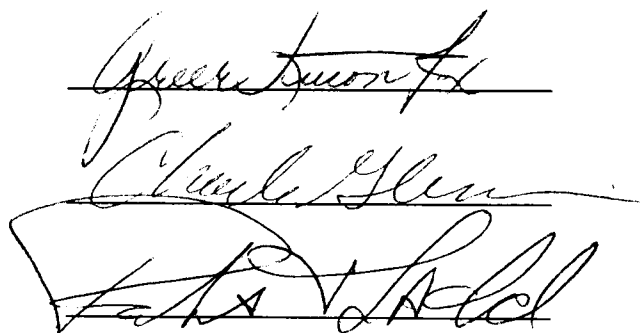


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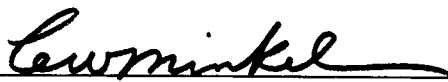
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Myung-Shin Lee entitled "The Impact of Wives' Employment on Family Power Structure, Division of Household Labor, and Role Conflict among the Korean Dual-Career Couples: A Covariance Structure Analysis." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Social Work.


Dr. Catherine Faver, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:



Accepted for the Council:


Associate Vice Chancellor
and Dean of The Graduate School

**The Impact of Wives' Employment
on Family Power Structure,
Division of Household Labor, and Role-Conflict
among the Korean Dual-Career Couples:
A Covariance Structure Analysis**

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Myung-Shin Lee

December, 1994

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Dedicated with love and respect
to my parents
whose love, support and many sacrifices made this dissertation possible.

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Abstract

In order to better understand the difficulties which dual-career couples confront, there is a growing need to investigate the causes and the consequences of the gendered division of household labor, which is hypothesized to be the core problem of dual-career families. The purpose of the study was to develop a comprehensive theoretical model which explains the complex interrelationships among power structure, division of household labor, role conflict, marital satisfaction, and stress.

Using the data collected by nonrandom sampling from 191 Korean dual-career couples living in Seoul, Korea, a theoretical model developed in this study was tested. In particular, the effects of different types of power which have not been previously studied (definitional power, personal power, and positional power) were explored. In order to examine gender differences, a male model and a female model were developed separately and compared.

For data analysis, a covariance structure analysis (CSA) was used. At first, the most adequate measurement models for power structure and for the endogenous variables were found by means of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Then, the best-fitting models for males and females were found through the structural sub-model comparison. As a result of structural analysis, significant relationships between the latent variables were found for the male and female models.

As a result of comparing the male and female models, four significant common relationships were found: 1) Greater personal power increases marital satisfaction; 2) Higher level of inter-role conflict increases stress; 3) A husband's greater resource power reduces his share of housework, while a wife's greater resource power increases her share; 4) A husband's greater share of housework reduces his intra-

role conflict, whereas a wife's greater share increases her intra-role conflict. The first two relationships can be generalized across genders. The last two relationships, which are also significant for both males and females, differ in the direction of the associations.

With the exception of these four common relationships, the analyses revealed substantial gender differences in dual-career family life and marital relationships experienced by husbands and wives. The findings of this study reflect the complex interrelationships between the variables of interest:

- 1) Husband's division of household labor was negatively associated with his resource power and definitional power, while positively associated with his positional power.
- 2) Wife's division of household labor was positively associated with her resource power.
- 3) Husband's intra-role conflict was negatively associated with the amount of housework he shares.
- 4) Wife's intra-role conflict was positively associated with her share of household tasks, while negatively associated with her resource power.
- 5) Husband's inter-role conflict was positively associated with his share of housework and his positional power, while negatively associated with his personal power.
- 6) Wife's inter-role conflict was positively associated with her intra-role conflict.
- 7) Husband's greater share of housework directly increases his inter-role conflict, and indirectly decreases wife's inter-role conflict.
- 8) Husband's marital satisfaction is positively related to his greater share of housework and his personal power.
- 9) Wife's marital satisfaction is positively associated with her greater resource power and her personal power, while negatively associated with her inter-role conflict.
- 10) Husband's stress is positively associated with his intra-role conflict and inter-role

conflict.

11) Wife's stress is positively associated with her inter-role conflict.

The gender differences found in the interrelationships among power structure (comprised of four power bases), division of household labor, two types of role conflict, marital satisfaction and stress were discussed. Several strategies to alleviate the difficulties experienced by dual-career couples were suggested for social work practice, and implications for social policy development were discussed.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

1. Statement of Problem

With the innovation of industrial technology and science, the advancement of the capitalist economy, and the rise of egalitarian and individualistic ideology, the contemporary society has experienced immense changes. These rapid changes have altered the socio-economic institutions surrounding the family and have reshaped family life itself. In particular, a series of interrelated demographic changes such as low fertility, postponed marriage or delayed childbearing, and the increasing educational attainment and labor force participation of women have had direct and far-reaching impacts on the contemporary family life by permitting women greater control over shaping their lives to fit their lifestyle objectives (McLaughlin et al., 1988).

The most conspicuous changes taking place within the contemporary family, along with the socio-economic-demographic changes occurring in the larger society, is the changes in women's roles with the increasing married women's employment outside the home. The increasing economic autonomy deriving from married women's increasing work force participation has served as a catalyst for restructuring family life and family relationships, redefining women's roles, as well as the meaning of the family in the new social context. At the same time, the growing need for balancing work and family roles to accommodate dual-career family life has facilitated the changes in family relationships as well as in its structure.

The rapid increase in married women's labor force participation has brought about the dramatic changes in the traditional relationship of women to work, family, and

marriage (Gorham, 1979). Ralph Smith (1979) called this undergoing change "the subtle revolution," because it requires the total changes in social and economic arrangement as well as family relationship, but the process has been gradual, and not traceable to abrupt changes. Transformation of married women's role from homemaking to employment outside the home requires reorganizing the entire family life and family relations with the reassessment of family roles and personal identities (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969); it also creates pressure for changes in the social-economic institutions which are still largely based on the notion of a one-career family (Gorham, 1979).

As more and more married women enter the work force, the dual-career family is becoming a more common family pattern in contemporary society. In the United States, in 1992, fifty-nine percent of wives in married-couple families were in the work force, and sixty-seven percent of mothers with children under the age of 18 were working outside the home (U.S. Dept of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1993). In Korea which is one of the rapidly growing developing countries, there has been a continuing increase in the rate of female labor force participation. In 1992, about forty-eight percent of Korean females were in the labor force, compared with thirty-nine percent in 1970. In 1992, about sixty-three percent of total female employed were married women (National Statistical Office of Korea, 1993).

Since dual-career families are a rapidly growing population across the world, the employment of married women and dual-career family life have been the focus of study in the area of social work and family studies. Therefore, "the subtle revolution", which once only a minority of dual-career families were expected to face, is increasingly becoming a common phenomenon which majority of families confronted with increasing wives' employment.

The more important reason that dual-career families have received attention is because working women and their husbands, while undergoing "subtle revolution," may encounter a great deal of difficulties. The core difficulty the dual-career couples face is that wives' employment asks for total alterations in the roles of men and women in the direction of greater equality (Skolnick & Skolnick, 1983) as well as a restructuring of family life, but the expected "revolution" is difficult to accomplish due to social, and psychological barriers. In contemporary society, the basic assumptions of a dual-career family (compatibility of work and family for both genders, and equal role sharing) are at odds with the current institutional structures as well as outdated traditional family norms (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1972; Gilbert, 1985). Although married women's employment outside the home is increasingly seen as acceptable (Gilbert, 1985), the necessary adjustment has not been made in order to accommodate dual-career life because of a cultural lag existing in contemporary society.

A "cultural lag," a term coined by Ogburn (1964), indicates the discrepancies created by differential rates or extents of changes in two parts of culture, resulting in less adjustment between two parts than existed previously (Bianchi & Spain, 1986). Social institutions have not changed enough to keep pace with changes in the economic role of married women because the current occupational and institutional structure have not been reorganized to provide support for working wives or to ease conflicting demands confronting working wives. On the other hand, despite the growing necessity for more equitable role-sharing, traditional ideologies and norms continue to influence the dual-career family in such a way that they maintain the gendered division of labor.

The gendered-division of labor, which assigns to women priority for family and domestic tasks, and to men priority for economic or other extradomestic roles regardless of their other commitment (Chafetz, 1991), emerged in the process of industrialization.

With the rise of the factory system, the workplace was separated from the home, and the productive role was assumed by males, while unpaid domestic labor was assigned to women (Zaretsky, 1976; McLaughlin et al., 1988). This gendered division of labor system, which had been supported by the ideology of "separate but equal" spheres had been continued for over 150 years (1830s-1980) (Bernard, 1983), reinforcing gender role differentiation.

However, the growing necessity for a female labor force in the contemporary society has brought about some changes in the long-lasting gendered division of labor system, by permitting married women to resume their economic roles through paid work (Ridley, 1972). The changes in the gendered division of labor that just started with increasing married women's labor force involvement is far from completion. While women have added the labor force participation to their previous unpaid household work, men have not added a corresponding share of household labor to their employment outside the home. Men have increased their household labor only minimally (Robinson, 1977).

This unbalanced change in gendered division of labor can be attributed to the lingering effects of traditional norms and ideology which supports gender role differentiation, as well as to the slow-paced changes in social institutions. This one-sided change occurring only on the part of women has, inevitably, resulted in "asymmetric division of domestic labor." The "asymmetric division of domestic labor" is practiced within the contemporary dual-career families because working wives assume the disproportionate share of household labor in the absence of husband's sharing of household tasks.

In short, the "cultural lag" existing between the espoused egalitarian ideology and the domestic reality of the dual-career family, and between women's actual labor force participation and absence of institutional support makes the transition to a co-provider

system difficult. Due to the cultural lag, "the revolution" expected to occur within dual-career families to change gender relationship into a more egalitarian one has not been realized. Instead, gendered division of labor, which had supported the long-standing unequal gender relationship, has been changed into a more severe form, that is, women's disproportionate share of household labor.

This asymmetry in division of labor between husbands and wives in the dual-career families is seen as the core work-family problem (Pleck, 1979) because it makes it difficult for dual-career couples to balance work and family responsibilities. Therefore, working wives' disproportionate share of household labor brings about serious negative consequences for individuals as well as for the dual-career families.

At the individual level, unequal role sharing brings about a detrimental impact on working women: working women who are overburdened due to overload are vulnerable to stress and physical symptoms, which may develop to serious mental illness. For example, working wives are likely to feel guilty and anxious with the thought that they can not meet all the needs of the family due to a shortage of time and energy, and also to be physically exhausted due to the lack of adequate rest or sleep; In addition, due to unequal division of household labor, working women may face inter-role conflict arising from the conflicting demands of multiple roles which women occupy. For example, working mothers frequently feel as if they were torn between competing demands of mother's role and worker's role because they can not meet all the demands at the same time under the circumstances that their husbands do not share household roles. Also, unequal division of household labor, which has been reinforced through socialization and stereotyping, has a detrimental impact on individuals in the dual-career family by creating an intra-role conflict. Intra-role conflict arises due to the gap between gendered division of domestic labor, which individuals have learned as an appropriate role behavior, and the

equitable division of labor which they should learn now to accommodate the dual-career situation.

These intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict may be the source of tremendous stress experienced by the dual-career couples because these role conflicts may magnify the difficulties that dual-career couples face in the process of restructuring family roles and life pattern. They also decrease marital satisfaction among the dual-career couples since the conflicting role expectations and role demands lead the couples to be dissatisfied with their marriage life. In dual-career situations, women who perform the disproportionate share of household labor are likely to perceive this unequal division of domestic labor as "unfair" due to overload and inter-role conflict, and become dissatisfied with their marital roles. Men also feel discomfort in the process of modifying their male roles to adapt into new family life due to intra-role conflict they experience within themselves.

The stress and marital dissatisfaction may cause marital conflict or discord between the spouses which may lead to multiple problems such as child and spouse abuse, domestic violence, or divorce which threaten the family stability. Unequal division of domestic labor has a damaging impact on marital relationships as well as individual's psychological well-being by causing role conflicts which may be the source of stress and marital dissatisfaction experienced by dual-career couples.

In addition to the detrimental impact on individuals and marital relationships, unequal division of domestic labor between the spouses brings about the serious consequences for women by reinforcing female disadvantages at work as well as at home. Women's work overload resulting from women's disproportionate share of household labor makes women less competitive at work, and limits their ability and opportunities for promotion (Okin, 1989). Therefore, women's disproportionate share of household labor results in superior male access to valued resources (Chafetz, 1991), and female

disadvantage because of segregation into low-paying dead-end jobs. Due to their less resource power, women lack the resources necessary to challenge male power at work (Chafetz, 1991), and become economically dependent on their husband at home. Under these circumstances, men can use their power to avoid the household labor which they do not wish to perform (Chafetz, 1991). Therefore, unequal division of domestic labor, which serves for weakening women's resource power, results in reproducing unequal division of domestic labor.

On the other hand, based on their greater resource power, deriving from the unequal division of domestic labor, men obtain the power to develop and impose upon women social definitions which support unequal division of domestic labor between the genders in order to keep male power and privileges (Chafetz, 1991). Therefore, the "definitional power," which refers to the ability of a person or group to impose values, norms, standards of judgment and situational definition on others, serves to limit women's ability and roles by defining women as the first and foremost parent and spouse whose family obligations take priority (Chafetz, 1991). With this "definitional power," male successfully prevent women from gaining more "resource power" through their paid work, and keep women in the inferior position by reproducing unequal division of domestic labor between the genders through socialization and stereotyping.

Married women's employment raised an unequal division of domestic labor, which refers to women's disproportionate share of household labor as a core problem. The unequal division of domestic labor practiced in contemporary dual-career families created difficulties confronting dual-career couples by causing role conflicts, stress and marital dissatisfaction, all of which are detrimental on dual-career couples' well-being. At the same time, the unequal division of domestic labor is an important issue in that it serves

as a mechanism for causing and reproducing gender inequality at work as well as at home.

For this reason, the unequal division of domestic labor practiced within the individual dual-career families is posited as a major problem to be resolved in order to ease the difficulties dual-career couples confront in balancing work and family roles to accommodate their dual-career family life. In addition to these short-term consequences, the unequal division of domestic labor, which causes and reproduces gender inequality at work as well as at home, is a very important social issue to be addressed in order to create more humane and equal gender relations in the long run.

To better understand the difficulties dual-career couples confront in the contemporary society, there is a growing need to investigate the causes and the consequences of the gendered division of household labor which is the core problem of the dual-career families. For this purpose, this study aims to develop a comprehensive theoretical model which examines the interrelationships among family power structure, division of household labor, intra- and inter-role conflict, marital satisfaction, and stress.

The utility of the theoretical model, which was developed in this study, was tested among the Korean dual-career couples. The disjunction between the change into new family life pattern to meet socio-economic demands, and the actual changes in role-sharing behavior and perceptions of family relations in every day family life is expected to be greater in Korea, which is a traditional society, than is in other industrialized countries. For this reason, Korean dual-career couples who might maintain the unequal division of domestic labor between the spouses are likely to experience severe role conflicts causing considerable stress and marital dissatisfaction. Married women's employment may bring about more serious and detrimental impacts on well-being of dual-career families in Korea, a developing country than those in developed countries. Up to date, the dual-

career family life in the developing countries of the third world are little known due to the paucity of theoretical developments and empirical studies. For this reason, this study attempts to examine how wives' employment affect on well-being and married life of Korean dual-career couples in order to identify the unique difficulties Korean dual-career couples confront in Korean cultural context. Therefore, data was collected from the middle-class dual-career couples living in Seoul, Korea in the spring of 1994.

2. Objectives

The primary objective of this study is to develop a theoretical model which explains the causal relationships among Family Power Structure, Division of Household Labor, Intra- and Inter-Role Conflict, Marital Satisfaction, and Stress in order to understand the causes and consequences of unequal division of household labor which has been practiced within dual-career families.

The second objective is to explore "gender-specific" model for male and female to identify the gender differential relationships among the variables of interest. The comparison of the male and female models may help to explain the differential experiences of husbands and wives in a dual-career situation in the Korean cultural context.

The third objective is to delineate all relevant dimensions of family power structure in order to better understand how these powers affect division of labor within dual-career families.

3. Research Questions

- A. To what extent is the gendered division of labor (asymmetric division of domestic labor) practiced within Korean dual-career families?
- B. How do four different bases of power affect division of household labor?
- C. Are there any gender differences in the causal relationships among the variables included in the theoretical model: power structure, division of household labor, intra-role conflict, inter-role conflict, marital satisfaction, and stress?

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

This chapter is divided into three sections. In the first section, the problem confronted by the dual-career couples in general were presented at first. Then, the development of the gendered-division of labor, which is the underlying problem within dual-career families, was reviewed in western society as well as in Korean cultural context. In the second section, the theories developed to explain the impact of wives' employment on couple's well-being and their marriage life, and theories concerning division of labor and power structure were reviewed. In the third section, the methods used in the previous studies to measure the variables of interest were presented.

1. Topic or Problem Area

A. Problems of Dual-Career Families

Women's increasing involvement in the labor market has profoundly affected family life because married women's employment has brought about the changes not only in family structure, but also in family relationships and roles in every day family life. To examine how wives' employment has changed family life, and therefore affecting well-being of individuals in dual-career families, the uniqueness of the dual-career family life needs to be explored first.

a. The Characteristics of Dual-Career Family Life

As women's access to education and to world of work has increased, Rapoport and Rapoport (1972) expect a new family life style to emerge in the post-industrial society

and they coined the term "dual-career family" to describe this new family life style which differs in structure and in value from the traditional one. Compared with the traditional family which was based on gender role differentiation, the dual-career family is unique in that it assumes that the husband and wife both engage in occupation and family work, and share home and paid work in a relatively egalitarian manner (Gilbert, 1985). However, the assumptions of compatibility of occupation and family life for both genders and egalitarian role sharing between husband and wife have resulted in creating tremendous stress within dual-career families because they require total reorganization of family relationships, and reallocation of household responsibilities with new definitions of social roles and personal identities (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969).

Therefore, another significant feature of the dual-career life style is the considerable stresses and strains experienced by dual-career families (Skinner, 1980). These dual-career stress and strains are seen as "inherent" in dual-career family life because basic assumptions of the dual-career family are at odds with the current institutional structure as well as outdated traditional set of family norms (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1972; Gilbert, 1985). Pointing out that dual-career couples are vulnerable to a high degree of stress due to their family lifestyle, Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) identified 5 sources of strains in dual-career family life: 1) "overload dilemma" arises because dual roles of both spouses results in taxing energy and physical exhaustion of both spouses through their role overload; 2) "dilemma of identity" arises within an individual as a result of discontinuity between early gender-role socialization and current wishes or practices; 3) "role cycling dilemma" arises when both employment and family has transitional points at which there is a restructuring of roles which becomes sources of stress; 4) "social network dilemma" arises when the dual-career couples reconcile obligation with desire and responsibility in maintaining relationships outside the marriage life; and 5) "normative

dilemma" arises from the discrepancy between personal norm, which they felt as "right" and "proper" behavior for themselves, and social norm, which they felt people around them hold because dual-career couples experience tension and guilt when they are not conforming to socially approved roles. (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1972, 1976; Skinner, 1980).

Analysis of the sources of the strain characteristic of dual-career family pattern detailed by Rapoport and Rapoport seems to be useful for identifying the problems that dual-career couples confront: "role overload" and "identity conflict" and "normative dilemma" are seen as the major sources of difficulties dual-career couples confront because they directly cause the problems within dual-career family by increasing stress and marital dissatisfaction among the couples. For this reason, the interrelations among these sources of stress as well as their impacts on well-being of individuals in dual-career families needs to be examined.

b. Role Overload

By adding worker's role onto the housewife's role, women are overwhelmed with double workload. This work overload increases life stress for women because the increase in total working hours inevitably reduces time for rest and sleep. This reduction inevitably brings about negative consequences such as physical exhaustion and life dissatisfaction on the part of working women (Pleck, 1981). The extent of work overload the working women experience was revealed by empirical studies. In the 1960's, married women's family work hours were 35 hours, while men's were 11.5 hours per week; total work hours of nonworking women were 56 hours, while employed wife's was 71 hours and employed mother's were 80 hours per week (Vanek, 1983). Another study which examined the changes in family work hours from 1965 to 1975 found that total

hours spent by husbands for families were slightly increased (0.1 hour per day) (Robinson, 1977).

This data shows that despite the fact that women increasingly share the provider role through their employment, their husbands still spend less time in family work to share the household labor. Furthermore, husbands' housework clusters in only a few tasks such as yardwork and home repair. (Vanek, 1983). Sex-typing of housework is so deeply ingrained that the basic household tasks are not redivided even when the wife works (Vanek, 1983). These empirical findings indicate that women are overloaded due to increasing total work hours as well as multiple roles. Work overload of working wives has serious negative consequences for women because it directly affects them by making them to be vulnerable to physical stress and life dissatisfaction. In order to reduce work overload for which women pay high cost, married women's employment calls for reallocation of family roles within the household.

c. Role Overload and Division of Household Labor

As a way of reducing work overload of working wives, role sharing is required within the dual-career family (Cited in Voydanoff, 1988; Pleck, 1981). Role sharing implies a more symmetrical division of work and family responsibility between the husband and wife (Voydanoff, 1988) rather than traditional division of labor within "separate but equal" spheres.

As more women increasingly enter the world of work, men's entry to housework is expected for the fair share of labor within the household. However, empirical studies report that most husbands of the employed wives do not increase their share of housework very much (Robinson, 1977; Coverman, 1986). Time budget studies during the 1960's and 1970's described how much less housework husbands do in terms of absolute magnitude. Walker and Woods(1976) found that housewife do 8.1 hours

housework per day, and employed wives do 4.8 hours, whereas both husbands of employed and nonemployed wives do 1.6 hours per day (Cited in Pleck, 1979). Walker and Woods (1976) also found that the total amount of work performed by employed wives (10.1 hours per day) was considerably greater than that performed by husbands of employed wives (7.9 hours). More recent research also reveal the similar results: working wives spent 7.1 hours per day for household chores, while husbands of employed wives spent only 3.2 hours, which is about 5 minutes more than that husbands of unemployed wives spent on household chores (Berk, 1985). These empirical findings indicates that employed wives are experiencing substantial "overload" in combining work and family roles due to "asymmetric division of labor" within the household (Walker and Woods, 1976). Some researchers (Pleck et al., 1980) found some increase in men's household task (0.2 hours per day) and child care (0.4 hours per day). However, the amount of average increase in men's family work is still small, and women are still primarily responsible for most housework (Pleck, 1981). All these empirical findings indicates that tasks are not reallocated in significant way within the dual-career household (Vanek, 1983).

Pointing out this "asymmetry in the division of household labor" as the essence of contemporary work and family problems, Pleck (1979,1981) argued the social implication of this asymmetric division of labor at home. Pleck (1981) viewed that this asymmetric division of domestic labor not only causes tremendous stress on the part of women via work overload, but also provides men with an opportunity for a more insidious kind of exploitation of women's labor. Hartman(1981) also viewed that husbands' small, selective, unresponsive contribution to housework indicates the fact that men benefit directly from women's labor power.

In addition to physical exhaustion and exploitation of women's labor at home, unequal division of domestic labor has a long-term economic and social impact on women

by generating a great deal of difficulties at the workplace. The asymmetric division of domestic labor, that is, women's disproportionate share of household labor, depressed women into a "locked in" a cycle of intermittent employment or low-paying job with few perspective for advancement (Pleck, 1981): performing more housework indirectly limit women's ability and opportunities for promotion at work place by making working women who are overloaded less competitive in the labor market (Okin, 1989); on the other hand, women choose to enter these low-paying occupation because they attempt to maximize job benefits other than earnings as a result of familial constraint (Hudis, 1970). In a word, "asymmetric division of household labor" indirectly serves to increase female disadvantages at work market by providing the rationale for sex discrimination, dual labor market and occupational segregation by sex.

At the same time, female disadvantages at work, which resulted from discrimination and the dual labor system, in turn, reinforce the very unequal division of labor by making women economically inferior due to the wage gap between the sexes, or by making women who experience frustration and lack of control at work to commit themselves more to domesticity and childrearing (Okin, 1989). As Abramovitz (1988) pointed out, unequal division of domestic labor is closely related with gender division of labor in the work market: the need for women's labor in the home reinforced the exploitation in the market, while their exploitation in the market helped to maintain their subordination in the home. Therefore, Chafetz (1991) posed that gendered division of labor within the marriage functions as a "mechanism" which maintains and reproduces "gender inequality" at home as well as at work.

d. Division of Household Labor and Role Conflict

In addition to negative consequences for individual working women, unequal division of labor also has damaging effects in their marital relationship by creating and

aggravating role conflict in the process of reallocation of household tasks. In dual-career families, the increasing need for more equitable division of domestic labor calls for reallocation of family roles within the household. In the process of reallocating family roles and responsibilities, dual-career families are likely to experience role conflicts. The role conflict experienced by men and women in dual-career family are divided into 2 dimensions: 1) "intra-role conflict" due to conflicting perceptions on roles, deriving from the discontinuity between the early gender role socialization and more androgynous roles expected in dual-career situation; and 2) "inter-role conflict" arising between two competing demands of work and family roles.

In the process of reallocating family roles, working wives and their husbands are likely to experience "intra-role conflict" because role changes expected for the fair share of domestic labor puts the pressure on them to abandon the long-standing traditional gender roles and to resocialize themselves to more egalitarian roles. For instance, husbands of working wives become strained or feel uncomfortable with wives' working because they are asked to modify their family roles in order to share some domestic responsibilities and child care which wives have taken sole responsibilities for before their employment. Both men and women in dual-career families experience self-identity confusion because they find the gap between the way they have learned through early socialization and the way they must learn now in the process of modifying their traditional roles in order to adjust to dual-career situation (Kosinar, 1981). Individuals in the dual-career families are likely to experience intra-role conflict, when the internalized "shoulds" through early sex role socialization conflicts with the more androgynous roles they should assume to accommodate the dual-career family life (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976; cited in Gilbert, 1985).

However, it is speculated that men in dual-career families are more likely to experience severe "intra-role conflict," and to resist to gender role changes than women. The fact that men have benefitted as superordinant both in society and in family under the socio-economic structure supporting patriarchy suggests that men would resist gender role changes toward more egalitarian in nature (Gilbert, 1985). The empirical evidence that men are participating in family work at minimum indicates that men are resistant to gender role change for a more equitable share of labor. Men in dual-career family resist equal role sharing not only because they do not want to give up their privileged position in the family, but because they perceive the work at home as demeaning and as a feminine role (Lein, 1979). Since most men's sense of self and desired life goals are based on traditional values that associated with masculinity and the provider role, men have more difficulty relinquishing the traditional male role which is the center of men's sense of well-being and self-esteem, when women's increasing power and egalitarian roles ask for sharing of roles and power (Gilbert, 1985). Therefore, men are assumed to experience more severe "intra-role conflict" than women.

Under the assumption that men's "intra-role conflict" is reflected in men's resistance to gender role change and lack of responsiveness to the need for role sharing, it is also hypothesized that women in dual-career families are likely to experience more severe inter-role conflict between two competing demands of work and family roles due to unequal division of labor. Women in dual-career families also experience self-identity conflict. However, dual-career women may experience inter-role conflicts more severely than intra-role conflict because inter-role conflict women experience due to two competing demands and role overload may directly affect their physical and psychological well-being.

Men who resist to gender role change in order to maintain their masculine identity are likely to experience severe intra-role conflict, while women who should assume dual roles due to men's resistance and unresponsiveness to role sharing are likely to experience more severe inter role conflict. These two role conflicts and the complex interaction between them are likely to increase marital dissatisfaction and psychological stress between husband and wife.

As a result of the analysis of problems inherent in dual-career families, division of household labor, and accompanying role conflict which dual-career couples experience in the process of reallocating family responsibilities and tasks, are identified as major problems which bring about serious negative consequences for individuals as well as for dual-career marriage. In order to understand why the unequal division of household labor has been maintained within the contemporary dual-career families regardless of changes in women's socio-economic roles in the larger society, there is a need to know how the gendered division of labor, the underlying problem, has been socially constructed in a specific cultural context during the long period of time.

B. Gendered Division of Labor as the Underlying Problem

The development of gendered division of labor and its changes in the western society in general was reviewed first. Then, a brief historical overview of changes in gendered division of labor in Korean culture and its influence over contemporary Korean family life was presented.

a. Gendered Division of Labor in the Western Society

The gendered division of labor, which assign paid labor at the workplace to men, and unpaid domestic labor to women, emerged in the process of industrialization in the Western society (Zaretsky, 1976). In preindustrial society, family served as the locus of

both production and consumption, and it enabled women to be the major participants in the productive process (McLaughlin et al., 1988).

However, the rise of the factory system in the process of industrialization facilitated the separation of the workplace from the home (Zaretsky, 1976). Therefore, productive role shifted to outside the family and was assumed by the males, while the females who stayed in the home were excluded from the production, and the family became the unit of consumption (McLaughlin et al., 1988). Society outside the home was viewed as a system of social production, whereas family was seen as a "sanctuary" protected from the harsh outside world of industry (Zaretsky, 1976). With the emphasis on the home as a domestic retreat in which the laborers could take rest for next day's production, the labor for production and labor for domestic reproduction was divided by gender for the effective reproduction of labor (Zaretsky, 1976). Due to the demands of the capitalist economy, a gendered division of labor between production and reproduction was constructed.

This gendered division of labor, which assigns the private sphere of domestic reproduction to women, while the more power-laden public sphere of market to men (Abramovitz, 1988), had been supported and justified by the ideology of "separate but equal" spheres which segregate male and female into two separate spheres--production and reproduction--based on the traditional gender role differentiation. Based on the gendered division of labor system, supported by the ideology of separate spheres, the "traditional nuclear family" in which the husband is a provider, and the wife is a homemaker had emerged in the early 19th century in the middle class. A clear division of labor gave rise to changes in power structure within the marriage: husbands who retained the economic role through their occupation acquired the status and power as a provider,

while wives who lost economic role had diminished power and status in their marriage relationships (Davis, K., 1984; Bernard, J., 1983; Ridley, 1972).

Gendered division of labor which resulted in differential power distribution between the husband and wife had been justified by a variety of ideologies. Glorification of "romantic love" which emphasizes the woman as a "devoted" and "loved" wife, and "cult of motherhood" which emphasizes mother's role as specialist in childrearing and socialization, all together successfully justify women's exclusion from the production (Laslett & Brenner, 1989) and the confinement of women to the reproduction sphere, reinforcing women's economic dependency on men.

In a word, gendered division of labor has been socially constructed in the process of industrialization and capitalization and has been reinforced by the ideologies supporting these socio-economic systems. Development of the gendered division of labor reflects the changes in the relationship between production and reproduction which resulted from the socio-economic changes taking place in the early development of industrialized capitalism (Laslett & Brenner, 1989). However, the recent changes in socio-economic conditions and ideological trends have altered again the relationships of males and females in the production and reproduction in the broad society by permitting women to resume their economic roles in the society (Ridley, 1972).

Demographic development such as decline in fertility, delayed marriage or childbearing, as well as technological innovation of service and household industry reduced women's childbearing, and household responsibilities (McLaughlin et al., 1988). At the same time, increasing educational attainment of women and the rise of egalitarian ideology enable women to have more access to the world of work. In addition, the shift of the society from a manufacturing to a service industry (Ross et al., 1983), and the rise of mass consumption propelled married women's labor force participation. In

contemporary society in which all these changes in ideological trends, socio-economic conditions increased the demand as well as the supply of female labor force, many married women have chose employment as the alternative to their traditional roles (Burke & Weir, 1976).

As more and more women enter the world of work for production, the relationship between two worlds--- the world of "work" and that of "family"---has been altered (Bernard, 1983), eroding the long-standing ideology of "separate but equal" spheres. Wives' resumed economic role calls for changes in gendered-division of labor in the direction to increasing husband's share in housework. As more women increasingly enter the world of work, men's entry to housework is expected for the fair share of labor within the dual-career households (Abramovitz, 1988). However, the expected equal division of labor between the spouses is rarely performed within the dual-career families.

The traditional values and ideologies endorsing role segregation between the genders are so deeply embedded in the mindset of the people that they still exert their power over men and women through cultural definitions of femininity and masculinity and control their perceptions and behaviors. Because the very nature of males and females become embedded in the sexual division of labor by defining one's gender by one's work, this sexual "territoriality" has complicated effects on the efforts to change any sexual division of labor (Bernard, J., 1983). For this reason, even when wives contribute considerable amount of family incomes, and therefore, the reallocation of household labor is open for negotiation between spouses, wives are ambivalent over changing their traditional roles, while husbands often resist adopting household chores, and express discomfort at being asked or compelled to do what was traditionally viewed as "women's work" (Googins & Burden, 1987). As a result, gendered division of labor is likely to be maintained within the individual household.

In summary, increased wives' employment have a significant implications and consequences for the contemporary family life because it has brought about changes in family structure, and in the expectations on family roles. However, these changes, which already had changed the relationship between two worlds, are far from completion due to cultural lag which represents the discrepancy between socio-economic demands for wives' employment and resistance to change into more egalitarian gender norms and ideologies. The extent of resistance to gender role change which represents the cultural lag will vary with the changes in socio-economic structures and ideologies within a particular society.

b. Gendered Division of Labor in the Korean Cultural Context

In order to understand how married women's employment affects the family life in Korean society, the development of gendered division of labor in Korean cultural context was briefly overviewed, and gendered division of labor practiced within the contemporary Korean families were reviewed. Then, the implications of gendered division of labor for contemporary Korean dual-career families were reviewed.

b.1 A Historical Overview of Gendered Division of Labor in Korea

Until the early twentieth century, Korea had been an agricultural patriarchal society which was characterized by strict gendered-division of labor. Men participated in the production of the land as well as the government or clan activities in the public arena, whereas women were confined to the domestic arena, in which women, in fact, took part in production as well as reproduction (Cho, Ok-Na, 1988). In this patriarchal society where men had centralized the political and economic power of the society, the mechanism which control women socio-economically as well as psychologically developed. Despite the fact that women worked so hard at the field as well as at home to serve the husband and his family, women's work in everyday life was not considered as "labor" but as a "duty" that an industrious wife ought to do. Women's labor in the

domestic arena was devalued for economic control. On the other hand, women as "second citizens" did not have equal rights under traditional society: women's formal education, work in public arena, and inheritance to women were forbidden by the legal system and customs.

Additionally, in order to maintain the patriarchal control for women, a variety of ideologies were used to control women's behaviors and perceptions. Since Korea adopted Confucianism as a formal morality in the fifteenth century (Kim, Ja-Won, 1992), Confucian doctrines have been the basic principles of traditional Korean society by which the basic human relationships had been defined for a harmonious society. Based on Confucianism, which emphasized the hierarchical relationship between husband and wife, the differential sex roles between men and women were emphasized. In contrast to the Western society in which the ideology of the "separate spheres" between men and women developed by industrialization or capitalism, in Korea, the same ideology developed by the influence of Confucianism, which regulate different status and roles between the genders. The uniqueness of this ideology of "separate spheres" in Korean culture is that it explicitly defined "differential" power relationship between the genders, whereas the ideology of "separate but equal spheres" in western culture ostensibly suggests the equal relations between two spheres.

The ideology of "separate spheres" in Korean culture served to reinforce the differential sex roles by separating boys and girls, from the age of seven, into separate house-spaces (outside room for boys, and inside for women), and socializing them in different ways. In order to prepare boys to serve for the public and the government, a formal education was provided. In contrast, girls were taught practical instructions for home management, childrearing and family ethics designed to teach women's proper place within the family. The ideology of the "separate spheres" facilitated the

development of the other ideology which legitimizes male supremacy. These ideologies served to control women psychologically making them feel "inferior" to men by imposing them to accept "different and one down position".

In the traditional Korean society, women were totally excluded from the public arena, being deprived of access to formal education and social production in the outside world. Women had no economic power nor political power because the legal system, social norms, and ideologies successfully control women in order to maintain and reproduce patriarchy. Women's body, behavior, and conceptions were regulated by social definitions determined by socio-economic-ideological factors of the society.

Moreover, women's powerlessness, which had been socially constructed by socio-economic-ideological factors in the outside world affected women's position within the family. Since the wife was not considered to contribute to family at all except for producing sons to perpetuate the husband's family line, she had no power within the family and was excluded from the decision-making process in all important family affairs. Instead, Korean women were forced to obey to male head's decisions through their lives: women should follow father's decisions when young; husband's decision after marriage; and son's decisions when old (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1988).

Under these circumstances, women had no alternative but adjusting to the "given place" and "their proper roles" defined by the society. Because they had no power in the formal, public arena, women in traditional Korean society attempted to secure their positions and identities in the informal, domestic arena by voluntarily internalizing the ideology which regulated their behaviors, and by actively accomplishing their roles and tasks imposed by the society (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1988). Therefore, women put the priority on son-production because they could create "uterine family" based on son-mother relationship (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1988), and because they could accomplish what they

wanted through their sons (surrogate satisfaction). Also, women tried to do their best in serving for the husband and his family through their hard work in order to get recognition from the significant others as a "good wife-mother-daughter-in-law" (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1988). As a result of women's efforts to survive in a society "unfavorable" to them, women could obtain not only "personal" power by making themselves needed and valued in the relationship with sons, based on strong emotional attachment and loyalty, but also "positional" power as a manager of the household by performing important family roles.

However, these coping mechanism of the women for survival brought about the negative consequences for women because they reinforced the prevailing ideologies designed to weaken women's definitional and resource power. "Strong preference to son" on the part of mothers strengthened the "ideology of men-superior, noble, and high". Women's hard work for housekeeping, childrearing, and serving for husband's family made women more confined within the domestic arena, reinforcing the ideology of "separate spheres" and legitimizing the differential positions between men and women. As its consequences, they had contributed to perpetuating women's subordination to men, and gendered division of labor within the household.

In traditional Korean society, only a few women worked outside the home who were compelled to work for low occupations due to their low birth. Most of them were despised because of lowliness of their occupations and their low birth. They were a deviant group of women who had "socially undesirable" occupations such as official dancer, official courtesan, court-maid, witch-doctor, or sorceress (Chun, Ok-Kyung, 1978). Although they existed for society's necessity, especially for men's necessity, women in these occupations were despised. These women were viewed as "ill-fated" women who could not have an ordinary "happy marriage life." Therefore, working outside the home was seen as "undesirable" or even "deviant" behavior only suitable for

these unfortunate women. This negative attitude toward married women's work outside the home was created and reinforced by unique characteristics of traditional Korean cultural context, and continues to exert its power over reshaping socio-economic-ideological factors which would affect the contemporary family life and work.

After its independence in 1945, Korea has been in the transition to early stage of capitalist society. In the process of industrialization and capitalization, Korean society went through the same process of separation of production from the household like the other capitalist societies. However, gendered division of labor, which had been constructed as result of industrialization in the other capitalist countries, was not new to Korean society because the strict gendered division of labor system had already existed in the traditional patriarchal Korean society.

However, "modern patriarchy," developed under the contemporary capitalist economic system, reinforced this already existing gendered division of labor by excluding women from production and thus making them more dependent on their husbands. This "modern patriarchy" is different from the traditional one in that it adopts an egalitarian ideology which assures equal rights, opportunity, and responsibilities between the spouses; but it is similar to the old one in that it also justifies the differential power relationship between husband and wife as well as emphasizes psychological sex differences and sex roles (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1988). Under this "modern patriarchy," the ideology of "a wife loved by successful husband" was developed (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1988) because wives who had no economic power became more dependent on their husbands economically and socially. This unequal husband-wife relationship was mystified in the name of "romantic" love. In order to get more love from husband as a "loved wife," wives became devoted themselves to serve their husbands, who have economic and social superiority over them in addition to trying to be more attractive as women (Cho,

Hye-Jeong, 1988). The "modern patriarchy" combined with the "traditional patriarchy" successfully reinforce the gendered division of labor which had always existed within Korean families through history.

b.2 Gendered Division of Labor Practiced within Contemporary Korean Families

The traditional norms and ideologies supporting the gendered division of labor continue to affect contemporary Korean families. Korean women in the contemporary capitalist society share the common experiences as a "second sex" due to lesser socio-economic power. However, the everyday family life experience and life outcomes may be different according to the social class and employment status. In that the gendered division of labor might be modified differentially within each group of families according to the extent of changes in women's economic power and other resources they have, there is a need to examine the variations in the gendered division of labor at home by class and employment status within the contemporary Korean families.

a) Unemployed housewives in white collar families

Because the housewives in white collar families do not participate in work force, they are dependent on the husband's economic resources and social status, and, therefore, they strive to secure their identities and position within the family. They strive to increase personal power which they can have by making themselves needed and loved in their personal relationships with children and the husband. As mother and wife, the wife get all of children's and husband's love by meeting all their emotional need. Women also try to enhance their positional power, which they acquire by making themselves needed and valued in their given positions. As a wise wife, women make their husbands dependent on them in everyday life by assuming the instrumental roles as a housemanager (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1992).

Furthermore, under the capitalist system, Korean fathers have become more isolated from family life due to the demand of Korean labor market which asks men to put their first priority to work in order to survive in the competitive labor market (Kim, Oh & Shin, 1992). These socio-economic situations provides rationale for the unemployed wives to strengthen their personal and positional power. At the same time, in Korean society where "status reproduction" is seen as an important task for wives, women's role as mother was strengthened in order to take responsibilities for children's education for social mobility or status reproduction (Kim, Oh & Shin, 1992).

All these socio-economic factors of contemporary Korean society reinforce gendered division of labor within the household: women assume the roles such as a loved and wise wife, strong mother and "education mom", whereas men assume the role as a "money-making machine", and children as a "study-worm" (Kim, Oh & Shin, 1992). Unemployed housewives in white collar families have no resource power but strong personal and positional power because they work so hard for reproduction of husband's labor as well as reproduction of status through children's successful education.

b) Working Wives in the Middle-Professional Class

In the middle-class professional families, women work not just because of economic necessity. As an individual, these working wives think of their work as having great meaning for themselves. But as a mother and wife, they put their first priority onto the family especially when work and family life conflict each other (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1992). Even though they have less resource power than their husbands due to discrimination in the labor market, working wives in the middle class families have the potential to balance out the power structure within the family by using their resource power to reduce the influence of husbands' definitional power. However, the resource power these women obtain through their employment is not strong enough to nibble away

the male definitional power in Korean society in which the strong patriarchal ideologies and traditional gender norms are prevailing.

The "separate spheres" between men for production and women for reproduction was blurred with the increase in married women's employment, while the "separate spheres" at home is strictly kept by gendered-division of domestic labor. Working wives still do the disproportionate share of household labor, despite their sharing of provider role. Under these circumstances, "the family first" principle (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1992) is emphasized for employed wives in order to make sure that women's employment should not bring negative impact on family life. For this reason, employed wives in middle-class families strive to be a "superwoman" who can carry out dual roles successfully in both areas by being a "good mother and wife" just same as the unemployed housewife does at home as well as by being a good worker at workplace just same as the male counterpart.

Therefore, even in contemporary society where more opportunities for education and employment are allowed to women, women in the middle-class are less likely to exert their resource power obtained through their employment outside the home in order to change the power structure because male definitional power is more powerful than women's resource power within the household. Therefore, they struggle to balance the power structure by maintaining their personal and positional power just same as housewives, in addition to increasing their resource power through their work.

c) Working Wives in the Working-Class

In low-income families, most wives work due to economic necessity of the family. Since most husbands in low-income dual-earning families are likely to think that their wives work due to their inability to support the family sufficiently, these husbands tend to be more traditional in their sex-role attitudes (Kim & Kim, 1990; Rubin, 1976). As wives' economic power increases, husbands definitional power increases in order to keep

their face as the head of the family and as a primary breadwinner. This interaction between husband's definitional power and wives' economic power reinforces gendered division of labor within working-class households.

d) Working Wives in the Self-employed Small Business Families

Unlike housewives in white collar families who work for unpaid housework, or working wives who work for paid work and for unpaid housework at the same time, working wives in small family business are unpaid for their work for family business as well as housework. Even though they work hard for family business, they have little resource power because all incomes from their family business belongs to their husbands without separate share for themselves (Park, Min-Ja, 1990). They also have less personal and positional power at home because they follow "work first" principle while working in the space where workplace and home is not distinctly separated. Therefore, they can not take care of children and household tasks like unemployed housewives who fully involved in housework or middle-class professional women who might employ others for their housework.

b.3 Implications of Gendered Division of Labor for Contemporary Korean Dual-Career Families

As seen in the above historical overview, gendered division of household labor within the Korean families has changed little regardless of the historical or situational changes of each period. Industrialization, modernization, increasing attainment of higher education of women, and sharp increase in female labor force had little impact on gender relations and power structure within Korean families regardless of classes, even though these changes have brought about changes in family structure into nuclear families or dual-career families. The reason the division of household labor has been little changed in spite of the rapid social changes occurring in contemporary society is seen because the

cultural lag existing in contemporary Korean society creates severe value conflicts. The value conflict hinders the process of changing gendered division of labor toward more equal role-sharing.

Korean society experienced the transition to the industrialized capitalist society in a short period of time such as three or four decades, whereas the transition was a gradual one in western countries, taking place during more than two hundred years. Due to this rapid change in socio-economic institutions during the short period of time, contemporary Korean society contains all kinds of characteristics of the societies, such as agricultural, pre-industrial, and industrialized society which Korea had experienced through its history (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1992). Therefore, Korean people are exposed to extreme value conflict because many contradicting value systems coexist in Korean society at present such as collectivism vs. individualism, family-centered vs. couple-centered, extended family vs. nuclear family, traditional sex role attitude vs. egalitarianism, spiritualism vs. materialism, temperance vs. freedom and conservatism vs. liberalism, etc.

