2010

You can't always get what you want, but does it matter?: The relationship between pre-child preferences and post-child actual labor division fit and well-being

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You can't always get what you want, but does it matter? The relationship between pre-child preferences and post-child actual labor division fit and well-being

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
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Date of approval:
June 29, 2010

Keywords: division of household labor, paid labor, person-environment fit, dual-earner couples, dual-career couples, work-family management, career prioritization

Acknowledgements

Several people have supported me throughout my educational journey. First, I would like to acknowledge Dr. Tammy Allen for her unbelievable career and psychosocial mentoring throughout the past five years. I cannot imagine making it through graduate school without her! Second, thank you to my dissertation committee for your time and feedback. Third, I would like to thank my parents for their continual support and for raising me in a way that gave me confidence to pursue a Ph.D. I would also like to thank my sisters, Lauren and Shannon, for their support and help gathering emails for data collection. Fourth, I would like to thank my boyfriend, Andy, for his continual guidance and assurance. Finally, I am indebted to all of my dissertation participants and friends who helped obtain those participants. Without them, this study would not have been possible.

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Abstract

Significant shifts in social ideology and legislation have brought about considerable changes in work and family dynamics in the Western world, and the male as breadwinner–wife as homemaker model is no longer the norm. However, despite increasingly gender egalitarian ideals, the division of labor among dual-earner couples tends to adopt a "neo traditional" once children are born, where women devote more time to family labor and men spend more time in paid employment

Although asymmetrical divisions of labor have clear workplace and societal consequences in terms of women's earnings, organizational advancement, and inequality, the effects on individual well-being are not well understood. The purpose of the present study was to apply the theoretical lens of person-environment fit to examine how misfit between dual-earner couples' pre-child division of labor preferences and post-child actual divisions of labor relate to affective (career, marital, and family satisfaction) and health-related (depression and physical health symptoms) well-being. Additionally, several conditions were posited to temper the strengths of these relationships (domain centrality, gender, voice in division of labor decision making, and satisfaction with the current division of labor).

Participants were 126 dual-earner couples with small children, and hypotheses were testing using polynomial regression analyses. The results suggested that

congruence between an individual's own pre-child desires for the division of paid labor and the actual post-child division of paid labor relates to his/her own career and marital satisfaction, depression, and physical health symptoms. Congruence in the family domain is also important, as desire-division of family labor fit related to affective sentiments toward family and one's spouse. With the exception of career satisfaction, these relationships were curvilinear, such that deviations in either direction from perfect fit related to poorer well-being. On the other hand, there was little evidence for spousal effects, as dual-earner well-being did not relate the congruence between division of labor abilities and spousal demands. Finally, evidence of moderation was only found in a few cases, and none were consistent with prediction, highlighting the need for future research on the contextual conditions of P-E fit in the dual-earner context.

Chapter One

Introduction

In the early and mid twentieth century, work and family domains were largely separate entities, normally divided along gender lines. Men were the sole earners, supporting the family financially, whereas women maintained primary responsibility on the domestic front. The feminist movement and legislation of the 1960s brought about considerable changes in work and family dynamics, as more and more women joined their husbands in the paid workforce (Padavic & Reskin, 2002). This trend has continued, and current figures estimate that 79% of married/partnered employees are members of dual-earner couples (Galinksy, Aumann, & Bond, 2008).

Unlike single-earners, dual-earner couples are faced with the challenge of jointly dividing labor in both work and family domains. Although there is considerable variety in attitudes about the way labor should be divided, many men and women endorse egalitarian ideals (Galinsky et al., 2008). However, upon the "launching stage" of life, when children are young, most dual-earner couples are forced to confront the realities that these ideals may not be realized (Moen & Roehling, 2005). Even when couples hold egalitarian attitudes, they tend to adopt a "neo traditional" division of labor (Clarkberg & Moen, 2001; Moen & Yu, 2000), where women devote more time to family labor and men spend more time in paid employment (Coltrane, 2000; Moen & Roehling, 2005; U.S. Department of Labor, 2007). The career of the husband is likely to be favored over that of the wife (Pixley & Moen, 2003). This asymmetry is a

persistent finding even when spouses' have similar levels of education and occupational prestige (Johnson, Johnson, & Liese, 1991; McNeil & Sher, 1999).

Although the asymmetrical division of labor has clear workplace and societal consequences in terms of women's earnings, organizational advancement, and inequality (cf., Padavic & Reskin, 2002), the effects on individual well-being are not well understood. That is, although it is assumed that discrepancies between division of labor preferences and the actual division of labor results in detrimental effects on individual well-being (e.g., Singley & Hines, 2005), this relationship has not been comprehensively tested. Thus, the extent that unmet desires are truly a "problem" for contemporary dual-earners remains largely unknown. The purpose of the present study is to apply the theoretical lens of person-environment fit (P-E fit theory, French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982) to extend the small extant body of research on this topic. Specifically, focusing on both the paid and family labor domains independently, the present study examines how misfit between dual-earner couples' pre-child division of labor preferences and the post-child actual division of labor relate to affective and health-related well-being.

This study makes three major contributions to the literature. First, it examines division of labor, an issue that has received very little empirical attention, despite its frequent mention in the industrial organizational psychology and organizational behavior literatures as a crucial process in work-family interactions. Second, the present investigation is more comprehensive than its few predecessors (Khazan, McHale, & Decourcey, 2008; Milkie, Bianchi, Mattingly, & Robinson, 2002; Perry-Jenkins, Seery, & Crouter, 1992; Ross, Mirowsky, & Huber, 1983), as it examines both paid and family

labor, assesses misfit in an all-encompassing manner, includes hypotheses concerning the marital dyad, examines several forms of well-being, and incorporates the role of moderators. Finally, this study is more methodologically sound than previous work through its use of multi-dimensional division of labor scales, and it is more statistically sound through its use of polynomial regression to capture the fit concept.

Before introducing the theory and hypotheses for the present study, a review of the general constructs of paid and family labor is provided, followed by a comprehensive summary of previous research specific to desire-division of labor fit and well-being. Lastly, based on this summary, I point out the gaps and limitations in the extant literature that the present study aims to address and improve.

Division of Family and Paid Labor

Family labor, or "unpaid work done to maintain family members and/or a home" (Shelton & John, 1996, p. 300), is an integral part of human existence (Coltrane, 2000). There are three distinct types of family labor: household tasks, childcare, and emotion work (Coltrane, 2000; Shelton & John, 1996). Household tasks include routine tasks (e.g., meal preparation, housecleaning, shopping for groceries and other household items, and laundering clothes) as well as residual tasks (e.g., household repairs, yard care, driving other people, or paying bills) (Blair & Lichter, 1991; Coltrane, 2000; Robinson & Godbey, 1997). Childcare involves caring for and supervising children, and emotion work refers to the less tangible tasks of maintaining family members' psychological well-being through the provision of emotional support (Erickson, 1993; Hochschild, 1989). Assessment of how family labor is divided is typically temporal in nature, as most researchers ask participants to indicate the raw or relative amount of

time spent on all tasks (Shelton & John, 1996). Less frequently, researchers focus on who performs specific tasks rather than the amount of time, which allows for weighting of tasks by difficulty or disagreeableness (Berk & Berk, 1979).

Paid labor represents work that is conducted for individuals external to the family in exchange for compensation. There are several features of paid labor that determine the amount of investment and resources associated with an individual's work role (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969). For example, paid labor roles differ in the extent of commitment, time, and education required, as well as the pay and prestige offered. Additionally, there is variety in the connectedness of work roles over time, as one may hold a sequence of disjointed jobs or several related jobs that develop upon one another and lead to a common occupational goal (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969). Lastly, from the individual's perspective, work differs in the extent that it is personally meaningful and salient to self-identity (Lobel & St. Clair, 1992).

Assessment of the division of paid labor is more complicated than that of family labor, due in part to the fact that partners typically have distinct work roles, whereas the family role is contained in a shared space. In fact, the nomenclature "division of paid labor" is rarely used in the literature, but it is indirectly assessed in other contexts, such as the relative incomes or time spent at work of each spouse (e.g., Barnett, Gareis, & Brennan, 2009; Brines, 1993; Cunningham, 2007; Deutsch; Roksa, & Meesek, 2003; Jacobs & Gerson, 2001; Kanter, 1977; Raley, Mattingly, Bianchi, 2006). Researchers have also focused on the relative priority of each partner's career, as couples are often faced with crucial work and family decisions that advance one partner's career at the expense of the other's career (Mincer, 1978; Pixley, 2008; Pixley & Moen, 2003).

Over time, this pattern has a cumulative influence on work trajectories and the way labor is ultimately divided among couples (Pixley, 2008).

Moreover, several theoretical models have been proposed to understand the process by which divisions of family and paid labor emerge. The four most common explanations are economic, family power, role and social constructionist, and time availability theories (Becker, 1993; Shelton & John, 1996). Economic models suggest that marital partners divide labor in a way that maximizes net family gain, even if it results in personal loss for one partner (e.g., Becker, 1991; Mincer, 1978). Family power theories focus on the relative resources (e.g., income, gender) of each partner as a source of power within social exchange relationships. The spouse with the most power has the most weight in making career decisions, and is likely to use this power to impose outcomes to further his or her own goals (cf., McDonald, 1980). Role and social constructionist theories hone in on the socialization processes that encourage individuals to behave according to gender norms and how institutionalized structures reinforce gendered visions and inequalities (e.g., Hochschild, 1989). Finally, time availability models (e.g., Kamo, 1988) focus specifically on family labor, positing that the amount of time a person has available, largely a function of the amount of time spent in paid work, determines family labor participation. No one perspective is deemed empirically superior to the others (Coltrane, 2000). Some support has been found for all four models, although gender remains a more important determinant of family labor than any other factor (Shelton & John, 1996).

Review of Previous Desire-Division of Labor Fit and Well-Being Research

Having defined the broad constructs of family and paid labor divisions and associated theories, I turn to a discussion of previous research that has investigated the congruence between desires for division of paid and family labor and actual division of labor in relation to well-being. It is important to note that this review focuses only on studies that examine desires or preferences toward division of labor, although there are several studies devoted to related constructs, namely division of labor expectations (e.g., Goldberg & Perry-Jenkins, 2004; Kalmuss, Davidson, & Cushman, 1992; Nicolson, 1990; Ruble, Fleming, Hackel, & Stangor, 1988; Van Egeren, 2004) and gender role ideology (Brennan, Barnett, & Gareis, 2001; Kroska, 2009; Lavee & Katz, 2002; MacDermid, Huston, & McHale, 1990; Mickelson, Claffey, & Williams, 2006; McHale & Crouter, 1992; Pina & Bengston, 1993; Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008; Sagara, Ito, & Ikeda, 2006).

Although these terms are sometimes used interchangeably in the literature, there are meaningful differences in the definitions. Specifically, desires represent idealistic views about the future, expectations are beliefs about how the future will actually unfold, and gender role ideology is an overarching philosophy about the extent that gender should determine an individual's work and family roles. Although desires and expectations can be closely tied, they may also be entirely distinct, as expectations incorporate external factors, such as spousal desires or societal norms. Similarly, desires and ideologies are not always perfectly aligned. For example, it is possible to have a general egalitarian ideology but hold a more traditional attitude when thinking about one's own family life (Hood, 1986; Kroska, 1997; Loscocco & Spitze, 2007).

The focus of the present study is on desires rather than on expectations or ideologies because desires are more representative of what an individual specifically wants for his/her own life, without regard for external constraints. As such, unmet desires should have greater implications for well-being than unmet expectations or behavior that is inconsistent with gender role ideologies (Khazan, McHale, & Decourcey, 2008).

Only one study was located that investigated how fit between pre-child division of labor preferences and post-child actual division of labor relates to well-being. However, four other studies were identified that evaluated the same constructs, without a focus on the transition to parenthood. Instead, in these studies, the fit between current desires and the current division of labor was examined in relation to well-being. Because of the conceptual similarities, all five studies are included in the review. Of these five studies, three focused on the paid work role, one study explored family labor, and one study examined division of labor in both domains. Details about each study, including the publication outlet, variables, sample, analyses, and results, are provided in Table 1. This review reveals several theoretical and methodological opportunities for improvement and extension of this research topic.

Gaps and Limitations of Previous Research

Theoretical. In many respects, the present literature lacks a comprehensive theoretical examination of the link between desire-division of labor fit and well-being. First, the meaning of division of paid and family labor varies across studies and is often narrowly defined and operationalized. With regard to paid labor, studies either examined the division of paid labor based on the wife's employment status (i.e., Perry-Jenkins et al., 1992; Ross et al., 1983) or on the relative incomes of each spouse (i.e.,

Loscocco & Spitze, 2007; Milkie et al., 2002). Each of these variables addresses a unique aspect of the work domain, although none are alone sufficient to explain the division of paid labor entirely (Gutek, Nakamura, & Nieva, 1981). Family labor division studies (i.e., Khazan et al., 2008; Milkie et al., 2002) also suffer from a limited scope, as they only examined childcare-related tasks, to the neglect of other family labor components, such as household tasks and emotion work (Coltrane, 2000; Shelton & John, 1996).

