The regional research project was organized during 1976 by Dr. Kathryn Walker of Cornell University. The purposes of the regional project were to establish a data bank of time use of rural and urban families, to update Walker's 1967-68 time use study (Walker & Woods, 1976) and to broaden the data base by including additional States. California, Connecticut, Louisiana, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Oregon, Texas, Utah, and Wisconsin participated in the NE 113 project. The data were gathered at various times beginning in January 1977 and extending through 1979 depending on when the state joined the project.

The same methods of data collection and instrumentation were used in all states. Each state, however, had the option of adding its own questionnaires and also could expand beyond the defined sample. Data were coded in the same way so they could be easily exchanged among the states for comparison purposes.

Because the 1967-68 study (Walker & Woods, 1976) had shown that time use, particularly for homemakers, was related to number of children and age of children, it was decided to control for these factors in the regional project. The families were stratified into five levels, according to the age of the younger child. The stratification levels used were

under one, one, two to five, six to eleven, and twelve to seventeen years of age. No attempt was made to control for the age of the older child.

Sample

The sample as specified by the regional project was to consist of 210 two-parent, two-child families, half from an urban/suburban area and half from a rural area. The definition of rural was that there be no community within the area with a population greater than 2,500.

The Utah urban/suburban sample was drawn from Salt Lake County which is the center of the Wasatch Front, the area of the state where population and industry are concentrated. It is the county in the state with the largest population and Salt Lake City, the state's largest city, is located within its boundaries. In 1976 Salt Lake County's population was 525,187 and the population of Salt Lake City was 168,667 (Population Estimates and Projections, January 1979).

Salt Lake County is divided into five school districts. Lists of two-parent, two-child families were obtained from the central school district and also from a suburban school district. The suburban district is located in the southern part of the county and is the fastest growing school district in the state.

Identifying a rural sample for Utah presented a number of problems. Some of Utah's rural school districts store their school census data with the State Board of Education in Salt Lake City and the director of data processing agreed to provide lists of two-parent, two-child families in the counties chosen. It soon became apparent, however, that it would not be possible to comply with the regional project's definition of rural. Counties in which there were no communities with a population greater than 2,500 did not contain enough two-parent, two-child families to supply the

105 families needed. This is probably related to the fact that Utah's birth rate is more than double the national average (Nelson, Salt Lake Tribune, 1978).

The rural sample was drawn from Iron and Washington Counties, which are located in the southwest corner of the state. These counties are some distance from the Wasatch Front, which was desirable; however, each county did contain a city with a population over 2,500. The total population in each county in 1976 was less than 20,000. Iron County had a population of 15,045 and Washington County of 18,850. A small college is located in each county which also made it less rural in nature than was desired.

After lists of two-parent, two-child families living in the designated urban and rural areas had been obtained from school census data, a systematic random sample was drawn. The names of families drawn were checked in current telephone directories to determine whether or not they still lived in the area. This created sample bias as it eliminated families without telephones, with unlisted telephone numbers, or those who had moved to the area since publication of the directory. At the end of the first interviewing phase, all names on the rural lists had been used. Families for interviewing phases two and three were obtained through referrals, personal contacts, and advertisements placed in the newspaper. This further biased the rural sample.

Instruments

Four instruments were used to gather data for this study. They included a questionnaire to gather demographic and household information, a time diary, the Bem Sex Role Inventory, and a questionnaire regarding church affiliation and activity (Appendix A, B, C & D).

Questionnaire booklet. The questionnaire booklet was developed and pretested at Cornell University (Sanik, 1979) and was used to gather demographic data, information about work patterns, equipment owned and used, and goods and services provided from outside the household. The questionnaire was designed so that it could be coded by computer scanning equipment or by hand. It was similar to the questionnaire used in the 1967-68 study (Walker & Woods, 1976).

Time diary. As Szalai (1972, p. 3) pointed out, the goal of time use research is to record, "a typical day in the life of a very common human being." There are three commonly used ways of gathering time use data. The first is observation, where a non-group member is present and records for the person or persons in the group what they were doing. The advantages of this method are that it frees the person being observed to do what he or she would normally do without the constraint of "remembering" to record what was done. The major disadvantages of this approach are cost and changes in time use that occur because of the presence of an observer.

The second approach often used is estimation. The person is simply asked to estimate how much time was devoted to a specific activity in a specific period of time. This is an inexpensive method of gathering data but most researchers agree that estimation usually significantly exceeds time actually spent on activities (Robinson, 1977a).

The time diary is the most commonly used method of gathering time data. Respondents are asked to record what they did during a specific period. The instrument can either have pre-categorized activities or the respondents can supply the activities. As with other methods, there are advantages and disadvantages. The major disadvantage is that the re-

searcher has no absolute standard against which the accuracy of the data can be compared (Szalai, 1972). As there can be great variability in how a person used time from one day to the next, there is no way of being sure that an unusual record was correctly or incorrectly completed. As Robinson (1977a) pointed out, a major advantage of the diary approach is that people are asked to report activities for a single day and to do it when that period is still fresh in their minds. Another advantage he cited is that the respondents are usually not aware of any purpose of the study other than to produce a record of their time and have minimal expectations of what particular activities will interest or please the researcher. As Berk (1976) points out, the time diary allows the researcher to track the respondent without being present.

John Robinson (1977a & 1977b) has studied the reliability and validity of time diary data and concluded that it is a good method to reflect the aggregate behavior of groups of people. Robinson tried to establish the reliability and validity for this method. The evidence he offers for reliability includes the fact that:

Similar results come from different studies. He reports that a high level of congruence in results was obtained from the national sample of the twelve nation study and the smaller Jackson, Michigan sample. The correlation between the Jackson sample and the cross-national sample across the 96 categories of time use was .95 as measured by Yule's y (Robinson, 1977a). These results were also similar to those found by Chapin (1974) and by Walker and Woods (1976). Robinson also reports that a systematic, but not a one-to-one relationship was found between diary entries of participation in an activity and estimates of yearly participation in that activity. Furthermore, there is a high congruence between the two diary approaches, "yesterday" and "tomorrow." Robinson (1977a) reported a .85

correlation for the cross-national sample and .88 for a 1974 sample from Jackson, Michigan.

Robinson cites three ways that have been used to assess validity of the time diary method. The first approach was having subjects wear beepers which alerted them at random moments during the day when they were to record exactly what they were doing. The second approach was to have people record as much detail as possible for a "random hour" during the day on which they had kept the time diary (Robinson, 1977b). A third approach used was television cameras (Robinson, 1977a). Robinson (1977b) concluded that while there were some discrepancies in reported behavior at the individual level, the aggregate activity patterns were quite similar to those obtained with the diary.

For this study, time use data were gathered using a time diary developed by researchers at Cornell University (Appendix B). Each diary covered a period of twenty-four hours. Time, broken down into ten minute segments, was listed horizontally across the chart. Eighteen categories of time use were listed vertically. Respondents were provided with dictionaries to aid them in placing their activities in the proper categories (Appendix E).

The methodology used in this research project is a record of how many minutes per day each family member, age six and over, spent doing a particular activity. No attempt was made to assess the "quality" of the time (Berch, 1978). Obviously different individuals accomplish different things during, for example, an hour spent housecleaning. Another limitation imposed by this methodology is the difficulty in categorizing some activities. Sewing can be done for more than one reason: it could be done simply to construct a garment, or as a leisure activity, or it could be done to

teach a skill to a child. In a pre-categorized diary motivations for doing and feelings about an activity are difficult to take into consideration. The sequencing of activities and the constraints imposed by the necessity of certain tasks occurring at fixed times was not measured. This method makes no attempt to assess what Berch (1978) calls intangibles or such things as "atmosphere" or a "good environment."

While the methodology used does have some limitations it also has many strengths. As the current study was a repeat of a study completed ten years earlier (Walker & Woods, 1976) it can be used as an indicator of social change. Time is a finite resource for everyone, consequently, additional time spent on any activity must be taken from time that was formerly spent on another activity.

Research was carried out in ten states, therefore, a nationwide data bank of time use in two-parent, two-child households will be available. The data will allow numerous comparisons to be made between the states.

Bem Sex Role Inventory. Currently there is a great interest in what is commonly referred to as sex roles (in this case, meaning personality characteristics that may differentiate by sex) and how they affect the way people live their lives, the options that are opened and closed by them, and whether or not they are changing. A sex role measure was included in this research to provide some insight into the reasons household tasks are allocated as they are. The instrument used was developed by Bem, a psychologist, and is a measure of personality characteristics.

The Bem Sex Role Inventory is a paper-and-pencil test that treats masculinity and femininity as two orthogonal dimensions rather than as two ends of a single dimension (Appendix C). Masculinity and femininity each represent positive domains of behavior. The test consists of twenty

masculine, twenty feminine, and twenty neutral personality characteristics. Bem (1976) chose the masculine and feminine characteristics included in the test because they were all rated by both males and females as being significantly more desirable in American society for one sex than for the other. The person taking the test is asked to indicate on a seven point scale how well each characteristic describes himself or herself. One represents "never or almost never true" and seven represents "always or almost always true."

Masculinity and femininity scores are generated for each subject and then group medians for the masculinity and femininity scores for the subject population are computed. On the bases of these scores each subject is put into one of four classifications. The classifications include (Bem & Watson, 1976, p. 2):

1. masculine: subjects who score above the masculinity median and below the femininity median.
2. feminine: subjects who score above the femininity median and below the masculinity median.
3. androgynous: subjects who score above both medians.
4. undifferentiated: those who score below both medians.

The four groups are shown in Figure 1

		Masculinity Score	
		Above Median	Below Median
Femininity Score	Above Median	Androgynous	Feminine
	Below Median	Masculine	Undifferentiated

Figure 1. Bem Sex Role Inventory Classifications (Bem & Watson, 1976, p. 4).

Bem (1976) reported that masculinity and femininity scores are empirically as well as conceptually independent with an average $r = -.03$. The test-retest reliability over a four week interval was an average $r = .93$. The BSRI was uncorrelated, average $r = -.06$, with the tendency to describe oneself in a socially desirable direction.

Evidence for the validity of the BSRI is difficult to establish. Bem and various associates have conducted a number of laboratory tests to see if the behavior of their subjects was consistent with what would be expected based on their BSRI scores. The conclusions to date offer partial support for its validity (Bem, 1976).