The coexistence of contradicting values brings about the value conflict because it creates double standard for roles and behaviors expected within contemporary Korean society. The double standard has been generated because Korean men and women modify their traditional gender roles selectively, and at differential rate in transition to modern capitalist society. Although women resume their economic roles through their gainful employment outside the home, their family roles are kept based on the traditional gender role differentiation. Therefore, different principles are applied to husbands and wives such as "work first" for men, and "family first" for women. These double standard reflect the reality that gendered division of labor is maintained due to the resistance to family role changes for equal role-sharing.

Whereas the changes are taking place very rapidly in the area directly related to changes in economic structure (i.e. sharp increase in married women's employment), the changes in human relationships and family roles which require agreement or negotiation among people for values and cultural expectations are very slow in Korean society (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1992). Therefore, the differential rate of changes in values and gender norms, and of modification of family roles create the value conflict which leads to role conflict among Korean dual-career couples. In order to comply to the "family first" principle within domestic area, professional women are likely to hold the double standards within themselves by applying modern values for her work and occupational life, while adhering to the traditional value system for family and marriage life (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1992). These double standards may lead to role conflict within these women. On the other hand, double-bound expectations for men as a strong, dependable breadwinner but a symbolic head who is absent from family life, and for women as a loved wife depending on husband as well as a strong mother give rise to severe identity conflict within an individual. Double-standardized value system or double-bound role expectation reflect the cultural lag existing within contemporary Korean society, indicating that gendered division of labor persists or it has been partially modified. As far as gendered division of labor persists, or has been modified selectively, the difficulties confronting the dual-career couples will be accelerated during this period of transition because the persisting or partially modified gendered division of labor contribute to increasing role conflict, which leads to tremendous stress and marital dissatisfaction on the part of the couples.

Under the social climate where married women's employment is discouraged in principle as well as in practice due to negative attitude toward wives' working, deriving

from the ideology supporting gendered division of labor, there is little consideration of social support which can reduce the difficulties of working wives. Due to the cultural negative attitudes toward married women's working outside the home, social policies which aim to provide more benefits for dual-career couples to meet their special needs were underdeveloped in current Korean society. There are few day care centers for children or elderly parents which could allow married women to pursue their careers. Social welfare programs which are designed to provide adequate social services to meet special needs of dual-career families do not exist at present. For these reasons, working wives face a great deal of difficulties in Korean cultural context.

Due to the conflicting values coexisting in current Korean society as well as underdevelopment of social policies and programs for dual-career families, the difficulties experienced by dual-career couples seem to be maximized within Korean dual-career families. Especially "gendered division of labor" practiced within the Korean dual-career families makes the transition to a co-provider system difficult. Therefore, the discrepancy between the growing need for equal-role sharing within the dual-career families and the slow-paced changes in role-sharing behavior in reality may jeopardize the well-being of individuals in Korean dual-career families and their marriage life by increasing role conflicts as well as stress and marital dissatisfaction among them. For this reason, Korean dual-career families may receive a great attention as a special population who needs special concern and more adequate help in order to alleviate the difficulties they face due to wives' employment outside the home.

2. Theory Area

Theories were reviewed in three directions. First, the theories explaining how wives' employment affects dual-career couples' psychological well-being and their married life were reviewed. Next, the theories explaining how the household labor has been divided between the genders, and what determines the division of household labor were reviewed. At the end, the dimensions of power which comprise the family power structure were explored.

A. The Impact of Wives' Employment on Psychological Well-Being and Marriage Life

With the growing social concern about difficulties dual-career couples face in balancing work and family roles, the impact of wives' employment on women themselves and their families has been the focus of many studies. Most previous research on dual-career families have focused on life outcome variables such as stress, psychological well-being, and marital satisfaction, regarding women's employment as an independent variable.

a. Wives' Multiple Role Involvement and Stress

Many previous studies examining the impact of wives' employment on the psychological well-being of women themselves have focused on the relationship of involvement in multiple roles to stress level of working women. They assumed that wives' employment results in multiple role involvement of women, which may affect the psychological well-being of working women.

Goode (1960) proposed in the "scarcity hypothesis" that human energy is a fixed and limited quantity, and that a great number of roles create a likelihood of stress, overload, and conflict which generate the negative consequences for well-being because

any social role draws on this energy pool (cited in Baruch, Biener & Barnett, 1987). Therefore, it is assumed that the more roles are accumulated, the greater probability of exhausting one's supply of time and energy. Consequently, the multiple roles women involved would lead to role strains or stress (Barnett & Baruch, 1985).

On the other hand, Marks (1977), Sieber (1974), and Gove (1972) supported the "enhancement hypothesis" based on the assumption that energy is unlimited, not fixed. It proposes that multiple role involvement can expand rather than constrict an individual's resources, rewards, energy, commitment, and sense of ego gratification, resulting in enhanced physical and psychological well-being on the basis of assumption that possession or acquisition of role-identities enhance psychological well-being (Thoits, 1983;1986). According to this hypothesis, the more roles an individual has, the more potential sources of self-esteem, stimulation, privilege, social status and social identities one gets (Baruch et al., 1987). Thoits (1986) viewed that the benefits of multiple role occupancy may far outweigh tensions due to overload and conflicts. Thus, this theory proposes that multiple roles are positively associated with women's psychological well-being.

The empirical research examining the relationship between women's multiple-roles and psychological well-being produced contrasting findings. Burke and Weir (1976) found that there is little evidence of the adverse effect of women's employment; In contrast, Feld (1963) and White (1972) found an adverse impact of wives' employment on the psychological well-being of women (cited in Burke & Weir, 1976).

These inconsistent empirical findings reveal that neither the scarcity hypothesis nor the enhancement hypothesis does not provide an adequate explanation for understanding the relationship between women's multiple role involvement and well-being because each focuses merely on the quantity of multiple roles women hold. Baruch, Biener, and Barnett (1987) suggested that the nature and quality of women's roles rather than the occupancy

are crucial to understand the effects of multiple roles on women's psychological well-being. In their empirical research examining the impacts of role occupancy and role quality on stress, Baruch and Barnett (1986) found that role occupancy was unrelated to psychological well-being, whereas role quality variables were stronger predictors of stress outcome among the working wives. After comparing reward and cost aspects for each role woman occupies as a paid worker, a mother and a wife, Baruch and Barnett (1986) concluded that to the degree that a particular role yields a net gain of benefit over costs, involvement in that role will have a positive impact on well-being, even if such involvement also increase the number of roles women occupy.

Since employment provides different sources of strain or reward for each role, the role experiences may be different. Baruch and Barnett (1986) delineated the differential impacts of each role on women's well being. The different roles assumed by a same person may affect each other. Frequently, working wives are reported to be confident of their interest and attractiveness as a "person," but to feel less secure and successful in playing the "wife-mother" role, with the feeling of inadequacy and anxiety (Hacker, 1971; cited in Rallings & Nye, 1979). As a person, women may have enhanced self-esteem and psychological well-being, despite the physical fatigue and stress deriving from overload because these negative effects may be mitigated by increasing self confidence and self-esteem of women; however, as a mother and wife, women may experience stress, physical strain, as well as anxiety and guilt due to overload or feeling of inadequacy of their role performance (Rallings and Nye, 1979), while struggling to do both roles. In order to understand the impact of multiple role involvement on well-being, Parry (1987) suggests that role strains due to work demands in child care and paid employment should not be investigated separately. Without knowing the interaction among the qualities of roles a person occupies simultaneously, it is difficult to understand the impact of multiple

role involvement on well-being. For this reason, the interaction among the multiple roles women occupy and the impact of these interaction on psychological well-being need to be explored.

On the other hand, sex differences in the interaction among the multiple roles for men and women were found. By having primary responsibility for childrearing and housekeeping, women's experience of multiple role involvement is expected to be different from those of men. Due to the different nature of role demands tied with women as mother and wife, and the differential degree of compatibility of work and family roles (Gore and Mangione, 1983), women's involvement in multiple roles is viewed to have adverse impact on psychological well-being of women. Many empirical studies documented sex differences in psychological well-being: working wives experience higher stress and depression (Radloff, 1975; Gove, 1972; Cleary & Mechanic, 1983; Aneschensel et al., 1981). Gove (1972) and Aneschensel et al. (1981) explain that sex differences in distress are a function of gender-specific expectations that are inherent in particular social roles, and that determine compatibility and stressfulness of multiple roles (Gore & Mangione, 1983). Some results of empirical studies provided support for the sex-role perspective over social-role since the interactions among marriage, parenting and paid employment have different impacts on psychological well-being of each sex (Gove, 1972; Gore & Mangione, 1983). In order to better understand the impacts of multiple role involvement on well-being, the role conflict experienced differently by men and women who have the same sets of multiple roles needs to be examined in relation to psychological well-being.

b. Role Conflict and Stress

In the process of reorganizing family roles and reallocating household responsibilities, working wives and their husbands are likely to experience role conflict

because family role changes, which are expected for fair share of labor, put the pressures on them to resocialize themselves to new roles and lifestyles. Therefore, both men and women in dual-career families experience intra-role conflict due to conflicting role expectations deriving from the inconsistency between the internalized "shoulds" through early sex role socialization and the more androgynous roles they are expected to perform now to accommodate the dual-career family life. At the same time, both spouses experience inter-role conflict due to conflicting demands of multiple roles while struggling to perform work and family roles simultaneously. In the dual-career families, both husbands and wives are expected to experience some extent of role conflict. Some previous studies reported sex differences in the nature of role conflict experienced by dual-career couples.

Ross, Mirowsky and Huber (1983) pointed out that in transition from traditional to egalitarian roles, the central problem for husbands is one of self-esteem, while the central problems for wives is getting their husbands to share the housework. Wives may expect more equitable division of household labor in order to alleviate the inter-role conflict they suffer, whereas husbands may resist to role changes toward equal role-sharing due to self-identity conflict or diminished self-esteem as a male. Therefore, husbands are more likely to experience intra-role conflict severely than are their wives because self-identity conflict and resistance to gender role change are more severely experienced among the husbands due to the diminished self-esteem, embarrassment, guilt, and apprehension associated with their wives' employment (Ross et al., 1983). On the other hand, wives are more likely to experience severe inter-role conflict because they feel family-work interference more severely due to role overload and competing demands between work and family roles than are their husbands. The differential experience of role conflict between the spouses (intra-role conflict experienced by husbands, and inter-role conflict

by wives) may lead to differential patterns of stress or distress. However, the differential effects of each role conflict on stress or distress were not examined in the empirical studies.

In previous studies, the relationship between role conflict and stress has been examined by role-stress hypothesis. Although this theory hypothesizes that role conflict between two competing roles, role overload, and role ambiguity would cause role stress among the dual-career couples (Mirowsky & Ross, 1986), empirical research has heavily focused on role overload or inter-role conflict, disregarding intra-role conflict arising from the conflicting role expectations.

Role-stress theory that role conflict leads to stress was confirmed by the data among the working wives. Coverman (1989) found that perception of work-family interference, which refers to inter-role conflict in this study, increased women's psychophysical symptoms. Thoits (1986) also found that women who are involved with multiple roles have significantly higher level of anxiety than men. On the other hand, empirical findings provide contradictory or disconfirmed results for the husbands. Husbands of working wives were less distressed (Booth, 1976), or no difference between husband of employed wife and those of nonemployed were found (Robert & O'Keefe, 1981). Despite the sound theoretical framework that inequitable family responsibility create overload (Googins & Burden, 1987), and overload creates a feeling of out of control and helplessness due to exhaustion of time and energy, which leads to stress (Rosenfield, 1989), this role-stress theory was not fully empirically supported. Furthermore, this role-stress hypothesis was not empirically tested to examine the effect of intra-role conflict on stress.

Although two dimensions of role conflict (intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict) are interrelated and interplay in a complex way in determining psychological well-

being of dual-career couples, no theory has been developed to explain the interrelationships between them. For this reason, there is an increasing need for developing a theory which could delineate the differential impact of each role conflict on well-being of husband and wife in dual-career families as well as the interrelationship between them. On the other hand, it is speculated that inter-role conflict may elevate physical as well as psychological stress, while intra-role conflict may increase psychological stress. Therefore, there is a need to examine the complex interplay between the different dimensions of role conflict and different types of stress theoretically and empirically.

c. Role Conflict and Marital Satisfaction

In addition to stress or depression, role conflicts that individual husband or wife experiences in dual-career situation also has impact on marital relationship of dual-career couples. Based on the speculation that demands of adapting to the dual-career family life pattern may be experienced quite differently by husbands as compared with wives, Burke and Weir (1976) viewed that the husbands of working wives experience greater dissatisfaction with marriage because they appear to be having more difficulties coping effectively with the dual-career family life, whereas working wives appear to make more satisfactory adjustment. Working wives are likely to expect more equitable division of household labor, and put pressures toward equal participation in family roles in order to alleviate role strain they suffer due to overload and inter-role conflict. When they are asked to do the traditionally "female" tasks, the husbands of working wives who are already embarrassed with the reduced important services and supports from wives are likely to experience a diminished sense of self-worth and loss of special status in the family (Burke & Weir, 1976; Rosenfield, 1980). Burke and Weir (1976) viewed that due to this serious discrepancy between their own self-image and their actual roles expected

within the dual-career families, the husbands of the working wives have severe identity problems which causes high degree of stress and marital dissatisfaction. Therefore, Burke and Weir (1976) viewed that whatever benefits accrue to wives and families from wives' participation in the work force do not appear to mitigate whatever difficulties husbands experience due to wives' employment because husbands experience severe identity problems in combining two roles. Due to the identity conflict, the husbands of working wives are likely to resist to change family roles into more androgynous one. Burke and Weir (1976) found that working wives experience less self-identity conflict because working wives are making their roles more compatible with their self-image by expanding into roles that have more positive values for them and by fulfilling roles valued by society. Therefore, wives are less likely to experience self-identity problem. Burke and Weir (1976) assumed that the wives who experience less self-identity conflict would make more satisfactory adjustment. Based on their findings that working wives held more positive attitudes toward marriage, while their husbands are less content with marriage, Burke & Weir (1976) hypothesized that self-identity conflict (intra-role conflict) decreases marital satisfaction. They assumed that husbands' marital satisfaction is lower than wives' because husbands of working wives experience more severe self-identity conflict than their wives.

On the other hand, the working wives are likely to experience severe inter-role conflict, and to be dissatisfied with their marriage, when the expected equitable role-sharing is not performed by their husbands due to their resistance. The presence of inter-role conflict experienced by wives was found in Chassin et al.'s (1985) study. However, the predicted relationship between wives' inter-role conflict and their marital satisfaction was not confirmed by empirical data. Coverman (1989) found that the perception of work-family interference (inter-role conflict) decreased husbands' marital satisfaction, but did not decreased wives' marital satisfaction.

The analysis of Burke and Weir (1976) delineated the link between intra-role conflicts and marital dissatisfaction experienced by dual-career husbands. Burke and Weir (1976) differentiated the other dimension of role conflict, that is, intra-role conflict (self-identity conflict) from inter-role conflict. However, they did not investigate the impacts of both role-conflicts, nor compare the impacts of these two different role conflicts (intra-role and inter-role conflict) on marital satisfaction for the both spouses.

In order to explain sex differences in marital dissatisfaction of dual-career couples, the impacts of these two different role conflict on marital satisfaction need to be investigated together. Without a comprehensive theoretical framework which examines the independent effect of each role conflict on marital satisfaction, and which compares their impacts, it is not clear which role conflict is the more significant predictor for marital dissatisfaction experienced by dual-career husbands and wives, and how these two role conflicts affect each other. Therefore, a theoretical framework needs to develop which can delineate differential impact of each role conflict on marital satisfaction, and which explains the interrelationship between these two.

d. Division of Household Labor and Role Conflict

Role overload deriving from the unequal division of family responsibilities between husbands and wives directly affect the well-being of individuals in dual-career families by causing tremendous stress and physical strains. At the same time, when division of household labor is perceived as "unfair" or "unequal," or when there are no adequate resources for coping with role conflicts arising from unequal division of labor, men and women in dual-career families are likely to experience not only stress but marital dissatisfaction.

Therefore, the level of stress and marital satisfaction are seen as being determined by the ways that wives and husbands in dual-career families resolve role conflict and

division of household labor issue. However, stress and marital dissatisfaction are expected to be differentially experienced by husband and wife in dual-career families because each spouse's perception of "fair" division of household labor as well as the experience of two different types of role conflicts are different between the husband and wife.

In resolving the role conflict between work and family roles, working women are likely to put the priority on family over occupation commitment at the expense of women's personal identity and career aspiration (Heckman et al., 1977; cited in Skinner, 1980). Although working women experience a considerable degree of role strain deriving from inter-role conflict between 2 sets of roles, these women expect little from their husband because their husbands are likely to resist to role sharing. For this reason, working women use 4 kinds of tension management technique such as favorable definition of the dual-career situation, setting priority, compartment and compromise to reduce role conflict (Poloma, 1972). These working women are able to successfully manage the tensions arising from role overload and role conflict by using these techniques in short-term. However, in the long run, these tension management techniques are not effective because working women are torn between loyalty to work and family responsibility, suffering physical fatigue, and anxiety. Moreover, working women are likely to sacrifice their career aspiration and personal needs, and compromise more in order to make dual-career life operative under the circumstances that their husbands are not responsive to their needs for help and resist to role sharing (Poloma, 1972). Therefore, these women are more likely to experience high degree of physical stress and marital dissatisfaction due to inter-role conflict.

In contrast, men are less likely to experience high level of inter-role conflict as far as less is expected of them with regard to family responsibility (Bernard, 1974). Therefore, the physical stress level men experience may be lower than that of women in

dual-career families. However, as far as men have difficulties in integrating work and family roles into their own self-identity based on reassessment of social and personal identity, men are also likely to experience high level of intra-role conflict, which may lead to considerable degree of psychological stress and dissatisfaction.

In conclusion, the extent of stress and marital satisfaction that dual-career husbands and wives experience will vary with their different types of role conflicts and the extent of sharing household labor. Few empirical studies examine the complex relationships among division of household labor, intra- and inter-role conflict, marital satisfaction, and stress. For this reason, a comprehensive theoretical model which includes all these variables and investigates the interrelationships among them need to be developed in the future.

e. Power and Psychological Well-Being

In order to provide an appropriate explanation for married women's higher rate of psychological distress than married men (Radloff, 1975; Gove & Tudor, 1973), many previous studies have examined the relationship between sex-related differences in personality and socialization, and different styles of response to stress. However, Horwitz (1982) criticizes that these previous studies did not consider how persistent structural arrangement that underlie sex roles can be more or less productive of distress. Pointing out that sex-role expectations and power as social construction have been overlooked in the past, Horwitz (1982) examined the impact of power and sex-role expectation [that is, socially imposed gender role definition] on psychological distress. Horwitz (1982) found that powerful role is negatively associated with distress, regardless of conformity to sex-role expectation, whereas powerless role is highly related with distress when that individual deviates from sex-appropriate role expectation. Horwitz (1982) concluded that violation of role expectation is only productive of distress in the

absence of resource power. Horwitz's (1982) study provides an insight into understanding the relationship between power structure and psychological well-being. Horwitz (1982) identified two crucial components of power structure (resource power, and sex-role ideology which is equivalent to "definitional power"), and examined the interaction of these two components of power as well as the differential impacts of these two components of power on psychological well-being.

f. Power, Role Conflict and Psychological Well-Being

As a way of providing an explanation for the consistent finding of higher rates of anxiety, and depressive symptoms among married women, Rosenfield (1989) integrated a "power explanation" which assumes that the power women obtain through paid work would reduce women's symptoms, with a "role overload explanation" which posits that role overload would create greater symptoms and lower individual's sense of personal control. Viewing that the impact of employment on women's well-being is not always positive because gains in personal control in terms of power often are offset by the loss in control due to overload, Rosenfield (1989) examined the impact of power and role overload on psychological well-being together. Rosenfield (1989) maintained that high demand due to overload, and low power women have within the family reduce personal control and therefore, decrease psychological well-being, pointing out that personal control is the link between high demand and low power. Rosenfield (1989) tested "personal control explanation" which posits that personal control underlie the effects of both high demand and low power on sex differences in anxious, and depressive symptoms. She found that personal control accounts for the higher symptoms among women in the positions of low power as well as in the positions of high demands. Rosenfield's study is very important in that it attempts to connect power, overload (inter-role conflict) and psychological well-being in order to understand the sex difference in distress. It provides

an insight for understanding that sex differences in symptoms are derived from the chronic strains which have been associated with the different social positions and power distributions between men and women.

g. Power, Division of Household Labor, Role Conflict and Psychological Well-Being

The spouses may have different sets of role expectations regarding what constitutes the proper marital role behavior for self and spouses (Peterson & Maynard, 1981), which are criteria for judging the appropriateness of marital role behaviors. Many studies examining the trends of shifting sex-role attitudes suggest that gender role expectations have been changing, although in a slow pace (McLaughlin et al., 1988), and that there is a conspicuous sex difference in changes in sex-role attitudes (Gilbert, 1985; Osmond & Martin, 1975).

Increasing women's labor force participation has brought about the changes in power structure as women gain more resource power through their employment than before. However, these changes in power structure may take place at different paces for men and women because they are in different positions in facing with these changes. Therefore, they struggle for power. Husbands and wives in dual-career families may modify their sex-role attitudes and role expectations in different directions due to differences in their power source and power positions. With the increasing married women's employment, spouse's comparative economic contribution to their marriage provides an important basis upon which wives judge the appropriateness of division of housekeeping labor (Peterson & Maynard, 1981). Adopting equity theory, Peterson & Maynard (1981) view that wives may perceive that housekeeping outcome should be distributed more equally as their earning input becomes more equal to husbands' earnings. However, husbands may have a different set of role expectation which prefers traditional division of labor because they judge the appropriateness of division of domestic labor

based on the traditional gender role expectations which endorse male power through social definitions. Therefore, these differences in role expectations affect their role sharing behavior. When they differ in shaping their marital role expectation for division of household labor, they are doomed to experience severe role conflict. As far as different marital role expectations are held by husbands and wives, the working wives, who do the disproportionate share of housework due to lack of husbands' support, are likely to experience high level of inter-role conflict as well as intra-role conflict. Also, the husbands who do not share much of housework, but they feel high level of intra-role conflict because they resist to changing family roles. These role conflicts may lead to marital conflict, which causes tremendous stress and marital dissatisfaction between them.

The interrelationships among the power, division of household labor, role conflict, stress, and marital satisfaction were hypothesized in the previous literature. But few empirical studies examine the interrelationships among these variables. Therefore, the comprehensive theoretical model needs to develop to test the causal relationships among these variables.

B. Division of Household Labor

As a way to reduce role strains or stress deriving from work overload and role conflict, role-sharing becomes the necessary condition for dual-career family life. The increased importance of wives' earnings to successful family functioning lent credence of the ideology that a wife who shared the employment role had the right to expect a more equitable allocation of family tasks at home (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975; cited in Bird, Bird & Scruggs, 1984). For these reasons, division of household labor has become a key issue which should be addressed to solve the problems which dual-career men and women confront in contemporary society. Therefore, there is an increasing need to

examine how domestic labor is currently divided between the spouses within the dual-career households, and what determines the division of labor at home.

a. Traditional Perspective

a.1 Role Differentiation Theory

Until the 1960s, power and gendered division of labor were not often investigated within the context of family due to ideology and theories of the time (Scanzoni, 1979). During the post-war era, a new ideology extolling women as full-time homemaker and as a part of the husband-sole breadwinner family pattern emerged with the assumption of "separate but equal" spheres between the spouses (Pleck, 1981). In line with this ideology, functionalist and marital adjustment theories emphasized stability, equilibrium, consensus, and complementary between the spouses based on role differentiation, with a view of social order which is essentially static (Scanzoni, 1979).

Functionalists conceptualized marital relationship as a "fully structured relationship" in which behavior of each party is completely specified and prescribed by social norms (Brickman, 1974; cited in Scanzoni, 1979). They viewed power differentials inherent in rigid role differentiation within the patriarchal family as "functional", not as problematic. In "fully structured relationship", male's instrumental role, which involves political and economic leadership, provided a justification for "male supremacy", while women with expressive role were "subordinate" in this normative perspective because they have "few alternatives" with which to struggle for power (Scanzoni, 1979).

Under the functionalist influence, "role-differentiation" perspective explains that men do little family work as a part of larger family division of labor in which men specialize in the external family breadwinner role, while women monopolize the internal family work role (Pleck, 1979).

a.2 Exchange Theory

In line with this functionalist instrumental-expressive formulation, "exchange perspective" assumes that husbands are exchanging their successful performance of family breadwinner role for their wives' provision of love, companionship and household services (Pleck, 1979). These two traditional perspectives viewed men as having relatively little responsibility for family work, and their limited roles in family work as justifiable and appropriate based on role-differentiation and mutual exchange (Pleck, 1979).

a.3 Sex-Role Ideology Hypothesis

In line with these traditional perspectives, sex-role ideology hypothesis holds that the household division of labor is determined by the sex-role attitudes acquired by wives and husbands through socialization (Perrucci et al., 1978; Coverman, 1985). It assumes that the man who adheres to traditional sex-role ideology perform fewer household tasks because he considers housework as the major role of women. This hypothesis suggests that as long as the couple maintain their traditional sex-role attitudes and adhere to prior socialization experience, role-sharing required to reduce the overload of working wives is seldom accomplished (Smith & Reid, 1986). Therefore, this approach provides an explanation as to why men or women are resistant to gender role change.

a.4 Resource Theory

As the rise of women's employment and increase in women's educational attainment enable women to bargain with their husbands, change has been toward "partially structured relationship," in which rules constrain certain behavior but leave others to free choice of the spouses (Brickman, 1974; cited in Scanzoni, 1979). Blood and Wolfe (1960), who developed resource theory, theorized that power of the husbands and wives is determined by comparative resources that each spouse contributes to the marriage. From the basic premise of resource theory that the spouse who contributes the

greater resources is likely to have more power in marital relationship, other hypotheses derived: power of husband and wife varies positively with his/her socio-economic resources such as education, income and occupations; the larger discrepancy between husband's and wife's resources, the greater the power differentials; and employment of wife increases her power, concomitantly limits the power of husband (Lupri, 1969; Scanzoni, 1979).

The perspective that wife's participation in external system will strengthen her position in the family suggests that resource theory of marital power constitutes an alternative to, or modification of the ideological theory which postulates that tradition is the major base of family power (Lupri, 1969).

Resource theory was introduced to the family field by Blood and Wolfe (1960) in their analysis of division of household task between the husband and wife. Blood and Wolfe (1960) viewed that the spouse who holds more power in the marital dyad can minimize participation in undesirable activities, and that this power within the marriage derives from the resources that reflect socio-economic status in society (Cited in Coverman, 1985). Relative resource hypothesis assumes that those with greater power deriving from resources (sometimes measured by earnings, education, and occupation) will use the power to avoid the housework (Spitze, 1988). While Blood and Wolfe(1960) used resource theory to explain why husband does little housework, Ross et al.(1983) connect resource theory with gender division of labor to explain how women's resource will change division of labor at home. The empirical findings of Ross et al.'s (1983) study support resource theory. They found that the more the wife earns, the more her husband shares household tasks, and that the more the husband earns, the less he shares the housework.

Unlike traditional sex-role ideology hypothesis which reflects "static" relationship between husband and wife whose roles are derived by traditional line, resource theory present "dynamics" between husbands and wives by assuming that resources function as a "leverage" which can bring about changes in division of labor at home. Blood and Wolfe's idea that marital power was no longer based on patriarchal notions, but rather on "comparative resources" indicates the long-term movement from "fully" to "partially" structured relationship (Scanzoni, 1979). Resource theory contradicts with sex-role ideology hypothesis. In sex-role ideology hypothesis, sex-role ideology is the determinant of division of household tasks, regardless of resource power consideration, while in resource theory, resource is the determinant of division of labor within the household, regardless of sex-role ideology.

b. Exploitation Perspective

While traditional perspective provided justification for males' limited family work with traditional role differentiation, social exchange, and greater resource power on the part of males, the exploitation perspective stimulated by contemporary feminism as well as time budget research rejects the previous cultural and economic explanations for division of labor at home.

The exploitation perspective posits that men's low level of family work causes serious problems for employed wives, and views the housework inequality as a form of exploitation experienced daily and in a direct way by most all women in relation with men (Mainardi, 1971; Cited in Pleck, 1979) and as a force which maintains male power over women (Pleck, 1979). Feminists who hold the exploitation perspective examined family participation with a time budget methodology and found 3 extremely important facts about men's family work: 1) husbands' performance in family work is quite small in absolute magnitude; 2) husbands of employed wives do not spend more time in family work than

do husband of nonemployed wife; and 3) total amount of work performed by employed wives is considerably greater than that performed by their husbands (Walker & Wood, 1976; Cited in Pleck, 1979). These findings contradict the result predicted by Blood & Wolfe's resource theory in that the wife's increasing economic resource did not reduce her family work. Moreover, the fact that employed wives worked 2.2 more hours per day than their husbands in that sample suggests that it is not intellectually tenable to view men's limited family roles as the result of equitable "exchange" between the husband and wife resulting from different resources (Pleck, 1979).

Even though this exploitation perspective does not generate theories which predict the level of division of labor, this perspective contributes to the testing of theories such as resource and exchange theory derived from traditional perspective based on the empirical findings of time budget research. As a way of explaining the inequitable division of family work, a revised theory about division of labor has emerged.

b.1 Human Capital Approach

In order to explain why gender-specialized division of labor has been maintained despite the sharp increase in the female labor force participation, Gary Becker (1991) proposed human capital approach in A Treatise on the Family. Becker views that a sizable gender gap in earnings is expected even if women's participation in the labor force is equal. Because women who have primary responsibility for household tasks and child care would have less energy available for market than men, women lower their investment for human capital in the market, and as a result, women earn less, even though they work the same number of market hours as men (Becker, 1991). Due to the differences in earning between the husband and wife, gender-specified division of labor is maintained as a rational choice of the family to maximize household utility on domestic labor as well as in market labor (Geerken & Gove, 1983). Therefore, Becker (1991) viewed that investment

in specialized human capital produces increasing returns, and thereby produces a strong incentive for a sexual division of labor with women specialized to household work and most men specialized to the market.

c. Changing Role Perspective

The theories reviewed in the above explain why the gendered division of labor has been maintained. However, there are a few theories which assume men as changing by increasing their share of household work. This perspective assumes men as changing by increasing their family roles to complement their primary roles in paid work (Pleck, 1979). Pleck's (1979) study provides some evidence that males in the 1970s are increasing family roles when wife works.

c.1 Time-Availability Hypothesis

Time-availability hypothesis holds that the husband and wife allocate household tasks and child care on the basis of time available to each spouse for such activities (Perrucci et al., 1978; Spitze, 1988). In light of the growing need to reduce work overload of working wives, this hypothesis focuses on practical concerns rather than traditional norms or resources. However, the time-availability hypothesis was criticized due to inconsistent findings between the genders. Empirical findings report that housework hours does not consistently related to the husband's working hours, but the wife's working hours (Coverman, 1985; Barnett and Baruch, 1987). This result indicates that time-availability hypothesis is not applied to both husband and wife, which means one-sided theory. Haas (1981) viewed that perceived responsibility for breadwinning is more important rather than the actual work time.

From the literature review, the main determinants of division of domestic labor are summarized into sex-role ideology, resource or exchange, and time availability. Each

perspective provides some insight into understanding the determinants of division of labor at home. Ross (1987) tested resource theory, sex-role ideology hypothesis and time availability hypotheses together in order to find out the most strong predictor for division of labor. Based on empirical findings of Ross's (1987) study, resource theory and sex-role ideology hypothesis were supported, but time availability hypothesis was not confirmed: smaller gap of earning and husband's less traditional sex-role belief are associated with more equitable division of labor. The empirical findings that working wives always do most of the housework, despite the time constraint, time-availability hypothesis is not seen as an appropriate explanation despite the fact that the time available hypothesis is a rational approach in terms of practical concern. It appears that resources and role expectations are stronger predictors of family work division. Since resource power and sex-role expectations reflect the power structure which have been socially constructed in a given society, there is a need to investigate the relationship between socially constructed power structure and division of household labor.

C. Conceptualization of Family Power Structure as the Determinant of Division of Household Labor

Changing traditional gender roles toward more egalitarian ones is difficult because gender roles have been socially constructed in the form of "gendered division of labor" by socio-economic systems and ideology. In the co-provider situation, working wives seek to decrease role specialization which is manifested in the form of "unequal" division of labor within dual-career households (Scanzoni, 1979). However, women who move toward a more equitable division of labor between the spouses are likely to encounter their husbands' resistance because men are likely to struggle to maintain the traditional gendered division of labor which has provided them with more power and advantages at home. Since the uneven responsibilities of two partners in family life result in different

experiences and rewards of husbands and wives, Hartman (1981) viewed the family as a "locus of struggle" in which spouses with different responsibilities, rewards, and interests come into conflict with each other.

In this sense, struggle for a more equal division of domestic labor, which is a major issue of the dual-career family, is seen as reflecting a "power struggle" between husbands and wives within dual-career households in the face of changes in the power structure occurring with wives' increasing employment. In that the process toward an equitable division of labor at home entails changing the power structure which has been socially constructed by patriarchy, capitalism, and ideologies through history, gendered division of labor at home taps the issue of power within the family. With the growing recognition that micro male-female power relations are both the consequences and the cause of macro male and female power patterns, power and gendered division of labor become the salient issues which require more rigorous investigation (Scanzoni, 1979).

Based on the premise that gendered division of labor is a manifestation of the power structure within the family, the relationship of power to division of domestic labor needs to be examined. In this study, dimensions of power structure were explored as the "bases" of power in order to identify the factors which determine the division of household labor, which is the "outcome" of power. In addition to resource power (economic power), a structural and ideological power (definitional power), and two different relational powers (personal power and positional power) were conceptualized as the "bases" of power which determine the division of household labor.

a. Resource Power

"Resource power" was conceptualized based on "resource theory" developed by Blood and Wolfe (1960). Blood and Wolfe (1960) are generally identified as the first scholars who launched a major study of family power (Shehan & Lee, 1990). However,

Blood and Wolfe were influenced by the earlier work of Herbst (1952) who developed a typology of marital power. Herbst argued that marital interaction consists of two dimensions-- an activity dimension (e.g. actual division of family labor), and a decision dimension (e.g. who decides about allocation of time and task assignments), defining power as the ability to control the decision-making dimension (Shehan & Lee, 1990). Blood and Wolfe's resource theory was developed under the influence of Herbst's work in that they adopted the emphasis on control of decision making, but Blood and Wolfe believed that power over decision making comes from resources (Shehan & Lee, 1990). Blood and Wolfe's (1960) "resource theory" posits that marital power accrues to the partner who has the greater resources at one's disposal. Therefore, the impact of "resource power" on the division of household labor was predicted based on the "relative resource theory," which assumes that those with greater power deriving from the greater resources, measured by earnings, education, and occupation, will use that power to avoid housework (Spitze, 1988). Ross et al.'s (1983) empirical study provided the support for the resource theory. They found that the more the wife earns, the more her husbands shares the housework, and the more the husband earns, the less he shares.

a.1 Criticism on Resource Power Theory based on Empirical Testing

Since Blood and Wolfe (1960) developed resource theory, resource theory has been tested by many empirical studies. However, these empirical studies yielded inconsistent findings, and raised a question at to the adequacy of resource theory. Whereas Blood and Wolfe (1960) found that resource theory provided the best explanation for the findings in the United States and other industrialized countries, contradictory findings were found in cross-cultural studies. The relationship between the husband's resource and his power was positive in the United States, West Germany and France. But negative in some the industrializing countries such as Yugoslavia, Greece,

and Turkey (Rodman, 1967, 1972; Safilios-Rothschild, 1967; Michel, 1967; Lupri, 1969; Fox, 1973). These divergent and contradictory findings from comparative data suggest that resource theory is not applicable across cultures. Therefore, a modification of resource theory was required in order to formulate a more comprehensive and generalizable framework.

As an attempt to resolve the question of connection between resources and power, Rodman (1967, 1972) developed "a theory of resources in cultural context." Based on the observations of previous studies which suggested that resources may play a less important or different role in developing countries (Michel, 1967; Cited in Rodman, 1967), Rodman took cultural norms into account as a contingency variable influencing the effect that resources have on power. Rodman (1972) used a theoretical framework describing the differential relationship between resources and men's power in 4 stages of society (patriarchy, modified patriarchy, transitional equalitarian, and equalitarian) which differ in cultural norms and ideologies. Rodman's (1972) analysis showed that paternal power is positively correlated with social class or economic resources only in the society in which egalitarian family norms are replacing patriarchal norms, and in which there is normative flexibility about marital power. Rodman's conclusion that resource theory can be generalized only in this stage of transitional equalitarianism suggests that the power is a function of resources is not sufficient for explaining marital power structure. Based on these findings, Rodman (1967, 1972) proposed a "theory of resources in cultural context," which claims that the balance of marital power is influenced by the interaction of comparative resources of husbands and wives, and cultural expectations about distribution of marital power. Rodman's theory appears to be a more comprehensive framework for understanding the balance of marital power. It adds cultural norms and definitions into the simplistic formulation that power is a function of resources.

Rodman's proposition that normative definitions of sex roles based on societal and cultural norms influence the relationship between resources and balance of marital power has been tested by many other theorists and researchers (Szinovacz 1978; Spitze, 1988). Whereas Rodman examined the moderating effect of normative definitions on the relationship between a husband's resources and power, Blumberg (1991) examined the effect of women's resources on women's power. Blumberg (1991) found that the wife's resources did not significantly affect her power because male control of macro level acts as a "discount rate" on the exercise of women's economic power at the micro level. Agreeing with Blumberg's concept of "discount factor," Coleman (1991) recognized the importance of culture and ideology as the intervening variables which moderate the impact of resource on power relationship.

b. Definitional power

Many researchers criticized resource theory and the previous research into marital power based on resource theory because these studies have focused only on one dimension of power, that is, observable and interpersonal behavioral outcome (e.g. decision-making), and failed to recognize power inequality between the genders in the larger social context (Komter, 1989). Komter (1989) criticized the previous studies in that the focus on the observable, behavioral outcomes of power diverted attention from the underlying power process, and overlooked the structural character of unequal division of power resources between men and women. For this reason, Komter (1989) expanded the dimensions of power structure by including latent and invisible power as well as manifest power based on Lukes' (1974) concept of power: 1) Manifest power is identified in a direct and observable behavior; 2) Latent power is revealed when the powerless spouse resigns the attempt to change his or her behavior in the anticipation of a negative reaction from the more powerful spouse, or fear of jeopardizing the marital relationship;

3) Invisible power, which refers to the implicit values, beliefs, or preconceptions that precede behavior, serves as a social and psychological mechanism, resulting in systematic gender difference. Since these covert, hidden powers are used to shape people's perception, preference in such a way that they accept their roles in the existing order of things, Komter (1989) asserted that these hidden powers serve to confirm and justify power inequality which already exists, and that these hidden powers have been socially constructed for a long period of time within the larger structural context. Komter's (1989) view on hidden power suggests that there is an ideological power which controls the perceptions and preferences of the people, and prescribes the behaviors and interpersonal relationships.

On the other hand, Gillespie (1971) identified the another dimension of power, that is, structural one. Gillespie (1971) viewed that women's power obtained through the gainful employment is limited in individual bargaining situation due to structural constraints such as psychological, legal, and social blocks. Therefore, Gillespie (1971) asserted that the differences in marital power are not due to individual resources, or personal competence of the partners, but to the discrimination against women in the larger society. Gillespie's (1971) analysis gave an insight into the link between power differentials at the individual level and structurally predetermined power differences between the genders. Although Gillespie (1971) pointed out that women are structurally blocked from realizing their capacities due to institutionalized male supremacy, he did not conceptualize this structural power as another base of power.

As a way of providing an explanation for the contradictory empirical findings for resource theory, Rodman (1967; 1972), Blumberg (1991), and Coleman (1991) found that sex-role ideology, based on cultural norms and definitions, moderates the impact of

resources on power relationship as the intervening variables. However, they did not conceptualize the sex role ideology and orientation as the other base of power. ?

All these researchers in the above tried to delineate the other dimension of power, which reflects the structural and ideological power structure in the larger society. But neither conceptualized this structural and ideological power as the base of power.

Chafetz (1991) conceptualized this structural and ideological power as "definitional power," which refers to the ability of a person or a group to impose values, norms, standards of judgment and situational definitions upon others. Chafetz (1991) viewed "definitional power" as the other major predictor of gendered division of labor. In her theoretical framework, Chafetz (1991) delineated the process how the "definitional power" contributes to maintaining and reproducing gendered division of labor at macro and micro level. According to Chafetz (1991, pp. 84-86), "In gender-stratified societies, males who occupy elite position in the dominant social institutions produced and imposed social definitions upon women to legitimize the advantages that accrue to them. ... By defining women as the first, foremost parent and spouse whose family obligation takes priority over all else, ... men, individually and collectively coerce women to behave in a normative way. Thus, gendered division of labor is maintained at home." Also, Chafetz (1991, p.81) explained how male definitional power and resource power mutually reinforce each other, reproducing gendered division of labor. She summarized that gendered division of labor at home which has been produced and reinforced by male definitional power reinforces female disadvantage at work by making women less competitive at labor market and by segregating women into lower paying jobs. As a result, dual-labor market and occupational segregation results in superior male access to the valued resources, and therefore, render males resource power which allow them to avoid the tasks they do not want to do. Macro and micro male definitional power as well

as resource power serve for maintaining and reproducing gendered division of labor, and reinforce and being reinforced each other at macro and micro male level.

Through her theoretical framework explaining the process how definitional as well as resource power serve to reproduce gendered division of labor, Chafetz (1991) contributed to not only expanding the dimensions of family power structure by conceptualizing "definitional power," but also delineating two conceptually different, but related aspects of power which are mutually reinforcing. Chafetz (1991) provided the theoretical basis which enables us to examine not only the impacts of resource power and definitional power on gendered division of labor, but also the interrelationship between these two powers by delineating the underlying power process which has been socially constructed in a larger social context.

Although feminist theorists (Chafetz, 1991; Okin, 1989) contributed to developing theories explaining the causal factors of structural power inequality between the genders, there has been another criticism toward studies on family power from the feminist scholars. Komarovsky (1988) pointed out that mainstream sociology and some accepted theories reflect the selective angle of vision of the dominant male sex because the behavior of men, not of women, is assumed as the more significant object of the study. In this regard, resource power and definitional power appear to be male-biased power that have been socially constructed in the public arena in such a way that males gain more power by having more access to resources, or by imposing social definitions upon women to justify their superior positions and advantages.

Focusing only on the socio-economic powers which males acquire through their political and economic activities in the larger social context, the previous studies on marital power failed to delineate all relevant dimensions of family power structure. Few studies explore the equally important dimensions of power, that is, relational power, which

may be the major source of women's power which they might exercise through relationships in the private arena .

c. Personal power

The importance of "relational power" in the studies of marital power was recognized by O'Connor (1991) who argued that women's experience of power within the marriage should be understood in both the structural and relational context. O'Connor (1991) maintained that spouses have relational and structural sources of power within the marriage, and that the relationship between these two sources of power has been given little attention within the mainstream sociology. Komarovsky (1988) and Goode (1982) also noticed the existence of relational power, another dimension of marital power. They noticed that there are limits to the exercise of male power within the family (limits set by need and by love), although male dominance outside the family gives males greater socio-economic power (cited in O'Conner, 1991).

One type of "relational power," which is to be conceptualized as "personal power" in this study, has been explored by several scholars. Heer (1963) mentioned "attractiveness," especially in women, as another resource other than economic power (cited in Hallenbeck, 1966). Waller and Hill (1951) pointed out the possibility that love can be utilized as a manipulative power enjoyed by the least interested person according to the "principle of least interest," since the spouse "more in love" tends to be vulnerable when the other spouse withdraws love (cited in Safilios-Rothschild, 1976). Waller argued that this power can evolve into exploitation through unfair, or unjust utilization of another (cited in Scanzoni, 1979).

Based on the earlier work of these scholars, Safilios-Rothschild (1976) observed that love is an extremely important variable for understanding marital power. Through a series of studies (1970, 1975, 1976), Safilios-Rothschild provided the conceptual basis for

"personal power," which refers to the relational power which an individual has by making oneself needed, loved, and valued through one's personal relationship. Arguing that the conceptualization of "scarce and desirable" goods as resources reflects "masculine bias" because it leads to the exclusion of "soft" goods such as love, Safilios-Rothschild (1975, 1976) strongly suggested that the affective goods such as love, sex, and companionship are another resource which might be used as leverage by women who have no access to socio-economic power in bargaining with their husbands. Safilios-Rothschild (1976) asserted that it is possible for wives to have an advantage in marital exchange even in a highly sexist society by controlling the affective resources (being needed and loved), expressive resources (understanding, emotional support, and special attention), and social and intellectual resources (companionship) which are highly valued and needed by husbands.

O'Connor (1991) also pointed out that within the constraints of their very real financial dependency, some women create the feelings of having power within their marriage by managing their own and their husbands' level of emotional dependency. O'Connor (1991) named this power "relational power," measured by the intensity and direction of the spouses' emotional dependency on each other. Hansen (1965) defined "personal power" as a relational power which an individual has over the other by making oneself needed and valued in the personal relationship, when the individual voluntarily acts in such a manner as to meet the expressive and affective needs of the other.