Further exacerbating the issue is the narrow measurement that accompanies these narrow definitions. That is, with such a constricted definition of division of labor, most previous researchers have deemed a single item adequate to capture the construct (e.g., "What proportion of childcare-related tasks are you responsible for?" or "Is your wife employed?"). From a measurement standpoint, single-item scales are less preferable to multi-item scales, as they have considerable random measurement error, poor ability to discriminate among fine degrees of an attribute, and often lack scope or content validity (Bergkvist & Rossiter, 2007; McIver & Carmines, 1981; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Spector, 1992). In summary, a comprehensive understanding of the consequences of desire-division of labor fit is limited by the lack of previous researchers to incorporate and assess all relevant dimensions of labor in the paid and family domains.

Second, previous studies generally lack an all-encompassing examination of the desire-division of labor fit construct. The fit variable, or the relationship between desires for division of labor and the actual division of labor, may take many forms. That is, within a dual-earner relationship, a person may contribute a larger, smaller, or equal proportion of paid or family labor than (s)he desired. Despite this, only two of the five

reviewed studies (i.e., Loscoocco & Spitze, 2007; Ross et al., 1983) included all three forms of congruence in their analyses, and they seemed to do so in a cursory fashion, without incorporating theory or hypotheses relevant to the different forms of fit. This differentiation is important, as each type of misfit may influence well-being through different processes, resulting in relationships of various forms and magnitudes (Edwards, 1996). Thus, the examination and differentiation of all forms of fit is a crucial component in fully understanding the complex fit-well-being relationships.

Third, there is also a need for more thorough examination of the consequences of desire-division of labor fit. Although a variety of marital quality and mental health variables have been investigated as well-being outcomes, no studies included a measure of well-being in the work domain. This may be a function of the publication outlets, as the studies are mostly published in family or gender-focused journals, rather than those geared toward an organizational studies audience. Nonetheless, because dual-earner couple's division of paid labor has implications for the qualities of the work role that each spouse occupies (Pixley & Moen, 2003), there is theoretical reason to suspect that desire-division of labor fit impacts career-related well-being in addition to health and marital outcomes. As such, a comprehensive analysis should incorporate well-being specific to the paid work domain in addition to well-being in other life domains.

Fourth, the process by which couples divide family and paid labor is an issue that inherently involves two people, meaning two people experience fit (or misfit) between their pre-child desires and post-child division of labor, and the well-being of each person may be affected by their own desire-division of labor fit as well as by the fit of their partner. In order to assess each of these relationships, data from matched

marital dyads is necessary, a condition that was only met in two previous studies (Khazan et al., 2008; Ross et al., 1983). Furthermore, only Ross et al. (1983) took full advantage of the dyadic data by examining the fit perceptions of both partners in relation to their own and their partner's well-being. However, this study was limited, as it only examined desires toward women's working roles, with no attention paid to women's or men's preferences for men's relative contributions to paid labor. In order to understand the wide-range of consequences that result from a dyadic process, desire-division of labor fit and well-being research should include data from matched dyads and incorporate hypotheses that address both partners without any assumptions based on gender.

Lastly, one area of inquiry that remains virtually untouched in this stream of research is the role of moderators, or variables that temper the strength and form of the desire-division of labor fit and well-being relationships. With the exception of gender, previous research has not incorporated any individual or situational variables into analyses to test for interactive effects. The inclusion of moderators would not only contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the link between desire-division of labor fit and well-being, but it also has the potential to resolve some of the inconsistencies in the results across previous studies.

In summary, there is much potential to expand our theoretical understanding of the desire-division of labor fit and well-being relationship by including more comprehensive definitions of the division of labor and division of labor fit constructs, examining well-being in the work domain, testing a wide range of hypotheses using

both males and females in dual-earner dyads, and exploring the role of moderators in this relationship.

Methodological. A major limitation of the previous desire-division of labor fit and well-being research is the measurement and analysis of the fit variable. Most previous researchers created the fit variable using a difference score, subtracting the actual division of labor from the desired division of labor. As researched extensively by Edwards (Edwards, 1994a, 1994b, 2001, 2002, 2007), there are numerous drawbacks to using difference scores as a measure of fit. Five of Edward's main criticisms are listed below.

First, the relationship between fit and an outcome is a three dimensional issue, with three components (the two fit variables and the outcome variable). Difference scores reduce the two fit variables into one variable and thus force an inherently three dimensional question into two dimensions (Edwards, 2007). Second, difference scores are not usually equal representations of both variables that compose them. Unless the variables have equal variance, the difference score will primarily represent the component with the larger variance (Edwards, 1994b, 2002). Third, they confound the effects of their components, such that sometimes the observed relationship between the difference score and outcome is only attributable to one of the difference score components, not both components as assumed (Edwards, 1994b). Fourth, because difference scores are a simple product of two components it is statistically impossible for them to explain more variance in an outcome than just looking at the two components separately (Edwards, 1994b), which in many cases negates the entire premise of the research question. Finally, in some instances, difference score are less

reliable than their individual components (Edwards, 1994a, 2001; Johns, 1981; Williams & Zimmerman, 1977).

As an alternative to difference scores, Edwards and colleagues (Edwards, 1991, 1993, 1994b; 2001; 2002; Edwards & Harrison, 1993) recommend the use of polynomial regression, a special case of multiple linear regression. Polynomial regression allows the unique components of the fit variable to be preserved and treats congruence as it conceptually should be treated, as the extent of correspondence between two components rather than as a single score (Edwards, 1994a, 2002). Additionally, polynomial regression uses higher order terms and thus can capture both linear and non-linear effects (Edwards, 1993, 1994b). Given that the effects of different directions of misfit on well-being may vary, being able to test for non-linear effects is of utmost importance. One criticism of polynomial regression is that it is difficult to interpret; however, graphing the equations using response surface modeling provides a three-dimensional image of relationships that greatly aids in interpretation (Edwards, 1993, 2001).

In summary, the statistical problems associated with using difference scores to assess fit are well documented, calling into question the accuracy of results based on this method (Edwards, 2001). Polynomial regression, coupled with response surface modeling, is a superior method of analyzing the relationship between fit and other variables. As none of the existing desire-division of labor fit and well-being studies used polynomial regression, there is clear room for methodological improvement in this area.

Current study

The aforementioned review and critique pinpoints several theoretical gaps and limitations in the extant literature. In the present study, I address each of these shortcomings by examining the congruence between pre-child desires and post-child actual division of labor fit through the lens of P-E fit theory. This well-researched theory provides a strong conceptual foundation for predictions about the nature of the relationship between different forms of (mis)fit and several types of well-being. Additionally, it provides a framework for generating hypotheses concerning the direct effects of desire-division of labor fit on one's own well-being as well as crossover effects within spousal dyads, and allows for the test of moderators in each of these relationships. Models exhibiting all of the hypotheses that were tested in the current study are presented in Figures 1 and 2.

In addition to theoretical advancements, the present study improves upon the methodology of the extant literature. Desires for division of labor and actual division of labor itself were measured through a multi-item scale that includes the three components of division of paid labor (income, work hours, career prioritization) and family labor (household tasks, childcare tasks, emotion work) that have been deemed important by previous researchers (e.g., Coltrane, 2000; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969; Pixley, 2008). Measurement and analysis of the fit variable will also be improved through the use of polynomial regression and response surface modeling rather than difference scores. Through these theoretical advancements and methodological improvements, the present study aims to gain a clearer understanding of the well-being consequences of misfit

between pre-child desires toward division of paid and family labor and the post-child actual division of the labor.

In the subsequent sections, the conceptual framework for the present study is outlined, starting with a broad review of P-E fit theory, followed by an application of the theory to the current desire-division of labor context, and concluding with the introduction of specific hypotheses.

Person-Environment Fit Theory

Fundamental premise. The fundamental ideas behind P-E fit theory were introduced into the psychological literature several decades ago (e.g., Lewin, 1935; Murray, 1938, Parsons, 1909) and were refined in more recent times (French et al., 1982). The basic premise of P-E fit theory is that stress occurs when there is a misfit between the person and the environment. Like many other theories of stress (e.g., Beehr & Newman, 1978; Cummings & Cooper, 1979, McGrath, 1976), P-E fit theory contends that stress results in subsequent strain, which may lead to attitudinal, psychological, and/or behavioral changes (Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998). On the other hand, chronic periods of fit between the person and the environment can have salutary effects on well-being (Edwards & Cooper, 1988; Harrison, 1978; 1985). With regard to specific processes, the effects of P-E fit on a particular well-being outcome (i.e., attitudes, health, performance) can be inferred by examining P-E fit theory in conjunction with theories relevant to that outcome variable (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

Types of P-E fit. Under the broad umbrella of P-E fit, there are two main distinctions (Edwards, 2009). The first divides fit into two types: supplementary and complementary (Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Mohanan, 1987). Supplementary fit,

which occurs when a person and the environment share similar characteristics, is often conceptualized as value congruence (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof, 1996). Complementary fit occurs when the person and environment have something to offer each other, such that the needs of the environment are offset or "made whole" by the assets of the individual, and vice versa (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Complementary fit is further distinguished based on the source of the requirements (Edwards, 1991). Demands-abilities fit occurs when the environment imposes requirements on the individual, and needs-supplies fit represents the extent that a person's needs, desires, or preferences (Kristof, 1996) are satisfied by the environmental supplies (Edwards, 1996; French et al., 1982).

The second important P-E fit distinction is between the objective and subjective representations of the person and the environment. The objective represents the attributes of the person and the environment as they actually exist, whereas the subjective refers to an individual's perceptions of his/her own attributes and the environment (Edwards et al, 1998; French et al., 1982; Harrison, 1978). The theory stipulates that objective constructs affect their subjective counterparts, a process that may be influenced by outside factors such as cognitive distortions, and personal and situational constraints on information access and processing (Harrison, 1978). Thus, subjective perceptions serve as a mediator between the objective person and environment and strain (Edwards et al., 1998; Kahn et al., 1964; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). For this reason, many researchers focus on subjective fit, with the understanding that it is a function of the objective components (Edwards et al., 1998; Edwards & Rothbard, 1999).

Measurement. There are three basic approaches to the way P-E is measured (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006). The atomistic approach involves measuring the perceived person and environment separately, and then combining them in some way to represent fit (Cable & Judge, 1996; Edwards, 1996; French et al., 1982). The molecular approach involves direct assessment of the perceived discrepancy between the person and the environment, preserving the direction of difference (i.e., asking an individual whether their job demands exceed or fall short of their abilities) (Beehr, Walsh, & Taber, 1976; Lance, Mallard, & Michalos, 1995; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). The molar approach asks individuals to rate the fit between themselves and their environment, disregarding the direction of misfit and treating positive and negative discrepancies the same (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Judge & Cable, 1997; Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

Edwards et al. (2006) compared each of these approaches for needs-supplies fit within a single study. The results suggested that molecular approaches tend to result in unequally weighted comparisons of the person and environment. Molar approaches seem to capture affect more than fit and are limited in the sense that they do not allow for complete tests of P-E fit theory, as positive and negative discrepancies in the person and environment are treated the same. Atomistic approaches are burdened with issues of unequivocal referent comparisons in assessing person and the environment. Overall, atomistic approaches are preferable, as this is the only method that does not confound the constructs of the person and environment, thereby preventing estimation of their independent effects (Edwards, 1991).

Another important component of P-E fit measurement is that the person and environment dimensions must be commensurate (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; French et al., 1974; French & Kahn, 1962), meaning they are described in the same terms (e.g., need for autonomy and amount of autonomy environment provides) and are assessed on the same metric (Edwards, 1996). Metric equivalence is best achieved by using the same response scale for the person and environment with different item stems to distinguish between the two (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). When dimensions are not commensurate, the proximity of the person and environment dimension to one another cannot be determined and the idea of fit has little meaning (Edwards et al., 1998).