Church Affiliation and Activity Questionnaire. This questionnaire was used to gain information about the respondents' religious affiliation and degree of participation. The subjects were asked whether or not they belong to a church and if so to which one. Another question asked how active they were in their church. The three categories provided were: (1) inactive or not very active (2) active and (3) very active. Information was gathered on religion because of the impact it has on the lives of many Utah residents. While figures on percentages of the population belonging to the Mormon Church, the dominant faith, are not available, common estimates are 60-70 percent. The Mormon Church has a strong position on appropriate life patterns for its members which could have an impact on many aspects of time use and particularly on sharing of household tasks between husbands and wives (Harvey, 1975).

Data Collection

The data were collected by professional interviewers hired through a private research firm. There were two interviewers in Salt Lake County, one in Washington County and one in Iron County. The interviewers were

brought to the USU campus for a training session where the author helped them become familiar with the data collection instruments and the interviewing procedures. A video tape developed by researchers at Cornell University was used to insure that interviewers in all ten states would conduct the interviews in the same manner. After the initial training session, the interviewers telephoned the research director for any additional clarification needed.

After names of possible subjects had been drawn from the school census lists they were forwarded to the interviewers. The interviewers made the initial contact with each family. During the phone call the homemaker was asked whether or not the family was a two-parent, two-child family and if they would be willing to participate in the study. If both questions were answered affirmatively, an appointment was scheduled with the homemaker. The homemaker was defined as the person, male or female, with the primary responsibility for the household. The family was scheduled for a specific day depending on the age of the younger child. This was to insure that all families in the same level would not be interviewed on the same day of the week.

During the first interview the interviewer explained the study instruments to the homemaker and helped her fill out a time diary for her family's time use "yesterday." The interviewer left a second time diary with the homemaker to fill out "tomorrow" and requested that the homemaker ask the other family members to check both diaries for accuracy. The questionnaire booklet, the Bem Sex Role Inventory and the Church Affiliation and Activity Questionnaire were also left to be filled out. It was requested that the BSRI be completed separately by the husband and wife. A second appointment was arranged with the homemaker for the day after

"tomorrow." At the second meeting the interviewer checked the time diary for completeness and helped the homemaker fill in any information missing in the questionnaire booklet. All survey instruments were mailed to the researcher at Utah State University.

Gathering time use data about family members from just one member may result in some inaccuracy. Berk and Berk (1979, p. 88) point out "household members overestimate their own contributions relative to estimates provided by their spouses." As time data in this research were recorded by the wife, the husband's contribution to household tasks might have been under reported and this possibility should be kept in mind when the results are being interpreted. However, in defending this method Sudman and Bradburn (1974) note that reports about other household members are only slightly less accurate than are reports about self. They cite it as being a reasonable method to use. Sanik (1979) notes that the method saves considerable time and expense and provides greater control over the consistency of the record as only one person needs to be instructed in how to keep it.

Collection of Utah data began May 1977 and continued through August 1978. Data were collected over a calendar year so that seasonal variation could be taken into account. Szalai (1972) stressed the importance of using a research design that took into account the fact that some events occur on a cyclical basis, such as once a month or once a year. Interviews were scheduled so that each day of the week would be equally represented in the 210 completed interviews. Data collection in Utah required a year and three months because the interviewing firm that had been hired did not comply with the established schedule.

Operational Definitions

time diary - "a log of activities that individuals keep over a specified period, usually a full 24-hour day" (Robinson, 1977a, p. 6).

family - two parent, two-child household.

household work - primary time recorded in the categories of food preparation; dishwashing; shopping; housecleaning; maintenance of home, yard, car and pets; care of clothing and household linens; construction of clothing and household linens; physical care of family members; nonphysical care of family members; and management.

urban family - a family living in Salt Lake County.

rural family - a family living in Iron County or Washington County.

full-time homemaker - a homemaker not employed in the labor market.

employed homemaker - a homemaker employed part or full-time in the labor market.

part-time employment - employed in the labor market 35 or less hours per week.

Bem Sex Role Inventory - a paper and pencil test used to distinguish androgynous individuals from those with more sex typed self concepts (Bem, 1976).

income - total family income, before taxes, for the previous 12 months.

level - one of the five levels by which families were stratified according to the age of the younger child.

level one - younger child under one year old

level two - younger child one year old

level three - younger child two to five years old

level four - younger child six to eleven years old

level five - younger child twelve to seventeen years old

education - highest grade, training, or degree completed.

Analysis

After the interview packets had been received at USU the data were coded. All time data were coded by the same person to insure consistency. Primary, secondary, and travel time were computed for each person in each of the categories. The time use recorded for each person had to add to 1,440 minutes per day. If there was time that could not be accounted for, it was entered as "unaccounted for time."

The time reported here is the average primary plus travel time connected with the activity reported by the respondents for the two days recorded. Travel time was the time required to travel to and/or from an activity. The average of the two days was used because, "the average of day 1 and day 2 for households of specified compositions represented a more valid measure of the family's time use by depicting 2/7 of a week rather than 1/7 of a week" (Sanik, 1979, p. 210). It was not assumed that time use on one day would be the same as time use on the other day.

The time for "all household tasks" was computed by adding together the time recorded in the first ten categories on the time diary. These activities included food preparation; dishwashing; shopping; housecleaning; maintenance of home, yard, car, and pets; care of clothing and household linens; physical care of household members; nonphysical care of household members; and management.

Standard deviations for time data are large in comparison to those usually reported for survey data. As there are often substantial differences in how time is allocated by different persons and also in how it is allocated by the same person from one day to the next, large standard deviations are considered normal.

Statistical Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner & Bent, 1975) was used to perform the statistical analysis. Two tests were utilized, analysis of variance and correlation.

An analysis of variance is used to test "whether the differences among the means are large enough to imply that the corresponding population means are different" (Ott, 1977, p. 354). It is a commonly used test for count data. The hypothesis that is being tested is that the population means are equal and the alternate hypothesis is that at least one of the population means differs from the rest.

Differences between the sample means are judged statistically significant by comparing them to the variation within the samples. The formula used is $F = \frac{s_b^2}{s_w^2}$. The variability of the observations within the samples is designated by s_w^2 and s_b^2 designates the variability between sample means.

When the hypothesis that the population means are equal is true, both s_b^2 and s_w^2 would be estimates of σ^2 and F would be expected to assume a value near 1. When the hypothesis of equality is false s_b^2 will tend to be larger than s_w^2 due to the differences between the population means. The hypothesis of equality is then rejected (Ott, 1977).

The analysis of variance test is a more powerful test when the cell sizes are equal. That was not possible in this research. The level of significance set was .05.

The analysis of variance was used in analyzing the data for research questions 4, 5, 6, and 7, which dealt with variation in time spent doing

household tasks related to educational level, hours of paid employment, church affiliation and activity, and sex role ideology.

The data for research question 3, relating age of husband and wife, to time spent doing household tasks was tested using correlation. Research question 5, relating time spent on paid employment to time spent in doing household tasks was also examined by correlation.

Correlation is a measure of linear relationship. It refers to the degree to which two variables move uniformly with respect to each other (Weinburg & Schumaker, 1974). The correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of the relationship and also of the direction. The strength can go from -1.0 to 1.0 and the closer it is in absolute value to 1 the stronger it is considered to be. The direction of the relationship, whether inverse or direct is indicated by the sign. A direct relationship results when an increase in X is accompanied by an increase in Y or a decrease in X is accompanied by a decrease in Y. An inverse relationship occurs when an increase in X is accompanied by a decrease in Y or a decrease in X is accompanied by an increase in Y (Edwards, 1976).

The Pearson Product Moment Coefficient was the correlation technique used. It is considered to be the appropriate correlation measure for two interval or ratio variables. An interval or ratio variable is present when a unit of measurement exists, a zero point on the scale corresponds to an absence of the variable being measured. Any real number may result from the act of measurement, and differences between scores reflect on the differences in the amount of the characteristic possessed (Glass & Stanley, 1970). The variables in questions 3 and 5, age and time, fulfill these conditions.

"The presence of a correlation between two variables does not necessarily mean there exists a causal link between them" (Glass & Stanley, 1970, p. 121). It is possible to have a strong correlation between two variables when neither is the "cause" of the other. When two variables are selected out of a complex situation such as usually exists in everyday life, it is not possible to have explained all of the relationships or causes present by a correlation measure (Glass & Stanley, 1970).

Assumptions

1. A time diary approach is an accurate method of gathering data regarding how people use their time.
2. The time diary kept by the homemaker is an accurate reflection of the time use of all family members.
3. The interviewers carried out the data collection as they had been instructed to do.
4. The coding of the time diary was done accurately.
5. The respondents' scores on the Bem Sex Role Inventory are an accurate reflection of some of their personality characteristics.
6. The urban and rural counties chosen for the research project are representative of the urban and rural counties in the state.
7. Time is a necessary input in the process of achieving family goals, including completion of household tasks.

Limitations

1. Since the time diary was divided into categories of time use, the respondents were forced to make their activities fit the categories listed.

2. Only primary, not secondary, time was considered in this study and may limit the accuracy of the time reported as being spent on household tasks.
3. The families studied were all two-parent, two-child families which are not representative of Utah families.
4. Results are reported in mean minutes per day which could give an impression of precision beyond what should be imputed to the data.

CHAPTER IV
DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

Two hundred and ten two-parent, two-child Utah families were the subjects for this research. The 105 rural families were from Iron and Washington counties and the 105 urban families were from Salt Lake County. Some demographic data are reported according to rural and urban categories to facilitate comparisons between the sample and the available census data. Comparisons between the sample and the county populations were not made for age or family composition because the criteria used in selecting the sample were restrictive in terms of these variables. No comparisons are made regarding church affiliation and activity as no data on these were available for the county populations. Such information might be known by the churches, but is not made public.