Previously, these affective and expressive resources have been viewed as the component which constrains women within the female world, and results in reinforcing female disadvantages at home and at work. Bernard (1981) called these affective and expressive aspects of relationship the "love ethos" of the female world. She argued that the "love ethos" is inherently nonegalitarian in effect because it calls for a "serving role."

The "love ethos" forces women, who have a lifetime dependence on their husbands for support, to do these affective and expressive roles, and it handicaps in the polity as well as in the economy, for it precludes the acquisition or exercise of power as we know it in the male world (Bernard, 1981). Based on Bernard's (1981) argument, it is assumed that affective and expressive behaviors deriving from the "love ethos" result in reinforcing traditional gender roles and confines women within the female world, reproducing gender inequality at home.

Prior to Safilios-Rothschild's claim for love as a resource for power, women's affective and expressive roles deriving from the "love ethos" have been regarded as the very source of female disadvantage by which the gendered division of labor was reproduced, perpetuating gender inequality. However, these same affective and expressive behaviors are viewed as a resource from which women can get personal power when value is attached to them.

Emphasizing the importance of affective and expressive resources which are needed and valued in a marital relationship, Safilios-Rothschild provided the theoretical basis for the conceptualization of "personal power." Safilios-Rothschild's contribution is significant in defining a relational power which women utilize by making themselves needed, loved, and valued in their personal relationship with their spouses, and in delineating the sub-dimensions of personal power such as affective resources, expressive resources, and sexual-companionship.

Safilios-Rothschild and other feminist scholars viewed personal power as a relational power which women who are disadvantaged in the socio-economic world might acquire and exercise within the private arena. However, this conceptualization appears to be out of date, and a distortion of reality, considering the increasing number of dual-

career couples in which wives are no longer completely economically dependent upon their husband.

O'Connor's (1991) study did not support the idea that relational power (personal power) is mostly exercised by women who have no direct access to economic resources. O'Connor's findings showed that feelings of power seem equally likely to be generated when both partners are highly emotionally dependent on each other, as well as in a situation of "least interest." O'Connor (1991) argued that Waller and Hill's "principle of least interest" reflects the dynamics of marital power only partially, since the experience of power reflects not only "the principle of least interest," but also what one might call "the principle of high mutual interest."

O'Connor's (1991) findings also suggest that the conceptualization of personal power should not be "gender-specific." She found that among those who are in a situation of "least interest," 63 percent of wives reported that they were in a position of relational powerlessness (more emotionally dependent on their husbands). Therefore, the conceptualization which assumes that females with a lesser socio-economic power will exercise relational power (personal power) over males who need women's love, needs to be discarded.

O'Connor's findings indicated that relational power (personal power) is obtained by both partners' making themselves mutually needed and valued in their relationship, as well as by each spouse's making himself or herself less emotionally dependent on the other. Considering the current trends in the increase in "dual-career families," in which the overlap in roles between the spouses increases, as well as "companionate marriage," in which both spouses are mutually supportive (Safilios-Rothschild, 1972), the notion that relational (personal) power is obtained by making oneself less emotionally dependent upon the other appears less feasible. Therefore, "personal power" is expected in the

contemporary families when both spouses are mutually needed and loved in their marital relationships, rather than when one spouse is less emotionally dependent upon the other. For this reason, "personal power" can be conceptualized as a relational power which is acquired by making oneself more needed, loved, and valued by the other spouse in the marital relationship. Also, it is assumed that both spouses can have high levels of personal power at the same time because both spouses make themselves needed and loved in their marital relationship simultaneously.

Due to the paucity of previous studies on personal power, the effect of personal power on division of household labor has not been examined. In this study, this relationship is to be explored.

d. Positional power

In addition to personal power, another relational power, that is, "positional power" is to be explored in this study. Hansen (1965) defined "positional power" as a relational power an individual has over the other person, based on authority or status obtained by fulfilling roles given by family, society, and social norms. In this study, "positional power" refers to a relational power which an individual acquires through the authority or ability obtained by fulfilling important roles adequately in the given positions.

Few studies have explored the concept of positional power as a relevant dimension of family power structure. Some previous studies revealed the potential by which positional power might be conceptualized as a base of power. Heer (1963) viewed the ability to fulfill roles adequately as another resource which can be utilized in a marital relationship in addition to economic resources and personal attraction. Several empirical findings supported Heer's view by providing evidence of power which women can acquire by performing their roles adequately. Liu et al. (1973) found that in a society where power differentials between a husband and wife allow a high degree of role segregation

(e.g. Hong Kong), the wife is exclusively in charge of household tasks and child care and carries out her instrumental roles necessary to maintain the family within her sphere. Safilios-Rothschild (1967) also noticed that the Greek husband's authority decreased with the birth of a child partly because child-rearing decisions are predominantly made by wives, and therefore, in Greek families, children give the wives greater right to make and influence decisions as experts on child rearing. These empirical studies showed the possibility of positional power which women can acquire by performing their roles as mother, wife, and housewife adequately within their sphere.

The existence of the potential power which women can acquire by fulfilling their family roles and implementing the domestic tasks assigned to them as position holders (mother, wife and housewife) was also found in Korean anthropology or women's studies literature. In the ancient patriarchal society, women, who were precluded from acquiring and exercising economic and political power in the public arena, attempted to secure their positions and identities in the informal, domestic arena by internalizing the ideologies that regulate their lives, and by actively accomplishing their roles and tasks imposed by the society (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1988). As a result of women's efforts to survive in the society unfavorable to them, women acquired not only "personal power" based on the strong emotional attachment and loyalty between son and mother created by "uterine family" (Cho, Hye-Jeong, 1988), but also "positional power" as the house manager who was in charge of all domestic tasks and family affairs. In modern capitalist society, women acquire more personal and positional power as their husbands are isolated from family life because husbands must devote themselves to work in order to survive in a competitive Korean labor market. Throughout history, Korean women have had great personal and positional power within the private arena because Korean males existed as the symbolic heads of the families, and in reality, were isolated from family life due to

social, political, and economic reasons. However, Korean women did not recognize the presence of these potential powers, and rarely attempted to exercise them to bargain with husbands.

Safilios-Rothschild (1976) called this power, which women can acquire by fulfilling their roles within their sphere, "implementing power." She (1976) believed that wives can derive a feeling of power by implementing tasks within the limits set by their husbands who have "orchestration power." Safilios-Rothschild (1976) viewed that women's implementing power is a power relegated by powerful husbands with "orchestration" power by which the husbands make the major important decisions and relegate unimportant and time-consuming decisions to their wives. However, Safilios-Rothschild (1970) maintained that implementing power can be used as real power. Safilios-Rothschild (1970) argued that the wife has at her disposal other resources which she can and does use as power by contributing or withdrawing the services she has offered to the family at her will.

Women, in general, have been in charge of instrumental roles necessary to maintain family life such as management of household tasks, child-rearing and socializing, planning and coordinating family events, making domestic decisions, mediating or solving conflict, linking relatives, and maintaining the family's social network, but women also fulfill an important integrating role in channeling, switching, and storing information pertaining to the entire kinship network (Lomnitz & Lizaur, 1978, cited in Bernard, 1981). Women performed these roles and tasks in their given positions as mother, wife, and housewife in order to maintain family life, and to fulfill social expectations defined by society or cultural norms.

However, as Bernard (1981) pointed out, the services that were offered by women and performed as duties based on the "duty" ethos have not been appreciated by

the husbands or other family members because they were taken for granted. Bernard's view is consistent with other feminist theorists (Chafetz, 1991; Okin, 1989) who believe that the gendered division of labor is maintained and reproduced by imposing social definitions upon women to make women behave in the normative way. Lukes (1974) and Komter (1989) also believe that this cultural and psychological control which Bernard called "duty" ethos prevents people from having grievances by shaping their perceptions and preferences in such a way that they accept their roles in the existing order of things, either because they can see no alternative to it, or because they see it as natural or unchangeable. Bernard (1981) suggested that the serving role performed by women based on the "duty" ethos of the female world can be appreciated and perceived as "worth" only when values are assigned to these services.

The value can be assigned to women's "serving roles" by making available or withdrawing these resources which are important for need-satisfaction of males. Levinger (1959) defines bases of power as lying in one's capacity for making available or withdrawing resources which are important for the need-satisfaction of others implies that positional power may be positively as well as negatively utilized.

Wives have positional power which they acquire by performing family roles and domestic tasks in order to meet the needs of the family or to fulfill societal expectations. But this power is not utilized by the wives because wives rarely recognize this as a source of power due to what Bernard called the "love and duty ethos" (Bernard, 1981). However, in a conflict situation, wives might use this power by withdrawing the services they have offered previously to get what they want. The possibility that positional power might be exercised in a negative way by women was alluded to in Lukes' (1974) comment on hidden power: in a situation of serious conflict, powerless person might exercise power by refusing to comply. Although the possibility that positional power is negatively

exercised by women is predicted by the above discussion, this prediction has not been supported by either theoretical or empirical studies. Positional power has not been conceptualized as a relevant and important concept in studies of marital power.

In the literature on management which examined labor's positional power, the concept of positional power was introduced by Perrone (1983, 1984), who develops a promising theory for understanding the positional sources of the laborer's power (Wallace et al., 1989). The positional power of the laborer is assumed to reside in the ability of workers to disrupt production in their own industry due to their structural position in an interdependent system of economic production (Wallace et al., 1993).

The conceptualization of the positional power of workers as "disruptive potential" and the logic underlying positional power can be applied to studies of marital power.

The power wielded by the workers employed in industries in an interdependent economy confers upon workers the potential to disrupt system-wide production and create leverage to demand higher earnings from employers (Wallace et al., 1993). It is speculated that wives who perform their roles in their given positions as prescribed by cultural norms may be in an inferior position in the society. However, wives whose roles are indispensable for maintaining family life and keeping family relationships in an interrelated family system may exercise their positional power by disrupting family relationships or refusing to perform the expected roles indispensable for family life in order to obtain what they want. As Safilios-Rothschild (1970) discussed, women can exercise their positional power by withdrawing the services they offer to their family.

In contrast to this negatively-exercised positional power, Sacks' (1988) study suggested a possibility of positively-exercised positional power. While examining the leadership in a grassroots movement, Sacks (1988) found that the prevailing belief that women are organizers and men are leaders was a gender-biased notion. Sacks (1988)

suggested a significant revision of the concept of leadership because the conventional equation of leadership with acting in the public missed women's key leadership role as "centerperson." Sacks (1988) argued that women and men both took leadership, but they did so in different ways, and she asserted that the usual distinction between formal and informal power is not really meaningful. She also pointed out that "centerwomen" act in ways that are not commonly perceived as leadership methods in that they have a great deal of responsibility but little authority.

Sacks' (1988) analysis suggests that men and women perform equally important roles from which both get positional power, but women have little authority as position holders due to male-biased values attached to women's roles and positions. Therefore, Sacks (1988) strongly suggested revising this gender-biased notion of leadership and power in such a way that leadership encompasses both leader role and organizer role (centerperson), and either role must not be viewed in a "gender-specific" way because these roles do not require different people.

Sacks' (1988) analysis suggests that the positive side of positional power can be exercised by women. Under the conditions that the roles performed by the husband and wife as position holder within the family are equally valued, and equivalent authorities are given to both spouses who perform their roles, the extent of commitment of that individual to that given role might be the indicator of positional power. The power acquired by making oneself deeply involved in the given roles or positions is seen as power defined as "ability to fulfill one's potential" rather than power defined as "domination." Collins (1990) rejected theories of power based on domination and proposed a humanist vision of self-actualization, self-definition, and self-determination. In the process of fulfilling one's potential or actualizing self, both husbands and wives can acquire positional power by committing themselves to the given roles and assuming the responsibilities. The more the

individual person is actually fulfilling the given roles, the more positional power the person has in that role. In this way, both husbands and wives can acquire positional power because they are needed and valued within their family.

The previous literature in other disciplines showed the possibility of positional power which is negatively as well as positively exercised. In a given unequal relationship, women may exercise positional power in a negative way by disrupting family relationships or refusing to perform the roles expected in their position. In an equal relationship, women can exercise positional power positively by becoming deeply involved in their roles and by making themselves more central in their given positions.

In previous family studies and social work literature, little attention has been paid to personal and positional power which appear to be the major sources of power which can be obtained in the relational context. In previous literature, these two relational powers are conceptualized as the major resources which wives who lack socio-economic power in the public arena can utilize in bargaining with husbands who have these structural powers. Since Waller and Hill's (1951) "principle of least interest," this "power-over" and "dependence-on" model, which defines power as dominance and control (Macy, 1983; cited in Albrecht & Brewer, 1990), has been the major framework of power studies. The perspective assumes that power-dependence exchange takes place when each person needs something the other has to offer, which is unavailable or at least more difficult to obtain elsewhere (Beckman-Brindley and Tavormina, 1978). However, this perspective is no longer tenable in contemporary society because caring roles as well as serving roles are not offered only by wives, just as the economic role is not offered only by husbands. As an overlap between husbands and wives increases in economic roles and other family roles, the "power-over" model and "gender-specific" theories should be discarded.

For this reason, "personal power" and "positional power" need to be reconceptualized in order to be generalized to both men and women. It is expected that personal power as well as positional power can be acquired and exercised by both wife and husband by making himself or herself needed and valued in the personal relationship, or by committing more in their given roles as a position holder.

Hansen's (1965) view of personal and positional power also rejects the gender-specific notion which might be attached to these relational powers. He disagreed with the functionalist's concept of an "instrumental-expressive" axis (Parsons & Bales, 1955) because the functionalists assume that if a spouse is characterized by an instrumental function, he or she cannot also be characterized by expressive roles because roles are sharply differentiated. In contrast to the functionalists who believe that the instrumental-expressive roles are negatively related, Hansen (1965) viewed instrumental and expressive roles, which are conceptualized as positional power and personal in this study, as two interdependent continua which are positively correlated. Hansen (1965) pointed out that one person may perform the majority of both instrumental and expressive roles in the family, while the other performs almost none at all.

Hansen's analysis provides an insight into understanding personal and positional power in that personal and positional power can be exercised by both the husband and wife according to the extent of being centrally involved in their personal relationship or in positional roles. Therefore, the gender-specific notion that only wives use these relational powers in bargaining with husbands should be discarded.

As more women are able to gain direct access to socio-economic resources through increasing their employment outside the home, the changes in power structure in terms of these four kinds of power, as well as the relationship between relational power (personal and positional power) and structural power (economic power and

definitional power) need to be explored in future studies in order to understand the dynamics of marital power within contemporary dual-career families. For the purpose of explaining the relationship between socio-economic power and relational power, this present study includes four dimensions of power which constitute the power structure of contemporary dual-career families, and examines and compares the impact of each power on division of household labor.

3. Method Area

Previous studies on marital power in general had a serious conceptual problems arising from ambiguity of definitions or lack of differentiation of multi-dimensions of marital power. In previous studies on power, no consensus was reached as to the definition of power. Previous researchers define power in different ways, using different terms interchangeably. Since many researchers failed to differentiate the base of power and outcome of power, both dimensions had been measured in order to indicate the extent of power an individual has within their marital relationship. As Olson and Cromwell (1975) suggested, base, process, and outcome of power should be differentially measured to understand the dynamics of power in future studies.

In addition, previous studies on power revealed some methodological shortcomings. In most previous studies, only one aspect of power, that is, decision-making power, was operationalized to measure power, and was generalized as if it encompassed all aspects of power (Safilios-Rothschild, 1970). This one-sided, limited conceptualization and methodological shortcomings undermined the validity and reliability in the previous studies. For this reason, Safilios-Rothschild (1970) suggested that all

dimensions of power should be thoroughly, and cross-culturally investigated in order to develop systematic and adequate theory of marital power.

Furthermore, most previous power studies presented a distorted picture of conjugal power balance by eliciting responses of wives only (Centers et al., 1971). In many of the previous studies, wives only had been interviewed out of convenience since they are generally much more willing to be interviewed, and much more easily to locate, and therefore, interviewing cost remain low (Safilios-Rothschild, 1970). In that the discrepancies of power between a husband and wife may affect their role-sharing behaviors and the extent of role-conflict experienced by them differentially, data needs to be collected from both spouses for this research study.

Another controversial issue on methodology of power studies is self-report versus observational method. Self-report measures, which had been widely used in family power studies, have been criticized in that they are incapable of tapping the dynamic nature of family power process rather than the static picture of family power relationship by simply measuring the final say in the decision-making process (Shehan & Lee, 1990). Self-report measures were criticized since they only measure the perceptions of the respondents instead of real interaction between the spouses. However, the observational method also has been criticized due to limitations of observable family interaction, and the social desirability issue. In that couples in the laboratory setting for observation respond in socially desirable ways because they know they are being observed, Safilios-Rothschild (1970) viewed that observational data are not more valid than survey data, and rather, survey can measure a more accurate picture of power relations because survey can measure how each partner perceives the reality in different ways.

In that it is difficult to observe the familial behavior in everyday life due to practical reason, as well as the ethical reason such as intrusion on the privacy of dual-

career couples, survey design seems more appropriate to examine the interplay of behavior, perception, and the life outcome within the dual-career families.

A. Measurement of Resource Power

Since Blood & Wolfe (1960) defined resource power as the ability a husband and wife obtains through their relative resources such as education, occupation, and income in influencing or regulating their familial behaviors, resource power had been measured in terms of income, education, or occupation in various ways.

However, several cross-cultural empirical studies found that education and occupation are not appropriate indicators of resource power. In Japan, education was seen as a resource, while occupational status was not. In Denmark, France, Sweden, no significant impact of spouses' characteristics on power was found (Safilios-Rothschild, 1967). These inconsistent findings can be attributed to their inconsistent operationalization of the same variables. For instance, wives' occupation was measured by wives' employment status, while husbands' occupation was measured by their occupational status (Michel, 1967). In other cases, only one spouse's resource was measured in order to determine the impact on family power (Safilios-Rothschild, 1967).

Furthermore, many researchers examined the impact of "relative resources" on family power (Rodman, 1972), but the extent of relative resource power was hardly measured or the impact of relative resource power on spouses' power relations was not accurately measured because most of the researchers compared resources with an "ordinal" category such as "wife more, equally, and husband more." Pointing out the importance of each spouse's contribution in the absolute level of resources, Fox (1973) criticized that it is common but misleading practice in conjugal power studies when reporting the effect on power scores of comparative levels of husband and wife resources to use a rubric on the order of "wife more, equal, wife less". Fox (1973) asserts that the

method used in the previous studies obscures the effect of power of "absolute" level of husband and wife's resources as distinct from a "comparable level of power effect."

Fox's (1973) empirical findings showed that the absolute level of resources had a greater impact on power than the "comparability of resources." Fox (1973) concluded that the variability of absolute level of resources is lost when variation is compressed by using a summarizing in the rubric which uses the comparable order.

Farkas (1976) , and Huber and Spitze (1983) also found that the ratio of earning, which measures the relativity of resource, did not significantly affect household division of labor (Cited in Ross, 1987). Ross (1987) viewed that the inappropriate operationalization of concept of relative resource produced these inconsistent results. Based on the assumption that housework is a low-status, unpleasant job, Ross (1987) proposed the "relative power hypothesis," which predicts that the higher the wife's earnings, the larger her husband's contribution to housework. To test "relative resource hypothesis," Ross operationalized relative resource power by subtracting wife's earnings from husband's earnings because she viewed that the husband's and wife's earnings have opposite effect on household division of labor. However, Ross (1987) did not use the actual absolute differences in income between husbands and wives because she measured incomes using an 8-point scale instead of using the actual amount of money.

Integrating all these previous methodologies, the "relative resource" power between a husband and wife may be appropriately measured by measuring the absolute difference of earnings between spouses. However, the conceptualization of "resource power" as "relative resource" has limitations. As seen in previous studies, the relative resource power is difficult to measure because it has the direction as well as the extent of resource. Furthermore, the same amount of the absolute difference in earnings between the spouses may have different consequences across culture, depending on the value

regarding family power under which they operate (Spitze, 1988). The magnitude of differences in earnings between the spouses has no significant meaning in Korean cultural context because there exists the earning gap between males and females due to discrimination against women, or dual-labor market system. Rather, the fact that women earn money through their gainful employment is more meaningful than the absolute difference in income between the spouses. The variations in earnings "within" a gender group (Korean males, and Korean females separately) may be more important in measuring the extent of resource power which a husband or a wife has. Since the absolute amount of resources obtained through gainful employment gives each spouse a value outside the marriage, and thus, the bargaining power within it (Rank, 1982; Cited in Spitze, 1988), the absolute amount of earnings of each spouse seems to be more appropriate to measure the resource power rather than differences in income "between" the genders.

The "resource power" as the "source" of power from which an individual gets the leverage in increasing one's own ability to influence needs to be measured by the extent of economic resource obtained through one's paid work. For this reason, in this study, the absolute amount of personal monthly income will be measured as an indicator of resource power.

B. Measurement of Definitional Power

Although definitional power (Chafetz, 1991) was identified as a crucial component of power structure, no measurement was found to measure this concept. Many researchers measured sex-role orientation as the correlates of division of labor or decision-making, which are the outcomes of power. But few of them conceptualized the sex-role orientation which has been socially constructed by social definitions as definitional power.

This study attempted to conceptualize definitional power as the culturally and structurally imposed social definitions on gender roles, and operationalized definitional power by measuring the sex-role orientation which has been built in cultural norms and ideologies.

As a way of measuring sex-role ideology, many previous researchers used education as the indicator of subcultural value or ideology (Rodman, 1972; Ross, 1987). However, education was found to be not a good indicator of sex-role beliefs because education as value is frequently confounded with education as resource (Ross, 1987). For this reason, Ross (1987) suggested that value or sex-role ideology should be measured directly, not using education as the indirect indicator of value or ideology. Parry (1987) also pointed out that many researchers used no direct measures of sex-role belief, instead, they used age, social class as proxy variables and resulted in inconsistent data with the hypothesis. In his own study (1987), Parry used a well-established measure of sex-role belief to measure attitude toward women's employment and dual role conflict. However, no study was found which measure definitional power empirically.

Therefore, in this study, the extent to which an individual conforms to, or deviates from social definitions based on prevailing sex-role expectations, gender role ideologies, and stereotyping imposed by a given society will be measured as the indicator of definitional power.

C. Measurement of Personal Power

Since Safilios-Rothschild claimed love as a "resource" of power, the affective, expressive, and sexual-companionship have been suggested as the sub-dimensions of personal power, which an individual acquires by making oneself needed, loved, and valued in the personal relationship by voluntarily meeting emotional and affective needs of the other spouse. However, there are few empirical studies which measure personal power.

O'Connor (1991) conceptualized that the relational power rests with the person who has the relatively low level of emotional dependency, following Waller and Hill's (1951) idea. She attempted to measure the relational power, which she defined as a position of unilateral dependence, by measuring the direction and the intensity of partners' emotional dependency on each other (high mutual dependence, low mutual dependence, wife's unilateral dependence on her husband, and husband's unilateral high level of dependence on his wife). However, O'Connor's (1991) empirical findings showed that the feeling of power seems equally likely to be generated when both partners are highly emotionally dependent on each other, as well as in a situation of "least interest."

O'Connor's study gave an insight into new aspects of personal power that an individual acquires a higher level of personal power (which she called "relational power") when he or she is needed and valued in the personal relationship, and that both spouses may have high levels of personal power at the same time.

In this regard, the conceptualization and operationalization of personal power in the previous studies (e.g. Waller and Hill's (1951) principle of "least interest") appear as inappropriate ones. Therefore, personal power needs to be measured by directly measuring the extent to which an individual perceives oneself as needed, loved, and valued in the given personal relationship rather than by measuring the extent to which that individual is less emotionally dependent on the other spouse.

D. Measurement of Positional Power

Due to the paucity of previous studies which conceptualized positional power as one of the bases of family power, few empirical studies which measured positional power were found. In previous study, "positional power" is defined as a relational power which an individual holds over the other through authority or status obtained by fulfilling role expectations given by society or cultural norms (Hansen, 1965). The concept of "power

over," originally suggested in Hansen's (1965) definition, is rejected in this study. Positional power is obtained through one's ability or authority by fulfilling the roles expected in given positions adequately, and by assuming important roles necessary to maintain family life and family relationships such as organizing, coordinating, linking, solving problems, controlling information, and making decisions. For this reason, positional power needs to be measured by measuring the extent to which an individual is actually fulfilling the given roles, and thus the person is needed and valued in the given positions due to one's ability or authority as an expert, or as an important position holder within the household.

E. Measurement of Division of Household Labor

Division of household labor has been frequently examined as a way of measuring the extent of changes in family roles and structure occurring within an individual household, and at the same time, predicting the impact of wives' employment on the well-being of dual-career couples. Empirical research, which adopted a time budget methodology, reported that wives' employment has little impact on husbands' time contribution to family tasks (Walker & Wood, 1976), while more recent research reported that a clear trend exists for equal sharing of tasks (Pleck, 1979; Bird, Bird & Scruggs, 1984). These inconsistent results concerning division of household labor come from the wide variation of research design, especially with respect to the way in which division of labor is operationalized (Warner, 1986). Warner (1986) also pointed out that the most important methodology decision is how division of household labor will be operationally defined.

Depending on the operational definition, division of labor is measured in different ways: relative responsibility of each spouse for housework (Warner, 1986); degree of sexual division of domestic tasks (Blood & Wolfe, 1960); amount of time

spent on household labor by each spouse using time budget methodology (Walker & Wood, 1976; Pleck, 1979). The relative distribution method, the most frequently used method for measuring household division of labor, has been measured by asking each spouse the relative responsibility for particular tasks, by using response categories such as "husband always, equally, husband less". However, this method was criticized in that it gives equal weight to the each task, although each task takes varying amounts of time to perform (Warner, 1986). This proportional or relative method does not provide data about the absolute amount of work either spouse performs alone because estimates of each spouse's contribution to domestic labor are confounded by the contribution of the other spouse (Shehan & Lee, 1990). For instance, an apparent increase in husband's proportional share of housework is not due to increased contribution by the husband, but instead to decreased involvement in housework on the part of employed wives (Bird, Bird & Scruggs, 1984). On the other hand, Ross (1987) pointed out that the relative contribution of each spouse for housework has less variation, and therefore, it is not an adequate method of measuring division of household labor. Quarm (1981) also pointed out that relative measures are open to criticism in that they produce substantial discrepancies in responses of husbands and wives due to ambiguous questions which each spouse may interpret differently or due to the complexity of behavior being asked about.

Due to these shortcomings of proportional measures, time use measures developed in the mid-1970s were used to measure the absolute amount of time spent for performing each task. These time use measures have advantages in that they attempt to avoid marital confounding problems inherent in proportional measures, or they allow for reconstruction of proportional estimates, if desired (Shehan & Lee, 1990). However, this method may vary in adequacy depending on time period selected or is more expensive and time consuming (Warner, 1986).

Pointing out that there will be a trade-off among different approaches for measuring household division of labor, Warner (1986) compared 4 methods (relative distribution, weighted relative distribution, absolute time reconstruction and activity log). Warner found that all these approaches showed similar results in his study, and emphasized that researchers need to be aware that differences in measurement techniques may produce substantial differences in results.

Despite the advantages of time use measures, in this present study, time use methodology will not be used due to the limitation of time and funds. Considering that Warner's (1986) empirical findings showed that all four approaches yielded similar results, the relative distribution of division of labor seems an appropriate method for this study under the circumstances in which time and funds are not enough. The level of division of household labor will be measured by asking the relative extent to which each spouse performs each task within the household.

F. Measurement of Role Conflict

The previous studies on role conflicts experienced by dual-career couples have focused on multiple role conflict, that is, inter-role conflict arising from conflicts between multiple role demands. The major purpose of the investigation of multiple role conflict is to examine the impact of multiple role conflict on the psychological well-being of dual-career couples, and their marital relationship (Hohahan, Gilbert, 1979; Hall & Gordon, 1973), and to explore the possible workplace service and other social interventions to help dual-career couples cope with problems or difficulties they face in the process of balancing work and family roles (Marlow, 1993; Sekaran, 1986).

Holahan and Gilbert (1979) compared the inter-role conflict between career women and non-career women. They developed a six role conflict scale to measure the extent of role conflict between pairs of four major life roles such as worker, spouse,

parent, and self as self-actualizing person. They found that the job group reported more role conflict on all 6 scales and less life satisfaction from each role. The results of their study implies the possibility that women in the job group may be less willing to relinquish the responsibility or associated rewards of their roles as wives and mothers (Holahan & Gilbert, 1979). Holahan and Gilbert (1979) concluded that such a high degree of "role expansion," which refers to women's effort to meet all role demands through their role enactment, would be very difficult to maintain, and would probably result in increased conflict because a decrease in activities performed for personal benefits leads to their greater conflict in self-role and their lessened satisfaction for self-role. Holahan and Gilbert (1979)'s study allows a separation in the degree of role conflict each spouse experiences between each pairs of roles. Also, it provided an insight into understanding the interrelationship between inter-role conflict and self-role conflict. Other researchers also measured inter-role conflict by measuring the extent of conflict that dual-career couples experience in attempting to meet multiple role demands (Parry & Warr, 1980; Pendleton et al., 1980; Sekaran, 1986). In this study, global inter-role conflict measures will be used to measure the extent of global impact of inter-role conflict.

As Holahan and Gilbert (1979)'s study suggested, inter-role conflict needs to be examined in relation to intra-role conflict (or self-role conflict) arising due to conflicting perceptions on self-role expectations. Due to the paucity of empirical studies in this area, few methodology measuring intra-role conflict (or self-role conflict) are found.

Based on the assumption that the highly sex-typed individual is motivated to keep one's behavior consistent with an internalized sex-role standard, Bem (1974) measured the psychological androgyny using Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). In empirical research, Bem and Lenney (1976) tested a hypothesis that cross-sex behavior is motivationally problematic for the sex-typed individual, and they actively avoid it as a result. They also

found that the sex-typed individual is more likely to prefer sex appropriate activity and to resist sex-inappropriate activity even in a situation where many of the more obvious barriers to cross-sex activity have been removed. This finding suggests that the more sex-typed individual will experience more intra-role conflict in the dual-career situation which is likely to require cross-sex behavior for flexible role performance.

For this reason, the extent of discomfort experienced by an individual in modifying traditional sex roles into more androgynous ones in order to accommodate the dual-career family life needs to be measured for intra-role conflict. Therefore, measurements for intra-role conflict which actually measure the extent of self-identity conflict experienced by an individual when asked to perform cross-sex roles need to be developed for future studies.

G. Measurement of Marital Satisfaction

Marital relationship has been most frequently studied in order to provide a measure of a couple's psychological well-being, or marital success or stability. However, previous studies on marital relations have been criticized due to definitional ambiguity and lack of a sound theoretical foundation (Spanier & Lewis, 1980), confusion of unit of analysis (Glen et al., 1978), conservative ideology (Hawkins, 1966), or problem of dimensionality (Sabatelli, 1988; cited in Chung, Hyun-Sook, 1990). Laws (1971) also criticized previous literature on marital satisfaction in that studies on marital satisfaction prior to 1960 have been confounded by stability frequently used as a proxy for marital success, which, in fact, is not hypothesis, but an ideology.

As "companionate marriage" was emerging as the dominant form of marriage in the U.S., the focus of studies of marital satisfaction had been on the evaluation of marital success by identifying and exploring a broad range of sociodemographic and psychological correlates (Laws, 1971; Snyder, 1979), and developing global measures of marital satisfaction which predict marital success such as Locke & Wallace Marital Satisfaction

Scale. However, these scales were criticized due to low correlation between a husband and wife, which suggested that these scales assessed not the marital relation itself, but rather, individual adjustment to that relationship (Spanier, 1972; Snyder, 1979).

Furthermore, these earlier studies were criticized in that their focus had been on general investigation of marriage through global measures without focusing on a particular area or dimension of marital interaction (Snyder, 1979). All these criticisms reflect low validity of marital satisfaction measures deriving from ambiguity of defining the construct or identifying the dimensions of marital satisfaction.

Pointing out that global measures, the most widely used technique, fail to provide a comparative assessment of different dimensions of marital interaction, Snyder (1979) attempted to delineate the underlying dimensions of marital interactions by developing a comprehensive multidimensional measure which permits simultaneous assessment of a broad range of dimensions in marriage as they relate to global marital satisfaction. As a result, Snyder developed a 280 item Marital Satisfaction Inventory (1983) including 1 validity scale, 1 global affect scale, and 9 scales focusing on a specific area of marital interaction such as affective communication, problem-solving communication, time together, disagreement about finance, sexual dissatisfaction, role orientation, family history of distress, dissatisfaction with children, and conflict over childrearing (Snyder, 1979).

However, these multidimensional scales have also been criticized because high correlation between marital satisfaction inventory (MSI) and subdimensions of global distress scale reveals the fact that dimensions of MSI are contaminated, and there is little evidence for the unique dimensionality of the scale (Sabatelli, 1988; cited in Chung, Hyun-Sook, 1990). Additionally, this multidimensional approach is criticized due to its tautology which occurs when items, which tap essentially the same content, are used in

both independent and dependent variable operationalization (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987; cited in Chung, Hyun-Sook, 1990). This overlap in item content reflects an overlap of definition of construct which reveals definitional ambiguity (Chung, Hyun-Sook, 1990). Laws (1971) also pointed out that a great deal of methodological shortcoming are derived from these substantial overlaps in methods.

For these reasons, a clear definition of marital satisfaction is necessary to measure what is supposed to measure. Hawkins' (1968) definition is useful for this purpose as he defined marital satisfaction as "subjective feelings of unhappiness, satisfaction, and pleasure experienced by a spouse when considering all current aspect of one's marriage." Following Olson et al.(1983), who assert that marital satisfaction is the primary outcome variable which reflect the mood and happiness of general family functioning, the unidimensional factor comprising global evaluation of the marital relationship is appropriate in determining the subjectively experienced relationship (Chung, Hyun-Sook, 1990).

For this study, which attempts to determine the impact of power structure, division of labor, and role conflict on marital satisfaction, unidimensional approach is more appropriate than multidimensional measures because many of the subdimensional factors of multidimensional measures are conceptualized as causal factors of marital satisfaction in this present research model. Therefore, this research will use an unidimensional scale of marital satisfaction in order to measure marital satisfaction as the outcome variable which reflects general marital relations. In this study, a Marital Satisfaction Scale developed by Lee (1978) (Cited in Shoun, 1981) will be used because this scale asks directly about satisfaction with marriage, and avoids value judgement on marital relationship.

H. Measurement of Stress

In previous studies, three general stress theories were found: 1) response-based approach (physiological level of stress analysis); 2) stimulus-based approach (social level of stress) ; and 3) interaction-oriented approach (psychological level of stress). In stimulus-based approach, stress is conceptualized as life events or situations in environment which are stressful and lead to destructive physical and mental consequences (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This approach focuses measurement efforts on the characteristics of an individual's environment (e.g. life events, external/internal noxious condition) and utilizes the instrument that will accurately reflect the cumulative environmental stress (Derogatis, 1982). This stimulus-oriented approach is not appropriate to study stress experienced by dual-career couples due to overload or inter-role conflicts because this approach fails to recognize the important role of daily hassles or chronic stress, which are the major sources of stress dual-career couples experience in everyday life.

In the response-oriented theory, stress is defined as "nonspecific responses of the body to any demand made upon it" (Selye, 1985). Given that definition, the response of an individual to events of an environment is treated as defining presence of stress (Derogatis, 1982). This response-oriented model uses psychological assessment, psychological symptom inventories, scales measuring negative affect and mood, or general psychological adjustment as stress measures (Derogatis, 1982). Also, this approach focuses on measuring physiological symptoms which generated due to exposure to frequent, recurring or prolonged stressor (Selye, 1985). Selye (1985) pointed out that due to the body's failure to fight stressors, diseases are resulting such as peptic ulcers, high blood pressure, heart problems, and nervous disturbances. Therefore, stress-induced physical health outcomes are frequently measured by response-oriented theorists (Cox,

1978). This response-oriented approach seems useful to investigate the physical health outcomes caused by repeated and chronic stressors that are built into the fabric of daily life (Pearlin, 1982) deriving from role strains, or inter-role conflict among dual-career couples.

The interaction-oriented approach emphasizes the characteristics of the organism as major mediating mechanisms between stimulus of environment and the responses they invoke (Derogatis, 1982). Therefore, the ongoing relationship between the person's adaptive mechanisms and stimulus as property of the environment is central to the definition of stress for this approach (Derogatis, 1982). However, these theorists have not provided a strong impetus for a new development in stress measures because the measurement of a system in dynamic process is psychometrically difficult (Derogatis, 1982). This model provides a useful framework to investigate the interrelationship between power, division of household labor, role conflict, and stress-formation in that it views that personal and environmental factors interact constantly in the process of cognitive appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In this study, physical or psychological symptoms are conceptualized as stress experienced by dual-career couples, deriving from complex interplay among the causal factors such as power, division of labor, role conflict. Therefore, the measurement focusing on the outcome of stress will be used, rather than the measurement which delineates the process of stress based on an interactional approach. For this purpose, Langner's symptom scale will be used. Since it measures only mild form of distress, while it does not seek to measure mental illness (Seiler, 1973; Cited in Horwitz, 1982), it is more appropriate to measure the degree of psychological symptoms among the community population such as dual-career couples. Langner's scale has been criticized because it does not measure an unidimension of symptom in that it contains two subscales of physical and psychological symptoms (Crandell & Dohrenwend,

1967; Cited in Horwitz, 1982). However, this scale can be useful for this study because physical symptoms as a response to chronic role strains, as well as psychological symptoms, the result of interactions between an individual's effort for coping and stressors resulting from role conflicts, can be measured as the life outcome simultaneously.

CHAPTER III

Development of Research Model

1. Discussions for Development of Hypothetical Research Model

In order to better understand the difficulties dual-career couples confront, there is a need to identify the factors which are most affected by the change in women's employment status, and which have great an impact on the married life and the well-being of dual-career couples. From the literature review, power structure, division of household labor, and role conflict were identified as the major variables which should be investigated to understand the dynamics within the dual-career families.

Through the review of previous literature, it was speculated that wives' increasing employment outside the home has brought about changes in existing power structure between men and women, and the changes in power structure may affect the division of household labor practiced withing dual-career households and couple's role conflict. Division of household labor directly affects role conflicts experienced by dual-career husbands and wives. Also, the power structure, division of household labor, and role conflicts all together impact the well-being of the individuals and the marriage life. However, in most previous studies, the relationships between role conflict, and marital satisfaction and stress, and the relationship between power structure and division of labor at home have been examined separately by different disciplines. Few studies combine these two interesting relationships in a theoretical model.

Therefore, a comprehensive model needs to be developed which integrates both directions of previous studies, and adds the new causal link between division of

household labor and role conflicts. Only this comprehensive theoretical framework, which explains the interrelationships among the power structure, division of household labor, role conflict, marital satisfaction, and stress, can explain the complex process of changes in power structure as well as changes in behavior and perceptions occurring among dual-career couples due to wives' employment.

A problem found in previous studies of power is that there is no consensus as to a definition of power. Different researchers define power in different ways using different terms "control," "control attempt," "authority," "influence," "dominance," and "decision-making" loosely or interchangeably (Beckman-Brindley and Tavormina, 1978; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970). As seen in this power-related terminology, previous researchers failed to distinguish power as an ability to influence, and power as an actual behavior which exercises the ability. In previous studies, power which is an actual exercise of ability (e.g. decision-making power) was measured as a "dependent variable," while the ability to influence based on economic resources or authority (legitimate or referent power) were used as "independent variables." However, some researchers confusingly used "power" to indicate both dimensions of power.

In order to avoid this confusion, there is a need to differentiate the domains of power. In this regard, Olson and Cromwell's (1975) conceptualization of power as having three domains (base, process, and outcome) is useful. Olson and Cromwell (1975) viewed the "bases" of power as "resources" which may increase one's ability to exercise control in a given situation. Olson and Cromwell (1975) viewed that the "process" reflects the dynamics in which an individual utilizes the resources to achieve the "intended effects," and that the "outcome of power" is the "intended effects" which were achieved by utilizing the resources (Cited in Scanzoni, 1979). According to Olson and Cromwell's (1975) classification of power, this study differentiated two different domains of power:

power as the bases (resources) used to achieve the "intended effects," and power as the outcome which can be observed in the actual behavioral results. In this particular study, which attempts to examine the impact of changes in power structure on family role sharing and role conflict, the division of household labor is seen as a more relevant construct to measure the consequences of changes in the power structure. Since the four bases of power comprise the power structure in marriage which determines the division of labor, the underlying power structure is operationalized as the bases of power. Therefore, in this study, division of household labor represents the outcome of the power, while the power structure consisted of the four kinds of the power as the "bases" of power, in order to examine the causal link between them empirically.

From the review of the previous literature, economic resources, and sex-role ideology (cultural norms and definitions) are identified as the major components of the power structure which affect division of household labor. In order to examine the impact of family power structure on the division of household labor, economic resources and sex-role ideology needs to be conceptualized as two bases of power. In this study, economic resources obtained through paid work outside is conceptualized as "resource power" which can be used as a base of power to increase one's ability to influence role-sharing between the spouses.

As another base of power, sex role ideology was conceptualized as "definitional power." "Definitional power" was first introduced by Chafetz (1991) who defined "definitional power" as an ability of a person and group to impose values, norms, standards of judgment, and situational definitions on others. Since the gender norms, ideologies, and gender stereotyping in a given society are reflected in the social definitions imposed upon people (Chafetz, 1991), sex-role orientations are conceptualized as "definitional power." In a gender-stratified society, males have the power to define

themselves, and their own right, and privileges. Moreover, because men have greater economic power, they can impose social definitions upon females, to justify their treatment of females and female disadvantages in the society (Chafetz, 1991). Therefore, definitional power is a source of power among males by which they impose social definitions to justify their positions and legitimize the advantages that accrue to their own sex (Chafetz, 1991), and to keep the inferior counterpart at "their places." However, male definitional power which imposes unfavorable definitions upon females is a "constraint" for women because females have no equivalent definitional power to challenge male definitional power. As the social definitions which define benefits and disadvantages differently for males and females, definitional power will have a differential impact on division of household labor for males and females.

In addition to these two socio-economic bases of power, two relational bases of power are included in this study. Personal power is conceptualized as the base of power which might be used to increase one's ability to influence another by making oneself needed, loved, and valued in the personal relationship, through meeting the emotional and affective needs of the spouse. Positional power is conceptualized as another source of relational power which an individual acquires by making oneself deeply involved in one's given family roles, or by fulfilling responsibilities in important roles which are indispensable for maintaining family life.

For the purpose of examining the impact of power on the division of labor, all relevant dimensions of family power structure were explored in this study. Therefore, four dimensions of power (resource power, definitional power, personal power, and positional power) are conceptualized as the bases of power which will determine the outcome of power, that is, the division of household labor.

In the previous studies, the concept of role conflict has been used in confusion. Divergent role conceptions held by the same individual, inconsistencies between role conception and actual behavior, and incompatible role behavior have been used to describe the concept of role conflict without differentiation of different kinds of role conflict (Poloma, 1972). For this reason, in this study, two different dimensions of role conflict was delineated : 1) "Intra-role conflict" arises due to conflicting role expectations, deriving from the discrepancies between the learned sex roles through socialization, and a more androgynous ones expected in the dual-career situations; and 2) "Inter-role conflict" arises due to the incompatible role demands between work and family roles.

As discussed in the literature review section, changes in power structure may indirectly affect these two different role conflicts through the division of household labor. The changes in the power structure and division of household labor have differential impacts on these two role conflicts for males and females. For instance, dual-career wives who gain economic resources through their paid work outside, might expect more equal division of labor. But, when their husbands do not share the housework, they are likely to experience severe inter-role conflict due to incompatible role demands and role overload. In contrast, their husbands whose self-esteem may be undermined due to increasing economic power of their wives, are likely to resist changing family roles, and to experience severe intra-role conflict due to the discrepancy between their learned gender roles and roles they are expected to learn in the dual-career situation. Also, the power structure consisting of 4 different bases of power, the division of household labor, and two different types of role conflict may affect the stress level and marital satisfaction of the dual-career husbands and wives. All these relations were speculated, but have not been empirically tested.

In order to test the complex interrelationships among these variables of interest, a theoretical research model was developed in this study. The following relationships will be explained by this research model.

- 1) Four bases of power directly affect division of household labor as well as two different types of role conflict.
- 2) Four bases of power directly affect marital satisfaction and stress.
- 3) Division of household labor directly affects two types of role conflict.
- 4) Division of household labor and two types of role conflict directly affect marital satisfaction and stress.
- 5) Marital satisfaction directly affects stress.

2. Hypotheses for Research Model

The expectations about the interrelationships among the 9 variables of interest have been posited in the following 30 hypotheses (See Figure 1).

1. Greater resource power will be associated with less share of household labor.
2. Greater resource power will be associated with lower level of intra-role conflict.
3. Greater resource power will be associated with lower level of inter-role conflict.
4. Greater resource power will be associated with higher level of marital satisfaction.
5. Greater resource power will be associated with lower level of stress.
- 6.1 For husbands, more traditional definitions of sex-roles will be associated with less share of household labor.
- 6.2 For wives, more traditional definitions of sex-roles will be associated with greater share of household labor.