Application of P-E Fit Theory to Desire-Division of Labor Fit and Well-Being

Theoretical framework: needs-supplies fit. The direct effects of desire-division of labor fit on an individual's own well-being fit can be understood through a subjective needs-supplies fit framework, where fit is determined by the extent that an individual's needs, desires, or preferences (Kristof, 1996) are satisfied by the individual's perception of supplies in the environment (Edwards, 1996; French et al., 1982). Needs-supplies fit is grounded in the basic premises of need fulfillment theories (Edwards et al., 1998; Harrison, 1978; Kristof, 1996) which argue that a person will be satisfied and experience positive mental states if his or her needs are fulfilled by the environment. However, when needs go unmet, stress and subsequent strain are likely to occur (e.g., Locke, 1969; Murray, 1938). As such, needs-supplies fit theory assumes that as supplies increase toward needs, stress decreases and well-being increases (French et al., 1982; Harrison, 1978). This pattern is predicted for all relationships, regardless of the content of the specific supplies or needs dimensions (Edwards et al., 1998). However,

when misfit occurs in the other direction, when supplies exceed needs, the relationship becomes more complicated. Depending on the nature of the fit variables, excess supplies may result in better, worse, or the same level of well-being (French et al., 1982; Locke, 1976).

Another component of needs-supplies fit theory is the relationship between the absolute values of the needs and supplies variables and well-being (Edwards, 1991; Edwards, 1996; Edwards & Rothbard, 1999). Holding the degree of needs-supplies fit constant, the level of well-being may differ depending on whether needs and supplies are both high or are both low. Needs-supplies fit theory does not predict a universal pattern of relationships, as the impact of absolute values on well-being depends on the content of the fit variables (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

Defining needs and supplies. The first step in applying needs-supplies fit theory to dual-earner division of labor is to define needs and supplies in this context. For the sake of clarity, the nomenclature of Partner A and Partner B is used to refer to each spouse within a marital dyad. Partner A's environmental labor supplies are determined by the amount of labor that Partner B contributes relative to the total amount of labor that the environment requires. For example, if Partner B takes on 30% of the family labor, then the environment is supplying 30% of the necessary labor for Partner A. As previously noted, an essential component of P-E fit research is that the person and environment dimensions be commensurate. Accordingly, to match the environmental supplies component, needs can be represented by Partner A's preferences for the amount of labor that Partner B contributes to each domain. For example, if Partner A desired that paid work would be divided so that (s)he contributed 40% and Partner B

contributed 60%, needs are defined as the 60% of paid work labor that Partner A wanted Partner B to contribute. Because the focus is on subjective fit, both needs and supplies are measured from Partner A's perspective.

It is important to mention that this conceptualization deviates from typical needs-supplies variables, as needs are defined as preferences for another individual (Partner B) rather than preferences for one's self (Partner A). However, when division of labor is measured in a proportional manner as is done in the present study, Partner A's desires for Partner B's labor contributions are a function of Partner A's self desires. Thus, Partner A's desires are being assessed, albeit indirectly. With this understanding, hypotheses are generated based on empirical and theoretical research that aligns closely with the research question at hand (the effects of Partner B's contributions to labor relative to Partner A's desires for his/her contributions on well-being) as well as research that is directed at the flip side of this relationship (the effects of Partner A contributing less to paid labor than (s)he desires on Partner A's own well-being). Additionally, because desires may be different for paid and family labor, needs and supplies are examined separately in each area and hypotheses are tested independently.

Needs-supplies fit and well-being. As previously noted, well-being is conceptualized in a variety of ways in needs-supplies fit research. The theoretical nature by which needs-supplies fit influences different types of well-being can be inferred by combining the general notions of P-E fit theory with theories about the particular form of well-being (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). In order to gain a thorough understanding of the consequences of desire-labor division fit, three forms of well-being are examined: satisfaction, depression, and physical health symptoms. Hypotheses are

generated concerning the relationship of shortage of supplies and excess supplies relevant to needs and each form on well-being. However, hypotheses related to the relationship between absolute levels of needs and supplies and well-being are not formed, as there is not strong theoretical rationale to expect a differential relationship between fit when both desires for one partner's labor contributions and his/her actual labor contributions are high than when they are both low.

Satisfaction. Satisfaction is a state marked by pleasant, positive feelings (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Because division of paid labor is a shared process that occurs on the couple level, fit between desires and reality are likely to influence affective reactions toward the marital partner and the marital relationship as a whole (i.e., marital satisfaction). Additionally, previous research suggests that needs-supplies fit that is specific to a particular life domain may influence satisfaction about that domain, as well as more global satisfaction (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999; 2005). Thus, career and family satisfaction are examined when focusing on division of paid and family labor, respectively.

The effects of needs-supplies fit on satisfaction can be inferred from theories of satisfaction and emotion (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). The Range of Affect Theory (Locke, 1976, 1979) posits that satisfaction is determined by the congruence between one's values and what is provided by the environment. The theory was created to explain job satisfaction specifically but also has theoretical relevance in other environments. Similarly, Lazarus's (1991) theory of emotions states that positive emotions arise with goal congruence, or the extent that a situation is consistent with one's desires. Thus, both Locke and Lazarus's theories align well with the notion of

needs-supplies fit, suggesting that as environmental supplies increase toward needs, satisfaction improves (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). In the present context, this leads to the prediction that as the proportional amount of labor Partner B is contributing increases toward the amount of labor Partner A desired Partner B to contribute, Partner A's well-being increases.

However, in order to determine the relationship between the other direction of misfit, when supplies exceed needs (when Partner B contributes more than Partner A desired him/her to contribute), other theories and processes must be considered (Edwards et al., 1998). Self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987, 1989) is highly relevant, as it also focuses on discrepancies but specifically in regard to an individual's self concept. The theory posits that people are strongly motivated to maintain a sense of consistency among their beliefs and self-conceptions. When differences between self-aspirations (ideal selves) and actual behaviors (actual selves) are experienced, negative emotions such as sadness, dissatisfaction, and other depressive states tend to emerge. The theory has generated a good deal of empirical research, with study results typically lending support to its basic ideas (e.g., Higgins, Bond, Klein, & Strauman, 1986; Newman, Higgins, & Vookles, 1992; Strauman, 1989).

When supplies exceed needs, Partner B contributes more than Partner A desires him/her to contribute, and by default Partner A is contributing less than desired for him/herself. The level of contributions that Partner A desires for him/herself represents an ideal self, that is, an ideal conception of one's family provider and caretaker roles. When supplies are in excess, Partner A is not living up to this ideal, evoking a self-

discrepancy. As predicted by Higgins' theory, such discrepancy results in negative emotions and dissatisfaction.

Applying the notion of domain-specificity with fit (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999, 2005), excess paid labor supplies in the paid domain should influence the ideal work self and thus attitudes in the paid labor domain, namely career satisfaction. Similarly, excess family labor supplies should affect the ideal family self and relate to family satisfaction. Empirical evidence lends some support to the self-concept idea and its relationship to domain satisfaction. Tsaousides and Jome (2005) experimentally manipulated career compromise, which they viewed a form of self-discrepancy toward the ideal worker self. Those in the conditions with greater career compromise reported lower anticipated work-related satisfaction and more negative affect than those in conditions with little or no compromise. Although not all situations of excess supplies result in career compromise, it is associated with less contribution to paid labor relative to one's spouse (Pixley & Moen, 2003). With regard to family labor, there are only a few studies that have considered self-discrepancies specific to family role ideals (e.g., Polasky & Holahan, 1998; Shafer, Wickrama, & Keith, 1996). Both studies found a relationship between discrepancies and negative emotions, although neither examined satisfaction in specific domains (e.g., family satisfaction).

Based on the principles of needs-supplies fit self-discrepancy theories, I predict:

Hypothesis 1: Partner A's career satisfaction will increase as paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increase toward paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions), and will decrease as supplies exceed needs. (see Figure 3)

Hypothesis 2: Partner A's family satisfaction will increase as family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) increase toward family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions), and will decrease as supplies exceed needs. (see Figure 3)

Because desire-division of labor fit is not an individual process, but rather one that occurs within the marital dyadic unit, it should relate to affect toward the marital partner and relationship (i.e., marital satisfaction) in addition to domain-specific satisfaction. Based on needs-supplies fit theory, when one's spouse is not contributing a large enough proportion to paid or family labor (supplies are short of needs), stress arises due to lack of need fulfillment. Affective reactions to stress depend upon source attribution (Perrewe & Zellars, 1999). That is, when an internal source is perceived to be the cause, internally-driven emotions such as guilt and shame are often experienced. However, when the source is external, anger directed at the cause of the stress may arise (Perrewe & Zellars, 1999; Spector & Fox, 2005). Because division of labor supplies are provided by the spouse, (s)he is the source of needs-supplies misfit, meaning negative affective reactions directed toward the spouse and the marital relationship may arise. Previous research is consistent with this idea, as men and women who perceive that their partner is contributing too little to paid labor (e.g., Perry-Jenkins et al., 1992; Wilkie, Ferree, & Ratcliff, 1998) and family labor (e.g., Lavee & Katz, 2002; MacDermid et al., 1990; McHale & Crouter, 1992; Milkie et al, 2002; Pina & Bengston, 1993) experience decreased marital satisfaction.

Moreover, the effects of misfit in the other direction, excess supplies, on marital satisfaction may be inferred from self-discrepancy theory. The negative emotions

experienced as a result of ideal and actual self-discrepancies may also be directed at the marital partner, as s(he) is a prominent factor in creating the discrepancy. Previous research supports this notion, although it is limited in the sense that studies on family and work role identity threat tend to be segregated by gender. Specifically, when wives' paid labor behavior threatens husband's provider role identity, husbands experience poorer marital quality (Brennan et al., 2001; Potucheck, 1997). When husbands' family labor behavior threatens wives' maternal identities, wives report less positive marital relations (MacDermid et al., 1990). Moreover, excess labor supplies may be interpreted as a form of social undermining which has been linked to poor marital satisfaction (Westman, Vinokur, Hamilton, & Roziner, 2004). Based on these ideas, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Partner A's marital satisfaction will increase as paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increase toward paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions), and will decrease as supplies exceed needs. (see Figure 3)

Hypothesis 4: Partner A's marital satisfaction will increase as family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) increase toward family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions), and will decrease as supplies exceed needs. (see Figure 3)

Depression and physical health symptoms. Another commonly studied and theoretically relevant outcome of needs-supplies fit is mental and physical health, often indicated by depression and physical health symptoms (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). Many theories of the stress process emphasize the link between stressors and

psychological and physiological strains (e.g., Beehr & Newman, 1978; Fletcher & Payne, 1980; Kahn & Byosiere, 1992; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Quick, Cooper, Nelson, Quick, & Gavin, 2003). The body's natural reaction to stress is responsible for this link, as short term adaptive changes in emotions, behavior, hormones, and immune, cardiovascular, and pulmonary functions have destructive and pathogenic effects when chronically activated (Dienstbierm, 1989; Frankenhaeuser, 1986; Johnson, Kamilaris, Chrousos, & Gold, 1990; Pearlin, Menaghan, Lieberman, & Mullan, 1981). On the other hand, chronic periods of needs-supplies fit can have salutary effects on depression and physical health (Edwards & Cooper, 1988; Harrison, 1978, 1985). Together, needs-supplies fit and other stressor-strain theories suggest that negative health symptoms decrease as environmental supplies (Partner B's labor contributions) approach personal needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's labor contributions).

However, as mentioned with satisfaction, the effects of excess supplies on health are not universally predicted by needs-supplies theory, and self-discrepancy theory becomes important. The rationale previously applied to excess supplies and self-discrepancy theory extends to depression and physical health symptoms. When supplies are in excess, an individual is not contributing as much to paid and family labor as (s)he desires and a discrepancy between the actual and ideal self is formed. This discrepancy creates dejection-related emotions, such as sadness and dissatisfaction, which when chronically experienced lead to depression and other mood disorders (APA, 2000). Many studies empirically support the relationship between ideal-actual self-discrepancies and depression (Cornette, Strauman, Abramson, & Busch, 2009; Higgins et al., 1986; Higgins, Vookles, Tykocinski, 1992; Orth, Berking, Burkhardt, 2006;

Rodebaugh & Donahue, 2007). Likewise, negative emotions have been linked to detrimental immune system alterations, neuroendocrine responses, and health behaviors, which in turn contribute to a wide variety of illnesses and diseases (cf., Kiecolt-Glaser, McGuire, Robles, & Glaser, 2002; cf., Kubzansky & Kawachi, 2000). As depression and physical health symptoms permeate all life roles, they are applicable to misfit in both work and family domains.

Hypothesis 5: Partner A's depression will decrease as paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increase toward paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions), and will increase as supplies exceed needs. (see Figure 4)

Hypothesis 6: Partner A's depression will decrease as family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) increase toward family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions), and will increase as supplies exceed needs. (see Figure 4)

Hypothesis 7: Partner A's physical health symptoms will decrease as paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increase toward paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions), and will increase as supplies exceed needs. (see Figure 4)

Hypothesis 8: Partner A's physical health symptoms will decrease as family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) increase toward family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions), and will increase as supplies exceed needs. (see Figure 4)

Moderators. In addition to investigating the main effects of desire-division of labor fit on well-being, we can gain a better understanding of desire-division of labor dynamics by examining boundary conditions of the fit process. Three variables are examined as moderators, including domain centrality, gender, and voice in decision of labor decision making.