Age

The ages of both husbands and wives ranged from the 21-25 category to the 56-60 category. The median age for the wives fell in the 26-30 category. The median age for husbands was in the 31-35 category. The sample seems to have followed the American tradition that husbands be slightly older than wives. The respondents were relatively young. This would be expected as the younger child in 40 percent of the families studied was one year old or younger. The data are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
Ages of Respondents

	Wives	Husbands	Total
21-25	43	26	69
26-30	67	54	121
31-35	37	47	84
36-40	24	26	50
41-45	15	24	39
46-50	12	15	27
51-55	4	6	10
56-60	1	4	5
Missing	7	8	15
Total	210	210	420

Education

The educational levels of the wives ranged from grade school through a master's degree, while those of the husbands ranged from grade school through doctorates and professional degrees. As shown in Table 2, husbands had, on the average, completed more years of education than had the wives in the sample.

The category indicated by the most wives as the highest level completed was "high school diploma." Sixty-six wives had attended college, but had not graduated. Fifty-seven husbands had earned a bachelor's degree, the category checked by the largest number of husbands.

Table 2

Education of Respondents

	Wives	Husbands	Total
Grade School (1-8)	1	2	3
Partial High School (9-11)	10	6	16
High School Diploma	85	55	140
Vocational or Technical Training	5	6	11
Partial College, no degree	63	55	118
Associate's Degree	3	6	9
Bachelor's Degree	38	57	95
Master's Degree	5	12	17
Doctorate	0	4	4
Professional Degree	0	7	7
Total	210	210	420

In 1976 the median years of education completed by Utah residents eighteen years old and over was 12.8. The percentages of males and females 18-24 years old who were high school graduates were almost identical with 85.4 percent of males and 85.6 percent of females. There was a slightly larger difference in the 24+ year olds; 79.8 percent of males and 77.7 percent of the females were high school graduates or above (Fjelsted & Hachman, 1979).

A larger percentage of the respondents in this study had an educational level of high school graduate or above than is true of the state's population. Of the husbands, 96 percent had a high school diploma or above and this was the case for 95.5 percent of the wives. One reason for the respondents having a higher level of education than the population of the

state could be the ages of the sample. Younger persons generally have a higher educational level and the oldest respondents in the study were in the 56-60 category.

Employment

Most of the wives in the study, 57 percent, reported they were full-time homemakers while 43 percent worked either part- or full-time. With regard to employment, the sample was much like the state's female population. Sargent (1978) reported that in 1977, 48.4 percent of Utah's women sixteen years of age and older were in the labor force, which is defined as either having or looking for a job.

The 90 women in the study who were employed indicated their occupations. The occupations listed by the respondents were distributed much like the distribution reported for the state's employed women in the 1970 census. More of the respondents, however, were in the categories "professional, technical and kindred" and fewer in "sales" and "operatives" than was true for the state's population (PC (1) - C46). The women, by and large, were employed in occupations usually thought to be women's jobs. The data are summarized in Table 3.

The largest percentage of the men in the study were in the category "professional, technical and kindred," a category that was over represented in comparison to the distribution reported in the 1970 census. "Sales workers" was also over represented, and "clerical and kindred" was under represented.

There were three husbands who were not employed at the time of the study. One was a full-time student and two were disabled and could not work in the labor market (see Table 4).

Table 3
Occupations of Women

	1970 census	Study respondents
Professional, technical & kindred	.17	.22
Managers & administrators	.04	.02
Sales workers	.08	.19
Clerical & kindred	.38	.33
Craftsmen, foremen & kindred workers	.02	.02
Operatives	.09	.03
Laborers	.01	---
Service workers	.21	.22
Total	1.00	1.03

Table 4
Occupations of Men

	1970 census	Study respondents
Professional, technical & kindred	.17	.28
Managers & administrators	.12	.13
Sales workers	.07	.13
Clerical & kindred	.07	.01
Craftsmen, foremen & kindred workers	.22	.24
Operatives	.16	.12
Laborers	.08	.05
Service workers	.08	.04
Total	.97	1.00

The participants were asked, "How many hours did you work for pay last week?" They were also asked about time devoted to a second job and to work without pay in a family business or farm. The hours reported here are a total of the hours reported for the three categories, not the hours of paid employment recorded in the time diaries.

Most of the women who reported working in the past week reported hours that would indicate part- as opposed to full-time work. The men in the study were, on the average, working at a full-time level.

Table 5
Hours Worked for Pay Last Week

	Wives	Husbands	Total
0	121	10	131
1-14	29	3	32
15-29	26	6	32
30-44	29	88	117
45+	5	103	108
Total	210	210	420

Household Income

The respondents were asked to indicate their total household income, before taxes, for the previous 12 months. The reported incomes ranged from the category "under \$1,000" to the category "\$50,000 and over." The incomes of the urban families were, on the average, higher than those of rural families. The median income for the rural families was the "\$12,000-\$14,999" category while that for urban families was the "\$15,000-\$19,999" category (see Table 6).

Table 6

Household Income

	Rural	Urban	Total
Under \$1,000	1	0	1
\$1,000-\$1,999	0	0	0
\$2,000-\$2,999	0	0	0
\$3,000-\$3,999	1	1	2
\$4,000-\$4,999	1	0	1
\$5,000-\$5,999	0	0	0
\$6,000-\$7,499	6	1	7
\$7,500-\$9,999	17	1	18
\$10,000-\$11,999	14	8	22
\$12,000-\$14,999	20	18	38
\$15,000-\$19,999	15	33	48
\$20,000-\$24,999	14	16	30
\$25,000-\$49,999	10	22	32
\$50,000 and over	2	3	5

The incomes of the families in the sample were close to the estimated incomes for the three counties for 1975 (Population Estimates and Projections, January 1979). The estimated per capita income for Salt Lake County was \$4,780 which would have been \$19,120 for a family of four. The estimated per capita income for Iron County was \$3,500 and for Washington County it was \$3,373. The income for a family of four would have been \$14,000 for Iron County and \$13,492 for Washington County.

Church Affiliation and Activity

As church membership and activity are variables to be considered in relation to time allocated to household tasks, the study respondents were asked three questions relating to religion. The responses are summarized in Tables 7, 8, and 9.

Table 7

Church Membership

Do you belong to a church?	Husbands	Wives	Total
Yes	176	187	363
No	23	16	39
No response	11	7	18
Total	210	210	420

Table 8

Denomination

If yes, which church do you belong to?	Husbands	Wives	Total
L.D.S.	145	159	304
Catholic	12	12	24
Protestant	16	14	30
Other	3	2	5
Total	176	187	363

As expected, the denomination most represented was L.D.S. (Mormon) with approximately 72 percent of the total sample indicating that category. Eleven husbands and seven wives did not complete the questionnaire. These were, by and large, the same respondents who did not complete the Bem Sex Role Inventory.

Asking about degree of activity in one's church gives a different view of the importance of religion in a person's life than just asking what church the person belongs to. If the 58 husbands who indicated they are inactive or not very active are added to the 23 who indicated they do not belong to a church, the total is 82, or 39 percent of the sample. The comparable figure for the women would be 25 percent. This data supported the popular belief that women are more active religiously than men, with 35 percent of the husbands and 44 percent of the wives indicating they are very active.

Table 9

Level of Activity

About how active are you?	Husbands	Wives	Total
Inactive or not very active	58	36	94
Active	49	60	109
Very active	73	93	166

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

This chapter contains descriptive data and test results for the questions under study. Each section contains a statement of the research question, frequency data for the variables under study and summary results of the statistical tests employed.

Question 1

Is the amount of time spent in household tasks in Utah families similar to the amount reported by researchers who have studied other populations?

The mean time spent doing household tasks by all family members was 9 hours and 30 minutes per day. Table 10 summarizes the mean contributions of wives, husbands, and all family members. Although the definition of homemaker used in the study did not assume that all the homemakers would be women, in all 210 families surveyed, the wife listed herself as the homemaker.

Table 10
Time Spent Doing Household Tasks Per Day

	Mean time	Standard deviation
Wife	6 hrs. 37 min.	154.74
Husband	1 hr. 47 min.	100.0
All family members	9 hrs. 30 min.	212.41

There was substantial variation in the time allocated to household tasks by the families studied. The homemaker who reported the least time doing household tasks had spent an average of 44 minutes during the two recorded days. The largest amount recorded by a homemaker was 14 hours and 44 minutes. Husbands' time ranged from no time spent on household tasks to 8 hours and 15 minutes. The time recorded for all family members, which would include wife, husband, and children ranged from a low of 1 hour and 55 minutes to a high of 21 hours and 49 minutes (see Tables 11, 12, and 13).

Table 11

Time Per Day Spent Doing Household Tasks by Wives

	Number	Percent
Less than 1 hour	2	1
1 hr. - 3 hrs. 59 min.	32	15
4 hrs. - 6 hrs. 59 min.	79	37.6
7 hrs. - 9 hrs. 59 min.	80	38
10 hrs. - 12 hrs. 59 min.	14	7
13+ hrs.	3	1.4
Total	210	100.0

The time recorded by the homemakers for contributions to household tasks from "other" workers indicated that little help was received from non-family members. The contributions from "other" workers, which included both paid and non-paid workers, averaged less than five minutes per family per day for the two days recorded.

Table 12

Time Per Day Spent Doing Household Tasks by Husbands

	Number	Percent
0	10	4.8
1 min. - 59 min.	78	37.1
1 hr. - 1 hr. 59 min.	53	25.2
2 hrs. - 2 hrs. 59 min.	30	14.3
3 hrs. - 3 hrs. 39 min.	14	6.7
4 hrs. - 4 hrs. 59 min.	15	7.1
5 hrs. - 8 hrs. 59 min.	10	4.8
Total	210	100.0

Table 13

Time Per Day Spent Doing Household Tasks by All Family Members

	Number	Percent
1 hr. - 4 hrs. 59 min.	18	8.6
5 hrs. - 8 hrs. 59 min.	85	40.4
9 hrs. - 12 hrs. 59 min.	71	33.8
13 hrs. - 16 hrs. 59 min.	27	12.9
17 hrs. - 21 hrs. 49 min.	9	4.3

The hours per day spent on all household tasks by all family members in Utah was 9 hours and 30 minutes. As the research design used in Utah was the same as that used to gather data in New York in 1977 (Sanik, 1979) and similar to that used to gather the New York data in 1967-68 (Walker & Woods, 1976) the figures can be carefully compared. In 1967-68 New York families averaged 10.5 hours a day to housework by all family members and 11.3 hours in 1977. Utah families devoted approximately one hour less to household tasks than the New York families studied in 1967-68 and close to two hours less than the 1977 sample.