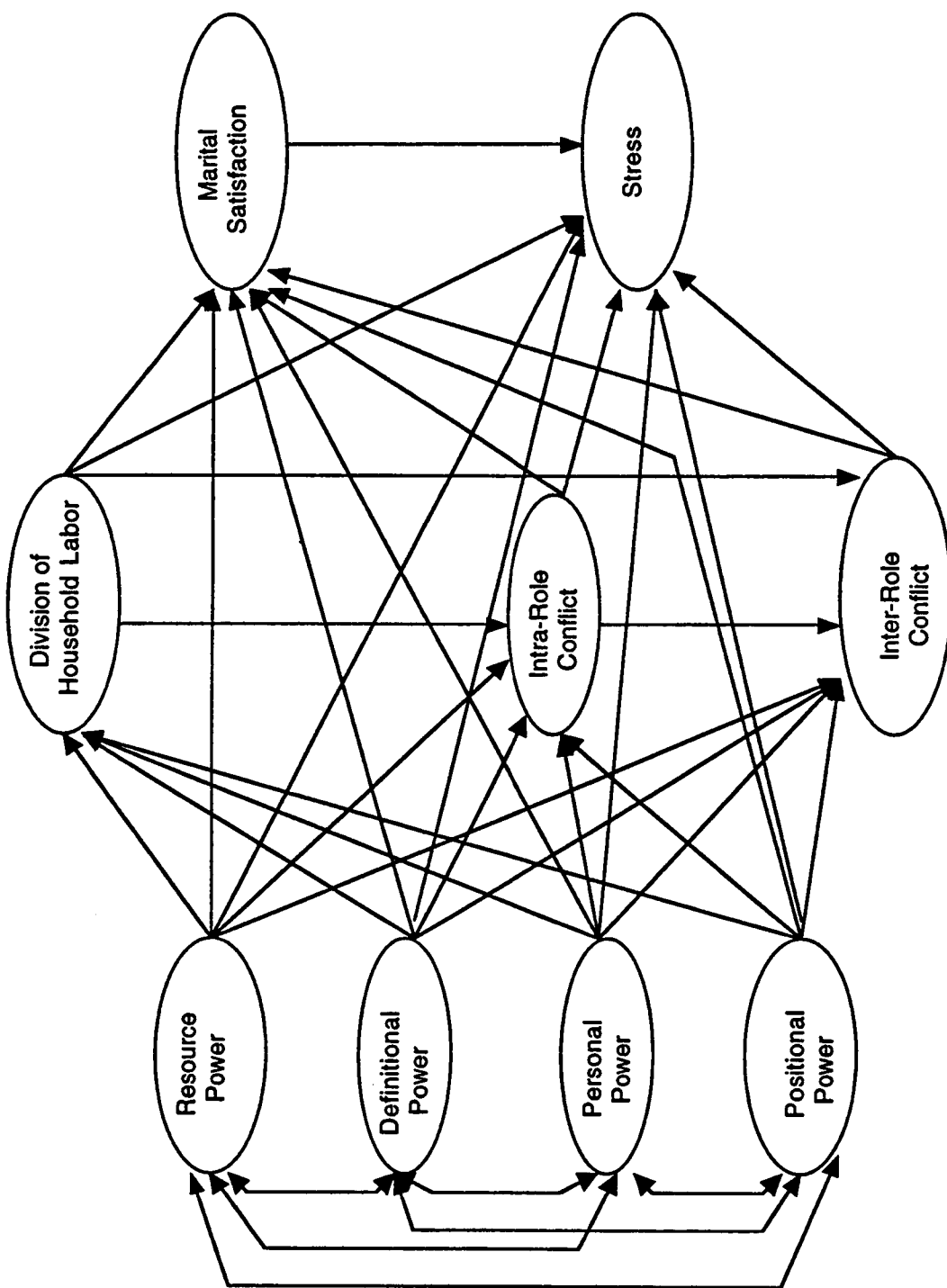


Figure 1. Hypothesized Research Model

7. More traditional sex-role definition will be associated with higher level of intra-role conflict.
- 8.1 For husbands, more traditional definitions of sex-roles will be associated with lower level of inter-role conflict.
- 8.2 For wives, more traditional definitions of sex-roles will be associated with higher level of inter-role conflict.
9. More traditional sex-role definitions will be associated with lower level of marital satisfaction.
10. More traditional sex-role definitions will be associated with higher level of stress.
11. Greater personal power will be associated with less share of household labor.
12. Greater personal power will be associated with lower level of intra-role conflict.
13. Greater personal power will be associated with lower level of inter-role conflict.
14. Greater personal power will be associated with higher level of marital satisfaction.
15. Greater personal power will be associated with lower level of stress.
16. Greater positional power will be associated with greater share of household labor.
17. Greater positional power will be associated with lower level of intra-role conflict.
18. Greater positional power will be associated with higher level of inter-role conflict.
19. Greater positional power will be associated with higher level of marital satisfaction.
20. Greater positional power will be associated with lower level of stress.
- 21.1 For husbands, greater share of household labor will be associated with lower level of intra-role conflict.
- 21.2 For wives, greater share of household labor will be associated with higher level of intra-role conflict.

22. Greater share of household labor will be associated with higher level of inter-role conflict.
- 23.1 For husbands, greater share of household labor will be associated with higher level of marital satisfaction.
- 23.2 For wives, greater share of household labor will be associated with lower level of marital satisfaction.
24. Greater share of household labor will be associated with higher level of stress.
25. Greater intra-role conflict will be associated with higher level of inter-role conflict.
26. Greater intra-role conflict will be associated with lower level of marital satisfaction.
27. Greater intra-role conflict will be associated with higher level of stress.
28. Greater inter-role conflict will be associated with lower level of marital satisfaction.
29. Greater inter-role conflict will be associated with higher level of stress.
30. Greater marital satisfaction will be associated with lower level of stress.

3. Definitions

1. "Resource power" refers to the economic resources (earnings) which an individual obtains through gainful employment outside the home.
2. "Definitional power" refers to the ability of a person or a gender group to impose values, norms, standards of judgment, and situational definitions upon the member of the other gender group based on gender norms and ideologies.

3. "Personal power" is a type of relational power which an individual acquires by making oneself needed, loved, and valued in the personal relationship with the other by meeting affective and expressive needs of the other.
4. "Positional power" refers to a relational power which an individual acquires by assuming the important roles in given positions which are indispensable for maintaining family life.
5. "Division of household labor" refers to the extent to which an individual assumes the responsibility for domestic tasks within the household.
6. "Intra-role conflict" refers to the degree to which an individual experiences "felt difficulties" in performing roles due to conflicting role expectations, derived from the discrepancies between learned gender roles through socialization, and more androgynous ones expected in the dual-career situation.
7. "Inter-role conflict" refers to the degree to which an individual experiences work-family interferences due to the competing role demands between work and family roles.
8. "Marital satisfaction" refers to the degree to which an individual is satisfied with one's marriage and the marital relationship with one's spouse.
9. "Stress" refers to the degree to which an individual experiences physical and psychological symptoms as a response to repeated and chronic stressors such as overload and daily hassles, or to psychological strains deriving from feeling of inequity, anxiety, feeling of lack of control, or guilt.

CHAPTER IV

Methodology

This chapter is comprised of four sections. Research design was described in the first section. The criteria of subjects, sampling procedure and the outcome of sampling were described in the second section. In the third section, the characteristics of the subjects were summarized. In the last section, the process of development of the instrument, and the measures of each variable were presented.

1. Research Design

In order to understand the complex process of how wives' employment affects dual-career family life and marital relationship, dual-career couple's attitudes and beliefs about family roles, their perceptions of the difficulties they face in dual-career situation, and their actual role-sharing behaviors need to be explored. A survey design was used in order to explore dual-career couple's attitudes, perceptions and behaviors, which seem to be necessary to understand the interrelationships among the power structure, division of household labor, role conflict, marital satisfaction and stress.

Since power structure and sex-role ideology, which began to change with wives' increasing employment, have been socially constructed for a long period of time, the changes in power structure and gender relations have been taking place very slowly. The longitudinal study would be profitable in determining the effect of power structure on couple's role-sharing behavior, role conflict and marital relationship over time. However, due to time constraint and limitation of funds, this study adopted a cross-sectional survey

design which determines the interrelationships of the variables at the time of the survey by collecting data at only one point of time (Babbie, 1990).

In that dual-career husbands and wives differ in power which they have, perceptions of their family roles, and "felt difficulties" in combining family roles and work, dual-career family life may be quite differently experienced by husbands and wives. To explore the gender differences in dual-career family life, "gender-specific" models were separately developed for males and females for comparison.

2. Sample

A. Criteria of Subjects

The population of this study are the husbands and wives in dual-career families in which both spouses are pursuing careers which require a high degree of commitment and have a developmental sequence (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971).

The survey population from which the survey sample is actually drawn was narrowly defined as dual-career husbands and wives who are employed full-time in professional or managerial occupations as well as white collar jobs, and are currently living together, and have children. Because dual-career husbands and wives living together and having children are more likely to feel the necessity of reallocating household tasks and to experience more severe role conflict than the others, this study controlled the living situation (currently living together) and the presence of children in such a way to include only dual-career couples who are currently living together and have children within their households. Subjects were selected from Korean dual-career husbands and wives who live in Seoul, Korea .

B. Sampling Procedure

The subjects were selected by nonrandom sampling due to the constraints of time, resources, and lack of an exhaustive listing of Korean dual-career families. Since it was difficult to locate the dual-career couples living in Seoul, Korea, who fit to the criteria of the subjects, the sample was selected purposively on the basis of the researcher's own knowledge of the representation of the population (Babbie, 1990). At first, the most representative occupations in which large populations of dual-career wives are employed were identified. Then, diverse work settings which include these occupations were identified as sampling units. As a result of an effort made to obtain the representation of Korean dual-career couples living in Seoul, a list of 20 work settings in which large populations of dual-career wives in diverse professions might be identified was compiled (See Table 1).

Within these work settings, a listing of professors, teachers, physicians, nurses, reporters, researcher, managers, and designers, etc. who are married and employed full-time were obtained through the personal network of the researcher, or through the cooperation from the representatives of several workplaces. Prior to conducting the survey, "screening" questions were asked to each potential subject, through personal contact, in order to identify the eligible subjects, and to get oral consents from the subjects. The "screening" questions were as follows: 1) "Are you currently living with your spouse?" 2) "Do you have children in your household?" and 3) "Are you willing to participate in this survey?"

After identifying the potential subjects who were eligible and willing to participate, two packages of questionnaires, return envelope, and a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, the need for information for this issue, and its importance with the assurance of confidentiality were sent to the workplaces for 220 dual-career wives

who are eligible and provided oral consent in advance. Those dual-career wives were asked to give the other package to their husbands. The structured questionnaires were self-administered by the respondents at their home or workplaces. Upon completion, the instruments were collected by a person who volunteered to assume the responsibility of collecting instruments at each workplace. Follow-up telephone calls were made to each occupational clusters (work setting) 3 weeks after the questionnaires were distributed. The data collection from Korean subjects started in March and ended at the end of April of 1994.

C. Outcome of Sampling

Two hundred and twenty questionnaires were distributed into 20 work settings, and 191 pairs of Korean dual-career couples returned the questionnaires. The response rate was 86.81 percent. Through the voluntary participation, 191 pairs of Korean dual-career couples who are professors, teachers, physicians, nurses, dentists, reporters, social worker, researchers, designers and managers were selected as Korean subjects.

Table 1

The List of Work Settings used as Sampling Units

Types of work setting	Number of work setting
University	4
Middle high school	3
General hospital	2
Dentist of Pharmacist	2
Bank	1
Trading company	3
Social work agency	1
Research institute	1
Broad-casting agency & Magazines	3
Total	20

3. Description of Subjects

As the result of conducting the survey, 191 dual-career couples living in Seoul, Korea were selected as the subjects. The characteristics of the subjects were described as follows.

Age: Age distribution of female subjects ranged from 24 to 57. The mean age of female subjects was 33.25. The age of male subjects ranged from 26 to 63. The mean age of male respondents was 35.3. About sixty-four percent of male respondents, and 55 percent of female respondents are in their thirties.

Length of marriage: The length of marriage among Korean dual-career couples ranged from 1 month to 357 months (27.75 years). The mean length of marriage was 88.05 months (7.34 years).

Educational level: Among female respondents, 61.6 percent of the subjects graduated from college, 13.2 percent had a master's degree, and 15.8 percent of them had a Ph.D. degree. Among male respondents, 56.7 percent of the subjects graduated from college, 21.9 percent had a master's degree, and 18.2 percent of them had a Ph.D. degree.

Occupations: About 15 percent of male respondents, and 19.4 percent of female respondents have professional occupations such as professor, physician, attorney, architect, accountant, dentist, and pharmacist. While 22.5 percent of males work as managers or executives, only 6.8 percent of females work at the same position. More than one-third of the males (36.1 percent), and almost half of the females (46.6 percent) are employed in the middle-range managerial jobs or semi-professional occupations such as teacher, nurse, reporter, researcher, designer, social worker, engineer, etc. In white collar jobs, 22.5 percent of male and 23.6

percent of female are employed. Distribution of occupations between Korean dual-career husbands and wives was presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of Occupations between Korean Husbands and Wives

Occupations	Wives	Husbands
Professional	37	30
1) professor	34	16
2) physician	1	8
3) dentist	1	0
4) pharmacist	1	0
5) attorney	0	2
6) architect	0	2
7) accountant	0	2
Managerial/Executives	13	43
1) company executives/mangers	12	37
2) owner of business	1	6
Semi-professional or middle-range managerial	89	69
1) middle-range managerial	0	30
2) teacher	47	12
3) nurse	21	0
4) reporter	10	6
5) designer	5	1
6) researcher	2	15
7) social worker	3	2
8) engineer	1	2
9) preacher	0	1
White-collar salaried worker	45	43
1) banker	4	10
2) public officer	0	3
3) salaried worker	41	30
Technical or supportive	5	0
Missing	2	6
Total	191	191

Monthly income: Mean monthly income of female respondents was 1,396,000 Won (US\$ 1,745.00), while that of male respondents was 1,930,800 Won (US\$ 2,413.50) (See Table 3).

Assets: The average assets which female have was US\$ 2,017,375, while that of male was US\$ 2,934,625.

Working hours: Female respondents work, on average, 41.5 hours per week, whereas male respondents work 48.6 hours per week.

Family monthly income: The family monthly income of Korean dual-career households ranged from 1,200,000 Won (\$1,500) to 10,000,000 Won (\$12,500). The mean family monthly income was US\$ 4,172.30.

Family Type: Twenty-three percent of total Korean dual-career households in this study were "extended family", in which three generations live together (grandparents, parents, and children). About 20 percent of the Korean dual-career families in this study were "modified extended family", in which the couple with the children live in a separate house from the grandparents, but the couples and the grandparents are interdependent for financial and human resources. For instance, the couples provide the financial support for the grand parents, while grand parents provide the couple with emotional support and practical help such as child care or housekeeping. Fifty-seven percent of Korean subjects were "nuclear families," in which only the couple and children live in the house.

Number of children: The average number of children in Korean dual-career households in this study was 1.6.

Religion: About 59 percent of the female and 43.5 percent of the male subjects have religions. Among female respondents, 31 percent were Protestant, 18.8 percent

were catholic, and the rest were Buddhist. Among male respondents, 22.5 percent were Protestant, 14.7 percent were catholic, and 6.3 percent were Buddhist.

Table 3

General Demographic Characteristics of Korean Dual-Career Couples

	Female (N=191)		Male (N=191)	
	frequencies	percent	frequencies	percent
Occupation				
1) Professional	37	19.4	30	15.7
2) Managerial/Executives	13	6.8	43	22.5
3) Semi-professional/managerial	89	46.6	69	36.1
4) White collar salaried worker	45	23.6	43	22.5
5) Technical or supportive	5	2.6	0	0
6) Unknown	2	1	6	3.2
Education				
1) Completed high school	14	7.3	5	2.7
2) Some college	4	2.1	1	0.5
3) College graduate	117	61.6	106	56.7
4) Master's degree	25	13.2	41	21.9
5) Ph.D. degree	30	15.8	34	18.2
Income				
Less than \$1,000	12	6.3	0	0
\$ 1,000 to \$ 1,999	116	60.7	70	36.7
\$ 2,000 to \$ 2,999	46	24.1	69	36.1
\$ 3,000 to \$ 3,999	7	3.7	21	11
More than \$ 4,000	2	1	14	7.3
Unknown	8	4.2	17	8.9
Age				
Less than 20	0	0	0	0
20 to 29	57	29.8	29	15.2
30 to 39	105	55	122	63.9
40 to 49	20	10.5	29	15.2
50 to 59	4	2.1	5	2.6
Unknown	5	2.6	7	3.1
Mean age	33.25		35.29	
Mean monthly income	\$1,745		\$2,413.50	
Mean assets	\$2,017,375		\$2,934,625	
Working hours	41.5 hours /wk		48.6 hours / wk	
Number of children	1.6		1.6	
Length of marriage	88.05 months		88.05 months	

4. Data Collection

A. Instrument

A structured questionnaire was developed to investigate the interrelationships between the power structure, division of household labor, role conflicts, marital satisfaction and stress. The 9 page-long questionnaire (See Appendix) was composed of 9 scales as well as questions about general demographic information.

For this study, the structured questionnaire was prepared in two versions (Korean and English). A pre-test was conducted prior to the investigation in order to identify the items which were not clear in understanding and to measure the adequate time for completion. The English version of the questionnaires was pre-tested by one American professor in social work, and an American student. The original English version of each measure was translated into the Korean version by two bilingual social workers who have a master's degree in social work in the U.S. The items which they translated differently were discussed with the other two bilingual social work graduate students in order to obtain the accurate and adequate wording in the Korean version. After translation, the questionnaires in Korean version were pre-tested by two graduate students in Ph. D. programs, a Korean preacher, and two Korean newspaper reporters. A few suggestions on wording were reflected in the final version of the survey questionnaire.

B. Description of the Measures

a. Resource Power

The extent of the ability of influencing familial behaviors or decisions that each spouse obtain through his/her resources which has been brought into the marriage will be measured by 1 indicator (1 single score) in which higher score indicates the greater resource power of an individual. "Resource power" was measured by

asking the following question concerning the subject's personal annual income.

"What is your total annual income, including bonuses, overtime pay or commissions, before taxes and other deduction? Please do not include your spouse's income."

In Korean version of questionnaire, personal "monthly income" instead of "annual income" was asked because "monthly income" is easier for Korean population to answer.

b. Definitional Power

The degree to which an individual agrees with the social definitions of gender roles and appropriate family life style imposed by a given society based on traditional gender norms and prevailing family ideologies will be measured by 8 items in which a high score indicates a higher degree of conformity to social definitions imposed within a given cultural context. As a result of conducting cluster analysis of items for males and females, as well as calculating Cronbach's α , four items with low reliabilities were dropped from the original social definitional scale consisting of 12 items, which were used in the survey. These 8 items of the social definitional power scale were arranged in a four point ordinal format. The responses ranged from 1) "Strongly disagree," 2) "Disagree," 3) "Agree," and 4) "Strongly agree." Five items were positively stated. The three negative items (item 6, 7, and 8) were reversed for scoring.

These 8 items were parceled in order to measure 3 different dimensions of social definitions on "Women's Role," "Employment," and "Role-Sharing" within the household.

b.1. "Women's Role" is an item parcel which consists of 3 items selected from the social definition scale, with higher scores indicating more conservative definitions on women's role.

- 1) A woman can make no greater contribution to society than successfully rearing normal, well-adjusted children.
- 2) It is more important for a wife to be a good cook and

homemaker than to be an intelligent and interesting companion.

- 3) It is more important for a wife to help her husband's career than to have her own.

The Cronbach's α coefficient of this item-parcel consisting of 3 items in this study was .63 (α for male = .64; α for female = .57).

- b.2. "Wives' Employment" is an item parcel composed of 2 items selected from the social definitional power scale, with higher scores indicating more conservative definitions on wives' employment.

- 4) If a mother of young children works, it should be only when the family needs money.
- 5) A wife should give up her job if it inconveniences her husband and children.

The Cronbach's α coefficient of this item-parcel was .52 (α for male = .42; α for female = .43).

- b.3. "Role-Sharing" is another item parcel consisting of 3 items, with higher scores indicating more conservative definitions on role-sharing within the household.

- 6) If the wife works, the husband should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning and washing.
- 7) Marriage is a partnership in which wife and husband should share the economic responsibility of supporting the family.
- 8) A wife's opinion should have exactly the same weight upon important family decisions as the husband's.

The Cronbach's α coefficient of this item-parcel assessing the degree of willing to share household tasks and economic responsibility was .59 (α for male = .46; α for female = .38).

The social definition scale consisted of 8 items selected from different previous scales: Item 1 and item 8 were selected from Gump, J.P.'s (1972) Sex Role Attitudes Scale; Item 2 was chosen from Dunn, M.S.'s (1960) Marriage Role Expectation Inventory; Item 3 was from Mason, K.O.'s (1973) Sex Role Attitude Scales used for 4 U.S. sample Surveys; Items 4,5,6 were selected from Scanzoni, J.'s (1975) Sex Role Attitude Scale; and Item 7 was selected from Brogan, D. & Kutner, N.'s (1976) Sex-Role Orientation Scale.

Because these 8 items were selected from several different sources, information about previously established reliability is not available. The Cronbach's α coefficient of items which constitute the social definition scale in this study was .75 (α for male=.71; α for female=.65).

c. **Personal Power**

The degree to which a husband or wife acquires a relational power by making oneself needed and loved in the marital relationships by meeting the affective and expressive needs of the other spouse was measured by one indicator (a composite score) consisting of 3 items selected from relational power scale. Based on the results of cluster analysis and Cronbach's α , only 3 items were selected from the personal power scale consisting of 8 items.

- 1) My wife/husband needs emotional support and encouragement
when she/he has problems or in conflict with others.
- 2) Before making decisions, my wife/husband always consults
with me or asks for my opinion first.

- 3) My wife/husband is loyal and faithful to me because of our mutual love and strong emotional attachment.

Item 1 was adapted from Eggeman, Moxley, and Schumm's (1985) Marital Communication Inventory. Item 2 was modified by researcher based on Fleishman's (1953, 1957) Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire. Item 3 was developed by the researcher. These 3 items were arranged in a 4 point ordinal format. The responses ranged from 1) "Very unlikely," 2) "Unlikely," 3) "Likely," and 4) "Very likely" to happen to the individual in the relationship with his/her spouse. The higher score indicates the higher degree of personal power which the husband or wife has in the relationship with his/her spouse. The Cronbach's α coefficient of this sub-scale was .64 (α for male=.69; α for female=.60).

d. Positional Power

The power, which an individual acquires by assuming the important roles in the given positions which are indispensable to maintain family life, was measured by one indicator (a single composite score) consisting of 10 items selected from a relational power scale. From the original scale consisting of 11 items, which were used in the survey, one item was dropped due to the low reliability. The 10 items selected were ranged in a 4 point ordinal format. The response ranged from 1) "Very unlikely," 2) "Unlikely," 3) "Likely," and 4) "Very likely" to happen to her/his everyday family life. The higher score indicates higher degree of positional power which husband and wife has in their family relationship. The Cronbach's α coefficient of this sub-scale was .65 (α for male=.65; α for female=.67). These 10 items were designed to assess diverse dimensions of positional power, such as initiating, coordinating, decision-making, controlling information and expertizing.

- 1) When problems occur in our family, I usually take the

initiative for possible solutions.

- 2) When my spouse and children lack communications or have conflict, I become a mediator between them.
- 3) I try to maintain good relationships with our relatives and friends by frequent telephone calls or letters.
- 4) I coordinate the schedules of my spouse and my children in order to have family activities.
- 5) I usually assign tasks to my spouse in order to get things done within our family.
- 6) I decide whom we invite for dinner
- 7) I make the final decision about whether to buy a new house.
- 8) I know how my child is doing at school.
- 9) I stay informed about what is happening in my spouse's workplace.
- 10) I help my son or daughter go through physical and psychological changes and development (e.g. first menstruation).

Item 1 and item 5 were modified from Stogdill's (1963) Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII. Item 2, item 3, item 4, item 6, item 8 and item 10 were developed by the researcher. Item 7 was modified from Blood and Wolfe's (1960) Family Decision Making Scale. Item 9 was selected from Cammann et al.'s (1979) Supervision Scale included in Michigan Organization Assessment Questionnaire.

e. Division of Household Labor

The extent to which a husband or wife assumes the responsibility for the household tasks in everyday family life was measured by division of household labor scales, consisting of the 11 items, which include major household tasks and roles that

every dual-career couple might face in everyday life. From the original division of household labor scale consisting of 15 items, 4 items were dropped due to low reliability.

These 11 items were arranged in a 5 point ordinal format. The measure of Division of Household Labor was obtained by asking husband and wife to rate on a 5 point scale "who usually does the specific household task" on each of 11 items. The responses ranged from 1) "Wife always does," 2) "Wife usually does," 3) "Both equally do," 4) "Husband usually does," and 5) "Husband always does" the task. A higher score indicates a higher degree of husband's sharing of roles and housework (lower degree of wife's sharing of roles and tasks). For the case that both spouses do not perform the task, a sixth category, that is, "Other person does," was provided in such a way to specify the other person. The Cronbach's α coefficient of these 11 items in division of household labor scale was .82 (α for male=.81; α for female=.83).

These 11 items of household task scale were divided into 4 item parcels which represent 4 major dimensions of household tasks which are crucial to maintain everyday family life such as daily task, house maintenance, child care, and financing.

d.1. "Daily Tasks" is an item parcel consisting of 4 household tasks which assesses the degree to which dual-career husband and wife divide the daily tasks necessary to maintain their everyday family life.

- 1) grocery shopping
- 2) doing laundry
- 3) preparing meals
- 4) washing dishes

The Cronbach's α coefficient of these 4 items consisting of "Daily Tasks" was .77 (α for male=.77; α for female=.72).

d.2 "House Maintenance" is another item parcel consisting of 2 items which measure the degree of household labor necessary for house maintenance.

5) cleaning house

6) taking out garbage

The Cronbach's α coefficient of these 3 items consisting of "House Maintenance" was .71 (α for male=.70; α for female=.71).

d.3 "Child Care" is the third item parcel consisting of 3 items which assess the degree to which husband and wife share the child care responsibility within their household.

7) child care after work

8) taking children to their activities and appointment

9) socializing children

The Cronbach's α coefficient of the 3 items of "Child Care" was .65 (α for male=.66; α for female=.63).

d.4 "Financing" is the final item parcel consisting of 2 items which measures the degree to which the husband and wife share the responsibility for financial management within the household.

10) paying bills

11) budgeting & bookkeeping

The Cronbach's α coefficient for item parcel of "Financing" was .54 (α for male=.46; α for female=.62).

f. Intra-Role Conflict

The degree to which an individual experiences "felt difficulty" in performing roles due to conflicting perceptions on one's own role, which is derived from the discrepancies between gender roles which an individual has learned through socialization and more

androgynous ones which the individual should learn now to accommodate dual-career family life, was measured by a composite score consisting of 5 items. From the original scale used in the survey, one item was dropped due to low reliability. Five items of intra-role conflict were arranged in a 4 point ordinal format. The responses ranged from 1) "Very uncomfortable," 2) "Uncomfortable," 3) "Comfortable," and 4) "Very comfortable" for each situation illustrated. A low score indicates a higher degree of intra-role conflict about self. These 5 items were reversed in such a way that a high score indicates a greater degree of intra-role conflict. Five items for intra-role conflict were separately prepared for the husbands and wives because they need the different wording, and are partially different from each other, although they constitute the same scale.

f.1. Intra-Role Conflict (for Wife)

- 1) Being the major breadwinner
- 2) Not being able to keep my house in orders as well as I would want it to be.
- 3) Not being able to meet the needs of my husband due to the lack of time spent together.
- 4) If my job requires me to be away from home overnight.
- 5) If I can not take care of a sick child due to my work.

Item 1 was adapted from Osmond and Martin's (1975) Sex-Role Attitude Scale; Item 4 and item 5 were also adapted from Scanzoni's (1975) Sex-Role Attitude Scale; and Item 2 and item 3 were developed by the researcher. The Cronbach's α coefficient of this scale was .68.

f.2 Intra-Role Conflict (for Husband)

- 1) Not being the major breadwinner of the family.
- 2) Doing things such as laundry, cleaning & cooking which traditionally have been "women's work."

- 3) Taking some responsibility for household tasks in addition to my job.
- 4) Taking care of children, while my wife is away from home overnight due to work.
- 5) Stay home to take care of a sick child.

Item 1 was adapted from Osmond and Martin's (1975) Sex-Role Attitude Scale; Item 4 and item 5 were also adapted from Scanzoni's (1975) Sex-Role Attitude Scale which are originally developed measure sex-role attitudes; Item 2 was adapted from Dunn, M.S.'s (1960) Marriage role Expectation Inventory; Item 3 was developed by the researcher. The Cronbach's α coefficient of this scale was .70.

g. Inter-Role Conflict

The degree to which an individual experiences the work-family interference due to the competing demands between multiple roles when the individual attempts to simultaneously fulfill multiple roles such as spouse, parent and worker role was measured by 6 items. From the original scale of inter-role conflict used in the survey, one item was dropped due to low reliability. The 6 items were arranged in a 4 point ordinal format. The responses ranged from 1) "Very unlikely," 2) "Unlikely," 3) "Likely," and 4) "Very likely," with a high score indicating a greater degree of inter-role conflict. The Cronbach's α coefficient of these 6 items which constitute inter-role conflict was .76 (α for male=.73; α for female=.76). These 6 items were parceled in order to constitute 2 indicators which reflect 2 major dimensions of inter-role conflict.

g.1 Time Conflict

"Time Conflict" is measured by 3 items which assess the extent to which a husband or wife experiences time conflict due to conflicting demands between family roles and work or due to the shortage of time due to multi-role demands.

- 1) I cannot attend professional meetings, if they interfere with my family life.

- 2) I never seem to have enough time to do everything that is expected of me.
- 3) I have limited time for friends and social activities.

Item 1, item 2, and item 3 were modified or adapted from the scales of Pendleton et al (1980), Kanner et al. (1981), and Sekaran's (1986) Multiple Role Stress Scale respectively. The Cronbach's α coefficient of this item parcel consisting of 3 items was .70 (α for male=.66; α for female=.66).

g.2 Dual Role Conflict

"Dual Role Conflict" is an item parcel consisting of 3 items which measure the extent of dual role conflict that a husband or wife experiences due to conflicting demands of multiple roles between home and work.

- 4) When I am at work, I often worry about things concerning my home and children.
- 5) My career has suffered due to my responsibility as a spouse and a parent.
- 6) The demands of my family life make it difficult for me to concentrate at work.

Item 4, item 5 and item 6 were adapted from Parry & Warr's (1980) Interaction Strain Scale, Pendleton et al (1980), and Greenhaus et al. (1989) respectively. The Cronbach's α coefficient of this item parcel consisting of 3 items was .73 (α for male=.70; α for female=.76).

h. Marital Satisfaction

The degree to which an individual is satisfied with her/his marriage and marital relationship with his/her spouse was measured by 3 indicators (3 single scores) in which high score indicates greater degree of marital satisfaction. Three items were selected from the Marital Satisfaction Scale consisting of 5 items, developed by Lee (1978) (Used in Shoun, 1981) was used to measure the marital satisfaction.

- 1) How satisfied are you with the love and affection you receive from your spouse?
- 2) How satisfied are you with the amount of understanding of your problems and feelings that you receive from your spouse?
- 3) How satisfied are you with the amount of companionship you have such as doing things with your spouse?

These 3 items were arranged in 4 point ordinal format. The responses ranged from 1) "Very dissatisfied," 2) "Dissatisfied," 3) "Satisfied," and 4) "Very satisfied" with a higher score indicating greater marital satisfaction. The reliability of the original scale consisting of 5 items developed by Lee, assessed by Cronbach's alpha, was .90 for males, and .94 for females. In this study, the reliability of Marital Satisfaction Scale measured by 3 items among the Korean population, assessed by Cronbach's alpha, was .82 (α for male=.80; α for female=.83)

i. Stress

The degree to which an individual experiences psychological or physical symptoms as a response to repeated and chronic stressors such as overload, daily hassles, as well as the psychological strains deriving from the feeling of powerlessness, guilt, anxiety, and feeling of inequity, were measured by 18 items of a Stress scale developed by Langner (Used in Horwitz, 1982). Out of 21 items of the original scale used in the survey, 3 items were dropped due to the conspicuous gender differences in the responses. The 18 items were arranged in a 4 point ordinal format. The responses ranged from 1) "Never," 2) "Sometimes," 3) "Often," and 4) "Very often" experiences the each symptoms. A high score indicates a greater degree of stress. In this study, the α coefficient of the overall stress scale was .92 (α for male=.91; α for female=.93). These 18 items were parceled

into 2 indicators to measure the two different dimensions of stress: physical and psychological symptoms.

i.1 "Physical Stress" were measured by a composite score of 11 items which measure the extent of the physical symptoms an individual experiences.

- 1) poor appetite
- 2) feel weak
- 3) fainting spells
- 4) fullness in head
- 5) heart beats hard
- 6) shortness of breath
- 7) acid stomach or ulcer
- 8) cold sweats
- 9) worries get you down physically
- 10) frequent headaches
- 11) feel hot all over

The alpha coefficient for physical symptoms was .88 (α male=.88; α female=.88).

i.2 "Psychological Stress" were measured by a composite score of 7 items measuring the extent of the psychological symptoms an individual experiences.

- 1) couldn't get going
- 2) low spirits
- 3) restlessness
- 4) having been nervous
- 5) feeling apart from others
- 6) nothing turns out right
- 7) nothing seems worthwhile

The Cronbach's α coefficient for psychological symptoms was .88 (α male=.85; α female=.90).

j. General Information

A series of socio-demographic questions developed by the researcher was comprised of two parts, that is, general demographic information, and occupational and income level. Background information such as age, gender, length of marriage, education, religion, marital status, employment status, motivations for employment, working hours per week, number of children, type of child care, satisfaction with child care, type of family, and cycle of family were obtained by asking general background questions. Type of family and cycle of family were classified by the researcher based on the demographic information provided by the subjects. Occupational and income level were measured by asking the respondents questions regarding their annual personal income, family income, assets, occupation and status at workplace.

CHAPTER V

Data Analysis

1. Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis for this study is an individual, although this study aims to investigate the interrelationships of the variables of interest which might reflect the interaction between husband and wife in marital dyad. The "bases" of power an individual husband and wife can use to influence in the marital relationship may be different from each other, and this differential base of power will affect their behavior and perceptions on their family life and family interactions differently. These differential perceptions and behaviors shape spousal interactions which may affect the well-being of the spouses. Even though division of household labor, role conflict, marital satisfaction and stress may be affected by spousal interaction, these constructs are to be measured as an individual phenomenon in which an individual may experience differently from any one else in a given circumstance. For this reason, the unit of analysis in this study is an individual husband or wife of a dual-career family.

2. Procedure of Data Analysis

A. A *t*-test was done to compare the mean of each variable between the male and female groups in order to examine if these two groups are significantly different in each variable.

B. Cronbach's α was calculated to assess the reliability of each scale which measure each latent variable.

C. Covariance structure analysis (CSA) was used for data analysis in this study for the purpose of constructing and testing a theoretical model developed in this study to examine the interrelationships among power structure, division of household labor, intra- and inter-role conflict, marital satisfaction, and stress.

Covariance structure analysis (CSA) is a useful method for social scientists who seldom conduct experiments under controlled conditions because CSA enables researchers to examine the causal relations among a set of variables which are not directly observable through the statistical testing of causal models or hypotheses (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). Covariance structure analysis, which is a statistical approach integrating the previous statistical methods such as regression analysis, path analysis and factor analysis (Bollen, 1989) permits the estimation of the relationships between observed variables and hypothesized constructs, as well as the causal relationships among the latent variables simultaneously. CSA is superior to the other previous statistical analyses: It allows the researcher to statistically test the hypothetical models or theories by examine the structural relations among the latent variables; It is useful to validate measurement models or establish construct validity (Coverman, 1989) because it can control for measurement error, and correlated measurement errors; It also enables researchers to assess the overall effect by including indirect effects in the analysis (Bollen, 1989). Bollen (1989) pointed out that in typical regression analysis, regression coefficient is an estimate of direct effect of a variable, whereas the covariance structure analysis provides a means of estimating direct, indirect and total effects simultaneously. For these reasons, the use of CSA has been advocated by the researchers (Bentler, 1980; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989).

Since covariance structure analysis seems a useful tool to construct and test a theoretical model developed in this study, CSA was conducted for data analyses as the following sequence.

a. At the first stage, two confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were done. The first CFA examined the adequacy of the measurement model for family power structure consisting of 4 exogenous latent variables (resource power, definitional power, personal power, and positional power). The second CFA examined the adequacy of the measurement model of 5 endogenous latent variables (division of household labor, intra-role conflict, inter-role conflict, marital satisfaction, and stress).

b. At the next stage, covariance structure model, which specifies the causal relationships among the latent variables, was tested. First, the best-fitting model which has not only adequate fit for overall model but also specifies the causal structure among the variables of interest was selected by the structural sub-model comparison procedure. Within the given best models, the significant relationships between the latent variables were found by structural analysis. These best models were compared by gender.

For all these data analyses, covariance structure analysis (CSA) using LISREL approach developed by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1989) was used.

c. Three multi-sample analyses were done to test the invariance of two measurement models and a LISREL full model (saturated model) between male and female groups. For three multi-sample analyses, covariance structure modeling with LISREL (Linear Structural Relations) approach was conducted.

CHAPTER VI

Results

This chapter is divided into 3 sections. In the first section, the results of *t*-test were presented in order to test the significant differences of each variable between male and female groups. Cronbach's α of the scales and the indicators were summarized in the second section. In the third section, the results of covariance structure analysis (CSA) were presented.

1. The Results of *t*-test

Resource power measured by personal monthly income was significantly different between males and females in this study ($p = 0.000$): A wife's monthly income (1,396,000 Won) is significantly smaller than that of the husband's (1,930,800 Won). The husband's definitional power was significantly different from the wife's ($p = 0.000$): The husband (mean=19.86) holds more conservative definitions on women's role than does the wife (mean=16.10). In personal power, the husband and the wife were not significantly different ($p = 0.151$). The husband (mean=9.35) has a slightly more personal power than does the wife (mean=9.10). In positional power, the husband and the wife were significantly different ($p = 0.001$) in such a way that the wife (mean=27.38) has more positional power than does the husband (mean=25.84).

Division of household labor was not significantly different between the husband and the wife ($p = 0.057$) because the level of division of household labor is an objective observable behavior showing how they divide the family tasks rather than a subjective

perception. The husband and the wife in this sample provided insignificant, but slightly different responses concerning division of labor in favor of oneself: Wife's response indicates that the wife does more housework (mean=18.57), while the husband's response reveals that he tends to overestimate his division of family task (mean=20.13) than the wife estimates about his share. In any case, the wife assumes a disproportionate share of household tasks. By examining 4 different kinds of household tasks, the wife was found to do more housework for "Financing," "Child Care," "Daily Tasks" except "House Maintenance" than the husband in such a way that "Wife always does" or "Wife usually does." For house maintenance, the score of division of labor ranged from "Wife usually does" to "Both equally do." In general, in Korean dual-career families, the wife assumes the disproportionate share of household tasks, which reveals the "asymmetric division of household labor" (See Table 4).

Table 4

Division of Household Labor between Korean Dual-Career Husbands and Wives

	Husbands (mean)	Wives (mean)	p-value
Total Division of Labo	1.83	1.68	0.06
Daily Tasks	1.51	1.43	0.34
Financing	1.77	1.71	0.56
Child Care	2.09	2.01	0.28
House Maintenance	2.37	2.11	0.05

Note. The response categories for each item of division of household task scale were:

1="Wife always does", 2="Wife usually does," 3="Both equally do," 4="Husband usually does," and 5="Husband always does."

In intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict, the wife experiences significantly greater extents of intra- and inter-role conflict than does the husband ($p = 0.000$). With respect to stress, the wife experiences significantly greater physical stress and psychological stress than does the husband ($p < 0.013$). Marital satisfaction was not significantly different between the husband and the wife ($p = 0.118$).

In general, Korean dual-career wives and husbands were significantly different from each other except in personal power, division of household labor, and marital satisfaction.

2. Item Parceling and Cronbach's α

All the item parcels which serve as indicators of latent variables were created based on the empirical results (Cluster Analysis, EFA, and Cronbach's α), as well as the theory. At first, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was done to identify the possible factors within a given scale. Then, cluster analysis of the items were conducted separately for males and females in order to identify the common items which are not gender-biased. Based on the results of cluster analysis and EFA, items were clustered as factors which are used as indicators for each major latent variables of interest. After identifying equivalent items comprising each factor, which are common for both the male and female group, the reliability test was conducted for each factor which serves as an indicator for each latent variable (See Table 5).

Table 5

Cronbach's α of the Scales and Indicators

Latent Variables	Indicators	Male			Female		
		Mean	Std.	Alpha coefficient	Mean	Std.	Alpha coefficient
Definitional Power	scale	19.87	3.60	0.71	16.10	3.13	0.65
	women's role	7.82	1.90	0.64	6.91	1.75	0.57
	employment	5.52	1.29	0.42	4.33	1.31	0.43
	role-sharing	6.58	1.53	0.46	4.84	1.16	0.38
Personal Power	scale	9.35	1.65	0.69	9.10	1.70	0.60
Positional Power	scale	25.84	3.67	0.65	27.38	3.70	0.67
Division of Labor	scale	20.14	6.63	0.81	18.57	7.07	0.83
	daily tasks	6.01	2.74	0.77	5.73	2.97	0.72
	financing	3.53	1.80	0.46	3.42	1.91	0.62
	child care	6.27	2.04	0.66	6.02	1.99	0.63
	house maintenance	4.74	2.39	0.70	4.23	2.63	0.71
Intra-Role Conflict	scale	15.44	2.18	0.70	17.18	1.68	0.68
Inter-Role Conflict	scale	12.74	2.91	0.73	14.58	3.19	0.76
	dual-role conflict	5.99	1.67	0.70	6.51	1.82	0.76
	time conflict	6.74	1.82	0.66	8.06	1.94	0.66
Marital Satisfaction	scale	9.29	1.63	0.80	9.01	1.83	0.83
Stress	scale	28.83	7.48	0.91	31.66	8.73	0.93
	psychological	12.15	3.44	0.85	13.14	4.10	0.90
	physical	16.67	4.92	0.88	18.42	5.42	0.88

3. Test of Covariance Structure Model

For the analysis of covariance structure model consisting of structural model (latent variable model) and measurement model, the analysis was done by the two-step approach proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). The first step was to perform confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for two measurement models in order to test the relationships between the observed variables and latent variables (construct) hypothesized in the measurement model. At the next step, structural model for the latent variables was examined by covariance structure analysis (CSA): First, the structural sub-models were compared to find out the best-fitting model which has an adequate goodness-of-fit as well as from which meaningful causal inferences could be made about the relationships among the latent variables. Within the given male and female models selected as the best-fitting

models, the relationships between the latent variables were tested by the structural analysis using CSA.

Confirmatory factor analysis for two measurement models and covariance structure analysis for structural model were performed separately for male and female group in order to examine the gender differences.

A. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Measurement Models

a. CFA for Measurement Model for Power Structure

The first CFA examines the adequacy of the measurement model for four exogenous latent variables: Resource Power, Definitional Power, Personal Power, and Positional Power. The correlation matrix was used for estimation, and was analyzed. The Maximum Likelihood (ML) method was used for estimation. Resource Power, Personal Power and Positional Power were measured by only one indicator. For Definitional Power, three indicators were allowed to load freely. The variances of each latent variable were fixed at unity to identify the model. The four latent variables were allowed to correlate freely. The error terms for each of the measurement are assumed to be uncorrelated.

a.1 CFA for Male Measurement Model for Power Structure

The measurement model for Power Structure was tested for the male group separately. This model has a relatively good fit when judged by the criteria, $\chi^2=16.91$ ($df=6$, $n=122$, $p\text{-value}=0.010$), GFI=0.959, and CFI=0.858. Each factor loading was significant, suggesting that the indicators were representative of each latent variable. Four latent variables (four dimensions of Power) were identified (See Figure 2.1).