Domain centrality. The theoretical rationale behind the first moderator, domain centrality, the degree that career or family is considered important to a person's life as a whole (Gecas & Seff, 1990), stems from early conceptions of P-E fit. French et al. (1974) argued that the effects of need-supplies fit on well-being depend on the importance of the dimension to which needs and supplies refer. As the importance of a dimension increases, needs-supplies misfit poses a greater threat to overall self-concept, and negatively affects well-being (Locke, 1976; French et al., 1974). Previous P-E fit research (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999) examining needs-supplies fit in various life domains has conceptualized importance as domain centrality, finding that the strength of the relationship between needs-supplies fit in a particular life domain is dependent upon the importance of that domain to individual. For example, the fit between needs and supplies for autonomy at work related more strongly to work well-being for those with higher rather than lower work centrality (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999).

Applying this rationale to the present context, I predict that domain centrality moderates the effects of desire-division of labor fit on all four types of well-being. However, the form of the moderation is not universal for both directions of misfit. When career centrality, for example, is high, excess supplies are likely to have a large impact on well-being because the work role is highly relevant to self-concept. Said

otherwise, someone who identifies highly with work is more likely to be upset when they are not contributing as much as desired than someone who does not view work as a central part of their identity. When paid labor supplies are too few, career centrality may actually serve as a buffer against negative effects on well-being. To the extent that one highly values one's individual contribution in work, one is less likely to be affected by a partner who is contributing less than desired. A parallel process should occur with family centrality and the division of family labor.

Hypothesis 9: Partner A's career centrality moderates the relationship between paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) and paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) fit and Partner A's well-being ((a) career satisfaction,(b) marital satisfaction, (c) depression, and (d) physical health symptoms). The relationships between shortage of supplies and well-being will be weaker when career centrality is higher rather than lower. The relationships between excess supplies and well-being will be stronger when career centrality is higher rather than lower. (See Figures 5 and 6.)

Hypothesis 10: Partner A's family centrality moderates the relationship between family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) and family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) fit and Partner A's well-being ((a) family satisfaction, (b) marital satisfaction, (c) depression, and (d) physical health symptoms). The relationships between shortage of supplies and well-being will be weaker when family centrality is higher rather than lower. The relationships between excess supplies and well-

being will be stronger when family centrality is higher rather than lower. (See Figures 5 and 6.)

Gender. Gender is an inevitable consideration in division of labor research (Coltrane, 2000). Although progress toward more egalitarian practices has been made, husbands still carry greater influence than wives in the way paid and family labor is divided (Coltrane, 2000; Fox & Murry, 2000; Gerstel & Gallagher, 2001; Tichenor, 1999). Thus, when a husband's and wife's desires for the division of paid labor conflict, men's preferences are more likely to prevail. This asymmetry has implications for gender differences in consequences of desire-division of labor Specifically, women are aware of this situation and appear to grasp the reality that work and family roles may not live up to their ideals (Gerson, 2002; Orrange, 2003; Machung, 1989; Sanders, Lengnick-Hall, Lengnick-Hall, & Steele-Clapp, 1998; Schroeder, Blood, & Maluso, 1993; Spade & Reese, 1991). Perhaps because the base rate is much lower, men are not as cognizant or do not plan as much for a potential discrepancy between their desires in early marriage and post-child reality (Machung, 1989; Maines & Hardesty, 1987; Schroeder et al., 1993; Tinklin, Croxford, Ducklin, & Frame, 2005). This has led some researchers to suggest that, compared to men, women's greater preparedness for desire-reality incongruence in labor divisions helps them develop more effective coping strategies that serve as a buffer against the negative effects of this stressor (Loscocco & Spitze, 2007). Therefore, it is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 11: Partner A's gender moderates the relationship between paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) and paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) fit and Partner A's

well-being ((a) career satisfaction,(b) marital satisfaction, (c) depression, and (d) physical health symptoms). The relationships between shortage of supplies and well-being and excess supplies and well-being will be weaker when Partner A is a female than when Partner A is male. . (See Figures 7 and 8.)

Hypothesis 12: Partner A's gender moderates the relationship between family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) and family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) fit and Partner A's well-being ((a) family satisfaction,(b) marital satisfaction, (c) depression, and (d) physical health symptoms). The relationships between shortage of supplies and well-being and excess supplies and well-being will be weaker when Partner A is a female than when Partner A is male. (See Figures 7 and 8.)

Voice in division of labor decisions. The manner in which couples manage paid and family labor is typically the culmination of several explicit or implicit processes and decisions throughout the marriage. For example, individuals must often make big decisions, such as relocation, promotion, or length of parental leave, that impact their own and their partner's work and family situation and thus the division of labor (Wethington, Pixley, & Kavey, 2003). Similarly, couples face day-to-day decisions, such as who will leave work early to pick up children or who will prepare dinner, that over time culminate to represent the division of labor (Orrange, Firebaugh, & Heck, 2003).

In some cases the division of labor emerges as a "silent process," where there is little discussion or negotiation between partners, and the partner with more marital power (usually the man) exerts control over labor division dynamics (Kingsbury &

Scanzoni, 1989; Kompter, 1989; Zipp, Prohaska, & Bemiller, 2004; Zvonkovic, Schmiege, & Hall, 1994). In other cases, both marital partners are active players in the division of labor, jointly settling on critical career or family decisions (Barnett & Rivers, 1996; Challiol & Mignonac, 2005; Wethington et al., 2003). Research on "voice," the opportunity to provide input, in decision making finds that people react more positively to decisions when they feel they had a voice in the process, even when the outcome is unfavorable to them (LaTour, 1978; Lind, Kurtz, Musante, Walker, & Thibaut, 1980). This idea has been specifically applied to work and family roles. Spouses who feel they have a say in how their own work and family roles are structured tend to be more satisfied with their roles in both domains and with their marriages than people who have no input (Hiller & McCaig, 2007; Madden, 1987; Thompson & Walker, 1989).

Applying this information to the relationship desire-division of labor fit and outcomes, the amount of voice one has in the processes that led to the current division of labor within the marriage should serve as a buffer to the negative effects of incongruence. Specifically, when a person's desires for the division of labor at the start of marriage are not met post-child, s(he) will be less negatively affected by this discrepancy if s(he) had some input into the decisions that led to the current division of labor.

Hypothesis 13: Partner A's voice in division of paid labor decisions moderates the relationships between paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) and paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) fit and Partner A's well-being ((a) career satisfaction,(b) marital satisfaction, (c) depression, and (d) physical health symptoms). The

relationships between shortage of supplies and well-being and between excess supplies and well-being will be weaker when voice in division of labor decisions is higher rather than lower. (See Figures 7 and 8.)

Hypothesis 14: Partner A's voice in division of family labor decisions moderates the relationships between family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) and family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) fit and Partner A's well-being ((a) family satisfaction,(b) marital satisfaction,(c)depression, and (d) physical health symptoms). The relationships between shortage of supplies and well-being and between excess supplies and well-being will be weaker when voice in division of labor decisions is higher rather than lower. (See Figures 7 and 8.)

In the preceding section, hypotheses were generated concerning direct effects, in that Partner A's needs and supplies fit were related to Partner A's well-being. However, the same variables, Partner A's preferences for Partner B's labor contributions and Partner B's actual contributions may also impact Partner B's well-being, in that Partner A's preferences for Partner B represent environmental demands and Partner B's labor contributions represent Partner B's abilities or resources to fulfill these demands. With this in mind, in the following section the second type of complementary fit, demands-abilities fit is applied to the desire-labor division context and hypotheses concerning Partner B's well-being are generated.

Theoretical framework: demands-abilities fit. Demands-abilities fit is based on the match between environmental demands and a person's abilities (Edwards, 1996). Abilities are broadly defined as the knowledge, skills, time, energy, and resources that a

person can draw upon to fulfill environmental demands, defined as quantitative and qualitative requirements that can be objective or socially constructed (Edwards, 1996; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; French et al., 1982; Kristof, 1996). The fundamental premise of demands-abilities fit is that when a person lacks the abilities to fulfill the demands imposed by the environment, stress is experienced, which in turn produces strain and decreases well-being (Edwards, 1996; French et al. 1982). Thus, as abilities increase toward demands, well-being also increases. Parallel to needs-supplies fit, demands-abilities fit theory does not make consistent predictions about the other direct of misfit, when abilities exceed demands, and requires external theory relevant to the specific content of the fit variables (French et al., 1982; Locke, 1976). Additionally, fit when demands and abilities are low may have a differential impact on well-being than fit when both variables are high, although the nature of this relationship also depends on the content of the fit variables (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

Defining demands and abilities. Within the marital environment, the proportion of family and paid labor that Partner A desires Partner B to contribute acts as an environmental demand for Partner B. Thus, the same variable acting as a need for Partner A also serves as a demand for Partner B. Abilities are represented by the amount of labor Partner B contributes. The amount of labor that a person contributes may be a function of his/her actual skill level, time and energy available, and resources to do so; thus, abilities in this context may be a function of a variety of sources, all consistent with the aforementioned definition of abilities. Furthermore, in the present study demands are measured objectively using Partner A's reports, as it is his/her preferences that set the demands for the environment. Abilities are assessed via Partner

B's reports of his/her own labor contributions, as it is his/her perception of his/her level of ability that drives the cognitive processes behind the demands-abilities fit – well-being relationship (Edwards, 1996; French et al., 1982). To provide a concrete example, if Partner A wanted Partner B to contribute 60% of the paid labor, demands are for Partner B to contribute 60% to paid labor. If Partner B reports that (s)he is contributing 50%, then Partner B's ability is to assume 50% of the couple's paid labor requirements.

Demands-abilities fit and well-being. Several P-E fit theorists contend that the effects of demands-abilities fit on satisfaction, physical, and mental health are not direct. Rather, demands-abilities fit affects these forms of well-being through needs-supplies fit (Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Harrison, 1978; Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1976; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). For this reason, I do not hypothesize about the link between demands-abilities fit and each form of well-being separately; instead I describe how demands-abilities fit contributes to needs-supplies fit and infer the link from needs-supplies fit to each form of well-being from the previously described needs-supplies theory. Moreover, the only form of satisfaction that is examined is marital satisfaction. The domain-specific forms of satisfaction, career and family satisfaction are not included because unlike needs, which are directed toward the marriage and specific domains, demands come directly from the spouse. Therefore, in the present context, it is only theoretically sound to propose hypotheses about demands-abilities fit in relation to satisfaction toward the marital partner. Finally, as stated with needs-supplies fit, there is no theoretical rationale to expect that the absolute levels of demands and abilities impact well-being differently when holding the degree of fit constant. Thus, no hypotheses are generated with respect to this element of demands-abilities fit theory.

As proposed by Harrison (1978) and extended by Edwards and Shipp (2007) and Edwards (2008), there are three main mechanisms by which by which demands-abilities fit translates into needs-supplies fit. First, demands-abilities fit may enhance performance, which by virtue of increased rewards, fulfills needs and increases satisfaction. Second, demands may become internalized and accepted as the goals or motives of the individual. When this occurs, demands are essentially functioning as needs, and fit between demands and abilities serves as need satisfaction. Third, demands-abilities fit may create a sense of competence, fulfilling the need for competence, and increasing satisfaction.

The first two processes are particularly relevant in the desire-division of labor fit context. Meeting demands for labor divisions should contribute to the one's performance as a marital partner, enhancing supplies to meet relationships needs (i.e., the need to be a high-quality marital partner). In addition, research suggests that marital partners tend to have communal orientations, meaning they are cognizant of each other's needs and respond sympathetically to them (Clark, 1984; Clark, Mills, & Powell, 1986; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987). Based on this notion, it is likely that the environmental demands, which are essentially one's partner's needs, are at least to some degree internalized as one's own needs. The extent that abilities act as supplies to fulfill those needs determines needs-supplies fit. Taken together, there is substantial reason to assume that demands-abilities fit contributes to an individual's needs-supplies fit and thus influences satisfaction and mental and physical health. Specifically, as Partner B's labor contributions (abilities) approach environmental demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's labor contributions), satisfaction and mental and physical health improve.

In hypothesizing about the effects of excess abilities on well-being, self-discrepancy theory is again utilized. It was previously hypothesized that for Partner A, excess supplies result in decreased well-being because they create a self-discrepancy. When demands are in excess for Partner B, the same essential process occurs: Partner A is not contributing as much labor as (s)he desired and as a result, suffers from self-discrepancy. Thus, by virtue of having excess abilities, Partner B contributes to lack of need fulfillment for Partner A.