Comparison can also be made with the data from the national sample analyzed by Nickols (1976) even though child care, home repairs and yard work, and shopping were not included in the data she analyzed. Nickols reported a total of 34.8 hours per week contributed to household work by husbands and wives. If the categories "shopping; maintenance of home, yard, car and pets; physical care of family members; and nonphysical care of family members" are eliminated from the Utah time data, the total time spent on the remaining tasks by husbands and wives was 30 hours and 48 minutes per week. This is approximately four hours per week less than the families analyzed by Nickols.

Utah families spent less time doing household tasks than the New York families studied in 1967-68 and those studied in 1977. They also spent less time doing housework than the families Nickols studied.

Question 2

To what extent are household tasks shared by the husband and the wife?

Of the total time devoted by all household members to all household tasks, 70 percent was contributed by the wives, 18.5 percent by husbands

and 11.5 percent by children. When the time contributed by just husbands and wives is considered, 79 percent was contributed by wives and 21 percent by husbands. A clearer understanding of the division of household tasks between husbands and wives can be gained by examining Table 14.

Table 14
Time Per Day Spent Doing Individual Household Tasks

	Wives		Husbands	
	Mean	s.d	Mean	s.d
Food preparation	1 hr. 19 min.	45.5	7 min.	13.4
Dishwashing	31 min.	20.2	2 min.	6.6
Shopping	37 min.	38.8	13 min.	25.7
Housecleaning	1 hr. 17 min.	56.5	3 min.	13.3
Maintenance of home, yard, car and pets	29 min.	57.7	47 min.	77.5
Care of clothing and household linens	23 min.	32.8	.5 min.	2.7
Construction of clothing and household linens	16 min.	38.9	.2 min.	2.0
Physical care of family members	58 min.	75.7	10 min.	19.9
Nonphysical care of family members	34 min.	41.2	14 min.	24.9
Management	14 min.	29.0	11 min.	33.1

The category where husbands made their largest contributions was "Maintenance of home, yard, car and pets." Forty-seven of their total one hour and 47 minutes spent doing all household tasks were allocated to this

category. The tasks in this category are considered to be traditional male responsibilities. The remaining one hour was unevenly distributed among the other nine tasks. Shopping, physical care of family members, nonphysical care of family members and management all received allocations of at least ten minutes a day.

The wives in the study spent time in all of the ten categories listed and in all but the "maintenance of home, yard, car and pets" category, spent more time than husbands. The category where the contributions were closest to equal was "management" with 14 minutes contributed by wives and 11 minutes by husbands.

The extent of sharing of household tasks by husbands and wives, on the average, was limited. A safe generalization would be that women did most of the tasks within the home and men were only marginally involved in anything except maintenance of home, yard, car and pets. The traditional division of labor prevailed.

Question 3

Will the time spent doing household tasks vary with the age of the husband and the wife?

There was not a linear relationship between age and time spent doing household tasks by the wives or the husbands. Pearson's r for the homemakers' age and household work time was $-.0874$, indicating no linear relationship. For the husbands' age and household work time the Pearson's r was $.0446$.

Question 4

Will the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the level of education of the husband and the wife?

The husbands were grouped according to the highest level of education they had completed. The time spent doing household tasks by husbands did not consistently increase nor decrease with an increase in the husbands' level of education (see Table 15). The husbands who contributed the least time, 87 minutes per day, were high school graduates and those who contributed the most time, 134 minutes, were those with a bachelor's degree. The difference between the smallest and largest contributions was 47 minutes per day. As shown in Table 16, when an analysis of variance was used to test for a difference between the means, the results were not statistically significant.

Table 15
Time Spent Doing Household Tasks by Husbands
According to Their Level of Education

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Less than H. S. grad.	8	97	97.55
H. S. grad.	55	87	64.10
Beyond H. S. grad.	67	101	101.66
Bachelor's degree	57	134	115.41
Grad. or prof. degree	23	110	119.16

Table 16

Analysis of Variance of Husbands' Level of Education
and His Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	66380.924	4	16595.231	1.677	0.1567
Within groups	2028854.076	205	9896.849		

When the husbands' time spent doing household tasks was analyzed according to the wives' level of education, some marked differences appeared. The smallest contribution, 97 minutes, came from husbands whose wives were in the category "beyond high school" which included those women who had attended college but had not graduated, those with an associate's degree, and those who had vocational or technical training. The largest contribution came from the husbands of wives who were in the "graduate or professional degree" category. The husbands of the five women in that category averaged 190 minutes per day doing household tasks (see Table 17). The analysis of variance was not statistically significant, as shown in Table 18.

Table 17

Time Spent Doing Household Tasks by Husbands
According to Wives' Level of Education

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Less than H. S. grad.	11	121	93.46
H. S. grad.	85	101	89.50
Beyond H. S. grad.	71	97	83.73
Bachelor's degree	38	123	130.59
Grad. or prof. degree	5	190	198.69

Table 18

Analysis of Variance of Wives' Level of Education
and Husbands' Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	55383.492	4	13845.873	1.391	0.2381
Within groups	2039851.508	205	9950.495		

Of the five women who had earned an M. S. degree, four were employed full-time and one was a full-time homemaker. The time contributed to household tasks by the husbands of the four employed women ranged from one hour and 20 minutes to 8 hours and 15 minutes per day. The husband who contributed the most time was disabled and did not have paid employment. During the two days recorded, he contributed time to all household tasks except construction of clothing and household linens and physical care of family members.

The amount of time spent doing household tasks by housewives varied according to their level of education, but not in a consistent pattern. As can be seen in Table 19, wives in the category "bachelor's degree" spent more time doing household tasks than women in the other four categories. Women in the "graduate or professional degree" category allocated the least amount of time to household tasks of all the groups. This is interesting as their husbands allocated more time to household tasks than did husbands of women with less education (see Table 17).

Table 19
Time Spent Doing Household Tasks by Wives
According to Their Level of Education

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Less than H. S. grad.	11	373	164.57
H. S. grad.	85	385	160.70
Beyond H. S. grad.	71	400	131.86
Bachelor's degree	38	434	180.95
Grad. or prof. degree	5	346	103.86

An analysis of variance was used to test for a difference between the means of the five groups. As shown in Table 20, the results were not statistically significant.

When examining the time homemakers spent doing household tasks according to husbands' level of education an interesting trend can be seen. Except for the wives in the category "less than high school graduate" there was an increase in the time allocated to housework by wives as their husbands' level of education increased (see Table 21).

Table 21
Time Spent Doing Household Tasks by Wives
According to Husbands' Level of Education

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Less than H. S. grad.	8	416	93.38
H. S. grad.	55	366	136.17
Beyond H. S. grad.	67	403	163.22
Bachelor's degree	57	408	159.00
Grad. or prof. degree	23	425	175.14

The wives of high school graduates spent less time doing housework than the wives in the other four categories. Wives with husbands in the "graduate or professional degree" category spent the greatest amount of time. The analysis of variance results, however, were not statistically significant as shown in Table 22.

Table 20
 Analysis of Variance of Wives' Level of Education
 and Her Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	83029.996	4	20757.499	0.866	0.4851
Within groups	4911976.224	205	23960.860		

Table 22
 Analysis of Variance of Husbands' Level of Education
 and Wives' Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	83970.882	4	20992.720	0.876	0.4790
Within groups	4911035.338	205	23956.270		

Question 5

Will the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the hours of paid employment of the husband and the wife?

When analyzing possible relationships between time spent in paid employment and time spent doing household tasks, there are two relationships that are of interest. The first is what is the relationship between the person's hours of paid employment and his or her time spent doing housework? The second is the possible relationship between the time spent in paid employment by the respondent and the household work time of the spouse.

The time analyzed was the time recorded in the time diary for household work time and for paid work. A hypothetical work week was constructed by averaging the time spent in paid employment for the two days recorded and then taking five times that figure for a five day work week. Since data were gathered from the respondents on all days of the week, including Saturday and Sunday, this figure could be an under-estimate of the hours actually worked during the week.

The figures reported in this section for hours of paid employment are not the same as those reported in the description of the sample. The hours reported in that section were based on a question in the questionnaire which asked, "How many hours did you work for pay last week?"

The subjects were divided into three groups according to their hours of paid employment. The mean minutes per day spent doing household tasks for each group were computed. These data and the results of the statistical analysis are reported in this section.

When husbands' household work time was broken down by their hours of paid employment there was a decrease in the time husbands spent doing house-

hold tasks as their hours of paid employment increased. The data are presented in Table 23.

Table 23
Husbands' Hours of Paid Employment
and Household Work Time

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Less than 1 hour	14	188	156.50
1-35 hours	93	126	107.74
35+ hours	103	79	70.49

An analysis of variance was used to test for a difference between the means. There was a difference, significant at the 0.000 level. The analysis of variance is shown in Table 24. When husbands' hours of paid employment and household work were correlated, Pearson's r was $-.3610$, significant at $.001$.

Table 24
 Analysis of Variance of Husbands' Hours of Paid Employment
 and His Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	202295.461	2	101147.731	11.059	0.0000
Within groups	1893231.520	207	9146.046		

Husbands' hours of paid employment could be related to the time wives devote to household tasks. As the husband spends more hours in paid work, the hours the wife spends doing household tasks might increase to compensate for time the husband is not able to contribute. While there were differences between the means of the three groups in the expected direction, the differences were not statistically significant (see Tables 25 & 26).

Table 25
Husbands' Hours of Paid Employment
and Wives' Household Work Time

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Less than 1 hour	14	361	157.99
1-35 hours	93	392	148.48
35+ hours	103	407	160.01

The correlation between husbands' hours of paid employment and wives' household work time resulted in a Pearson's r of .1132. This was not significant at the .05 level.

Table 26
 Analysis of Variance of Husbands' Hours of Paid Employment
 and Wives' Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	30740.260	2	15370.130	0.641	0.5279
Within groups	4964265.960	207	23981.961		

As would be expected, the hours the housewives spent doing household tasks decreased as their hours of paid employment increased. There was a dramatic decrease when one compares those who were considered full-time homemakers (worked less than one hour per week) and those who worked 35 or more hours and were considered to be employed full-time in the labor market. The analysis of variance was significant at the 0.000 level (see Tables 27 & 28).