The correlations between Resource Power and Definitional Power, and Personal Power and Positional Power were significant: Resource Power is positively correlated

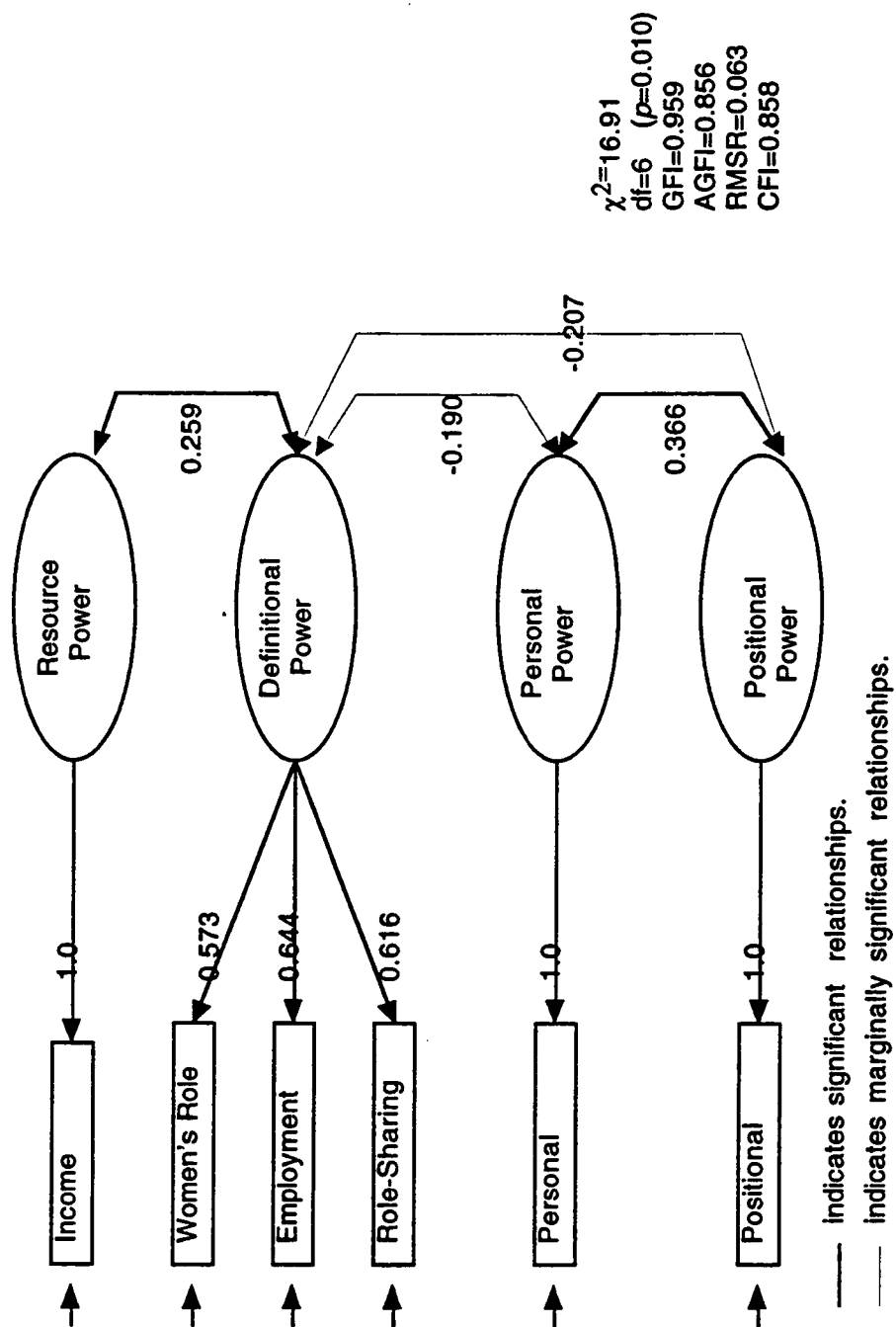


Figure 2.1 Male Measurement Model for Power Structure

with Definitional Power; Personal Power is also positively correlated with Positional Power. On the other hand, the correlations between Definitional Power and Personal Power, Definitional Power and Positional Power were marginally significant. Definitional Power was negatively correlated with Personal Power as well as Positional Power.

There were no within factor correlated residuals. Also, no pairs of cross factor correlated residuals were found. Additionally, there was no cross-factor loading.

a.2 CFA for Female Measurement Model for Power Structure

The female measurement model for Power Structure has a very good fit: $\chi^2=3.25$ ($df=6$, $n=128$, $p\text{-value}=0.777$), GFI=0.992, and CFI =1.00. Each factor loading was significant, suggesting that the indicators were representative of each latent variable. Four dimensions of power were identified (See Figure 2.2).

In contrast to the male measurement model for Power Structure, Resource Power and Definitional Power were not significantly correlated in this female model. Three significant correlations were found. The Personal Power and Positional Power were positively correlated, while Definitional Power and Personal Power, and Definitional Power and Positional Power were negatively correlated. There were no within factor correlated residuals. Also, no pairs of cross factor correlated residuals were found. Additionally, there was no cross-factor loading.

a.3 Multi-Sample Analysis of Measurement Model for Power Structure

For multi-sample analysis, correlation matrix, which was used in other covariance structure analysis, was replaced with the covariance matrix. Covariance matrix was used in testing for invariances across genders because χ^2 estimate is not accurate when correlation matrix is analyzing across independent samples (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989).

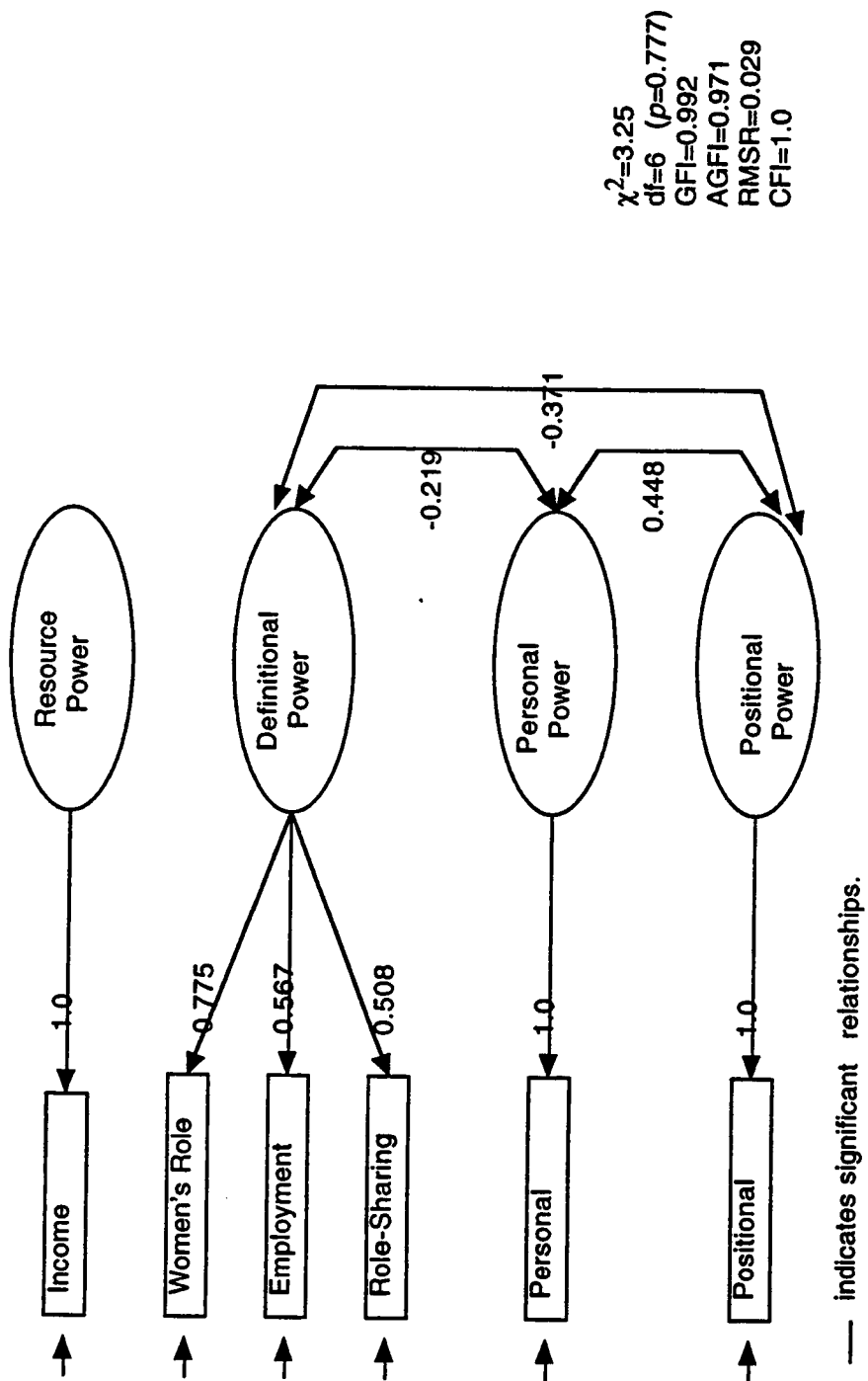


Figure 2.2 Female Measurement Model for Power Structure

The results of multi-sample analysis showed that the sample covariance structures of the male and female groups were significantly different. Therefore, the hypothesis assuming the invariance of sample covariance matrices across gender was rejected ($p = 0.000$). As seen in the Table 6, the number of common factors were not significantly different between male and female group. The p -values of this hypothesis was not significant (p -value was greater than 0.05). However, the pattern of the factor loading, the error variances, and the latent factor correlation matrices were significantly different in these two groups. All these results suggest that there were no significant

Table 6

Summary of Multi-Sample Analysis of Measurement Model for Power Structure

Number of Observation	Model	df	chi-square	P-value
Female=128, Male=122				
	Model1	36	214.97	0
	Model2	12	20.16	0.064
	Model3	14	23.97	0.046
	Model4	17	32.69	0.012
	Model5	27	57.1	0.001

Note. Model1 tests the hypothesis that the sample covariance matrix of males is equivalent to that of females. Model2 tests the hypothesis that the number of the common factors is invariant across genders. Model3 tests the hypothesis the pattern of factor loadings is invariant across genders. Model4 tests the invariance of the error across genders. Model 5 tests the hypothesis that the factor correlation matrix is invariant across genders.

differences in the number of common factors between 2 groups, but the pattern of the sample covariance matrix, the factor loadings, the error variances, and the factor correlation matrices were significantly different between male and female groups.

b. CFA for Measurement Model for Division of Household Labor, Intra-Role Conflict, Inter-Role Conflict, Marital Satisfaction, and Stress

The second CFA assessed the adequacy of the measurement model consisting of 5 latent variables: Division of Household Labor, Intra-Role Conflict, Inter-Role Conflict, Marital Satisfaction and Stress.

The correlation matrix was used for estimation, and was analyzed. The Maximum Likelihood (ML) method was used for estimation. Intra-Role Conflict was measured by only one indicator. The other eleven items were allowed to load freely within each factor. The variance of each latent variables were fixed at one, while the 5 latent variables were allowed to correlate freely.

b.1 CFA for Male Measurement Model for Division of Labor, Inter-Role-Conflicts, Inter-Role Conflict, Marital Satisfaction, and Stress

The CFA for the male measurement model of 5 endogenous variables constituted a very good fit to the data: $\chi^2=45.48$ ($df=45$, $n=135$, $p\text{-value}=0.452$), GFI=0.949, and CFI=0.999 (See Figure 3.1). Each factor loading was significant, suggesting that the items were indicative of each latent variable. Five latent variables (Division of Household Labor, Intra-Role Conflict, Inter-Role Conflict, Marital Satisfaction, and Stress) were identified. There were no within factor correlated residuals. Also, no pairs of cross factor correlated residuals were found. Additionally, there was no cross-factor loading.

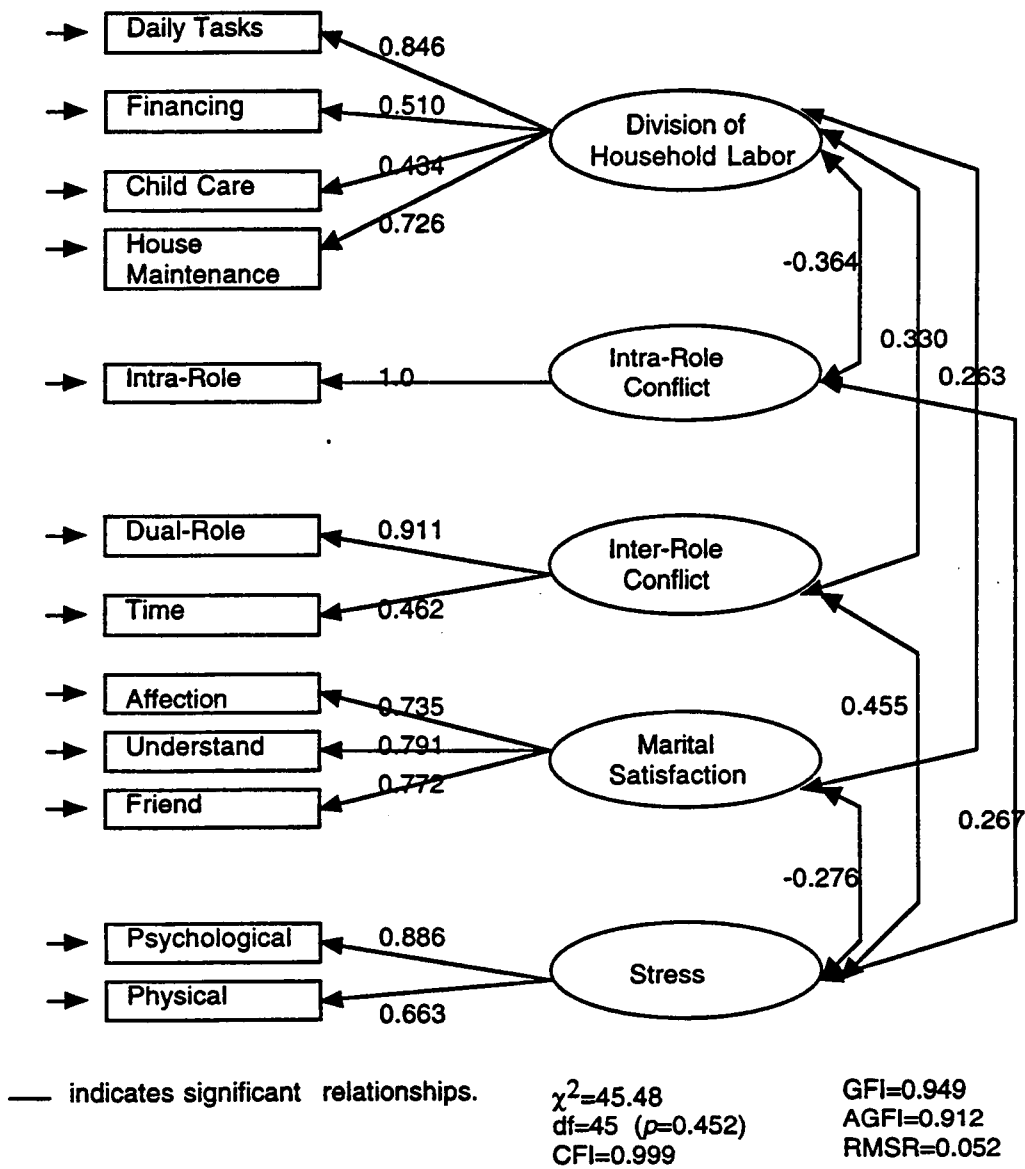


Figure 3.1 Male Measurement Model for Five Endogenous Variables

Six significant correlations among the 5 latent variables were found as follows.

- 1) The more the husband shares the housework, the less intra-role conflict he experiences.
- 2) The more the husband shares the housework, the more inter-role conflict he experiences.
- 3) The more the husband assumes the responsibility for household tasks, the more marital satisfaction he experiences.
- 4) The greater degree of intra-role conflict the husband experiences, the more stress he experiences.
- 5) The greater degree of inter-role conflict the husband experiences, the more stress he experiences.
- 6) The more marital satisfaction husband experiences, the less stress he experiences.

b.2 CFA for Female Measurement Model for Division of Household Labor,
Intra-Role-Conflicts, Inter-Role Conflict, Marital Satisfaction, and Stress

The CFA for the female measurement model for 5 endogenous variables has a very good fit: $\chi^2=56.40$ ($df=45$, $n=133$, $p\text{-value}=0.119$), $GFI=0.936$, and $CFI=0.972$ (See Figure 3.2). Each factor loading was significant. There were no within factor correlated residuals. Also, no pairs of cross factor correlated residuals were found. Additionally, there was no cross-factor loading.

Three significant correlations among the latent variables were found as follows.

- 1) The more intra-role conflict the wife experiences, the more stress she experiences.
 - 2) The more inter-role conflict the wife experiences, the more she is stressed.
 - 3) The more inter-role conflict the wife experiences, the less marital satisfaction she experiences.
- The correlations between division of household labor and marital satisfaction, and marital satisfaction and stress were marginally significant: The more the husband shares the housework, the more marital satisfaction wife experiences; The more marital satisfaction the wife experiences, the less stress she experiences.

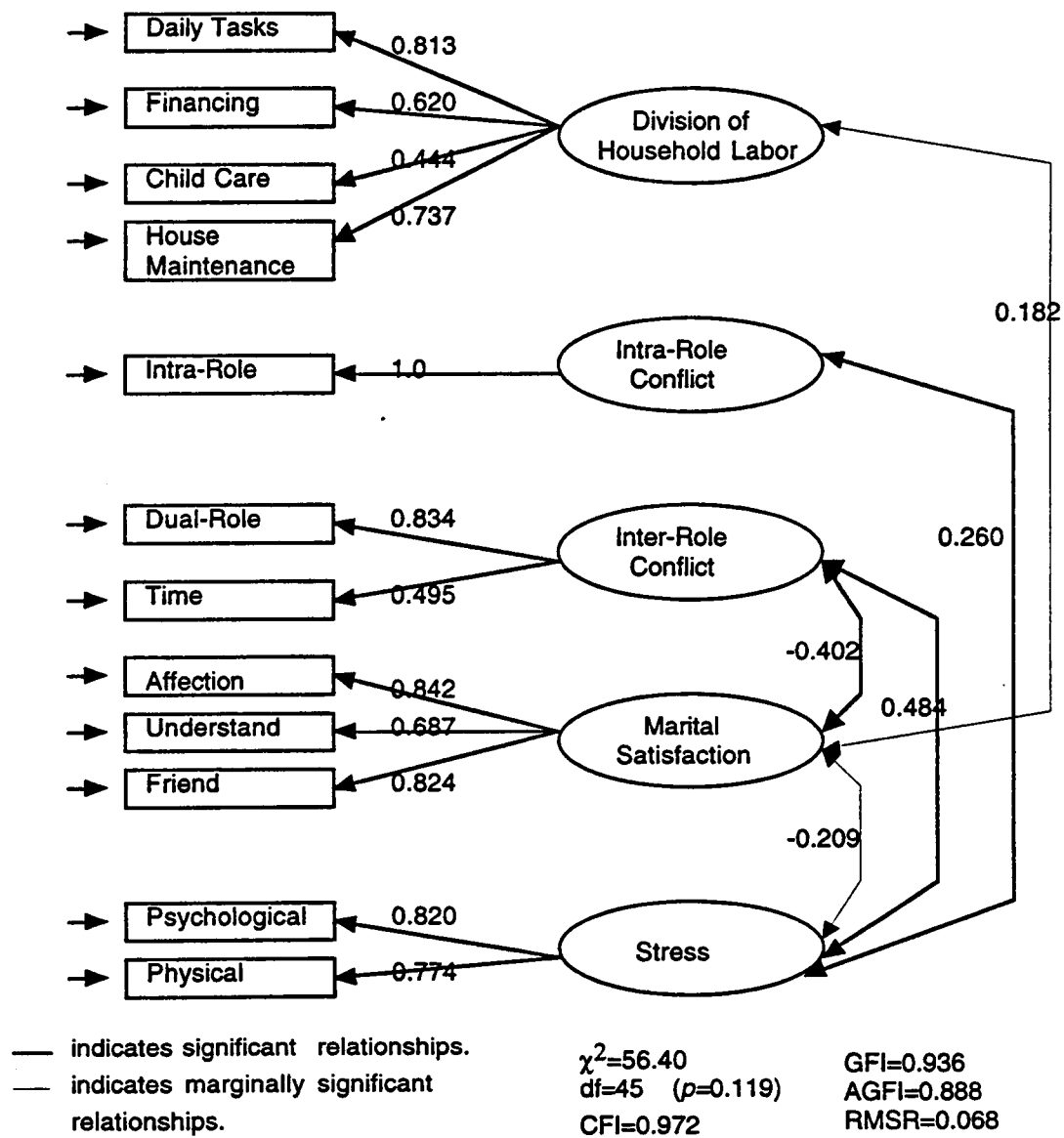


Figure 3.2 Female Measurement Model for Five Endogenous Variables

b.3 Multi-sample Analysis of Measurement Models for Five Endogenous Variables

The results of multi-sample analysis for the second measurement models for five endogenous variables show that the sample covariance matrices of male and female groups were significantly different. However, as seen in Table 7, the number of common factors, the pattern of the factor loadings for the observed variables, error variances, and the factor correlation matrices were not significantly different in male and female measurement models for 5 endogenous variables.

Table 7

Summary of Multi-Sample Analysis of Measurement Model for Five Endogenous Variables

Number of Observation	Model	df	chi-square	P-value
Female=133 Male=135				
	Model1	144	948.06	0
	Model2	90	101.87	0.185
	Model3	97	107.49	0.219
	Model4	108	112.57	0.363
	Model5	123	149.92	0.05

Note. Model1 tests the hypothesis that the sample covariance matrix of males is equivalent to that of females. Model2 tests the hypothesis that the number of the common factors is invariant across genders. Model3 tests the hypothesis the pattern of factor loadings is invariant across genders. Model4 tests the invariance of the error across genders. Model 5 tests the hypothesis that the factor correlation matrix is invariant across genders. Covariance matrices were used for multi-sample analysis.

B. Covariance Structure Analysis of Structural Model

a. Saturated Model as a Referent

In order to test the hypothesized full model based on LISREL approach, the X measurement model which specifies the relationships between the X observed variables and exogenous variables, and the Y measurement model which specifies the relationships between the Y observed variables and endogenous variables were combined to constitute a full LISREL model (See Figure 4). Prior to the simultaneous estimation of the measurement model and structural model, the full LISREL model, which is equivalent to the saturated structural model, was tested .

Considering that there are few previous studies which provides theoretical models which predict the causal relations among the latent variables included in this research model, the results of the test of the saturated structural model can be used as a "referent" to show the significant relationships.

a.1 Saturated Structural Model for Males

This saturated structural model was composed of 9 latent variables (four exogenous variables: resource power, definitional power, personal power and positional power; five endogenous variables: division of household labor, intra-role conflict, inter-role conflict, marital satisfaction & stress). The correlation matrix was used for estimation and analysis. This saturated structural model for males was found to have an adequate fit, based on the criteria as follows: $\chi^2=123.58$ ($df=103$, $n=111$, p -value=0.082), GFI=0.892, and CFI=0.960. All the indicators of the latent variables were significant, indicating that all X and Y observed variables measure the latent construct accurately.

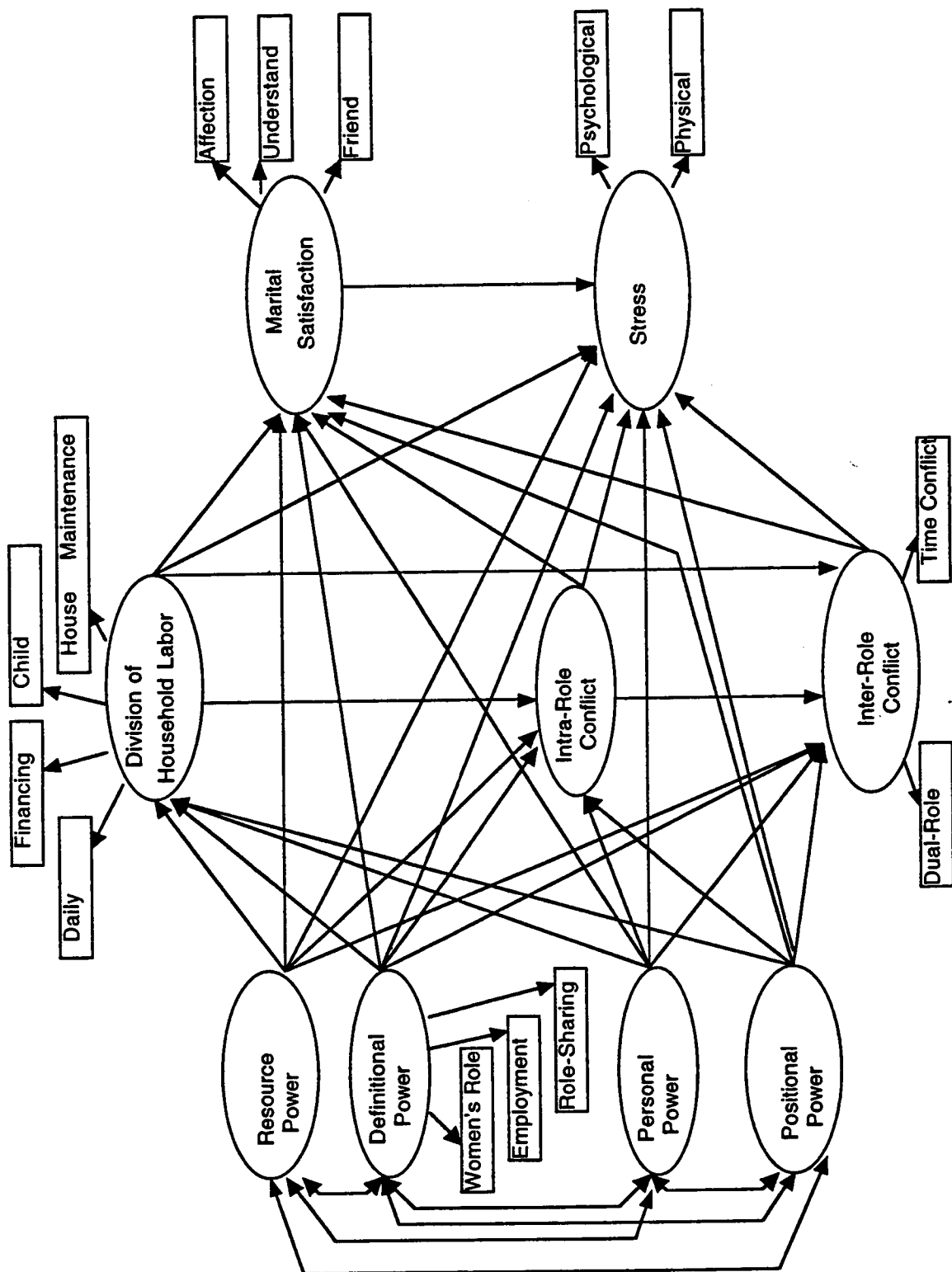


Figure 4 Full LISREL Model

The results of significance tests of the relationships in the male saturated model showed that only 7 relationships among 30 hypothesized paths were found to be significant (See Figure 5.1).

Among the relationships between 4 exogenous variables and 5 endogenous variables, five relationships were found to be significant: 1) The more resource power the husband has, the less he shares the housework; 2) The more conservative definitions the husband holds, the less he shares the housework; 3) The more personal power the husband has, the more marital satisfaction he experiences; 4) The more personal power the husband has, the less inter-role conflict he experiences; 5) The more positional power the husband has, the more he shares the housework. Additionally, two marginally significant relationships were found: 1) The more resource power the husband has, the less stress he experiences; 2) The more positional power the husband has, the more inter-role conflict he experiences.

Among the relationships among 5 endogenous variables, only two relationships were significant: 1) The more intra-role conflict the husband experiences, the more stress he experiences; 2) The more inter-role conflict the husband experiences, the more stress he experiences. In addition, two marginally significant relationships were found: 1) The more the husband shares the housework, the less intra-role conflict he experiences; 2) The more housework the husband does, the more inter-role conflict he experiences.

Based on these results, it is assumed that there are 7 significant relationships among the latent variables, and 4 marginally significant relations in the male model. In addition, the correlation between personal power and positional power was significant. They were positively correlated: The more personal power the husband has, the more positional power he has. The correlations between resource power and definitional power, and resource power and personal power were marginally significant.

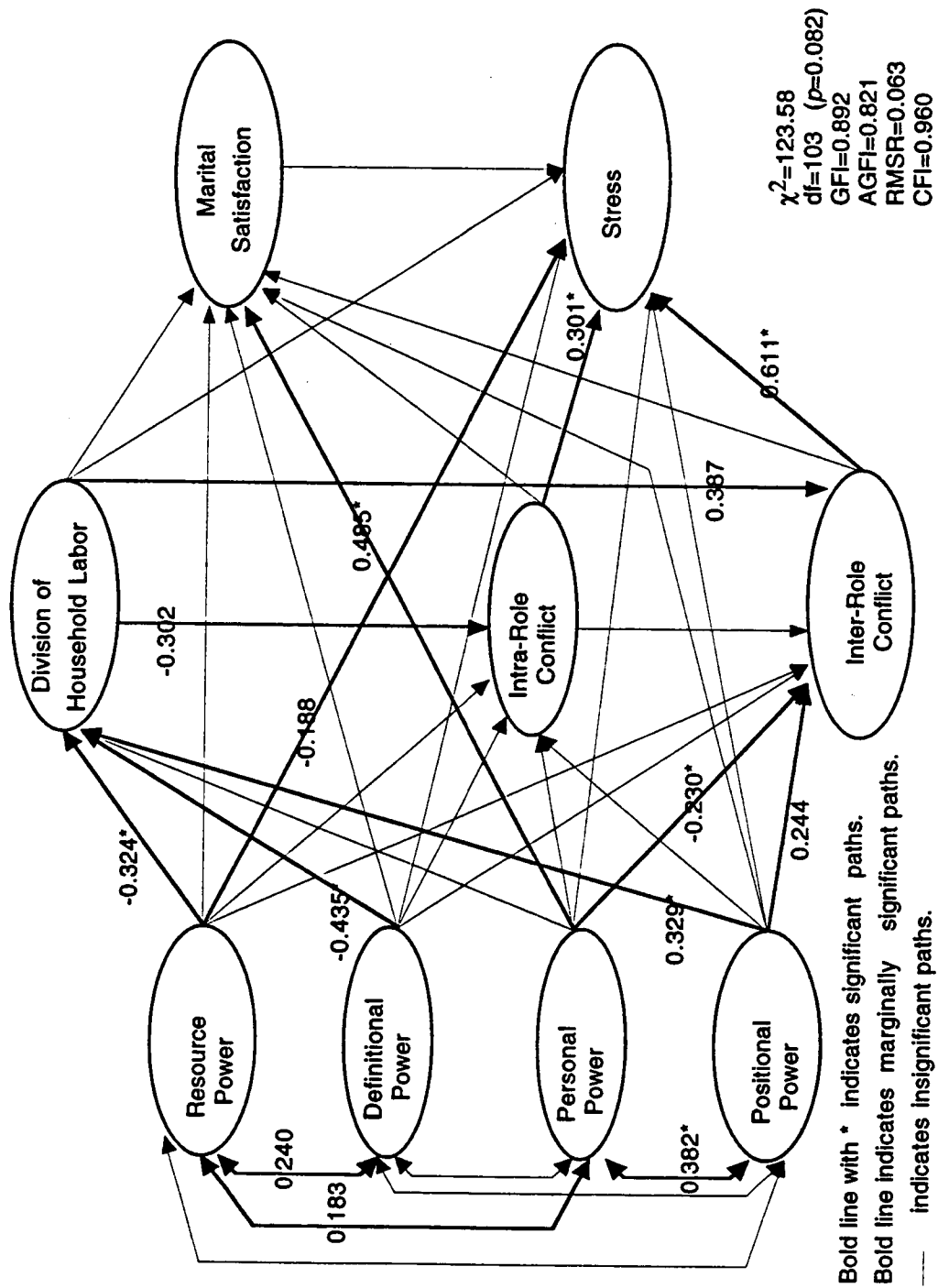


Figure 5.1 Saturated Structural Model for Males

Both relationships were positively correlated: The more resource power the husband has, the more conservative definitions he holds; The more resource power the husband has, the more personal power he has in the relationship with his wife.

a.2 Saturated Structural Model for Females

The correlation matrix was used for estimation and analysis. This saturated structural model for females constituted a very good fit: $\chi^2=108.35$ ($df=103$, $n=111$, $p\text{-value}=0.340$), $GFI=0.902$, and $CFI=0.988$ (See Figure 5.2).

As a result of a significance test, 7 significant relations and 3 marginally significant relations were found in the female model.

Among the relationships between 4 exogenous variables and 5 endogenous variables, four relationships were found to be significant: 1) The more resource power the wife has, the more the wife assume the responsibility for household tasks (the less the husband shares the housework); 2) The more resource power the wife has, the more marital satisfaction she has; 3) The more personal power the wife has, the more marital satisfaction she experiences; 4) The more positional power the wife has, the more marital satisfaction she experiences. One marginally significant relationship was also found between resource power and intra-role conflict: The more resource power the wife has, the less intra-role conflict she experiences.

Among the 10 relationships among 5 endogenous variables, only three relationships were significant: 1) The more the husband shares the housework (the less the wife does the housework), the less intra-role conflict she experiences; 2) The more inter-role conflict the wife experiences, the less marital satisfaction she gets; 3) The more inter-role conflict the wife experiences, the more stress she experiences. The relationship between intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict, and division of household labor and marital satisfaction were marginally significant: The more husband shares the

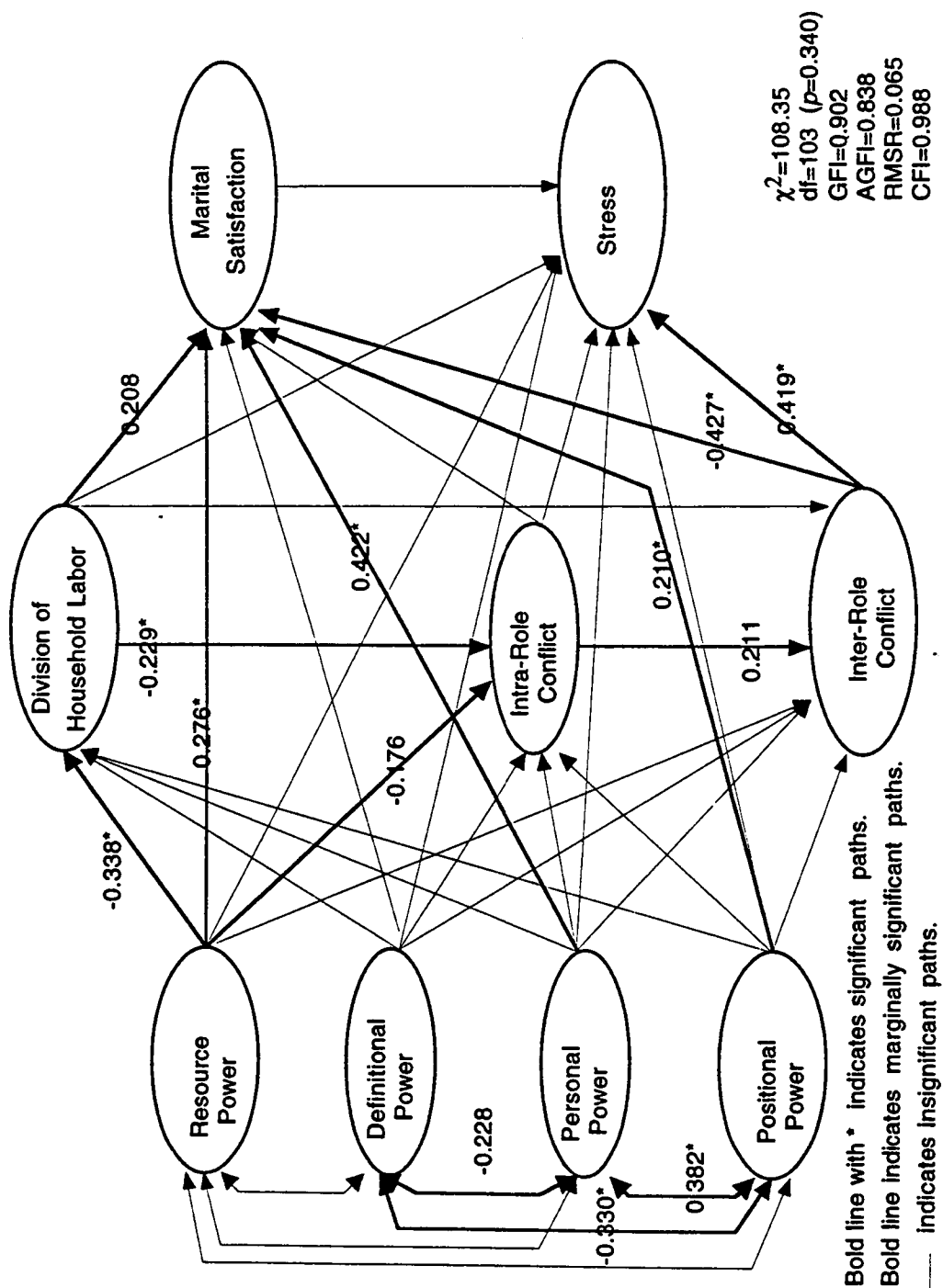


Figure 5.2 Saturated Structural Model for Females

housework (the less the wife assumes the responsibility for the household tasks), the more marital satisfaction she experiences; The more intra-role conflict the wife experiences, the more inter-role conflict she experiences.

Correlation between resource power and definitional power was not significant at all. The correlations between definitional power and positional power, and personal power and positional power were significant: 1) The more conservative definitions the wife has, the less positional power she has; 2) The more personal power the wife has, the more positional power she has. In addition, one marginally significant correlation was found between definitional power and personal power: The more conservative definitions the wife holds, the less personal power she has.

a.3 Multi-Sample Analysis of Full LISREL Model (Saturated Model)

Covariance matrix was used in testing invariances across genders. The result of the multi-sample analysis of the saturated structural model showed that the sample covariance matrices of male and female saturated models were significantly different. Also, it reveals that the number of common factors, the pattern of the factor loadings for X and Y observed variables, and the matrices of the error variances for X and Y variables, were not significantly different between male and female saturated models. However, it indicates that matrices of factor correlation among the exogenous latent variables, the matrices of the relationships between exogenous and endogenous latent variables, and the matrices of the relationships among the five endogenous variables, and the matrices of the error terms of the endogenous latent variables were significantly different between male and female models (See the Table 8).

For this reason, there is a need to explore the best model for males and females separately which might specify the different relationships among the latent variables of interest.

Table 8

Summary of Multi-Sample Analysis of Full LISREL Model (Saturated Model).

Number of Observation	Model	df	chi-squares	P-value
Female=111; Male=111				
	Model1	324	1293.22	0.000
	Model2	206	231.92	0.104
	Model3	215	242.23	0.098
	Model4	229	259.80	0.079
	Model5	239	284.80	0.023
	Model6	259	310.33	0.016
	Model7	269	326.09	0.010
	Model8	274	341.81	0.003

Note. Model1 tests the hypothesis that the sample covariance matrix of males is equivalent to that of females. Model2 tests the hypothesis that the number of the common factors is invariant across genders. Model3 tests the hypothesis the the patterns of factor loadings of X and Y observed variables are invariant across genders. Model4 tests the invariance of the error of X and Y observed variables across genders. Model 5 tests the hypothesis that the factor correlation matrix is invariant across genders. Model6 tests the invariance of the matrices of the relationships between endogenous variables and exogenous variables across genders. Model7 tests the invariances of the matrices of the relationships among the endogenous variables across genders. Model8 tests the invariance of the matrices of the error terms of the endogenous variables across genders.

b. Comparison of Structural Sub-Models in Search for the Best-Fitting Model

As seen in the above, the saturated models (Full LISREL models) yield an adequate fit to the data in both male and female groups.

Although these saturated models are assumed to have a perfect fit, they are not the best models from which the meaningful causal inferences for the relations among the latent variables can be drawn. After dropping the insignificant paths from these saturated models, the significance of the parameters which determine the relationships among the latent variables can be identified. Using the saturated model which provides the baseline as a "referent" regarding significant relations among the latent variables, the structural sub-models were compared in order to identify the best-fitting model which retains significant relationships and at the same time yields an adequate fit for the overall model.

The best-fitting model can be found by choosing the structural sub-model which minimizes the fit between the hypothesized model and the data, based on the given full measurement model. In order to find the best-fitting model, the structural sub-models were tested in a nested sequence in such a way that a more restricted model is obtained by imposing constraints on the more general model (Bentler, 1990). Then, the comparative fit of a series of nested structural sub-models were compared.

In general, goodness-of-fit of the overall model is usually assessed by the four indices adjunct to the chi-square statistics (chi-square, GFI, AGFI, & RMSR). However, due to the sensitivity of the chi-square likelihood ratio test to the sample size and the violation of various assumptions such as linearity, multinormality and additiveness, other goodness-of-fit indices such as Normed Fit Index (or Bentler and Bonnett Index) and χ^2/df ratio were proposed as the alternatives to the chi-square statistics (Byrne, 1989). Bentler (1990) agrees with the inappropriateness of null hypothesis testing based on the chi-square test alone in model evaluation, and suggests that a comparative goodness-of-fit index be used to assess the adequacy of a particular model in relation to the fit of a more restricted model.

Among the comparative goodness-of-fit indices, more than 30 of which are purely descriptive statistics, Bentler (1990) views Comparative Fit Index (CFI) as the best index. CFI is a population comparative fit coefficient which ranges from 0 to 1, and it has a small sampling variability, and estimates relative difference in noncentrality of interest (Bentler, 1990).

For this reason, the CFI developed by Bentler (1990) was used in this study as the criterion for comparison of structural sub-models. In the model-testing procedure, the structural sub-models are assumed to be nested so that a more restricted model is obtained by imposing constraint on a more general model. In a series of nested models $[M_0 < M_1 < M_2 < \dots < M_k]$ from the null structural model in which no latent variables are correlated to the saturated model in which all relations are hypothesized, the comparative fit was assessed by CFI. Comparative Fit Index (CFI) evaluates the adequacy of a particular model by measuring the relative improvement in noncentrality going from the null model (model of uncorrelated latent variables), which has the worst fit, to a specific model (Bentler, 1990). The higher CFI indicates the smaller degree of model misspecification, which reflects relative improvement of the model (Bentler, 1990).

b.1 The Best-Fitting Structural Model for Males

As shown in the structural sub-models comparison by fit indices (Table 9), the structural model with degrees of freedom of 119 ($\chi^2=129.44$) was chosen as the best model at first as a result of testing the structural sub-models based on CFI. This model has the most adequate goodness-of-fit for the overall model in that it has the highest CFI (0.943). The results of the significance tests of the hypothesized relationships showed that this model retained the 11 significant relationships, 7 out of which were identical with the significant relations found from the test of the saturated model.

Table 9

Structural Sub-Model Comparison by Fit Index for Males

Models	Df	Chi-square	P-value	GFI	AGFI	RMSR	CFI	Measurement CFI
Saturated	103	123.58	0.082	0.892	0.821	0.063	0.887	0.960
1) Delete GA 21	104	123.61	0.092	0.892	0.822	0.063	0.892	
2) GA 13	105	123.68	0.103	0.892	0.824	0.063	0.897	
3) GA 42	106	123.75	0.115	0.892	0.825	0.063	0.902	
4) GA 41	107	123.90	0.126	0.892	0.827	0.063	0.907	
5) GA 31	108	124.07	0.138	0.891	0.828	0.063	0.912	
6) PH 41	109	124.31	0.150	0.891	0.829	0.063	0.916	
7) GA 23	110	124.63	0.161	0.890	0.830	0.063	0.920	
8) BE 32	111	124.88	0.174	0.890	0.831	0.063	0.924	
9) GA 44	112	125.37	0.183	0.890	0.832	0.063	0.927	
10) BE 42	113	125.63	0.196	0.890	0.832	0.064	0.931	
11) GA 32	114	126.09	0.207	0.890	0.835	0.065	0.934	
12) GA 54	115	126.53	0.218	0.889	0.835	0.065	0.937	
13) GA 52	116	127.18	0.225	0.888	0.835	0.065	0.939	
14) BE 51	117	127.54	0.238	0.888	0.837	0.065	0.942	
15) GA 53	118	128.60	0.238	0.887	0.837	0.066	0.942	
16) BE 54*	119	129.44	0.242	0.887	0.837	0.067	0.943	
17) PH 32	120	130.84	0.235	0.886	0.837	0.072	0.940	
18) PH 42	121	131.68	0.239	0.885	0.838	0.074	0.941	
19) GA 24	122	133.06	0.233	0.885	0.838	0.074	0.939	
20) GA 51	123	135.76	0.204	0.883	0.837	0.074	0.930	
21) BE 43	124	139.18	0.166	0.879	0.833	0.075	0.917	
22) GA 22**	125	142.72	0.133	0.876	0.831	0.077	0.903	
23) PH 31	126	146.87	0.099	0.874	0.829	0.079	0.885	
24) PH 21	127	151.07	0.071	0.872	0.827	0.084	0.868	
25) BE 31	128	155.11	0.052	0.869	0.825	0.088	0.851	
26) BE 41	129	160.18	0.033	0.866	0.822	0.095	0.829	
27) GA 33	130	164.74	0.021	0.863	0.820	0.098	0.809	
28) GA 34	131	171.91	0.010	0.861	0.818	0.104	0.775	
29) BE 21	132	184.88	0.002	0.850	0.806	0.113	0.709	
30) BE 52	133	195.71	0.000	0.843	0.798	0.116	0.655	
31) BE 53	134	221.15	0.000	0.829	0.782	0.126	0.522	
32) GA 12	135	236.37	0.000	0.817	0.768	0.141	0.443	
33) GA 11	136	255.93	0.000	0.800	0.749	0.147	0.341	
34) GA 14	137	268.98	0.000	0.792	0.741	0.157	0.275	
35) PH 43	138	286.36	0.000	0.779	0.726	0.162	0.185	
36) GA 43	139	321.01	0.000	0.753	0.696	0.173		
Measurement null	153	668.04	0.000	0.518	0.461	0.221		

Note. Model 16 with the * was selected as the best model, based on CFI alone at the first step. Finally, Model 22 with the ** was selected as the best-fitting model because it has adequate fit for overall model as well as it contains only the significant relationships between the latent variables. (CFI of saturated model calculated based on measurement null model was 0.960).