Theoretically, not fulfilling one's partner needs has implications for well-being. It may foster feelings of guilt or frustration that contribute to poorer health outcomes and negatively affect marital interactions. Grote and Clark (2001) found empirical support for the latter, as not being able to meet one's partner's needs contributed to increased martial dissatisfaction. The study was longitudinal, giving more credence to the idea that not meeting needs impacted marital dissatisfaction, rather than the reverse. Thus, excess abilities harm Partner B's well-being through their effects on Partner A's need fulfillment. Combining the ideas of shortage of abilities and excess abilities, it is predicted that well-being is maximized at perfect demands-abilities congruence for the division of both family and paid labor.

Hypothesis 15: Partner B's marital satisfaction increases as paid labor division abilities (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increase toward demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) and decreases as abilities exceed demands. (See Figure 3.)

Hypothesis 16: Partner B's marital satisfaction increases as family labor division abilities (Partner B's family labor contributions) increase toward

demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) and decreases as abilities exceed demands. (See Figure 3.)

Hypothesis 17: Partner B's depression decreases as paid labor division abilities (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increase toward demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) and increases as abilities exceed demands. (See Figure 4.)

Hypothesis 18: Partner B's depression decreases as family labor division abilities (Partner B's family labor contributions) increase toward demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) and increases as abilities exceed demands. (See Figure 4.)

Hypothesis 19: Partner B's physical health symptoms decrease as paid labor division abilities (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increase toward demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) and increase as abilities exceed demands. (See Figure 4.)

Hypothesis 20: Partner B's physical health symptoms decrease as family labor division abilities (Partner B's family labor contributions) increase toward demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) and increase as abilities exceed demands. (See Figure 4.)

Gender. Gender was considered as a moderating factor in the relationship between needs-supplies fit and Partner A's well-being, and it is also relevant to the relationship between demands-abilities fit and Partner B's well-being. Compared to men, women are more responsive to the needs of those around them (Gilligan, 1982) and have more empathetic orientations (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983). Applying this idea

to environmental demands, it is probable that women are thus more responsive to demands imposed by their partners (as these represent partner's needs) and that they are more likely to internalize these needs as their own. The extent that demands are personally meaningful is a strong determinant of the strength of the demands-abilities fit – well-being relationship (French et al., 1982; Harrison, 1978; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), such that a shortage of abilities should be more detrimental when demands are deemed more significant.

With regard to the effects of excess demands, there is some evidence that women are more susceptible than men to the impact of stressors affecting their partners (Kessler & McLeod, 1984). There are three proposed mechanisms for these gender differences (Westman, 2004). Because women themselves experience higher levels of distress they are less resilient when facing the stress and strain of their husbands, women are more empathetic to the stress of their husbands and therefore more vulnerable, and women tend to provide more social support and are therefore more susceptible to spousal stress. Assuming the self-discrepancy that comes with Partner B's excess abilities (labor contributions) is a source of stress for Partner A, Partner B should be more negatively affected by this stress when she is a woman than when he is a man.

Hypothesis 21: Partner B's gender moderates the relationships between demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) and abilities (Partner B's paid labor contributions) fit and Partner B's well-being ((a) marital satisfaction, (b) depression, and (c) physical health symptoms). The relationships between shortage of abilities and well-being and between excess

abilities and well-being are stronger when Partner B is female rather than male. (See Figures 9 and 10.)

Hypothesis 22: Partner B's gender moderates the relationships between demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) and abilities (Partner B's family labor contributions) fit and Partner B's well-being ((a) marital satisfaction, (b) depression, and (c) physical health symptoms). The relationships between shortage of abilities and well-being and between excess abilities and well-being are stronger when Partner B is female rather than male. (See Figures 9 and 10.)

Satisfaction with division of labor. The aforementioned predictions about the effects of demands-abilities fit on well-being were all based on Partner A's demands and fulfilling Partner A's needs, to the neglect of consideration of a Partner's B's attitudes toward the current labor division. Because spouses do not always share identical perceptions or attitudes about the division of labor (Jansen & Liefbroer, 2006), it is possible that Partner B's well-being may be negatively affected due to the stress from not meeting the environmental demands that Partner A has imposed and simultaneously positively affected by Partner B's satisfaction with the current division of labor, determined by Partner B's own preferences, irrespective of Partner A's position. Said otherwise, satisfaction with current arrangements should act as a buffer against the negative effects of demands-abilities misfit. Self-evaluation maintenance theory (Tesser, 1998) applied to marriage (Beach & Tesser, 1993; Clark & Bennett, 1992) supports this idea, positing that when situations result in positive outcomes for an individual but threaten his/her spouse's well-being, the individual's exhibits less

positive reactions than in situations that result in positive outcomes for both. Based on these ideas a moderation effect is proposed:

Hypothesis 23: Partner B's satisfaction with the current division of paid labor moderates the relationships between demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) and abilities (Partner B's paid labor contributions) fit and Partner B's well-being ((a) marital satisfaction, (b) depression, and (c) physical health symptoms). The relationships between shortage of abilities and well-being and between excess abilities and well-being are weaker when satisfaction with current division of paid labor is higher rather than lower. (See Figures 7 and 8.)

Hypothesis 24: Partner B's satisfaction with the current division of family labor moderates the relationships between demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) and abilities (Partner B's family labor contributions) fit and Partner B's well-being ((a) marital satisfaction, (b) depression, and (c) physical health symptoms). The relationships between shortage of abilities and well-being and between excess abilities and well-being are weaker when satisfaction with the current division of family labor is higher rather than lower. (See Figures 7 and 8.)

Chapter Two

Methods

Participants and Procedures

Due to the nature of the research questions, participants were limited to married couples that met the following inclusion criteria: 1.) each spouse worked at least 10 hours per week in paid employment, 2.) they had at least one child under age 6, 3.) all children were born after the couple was married to each other, and 4.) neither spouse was currently on parental leave from work. The first criterion was selected in order to assure that both spouses were participating to some extent in work and family roles. The purpose of the second criterion was to gain consistency across with participants with regard to the timing of their post-child actual division of labor reports. The specific age range was selected to restrict participants to the critical "launching stage" of life when at least one child is pre-school age. The third criterion was necessary to ensure that participants were considering their current spouse when thinking about pre-child desires for division of labor. Lastly, the fourth criterion was selected to avoid imbalances in the division of labor that are a function of temporary parental leave from work.

Spouses were not recruited simultaneously, rather one member of the couple was recruited and (s)he was used to recruit his/her spouse. The first members of the couples were recruited through a variety of strategies. First, 13,943 alumnae of a large women's

organization were contacted via individual emails. Second, 845 alumni of a large southeastern university were contacted via individual emails. Third, 889 members of a website for first time fathers were contacted via the webmaster's email listserve. Fourth, a snowball sampling approach was used. Potential participants were contacted via email and asked to participate in the study and/or forward the survey link to interested individuals. Specifically, recruitment emails were sent to my friends, family members, and professional acquaintances. A total of 184 emails were sent by the principal investigator, but the number of forwarded emails is unknown.

With each sampling method, the email described my background, the purpose of the study and provided a link to the online survey. Additionally, as an incentive, I offered to donate $2.00 to First Book, a non-profit organization dedicated to childhood literacy, for each completed survey (up to $500.00). The email described the study very generally as a study of work and family issues. The email did not list any of the inclusion criteria; rather, the first question of the survey listed some of the criteria (must work at least 10 hours per week in paid employment, be married to someone who works at least 10 hours per week, and have at least one child) and asked participants whether they met all of these criteria. Those that selected "no" were sent to the final page of the survey and did not answer any other survey items. This method was utilized to allow for a more specific calculation of response rate. That is, it allowed for calculation of who was willing to participate but was not eligible to do so versus those who were contacted but did not want to participate. The more specific criteria of children's age, parental leave, and having children after the current marriage were included as questions in the survey, and participants were later screened during the data analysis phase for these

criteria. The number of responses and response rates for each method are listed in Table 2.

After completing the survey, participants were asked if they were willing to invite their spouse to also participate. Those who selected yes were presented with two options: to personally provide the survey links to the study to their spouse or to have the research team contact their spouse directly. Emails with a link to the online spouse survey were then sent to these spouses that described the study, explained that their spouse had already participated, and asked for their participation. An incentive of a $5.00 donation to First Book was offered for each completed set of spousal surveys. Spouses were matched for analysis using a unique code system. Each participant was asked to create a code that would be unique only to the couple based on the first letter of their residential street and both spouse's birthdays (e.g., M822314). This allowed surveys to be matched without gathering personally identifying information. Information about the number of responses response rates for spouses is listed in Table 3. The majority of matched spousal responses were obtained from the women's organization (85.7%), followed by personal and extended networks (11.9%), the university alumni (1.4%), and the first time fathers website (.7%).

After screening for the aforementioned inclusion criteria, the final sample consisted of 578 individuals. Of these 578 participants, matched spousal data was obtained for 126. Thus, the finale sample was 126 couples. Because most of the initial participants were recruited through the women's organization, the majority of them were female (96%) and the majority of the spousal respondents were male. In order to obtain a more even distribution of gender for analyses, the spouses were randomly

assigned as Partner A and Partner B. The randomization was done by sorting the couples in alphabetical order according to their unique codes. The first 63 couples were sorted so that the initial respondent was Partner B rather than A. For the remaining 63, the initial respondent was designated as Partner A and the spouse as Partner B.

Of the 126 Partner As, the average age was 35.58 years (SD = 4.43), 50% were female, with a race/ethnicity breakdown of 91.3% White/Caucasian, 2.4% Asian, 1.6% Hispanic/Latino, .8% Black/African American, and .8% "other." Four percent of participants did not report their race/ethnicity. The sample was highly educated, as the majority of participants had a bachelor's degree (39.7%) or Master's degree (26.7%). Only 4% had less than a Bachelor's degree, 6.7% had done some graduate work, and 20.8% had an advanced degree (Ph.D., M.D., etc.). Partner Bs were 50% female, and 97.6% White/Caucasian (.8% Black/African American, .8% Asian, 3.2% Hispanic/Latino, 2.4% missing). Similar to Partner A, most were highly educated (2.4% less than Bachelor's degree, 31.7% Bachelor's degree, 10.3% some graduate work, 35.7% Master's degree, 19.8% advanced degree). The average age was 35.71 years (SD = 4.25).

Measures

All measures are included in the Appendices. Tables 4 and 5 list the descriptive statistics (number if items, α, mean, standard deviation, minimum score, maximum score, and scale minimum and maximum) for each measure and demographic information for Partner A and Partner B. Table 6 presents descriptive statistics collapsed across partners but separated by gender. Unless otherwise noted, scores on each scale were obtained by averaging the scores across items, and higher scores

indicate a greater prevalence of the construct. All measures were administered to both members of the marital dyad, but only certain variables were used to test hypotheses for Partner A and Partner B. The source of the report that was used to test each hypothesis is listed in Table 7.

Pre-child desires for division of labor. Desires for division of labor before children were born were measured using retrospective reports. As no comprehensive measure of this construct exists in the literature for the paid or family labor domains, two three-item scales were created for the present study. Each item had a similar stem, asking participants to think back to before children were born and indicate how, thinking about the future, they wanted labor to be divided after children were born. For paid labor, each item assesses a different component, including income, work hours, and career prioritization decisions. For family labor, three components were also assessed, including childcare, household work, and emotional work.

The following instructions were given before the set of items in order to make the timeframe clear: "Before having children, many couples think and discuss what their life will be like 'post-children.' For the next set of questions, we are interested in knowing what your desires and expectations were BEFORE you had children with regard to what your life would be like AFTER you did have children." An example item for paid labor is "Picture the total number of combined hours that you and your spouse spend in paid employment as a pie chart that sums to 100%. Before you had children and were thinking into the future what proportion of that pie chart did you WANT to be YOUR work hours once children were born, and what proportion of that pie chart did you WANT to be YOUR SPOUSE'S work hours once children were born? (These numbers

should add up to 100%)." An illustration of an example pie chart was also included to facilitate understanding of the question.