Table 27
Wives' Hours of Paid Employment
and Household Work Time

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Less than 1 hour	147	443	143.15
1-35 hours	51	313	119.32
35+ hours	12	195	107.94

When wives' paid employment time and household work time were correlated a Pearson's r of $-.5213$, significant at $.001$ was obtained.

Table 28

Analysis of Variance of Wives' Hours of Paid Employment
and Her Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	1163221.740	2	581610.870	31.420	0.0000
Within groups	3831784.481	207	18511.036		

In order to answer the often asked question, "Doesn't the husband help more with housework when his wife works?" an analysis of variance was used to analyze the husbands' household work time broken down by the wives' hours of paid employment. There was no significant difference between the means as shown in Tables 29 and 30.

Table 29
Wives' Hours of Paid Employment and
Husbands' Household Work Time

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Less than 1 hour	147	106	98.87
1-35 hours	51	106	94.80
35+ hours	12	129	139.20

Although the husbands of the women who were employed full-time did spend more time doing household tasks than husbands of those who worked less, the difference was not large. The Pearson's r for wives' hours of paid employment correlated with husbands' household work time was .0611, which was not significant at .05.

Table 30

Analysis of Variance of Wives' Hours of Paid Employment
and Husbands' Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	5921.899	2	2960.949	0.293	0.7461
Within groups	2089605.082	207	10094.711		

Question 6

Will the time spent doing household tasks vary according to church affiliation and activity of the husband and wife?

The respondents were asked if they belonged to a church and if so to which denomination. Eleven husbands and seven wives did not complete the questionnaire. Of those who did respond to the questions, 88 percent of the husbands and 92 percent of the wives indicated an affiliation with a denomination.

The vast majority, 82 percent, of the husbands who indicated a denomination, indicated L. D. S. This group of husbands contributed less time to household tasks than any of the other groups. As can be seen in Table 31, time spent doing housework ranged from a low of 102 minutes to a high of 180 minutes.

Table 31
Husbands' Church Affiliation and
Household Work Time

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
L. D. S. (Mormon)	145	102	97.24
Catholic	12	121	117.97
Protestant	16	135	146.54
Other	3	180	108.89
No Church Affiliation	23	113	84.54

An analysis of variance was used to test for differences between the means. The results shown in Table 32 were not statistically significant.

Table 32
 Analysis of Variance of Husbands' Church Affiliation
 and His Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	34307.584	4	8576.896	0.825	0.5109
Within groups	2017684.250	194	10400.434		

The church affiliations listed by the wives were much like those of the husbands. The time spent doing household tasks varied greatly by church affiliation, from a low of 154 minutes to a high of 420 minutes, as shown in Table 33.

Table 33
Wives' Church Affiliation and
Household Work Time

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
L. D. S. (Mormon)	159	406	142.80
Catholic	12	420	166.52
Protestant	14	338	144.76
Other	2	154	153.80
No Church Affiliation	16	385	237.63

The Catholic women spent more time doing household tasks than any other group while the two women who belonged to "other" religions spent the least. As can be seen in Table 34, the results of the analysis of variance were not statistically significant.

Table 34

Analysis of Variance of Wives' Church Affiliation
and Her Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	187152.988	4	46788.247	1.984	0.0984
Within groups	4670038.268	198	23586.052		

The respondents who indicated a church affiliation were asked to indicate how active they considered themselves to be. More of the husbands and wives indicated they were "very active" than checked the other two categories. The least amount of time spent doing household tasks was by the husbands in the "very active" category. When time of wives was analyzed, those in the "inactive or not very active" category spent less time doing housework than the women in the other two categories (see Tables 35 & 36). As seen in Tables 37 and 38, the results of the analysis of variance were not statistically significant.

Table 35

Time Spent Doing Household Tasks by Husbands
According to Their Level of Church Activity

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Inactive or not very active	58	108	104.05
Active	49	117	108.58
Very active	73	98	99.86

Table 36
Time Spent Doing Household Tasks by Wives
According to Their Level of Church Activity

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Inactive or not very active	36	360	136.98
Active	60	419	150.27
Very active	93	401	145.53

Table 37

Analysis of Variance of Husbands' Level of Church Activity
and Their Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	10532.401	2	5266.201	0.490	0.6132
Within groups	1900971.036	177	10739.949		

Table 38

Analysis of Variance of Wives' Level of Church Activity
and Their Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	79839.845	2	39919.922	1.881	0.1553
Within groups	3947024.705	186	21220.563		

Question 7

Will the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the sex role ideology of the husband and the wife?

The sex role ideology of the respondents was assessed using the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), a paper and pencil test. The test was to be completed separately by the husbands and wives. Inspection of the data indicated that this procedure had been followed by the respondents. The test consists of twenty masculine, twenty feminine, and twenty neutral personality characteristics. Masculinity and femininity scores were generated for each subject and then group medians for the masculinity and femininity scores for the subject population were computed. On the bases of these scores each subject was put into one of the four classifications. The classifications include:

1. Masculine: subjects who score above the masculinity median and below the femininity median.
2. Feminine: subjects who score above the femininity median and below the masculinity median.
3. Androgynous: subjects who score above both medians.
4. Undifferentiated: subjects who score below both medians.

Time spent doing household tasks was computed separately for men and for women who were classified as "masculine," "feminine," and "androgynous." The "undifferentiated" subjects, six women and ten men, were not included in the analysis. Seventeen men and three women did not complete the questionnaire.

The time attributed to household tasks by the androgynous men and masculine men were nearly the same with 100 minutes and 111 minutes per day respectively. The nine men who were classified as "feminine" spent

approximately 50 percent more time doing housework than men in the other two categories. Table 39 shows the mean minutes per day spent doing household tasks by the three groups. Table 40 summarizes the results of the analysis of variance test, which were not statistically significant.

Table 39

Time Spent Doing Household Tasks by Husbands
According to Their Sex Role Ideology

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Androgynous	120	100	86.85
Masculine	54	111	115.05
Feminine	9	156	125.52

Table 40

Analysis of Variance of Husbands' Sex Role Ideology
and Their Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	28501.164	2	14250.582	1.487	0.2289
Within groups	1725289.068	180	9584.939		

The results for the wives were in the direction predicted by the theory underlying the BSRI. The women who were classified as "masculine" according to the test, spent less time doing household tasks than the other two groups. The "feminine" women, as shown in Table 41, spent more time than the two other groups of women.

Table 41
Time Spent Doing Household Tasks by Wives
According to Their Sex Role Ideology

	N	Mean mins. housework	s.d.
Androgynous	93	377	151.15
Masculine	11	347	178.95
Feminine	97	422	148.37

Table 42

Analysis of Variance of Wives' Sex Role Ideology
and Their Household Work Time

Source	Sum of squares	d.f.	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	124127.473	2	62063.736	2.709	0.0690
Within groups	4535490.500	198	22906.518		

CHAPTER VI
SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS
AND IMPLICATIONS

This research sought to answer the following questions concerning household work time in Utah two-parent, two-child families:

1. Is the amount of time spent in household tasks in Utah families similar to the amount reported by researchers who have studied other populations?
2. To what extent are household tasks shared by the husband and the wife?
3. Does the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the age of the husband and the wife?
4. Does the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the level of education of the husband and the wife?
5. Does the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the hours of paid employment of the husband and the wife?
6. Does the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the church affiliation and activity of the husband and the wife?
7. Does the time spent doing household tasks vary according to the sex role ideology of the husband and the wife?

Discussion

Some significant findings resulted which are not generalized beyond this study's sample. Other interesting results, though not statistically significant, were found.

Household Work Time

{ The time Utah families devoted to household work was similar to that reported by other researchers using similar methodology (Walker & Woods, 1976; Nickols, 1976; & Sanik, 1979). } There were large differences among the times reported by the 210 families studied. If the time diaries had been kept for longer than two days, the differences may have become smaller. The amount of time devoted to housework by the families in the course of a week or a month might have been more similar than it was on the two days recorded.

When the data are available from the other states participating in the NE 113 research project, a more complete picture of household work time will be available.

Contributions of Husbands and Wives

The results of this study were in agreement with studies of housework conducted by other researchers including Lopata, 1971; Vanek, 1973; Oakley, 1974; Berk, 1976; Nickols, 1976; Lovingood and Firebaugh, 1978; and Sanik, 1979. Most household tasks were done by women. In this study, when only time of husbands and wives was considered, 79 percent was contributed by wives, compared to 21 percent by husbands. The average contribution of husbands was 1 hour and 47 minutes compared to 6 hours and 37 minutes for wives per day.

When examining the individual household tasks it was apparent that the traditional division of labor prevailed. The husbands who were studied made their largest contribution to "maintenance of home, yard, car, and pets," all tasks usually considered to be in the male domain. Women, on the other hand, contributed time to all ten household tasks.

There were ten husbands in the study who, during the two days recorded, averaged six hours or more of housework. The time diaries of the husbands were examined to gain insight into the specific activities they performed. The tasks they did which resulted in large contributions of time included working on income tax, painting windows, filling out applications for a loan, and digging out a tree in the yard. The only man who had averaged over six hours of household work and who contributed time to almost all tasks was disabled and not employed in the labor market. He was not, however, designated as the homemaker, "the adult with the major responsibility for operating the household." Large time inputs into housework by husbands seem to result from unusual circumstances or seasonal tasks as opposed to being a regular occurrence.

Age

If there is a change in attitude about housework responsibility among younger couples compared to older couples, the attitude had not been translated to action by the couples studied. There may, however, have been constraints such as paid employment which prevented a more equal sharing of household tasks.

Education

There were no statistically significant results when education and household work time were analyzed. There were, however, some interesting results. The results are in concurrence with those reported by Nye (1976); the relationship between education and housework was not linear.

When husbands were grouped according to the highest level of education completed, the husbands with a bachelor's degree made the largest contribution to household tasks. When grouped according to the wives'

educational level, the largest contribution came from husbands of the women with a graduate degree. Four of the five women in that category were employed full-time. They were the women who spent the least time doing housework. As the N for this group was very small the results should be regarded as tentative.

Employment

The only statistically significant results found in this research resulted from the analyses which related employment time to household work time. For both husbands and wives there was a significant inverse relationship between their time in paid employment and their time spent doing household tasks. The time husbands contributed to housework did not increase greatly when their wives were employed full-time compared to those whose wives were full-time homemakers. This finding agrees with the conclusions of Cook (1975), Nickols (1976), Berk (1976), and Robinson (1977a).