However, this model, selected as the best based on the criteria of CFI alone, was found to include 6 insignificant relations. By retaining these 6 weak paths, this model ($df=119$) yields a most improved goodness-of-fit ($CFI=0.943$). But, this was obtained at the expense of causal strength between latent variables. For this reason, this model is not the most useful model from which meaningful causal inferences can be drawn. The insignificant correlations between definitional power and personal power, definitional power and positional power, and insignificant paths between positional power and intra-role conflict, resource power and stress, inter-role conflict and marital satisfaction, definitional power and intra-role conflict were dropped in a sequence in such a way that the most insignificant path was dropped first when judged by t -value. After dropping all these insignificant relations, the model with the degrees of freedom of 125 and chi-square of 142.72 ($n=111$, p -value=0.133) was compared with the previous model including 6 insignificant relations. This model selected as the final best-fitting model ($df=125$) fits as well to the data as does the previous model ($df=119$), using CFI (0.903) as the criterion for comparison. Furthermore, it is more parsimonious than the previous model in that it contains only the significant paths in it, indicating that all latent variables significantly affect one another.

As a result of the comparison of structural sub-models, the final best-fitting model for males was found in this study (See Figure 6.1). Within the given male structural model selected as the best, the significance of the relationships between the latent variables were tested in order to determine if the hypothesized relationships which were predicted in the theoretical model are consistent with the data.

Among the 12 hypotheses about the relations between 4 different bases of power, and division of household labor, intra- and inter-role conflict, only five causal relations are supported by the data: 1) Resource power is negatively associated with division of

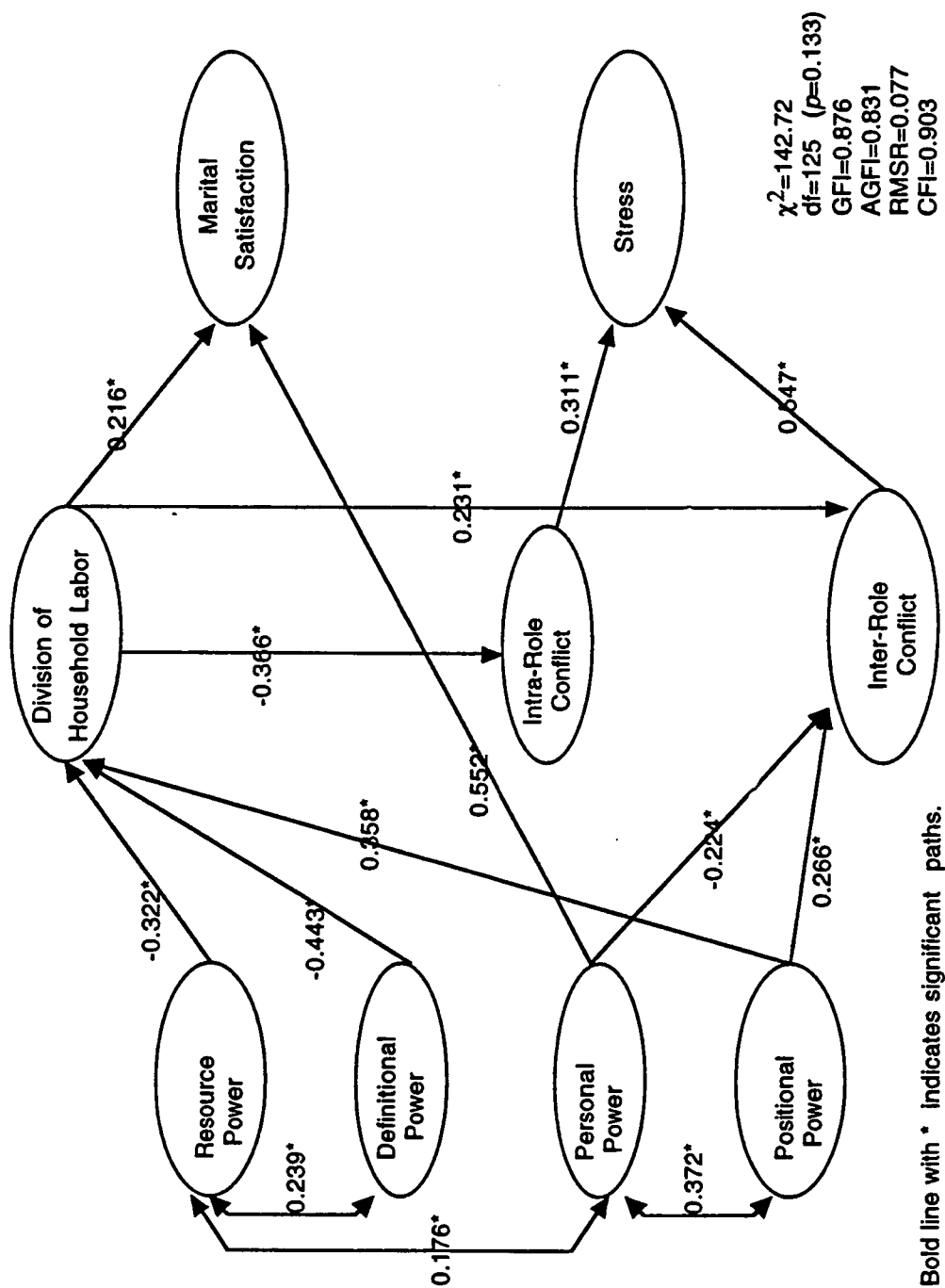


Figure 6.1 The Best-Fitting Structural Model for Males

household labor (The more resource power the husband has, the less he shares the household labor); 2) Definitional power is also negatively associated with division of household labor (The more conservative the husband's definitions, the less he assumes responsibility for household labor); 3) Positional power is positively associated with division of labor (The more positional power the husband has, the more he shares the housework); 4) Personal power is negatively associated with inter-role conflict (The more personal power the husband has, the less inter-role conflict he experiences); 5) Positional power is positively associated with inter-role conflict (The more positional power the husband has, the more inter-role conflict he experiences).

Among 8 direct relations between 4 power constructs, and marital satisfaction and stress, only one relation between personal power and marital satisfaction was found to be significant: The more personal power the husband has, the more marital satisfaction he gets.

Among the ten hypotheses about the relations among 5 endogenous variables (division of household labor, intra-role conflict, inter-role conflict, marital satisfaction and stress), five relations were supported by the data: 1) Division of household labor and marital satisfaction are positively associated (The more husband shares the household labor, the more marital satisfaction he gets); 2) Division of household labor and intra-role conflict has negatively associated (The more husband shares, the less intra-role conflict he experiences); 3) Division of household labor and inter-role conflict are positively associated (The more the husband shares, the more inter-role conflict he experiences); 4) Intra-role conflict and stress are positively associated (The more intra-role conflict the husband experiences, the more stress he experiences); 5) Inter-role conflict and stress are positively associated (The more inter-role conflict the husband experiences, the more stress he experiences).

The correlations between resource power and definitional power, resource power and personal power, and personal power and positional power were found to be significant. The direct, indirect, and total effects of the latent variables are summarized in Table 10.

As seen in Table 10, resource power and definitional power are negative predictors of division of household labor, while positional power is a strong positive predictor of division of household labor. Division of household labor is a strong negative predictor of intra-role conflict, while a positive predictor of inter-role conflict. At the same time, division of household labor is a positive predictor of marital satisfaction. Personal power is a negative predictor of inter-role conflict and a strong positive predictor of marital satisfaction. Both intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict are strong positive predictors of stress. Inter-role conflict (0.515) is a stronger predictor of stress than intra-role conflict (0.272).

Table 10

Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects in the Best-Fitting Model of Males

		Resource	Definitional	Personal	Positional	Division	Intra-role	Inter-role	Marital S.	Stress
Division	Direct	-0.258	-0.635	0.000	0.287	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Indirect	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Total	-0.258	-0.635	0.000	0.287	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Intra-Role	Direct	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.457	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Indirect	0.118	0.290	0.000	-0.131	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Total	0.118	0.290	0.000	-0.131	-0.457	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Inter-role	Direct	0.000	0.000	-0.209	0.248	0.269	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Indirect	-0.069	-0.171	0.000	0.077	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Total	-0.069	-0.171	-0.209	0.325	0.269	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Marital S.	Direct	0.000	0.000	0.411	0.000	0.200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Indirect	-0.051	-0.127	0.000	0.057	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Total	-0.051	-0.127	0.411	0.057	0.200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Stress	Direct	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.272	0.515	0.000	0.000
	Indirect	-0.004	-0.009	-0.108	0.131	0.014	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Total	-0.004	-0.009	-0.108	0.131	0.014	0.272	0.515	0.000	0.000

In addition to these direct effects, 14 indirect effects were found.

- 1) Resource power affects intra-role conflict via division of household labor.
- 2) Resource power affects inter-role conflict via division of household labor.
- 3) Resource power affects marital satisfaction via division of household labor.
- 4) Resource power affects stress via division of household labor and intra-role conflict, and through division of household labor and inter-role conflict.
- 5) Definitional power affects intra-role conflict via division of household labor.
- 6) Definitional power affects inter-role conflict via division of household labor.
- 7) Definitional power affects marital satisfaction via division of household labor.
- 8) Definitional power affects stress via division of household labor and intra-role conflict, and through division of household labor and inter-role conflict.
- 9) Positional power affects intra-role conflict via division of household labor.
- 10) Positional power affects inter-role conflict via division of household labor.
- 11) Positional power affects marital satisfaction via division of household labor.
- 12) Positional power affects stress via division of household labor and intra-role conflict, through division of household labor and inter-role conflict, and through inter-role conflict.
- 13) Personal power affects stress via inter-role conflict.
- 14) Division of household labor affects stress via intra-role conflict as well as inter-role conflict.

Among the total effects, the greatest one was the effect of definitional power on division of household labor(-0.635). The next greater total effect was that of inter-role conflict on stress (0.514). The third was that of division of household labor on intra-role conflict (-0.457).

b.2 Best-Fitting Structural Model for Females

As seen in Table 11, the model with the highest CFI (1.0) and greatest degrees of freedom ($df=123$) whose chi-square was 121.12 was selected as the best model for the female when based on CFI alone. This model, with degrees of freedom of 123 ($\chi^2=121.12$), contains 5 insignificant causal relations between definitional power and marital satisfaction, positional power and intra-role conflict, division of household labor and marital satisfaction, intra-role conflict and stress, and positional power and marital satisfaction. It also contains one insignificant correlation between definitional power and personal power. All these insignificant paths were dropped in a sequence. After dropping 5 insignificant causal paths and an insignificant correlation, a final model was found in which all paths among the latent variables were significant (See Figure 6.2). This final model ($df=129$, $\chi^2=138.22$) was seen as the best-fitting model in that it has a good fit to the overall model (GFI=0.884; CFI=0.913), as well as it retains only the significant paths.

Among the 12 hypotheses about the effects of four power constructs on division of household labor, and intra- and inter-role conflict, only two causal relations were supported by the data: 1) The more resource power the wife has, the more she assumes the responsibility for household tasks; 2) The more resource power the wife has, the less intra-role conflict she experiences.

Among eight direct relations between four power constructs and the concepts of marital satisfaction and stress, only two causal relations were found to be significant in the female group: 1) The more resource power the wife has, the more marital satisfaction she gets; 2) The more personal power the wife has, the more marital satisfaction she gets.

Table 11

Structural Sub-Model Comparison by Fit Index for Females

Models	Df	Chi-square	P-value	GFI	AGFI	RMSR	CFI	Measurement CFI
Saturated	103	108.35	0.340	0.902	0.838	0.065	0.950	0.988
1) Delete GA 34	104	108.45	0.363	0.903	0.840	0.065	0.958	
2) PH 41	105	108.59	0.385	0.903	0.841	0.065	0.966	
3) GA 32	106	108.69	0.410	0.903	0.843	0.065	0.975	
4) GA 14	107	108.86	0.432	0.902	0.844	0.065	0.982	
5) BE 42	108	109.03	0.454	0.902	0.845	0.065	0.990	
6) BE 54	109	109.29	0.474	0.901	0.845	0.065	0.997	
7) BE 31	110	109.69	0.490	0.901	0.847	0.065	1.000	
8) GA 31	111	110.39	0.499	0.901	0.847	0.065	1.000	
9) GA 23	112	110.97	0.510	0.900	0.847	0.066	1.000	
10) GA 22	113	111.53	0.521	0.900	0.848	0.066	1.000	
11) GA 53	114	111.89	0.538	0.899	0.849	0.066	1.000	
12) PH 31	115	112.49	0.549	0.899	0.850	0.066	1.000	
13) GA 33	116	113.58	0.546	0.898	0.850	0.067	1.000	
14) GA 12	117	114.60	0.545	0.897	0.850	0.068	1.000	
15) PH 21	118	116.55	0.521	0.896	0.849	0.069	1.000	
16) GA 13	119	118.57	0.494	0.895	0.849	0.073	1.000	
17) GA 52	120	119.18	0.504	0.895	0.851	0.072	1.000	
18) GA 54	121	119.57	0.520	0.896	0.852	0.073	1.000	
19) GA 51	122	119.95	0.535	0.896	0.854	0.074	1.000	
20) BE 51*	123	121.12	0.531	0.895	0.853	0.075	1.000	
21) GA 42	124	124.06	0.482	0.893	0.852	0.076	0.999	
22) GA 24	125	125.92	0.460	0.891	0.851	0.076	0.991	
23) PH 32	126	130.08	0.384	0.889	0.849	0.078	0.962	
24) BE 41	127	132.27	0.356	0.888	0.849	0.083	0.950	
25) BE 52	128	134.77	0.324	0.887	0.849	0.084	0.936	
26) GA 44**	129	138.22	0.274	0.884	0.846	0.086	0.913	
27) GA 21	130	142.19	0.219	0.879	0.841	0.087	0.885	
28) BE 21	131	144.05	0.206	0.877	0.840	0.090	0.877	
29) BE 32	132	147.82	0.164	0.874	0.836	0.093	0.851	
30) PH 42	133	153.17	0.111	0.873	0.836	0.096	0.810	
31) GA 41	134	158.15	0.076	0.868	0.831	0.095	0.772	
32) PH 43	135	175.53	0.011	0.851	0.811	0.104	0.618	
33) GA 43	136	203.62	0.000	0.827	0.782	0.116	0.362	
34) GA 11	137	213.55	0.000	0.823	0.780	0.120	0.278	
35) BE 43	138	229.81	0.000	0.812	0.767	0.132	0.134	
36) BE 53	139	245.07	0.000	0.798	0.752	0.138		
Measurement null	153	586.14	0.000	0.586	0.538	0.193		

Note. Model 20 with the * was selected as the best model, based on CFI alone at the first step. Finally, Model 26 with the ** was selected as the best-fitting model because it has adequate fit for overall model as well as it contains the significant structural relations in it. (CFI of saturated model calculated based on measurement null model was 0.988).

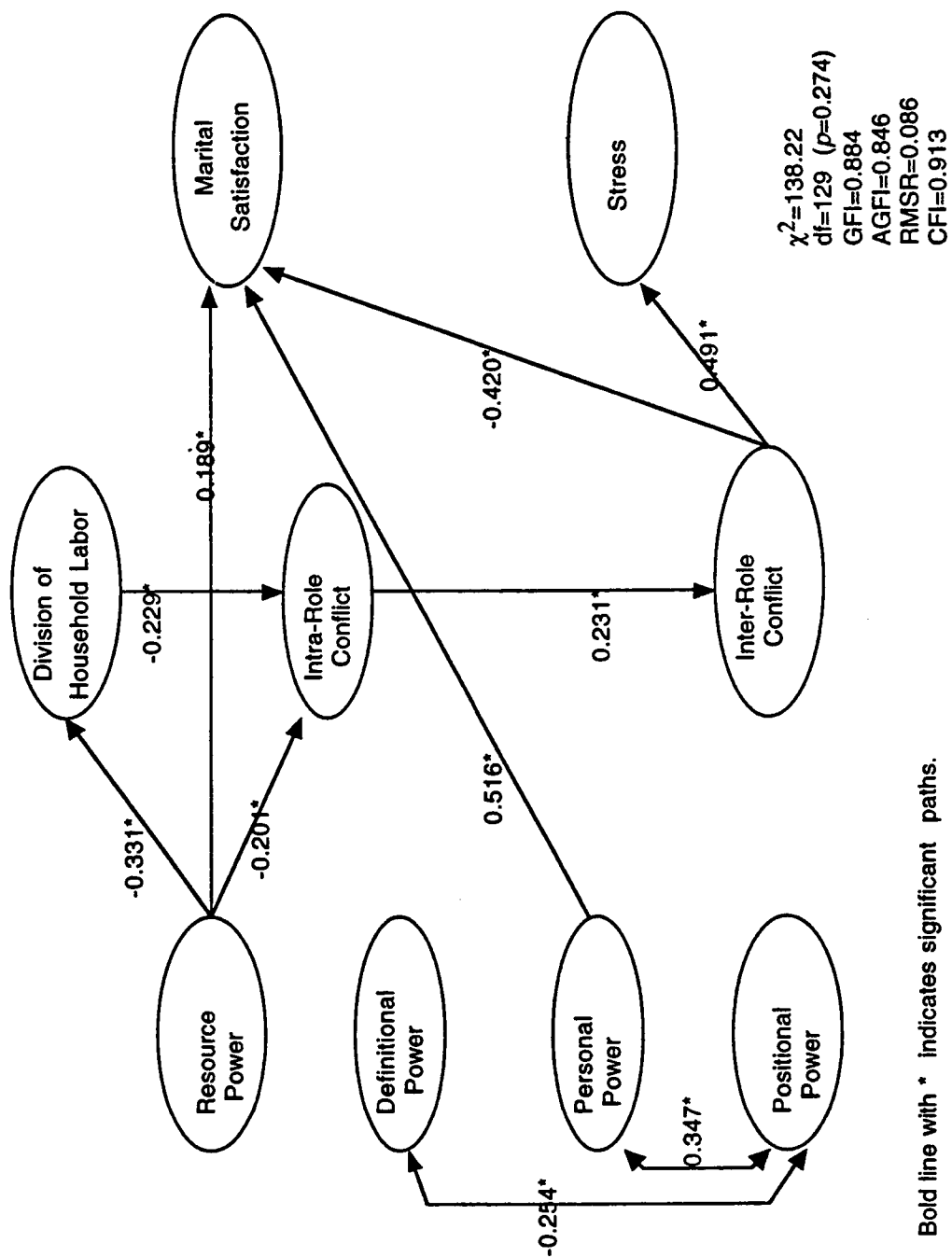


Figure 6.2 The Best-Fitting Structural Model for Females

Among the ten hypotheses about the relations among 5 endogenous variables (division of household labor, intra-role conflict, inter-role conflict, marital satisfaction, and stress), four relations were supported by the data: 1) The more the wife does the housework (the less the husband shares), the more intra-role conflict she experiences; 2) The more intra-role conflict the wife experiences, the more inter-role conflict she experiences; 3) The more inter-role conflict the wife experiences, the less marital satisfaction she gets; and 4) The more inter-role conflict the wife experiences, the more stress she experiences.

The correlations between definitional power and positional power, and personal power and positional power were found to be significant. Definitional power and positional power were negatively correlated, while personal power and positional power were positively correlated: 1) The more conservative the definition she holds, the less positional power she has; 2) The more personal power she has, the more positional power she has. The direct, indirect, and total effects are summarized in Table 12.

Table 12

Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects in the Best-Fitting Model of Females

		Resource	Definitional	Personal	Positional	Division	Intra-role	Inter-role	Marital S.	Stress
Division	Direct	-0.263	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Indirect	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Total	-0.263	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Intra-Role	Direct	-0.201	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.288	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Indirect	0.076	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Total	-0.125	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.288	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Inter-role	Direct	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.176	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Indirect	-0.022	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.051	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Total	-0.022	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.051	0.176	0.000	0.000	0.000
Marital S.	Direct	0.155	0.000	0.421	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.449	0.000	0.000
	Indirect	0.010	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.023	-0.079	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Total	0.164	0.000	0.421	0.000	0.023	-0.079	-0.449	0.000	0.000
Stress	Direct	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.495	0.000	0.000
	Indirect	-0.011	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.025	0.087	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Total	-0.011	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.025	0.087	0.495	0.000	0.000

As shown in table 12, resource power is a negative predictor of intra-role conflict. Resource power is a positive predictor of marital satisfaction. Personal power is also a strong positive predictor of marital satisfaction (0.421). Intra-role conflict is a positive predictor of inter-role conflict. Inter-role conflict is a strong negative predictor of marital satisfaction, while a strong positive predictor of stress. In the female model, higher score of division of household labor indicates wives' less share due to the scoring of the variable. Therefore, wives' greater resource power is associated with their greater share, and wives' greater share is associated with their greater intra-role conflict.

Besides these direct causal effects, 9 indirect effects were found.

- 1) Resource power affects intra-role conflict via division of household labor.
- 2) Resource power affects inter-role conflict via division of household labor and intra-role conflict.
- 3) Resource power affects marital satisfaction via division of household labor, intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict, and through intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict.
- 4) Resource power affects stress via division of household labor, intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict, and through intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict.
- 5) Division of household labor affects inter-role conflict via intra-role conflict.
- 6) Division of household labor affects marital satisfaction via intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict.
- 7) Division of household labor affects stress via intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict.
- 8) Intra-role conflict affects marital satisfaction via inter-role conflict.
- 9) Intra-role conflict affects stress via inter-role conflict.

The strongest total effect was that of inter-role conflict on stress (0.495). The next was the effect of inter-role conflict on marital satisfaction (-0.449). And the third was that of personal power on marital satisfaction (0.421).

CHAPTER VII

Discussion

This chapter is divided into four sections. Whether the objectives of this study were achieved was discussed in the first section. In the second section, the best-fitting male and female models were discussed for comparison. In the third section, the conclusions and implications of the findings were discussed. In the final section, the limitations and the suggestions for the future study were discussed.

1. Objectives

The main objective of this study was to identify the factors which determine the division of household labor and to examine the consequences of "asymmetric division of labor" which is hypothesized to be practiced within contemporary Korean dual-career families. For this purpose, a theoretical model which examines the interrelationships among family power structure, division of household labor, intra- and inter-role conflict, marital satisfaction, and stress was developed in this study.

In this hypothesized research model, new dimensions of the family power structure consisting of 4 different types of powers were delineated in order to better understand the impact of family power structure on 5 endogenous variables. From the previous literature, resource power (Blood & Wolf, 1960) and definitional power (Chafetz, 1991) were identified as important components of family power structure. However, feminist critics pointed out that these 2 powers (resource and definitional power) are male-biased powers. That is, these types of power have been socially

constructed in the public arena through political, social, and economic institutions in such a way that males gain more power by having more access to resources and by imposing social definitions upon women to legitimate their superior position and advantages that accrue to them in a gender-stratified society (Chafetz, 1991; Okin, 1989). Therefore, a research model, including only these two powers, does not delineate all relevant dimensions of the family power structure because it ignores other important dimensions of power such as personal power and positional power acquired and exercised in relational context. These are two relational powers which are acquired by making themselves needed and valued in the family relations by meeting the family's affective and expressive needs, and by fulfilling the important roles in given positions. For this reason, a four dimensional family power structure consisting of resource, definitional, personal and positional power, was delineated in this study as the "bases" of power.

The second objective was to compare the theoretical model developed in this study by gender in order to examine gender differences in the interrelationships of the variables since dual-career family life may be experienced differently by husbands and wives due to the differential effects of powers each spouse has on everyday family life and well-being.

For comparison, the male and female model developed separately and tested by means of covariance structure analysis (CSA). The most adequate measurement models were found by means of CFA, and the best-fitting models were found as a result of sub-structural model comparison. Through structural analysis, each hypothesis proposed in this research model was tested and the significant structural relations among the latent variables were found for the male and female groups.

The results of comparison of the best male and female models provided supports for the substantial gender differences in the impact of wives' employment on dual-career

family life and marital relationship. In the next section, the relations specified in the best-fitting model for males and females are to be compared and discussed.

2. Comparison of the Male and Female Models

A. Predictors of Division of Household Labor

In the final best-fitting model for the male group, resource power, definitional power, and positional power were found to be significant predictors of division of household labor. Resource power and definitional power were negative predictors of division of labor, while positional power was a positive predictor. These findings from Korean males provided empirical support for part of Chafetz's (1991) theoretical model, which has not been empirically tested. In her theoretical framework, Chafetz (1991) delineates the process of how gendered division of labor has been generated and reproduced by resource power and definitional power, and, in turn, reinforces these powers. Chafetz explained these processes as reciprocal ones occurring at both macro and micro levels. However, in this study, only the unidirectional effects of resource power and definitional power on division of labor were tested at the micro level. As hypothesized in Chafetz's (1991) theoretical framework, resource power and definitional power, which are positively correlated, were found to have negative impacts on division of household labor among Korean males: The more resource power the husband has, the less familial and domestic tasks he performs; the more conservative the definitions of women's role the husband holds, the less housework he does. Both powers are significant predictors of division of household labor. When comparing the direct effect of definitional power (-0.635) with that of resource power (-0.258), definitional power was

found to have a greater direct effect on division of household labor than resource power among Korean males (See Table 10).

At the same time, positional power was found to have a positive impact on division of household labor among Korean males. Since positional power is acquired by committing oneself to the given family roles and assuming the important roles, the greater positional power implies the greater involvement in family and domestic tasks on the part of that individual. Therefore, the positive association between positional power and division of household labor is theoretically relevant, although there is no empirical finding from previous studies. The expected positive relation between positional power and division of labor was supported by the data from Korean males in this study: The more positional power the husband has, the more housework he shares.

In contrast to the Korean male model in which all power constructs except personal power significantly affect the division of household labor, in the Korean female model, resource power was the only significant predictor of division of household labor. As seen in Figure 6.2, resource power and division of household labor have a negative association in the female model just as in the male model. However, the actual meaning of the same negative relationship between resource power and division of household labor is the opposite for Korean males and females. The score of division of household labor ranged in a continuum, from (1) "Wife always does," to (3) "Both equally do," to (5) "Husband always does," in such a way that higher scores indicate the husband does a greater amount of labor and the wife does less. Therefore, the same negative association between resource power and division of household labor indicates that a husband with greater resource power is likely to perform less domestic tasks, while a wife with greater resource power is likely to assume more responsibility for household tasks.

This result from the Korean female model does not provide any support for family power theory (Ross et al., 1983) which was developed from resource theory (Blood & Wolf, 1960). Ross et al. (1983) found that the more the wife earns, the more power she has, and the more the husband shares the household tasks, and that the more the husband earns, the less he shares. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize resource theory as well as family power theory into the Korean population in general since these theories do not explain the phenomenon that a Korean female with greater resource power is likely to perform more household tasks.

The results of the Korean data are not congruent with the empirical findings of previous studies. In this Korean study, there was a significant effect of resource power on division of household labor among the females, although the impact of resource power on wives' share of housework was, unexpectedly, a positive one: The more the wife earns, the more she does the housework. On the contrary, the results of other studies showed that a wife's earnings have no significant impact on division of labor or power: Mirowsky (1985) found that a husband's earning has a significant impact on division of marital power, but a wife's income has no impact. Kamo (1989) also found a lack of effect of wives' income on husband's share of household work among Japanese couples. Kamo (1989) explained that this result may indicate that wife's work for wage is not taken seriously enough to have any effects on household work allocation because the wife's labor force participation is accepted in Japan with the premise that it does not affect the husband's status in the family.

Although resource theory presents "dynamics" between the husband and the wife by assuming that resources function as "leverage" which can bring about changes in division of labor (Coleman, 1991), female resource power does not function as "leverage" which can change gendered division of labor among Korean females. As

Coleman (1991) argued, women's overall economic power within the marital dyad is affected by a number of "discount factors" that can enhance or diminish a woman's leverage in exercising her relative economic power. These "discount factors" might be social, cultural, and economic conditions such as social class, traditional gender norms and ideology, and conditions of the labor market.

In this study, social class was controlled for by collecting data only from middle-class dual-career couples. Although the income of middle-class dual-career wives is higher than that of women in lower class, the income level of Korean females was less than that of Korean males because there is still an earnings gap between wives and husbands. Korean data showed that there is a significant earning gap between Korean dual-career husbands and wives. The husbands' average monthly income was \$ 2,423.5, while that of wives was \$ 1,745 among Korean samples in this study. The wives rarely match or exceed their husbands in provision of economic resources (Chafetz, 1991), and therefore, the wives may not have the power to be able to obtain much help for housework from husbands (Coleman, 1991). This perspective is already discussed by Chafetz (1991). At the same time, since their wives' income is seen as "surplus" income rather than "subsistence" in middle-class dual-career families (Coleman, 1991), the husbands in middle-class families is less likely to share the housework.

The middle-class dual-career wife with a high income is likely to have a husband who has a high income. Since his high income is partly result of heavy commitment of time and energy to job at the cost of less home involvement, the wife is likely to take on increased burden (Geerken & Gove, 1983).

Similarly, husbands' heavy commitment to job may result in less home involvement among Korean males. However, Korean husbands' extraordinary commitment to jobs resulted from the conditions of Korean labor market. Due to the high rate of population

and little job opportunities, Korean husbands must devote themselves to work in order to survive in the competitive Korean labor market. Therefore, Korean husbands are likely to work until late or to willingly participate in job-related social activities after work. For this reason, Korean husbands are likely to be isolated from family life and less likely to share household tasks due to lack of time to spend in the family. Under these circumstances, Korean working wives are not able to ask their husbands to share the housework. This employment conditions in Korean society functions as a "discounting factor" which diminish working wives' economic power in changing gendered division of labor because these make the husband unavailable to share domestic tasks.

The discounting factors which diminish the wife's leverage in exercising her economic power can be better understood when the Korean cultural and social context are considered. In contemporary Korean society, even nowadays, the wife's employment outside the home is seen as undesirable, although acceptable, because of the belief that wife's employment may prevent her from performing her foremost roles as a wife, mother and housewife, and that wife's economic power gained through her employment may make her too strong to obey her husband. On the part of husband, the wife's employment is seen as uncomfortable one because wife's employment might be interpreted as economic necessity of the family and as an indicator of husband's inability to provide. Due to this negative social climate against wife's employment, working wife is likely to appreciate her husband's permission for her employment outside (Cho, H.J., 1992), or she does not want to threaten or weaken her husband's authority within the family as the head of family or as the breadwinner, or she wants to avoid criticism toward her when she can not manage family and work role successfully at the same time. In order to continue to working outside, Korean dual-career wives, who are highly committed to their career, are likely to maintain the gendered division of labor by

assuming whole responsibility for household tasks regardless of their work outside.

Chassin et al.'s (1985) empirical findings indirectly support this speculation: Women who fit their husband's idea of women's role such as a mother were more likely to continue work.

Therefore, Korean dual-career wives are obsessed by the idea that they should perform perfectly their multiple roles as a wife, mother, housewife, and worker in order to survive in the workplace as well as to maintain a satisfactory family life. Due to this "superwoman complex" (Park, Ae-Sun, 1992), Korean dual-career wives are more likely to try to compensate for their absences during the daytime by working harder after they come back home from work, without asking any help from their husbands.

At the same time, considering that almost half of Korean dual-career couples in the sample live in an extended families (23 percent) or a modified extended families (20 percent), as Hofferth (1979) pointed out, the significant others' attitude toward married women's employment and gender roles may influence dual-career couples' role-sharing behavior. These significant others such as mother-in-law probably expect working wives to maintain the same level of housekeeping as that of housewives, or they criticize the working wives for their inappropriate house-keeping.

In order to get recognition from the significant others, or to avoid criticism and stigma such as a "bad wife or homemaker," to save their husbands' faces as the heads of the families, or to reduce the marital conflict, Korean dual-career wives, voluntarily or involuntarily, adhere to traditional gender roles and ideologies imposed upon them through socialization process. Therefore, Korean working wives are likely to maintain gendered division of labor within their household rather than make reasonable efforts to reallocate family tasks.

All these cultural, social, and economic factors function as "discounting factors" which diminish women's leverage in exercising their economic power by legitimizing wives' disproportionate share of family tasks regardless of their work outside as well as husbands' extreme devotion to work. As a result, gendered division of labor persists within Korean dual-career families.

This unexplained relationship between resource power and division of household labor among Korean female may be explained by considering other third variables such as age or family life cycle or presence of other adult available to help with housework. For instance, the older wives are likely to have more income because they have reached a higher level in their careers. These older wives are more likely to resist changing traditional gender roles because they have been taught in that way. Therefore, it is speculated that the older the wife is, the more resource power she has, the more she is likely to assume the housework. Therefore, the older wives are likely to do greater amount of housework. In other word, in order to explain the positive relationship between wives' resource power and their disproportionate share of housework, other variables which are not included in this model need to be examined in future studies.

As the other alternative which provides an explanation for the unexplained positive relationship between wives' resource power and their share of housework, the interaction between husbands' power and wives' might be explored. From the fact that Korean wives' increasing economic resources obtained through their paid work outside the home increases their shares of housework, it is speculated that wives' resource power was not strong enough to bring about changes in division of labor, and that there might be another power which outweighs the power of women's economic resources. In this study, it was found that husbands' resource power along with their definitional power reduces the husbands' share of housework. These findings indirectly suggests that wives' share of

housework will consequently increase when these two male powers are stronger than those wives have. However, in this study, the relationships between male resource power and female resource power, and male definitional power and female counterpart were not examined because the effect of each power was investigated within a gender group separately.

However, the findings of this study indirectly suggests the interrelationships between these powers. In that husbands' resource power is positively correlated with their definitional power which has more significant impact on husbands' share of housework, husbands' resource power appears to be reinforced by their definitional power. In contrast, wives' resource power does not seem to be supported by female definitional power. Wives' definitional power is not correlated with wives' resource power. Moreover, wives' own definitions on their own roles do not have any significant impact on wives' share of household tasks.

Integrating these findings, it is speculated that wives' resource power which was not supported by female definitional power was not strong enough to bring about changes in division of household labor. It is also assumed that male definitional power may be stronger than female resource power in affecting division of household labor in such a way to prevent women from exerting their resource power obtained through their gainful employment outside the home, and to make women to behave in a normative way. These speculations remain as open questions because the relationship between male definitional power and female resource power, the impact of male definitional power on wives' share of housework were not tested in this study. However, the findings from the Korean study reflects the reality of unbalanced power structure within the contemporary Korean dual-career families, in which husbands' definitional power plays the central role in determining the division of household labor.

Integrating these findings, it is assumed that gendered division of labor practiced in Korean dual-career families might be changed by changing husbands' traditional definitions of women's role to more egalitarian ones. Ross (1987) who found the same results suggested that change in division of labor at home which is set in motion by women taking jobs outside the home must be completed by a change in men's value. For this reason, the future study needs to explore how husband's sex-role beliefs affect the process of changing gendered division of labor.

B. Predictors of Intra-Role Conflict

In the male model, division of household labor is the only predictor with a direct impact on intra-role conflict: A husband's share of housework has a negative effect on his intra-role conflict. The husband who shares less is likely to experience higher level of intra-role conflict because he feels uncomfortable when asked to modify traditional gender roles toward more androgynous ones. The new definitions of gender roles expected to accommodate dual-career family life might threaten his own notion of self-esteem (Yogev, 1983). In contrast, the husband who shares more housework is likely to experience lower level of intra-role conflict in the dual-career situations, in which traditional gender roles which they have learned through socialization are expected to be replaced with more androgynous roles. The result of this study was congruent with Kessler and McRae's (1982) study. Kessler and McRae (1982) maintained that men who are supportive of their wives, to the extent that they take some child care responsibilities, are apparently more comfortable with dual earner family situation.

In the case of Korean males, resource power, definitional power and positional power have indirect impacts on intra-role conflict: 1) The husband who earns more is likely to share less housework, and to experience more intra-role conflict. In this case, husband with greater economic power may resist to equal role-sharing, and feel greater

discomfort when asked to modify their learned gender roles; 2) The husband who holds more conservative sex role definitions shares less housework, and is likely to experience more intra-role conflict when asked to abandon traditional gender role ideologies in order to modify them into more egalitarian one; 3) The husband who makes himself more needed and valued in given family roles by assuming important roles is likely to be more involved in family life, and experience lesser degree of intra-role conflict because he already transcended the rigid role differentiation.

On the other hand, in the female model, two significant predictors (resource power, and division of household labor) were found for intra-role conflict: It was found that a wife's greater share increases her intra-role conflict, while her greater resource power reduces it. The wife who assumes greater responsibilities for household tasks is likely to feel uncomfortable in the situations which require her to modify her traditional wife and mother roles due to the requirement of her work role outside. Also, the wife with greater resource power is likely to experience lower level of intra-role conflict. The wife may think it is all right to modify traditional gender roles to reallocate domestic tasks because she shares the economic role with her husband. Resource power contributes to directly reduce intra-role conflict by legitimating wives' employment because she brings money from her wage work.

In contrast to direct effect of resource power which decreases intra-role conflict, wife's resource power indirectly increases her intra-role conflict by increasing her share of household tasks. Higher income is associated with wives' greater responsibility for housework, leading to wives' greater intra-role conflict. Wives with greater economic resources are likely to experience higher level of intra-role conflict when they continue to perform most housework, despite the fact that they share the economic roles with their husbands by bringing money from their wage work.

Ross, Mirowsky, and Huber (1983) pointed out that the differential pattern in distress experienced by the dual-career husbands and wives is generated due to different problems husbands and wives face in dual-career situations. They discussed that the husband's central problem in the dual-career situation is one of self-esteem which may be undermined by embarrassment, guilt, or apprehension associated with wives' employment, while wife's central problem is asymmetric division of family tasks. Their discussion posits division of household labor and intra-role conflict as the crucial issues in dealing with the problems of the dual-career families. But, they did not posit both division of labor and intra-role conflict as equally important issues to both male and females, and, therefore, they did not examine the link between division of labor and intra-role conflict for both the male and female groups.

In this regard, the findings of this study may provide empirical support for this link between division of labor and intra-role conflict and delineate the differential effect of division of labor on intra-role conflict between males and females. The husband's greater share reduces husband's intra-role conflict, while the wife's greater share increases her intra-role conflict.

C. Predictors of Inter-Role Conflict

Among the Korean males, three significant predictors for inter-role conflict were found: Personal power has a negative impact on inter-role conflict, while positional power and division of labor have a positive impact on inter-role conflict.

The husband who is more needed and loved in his relationship with his wife is likely to experience lower level of work-home interference arising from conflicting demands of multi-roles. The wife, who needs his love, may voluntarily assume more responsibility for family tasks in order to reduce his share, or the husband might influence over his wife in such a way to avoid the unwanted housechores.

The greater the husband's positional power, the more he experiences inter-role conflict because he is likely to be more involved in family life, and take more responsibilities for organizing and coordinating family activities. Therefore, the husband with high positional power is expected to experience more inter-role conflict.

Division of labor also has a positive impact on inter-role conflict. The more the husband shares family tasks, the more inter-role conflict he experiences due to conflicting role demands, when he adds his labor at home into his work role outside.

Resource power, definitional power, and positional power indirectly affect inter-role conflict via division of labor: First, the husband with more resource power is likely to share less housework and to experience less inter-role conflict; Second, the husband with more conservative sex-role definitions is likely to share less housework, and to experience less inter-role conflict; Third, the husband with more positional power is likely to share more housework and to experience more inter-role conflict.

Among Korean females, intra-role conflict is the sole predictor which has a direct effect on inter-role conflict. It was found that the more intra-role conflict the wife experiences, the more inter-role conflict she experiences. The wife who feels greater discomfort when asked to modify traditional gender roles into more androgynous ones is likely to experience greater work-family interference because she may strive to meet both role demands which are incompatible.

Division of household labor does not directly affect wives' inter-role conflict, but indirectly affect their inter-role conflict by increasing their intra-role conflict. The wife who does more housework is likely to experience greater intra-role conflict, and therefore, experiences greater inter-role conflict.

Resource power indirectly increases inter-role conflict by increasing the wife's share of household labor and by increasing intra-role conflict. A wife with greater

resource power is likely to do more housework, and to experience more intra-role conflict and more inter-role conflict. Also, resource power indirectly decreases inter-role conflict by decreasing intra-role conflict. The wife with greater resource power is less likely to experience intra-role conflict, and lesser degree of intra-role conflict leads to lesser inter-role conflict. As seen in Table 12, total indirect effect of resource power on inter-role conflict is -0.022. The indirect effect of resource power through intra-role conflict on inter-role conflict is greater than that mediated through division of household labor and intra-role conflict on inter-role conflict.

With the increasing need for equal-role sharing, some researchers predict that role strain deriving from multi-role involvement might increase for the husband, while simultaneously decreasing for the wife (Bird & Ford, 1985). The findings of this study provide empirical support for these predictions. As expected, the husband who does greater amount of housework experiences a greater degree of inter-role conflict, while the wife experiences less inter-role conflict when her husband performs greater amount of housework. In this study, the effect of division of labor on wives' inter-role conflict was indirect: An increase in the husband's share decreases the wife's inter-role conflict by decreasing her intra-role conflict.

D. Predictors of Marital Satisfaction

In the male model, two predictors (division of household labor and personal power) were found for marital satisfaction: Division of household labor has a direct positive impact on marital satisfaction. Men who share more housework are probably more satisfied with their marriage. His greater involvement in family roles and marriage life may enhance satisfaction with marriage. There are few corresponding findings from empirical studies. However, a theoretical prediction on the relationship between division of household labor and marital satisfaction was found. Spitze (1988) views that the link

between division of household labor and marital instability may be expected to become stronger as more people define this as a legitimate issue for dissatisfaction, and predict that husband's greater share is positively associated with wife's marital satisfaction. In this study, the positive association between husband's greater share of housework and his marital satisfaction was found.

Personal power has another positive impact on marital satisfaction. The more the husband feels needed and valued in his relationship with his wife, the more satisfaction he finds in his marriage. In previous studies, the relationship between personal power and marital satisfaction was not theoretically explored. Therefore, there is no empirical data to support this relationship.

In this study, no other power except personal power has a direct impact on the husband's marital satisfaction. Instead, resource power, definitional power, and positional power indirectly affect marital satisfaction through division of household labor.

1) The husband with greater resources does less housework, and is likely to experience lower level of marital satisfaction. 2) The husband with more conservative sex role definitions does less housework, and is likely to feel less marital satisfaction. 3) The husband with more positional power does more housework, and is likely to feel greater marital satisfaction. There were few empirical studies examining the effects of resource, definitional and positional power on marital satisfaction.

In the female model, three predictors of marital satisfaction were found (resource power, personal power and inter-role conflict). First, just like in male model, personal power has the strongest effect on marital satisfaction: It was found that the more the wife feels needed and valued in the marital relationship, the more satisfaction she finds in her married life. Second, the more resource power the wife has, the more marital satisfaction she finds. We can surmise that the more she earns money, the more her self-

esteem or self confidence are enhanced so that this increases her marital satisfaction. Wife's resource power is seen as a beneficial effect of wife's employment on her marital satisfaction. Third, inter-role conflict was a very strong negative predictor of marital satisfaction. The more inter-role conflict the wife experiences, the less marital satisfaction she finds. For wives, conflicting role demands are likely to undermine the marital relationship, reducing marital satisfaction.

As an effort to provide an explanation for gender differences in marital satisfaction between husbands and wives, Burke & Weir (1976) assumed that self-identity conflict, which was defined as intra-role conflict in this study, may play the central role in determining marital satisfaction. Based on their findings that working wives held more positive attitudes toward marriage, but their husbands are less content with marriage, Burke and Weir (1976) hypothesized that the self-identity conflict reduces marital satisfaction. They concluded that husbands' marital satisfaction is lower than wives' because these husbands experiences more severe self-identity conflict than their wives. Their prediction was not confirmed by the results of this present study. In this study, no direct effect of intra-role conflict on marital satisfaction was found for both males and females. Only indirect effect of intra-role conflict on marital satisfaction was found among Korean females: The wife's intra-role conflict indirectly reduces her marital satisfaction by increasing her inter-role conflict.

On the other hand, Coverman's (1989) study showed that inter-role conflict (perception of work-family interference) reduces men's marital satisfaction, but not affect wives' marital satisfaction. The findings of present study are not congruent with those of these previous studies. In the present study, husband's inter-role conflict was found to have no significant direct negative impact on husband's marital satisfaction. Instead, wife's inter-role conflict was found to have a very strong significant negative effect on

her marital satisfaction in the female model. Further study needs to examine the independent effects of intra-and inter-role conflict on marital satisfaction.

In this study, division of household labor was hypothesized to be significantly associated with both spouses' marital satisfaction. However, the results of this study showed that division of labor did not play the central role in determining wife's marital satisfaction as anticipated. The expected negative relationship between wife's share of housework and her marital satisfaction was not found. Division of household labor was associated only with husband's marital satisfaction. Although wife's marital satisfaction was not directly determined by her share of housework, her disproportionate share of household labor indirectly decreases her marital satisfaction by increasing her intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict in Korean female model.

Division of labor operates differently in determining marital satisfaction for males and females: The husband's greater share of housework "directly increases" his marital satisfaction, but the wife's greater share "indirectly reduces" her marital satisfaction.