For family labor, similar questions were asked but the pie chart language was not used because pilot testing revealed that the items were easier to understand without it. Definitions and examples of each form of family labor (childcare, household, and emotion work) were included within the items to ensure that participants adequately understood the terms. The examples were based on the definitions listed in Coltrane (2000) and Shelton and John (1996) as well as previous measures for childcare tasks (Bonney, Kelley, & Levant, 1999), household tasks (Atkinson & Huston, 1984; Blair & Lichter, 1991), and emotion work (Erikson, 1993). An example item in the newly created scale is "Childcare related tasks are activities that involve caring for and raising children. Some examples include supervising, bathing, punishing, playing with children, and taking children to appointments or play dates. Picture the total amount of childcare tasks that must be performed in your home. Before you had children and were thinking into the future what percentage of these tasks did you WANT to perform, and what percentage of these tasks did you WANT your spouse to perform? (These numbers should add up to 100%)." For both measures, the response scale was in the format of percentages, and choices were listed in increments of 5% from 0% to 100%. There were two responses for each item, one for self and one for spouse

Because these scales were newly created for the present study, item analysis was conducted prior to deciding on the final set of items to be used in analyses. First, in order to examine the distinctness of the family and paid labor scales, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted. A one factor model with all six

items loading onto a single factor was specified, as well as a two factor model with the paid labor items loading onto one factor and the family labor items loading onto another. The fit statistics for these models are listed in Table 8. The fit statistics were uniformly better for the 2 factor model and the χ^2difference test was significant, suggesting that the fit of the two factor model was statistically superior to that of the one factor model. Second, reliability analyses were conducted. The reliability analysis for paid labor suggested that the items were all highly correlated with high internal consistency reliabilities ($\alpha = .89$). The reliability analysis for family labor suggested that the emotion work item was weakly correlated with the other items. Additionally, the coefficient alpha was low ($\alpha = .56$). The emotion work item was dropped from the scale and the CFA and internal consistencies were recomputed. The fit of the two factor model without emotion work was significantly better than the original two factor model. Additionally, the internal consistency reliability improved ($\alpha = .66$).

Based on these analyses, all three items were retained for the pre-child desires for division of paid labor scale. The emotion work item was dropped from the pre-child desires for division of family labor scale, resulting in a two item measure for this construct. From a theoretical standpoint, emotion work is considered to be an important component of family labor (Coltrane, 200; Shleton & John, 1996; Erikson, 1993). However, it is reasonable to suspect that because it is less concrete than childcare or household work, it is simply not a construct that people consider before they have children. Thus, participants may have had difficulty accurately answering this question, an idea which was in fact expressed by a participant when the study measures were piloted.

To create the final scales, the percentages for Partner A's desired spousal contributions were averaged across the two items to create the family labor needs variable and across the three family labor items to create the paid labor needs variable for Partner A. These also served as measures of labor demands for Partner B.

Post-child actual division of labor. Two three-item scales were created to assess the current division of labor in the paid and family domains. These measures paralleled those used for pre-child for division of labor desires, assessing three components in the paid labor domain (work hours, income, and career prioritization decisions) and three components in the family labor domain (childcare, household work, and emotion work). These items differed in that they asked about the current division of labor rather than asking participants to recall desires for the division of labor before children were born. The following instructions were given before the set of items in order to make the timeframe clear: "For the next set of questions, please think about the present time." An example item for paid labor is "Again, picture the total income you and your spouse earn from paid labor as a pie chart. Currently, what proportion of this pie is made up of your income, and what proportion is made of your spouse's income? (These numbers should add up to 100%)." An example item from family labor is "Currently, what percentage of childcare tasks do you and your spouse perform? (These numbers should add up to 100%)." The definitions of each form of family labor were reported earlier in the survey when assessing pre-child desires for division of labor, and thus were not repeated. For both measures, the response scale was in the format of percentages, and choices were listed in increments of 5% from 0% to 100%. There were two responses

for each item, one for self and one for spouse. The complete scales are listed in Appendix B.

Identical procedures as listed above for pre-child desires for division of labor were used to examine the items within the newly created scales. For Partner A, the CFA suggested that the two factor model fit the data significantly better than the one factor model. The reliability analyses suggested that the items in paid labor were highly correlated with each other and that the items for family labor were fairly highly correlated with each other (lower correlations were observed for the emotion work item). The coefficient alphas were also acceptable for paid labor ($\alpha = .79$) for and family labor ($\alpha = .74$). For Partner B, the two factor model also fit the data significantly better than the one factor model. Internal consistency results suggested that items were highly correlated with each other in their respective domains and that internal consistency reliability was acceptable for paid and family labor ($\alpha = .84$ and .80, respectively).

An important condition of P-E fit analyses is that the person and environment variables are commensurate, containing the same content measured on the same metric (Edwards et al., 1998). Based on this notion, despite the CFA and reliability analyses suggesting that the three item scale was acceptable for post-child actual division of family labor, it was modified to match the pre-child desires for division of labor measure. When the emotion work item was removed, the two factor model for Partner A and Partner B fit the data better than the original two factor model, although these differences were not significant according to the χ^2 difference test. The internal consistency reliability improved with the shortened measure for Partner A ($\alpha = .84$) and

Partner B (α = .82). All three items were retained for paid labor. The CFA fit statistics are listed in Table 8.

To create the paid labor supplies variable for Partner A, the three percentages of Partner A's spouse's contributions to paid labor were averaged to create a scale. Similarly, for the family labor supplies variable for Partner A, the two percentages of Partner A's spouse's contributions to family labor were averaged to create the measure. The paid (family) labor abilities variable for Partner B was created by averaging the three (two) percentages of Partner B's self contributions to paid (family) labor.

Career satisfaction. Career satisfaction was measured using Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley's (1990) five item career satisfaction scale. An example item is "I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career." Response options were set on a five point Likert scale that ranges from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The internal consistency reliability was high for Partner A (.89). All items are listed in Appendix C.

Family satisfaction. Family satisfaction was measured with a four item scale adapted from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979). The scale was created to measure work satisfaction, but the items were adapted to reflect the family context. An example item is "I am satisfied with my present family situation." Response options were set on a five point Likert scale that ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Coefficient alpha was .87 for Partner A. Items are listed in Appendix D.

Marital satisfaction. Marital satisfaction was assessed using Norton's (1983) five item Quality of Marriage Index. An example item is "We have a good marriage." Response options were set on a on five point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree

to strongly agree. The scale demonstrated high reliability, as α was .97 for Partner A and.96 for Partner B. The full measure is listed in Appendix E.

Depression. Depression was measured using Quinn and Shepard's (1974) 10 item scale. The original scale was set in a work context, but it was modified to refer to life in general over the past 3 months. The scale includes a mixture of positively and negatively valenced items, such as "I feel downhearted and blue" and "I still enjoy the things I used to do." The positively valenced items were reverse coded so that higher scores indicated more depression. A five point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree was used as the response scale. The internal consistency reliability was acceptable (α = .82 for Partner A and .80 for Partner B). The full measure is listed in Appendix F.

Physical health symptoms. A checklist including physical symptoms from the National Study of Daily Experiences (Ryff, 2005) was used to assess this construct. Example symptoms include upset stomach or nausea, headache, and backache. For the current context, the stem of the question was altered to ask about general frequencies rather than daily experiences: "Over the past 3 months, how often have you experienced the following symptoms?" Responses were set on a six point scale ranging from never to 5 or more times a week. Rather than averaging, responses to each item were summed to calculate a final score. In order to reduce missing data, in cases where participants answered the majority of items but left a few unanswered (three or fewer), the mean of the remaining items was imputed for that item's value. Because this is a causal indicator scale, coefficient alpha is not meaningful. Items are listed in Appendix G.

Domain centrality. Career centrality was measured using Lobel and St Clair's (1992) four item adaptation of Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) job involvement scale. As has been done in previous research (e.g., Eddleston, Veiga, & Powell, 2006), family centrality was also assessed with the same items, but the word "career" was replaced with "family." Example items are "A major source of satisfaction in my life is my career" and "Most of the important things that happen to me involve my career." Response options were set on a five point Likert scale that ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Both scales demonstrated acceptable internal consistency reliabilities (career centrality: $\alpha = .82$, family centrality: $\alpha = .79$for Partner A). Items are listed in Appendix H.

Gender. Gender was assessed using a one item question asking participants to indicate their gender. It was dummy coded for analyses (male = 0, female = 1).

Voice in division of labor decision making. As there were no known existing measures of this construct, a new measure was created based on a review of previous research on general voice in decision making. Four studies were found that included unique measures of the construct (Brockner, Ackerman, Greenberg, Gelfand, Francesco Chen, et al., 2001; Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993; Denton & Zeytinoglu, 1993; Steel & Mento, 1987). Many of these items were specific to decision making in a particular area, thus the items had to be adapted to address division of labor decisions. Three items were adapted from Brockner et al. (2001), two items were adapted from Steel and Mento (1987), and one item was adapted from Denton and Zeytinoglu (1993) and Campion et al. (1993), resulting in a total of seven items in the new scale. Two separate scales were created for family and paid labor. Items were identical except the

labels "family" and "paid" labor were interchanged (e.g., "In general, I have a lot of opportunity to present my views about decisions that affect the division of family labor.") The response scale was a five point Likert scale, with response options ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Items are listed in Appendix I.

One and two factor CFAs were conducted with the 14 items. The two factor model with the family items loading on one factor and the paid labor items loading on another fit the data significantly better than the one factor model (see Table 8), but the fit statistics, particularly the RMSEA, were lower than desirable. Thus, further analysis of the items was conducted via exploratory factor analysis and examination of inter-item correlations. As illustrated in Table 9, the EFA suggested the presence of two factors based on Kaiser's (1960) rule of eigenvalues over 1.0 and examination of the elbow in the scree plot (Cattell, 1966). The item loadings on the rotated factor matrix were consistent with expectations with the family and paid items clearly loading onto independent factors. Additionally, all items were highly correlated with other items within the respective paid or family labor domain. Based on these results and the high internal consistency reliabilities (.95 for family labor and .95 for paid labor), all seven items were retained for each scale.

Satisfaction with current division of labor. A few studies have previously assessed satisfaction with current family labor divisions (e.g., Rhoades, Petrella, Stanley, & Markman, 2006; Wicki, 1999) with one item measures. In order to avoid problems associated with single item measures (Bergkvist & Rossiter, 2007; McIver & Carmines, 1981; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Spector, 1992), a three-item scale was created using one item adapted from Rhoades et al. (2006) ("In general, how satisfied

are you with the way you and your partner divide the family tasks?"). An example of a new item is "I am pleased with the amount of family labor that I perform relative to my spouse." No known studies have previously assessed satisfaction with current division of paid labor. Thus, the newly created satisfaction with current family labor division scale was adapted for paid labor, substituting the work "family" for "paid." Response options were set on a five point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The full measures are listed in Appendix J.

The results of the CFA suggested that the two factor model fit the data significantly better than the one factor model. The CFI and TLI fit statistics were acceptable for the two factor model, but the RMSEA was above the conventional .10 cutoff. Thus, a similar procedure as described with voice in division of labor decision making was conducted using EFA and inter-item correlations. The EFA suggested a two factor solution and all items loaded highly on the pre-specified paid and family labor factors. Additionally, the inter-item correlations and internal consistency reliability estimates were good for paid labor ($\alpha = .86$) and for family labor ($\alpha = .88$). Based on these findings, all three items were retained for each scale. The CFA results are listed in Table 8 and the EFA results and inter-item correlations are listed in Table 10.

Control Variables. Due to their associations with the dependent variables, length of marriage, total family income, and family responsibility were included as control variables. *Length of marriage* was assessed by asking participants the month and year of their current marriage as well as the month and year of any previous marriages. *Total family income* was measured through one item: "Please indicate your total family

income (i.e., the combined salaries of yourself and your spouse)." *Family responsibility* was measured by asking participants to list the month and year of each of their children's births and each child's living arrangements. These values were then converted to ages and weighted differentially according to Rothausen's (1999) responsibility for dependents scale (see Appendix K).

Demographic information. Demographic information was collected from participants, including age, race/ethnicity, job title, education level, and career stage. These measures are listed in Appendix L.

Inclusion criteria. As previously mentioned, some of the inclusion criteria were listed at the start of the survey whereas more specific information was included only as a question. In order to determine whether participants had a child under age 6, the survey asked them to list the month and year of each child's birth. This information was used to determine child age (42 couples were eliminated because of this criterion). Participants were also asked to indicate the month and year of all marriages. This information was then compared to the child's birthday and any participant who listed a child being born before the date of their current marriage was excluded from analyses (N = 12). Parental leave was examined by asking participants whether they were currently on parental leave from paid employment. Those selecting yes were excluded. (N = 7). These exclusions led to the final sample of 126 dyads.