Religious Affiliation and Activity

There were differences in time contributed to household tasks by husbands and wives belonging to different denominations. There were also differences according to how active the respondents were in their church. None of the differences, however, were statistically significant.

Sex Role Ideology

While the results of the analysis of sex role ideology, as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory, were not statistically significant, they were interesting. Both husbands and wives who were categorized as "masculine" spent less time doing household tasks than the other two groups. Also, for both husbands and wives, the most time spent doing housework was done by those in the category "feminine."

Bem's (1976) research indicated that androgynous males were willing, in laboratory experiments, to perform behavior, regardless of whether the culture would label it as male or female. The "androgynous" males in this study did just eleven fewer minutes of housework than did the "feminine" males, but much less than the women in any of the three categories. When the time spent in the individual household tasks by the three groups of men were analyzed, there were no significant differences.

In Bem's (1976) laboratory research, the "androgynous" females were also willing to perform cross-sex behavior. An examination of the time the housewives contributed to "maintenance of home, yard, car, and pets" revealed that the times for the three groups were almost identical. The "androgynous" females did not put more time into the one household task usually considered to belong to men.

The results for the husbands and the wives may have been different if some constraints such as the demands of paid employment had not been present. It may also be that a measure of personality traits is not a good indicator of everyday activities. Perhaps such a test would be a better predictor of how much one would enjoy specific tasks or the satisfaction one would gain from doing them than of the time one spends doing them.

Conclusions

The conclusions that can be inferred from this research are:

1. Household tasks required a significant amount of time for the Utah families studied and most of that time was contributed by the wives.

2. Husbands contributed very little time to household tasks and their contributions were mainly to the maintenance tasks, traditionally considered to be the husbands' responsibility.
3. Time spent in paid work reduced the time spent in housework for both women and men.
4. Time contributed to household tasks was very stable for men and women. It did not change significantly with changes in age, education, church affiliation and activity, or sex role ideology.
5. When housework time and time spent in paid employment are combined, women employed full-time had less discretionary time than their male counterparts.

Implications

There has been and continues to be an increasing number of married women in the labor force. There have also been predictions that more women will seek paid employment in the future. Research, this study and others cited, have documented that men are not yet sharing, in any meaningful way, the work that is necessary in order that homes may function and care be provided for family members. While scholars have predicted that families where earning a living and caring for home and family are equally shared will become more prevalent in the future, this "best of all possible worlds" has not yet appeared for most families.

If there is to be an equitable distribution of work and leisure between husbands and wives, changes must occur. How to bring about change is a difficult matter. Much of housework is not enticing; it is routine, the results are either not tangible or do not last long, and tasks must be repeated over and over again. As Tognoli (1979) points out, there is an ambivalence toward housework and homemaking roles in our culture.

While housekeeping is glorified in the media, men often have a disdain for it. There would seem at present little hope that most housekeeping tasks can be changed to become attractive enough to men that they would spontaneously participate in them on a more equal basis with their wives. It is probably true that not all women would welcome more participation from their husbands.

Scanzoni (1979) suggested three possible strategies for changing male family roles, for increasing their participation in household tasks. They include:

1. self interest strategy--show men how they personally would benefit from the change.
2. prosocial or altruistic strategy--encourage men to see it is best for women if these changes take place, convince them it is only right and fair that women participate fully.
3. negotiation and conflict--process of give and take, concessions and compromises in exchange for benefits. The parties concerned end up with something, but not everything they originally wanted.

Undoubtedly, different strategies or combinations of strategies would work in different families. An interesting feature of all three of Scanzoni's proposed strategies is that they put the responsibility on women to motivate men to become more involved in home and family care.

A positive approach to change would be to study families, assuming some exist, where household tasks are defined as family work. Implied in this definition is the idea that family members who benefit from the goods and services produced would also be responsible to do a fair share in producing them. Insight into how these families function and how they came to be, could be helpful in promoting change. Studying how such families

function could aid other families who are attempting a redefinition of family responsibilities. As both Berger (1979) and Pleck (1979) warn, not all of the consequences of attempting change in family roles are immediately apparent and not all are going to be positive for husbands, wives, and children. However, Berger (1979, p. 643) states:

Challenging the limits of conventional sex role ideology will increase the chance that men and women can find out what they are really like, that people can learn what they truly love and can, however haltingly, embody in action. This is an opportunity which, like all opportunities has its price.

Further Research

This study attempted to measure contributions to household tasks of husbands and wives by comparing the number of minutes per day that each spent in housework activities. This methodology, particularly when studies using it are carried out at different times and in different areas of the country, provides answers to important questions that are often asked by husbands and wives, scholars, lawyers, and legislators. It does not answer other, equally important questions.

An area of study related to household tasks is the issue of quantity of time devoted to the tasks related to the quality of the work done and to the subsequent outcomes. Most individuals would agree that not everyone accomplishes the same amount of work in an hour. One person may clean just one room in an hour while another may clean the whole house. Obviously there are differences in the quality of the work accomplished. The first person may have done a thorough cleaning job while the second may have done a hurried, haphazard job. The outcomes of the work of the two persons would be quite different, while each would have recorded an hour of housecleaning. Research techniques are needed to take these differences into account.

A second area of research that could be pursued is the feelings individuals have toward household tasks, both the work itself and the outcome. Individuals, of course, vary in their feelings about household work in general and also toward specific tasks. The feeling can vary from intense dislike to pleasure. While one can dislike doing a specific task there is also the possibility that the satisfaction gained by completing the task can outweigh the dislike of the work. Satisfaction can come from the product created, such as good food produced by cooking or from the satisfaction of having completed a disliked task. How do feelings toward tasks relate to the time spent on them, to the quality of the work done and to the satisfaction from having completed them?

Another area of concern related to household tasks is shared time. How much of household work is done by individuals working alone and how much reflects time that was being shared by two or more family members? Davey and Paolucci (1980), after examining the 1967-68 Cornell time study data, concluded that family members do little household work together.

Interest in shared time spent doing household tasks is primarily related to two issues. The first is the concern with how much time family members spend together. If feelings of responsibility for other family members, caring, and affection are developed through interaction, then time spent performing household tasks together is an avenue for achieving this goal.

A second point often made in relation to shared time is that it is through doing household tasks that young family members are taught skills that they will need as adults. If they do not learn how to do household tasks while working with parents or older siblings, how will this necessary learning take place? During this shared time the human resources

of children are developed, resources that will be useful not only in a home setting but also in school and in the labor market.

As more and more women enter the labor market it will become increasingly necessary that housework cease being regarded as women's work and come to be defined as family work. Are there families where household work is regarded as family work and all family members equitable contribute to carrying out the necessary tasks?

In-depth case studies of a small number of such families could provide information that would be useful to other families. How did housework come to be shared? Was it always shared? How was opposition to sharing by a spouse or child overcome or was there no opposition? How are pressures toward a more traditional arrangement from individuals outside the family handled by family members? What satisfactions do they receive from their arrangement? If the predictions of increased labor force participation of women are correct, answers to these questions will become imperative.

Household work--what is done, how, and by whom--is an intriguing area of research. As resources available to families continue to change while basic needs remain, what adjustments will be made?

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

HOUSEHOLD CODE: DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

112

Would you give me information about the meals prepared at home yesterday, whether they were eaten at home or elsewhere. If the total time for preparing the meal, or snack was less than 3 minutes, do not include it. Start with the first meal of the day.

1. Recording Day I Recording Day II 4. Time preparation started
2. What meal was it? morning noon evening snack packed lunch other
3. How many persons were served? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9+

5. Number of items prepared	6. What were the items prepared or eaten at this meal?	7. How much preparation was required for each item? None Very limited Simple Moderate Extensive	8. What kind of cooking was done? No cooking done Top of range Oven Broiler Microwave Charcoal Small Appliance
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13			
14			
15			
16			
17			
18			
19			
20			

9. Recording Day I Recording Day II 12. Time preparation started
10. What meal was it? morning noon evening snack packed lunch other
11. How many persons were served? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9+

13. Number of items prepared	14. What were the items prepared or eaten at this meal?	15. How much preparation was required for each item? None Very limited Simple Moderate Extensive	16. What kind of cooking was done? No cooking done Top of range Oven Broiler Microwave Charcoal Small Appliance
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13			
14			
15			
16			
17			
18			
19			
20			

HOUSEHOLD CODE

<input type="checkbox"/>	1
<input type="checkbox"/>	2
<input type="checkbox"/>	3
<input type="checkbox"/>	4
<input type="checkbox"/>	5
<input type="checkbox"/>	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	7
<input type="checkbox"/>	8
<input type="checkbox"/>	9
<input type="checkbox"/>	10
<input type="checkbox"/>	11
<input type="checkbox"/>	12
<input type="checkbox"/>	13
<input type="checkbox"/>	14
<input type="checkbox"/>	15
<input type="checkbox"/>	16
<input type="checkbox"/>	17
<input type="checkbox"/>	18
<input type="checkbox"/>	19
<input type="checkbox"/>	20
<input type="checkbox"/>	21
<input type="checkbox"/>	22
<input type="checkbox"/>	23
<input type="checkbox"/>	24
<input type="checkbox"/>	25

1. Yesterday did you or any household member eat a meal away from home that had NOT been prepared at home?

YES NO

2. IF YES, how many times were meals eaten away? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

(USE SEPARATE COLUMNS FOR EACH MEAL EATEN, WHETHER BY ONE OR MORE THAN ONE FAMILY MEMBER)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
3. Recording Day I	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)
Recording Day II	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)	(1-2)
4. Starting with the first meal eaten away was it?									
a morning meal	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
a noon meal	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
an evening meal	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
a snack	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
5. How many household members ate this meal?	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
6. From which of the following was this food obtained?									
fast food	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
school cafeteria	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
industrial cafeteria	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
private cafeteria	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
a restaurant	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
private club or resort	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
social gathering	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)
friend's or relative's house	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)
D.K.	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)
7. What was the approximate cost including the tip, of this meal for all household members who ate it?									
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9

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1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