E. Predictors of Stress

In the male model, it was found that both intra- and inter-role conflict increases the level of stress: 1) The more intra-role conflict, the more stress the husband experiences; 2) The more inter-role conflict, the more stress he experiences. In this study, no direct effects of the four power constructs on stress were found. Resource power, definitional power, and positional power indirectly affect the level of stress via division of labor and intra-role conflict, while personal power and positional power indirectly affect stress via inter-role conflict.

In the female model, one direct effect on stress was found. Inter-role conflict has a strong positive effect on stress: The more inter-role conflict the wife experiences, the more stress she experiences.

No direct effect of powers on stress were found among Korean females.

Resource power indirectly affects the level of stress. First, women's resource power decreases stress by decreasing intra- & inter-role conflict. Second, women's resource power increases stress by increasing her shares of housework, which, in turn, increases intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict. Total indirect effect of resource power on stress was -0.011 (See Table 12). The results showed that the indirect effect of resource power on stress through intra- and inter-role conflict is stronger than the indirect effect of resource power on stress through division of household labor, intra- and inter-role conflict.

Guelzow et al. (1991) found that for both men and women, role strain was significantly related to distress through direct and indirect paths, but they pointed out gender differences in the source of role strain. Many researchers found a detrimental impact of inter-role conflict on the psychological well-being of women. Coverman's (1989) study showed that inter-role conflict (work-family interference) was detrimental to wives' psychological health, but not to men's psychological health. Other researchers also found that high dual-role conflict is associated with more symptom, depression and anxiety among employed wives (Parry, 1987; Pearlin, 1975; Cleary & Mechanic, 1983). The findings of this study support the hypothesis predicted in the previous studies. Wives' inter-role conflict increases their stress. Although the same relationship was not predicted for husbands in the previous studies, the same pattern was found among the husbands in this study.

On the other hand, there is a prediction that the dual-career husband is likely to experience greater self-identity conflict which might be detrimental to his psychological well-being, few empirical studies examined this relationship. In this study, the detrimental effect of intra-role conflict on stress was found among the males.

In sum, the findings of this study provide empirical evidence for 2 predictions: 1) For both husband and wife, inter-role conflict is likely to increase stress level; 2) Intra-role conflict has a direct positive effect on stress only among husbands.

In this study, division of household labor was hypothesized to significantly increase both spouses' stress. However, the results of the study suggested that division of household labor did not play any important role in predicting stress. It was found that division of household labor has no direct effect on stress in both male and female model.

Instead, division of household labor has an indirect effect on stress. Among males, division of labor indirectly affect stress through intra-role conflict or through inter-role conflict: The husband who shares more housework is likely to experience less intra-role conflict and less stress; The husband who shares more housework is likely to experience more inter-role conflict and more stress. Total indirect effect of division of household labor on stress was 0.014 (See Table 10). The results indicate that the indirect effect of division of household labor on stress through inter-role conflict is stronger than that through intra-role conflict among Korean males. There are no empirical studies which explain the differential impact of division of labor on stress due to paucity of research in this area.

Among females, division of labor indirectly affects stress through intra-& inter-role conflict. The wife's greater share of housework increases the wife's intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict, and therefore, increase stress level of the wife. The husband's greater share of family tasks, reduces wife's intra-& inter-role conflict, and finally reduces the wife's stress level. These findings were congruent with the empirical findings of previous studies (Coverman, 1989).

A negative association between marital satisfaction and stress was predicted by many researchers. Ross et al. (1983) and Cleary & Mechanic (1983) predicted the

negative effect of marital satisfaction on stress. However, in this study, marital satisfaction is not a significant predictor of stress at all in both the male and female groups. This fact indirectly indicates that couples' marital satisfaction does not significantly affect the stress level experienced by Korean dual-career husbands and wives.

F. Comments on Personal Power and Positional Power

Integrating the results of the study, several conclusions can be drawn concerning personal power and positional power. 1) In that personal and positional power have no significant impacts on wives' division of household labor, but positional power was a strong predictor of husband's share of housework, the prevailing notion that these two relational powers might be utilized by women who lack socio-economic power in bargaining with their husbands (Safilios-Rothschild, 1976) seems to be discarded.

2) The hypothesized positive relationship between positional power and share of housework was confirmed by the data among Korean males. The positive relationship between the husband's positional power and his share of housework implies that positional power acquired by fulfilling the important roles in the given position within the family increases, by its nature, one's share of housework in everyday life. From the previous literature, the positional power negatively exercised in conflict situation by withdrawing the services which have been offered or refusing to perform the important family roles was assumed, but was not investigated in this study. Therefore, only the positively exercised positional power by fulfilling one's potentials in the given roles was explored to investigate the effect of positional power on division of household labor.

3) Personal power had no influence at all in determining division of household labor for both males and females. This finding indicates that personal power is not the predictor of division of household labor for both spouses.

4) The findings that wives' personal power and positional power have no impacts at all on wives' share of housework implies that both relational powers might not be perceived as "resources" of power to be used to achieve "intended effects" by wives. Without being recognized as valuable resources by wives themselves, these personal power and positional power may still remain as "love/duty" ethos rather than "bases" of power among females.

In conclusion, the findings that personal power has no significant effect on division of household labor of both males and females, and positional power has no effect on wives' share, suggests that these two relational powers are not strong as socio-economic power (resource power and definitional power) as the determinants of division of labor.

3. Conclusions and Implications

As a result of a comparison of the male and female models, four significant relationships were found in both the male and female models. The first two relationships can be generalized across genders since they have the same direction of association for both gender groups: 1) Greater personal power increases marital satisfaction; 2) Higher level of inter-role conflict increases stress.

On the other hand, the other two common relationships, which are also significant for both the male and female models, were different in the direction of the association between the genders. Although resource power is the only one common predictor of division of household labor in both male and female groups, resource power operated quite differently in determining division of household labor for males and females:

3) Husband's greater resource power reduces his share of housework, while wife's greater resource power increases her share.

Division of labor was a common predictor of intra-role conflict for males and females. However, the effect of division of household labor was opposite for males and females: 4) Husband's greater share of housework reduces his intra-role conflict, whereas wife's greater share increases her intra-role conflict.

With the exception of these four common links, the analyses revealed substantial gender differences in the complex interrelationships between the variables of interest. Among the four bases of power to be used as "resources" in bargaining with the spouse to reduce one's share of housework, it was found that all power bases except personal power directly affect husbands' share of housework, whereas only resource power has a direct effect on wives' share of housework.

As a predictor of intra-role conflict, resource power directly reduces wives' intra-role conflict, but has no direct effect for husbands. Resource power may reduce wives' intra-role conflict by legitimizing wives' employment. In other words, wives with greater economic power may be less likely to feel discomfort when forced to modify the traditional wife and mother roles due to the requirements of the work role outside the home.

The most conspicuous gender differences were found in the predictors which determine inter-role conflict. A greater share of household labor directly increases the husband's inter-role conflict, while it indirectly increases the wife's inter-role conflict by increasing her intra-role conflict. The husband's personal power reduces his inter-role conflict, and his positional power increases his inter-role conflict, whereas these two powers have no effect at all on the wife's inter-role conflict. For husbands, a greater share of housework, or more involvement in family life, or more commitment to the marital relationship directly affect their inter-role conflict. In contrast, wives' inter-role conflict was not directly affected by share of housework, personal power or positional

power, but by intra-role conflict experienced by these wives. Intra-role conflict reveals wives' feelings and perceptions about dual-career situation in which more equitable role-sharing toward more androgynous roles are expected, but rarely practiced.

As a determinant of marital satisfaction, the husband's share of housework directly increases his marital satisfaction, but the wife's share has no direct effect at all on her marital satisfaction. However, the wife's greater share indirectly reduces her marital satisfaction by increasing her intra-role and inter-role conflict. The wife's inter-role conflict was a very strong negative predictor of marital satisfaction, but the husband's inter-role conflict has no such impact on his marital satisfaction. In addition, wives' resource power increases wives' marital satisfaction, but no such effect of resource power was found among the husbands.

As a predictor of stress, intra-role conflict directly increases the husband's stress, but no such effect was found among wives. For both husbands and wives, division of household labor has an indirect effect on stress. Among males, the husband's greater share of housework indirectly reduces stress by reducing his intra-role conflict, while it indirectly increases stress by increasing his inter-role conflict. The findings suggest that the husband's share of household labor has different indirect effects on stress when it is mediated by intra-role conflict than when it is mediated through inter-role conflict. Wives' greater share of household tasks indirectly increases stress by increasing their intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict.

All these findings revealed that the experience of dual-career husbands and wives are not the same because they differ in the "bases" in power, as well as in "felt difficulties" in combining work and family roles due to different perceptions and role expectations. In particular, the findings showed that differences in the power that each spouse has affect differently the share of household labor performed by husbands and wives, and that

division of household labor operates quite differently in determining dual-career couples' intra- and inter-role conflict and marital satisfaction. The husband's greater share of housework reduces his intra-role conflict, but wife's greater share increases her intra-role conflict. The husband's greater share of housework increases his inter-role conflict, but wife's greater share has no direct effect on her inter-role conflict. The division of household labor has a positive impact on husband's marital satisfaction, but no significant direct effect on wife's marital satisfaction.

The fact that division of household labor has no direct effect on wives' inter-role conflict and their marital satisfaction suggests that division of household labor does not play the central role as the determinant of inter-role conflict and marital satisfaction among dual-career wives. These findings imply that wives are not affected by the amount of housework they perform in experiencing work-family interference or marital satisfaction. Wives might accept the reality of the family norm, that is, that they should perform a disproportionate share of housework, as "natural," or find "no alternatives" to it.

In contrast to the husbands, whose inter-role conflict and marital satisfaction are directly affected by the amount of their share of housework, the inter-role conflict and marital satisfaction experienced by wives are not affected by the division of household labor itself. Rather, these wives' marital satisfaction is affected by their inter-role conflict, and their inter-role conflict is affected by the perception of "felt difficulties" in the dual-career situation (intra-role conflict), which is directly affected by the extent of their share of housework. Integrating these findings, the behavioral aspect of gendered division of household labor (actual division of household labor) has a significant effect among husbands, whereas the perceptual aspect of gendered division of labor (the impact of

gendered division of labor on perception of the difficulties in combining dual roles and modifying traditional gender roles) has a more significant meaning to the wives.

Although division of household labor does not directly affect wives' inter-role conflict or marital satisfaction, it continues to influence indirectly. Among the wives, a greater share of household labor indirectly increases their inter-role conflict by increasing their intra-role conflict, and indirectly decreases their marital satisfaction by increasing their intra- and inter-role conflict. For this reason, division of household labor seems to be an underlying problem which continues to cause problems confronting dual-career couples in an indirect way.

In order to reduce role conflict and stress, and to increase marital satisfaction among dual-career couples, it is necessary not only to reduce intra- and inter-role conflicts, but also to divide household labor in a more equitable way. First, intra-role conflict for both spouses can be reduced by increasing husbands' share of housework while reducing wives' share because husbands' greater share reduces intra-role conflict experienced by both husbands and wives. Second, both spouses' marital satisfaction can be increased by increasing husbands' share of housework because husbands' greater share directly increases their marital satisfaction, and indirectly increases wives' by decreasing their intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict. Third, husband's stress can be reduced when his intra-role conflict as well as inter-role conflict are reduced. Also wife's stress can be reduced when her inter-role conflict is reduced. To reduce the inter-role conflict which increases stress experienced by both husbands and wives, the share of household labor would need to be reduced for both spouses. This is true because husband's lesser share of household tasks can reduce his inter-role conflict, while wife's lesser share reduces her inter-role conflict.

The finding that a greater share of household labor increases each spouse's inter-role conflict indicates that division of household labor can be the source of a "conflict of interest" between dual-career husbands and wives. The husband's greater share of housework directly increases his inter-role conflict, but indirectly reduces the wife's inter-role conflict. The wife can reduce her inter-role conflict by getting her husband to assume more family tasks, which will, in turn, increase his own inter-role conflict. In order to reduce one's own inter-role conflict, husbands and wives may struggle to reduce their own share of household labor. Unless the household labor is divided equally between husbands and wives, they each hold the opposite positions surrounding the division of household labor, and therefore, a "tug-of-war" is expected over division of labor to reduce each spouse's own inter-role conflict.

To reduce inter-role conflict for both spouses which significantly affects wives' marital satisfaction and stress level of both spouses, husbands and wives need to learn to communicate openly concerning the difficulties they confront in dual-career situations. They also need to express their opinions concerning possible solutions, and learn to negotiate in order to reallocate household tasks in a more equitable way. In order to help the dual-career couples to reduce tensions which might exist in the process of reallocating household tasks toward a more equitable division, counseling services as well as educational programs need to be developed. These services can help dual-career couples to understand the differential experiences in dual-career situations, and the detrimental consequences of asymmetric division of labor on their own well-being and marriage life, and help them to reallocate the household tasks in a more equitable way. These services also facilitate their learning how to negotiate toward workable solutions for their problems.

Based on the findings showing that the gendered division of labor and accompanying intra- and inter-role conflict have detrimental impacts on the couples' psychological well-being and their married life, some remedial or educational strategies were suggested to help them to identify the sources of their presenting problems and to resolve them. However, the needed changes in the division of household labor, which will result in reducing role conflicts and stress and enhancing marital satisfaction, are difficult to accomplish by the individuals' efforts using these strategies.

As the findings of this study revealed, the husband's resource power and definitional power, which are mutually reinforced, together significantly reduce his share of housework, while the wife's resource power which was not supported by female definitional power was not strong enough to bring about changes in the division of household labor. These results indicate that the unbalanced power structure existing between husbands and wives is the real problem underlying the gendered division of labor. Since the differences in resource power and definitional power between males and females have been socially constructed through the socio-economic structure and institutions, ways to rid society of these social, economic and structural barriers need to be explored in order to bring about changes in the systems which support this gendered division of labor.

In order to reduce the earnings gap between males and females which causes differential resource power between the genders, the existing social and employment policies need to be reexamined to develop a more humane and equitable policy which discourages discriminatory practices in hiring, differential status between the genders, or unequal pay for equal work (Gilbert, 1984). Fundamental changes in these social policies should be accompanied by changes in prevailing values, ideologies, and gender norms in society, as well as by changes in employers' attitudes toward women workers

(Gilbert, 1984). To the extent that traditional gender role ideologies and gender norms, which justify the male's superior position and legitimize the advantages that accrue to males, are sustained in society, women receive lower recognition and economic rewards for their work than men do, and less prestige, knowledge, and expertise are attributed to women (Bayer and Astin, 1975; cited in Gilbert, 1984). As long as social policies reflect the social definitions imposed by the dominant male group, these policies are likely to justify unequal pay or unequal treatment of women in the workplace. As a consequence, women's resource power as well as definitional power will be reduced, perpetuating gender inequality. For these reasons, it is crucial to develop a workable social policy which can reduce the earnings gap by getting rid of discrimination against women at work and unequal pay, and which can ensure equality between the genders based on egalitarianism by definition as well as in practice.

In addition to these social policies for employment regulations, a comprehensive family policy which provides high-quality community-based child care (Gilbert, 1984), on-site day care, as well as flexible work time, and child care leave for both parents (Sidel, 1986) needs to be developed to provide supports for dual-career couples who strive to manage work and family life simultaneously. When these comprehensive family policies reflect the basic assumption of a dual-career family, that is, the compatibility of occupation and family life for both spouses and equal role-sharing, the occupational structures can be reorganized to help both spouses to pursue their careers while maintaining their family lives.

Under these comprehensive family and employment policies, the rigid role differentiation between the genders will be diminished, and the earnings gap will be narrowed. Without developing these comprehensive family and employment policies at the macro level, the power differences in resource power and definitional power existing

between males and females continue to reinforce the gendered division of labor.

Therefore, the individual's efforts to achieve a more equitable division of household tasks through communication and negotiation within individual households may be in vain without intervention at the macro, or societal, level.

The results of this study showed the importance of resource power and definitional power as the causal factors of gendered division of labor, and suggest that more comprehensive family policies as well as social policies need to be developed in order to reduce power differences between the genders.

4. Limitations and Suggestions for the Future Study

Nonrandom sampling was used in this study due to constraints of time, financial resources, and lack of an exhaustive listing of Korean dual-career families. In particular, this study aims to investigate dual-career family life among Korean dual-career couples who are employed full-time, living currently together, and have children. In order to identify Korean dual-career couples who are eligible according to the criteria of the subjects, the sample was selected purposively on the basis of the researcher's own knowledge of the population and the nature of the research aims (Babbie, 1990). A list of diverse occupations in which large population of dual-career wives might be identified was compiled based on the researcher's own knowledge and judgment of representation of this particular group of dual-career couples of interest. This subjective nature of the sampling process may threaten external validity, and therefore, the generalizability of the results of this study is restricted.

Another threat to the generalizability of this study is derived from the use of volunteers. Prior to conducting the survey, each dual-career wife listed in the sampling

list was contacted by the researcher personally to ask for participation in the study. Since only voluntary participants were included in the sample, these self-selected respondents may provide biased responses. Those most likely to respond may be those who feel strongly about the issues inherent in dual-career family life, and those who have extreme opinions. For these reasons, the generalizability of the results of this study may be restricted. In order to enhance the generalizability of the study, a greater representative dual-career couples needs to be sampled, using random sampling in the future studies.

In addition, the results of this study may not be generalized into the larger population across the culture since the theoretical model developed in this study was tested by only one source of data, that is, those collected from the Korean middle-class dual-career couples. Since the power structure may have been differently constructed in different cultural and social contexts, the power structure which began to change with increasing wives' employment outside may affect family life and marital relationships in other culture in different ways. The utility of the theoretical model may be tested by a cross-cultural comparison in the future studies.

The data was collected by a cross-sectional survey in this study due to limitation of resources. Considering that power structure has been socially structured for a long period of time, and that power structure has been changing very slowly, a longitudinal study would be profitable in determining the impact of changes in power structure within the dual-career families on family life and marital relationship in the future.

The theoretical model developed in this study includes only the major latent constructs. These major latent constructs are power structure, division of household labor, role conflicts, marital satisfaction, and stress. In order to examine the interrelationships among them, the other important variables such as demographic or career-related variables were left out. The omission of influential variables might lead to

spurious results (Coverman, 1989). In particular, the unexplained relationship between wives' resource power and their share of housework may be explained by including third variables such as age, number of children, family life cycle, family types (e.g. extended family, nuclear family, etc.), and the alternatives which wives have for housework and child care (e.g. other adult available to help, or well-developed social programs or facilities for child care). Future studies need to refine this theoretical model by including the other important variables which may affect the hypothesized relationships, but omitted in this study (e.g. length of employment, orientation toward career, the importance of wife's income to family, age, number of children, family life cycle, family types, coping strategies, and the alternatives the wives can take).

In order to reduce the effects of confounding variables, social class, living situation (currently living together), and presence of children within the household were controlled in this study. However, considering that women's economic power and the other resources they have vary with each social class, there is a need to examine the interrelationships of the variables of interest "between" the classes. It would be profitable to compare the theoretical model proposed in this study across social classes in order to identify the differential impact of changes in the family power structure on well-being and marriage life among diverse dual-career families.

Based on the assumption that dual-career family life experienced by dual-career husbands and wives may be different due to their differential power bases, and that these powers have a differential impact on life outcomes, the male and female models were developed separately for comparison. This study focused on only the individual husband's or wife's perceptions of powers they have, and the impact of each power on individual husband's and wife's own behaviors or life outcomes. However, some variables need to be examined in the interaction between husbands and wives. For

instance, in order to understand why wives share more housework regardless of their increasing resource power, there is a need to investigate the impact of husbands' definitional power on wives' share of housework in addition to the impact of wives' own definitional power on their share of housework. For this reason, future studies need to develop a theoretical model which can delineate the effects of husband's powers on wife's behavior and perceptions, vice versa, and which can compare each power between husbands and wives in order to better understand the dynamics in the dual-career marriage.

The previous studies have not examined all relevant dimensions of power; instead, they examined only economic resources as the "base" of power. This study attempted to expand the dimensions of power base by including one structural and ideological power (definitional power), and two relational powers (personal power and positional power).

Definitional power has been well defined by Chafetz (1991) as the ability to impose social definitions upon women to justify males' superior position and to legitimize the advantages that accrue to males, as well as to keep the inferior counterpart, females, in "their places." This definition clearly indicates male definitional power as the source of power for males. But male definitional power which imposes unfavorable definitions upon women is a "constraint" rather than a source of power for females. Definitional power is male-centered power, which is not applicable to women at present. Therefore, in this study, definitional power of women was measured as the degree to which women lack definitional power because women have no equivalent definitional power to challenge males or to define themselves and impose their own definitions. Only when women can challenge the social definitions imposed upon them, and define their own identities and roles by themselves, will women have definitional power. In future studies, the relationship between females' self-definition and prevailing social definitions

imposed by males should be explored in order to conceptualize definitional power as the source of power which can be applicable to both men and women.

Up to now, there have been few well-conceptualized definitions of personal power and positional power. These two power constructs are relatively new in the studies of family power, and few studies explore them as dimensions of power bases. In this study, an effort was made to conceptualize personal power and positional power as the bases of family power, and to develop measures for these constructs. However, due to the paucity of previous studies on these two power constructs, the conceptualization and measurement of these powers have limitations in this study.

Previously, personal power and positional power have been viewed as sources of power which might be used as a leverage within the marital relationship usually by wives who have no access to socio-economic power, and are disadvantaged in the public arena in bargaining with their husbands. However, the results of this study show that positional power to be the source of power which has a significant effect on husbands' share of household labor, and that personal power and positional power significantly affect inter-role conflict among the husbands, while no effect at all on the wives' share of house work and inter-role conflict. Therefore, the previous conceptualization of these two powers as "gender-specific" ("wife-specific") needs to be revised. In future studies, personal power and positional power need to be well-conceptualized in order to develop them as relevant sources of power which both men and women utilize in a relational context. In addition, the relationship between these relational powers and socio-economic powers need to be explored further in future research in order to understand the meaning of these relational powers to men and women in relation to socio-economic power (resource power and definitional power). More clarity of definitions on personal

power and positional power are required to develop good instruments which can measure these power constructs adequately and accurately.

The measures in this study were originally developed in English. However, to collect data from Korean subjects, this study used a questionnaire which was translated into Korean. The Korean version of the questionnaire was pre-tested by Korean professionals (newspaper reporters, etc.), but back-translation was not done due to lack of time. In order to validate the translation of the instrument from English to Korean language, future studies need to conduct the back translation of the questionnaire.

In addition, the scales for personal power, positional power, and intra-role conflict were developed mainly by the researcher. Also, the scales for definitional power and inter-role conflict were made by using or adapting the existing items of diverse scales. For these reasons, there was no previously established reliability for these scales. In addition, since it is the first attempt to investigate the Korean dual-career family life, there was no previously established reliability for these scales of the Korean version of the questionnaire. Therefore, via replication in future studies, the instruments developed by this study need to be evaluated, using Korean population as well as other cross-cultural populations. The results of replication will help establish the reliability of the instruments used in this study in the future.

Due to paucity of previously existing theories or lack of empirical findings on definitional power, personal power, and positional power, some of relationships hypothesized in the theoretical model was not based on a priori theories or empirical findings. Instead, these relationships were explored based on the researcher's knowledge and judgment on these relationships without theoretical support. For this reason, the theoretical model proposed in this study is not purely "confirmatory" although this study attempted to construct and test a causal model which specifies the relationships of

interest by analyzing data by CSA (Covariance Structure Analysis) which can test the hypothetical model statistically. Only when each relationship between the variables is hypothesized based on sound theories, and supported by empirical findings, then a causal model proposed in this study can be validated or confirmed in the future.

In order to develop a theoretical model in which causal relationships can be specified, in the future studies, conceptualization of personal power and positional power need to be refined in such a way that these powers are utilized by both men and women as "resources" in the relational context. More clarity of definitions on definitional power, personal power, and positional power are required to develop better instruments which can measure these power constructs adequately and accurately. The theoretical model proposed in this study needs to be evaluated through replication with a more representative sample of dual-career couples across culture, using a "longitudinal" study instead of a "cross-sectional" survey.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Questionnaires

한국 맞벌이 부부의 가정생활 실태에 대한 설문조사

부인께 :

아름다운 봄날씨를 맞이하여 댁내 모두 안녕하십니까? 저는 미국 테네시 주립대학교에서 사회사업학을 전공하고 있는 이명신입니다. 저는 동 대학교에서 박사학위과정을 수료하고 학위논문을 준비하고 있습니다.

저는 평소 한국의 맞벌이 부부가 가정과 직장생활을 양립하는 과정에서 느끼는 고충이 매우 큼을 주위에서 많이 보아 왔고, 따라서 이 문제에 관심을 갖게 되었습니다. 저의 박사학위논문은 이러한 문제를 다루는 것이며, 그 실태를 좀더 정확히 파악하고자 다음의 설문조사를 하게 되었습니다.

이 설문조사는 맞벌이 부부가 직장생활과 가정생활을 양립해 나가는 과정에서 일어나는 여러가지 애로사항을 조사함으로써, 맞벌이 부부가 직면하고 있는 문제점들에 대한 이해를 보다 증진하고, 그러한 문제를 해결하기 위한 상담 서비스 및 사회복지정책을 개발하는 데 필요한 기초자료를 얻고자 실시되고 있습니다.

귀하께서 맞벌이 생활을 하시는 가운데 평소 느끼시고 생각하시는 바를 솔직하게 답해 주시면 저의 연구에 큰 도움이 될 것입니다. 귀하께서 답해 주신 내용이나 개인적 신분은 철저히 비밀로 보장될 것입니다. 이 조사의 결과는 익명으로 처리되며, 학술적 목적 이외의 다른 용도로는 절대로 사용하지 않을 것을 분명히 약속드립니다.

이 설문조사를 위해 부인용 설문지와 남편용 설문지가 별도로 마련되어 있습니다. 설문지를 작성하시는 동안 서로 상의하지 마시고, 귀하가 평소에 느끼셨던 생각이나 의견을 솔직하게 답해 주시면 감사하겠습니다. 이 설문지를 작성하는데는 약 10분이 소요될 것입니다. 작성하신 설문지는 동봉한 원봉투에 넣어 저에게 돌려주시면 고맙겠습니다. 설문지 작성시 의문사항이 있으시면, 연구자(이명신 : 02-359-1071)에게 문의하여 주시기 바랍니다.

바쁘신 중에도 이렇게 귀중한 시간을 내주셔서 대단히 감사합니다. 댁내에 행복과 건강이 가득하시길 기원 드립니다.

1994 년 3 월

연구지도교수 : Dr. Catherine Faver, Professor
College of Social Work
The University of Tennessee

연구자 : 이 명 신
테네시 주립대학교 사회사업학과
박사학위과정

제 1 부 : 여성의 역할에 대한 태도

아래의 질문들은 우리 모두가 지니고 있는 소신이나 견해, 그리고 우리들이 취하게 되는 태도에 대한 것입니다. 각 문장을 자세히 읽으시고 그 내용에 찬성하는 정도를 가장 적합한 숫자를 골라 표해 주십시오.

우리 모두 각기 서로 다른 태도와 견해를 지닐 수 있기 때문에, 어떤 답변이 옳은 것이고, 어떤 답변이 그르다고 말할 수는 없겠습니다. 여러분 자신의 느낌을 솔직하게 말씀해 주십시오.

	적극 반대	다소 반대	다소 찬성	적극 찬성
1. 아내가 아이를 갖는 것보다 직장생활하기를 더 원한다면 그 결정은 아내의 의사에 맡겨야 한다.....1	2	3	4	
2. 어린 자녀를 둔 어머니는 경제적으로 절실히 필요한 경우가 아니라면 직업을 가지지 않는 것이 좋다.....1	2	3	4	
3. 아무리 여성 자신이 뛰어난 지력과 창조력으로 성공을 거둔다 해도 결혼하여 가정을 이루지 않는 한, 여성으로서의 진정한 행복을 알 수 없다.....1	2	3	4	
4. 아이를 건강하고 원만하게 잘 기르는 것이 여성이 사회에 가장 기여할 수 있는 길이다.....1	2	3	4	
5. 가정내의 중대사를 결정하는 데 있어 아내의 의견 역시 남편의 의견과 마찬가지로 똑같이 반영되어야 한다...1	2	3	4	
6. 남편이 아내에게 충실하고 물질적으로 만족을 준다면 그외의 개인적 단점은 크게 문제되지 않는다.....1	2	3	4	
7. 남편에게 있어 아내가 요리를 잘하고 가정살림을 잘 꾸려나가는 것이 지적 동반자의 역할보다 중요하다.....1	2	3	4	
8. 남편이 사회적으로 성공할 수 있도록 돕는 일이 아내 자신이 사회적으로 성공하는 것보다 중요하다.....1	2	3	4	
9. 아내가 직장생활을 할 경우, 남편은 식사준비, 청소, 빨래 등 집안일을 똑같이 분담하여야 한다.....1	2	3	4	
10. 만일 아내의 직장생활이 가정생활에 지장을 주는 경우라면, 아내는 직장생활을 그만두는 것이 좋다.....1	2	3	4	
11. 남편은 장기적인 인생계획을 세울 수 있는 반면, 아내는 집안일이나 육아에 대한 책임 때문에 장기적인 인생계획을 세우기 어렵다.....1	2	3	4	

	적극	다소	다소	적극
	반대	반대	찬성	찬성
12. 결혼생활에 있어 아내와 남편은 가족 부양의 경제적 책임을 함께 나누어야 한다.....1	2	3	4	

제 2 부 : 일상 가정생활에서의 역할

각 문장을 읽으시고, 다음과 같은 역할을 여러분의 일상생활 속에서 담당할 가능성이 얼마나 높은지 표해 주십시오.

	매우 낮다	매우 높다		
1. 어떤 결정을 내려야 할 경우, 남편에 대한 애정을 표시함으로써, 남편이 내 결정을 따르게 한다.....1	2	3	4	
2. 남편에게 불만이 있을 경우, 나는 남편에게 먼저 말을 붙이지 않음으로써 불만을 표시한다.....1	2	3	4	
3. 내 남편은 걱정거리가 있거나 다른 사람들과 문제가 있을 때 나의 정신적 지지와 격려를 필요로 한다.....1	2	3	4	
4. 내 남편은 모든 결정을 내리기 전에 먼저 나의 의견을 구한다.....1	2	3	4	
5. 우리 아이들은 남편보다는 나에게 조언을 구하는 편이다.....1	2	3	4	
6. 서로에 대한 사랑과 신뢰 때문에 내 남편은 나에게 충실하다.....1	2	3	4	
7. 서로에 대한 사랑과 신뢰 때문에 나는 내 남편에게 충실하다.....1	2	3	4	
8. 내가 집안일을 돌보지 않는다면 내 남편은 바깥에서의 직장일에 전념할 수 없을 것이다.....1	2	3	4	
9. 집안에 문제가 생길 때, 남편보다는 내가 가능한 해결책을 찾기 위해 노력한다.....1	2	3	4	
10. 가족끼리 함께 하는 시간을 갖기 위해 남편과 아이들의 시간표를 챙기고 조절한다.....1	2	3	4	
11. 주로 내가 누구를 식사에 초대할지 결정한다. 1	2	3	4	

	매우 낮다		매우 높다	
12. 남편과 아이들 사이에 대화가 없거나 갈등이 있을 때, 남편과 아이들 사이에서 중개자 역할을 한다	1	2	3	4
13. 나는 우리 아이가 학교에서 어떻게 생활하고 있는지 알고 있다.....	1	2	3	4
14. 친척 및 친지와의 관계를 원만하게 유지해 나가기 위해 남편보다는 내가 자주 전화하거나 편지를 한다.....	1	2	3	4
15. 집안일을 처리하기 위해, 남편에게 해야할 일을 지정하여 맡긴다.....	1	2	3	4
16. 남편이 일 때문에 밤에 집을 비울 경우, 나 혼자 아이들을 돌보는 것이 내겐 아주 힘들게 느껴진다.....	1	2	3	4
17. 나는 남편의 직장에서 무슨 일이 일어나고 있는 지 항상 알고 지낸다.....	1	2	3	4
18. 새 집을 구입할지에 대한 최종결정은 내가 내린다...	1	2	3	4
19. 나는 내 아들과 딸이 성장발달 과정에서 겪는 육체적, 심리적 변화 (예를 들어 첫 월경 같은)에 잘 대처해 나갈 수 있도록 도와준다.....	1	2	3	4

제 3 부 : 결혼생활 만족도

다음은 여러분의 결혼생활에 관한 질문입니다. 각 문장을 읽으시고 결혼생활에 만족하시는 정도를 가장 적합한 답을 골라 표하여 주십시오.

	매우 불만		매우 만족	
1. 남편으로부터 받는 사랑과 애정에 얼마나 만족하고 계십니까?.....	1	2	3	4
2. 남편이 당신의 개인적 문제점이나 감정을 이해해 주는 정도에 얼마나 만족하고 계십니까?.....	1	2	3	4
3. 남편을 인생의 동반자로서 친구처럼 느끼는 정도에 얼마나 만족하고 계십니까?.....	1	2	3	4
4. 모든 점을 고려할 때, 결혼생활 전반에 대하여 얼마나 만족하고 계십니까?.....	1	2	3	4

제 4 부 : 가 사 분 담

다음에 열거된 각각의 가사일을 '현재' 누가 담당하고 있는 지, 또 바꿀 수 있다면 누가 그 일을 담당하는 것이 '바람직하다'고 생각하시는 지를 아래의 보기에서 가장 적합한 답을 택하여 답해 주십시오.

- 아내가 늘 한다 = 1
 아내가 자주 한다 = 2
 둘이 똑같이 한다 = 3
 남편이 자주 한다 = 4
 남편이 늘 한다 = 5
 다른 사람이 한다 = 6 (구체적으로:)

	여러분의 가정에서 '현재' 누가 다음의 가사일을 담당하고 있습니까?	만일 현재의 가사분담을 바꿀 수 있다면, 누가 다음의 가사일을 담당 하는 것이 '바람직하다' 고 생각하십니까?
	현재(숫자에 동그라미)	바람직(숫자에 동그라미)
1. 시장보기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
2. 각종 세균내기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
3. 예산및 가계부 쓰기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
4. 친척.친지와 연락	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
5. 퇴근후 자녀 돌보기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
6. 각종 대소사및 손님초대	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
7. 자녀들의 각종 과외 활동 뒷바라지	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
8. 자녀의 사회화 및 가정교육	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
9. 가족 여행 및 여가 활동 계획	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
10. 빨래하기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
11. 식사준비	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
12. 집안수리	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
13. 청소	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
14. 쓰레기 버리기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
15. 설거지	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

제 5 부 : 제 5부는 세 부분으로 이루어져 있습니다. 각 문항을 읽으시고 가장 적합한 답을 하나만 택하여 답하여 주십시오.

제 1 장 : 여러분이 다음과 같은 상황에 있다면 어떻게 느끼실는지 가장 적합한 답을 골라 답해 주십시오.

	매우 불편	불편	편함	매우 편함
1. 가정보다는 내 직업에서 더 큰 만족과 보람을 느낄 때.....1	2	3	4	
2. 우리 가족의 부양을 전적으로 책임져야 할 때.....1	2	3	4	
3. 내가 원하는 만큼 집안 살림을 잘 꾸려나갈 수 없을 때.....1	2	3	4	
4. 함께 지내는 시간이 부족하기 때문에 남편이 원하는 것을 다해 줄 수 없을 때.....1	2	3	4	
5. 직장 일로 밤에 집을 비워야 할 때.....1	2	3	4	
6. 직장 일 때문에 아픈 아이를 돌 볼 수 없을 때.....1	2	3	4	

제 2 장 : 당신의 '남편'이 다음과 같은 상황에 있을 때 어떻게 느끼실는지 가장 알맞는 답을 골라 답하여 주십시오.

	매우 불편	불편	편함	매우 편함
1. 내 남편이 집안일을 거들러 들지 않을 때.....1	2	3	4	
2. 남편이 중요한 결정은 자기가 다 내리고, 자신이 하기 싫은 대수롭지 않거나 시간이 많이 걸리는 결정은 내게 맡길 때.....1	2	3	4	
3. 남편이 바깥에서의 자기 일에만 열중하고 우리의 가정 생활에 무관심할 때.....1	2	3	4	
4. 남편이 자신의 성공적 직장 생활을 위해 나의 직장 생활을 고려하지 않을 때.....1	2	3	4	

제 3 장 : 다음과 같은 상황을 여러분의 일상생활 속에서 경험할 '가능성'이 얼마나 있는지 가장 적합한 답을 골라 답해 주십시오.

		매우 낮다	매우 높다	
1.	직장에 있을 때에도 나는 자주 집안 일과 아이들 걱정을 한다.....	1	2	3 4
2.	나의 직장 생활은 아내와 어머니로서의 역할때문에 지장을 많이 받고 있다.....	1	2	3 4
3.	집안일 때문에 직장에서 몰두하기가 어렵다.....	1	2	3 4
4.	우리 가정생활에 지장을 초래하는 경우, 나는 정해진 근무시간 이외의 업무상의 모임이나 회의에 참석하지 못한다.....	1	2	3 4
5.	내게는 주어진 모든 일을 다 해낼 수 있는 시간이 항상 부족한 것 같다.....	1	2	3 4
6.	직장일 때문에 나는 집에 있는 동안에도 제대로 편히 쉬지 못한다.....	1	2	3 4
7.	내게는 친구를 만나거나 동창회 등 사회적 모임을 가질 수 있는 시간이 매우 제한되어 있다.....	1	2	3 4

제 6 부 : 다음은 맞벌이 부부들이 직장일과 가정일을 효과적으로 양립해 나가기위해 많이 사용하는 방법들입니다. 각 문항을 읽으시고 여러분이 직장
과 가정일을 동시에 수행해 나가기 위해 다음의 방법들을 이용하시면
'예'라 답해 주시고, 그 방법을 이용하지않으시면 '아니오'라고 답해 주십
시오.

		예	아니오
1.	가사의 부담을 줄이기 위해, 탁아소를 이용하거나 아기 돌보 는 사람 및 가정부를 고용하는 등 외부의 도움을 구한다.....	1	2
2.	의논및 대화를 통해, 가정 주부로서의 나의 역할에 대한 남편의 기대치를 변화시키려고 시도한다.....	1	2
3.	가족들 (남편이나 아이)에게 내게 맡겨진 집안 일을 대신 해 줄 것을 요구한다.....	1	2
4.	내가 해야 하는 많은 역할 가운데 우선 순위를 정하고, 가장 우선적인 일을 먼저한다.....	1	2

예 아니오

5. 나는 가정에서의 아내, 어머니로서의 역할에 충실하기 위해
결코 직장일을 집에 가져오지 않는다.....1 2
6. 주어진 시간에 주어진 한가지 역할에만 충실하기 위하여 나는
직장에서 일하는 동안은 집안 일이나 아이들을 걱정하지
않는다.....1 2
7. 맞벌이 생활에서 일어나는 여러가지 어려움을 헤쳐나갈 특별한
각오나 대책없이 지낸다. 왜냐하면 시간이 흐르면 모든 일이
제대로 될 테니까.....1 2
8. 나는 우리 가족들이 내게 원하는 모든 것, 또 직장에서 내게
맡겨진 모든 일을 완벽하게 해내고자 열심히 노력하고
있다.....1 2
9. 나는 수퍼 우먼이 되려고 노력하기보다는 살림살이에 대한
나의 기대치를 낮추었다.....1 2

제 7 부 : 지난 3주 동안 다음과 같은 경험을 얼마나 자주 하셨는지요?

	전부	가끔	자주	매우자주
1.아침에 일어나면 무슨 일든 시작하기가 어렵다.....	1	2	3	4
2.침체되고 처지는 느낌.....	1	2	3	4
3.불안하다.....	1	2	3	4
4.신경과민.....	1	2	3	4
5.쉽게 잠들지 못하고, 깊은 잠을 못 잔다.....	1	2	3	4
6.소외감.....	1	2	3	4
7.아무것도 제대로 되는 일이 없는 것 같다.....	1	2	3	4
8.모든 것이 무의미하고 허무하게 느껴진다.....	1	2	3	4
9.기억력 쇠퇴.....	1	2	3	4
10.식욕부진.....	1	2	3	4
11.온 몸에 기운이 없다.....	1	2	3	4
12.가끔씩 어지럽다.....	1	2	3	4
13.머리가 무겁다.....	1	2	3	4
14.심장이 두근거린다.....	1	2	3	4
15.숨이 가쁘다.....	1	2	3	4
16.위산과다 또는 위궤양.....	1	2	3	4
17.손이 떨린다.....	1	2	3	4
18.식은땀.....	1	2	3	4
19.과도한 고민으로 몸이 쇠약해짐.....	1	2	3	4
20.빈번한 두통.....	1	2	3	4
21.온 몸에 열이 나는 것 같다.....	1	2	3	4

제 8 부 : 다음은 여러분의 개인적 신상에 관한 질문입니다. 해당난을 기입해 주시거나, 가장 적합한 답을 골라 표해 주십시오.

1. 성 별 : _____ 1. 여 _____ 2. 남
2. 생년월일 : _____
3. 결혼사항 : 1. 기혼, 배우자와 함께 거주
 2. 기혼, 주말 부부
 3. 이혼 및 별거
 4. 기타 (구체적으로: _____)
4. 현재의 배우자와 얼마나 오랫동안 결혼생활을 하셨는지요?
 _____년 _____월
5. 학 력 :
 1. 국민학교 _____ 2. 중학교 _____ 3. 고등학교
 4. 대학 중퇴 _____ 5. 대학졸업 _____ 6. 석사과정
 7. 박사과정 _____ 8. 기타 (구체적으로: _____)
6. a. 종교를 가지고 계시는지요?
 _____ 1. 예 _____ 2. 아니오
 ** '예'라고 답하셨으면 아래의 질문에 답해 주십시오.

 b. 다음 중 어떤 종교를 가지고 계십니까?
 _____ 1. 신교 _____ 2. 구교 _____ 3. 불교
 _____ 4. 기타 (구체적으로: _____)
7. 함께 거주하고 계신 가족사항을 기입해 주시기 바랍니다.

성 별	연 령	가족관계
(예) 남() 여(x)	12	딸
남() 여()		
남() 여()		
남() 여()		
남() 여()		
남() 여()		
남() 여()		

1) 탁아소 _____ 2) 유치원 _____ 3) 조부모님께 맡긴다.
4) 돈을 드리고 친척에게 맡긴다.
5) 아이 돌보는 사람을 고용한다.
6) 기타 (구체적으로: _____)
7) 우리 가정은 육아시설을 이용할 필요가 없다.

한국 맞벌이 부부의 가정생활 실태에 대한 설문조사

남편께 :

아름다운 봄날씨를 맞이하여 댁내 모두 안녕하십니까? 저는 미국 테네시 주립대학교에서 사회사업학을 전공하고 있는 이명신입니다. 저는 동 대학교에서 박사학위과정을 수료하고 학위논문을 준비하고 있습니다.

저는 평소 한국의 맞벌이 부부가 가정과 직장생활을 양립하는 과정에서 느끼는 고충이 매우 큼을 주위에서 많이 보아 왔고, 따라서 이 문제에 관심을 갖게 되었습니다. 저의 박사학위논문은 이러한 문제를 다루는 것이며, 그 실태를 좀더 정확히 파악하고자 다음의 설문조사를 하게 되었습니다.

이 설문조사는 맞벌이 부부가 직장생활과 가정생활을 양립해 나가는 과정에서 일어나는 여러가지 애로사항을 조사함으로써, 맞벌이 부부가 직면하고 있는 문제점들에 대한 이해를 보다 증진하고, 그러한 문제를 해결하기 위한 상담 서비스 및 사회복지정책을 개발하는 데 필요한 기초자료를 얻고자 실시되고 있습니다.

귀하께서 맞벌이 생활을 하시는 가운데 평소 느끼시고 생각하시는 바를 솔직하게 답해 주시면 저의 연구에 큰 도움이 될 것입니다. 귀하께서 답해 주신 내용이나 개인적 신분은 철저히 비밀로 보장될 것입니다. 이 조사의 결과는 익명으로 처리되며, 학술적 목적 이외의 다른 용도로는 절대로 사용하지 않을 것을 분명히 약속드립니다.

이 설문조사를 위해 부인용 설문지와 남편용 설문지가 별도로 마련되어 있습니다. 설문지를 작성하시는 동안 서로 상의하지 마시고, 귀하가 평소에 느끼셨던 생각이나 의견을 솔직하게 답해 주시면 감사하겠습니다. 이 설문지를 작성하는데는 약 10분이 소요될 것입니다. 작성하신 설문지는 동봉한 원봉투에 넣어 저에게 돌려주시면 고맙겠습니다. 설문지 작성시 의문사항이 있으시면, 연구자(이명신 : 02-359-1071)에게 문의하여 주시기 바랍니다.

바쁘신 중에도 이렇게 귀중한 시간을 내주셔서 대단히 감사합니다. 댁내에 행복과 건강이 가득하시길 기원 드립니다.

1994 년 3 월

연구지도교수 : Dr. Catherine Faver, Professor
College of Social Work
The University of Tennessee

연구자 : 이 명 신
테네시 주립대학교 사회사업학과
박사학위과정

제 1 부 : 여성의 역할에 대한 태도

아래의 질문들은 우리 모두가 지니고 있는 소신이나 견해, 그리고 우리들이 취하게 되는 태도에 대한 것입니다. 각 문장을 자세히 읽으시고 그 내용에 찬성하는 정도를 가장 적합한 숫자를 골라 표해 주십시오.