Chapter Three

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Data screening. Before conducting analyses, the data were screened for outliers using boxplots and frequency tables. In all cases where outliers were identified, it was determined to be a case of data entry error rather than a valid outlier. These data entry errors were corrected by examining the original data file from the online server. Furthermore, several of the items required participants to manually add percentages up to 100% (self and spouse breakdowns for pre-child desires for paid and family labor and post-child actual divisions for paid and family labor). In approximately 5% of cases for each variable, the total values for self and spouse did not add up to 100%. Every instance where the sum for a variable was not 100% was independently examined. In the majority of cases, the error seemed to be a mathematical one, as the sum was 90% or 110%. In these situations, a proportional scale was used to convert the 90% or 110% to 100%. For example, if a participant indicated that (s)he contributed 60% to paid labor and his/her spouse contributed 30%, these numbers were converted to 60/90 = 67% and 30/90 = 33%. When the sum was less than 90% or greater that 110%, the responses were deleted and were deemed missing for analyses (N = 3).

Assumption testing. Data were inspected for assumptions of regression, including independence, normality of dependent variables, normality of residuals, and homoscedascticy of residuals (Hays, 1994). The assumption of independence is largely

a design question, and there is no reason to suspect that couples' responses are dependent upon other couples' responses. This notion was further corroborated by inspecting the Durbin-Watson autocorrelation coefficient for each regression equation. In all cases, the values fell within the 1.5 to 2.5 range, which indicate independence of data. Normality of dependent variables was assessed via histograms, boxplots, and calculating skewness and kurtosis values. Career satisfaction and depression appeared to be normally distributed, marital and family satisfaction were negatively skewed, and physical health symptoms was positively skewed. The negative skew in marital and family satisfaction is not surprising, given the social desirability of these variables as well as the potential for range restriction, as those who are very unsatisfied with their marriages tend to divorce. Similarly, the positive skew of physical health symptoms is theoretically meaningful, as being sick is a deviation from the healthy norm and many who are experiencing health problems obtain medical help to correct these issues.

Normality of residuals was assessed through histograms and quartile-by-quartile (q-q) plots for each equation. The residuals from equations predicting career satisfaction, depression, and health appeared to be relatively normally distributed; however, the equations predicting marital satisfaction and family satisfaction did not produce a normal distribution. In both cases, kurtosis was evidence such that the data peaked around the mean and the there were less values at the tails of the distribution than expected. This lack of normality in the residuals is likely a byproduct of the lack of normality in the distribution of the variables themselves. Lastly, plots of the actual values versus the predicted regression line were used to examine homoscedasticity of error variance. All errors appeared to be randomly distribution.

Given that simulation studies suggest that regression procedures are fairly robust to normality violations and that transforming data can create interpretation problems (Norman & Streiner, 2008), the analyses were conducted using the original data.

Analysis of Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1 through 8 and 15 through 20 were tested using polynomial regression analysis. For each hypothesis, a quadratic equation was estimated with the well-being variable of interest as the dependent variable, and the person and environment variables as the independent variables. Based on these values, three additional terms were computed (i.e., supplies (abilities) squared, the product of supplies (abilities) and needs (demands), and needs (demands) squared). The general form of the equation is $Z = b_0 + b_{c1}C1 + b_{c2}C2 + b_{c2}C3 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2 + e$, where Z is the dependent variable, C1, C2, and C3 are the control variables, X and Y are the two fit components, b_0 is the y-intercept, and e is the error term. All independent variables (with the exception of control variables) were scale centered to aid in interpretation.

In cases where the initial polynomial regression equation was significant, the slope and curve along the misfit line was tested by setting the Y = -X in the previous equation, so that $Z = b_0 + b_{c1}C1 + b_{c2}C2 + b_{c2}C3 + (b_1 - b_2)X + (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)X^2 + e$. This equation indicates that along the misfit line, the curvature of the surface is represented by the quantity $(b_3 - b_4 + b_5)$ and the slope of the surface at the point where X (supplies) = 0 is represented by $(b_1 - b_2)$. When curves or slopes were significant, the data were further examined to determine whether the nature of the significant slopes and curves were consistent with the predicted shape. This was done via response surface methodology (Edwards & Parry, 1993), where supplies (abilities) were plotted on the X

axis, needs (demands) on the Y axis, and the dependent variable on the Z axis. As illustrated in Figure 3, the bold line across the diagonal, the misfit line, is the curve that is interpreted for the hypotheses. As the misfit line moves from the left corner to the right corner, supplies increase toward needs and when the dotted line (the fit line) is crossed, supplies (abilities) exceed needs (demands).

Moderator hypotheses (Hypotheses 9-14 and 21-24) were tested using hierarchical regression analysis (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). For each quadratic equation, the five aforementioned person and environment terms were multiplied by the relevant moderator variable, resulting in the equation: $Z = b_0 + b_{c1}C1 + b_{c2}C2 + b_{c2}C3 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2 + b_6M + {}_{b7}XM + b_8YM + {}_{b9}MX^2 + b_{10}MXY + b5MY^2 + e$, where M is the moderator variable. To test for significant moderator effects, the significance of the change in R^2 from the original equation without the moderator terms to the one with the moderator terms was assessed. Coefficients from the regression equations for low, medium, and high levels of the moderating variables were plotting using response surface methodology to determine the nature of the moderating effect (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999).

A power analysis was conducted and revealed that the power was rather low with the alpha level set at .05 (power was .53 for a medium effect size). One way to help reduce Type II error when power is low is to increase the alpha to .10 (Aguinis, 1995). Thus, the decision was made to interpret results as significant if $p < .10$. This resulted in greater power (.66) to detect a medium effect size.

Before running analysis, the variability of the fit variables was examine via two dimensional scatter plots, where the supplies (abilities) variable on the X axis and the

needs (demands) variable on the Y axis for both family and paid labor. All four scatter plots exhibited a similar pattern: the majority of the data fell within the upper left, lower left, and upper right quadrants, representing situations where supplies (abilities) fell short of needs (demands), supplies (abilities) and needs (demands) were congruent at low levels, and supplies (abilities) and needs (demands) were congruent at high levels, respectively. Less data appeared in the lower right quadrant, where supplies (abilities) exceeded needs (demands). These patterns suggest that greater estimation must occur in the needs = - supplies (demands = - abilities) curve when supplies exceed needs, as the estimated regression line is based off fewer actual data points. The response surfaces should thus be interpreted with this in mind.

Hypothesis Testing

The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of all study variables were calculated and are presented in Tables 4, 5, 11. Although all variables are presented for both Partner A and B, the shaded variables in these tables represent the variables that were used in hypothesis testing. For ease of interpretation, an abbreviated correlation matrix with the fit variables and moderators on the vertical axis and well-being variables on the horizontal axis is also presented (Table 12).

The results for Hypotheses 1, 3, 5, and 7 are presented in Table 13, and results for Hypothesis 2, 4, 6, and 8 are presented in Table 14. Hypothesis 1 predicted that Partner A's career satisfaction would increase as paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increased toward paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions), and would decrease as supplies exceeded needs. The overall regression equation was significant ($F(8, 114) = 2.50$, $p < .05$), but the curve of

the misfit line was not significant ($b_3 - b_4 + b_5 = -.003$, *ns*). The slope of the misfit line was significant ($b_1 - b_2 = .0297$, $p < .01$). The response surface (see Figure 11) revealed that, consistent with prediction, career satisfaction increased as supplies increased toward needs. However, contrary to prediction, as supplies exceeded needs, the curve remained relatively flat. Therefore, although part of the response surface followed a trend similar to prediction, the full hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 2, that Partner A's family satisfaction would increase as family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) increase toward family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions), and would decrease as supplies exceed needs was supported. The overall equation was significant ($F(8, 114) = 1.81$, $p < .09$), as was the curve of the needs = - supplies line ($b_3 - b_4 + b_5 = -.0013$, $p < .05$). As illustrated in Figure 12, the curve closely resembled that of the predicted curve.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that Partner A's marital satisfaction would increase as paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increased toward paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions), and would decrease as supplies exceeded needs. The hypothesis was supported ($F(8, 114) = 2.49$, $p < .05$, $b_3 - b_4 + b_5 = -.0011$, $p < .01$). The shape of the needs = - supplies line was consistent with prediction (see Figure 13). Hypothesis 4 was identical to Hypothesis 3 but focused on family labor. The hypothesis was supported, as the regression equation was significant ($F(8, 114) = 2.50$, $p < .05$), as was the curve of the needs = - supplies line ($b_3 - b_4 + b_5 = -.0011$, $p < .08$) .The response surface is illustrated in Figure 14 and is consistent with prediction (marital satisfaction increased as family labor supplies increased toward needs and decreased as supplies exceeded needs).

Hypothesis 5, that Partner A's depression would decrease as paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increase toward paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions), and would increase as supplies exceeded needs was supported. Both the overall equation ($F(8, 114) = 1.95$, $p < .06$), and the curve of the misfit line were significant ($b_3 - b_4 + b_5 = -.0009$, $p < .05$). As illustrated in Figure 15, the pattern of the relationship is consistent with prediction. Hypothesis 6 focused on depression and family labor needs-supplies fit, predicting a curvilinear relationship. The hypothesis was not supported ($F(8, 111) = 1.46$, *ns)*.

Hypothesis 7 focused on the relationship between Partner A's paid labor needs and supplies and physical health symptoms, predicting that Partner A's physical health symptoms would decrease as paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) increased toward paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions), and would increase as supplies exceeded needs. The hypothesis was supported, as the polynomial regression equation ($F(8, 111) = 2.71$, $p < .05$), and curve were significant ($b_3 - b_4 + b_5 = .0053$, $p < .09$). The graph of the response surface (Figure 16) was similar to that of the predicted surface, although the effect was not symmetrical, as the slope of the curve as supplies increased toward needs appeared steeper than the slope as supplies exceeded needs. No support was found for Hypothesis 8, which was identical to Hypothesis 7 but focused on family labor needs and supplies. Although the overall regression equation was significant ($F(8, 111) = 32.17$, $p < .01$), the curve of the misfit line was not significant ($b_3 - b_4 + b_5 = -.0001$, *ns*).

Hypothesis 9 involved the moderating effect of Partner A's career centrality on the relationship between paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) and

paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) fit and Partner A's well-being ((a) career satisfaction,(b) marital satisfaction, (c) depression, and (d) physical health symptoms). Specifically, the relationships between shortage of supplies and well-being were hypothesized to be weaker when career centrality was higher rather than lower and that the relationships between excess supplies and well-being were hypothesized to be stronger when career centrality was higher rather than lower. As displayed in Table 15, there was no evidence of a significant moderating effect for career satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .038$, *ns*), depression ($\Delta R^2 = .013$, *ns*), or physical health symptoms ($\Delta R^2 = .018$, *ns).* There was evidence for a moderating effect on marital satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .067$, $p < .07$). As illustrated in Figure 17, the nature of the moderation of career centrality was consistent with prediction for excess supplies, as the slope of the curve as supplies exceeded needs was steeper when career centrality was higher than when it was lower. It was not consistent for shortage of supplies, as the slope of the curve as supplies approached needs was steeper, indicating a stronger rather than weaker relationship to marital satisfaction, when career centrality was higher than when it was lower. Although the trend with excess supplies was consistent with prediction, Hypothesis 9b as a whole was not supported.

Hypothesis 10 stated that Partner A's family centrality moderates the relationship between family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) and family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) fit and Partner A's well-being ((a) family satisfaction, (b) marital satisfaction, (c) depression, and (d) physical health symptoms). The relationships between shortage of supplies and well-being were predicted to be weaker when family centrality was higher rather than lower,

and the relationships between excess supplies and well-being were predicted to be stronger when family centrality is higher rather than lower. This hypothesis was not supported for family satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .009$, *ns*), marital satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .029$, *ns*), depression ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, *ns*), or physical health ($\Delta R^2 = .032$, *ns*). The results are presented in Table 16.

Hypothesis 11 focused on the moderating role of gender. Specifically, it was predicted that Partner A's gender would moderate the relationship between paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) and paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) fit and Partner A's well-being ((a) career satisfaction, (b) marital satisfaction, (c) depression, and (d) physical health symptoms). Specifically, the relationships between shortage of supplies and well-being and excess supplies and well-being were expected to be weaker when Partner A was a female than when Partner A was a male. The results are presented in Table 17. The hypothesis was not supported for career satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .016$, *ns)*, marital satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .047$, *ns*), or depression ($\Delta R^2 = .069$, *ns*). Evidence of a significant moderator effect was found with physical health symptoms ($\Delta R^2 = .115$, $p < .05$). However, inspection of the response surfaces in Figure 18 suggests that the nature of this moderation was not consistent with expectations. That is, for males there was a slight increase in physical health symptoms as supplies approached needs and slightly past the point of perfect fit. After this point, physical health symptoms began to decrease. On the other hand, the response surface for females suggested that physical health symptoms decreased as supplies approached needs and increased as supplies exceeded needs. However, the

curve was not symmetrical, as the slope as supplies approached needs seemed to be greater than that of excess supplies.