HOUSEHOLD CODE

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

- Do you own or rent your home?
Own or buying Rent Other _____
- About what year was your home built? _____
- Is your household responsible for care of the yard? YES NO
IF YES, what is the approximate size of the lot that you take care of? _____
- How many rooms are in your home? (DO NOT COUNT BATHROOMS OR HALLS) 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9+
- How many full bathrooms do you have? 0 1 2 3 4+ 6. How many partial bathrooms do you have? 0 1 2 3 4+
- What is the main source of heat for your home? Electric Gas Oil Coal Wood Other D.K.
- What is the main source of heat for cooking? Electric Gas Oil Coal Wood Other
- How many motor vehicles do you have that are used for transportation by members of your household? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+
- How many drivers are in your household? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ 11. Do you have any household pets? YES NO
- What is approximate size of your refrigerator(s)?
a. Refrigerator 1 b. Refrigerator 2

small (less than 7 cu. ft.)	small (less than 7. cu. ft.)
medium (7-12 cu. ft.)	medium (7-12 cu. ft.)
large (12.1-19 cu. ft.)	large (12.1-19 cu. ft.)
extra large (19.1+ cu. ft.)	extra large (19.1+ cu. ft.)
not applicable	not applicable
- Is your refrigerator(s) unit:
a. Refrigerator 1 b. Refrigerator 2

1 door model?	1 door model?
2 door model?	2 door model?
not applicable	not applicable
- Is your refrigerator/freezer a frost-free model?
a. Refrigerator 1 b. Refrigerator 2

Yes, refrigerator only	Yes, refrigerator only
Yes, both freezer/refrigerator	Yes, both freezer/refrigerator
Not applicable	Not applicable
No	No
- Do you have a separate freezer(s) (free-standing)? YES NO
- IF YES, is your freezer space

small (less than 12 cu. ft.)?	17. IF 1 OR MORE FREEZERS, ASK: How many of your free-standing freezers are frost-free? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
medium (12-19 cu. ft.)?	
large (19.1+ cu. ft.)?	
not applicable	
- Is your oven continuous cleaning? self cleaning? neither?

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY

YEAR

SQ. FEET

HOUSEHOLD CODE:

1. On how many of the last seven days were the following done by someone in your household?

canning, pickling, making jams, and jellies 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
 freezing food 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
 preparing food for another day 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
 shopping for food 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

2. On how many of the last seven days have the following been consciously used to avoid some dishwashing or laundry?

disposable cooking or serving dishes 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
 aluminum foil or disposable baking pans 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
 disposable diapers 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
 disposable household textiles 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

3. Do you have a

Y

N

4. IF YES, on how many of the last 7 days has it been used for your household work?

Do you have a	Y	N	4. IF YES, on how many of the last 7 days has it been used for your household work?
microwave oven?			
dishwasher?			
garbage disposer?			
trash compactor?			
washing machine-automatic?			
washing machine-nonautomatic?			
clothes dryer?			
sewing machine?			
vacuum cleaner?			
power garden and/or yard equipment?			
air-conditioner?			
IF YES, identify: Central	1	2	3+ room units

5. How many loads of clothes were washed on Day I
 on Day II
 during last 7 days

6. Where was washing done?

Day I home someone else's house apartment house laundromat other
 Day II home someone else's house apartment house laundromat other

7. On how many of the last seven days did someone in your household:-

take items to commercial laundry or dry cleaner?
 use coin operated laundry or dry cleaning equipment?
 do hand washing?
 iron?
 do sewing?

HOUSEHOLD CODE:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0

1. On how many of the last seven days were the following done by a household member for your family:

shopping for items or services priced over \$100? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
special housecleaning? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
painting, redecorating? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
washing or waxing motor vehicles? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
repairing appliances? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
working in the yard, garden, including harvesting? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
working on outside areas of the house or property? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0

2. On how many of the last seven days was any household member ill? ----- 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. On how many of the last seven days did any household member chauffeur another household member:

to and/or from doctor, dentist or barber? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
to and/or from paid work? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
to and/or from school or classes? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
to and/or from a social function? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
to and/or from an organization, including church? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
to and/or from an educational or athletic activity? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
to and/or from a store? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0

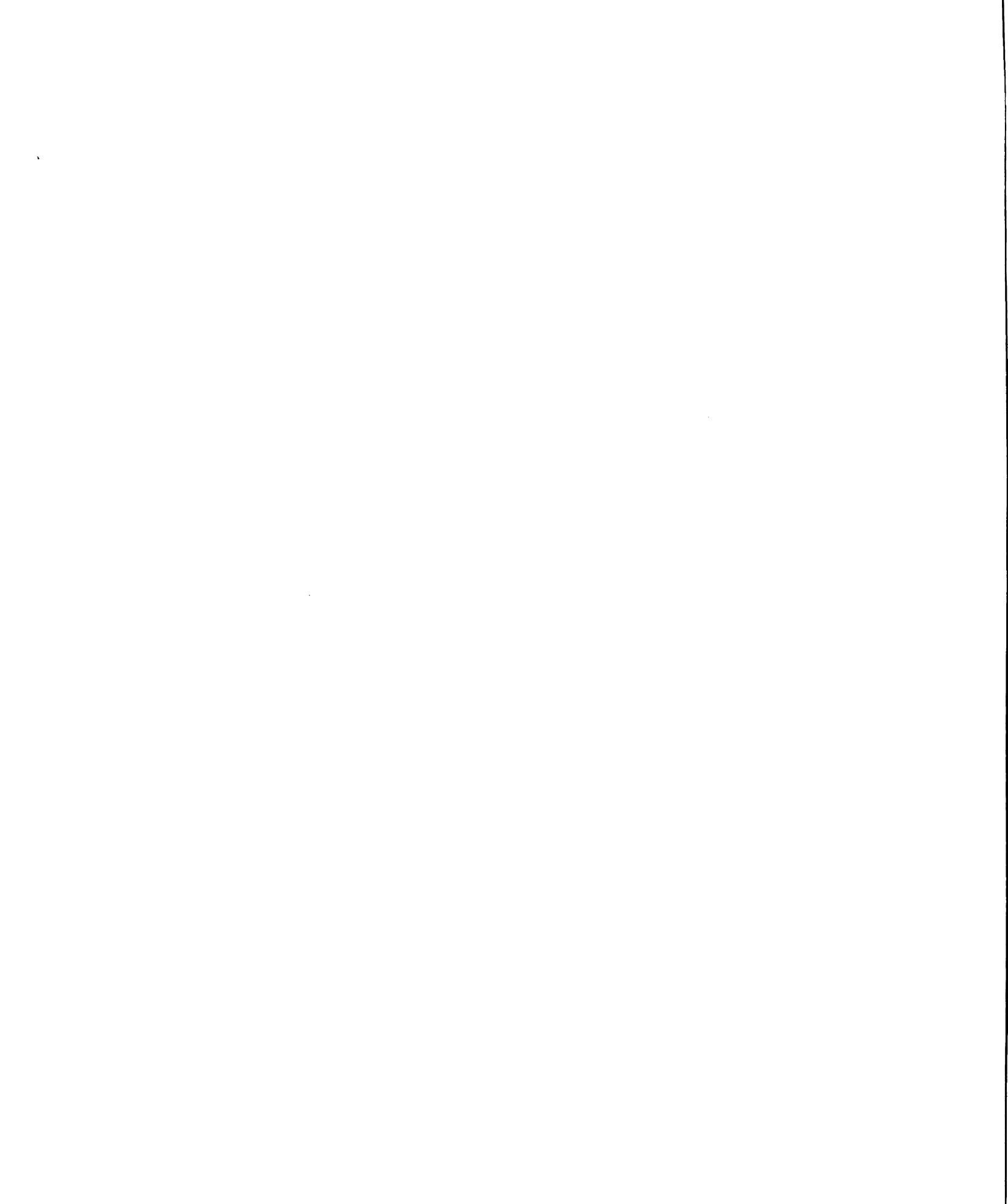
4. On how many of the last seven days were the following modes of transportation used by one or more household members:

family car? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
company car? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
school bus? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
car pool? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
city bus? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
taxi? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
bicycle? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
other, ? -----	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0

5. In the last seven days, did you or any family member have someone from outside the household do any of the following:

take care of your children -- in your home? -----	YES	NO	NA
take care of your children -- in someone else's home? -----	YES	NO	NA
take care of your children -- in day care center? -----	YES	NO	NA
take care of other household member(s)? -----	YES	NO	NA
do housecleaning? -----	YES	NO	NA
do lawn or yard work? -----	YES	NO	NA
do painting, redecorating? -----	YES	NO	NA
service appliances? -----	YES	NO	NA
work on your motor vehicles? -----	YES	NO	NA
do house maintenance? -----	YES	NO	NA
other services? -----	YES	NO	NA

6. How many hours did it take? 7. How much did it cost?



HOUSEHOLD CODE

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

1. How many of your children, 12-17 years of age, worked for pay last week?

If none or NA, go to next page.

	CHILD I	CHILD II	CHILD III
2. What is the age and sex of the child?	M 12 13 14 F 15 16 17	M 12 13 14 F 15 16 17	M 12 13 14 F 15 16 17
3. What kind of work did he/she do?			
4. How many hours did he/she work last week?	____ hrs	____ hrs	____ hrs
5. Approximately how much did he/she earn last week?	\$ _____	\$ _____	\$ _____
	CHILD IV	CHILD V	CHILD VI
2a. What is the age and sex of the child?	M 12 13 14 F 15 16 17	M 12 13 14 F 15 16 17	M 12 13 14 F 15 16 17
3a. What kind of work did he/she do?			
4a. How many hours did he/she work last week?	____ hrs	____ hrs	____ hrs
5a. Approximately how much did he/she earn last week?	\$ _____	\$ _____	\$ _____

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WAGES		HOURS		WAGES	
1.		1.		5.	
2.		2.		5.	
3.		3.		6.	
4.		4.		6.	