우리모두 각기 서로 다른 태도와 견해를 지닐 수 있기 때문에, 어떤 답변이 옳은 것이고, 어떤 답변이 그르다고 말할 수는 없겠습니다. 여러분 자신의 느낌을 솔직하게 말씀해 주십시오.

	적극 반대	다소 반대	다소 찬성	적극 찬성
1. 아내가 아이를 갖는 것보다 직장생활하기를 더 원한다면 그 결정은 아내의 의사에 맡겨야 한다.....1	2	3	4	
2. 어린 자녀를 둔 어머니는 경제적으로 절실히 필요한 경우가 아니라면 직업을 가지지 않는것이 좋다.....1	2	3	4	
3. 아무리 여성 자신이 뛰어난 지력과 창조력으로 성공을 거둔다 해도 결혼하여 가정을 이루지 않는한, 여성으로서의 진정한 행복을 알 수 없다.....1	2	3	4	
4. 아이를 건강하고 원만하게 잘 기르는 것이 여성이 사회에 가장 기여할 수 있는 길이다.....1	2	3	4	
5. 가정내의 중대사를 결정하는 데 있어 아내의 의견 역시 남편의 의견과 마찬가지로 똑같이 반영되어야 한다...1	2	3	4	
6. 남편이 아내에게 충실하고 물질적으로 만족을 준다면 그외의 개인적 단점은 크게 문제되지 않는다.....1	2	3	4	
7. 남편에게 있어 아내가 요리를 잘하고 가정살림을 잘 꾸려나가는 것이 지적 동반자의 역할보다 중요하다.....1	2	3	4	
8. 남편이 사회적으로 성공할 수 있도록 돕는 일이 아내 자신이 사회적으로 성공하는 것보다 중요하다.....1	2	3	4	
9. 아내가 직장생활을 할 경우, 남편은 식사준비, 청소, 빨래 등 집안일을 똑같이 분담하여야한다.....1	2	3	4	
10. 만일 아내의 직장생활이 가정생활에 지장을 주는 경우라면, 아내는 직장생활을 그만두는 것이 좋다.....1	2	3	4	
11. 남편은 장기적인 인생계획을 세울 수 있는 반면, 아내는 집안일이나 육아에 대한 책임 때문에 장기적인 인생계획을 세우기 어렵다.....1	2	3	4	

	적극 반대	다소 반대	다소 찬성	적극 찬성
12. 결혼생활에 있어 아내와 남편은 가족 부양의 경제적 책임을 함께 나누어야 한다.....1	2	3	4	

제 2 부 : 일상 가정생활에서의 역할

각 문장을 읽으시고, 다음과 같은 역할을 여러분의 일상생활 속에서 담당할 가능성이 얼마나 높은지 표해 주십시오.

	매우 낮다	매우 높다	매우 낮다	매우 높다
1. 어떤 결정을 내려야 할 경우, 아내에 대한 애정을 표시함으로써, 아내가 내 결정에 따르게 한다.....1	2	3	4	
2. 내 아내에게 불만이 있을 경우, 나는 아내에게 먼저 말을 붙이지 않음으로써 불만을 표시한다.....1	2	3	4	
3. 내 아내는 걱정거리가 있거나 다른 사람들과 문제가 있을 때 나의 정신적 지지와 격려를 필요로 한다.....1	2	3	4	
4. 내 아내는 모든 결정을 내리기 전에 먼저 나의 의견을 구한다.....1	2	3	4	
5. 우리 아이들은 아내보다는 나에게 조언을 구하는 편이다.....1	2	3	4	
6. 서로에 대한 사랑과 신뢰 때문에 내 아내는 나에게 충실하다.....1	2	3	4	
7. 서로에 대한 사랑과 신뢰 때문에 나는 내 아내에게 충실하다.....1	2	3	4	
8. 내가 집안일을 돌보지 않는다면 내 아내는 바깥에서의 직장일에 전념할 수 없을 것이다.....1	2	3	4	
9. 집안에 문제가 생길 때, 아내보다는 내가 가능한 해결책을 찾기 위해 노력한다.....1	2	3	4	
10. 가족끼리 함께 하는 시간을 갖기위해 아내와 아이들의 시간표를 챙기고 조절한다.....1	2	3	4	
11. 주로 내가 누구를 식사에 초대할지 결정한다. 1	2	3	4	

	매우 낮다	낮다	높다	매우 높다
12. 아내와 아이들 사이에 대화가 없거나 갈등이 있을 때, 아내와 아이들 사이에서 중개자 역할을 한다	1	2	3	4
13. 나는 우리 아이가 학교에서 어떻게 생활하고 있는지 알고 있다.....	1	2	3	4
14. 친척 및 친지와의 관계를 원만하게 유지해 나가기 위해 아내보다는 내가 자주 전화하거나 편지를 한다.....	1	2	3	4
15. 집안일을 처리하기 위해, 아내에게 해야할 일을 지정하여 맡긴다.....	1	2	3	4
16. 아내가 일 때문에 밤에 집을 비울 경우, 나 혼자 아이들을 돌보는 것이 내겐 아주 힘들게 느껴진다.....	1	2	3	4
17. 나는 아내의 직장에서 무슨 일이 일어나고 있는 지 항상 알고 지낸다.....	1	2	3	4
18. 새 집을 구입할지에 대한 최종결정은 내가 내린다...1	1	2	3	4
19. 나는 내 아들과 딸이 성장발달 과정에서 겪는 육체적, 심리적 변화 (예를 들어 첫 월경 같은)에 잘 대처해 나갈 수 있도록 도와준다.....	1	2	3	4

제 3 부 : 결혼생활 만족도

다음은 여러분의 결혼생활에 관한 질문입니다. 각 문장을 읽으시고 결혼생활에 만족하시는 정도를 가장 적합한 답을 골라 표하여 주십시오.

	매우 불만	불만	만족	매우 만족
1. 아내로부터 받는 사랑과 애정에 얼마나 만족하고 계십니까?.....	1	2	3	4
2. 아내가 당신의 개인적 문제점이나 감정을 이해해 주는 정도에 얼마나 만족하고 계십니까?.....	1	2	3	4
3. 아내를 인생의 동반자로서 친구처럼 느끼는 정도에 얼마나 만족하고 계십니까?.....	1	2	3	4
4. 모든 점을 고려할 때, 결혼생활 전반에 대하여 얼마나 만족하고 계십니까?.....	1	2	3	4

제 4 부 : 가 사 분 담

다음에 열거된 각각의 가사일을 '현재' 누가 담당하고 있는 지, 또 바꿀 수 있다면 누가 그 일을 담당하는 것이 '바람직하다'고 생각하시는 지를 아래의 보기에서 가장 적합한 답을 택하여 답해 주십시오.

- 아내가 늘 한다 = 1
 아내가 자주 한다 = 2
 둘이 똑같이 한다 = 3
 남편이 자주 한다 = 4
 남편이 늘 한다 = 5
 다른 사람이 한다 = 6 (구체적으로:)

	여러분의 가정에서 '현재' 누가 다음의 가사일을 담당하고 있습니까?	만일 현재의 가사분담을 바꿀 수 있다면, 누가 다음의 가사일을 담당 하는 것이 '바람직하다' 고 생각하십니까?
	현재(숫자에 동그라미)	바람직(숫자에 동그라미)
1. 시장보기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
2. 각종 세금내기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
3. 예산및 가계부 쓰기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
4. 친척, 친지와 연락	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
5. 퇴근후 자녀 돌보기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
6. 각종 대소사및 손님초대	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
7. 자녀들의 각종 과외 활동 뒷바라지	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
8. 자녀의 사회화 및 가정교육	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
9. 가족 여행 및 여가 활동 계획	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
10. 빨래하기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
11. 식사준비	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
12. 집안수리	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
13. 청소	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
14. 쓰레기 버리기	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
15. 설거지	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

제 5 부 : 제 5부는 세 부분으로 이루어져 있습니다. 각 문항을 읽으시고 가장 적합한 답을 하나만 택하여 답하여 주십시오.

제 1 장 : 여러분이 다음과 같은 상황에 있다면 어떻게 느끼실는지 가장 적합한 답을 골라 답해 주십시오.

		매우 불편	불편	편함	매우 편함
1. 가족 부양의 경제적 책임을 아내와 함께 나눌 때...	1	2	3	4	
2. 전통적으로 '여자의 할 일'로 여겨지는 청소, 빨래, 밥짓기 등을 할 때.....	1	2	3	4	
3. 아픈 자녀를 돌봐야 하기 때문에 직장에 나갈 수 없을 때.....	1	2	3	4	
4. 우리 가족의 주부양자로서의 책임을 다하지 못 할 때.....	1	2	3	4	
5. 아내가 일 때문에 밤에 집을 비우는 동안 아이들을 보살필 때.....	1	2	3	4	
6. 직장일 외에 집안일을 견뎌야 할 때.....	1	2	3	4	

제 2 장 : 당신의 '아내'가 다음과 같은 상황에 있을 때 어떻게 느끼실는지 가장 알맞는 답을 골라 답하여 주십시오.

		매우 불편	불편	편함	매우 편함
1. 아내가 직장일 때문에 가정주부로서의 역할을 다하지 못 할 때.....	1	2	3	4	
2. 아내가 내게 불편을 초래하면서도 직장일을 계속하려 들을 때.....	1	2	3	4	
3. 아내가 나의 일과를 기준으로 삼지 않고 자신의 일과에 따라 편의대로 식사시간이나 취침시간을 정할 때....	1	2	3	4	
4. 아내의 직장 생활이 나의 직장 생활에 지장을 초래할 때.....	1	2	3	4	

제 3 장 : 다음과 같은 상황을 여러분의 일상생활 속에서 경험할 '가능성'이 얼마나 있는지 가장 적합한 답을 골라 답해 주십시오.

		매우 낮다	매우 높다	
1. 직장에 있을 때에도 나는 자주 집안 일과 아이들 걱정을 한다.....	1	2	3	4
2. 나의 직장 생활은 남편과 아버지로서의 역할때문에 지장을 많이 받고 있다.....	1	2	3	4
3. 집안일 때문에 직장에서 몰두하기가 어렵다.....	1	2	3	4
4. 우리 가정생활에 지장을 초래하는 경우, 나는 정해진 근무시간 이외의 업무상의 모임이나 회의에 참석하지 못한다.....	1	2	3	4
5. 내게는 주어진 모든 일을 다 해낼 수 있는 시간이 항상 부족한 것 같다.....	1	2	3	4
6. 직장일 때문에 나는 집에 있는 동안에도 제대로 편히 쉬지 못한다.....	1	2	3	4
7. 내게는 친구를 만나거나 동창회 등 사회적 모임을 가질 수 있는 시간이 매우 제한되어 있다.....	1	2	3	4

제 6 부 : 다음은 맞벌이 부부들이 직장일과 가정일을 효과적으로 양립해 나가기위해 많이 사용하는 방법들입니다. 각 문항을 읽으시고 여러분이 직장과 가정일을 동시에 수행해 나가기 위해 다음의 방법들을 이용하시면 '예'라 답해 주시고, 그 방법을 이용하지않으시면 '아니오'라고 답해 주십시오.

		예	아니오
1. 가사의 부담을 줄이기 위해, 탁아소를 이용하거나 아기 돌보는 사람 및 가정부를 고용하는 등 외부의 도움을 구한다.....	1	2	
2. 의논및 대화를 통해, 나의 가사분담에대한 아내의 기대치를 변화시키려고 시도한다.....	1	2	
3. 가족들 (아내나 아이)에게 내게 맡겨진 집안 일을 대신 해 줄 것을 요구한다.....	1	2	
4. 내가 해야 하는 많은 역할 가운데 우선 순위를 정하고, 가장 우선적인 일을 먼저한다.....	1	2	

5. 나는 가정에서의 남편, 아버지로서의 역할에 충실하기 위해
겉코 직장일을 집에 가져오지 않는다.....1 2
6. 주어진 시간에 주어진 한가지 역할에만 충실하기 위하여 나는
직장에서 일하는 동안은 집안 일이나 아이들을 걱정하지
않는다.....1 2
7. 맛벌이 생활에서 일어나는 여러가지 어려움을 헤쳐나갈 특별한
각오나 대책없이 지낸다. 왜냐하면 시간이 흐르면 모든 일이
제대로 될 테니까.....1 2
8. 나는 우리 가족들이 내게 원하는 모든 것, 또 직장에서 내게
맡겨진 모든 일을 완벽하게 해내고자 열심히 노력하고
있다.....1 2
9. 나는 백점짜리 남편이 되려고 애쓰기 보다는, 집안에서의 남편,
아버지로서의 역할에 대한 나 자신의 기대치를 낮추었다.....1 2

제 7 부 : 지난 3주 동안 다음과 같은 경험을 얼마나 자주 하셨는지요?

	전무	가끔	자주	매우자주
1. 아침에 일어나면 무슨 일이든 시작하기가 어렵다.....	1	2	3	4
2. 침체되고 처지는 느낌.....	1	2	3	4
3. 불안하다.....	1	2	3	4
4. 신경과민.....	1	2	3	4
5. 쉽게 잠들지 못하고, 깊은 잠을 못 잔다.....	1	2	3	4
6. 소외감.....	1	2	3	4
7. 아무것도 제대로 되는 일이 없는 것 같다.....	1	2	3	4
8. 모든 것이 무의미하고 허무하게 느껴진다.....	1	2	3	4
9. 기억력 쇠퇴.....	1	2	3	4
10. 식욕부진.....	1	2	3	4
11. 온 몸에 기운이 없다.....	1	2	3	4
12. 가끔씩 어지럽다.....	1	2	3	4
13. 머리가 무겁다.....	1	2	3	4
14. 심장이 두근거린다.....	1	2	3	4
15. 숨이 가쁘다.....	1	2	3	4
16. 위산과다 또는 위궤양.....	1	2	3	4
17. 손이 떨린다.....	1	2	3	4
18. 식은땀.....	1	2	3	4
19. 과도한 고민으로 몸이 쇠약해짐.....	1	2	3	4
20. 빈번한 두통.....	1	2	3	4
21. 온 몸에 열이 나는 것 같다.....	1	2	3	4

제 8 부 : 다음은 여러분의 개인적 신상에 관한 질문입니다. 해당난을 기입해 주시거나, 가장 적합한 답을 골라 표해 주십시오.

1. 성 별 : _____ 1. 여 _____ 2. 남
2. 생년월일 : _____
3. 결혼사항 : 1. 기혼, 배우자와 함께 거주
2. 기혼, 주말 부부
3. 이혼 및 별거
4. 기타 (구체적으로: _____)
4. 현재의 배우자와 얼마나 오랫동안 결혼생활을 하셨는지요?
_____년 _____월
5. 학 력 :
_____ 1. 국민학교 _____ 2. 중학교 _____ 3. 고등학교
_____ 4. 대학 중퇴 _____ 5. 대학졸업 _____ 6. 석사과정
_____ 7. 박사과정 _____ 8. 기타 (구체적으로: _____)
6. a. 종교를 가지고 계시는지요?
_____ 1. 예 _____ 2. 아니오
** '예'라고 답하셨으면 아래의 질문에 답해 주십시오.
b. 다음 중 어떤 종교를 가지고 계십니까?
_____ 1. 신교 _____ 2. 구교 _____ 3. 불교
_____ 4. 기타 (구체적으로: _____)
7. 함께 거주하고 계신 가족사항을 기입해 주시기 바랍니다.

성 별	연 령	가족관계
(예) 남() 여(x)	12	딸
남() 여()		
남() 여()		
남() 여()		
남() 여()		
남() 여()		
남() 여()		

8. a. 직장에서 일하시는 동안 다음 중 어떤 육아시설을 이용하고 계십니까?

- _____ 1) 탁아소 _____ 2) 유치원 _____ 3) 조부모님께 맡긴다.
_____ 4) 돈을 드리고 친척에게 맡긴다.
_____ 5) 아이 돌보는 사람을 고용한다.
_____ 6) 기타 (구체적으로: _____)
_____ 7) 우리 가정은 육아시설을 이용할 필요가 없다.

※ 만일 7)번에 표하셨으면, 곧바로 9번 문제에 대해 주십시오.

b. 현재 이용하고 계신 육아시설에 얼마나 만족하고 계십니까?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
전혀 만족 못함 아주 만족함

9. 주당 근무시간: 일 주일에 _____시간 일하고 있음.

10. 직장생활을 하시는 주요 동기는 무엇입니까?

1. 가족을 부양하기 위해
2. 배우자의 수입만으로는 생활하기에 부족하므로
3. 차나 집등을 사기위해 저축하려고
4. 자녀의 교육비를 장만하려고
5. 여가 시간을 활용하기 위해
6. 내가 받은 교육을 활용하고자
7. 내가 하고 있는 일을 좋아하기 때문에
8. 기타 (구체적으로: _____)

11. 귀하의 직업과 직책을 아래의 공란에 자세히 기입해 주시기 바랍니다.

직업 : _____ 직책 : _____

12. 월급 및 보너스, 특별 수당, 증권 수입 등을 다 포함시킬 때, 세금을 공제하기 전의 귀하의 '한달 총 수입'은 얼마나 되십니까?
부인의 수입은 포함시키지 마시기 바랍니다.

본인의 총 월 수입 : 한 달에 _____원

13. 월급 및 보너스, 특별 수당, 증권 수입 등을 다 포함시킬 때, 세금을 공제하기 전의 '한 달간 총 가족 수입'이 얼마나 되십니까?

가족의 총 월 수입 : 한 달에 _____원

14. 만일 월급 이외에 귀하가 소유한 동산, 부동산 및 상속예정인 유산 등 '기인 재산'을 가지고 계시다면, 그 총액을 기입하여 주십시오.

총 기인 재산: _____ 원

'이렇게 귀중한 시간을 내 주셔서 감사합니다'

March 9, 1994

Dear Wife:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study of dual-career family life. The purpose of the study is to examine how dual-career couples manage their work and family roles.

Two forms of the questionnaire are enclosed: One is labeled "**Wife**" and the other is labeled "**Husband**." Please answer independently, and **do not discuss** your responses **with your spouse** while completing questionnaire. The survey questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

Your participation in this study is entirely **voluntary**. Thus, you may skip any questions which you do not wish to answer. However, through your participation, you may help the researcher to gather useful information to better understand the challenges and strengths of dual-career families. The benefit you will derive from your participation in this study is the knowledge that you contribute to a growing understanding of dual-career families.

Your identity and your responses to the questionnaire will be held strictly **confidential**. The questionnaire will be assigned a code number, and names will not be associated with the questionnaires. The data from the study will be reported only in group form.

Participation in this survey is unlikely to arouse any anxiety. However, if you have any questions or concerns about the study, or your reaction to being a participant, please write to the researcher at the following address shown in the below.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Myung-Shin Lee
Doctoral Candidate
College of Social Work
The University of Tennessee

Address: 308 Henson Hall, 1618 Cumberland Ave.,
Knoxville, TN 37996-3333

Questionnaire for Wife

Part I: Please read each statement carefully, and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by circling the appropriate number. There are no right or wrong answers, so please express your frank opinion in rating the statement.

*Strongly Disagree=1 (SD)
Somewhat Disagree=2 (D)
Somewhat Agree=3 (A)
Strongly Agree=4 (SA)*

	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>
1. If a wife prefers a career to having children, she should have the right to make that choice.....	1	2	3	4
2. If a mother of young children works, it should be only when the family needs money.....	1	2	3	4
3. No matter how successful a woman may be in utilizing her intelligence and creativity, she can never know true happiness unless she marries and has a family.....	1	2	3	4
4. A woman can make no greater contribution to society than successfully rearing normal, well-adjusted children.....	1	2	3	4
5. A wife's opinion should have exactly the same weight upon important family decisions as the husband's.....	1	2	3	4
6. If a husband is a good provider and faithful to his wife, other personal characteristics are less important.....	1	2	3	4
7. It is more important for a wife to be a good cook and homemaker than to be an intelligent and interesting companion.....	1	2	3	4
8. It is more important for a wife to help her husband's career than to have her own	1	2	3	4
9. If his wife works, a husband should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning and washing.....	1	2	3	4
10. A wife should give up her job if it inconveniences her husband and children.....	1	2	3	4
11. Husband can make long range plans for his life, but wife has to take things as they come.....	1	2	3	4
12. Marriage is a partnership in which wife and husband should share the economic responsibility of supporting the family.....	1	2	3	4

Part II: Please indicate whether the followings are very unlikely, unlikely, likely, or very likely to happen to you in your everyday family relationship.

Very Unlikely=1 (VU)

Unlikely=2 (U)

Likely=3 (L)

Very Likely=4 (VL)

	VU	U	L	VL
1. I influence decisions which we make by showing my affection and love.....	1	2	3	4
2. When I am unhappy with my husband, one way of showing my displeasure is not initiating interaction with him.....	1	2	3	4
3. My husband needs emotional support and encouragement when he has problems or in conflict with others.....	1	2	3	4
4. Before making decisions, my husband always consults with me or asks for my opinions first.....	1	2	3	4
5. My children seek my advice rather than my husband's.....	1	2	3	4
6. My husband is loyal and faithful to me because of our mutual love and strong emotional attachment	1	2	3	4
7. I am loyal and faithful to my husband because of our mutual love and strong emotional attachment.....	1	2	3	4
8. Without my participation in household tasks, my husband can not concentrate on his work.....	1	2	3	4
9. When problems occur in our family, I usually take the initiatives for possible solutions.....	1	2	3	4
10. I coordinate the schedules of my husband and my children in order to have family activities.....	1	2	3	4
11. I decide whom we invite for dinner.....	1	2	3	4
12. When my husband and children lack communication or have conflict, I become a mediator between them.....	1	2	3	4
13. I know how my child is doing at school.....	1	2	3	4
14. I try to maintain good relationships with our relatives and friends by frequent telephone calls or letters.....	1	2	3	4
15. I usually assign tasks to my husband in order to get things done within our family.....	1	2	3	4

	VU	U	L	VL
16. If my husband is away from home overnight due to work, I have difficulty taking care of children by myself.....	1	2	3	4
17. I stay informed about what is happening in my husband's workplace.....	1	2	3	4
18. I make the final decision about whether to buy a new house.....	1	2	3	4
19. I help my son or daughter go through physical and psychological changes and development (e.g. first menstruation).....	1	2	3	4

Part III: Please indicate how satisfied you are with your marriage by circling the most appropriate response.

*Very Dissatisfied=1(VD)
Dissatisfied=2(D)
Satisfied=3(S)
Very Satisfied=4(VS)*

	VD	D	S	VS
1. How satisfied are you with the love and affection you receive from your spouse?.....	1	2	3	4
2. How satisfied are you with the amount of understanding of your problems and feelings that you receive from your spouse?.....	1	2	3	4
3. How satisfied are you with the amount of companionship you have such as doing things with your spouse?.....	1	2	3	4
4. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your marriage overall?.....	1	2	3	4

Part IV: For each of the tasks or responsibilities listed below, use the following answer codes to indicate who currently does the task and whom you prefer to do the task.

1. Wife always
2. Wife usually
3. Both equally
4. Husband usually
5. Husband always
6. Other person (Specify: _____)

	Who <u>currently</u> does the following tasks within your family?	If you could make changes whom do you <u>prefer</u> to do the following tasks?
Tasks	Current (Circle the number)	Preference (Circle the number)
a. Grocery shopping	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
b. Paying bills	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
c. Budgeting and bookkeeping	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
d. Keeping in touch with relatives	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
e. Child care after work	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
f. Coordinating family events & invitations	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
g. Taking children to their activities & appointments	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
h. Socializing children	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
i. Organizing leisure activities	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
j. Doing laundry	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
k. Preparing meals	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
l. Repairing things around the house	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
m. Cleaning house	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
n. Taking out garbage	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
o. Washing dishes	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Part V: There are three sections in Part V. Please indicate your responses by circling only one response for each question.

Section 1: How much discomfort or comfort would you feel if you were in the following situation?

Very Uncomfortable=1 (VU)

Uncomfortable=2 (U)

Comfortable=3 (C)

Very Comfortable=4 (VC)

	VU	U	C	VC
1. Finding greater gratification and reward from my job rather than from my family	1	2	3	4
2. Being the major breadwinner of the house.....	1	2	3	4
3. Not being able to keep my house in order as well as I would want it to be.....	1	2	3	4
4. Not being able to meet the needs of my husband due to the lack of time spent together.....	1	2	3	4
5. If my job requires me to be away from home overnight.....	1	2	3	4
6. If I cannot take care of a sick child due to my work.....	1	2	3	4

Section 2: How much discomfort would you feel about your husband in the following situation?

Very Uncomfortable=1 (VU)

Uncomfortable=2 (U)

Comfortable=3 (C)

Very Comfortable=4 (VC)

	VU	U	C	VC
1. If my husband does not share the housework.....	1	2	3	4
2. If my husband makes important decisions, and delegates unimportant or time-consuming decisions to me that he does not want to make.....	1	2	3	4
3. If my husband seems concerned only about his work outside and does not care about our family life.....	1	2	3	4
4. If my husband does not make an effort to adjust his career plan to fit mine.....	1	2	3	4

Section 3: Please indicate whether you are unlikely or likely to encounter the following situations.

Very Unlikely=1(VU)

Unlikely=2(U)

Likely=3(L)

Very Likely=4(VL)

	VU	U	L	VL
1. When I am at work, I often worry about things concerning my home or children.....	1	2	3	4
2. My career has suffered due to my responsibilities as a spouse and a parent.....	1	2	3	4
3. I cannot attend professional meetings, if they interfere with my family life.....	1	2	3	4
4. The demands of my family life make it difficult for me to concentrate at work.....	1	2	3	4
5. I never seem to have enough time to do everything that is expected of me.....	1	2	3	4
6. The demands of my job make it difficult for me to be relaxed much of time at home.....	1	2	3	4
7. I have limited time for friends and social activities.....	1	2	3	4

Part VI: The following items describe some things people do to combine work and family responsibilities in a dual-career household. Please indicate whether or not you use these methods by circling either "yes" or "no" for each item.

Yes=1

No=2

	Yes	No
1. To lessen my home responsibilities, I employ outside help such as a baby sitter, day care center or housekeeper.....	1	2
2. I try to change my spouse's expectations about my roles in the family through discussion and negotiation.....	1	2
3. I ask my family members such as my spouse or older children to take over some of my household chores to help me out.....	1	2
4. I arrange the priorities among my roles, and do accordingly.....	1	2
5. I never bring my work home because I want to be faithful to my roles as a spouse and parent	1	2

	Yes	No
6. I do not worry about home and children while working because I want to concentrate on only one role at a time.....	1	2
7. I do not set up specific coping strategies because I believe time will take care of all our problems.....	1	2
8. I try very hard to meet all my family's needs, and also comply with expectations of my job.....	1	2
9. I have lowered my standards of housekeeping.....	1	2

Part VII: How often did you experience the following in the past three weeks?

Never=1 (N)
Sometimes=2 (S)
Often=3 (O)
Very Often=4 (VO)

	N	S	O	VO
1. couldn't get going.....	1	2	3	4
2. low spirits.....	1	2	3	4
3. restlessness.....	1	2	3	4
4. having been nervous	1	2	3	4
5. trouble sleeping.....	1	2	3	4
6. feeling apart from others.....	1	2	3	4
7. nothing turns out right.....	1	2	3	4
8. nothing seems worthwhile.....	1	2	3	4
9. memory not all right.....	1	2	3	4
10. poor appetite.....	1	2	3	4
11. feel weak.....	1	2	3	4
12. fainting spells.....	1	2	3	4
13. fullness in head.....	1	2	3	4
14. heart beats hard.....	1	2	3	4
15. shortness of breath.....	1	2	3	4
16. acid stomach or ulcer.....	1	2	3	4
17. hands tremble.....	1	2	3	4
18. cold sweats.....	1	2	3	4
19. worries get you down physically.....	1	2	3	4
20. frequent headaches.....	1	2	3	4
21. feel hot all over.....	1	2	3	4

Background Information

The following are several questions about yourself. Please fill in the required information or check the most appropriate response for each question.

1. Your gender: _____ 1. female _____ 2. male
2. Date of Birth: _____
3. Marital status: _____ 1. married, living with spouse
_____ 2. other (Specify: _____)
4. How long have you been married in the current marriage?
_____ years _____ months
5. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?
____ 1. grade 6 or less _____ 2. grade 7 to 11
____ 3. completed high school _____ 4. GED
____ 5. some college _____ 6. bachelor's degree
____ 7. master's degree _____ 8. Ph.D.
____ 9. Other (Specify: _____)
6. Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic identification?
____ 1. Caucasian _____ 2. African-American
____ 3. Native-American _____ 4. Asian-Pacific American
____ 5. Hispanic _____ 6. other (_____)
7. What is your religion?
____ 1. Protestant _____ 2. Catholic _____ 3. Jewish
____ 4. Buddhist _____ 5. Islamic _____ 6. Other
8. Please provide the following information about each person who lives in your household.

Gender (Check one)	Age	Relationship to you
EX. Male() Female(X)	12	Step-daughter
Male() Female()		
Male() Female()		
Male() Female()		
Male() Female()		
Male() Female()		
Male() Female()		

- 9.a. What kind of facilities do you use for child care, while you are working outside the home?
- ____ 1. day care center _____ 2. nursery school
____ 3. grand parents _____ 4. paid relatives
____ 5. baby sitter _____ 6. Other ()
____ 7. Child care arrangements not needed for my family.
- * If you check #7, please go directly to question 10.

- 1-----2-----3-----4-----5
not at all extremely satisfied

Full-time : _____ hours per week

Part-time : _____ hours per week

- ____ 1. to support our family
____ 2. to supplement our family income
____ 3. to save for specific major items (e.g. car, house)
____ 4. to provide better education for children
____ 5. to utilize spare time
____ 6. If not used, my education is wasted.
____ 7. I enjoy my job.
____ 8. Other (Specify: _____)

- Occupation: _____

Position (or Title): _____

- Your total annual income : \$ _____ a year

- Annual Family Income : \$ _____ a year

- Total personal assets :* \$ _____

Thank you for your time and help!

Do you want a copy of the results of this study?

_____ 1. Yes _____ 2. No

W- _____

March 9, 1994

Dear Husband:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study of dual-career family life. The purpose of the study is to examine how dual-career couples manage their work and family roles.

Two forms of the questionnaire are enclosed: One is labeled "**Wife**" and the other is labeled "**Husband**." Please answer independently, and **do not discuss** your responses **with your spouse** while completing questionnaire. The survey questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

Your participation in this study is entirely **voluntary**. Thus, you may skip any questions which you do not wish to answer. However, through your participation, you may help the researcher to gather useful information to better understand the challenges and strengths of dual-career families. The benefit you will derive from your participation in this study is the knowledge that you contribute to a growing understanding of dual-career families.

Your identity and your responses to the questionnaire will be held strictly **confidential**. The questionnaire will be assigned a code number, and names will not be associated with the questionnaires. The data from the study will be reported only in group form.

Participation in this survey is unlikely to arouse any anxiety. However, if you have any questions or concerns about the study, or your reaction to being a participant, please write to the researcher at the following address shown in the below.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Myung-Shin Lee
Doctoral Candidate
College of Social Work
The University of Tennessee

Address: 308 Henson Hall, 1618 Cumberland Ave.,
Knoxville, TN 37996-3333

Questionnaire for Husband

Part I: Please read each statement carefully, and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by circling the appropriate number. There are no right or wrong answers, so please express your frank opinion in rating the statement.

*Strongly Disagree=1 (SD)
Somewhat Disagree=2 (D)
Somewhat Agree=3 (A)
Strongly Agree=4 (SA)*

	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>
1. If a wife prefers a career to having children, she should have the right to make that choice.....	1	2	3	4
2. If a mother of young children works, it should be only when the family needs money.....	1	2	3	4
3. No matter how successful a woman may be in utilizing her intelligence and creativity, she can never know true happiness unless she marries and has a family.....	1	2	3	4
4. A woman can make no greater contribution to society than successfully rearing normal, well-adjusted children.....	1	2	3	4
5. A wife's opinion should have exactly the same weight upon important family decisions as the husband's.....	1	2	3	4
6. If a husband is a good provider and faithful to his wife, other personal characteristics are less important.....	1	2	3	4
7. It is more important for a wife to be a good cook and homemaker than to be an intelligent and interesting companion.....	1	2	3	4
8. It is more important for a wife to help her husband's career than to have her own	1	2	3	4
9. If his wife works, a husband should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning and washing.....	1	2	3	4
10. A wife should give up her job if it inconveniences her husband and children.....	1	2	3	4
11. Husband can make long range plans for his life, but wife has to take things as they come.....	1	2	3	4
12. Marriage is a partnership in which wife and husband should share the economic responsibility of supporting the family.....	1	2	3	4

Part II: Please indicate whether the followings are very unlikely, unlikely, likely, or very likely to happen to you in your everyday family relationship.

Very Unlikely=1 (VU)

Unlikely=2 (U)

Likely=3 (L)

Very Likely=4 (VL)

	VU	U	L	VL
1. I influence decisions which we make by showing my affection and love.....	1	2	3	4
2. When I am unhappy with my wife, one way of showing my displeasure is not initiating interaction with her.....	1	2	3	4
3. My wife needs emotional support and encouragement when she has problems or in conflict with others.....	1	2	3	4
4. Before making decisions, my wife always consults with me or asks for my opinions first.....	1	2	3	4
5. My children seek my advice rather than my wife's.....	1	2	3	4
6. My wife is loyal and faithful to me because of our mutual love and strong emotional attachment	1	2	3	4
7. I am loyal and faithful to my wife because of our mutual love and strong emotional attachment.....	1	2	3	4
8. Without my participation in household tasks, my wife can not concentrate on her work.....	1	2	3	4
9. When problems occur in our family, I usually take the initiatives for possible solutions.....	1	2	3	4
10. I coordinate the schedules of my wife and my children in order to have family activities.....	1	2	3	4
11. I decide whom we invite for dinner.....	1	2	3	4
12. When my wife and children lack communication or have conflict, I become a mediator between them.....	1	2	3	4
13. I know how my child is doing at school.....	1	2	3	4
14. I try to maintain good relationships with our relatives and friends by frequent telephone calls or letters.....	1	2	3	4
15. I usually assign tasks to my wife in order to get things done within our family.....	1	2	3	4

	<i>VU</i>	<i>U</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>VL</i>
16. If my wife is away from home overnight due to work, I have difficulty taking care of children by myself.....	1	2	3	4
17. I stay informed about what is happening in my wife's workplace.....	1	2	3	4
18. I make the final decision about whether to buy a new house.....	1	2	3	4
19. I help my son or daughter go through physical and psychological changes and development (e.g. first menstruation).....	1	2	3	4

Part III: Please indicate how satisfied you are with your marriage by circling the most appropriate response.

Very Dissatisfied=1(VD)
Dissatisfied=2(D)
Satisfied=3(S)
Very Satisfied=4(VS)

	<i>VD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>VS</i>
1. How satisfied are you with the love and affection you receive from your spouse?.....	1	2	3	4
2. How satisfied are you with the amount of understanding of your problems and feelings that you receive from your spouse?.....	1	2	3	4
3. How satisfied are you with the amount of companionship you have such as doing things with your spouse?.....	1	2	3	4
4. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your marriage overall?.....	1	2	3	4

Part IV: For each of the tasks or responsibilities listed below, use the following answer codes to indicate who currently does the task and whom you prefer to do the task.

1. Wife always
2. Wife usually
3. Both equally
4. Husband usually
5. Husband always
6. Other person (Specify: _____)

	Who <u>currently</u> does the following tasks within your family?	If you could make changes whom do you <u>prefer</u> to do the following tasks?
Tasks	Current (Circle the number)	Preference (Circle the number)
a. Grocery shopping	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
b. Paying bills	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
c. Budgeting and bookkeeping	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
d. Keeping in touch with relatives	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
e. Child care after work	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
f. Coordinating family events & invitations	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
g. Taking children to their activities & appointments	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
h. Socializing children	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
i. Organizing leisure activities	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
j. Doing laundry	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
k. Preparing meals	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
l. Repairing things around the house	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
m. Cleaning house	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
n. Taking out garbage	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
o. Washing dishes	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Part V: There are three sections in Part V. Please indicate your responses by circling only one response for each question.

Section 1: How much discomfort or comfort would you feel if you were in the following situation?

Very Uncomfortable=1 (VU)

Uncomfortable=2 (U)

Comfortable=3 (C)

Very Comfortable=4 (VC)

	VU	U	C	VC
1. Sharing the economic responsibility of supporting the family with my wife.....	1	2	3	4
2. Doing things such as laundry, cleaning and cooking which traditionally have been "women's work".....	1	2	3	4
3. Staying home to take care of a sick child.....	1	2	3	4
4. Not being the major breadwinner of the family.....	1	2	3	4
5. Taking care of children, while my wife is away from home overnight due to work.....	1	2	3	4
6. Taking some responsibility for household tasks in addition to my job.....	1	2	3	4

Section 2: How much discomfort would you feel about your wife in the following situation?

Very Uncomfortable=1 (VU)

Uncomfortable=2 (U)

Comfortable=3 (C)

Very Comfortable=4 (VC)

	VU	U	C	VC
1. If my wife does not perform her roles as a homemaker properly due to her employment.....	1	2	3	4
2. If my wife wants to continue her career even though it inconveniences me.....	1	2	3	4
3. If my wife schedules meals and bedtimes according to her work schedule instead of mine.....	1	2	3	4
4. If my wife makes a career plan which interferes with mine.....	1	2	3	4

Section 3: Please indicate whether you are unlikely or likely to encounter the following situations.

Very Unlikely=1(VU)

Unlikely=2(U)

Likely=3(L)

Very Likely=4(VL)

	VU	U	L	VL
1. When I am at work, I often worry about things concerning my home or children.....	1	2	3	4
2. My career has suffered due to my responsibilities as a spouse and a parent.....	1	2	3	4
3. I cannot attend professional meetings, if they interfere with my family life.....	1	2	3	4
4. The demands of my family life make it difficult for me to concentrate at work.....	1	2	3	4
5. I never seem to have enough time to do everything that is expected of me.....	1	2	3	4
6. The demands of my job make it difficult for me to be relaxed much of time at home.....	1	2	3	4
7. I have limited time for friends and social activities.....	1	2	3	4

Part VI: The following items describe some things people do to combine work and family responsibilities in a dual-career household. Please indicate whether or not you use these methods by circling either "yes" or "no" for each item.

Yes=1

No=2

	Yes	No
1. To lessen my home responsibilities, I employ outside help such as a baby sitter, day care center or housekeeper.....	1	2
2. I try to change my spouse's expectations about my roles in the family through discussion and negotiation.....	1	2
3. I ask my family members such as my spouse or older children to take over some of my household chores to help me out.....	1	2
4. I arrange the priorities among my roles, and do accordingly.....	1	2
5. I never bring my work home because I want to be faithful to my roles as a spouse and parent	1	2

	Yes	No
6. I do not worry about home and children while working because I want to concentrate on only one role at a time.....	1	2
7. I do not set up specific coping strategies because I believe time will take care of all our problems.....	1	2
8. I try very hard to meet all my family's needs, and also comply with expectations of my job.....	1	2
9. I have lowered my standards of housekeeping.....	1	2

Part VII: How often did you experience the following in the past three weeks?

Never=1 (N)
Sometimes=2 (S)
Often=3 (O)
Very Often=4 (VO)

	N	S	O	VO
1. couldn't get going.....	1	2	3	4
2. low spirits.....	1	2	3	4
3. restlessness.....	1	2	3	4
4. having been nervous	1	2	3	4
5. trouble sleeping.....	1	2	3	4
6. feeling apart from others.....	1	2	3	4
7. nothing turns out right.....	1	2	3	4
8. nothing seems worthwhile.....	1	2	3	4
9. memory not all right.....	1	2	3	4
10. poor appetite.....	1	2	3	4
11. feel weak.....	1	2	3	4
12. fainting spells.....	1	2	3	4
13. fullness in head.....	1	2	3	4
14. heart beats hard.....	1	2	3	4
15. shortness of breath.....	1	2	3	4
16. acid stomach or ulcer.....	1	2	3	4
17. hands tremble.....	1	2	3	4
18. cold sweats.....	1	2	3	4
19. worries get you down physically.....	1	2	3	4
20. frequent headaches.....	1	2	3	4
21. feel hot all over.....	1	2	3	4

Background Information

The following are several questions about yourself. Please fill in the required information or check the most appropriate response for each question.

1. Your gender: _____ 1. female _____ 2. male
2. Date of Birth: _____
3. Marital status: _____ 1. married, living with spouse
_____ 2. other (Specify: _____)
4. How long have you been married in the current marriage?
_____ years _____ months
5. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?
_____ 1. grade 6 or less _____ 2. grade 7 to 11
_____ 3. completed high school _____ 4. GED
_____ 5. some college _____ 6. bachelor's degree
_____ 7. master's degree _____ 8. Ph.D.
_____ 9. Other (Specify: _____)
6. Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic identification?
_____ 1. Caucasian _____ 2. African-American
_____ 3. Native-American _____ 4. Asian-Pacific American
_____ 5. Hispanic _____ 6. other (_____)
7. What is your religion?
_____ 1. Protestant _____ 2. Catholic _____ 3. Jewish
_____ 4. Buddhist _____ 5. Islamic _____ 6. Other
8. Please provide the following information about each person who lives in your household.

Gender (Check one)	Age	Relationship to you
EX. Male() Female(X)	12	Step-daughter
Male() Female()		
Male() Female()		
Male() Female()		
Male() Female()		
Male() Female()		
Male() Female()		

- 9.a. What kind of facilities do you use for child care, while you are working outside the home?
- _____ 1. day care center _____ 2. nursery school
_____ 3. grand parents _____ 4. paid relatives
_____ 5. baby sitter _____ 6. Other (_____)
_____ 7. Child care arrangements not needed for my family.
* If you check #7, please go directly to question 10.

Appendix B:
Pair-wise Correlation Matrix of Latent Variables

Pair-wise Correlation Matrix of Latent Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 W-Resource	1.00								
2 W-Definition	-0.62	1.00							
3 W-Personal	-0.10	-0.11	1.00						
4 W-Position	-0.05	-0.31	0.44	1.00					
5 W-Division	-0.27	-0.03	0.24	0.08	1.00				
6 W-Intra-Role	-0.13	0.14	0.08	0.10	-0.07	1.00			
7 W-Inter-Role	-0.06	0.05	-0.18	-0.09	-0.08	0.14	1.00		
8 W-Marital	0.07	-0.04	0.59	0.24	0.22	-0.01	-0.33	1.00	
9 W-Stress	-0.09	-0.06	-0.15	-0.06	-0.08	0.18	0.29	-0.21	1.00
10 H-Resource	0.40	0.15	-0.07	-0.09	-0.31	-0.08	0.10	-0.01	-0.06
11 H-Definition	0.09	0.25	-0.15	-0.23	-0.31	0.05	0.18	-0.22	0.05
12 H-Personal	-0.05	-0.10	0.35	0.31	-0.01	0.09	-0.09	0.28	-0.10
13 H-Position	-0.08	-0.09	0.21	-0.07	0.28	0.09	0.07	0.14	0.04
14 H-Division	-0.19	-0.09	0.22	0.05	0.69	-0.19	-0.11	0.16	-0.10
15 H-Intra-Role	0.03	0.12	-0.14	-0.11	-0.33	0.06	0.20	-0.12	0.06
16 H-Inter-Role	-0.19	-0.14	0.08	0.05	0.32	-0.04	0.02	-0.01	0.09
17 H-Marital	-0.60	-0.10	0.38	0.31	0.15	0.12	-0.05	0.40	-0.09
18 H-Stress	-0.13	-0.02	-0.09	-0.05	0.00	-0.10	0.11	-0.18	0.20

Correlation Coefficients in bold are significant at $\alpha < 0.05$.

Pair-wise Correlation Matrix of Latent Variables

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1 W-Resource									
2 W-Definition									
3 W-Personal									
4 W-Position									
5 W-Division									
6 W-Intra-Role									
7 W-Inter-Role									
8 W-Marital									
9 W-Stress									
10 H-Resource	1.00								
11 H-Definition	0.20	1.00							
12 H-Personal	0.07	-0.19	1.00						
13 H-Position	0.04	-0.20	0.32	1.00					
14 H-Division	-0.33	-0.39	0.13	0.41	1.00				
15 H-Intra-Role	0.13	0.29	-0.01	-0.00	-0.34	1.00			
16 H-Inter-Role	-0.11	-0.06	-0.04	0.31	0.28	0.01	1.00		
17 H-Marital	-0.05	-0.21	0.58	0.26	0.20	-0.13	-0.05	1.00	
18 H-Stress	-0.15	0.10	-0.139	0.06	-0.03	0.20	0.40	-0.22	1.00

VITA

Myung-Shin Lee was born in 1956 in Seoul, Republic of Korea. She graduated from Kyunggi Girls' High School in 1975. In March of 1975, she entered Ewha Womans University, and in February 1979 she received a Bachelor of Arts degree in English literature. Following her graduation, she was employed at Korean Chamber of Commerce and Industry.

In August 1981, she entered the graduate school at Ewha Womans University, where she earned a Master's degree in English literature in September 1984. After her graduation, she taught English and English literature at Myong-Ji University, Korea Air and Correspondence University, Kang-Nam College of Social Welfare, and Shin-Gu Junior College as a part-time instructor.

In August 1987, she entered the graduate program at the University of Southern Mississippi where she received her second Master's degree in social work in May 1990. In August 1990, she entered the doctoral program at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, and she will be awarded the Doctor of Philosophy degree in social work from the University of Tennessee, Knoxville in December 1994.