HOUSEHOLD CODE:

(FOR EACH ADULT ASK THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS)

	HOMEMAKER	ADULT II	ADULT III
1. What was the highest grade in school you completed? (IF DEGREE MENTIONED NOTE)			
2. Last week were you employed? FOR EACH EMPLOYED ASK:	<input type="checkbox"/> YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO	<input type="checkbox"/> YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO	<input type="checkbox"/> YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO
3. Was this for pay? (CODE 1) For pay, but not at work, example, illness or vacation? (CODE 2) Without pay, example, family farm or business? (CODE 3)	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3
4. What kind of work did you do? (IF MORE THAN 1 JOB, ASK FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ABOUT THE FIRST OR PRIMARY JOB)			
5. What kind of industry or business were you employed in?			
6. How many hours did you work for pay last week? H II III	<input type="checkbox"/> 1-15 <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40	<input type="checkbox"/> 1-15 <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40	<input type="checkbox"/> 1-15 <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40
7. What is the usual number of hours you work for pay a week?	<input type="checkbox"/> 1-15 <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40	<input type="checkbox"/> 1-15 <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40	<input type="checkbox"/> 1-15 <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40
8. Are you: an hourly wage earner? (CODE 1) salaried? (CODE 2) on commission? (CODE 3) self-employed? (CODE 4) other? (CODE 5) GO TO Q. 9 GO TO Q. 10	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
9. What is your hourly wage rate?	\$ _____	\$ _____	\$ _____
10. If you were salaried, self-employed, or on commission, what amount did you earn last week? (USE INCOME BEFORE DEDUCTIONS)	\$ _____	\$ _____	\$ _____

H

II

III

HOUSEHOLD CODE:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39
40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49
50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59
60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69
70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79
80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89
90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99

	HOMEMAKER	ADULT II	ADULT III
1. Did you have more than one paid job last week? (IF NO, GO TO Q 9)	YES NO	YES NO	YES NO
2. (IF YES,) What kind of work was this?			
3. What industry or business was it in?			
4. How many hours did you work for pay last week on this job?	0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
5. What is the usual number of hours you work for pay per week on this job?	0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
6. For this second job are you: an hourly wage earner (CODE 1) salaried? (CODE 2) on commission? (CODE 3) self-employed? (CODE 4) other? (CODE 5) GO TO Q. 7 GO TO Q. 8	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7. What is your hourly wage for your second job?	\$ _____	\$ _____	\$ _____
8. If you were salaried, self-employed, or on commission for a second job, what amount did you earn last week? (USE INCOME BEFORE DEDUCTIONS)	\$ _____	\$ _____	\$ _____

9. If you worked without pay in family business or farm, how many hours did you work last week?	0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
10. Which category on this card represents the total income before taxes for your household in the past twelve months? This includes wages and salaries, net income from business or farm, pensions, dividends, interest, rent, Social Security payments and any other money received by members of your household? BLOCK OUT ONE LETTER ONLY A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z			

HOUSEHOLD CODE: _____

Were there unusual weather conditions that affected household members' time use?

on the 1st day _____

on the 2nd day _____

Were there any unusual physical conditions or situations regarding your residence that affected household members' time use?

on the 1st day _____

on the 2nd day _____

Were there any unusual activities of your family or household members that affected household members' time use?

on the 1st day _____

on the 2nd day _____

Are there any special situations in your home, for example: handicapped or chronically ill family members, that affected household members' time use?

Are there special ways your household members "save" time on household activities? _____

APPENDIX B

TIME DIARY

APPENDIX C

BEM SEX ROLE INVENTORY

APPENDIX C

BEM SEX ROLE INVENTORY

(Husband-Wife) _____
 (Please Print Full Name)
 Sex _____

On the following page, you will be shown a large number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use those characteristics in order to describe yourself. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any characteristics unmarked.

Example: sly

Mark a 1 if it is NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 2 if it is USUALLY NOT TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 3 if it is SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 4 if it is OCCASIONALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 5 if it is OFTEN TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 6 if it is USUALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark 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
Malicious	1

Irresponsible	7
Carefree	5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
never or almost never true	usually not true	sometimes but infrequently true	occasionally true	often true	usually true	always or almost always true

Self reliant	
Yielding	
Helpful	
Defends own beliefs	
Cheerful	
Moody	
Shy	
Conscientious	
Athletic	
Affectionate	
Theatrical	
Assertive	
Flatterable	
Happy	
Strong personality	
Loyal	
Unpredictable	
Forceful	
Feminine	
Reliable	

Analytical	
Sympathetic	
Jealous	
Has leadership abilities	
Sensitive to the needs of others	
Truthful	
Willing to take risks	
Understanding	
Secretive	
Makes decisions easily	
Compassionate	
Sincere	
Self-sufficient	
Eager to soothe hurt feelings	
Conceited	
Soft-spoken	
Likable	
Dominant	

Masculine	
Warm	
Solemn	
Willing to take a stand	
Tender	
Friendly	
Aggressive	
Gullible	
Inefficient	
Acts as a leader	
Childlike	
Adaptable	
Individualistic	
Does not use harsh language	
Unsystematic	
Competitive	
Loves children	
Tactful	
Ambitious	
Gentle	
Conventional	

APPENDIX D

CHURCH AFFILIATION AND ACTIVITY

APPENDIX E

ACTIVITY DICTIONARY

APPENDIX E

ACTIVITY DICTIONARY

NEW YORK STATE COLLEGE OF HUMAN ECOLOGY
A Statutory College of the State University
Cornell University, Ithaca, New York

Department of Consumer Economics and Public Policy

Use-of-time Research Project
Definition of Activities of Household Members

FOOD

1. Food Preparation

All tasks relating to the preparation of food for meals, snacks, and future use.

Include time spent setting the table and serving the food.

2. Dishwashing

In addition to washing and drying dishes, loading and unloading dishwasher or dish drainer.

Include after-meal cleanup of table, leftovers, kitchen equipment and refuse.

SHOPPING

3. Shopping

All activities related to shopping for food, supplies, equipment, furnishings, clothing, durables, and services, whether or not a purchase was made (by telephone, by mail, or at the store).

Also include: Comparison shopping, putting purchases away, getting or sending mail and packages, hiring of services (cleaning, repair, maintenance, other).

HOUSE

4. Housecleaning

Any regular or periodic cleaning of house and appliances, including such tasks as:

Mopping, vacuuming, sweeping, dusting, waxing
 Washing windows or walls
 Cleaning the oven; defrosting and cleaning the refrigerator or freezer
 Making beds and putting rooms in order

5. Maintenance of Home Yard, Car and Pets

Any repair and upkeep of home, appliances, and furnishings such as:

Painting, papering, redecorating, carpentry
 Repairing equipment, plumbing, furniture
 Putting up storm windows or screens
 Taking out garbage and trash
 Caring for houseplants, flower arranging

Daily and periodic care of outside areas such as:

Yard, garden
 Sidewalks, driveways, patios, outside porches
 Garage, tool shed, other outside areas
 Swimming pool

Maintenance and care of family motor vehicles (car, truck, van, motorcycle, snowmobile, boat)

Washing, waxing
 Changing oil, rotating tires and other maintenance and repair work
 Taking motor vehicle to service station, garage, or car wash

Feeding and care of house pets. Also include trips to kennel or veterinarian.

CLOTHING AND HOUSEHOLD LINENS

6. Care

Washing by maching at home or away from home, including:

Collecting and preparing soiled items for washing
 Loading and unloading washer or dryer
 Hanging up items and removing from the line
 Folding

Hand washing

Ironing and pressing. Also include:

Getting out equipment, sprinkling

Putting away cleaned items and equipment

Polishing shoes

Preparing items for commercial laundry or dry cleaning

Seasonal storage of clothing and textiles

7. Construction

Making alterations or mending

Making clothing and household accessories (draperies, slip-covers, napkins, etc.) include such activities as:

Sewing

Embroidering

Knitting, crocheting, macrame

If these activities are to make product for self, immediate family members or to give as gift, include under (7).

If activity is primarily to produce product for sale, include time under paid work (12).

If activity is primarily as recreation rather than goal motivated, include time under "recreation" (15).

HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS

8. Physical Care

All activities related to physical care of household members other than self such as:

Bathing, feeding, dressing and other personal care

First aid or bedside care

Taking household members to doctor, dentist, barber

9. Nonphysical Care

All activities related to the social and educational development of household members such as:

Playing with children

Teaching, talking, helping children with homework

Reading aloud
 Clauffering and/or accompanying children to social and
 educational activities
 Attending functions involving your child

MANAGEMENT

10. Management

Making decisions and planning such as:

Thinking about, discussing, and investigating alternatives
 Looking for ideas and seeking information
 Assessing resources available (space, time, money, etc.)
 Planning--family activities, vacations, menus, shopping
 lists, purchases and investments

Supervising and coordinating activities
 Checking plans as they are carried out
 Thinking back to see how plans worked
 Financial activities such as:

Making bank deposits and checking bank statements
 Paying bills and recording receipts and expenses
 Figuring income taxes

WORK (OTHER THAN HOUSEHOLD)

11. School

Classes related to present or future employment.

Include time spent in preparation for each of the above.
 For example, work or reading done at home or at the
 library relating to job or classes.

12. Paid

Paid employment and work-related activities, such as work
 brought home, professional, business and union meetings,
 conventions, etc.

Paid work for family farm or business, babysitting, paper
 route.

13. Unpaid

Work or service done either as a volunteer or as an unpaid worker
 for relatives, friends, family business or farm, social, civic, or
 community organizations.

NONWORK

14. Organization Participation

Attending and participating in:

Religious activities and services
Civic and political organizations
Other clubs and organizations

15. Social and Recreational Activities

Reading (other than required for school or work)
Watching TV
Listening to radio, stereo, etc.
"Going out" to movies, car shows, museums, sporting events,
concerts, etc.
Participating in any sport, hobby or craft
Taking a class or lesson for personal interest
Walking, cycling, boating, "taking a ride", training animals
Talking with friends or relatives, either in person or by
telephone
Entertaining at home or being entertained away from home
Writing letters, or cards to friends, relatives
Playing games, musical instruments, etc. (If adult is playing
with child include such activities under nonphysical care)

PERSONAL MAINTENANCE

16. Personal Care (of Self)

Sleeping
Bathing, getting dressed, other grooming and personal care
Making appointments and going to doctor, dentist, beautician
and other personal services
Relaxing, loafing, resting
Meditation

17. Eating

Eating any meal or snack, alone, with family or friends at home
or away from home.

OTHER

18. Other

Any activity not classified in categories 1 to 17

Any block of time for which you cannot recall, do not know, or
do not wish to report.

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