Hypothesis 12, that partner A's gender would moderate the relationship between family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) and family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) fit and Partner A's (a) family satisfaction,(b) marital satisfaction, (c) depression, and (d) physical health symptoms) was not supported. There was not a significant change in R^2 in any of the dependent variables (family satisfaction: $\Delta R^2 = .05$, *ns;* marital satisfaction: $\Delta R^2 = .025$, *ns;* depression: $\Delta R^2 = .026$, *ns;* physical health symptoms: $\Delta R^2 = .048$, *ns*). See Table 18 for results.

Hypothesis 13 predicted that Partner A's voice in division of paid labor decisions would moderate the relationships between paid labor supplies (Partner B's paid labor contributions) and paid labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) fit and Partner A's well-being ((a) career satisfaction, (b) marital satisfaction, (c) depression, and (d) physical health symptoms), such that the relationships between shortage of supplies and well-being and between excess supplies and well-being would be weaker when voice in division of labor decisions was higher rather than lower. As displayed in Table 19, the hypothesis was not supported for career satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .035$, *ns),* depression ($\Delta R^2 = .052$, *ns*) or physical health symptoms ($\Delta R^2 = .024$). Evidence of a significant moderator effect was found for marital satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .097$, $p < .05$); however, the response surface (Figure 19) suggested that the nature of the moderation was opposite that of prediction. Specifically, the relationship between shortage of supplies and marital satisfaction and excess supplies

and marital satisfaction was stronger when voice in division of labor decision making was higher rather than lower.

Hypothesis 14 was not supported. Partner A's voice in division of family labor decisions did not significantly moderate the relationships between family labor supplies (Partner B's family labor contributions) and family labor needs (Partner A's desires for Partner B's family labor contributions) fit and Partner A's well-being (family satisfaction: $\Delta R^2 = .038$, *ns*; marital satisfaction: $\Delta R^2 = .047$, *ns*; depression: $\Delta R^2 = .019$, *ns*; physical health symptoms: $\Delta R^2 = .032$, *ns*). The results are displayed in Table 20.

The results for Hypotheses 15, 17, and 19 are presented in Table 21, and results for Hypotheses 16, 18, and 20 are presented in Table 22. Hypotheses 15, 17, and 19 focused on the relationship between Partner B's paid labor demands-abilities fit and marital satisfaction, depression, and physical health symptoms, respectively. None of these hypotheses were supported, as the regression equations were all non-significant (marital satisfaction: $F(8, 116) = 1.18$, *ns*; depression: $F(8, 116) = .55$, *ns*; physical health symptoms: $F(8, 111) = 1.15$, *ns*). Hypotheses 16, 18, and 20 focused on the relationship between Partner B's family labor demands-abilities fit and marital satisfaction, depression, and physical health symptoms, respectively. Hypotheses 16 and 18 were not supported; the regression equations for marital satisfaction and depression were non-significant ($F(8, 116) = 1.05$, *ns*, $F(8, 116) = 1.67$, *ns*, respectively). With regard to Hypothesis 20, the regression equation for physical health symptoms was significant ($F(8, 111) = 2.04$, $p < .05$). The slope of the demands = -abilities line was significant ($b_1 - b_2 = -.2233$, $p < .01$) but the curve was not significant ($b_3 - b_4 + b_5 = -.0021$, *ns*). The response surface (Figure 20) suggested that as predicted,

physical health symptoms decreased as abilities approached demands. Contrary to prediction, physical health symptoms continued to decrease as demands exceeded abilities. Thus, although the trend for shortage of abilities matched that of prediction, Hypothesis 20 as a whole as not supported.

The results for Hypothesis 21 are presented in Table 23. The hypothesis predicted that Partner B's gender would moderate the relationship between paid labor demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) and abilities (Partner B's paid labor contributions) fit and Partner B's well-being, such that the relationships between shortage of abilities and well-being and between excess abilities and well-being ((a) marital satisfaction, (b) depression, and (c) physical health symptoms) were stronger when Partner B was female rather than male. Hypothesis 21 was not supported. The ΔR^2 was significant for marital satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .094$, $p < .05$); however, the response surfaces illustrated in Figure 21 suggest that the nature of the moderation was not consistent with prediction. Specifically, the misfit curve was relatively flat for males and marital satisfaction generally increased for females for both shortage and excess of supplies. The ΔR^2 were not significant for depression ($\Delta R^2 = .037$, *ns*) or physical health symptoms ($\Delta R^2 = .034$, *ns*).

Hypothesis 22 was identical to Hypothesis 21 but focused on the interaction between gender and family labor demands-abilities fit rather than paid labor fit for partner B. The results are presented in Table 24. Although evidence for significant moderating effect of gender was found for depression ($\Delta R^2 = .079$, $p < .07$) and physical health symptoms ($\Delta R^2 = .073$, $p < .08$), the nature of the moderation was inconsistent with prediction (that the relationships between shortage of abilities and excess abilities

and well-being would be stronger for females than males). With regard to depression, the shape of the demands = -abilities curves were as expected but in the reverse manner (see Figure 22 for illustration). That is, the relationships between both excess supplies and shortage of supplies and depression were stronger for males than females. With regard to physical health symptoms, the response surfaces shown in Figure 23 suggest that demands-abilities fit exhibited a quite different pattern for males and females, with the curve being relatively flat for females and in curving in the opposite direction of males. There was no evidence of gender moderation for marital satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .028$, *ns*). Thus, Hypothesis 22 was not supported.

Hypothesis 23 stated that Partner B's satisfaction with current division of paid labor would moderates the relationships between demands (Partner A's desires for Partner B's paid labor contributions) and abilities (Partner B's paid labor contributions) fit and Partner B's well-being ((a) marital satisfaction, (b) depression, and (c) physical health symptoms). The nature of the moderation was expected to be such that the relationships between shortage of abilities and well-being and between excess abilities and well-being were weaker when satisfaction with current paid labor divisions was higher rather than lower. As shown in Table 25, the ΔR^2 was significant for marital satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .136$, $p < .01$), depression ($\Delta R^2 = .088$, $p < .05$), and physical health symptoms ($\Delta R^2 = .07$, $p < .09$), providing evidence for a moderator effect. The response surfaces revealing the nature of the moderations are presented in Figures 24 (marital satisfaction), 25 (depression), and 26 (physical health symptoms).

For marital satisfaction, the relationship between shortage of abilities and marital satisfaction and the relationship between excess abilities and marital satisfaction were

both weaker when satisfaction was higher rather than lower. However, the shape of the curve was opposite prediction, such that marital satisfaction was lowest at the point of fit. Thus, Hypothesis 23 was not supported for marital satisfaction. For depression, the shape of the curves for low and high satisfaction with current division of labor exhibited a pattern opposite of prediction. Specifically, the relationship between shortage of abilities and depression and excess abilities and depression were stronger when satisfaction was high rather than low, meaning Hypothesis 23 was not supported for depression. With regard to physical health symptoms, no support for the hypothesis was found, as the nature of the moderation was not consistent with prediction. The response surface graphs revealed that when satisfaction with current division of paid labor was low, physical health symptoms decreased as abilities approached demands and increased as abilities exceeded demands. At medium levels of satisfaction with current division of paid labor, the relationships were relatively flat; however, at high levels of satisfaction, physical health symptoms increased as abilities approached demands and decreased as demands exceeded abilities.

Hypothesis 24 was similar to Hypothesis 23 but focused on the satisfaction with current division of family labor and family demands-abilities fit. Results were non-significant for marital satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .061$, *ns*) and physical health symptoms ($\Delta R^2 = .027$, *ns*). Evidence of a significant moderating effect was found for depression ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, $p < .05$); however, the nature of this moderation was inconsistent with prediction (that the relationships between shortage of abilities and depression and between excess abilities and depression would be weaker when satisfaction with current family labor divisions was higher rather than lower). As illustrated in Figure 27, across all levels of

satisfaction with current division of paid labor, the relationship between shortage of abilities and depression was relatively constant. At low levels of satisfaction with current division of paid labor, the relationship between excess demands and depression continued to decrease, whereas it increased at medium and high levels of satisfaction. Therefore, Hypotheses 24 was not supported. The results are displayed in Table 26 and Figure 33. Table 27 summarizes the results of all the hypothesis testing.

Supplementary Analyses

In addition to testing the formally proposed hypotheses, a few subsequent analyses were conducted. First, hypotheses involving only Partner A (Hypotheses 1 – 14) were tested using responses from all initial respondents who completed the survey and met the inclusion criteria, regardless of whether their spouse also responded (N = 578, of whom 126 had spousal data and were used to test hypotheses in the previous section). Before conducting the polynomial regression analyses, independent t-tests were used to compare the non-matched portion of the full sample to the matched sample in order to determine if the groups differed on meaningful variables. The results are presented in Table 28 in the column labeled "F (1 vs. 3)." Likely a function of the breakdown of gender (87.3% female in full sample vs. 50% female in matched sample), the non-matched sample appeared less egalitarian in attitude and behavior than the matched sample. Specifically, they desired their spouse to contribute less to family labor and more to paid labor before children were born, they reported that their spouses actually contributed less to family labor and more to paid labor after children were born, their career centrality was lower, and their family centrality was higher. Thus, there are

some important characteristics that differ between the groups that should be kept in mind when interpreting the following results.

The results of the hypothesis testing with the full sample of 578 Partner As revealed few differences from the previous hypothesis testing with the smaller sample. There was only one case, Hypothesis 6 (concerning the relationship between paid labor needs-supplies fit and depression), where a hypothesis was supported with the full sample but not with the matched sample. The response surface suggested that the curve was consistent with the predicted shape, such that depression decreased as family labor supplies increased toward family labor needs and increased as supplies exceeded needs. Additionally, voice in division of paid labor decision making significantly moderated the relationship between needs-supplies fit and career satisfaction (Hypothesis 13a), but the shape of the response surface did not support the hypothesis. Contrary to the prediction that the relationship between shortage of supplies and career satisfaction and excess supplies and career satisfaction would be weaker when voice was higher, the response surface suggested the opposite pattern. That is, the relationship between shortage of supplies and career satisfaction was weaker when voice in division of labor decisions was lower versus medium or higher. The relationship between excess supplies and career satisfaction was relatively consistent across all levels of voice in paid labor decision making.

Moreover, although no formal hypotheses were proposed about the level of desire-division of labor fit (fit where mutual desires and actual contributions are lower versus higher), this issue was examined in an exploratory manner. The main effect analyses for Partner A's well-being are first discussed, followed by Partner B. When

the overall regression equation was significant for a given relationship, the significance of the slope and curve of the fit line (needs = supplies or demands = abilities) was tested. These results are presented in the last rows of Tables 13, 14, and 22, where $b_1 + b_2$ represents the slope and $b_3 + b_4 + b_5$ represents the curve of the fit line. The response surfaces that were plotted for the hypotheses are rotated to give a better view of the fit line and are presented again in Figures 28 – 32. Because different rotations were used with different graphs in order to maximize viewing, a line is drawn in the appropriate diagonal for each graph to represent the part of the curve that should be interpreted as the fit line.

For paid labor needs-supplies fit and Partner A's well-being, there was either a significant slope or curve of the fit line for each form of well-being. For career satisfaction, the slope of the fit line was significant ($b_1 + b_2 = -.0097$, $p < .05$). As shown in Figure 28, the slope is negative, such that as fit increases from fit at mutual low values to mutual higher values, career satisfaction decreases. With regard to marital satisfaction, the curve of the fit line was significant ($b3 + b4 + b5 = .0004$, $p < .05$). As displayed in Figure 29, the curve generally increases, such that marital satisfaction increases as the level at which fit occurs increases. The results for depression and physical health symptoms were similar to each other in pattern. In both cases the slope of the fit line was positive and significant ($b3 + b4 + b5 = .0097$, $p < .05$ for depression; $b3 + b4 + b5 = .0688$, $p < .05$ for physical health symptoms), and the response surfaces (Figures 30 and 31), show that depression and physical health symptoms increase as the level at which fit occurs increases.

For family labor needs-supplies fit, the overall polynomial regression equations were significant for family satisfaction, marital satisfaction, and physical health symptoms; thus, the significance of the slope and curve were only tested for those three dependent variables. With regard to family satisfaction, neither the slope nor the curve of the fit line was significant. With regard to marital satisfaction, both the slope and the curve of the fit line were significant ($b_1 + b_2 = -.0117$, $p < .05$; b3 + b4 + b5 = .0006, $p < .01$). The rotated response surface (Figure 32) shows a U- shaped curve, such that marital satisfaction decreases as the level at which fit occurs increases until it reaches medium levels of fit, at which marital satisfaction begins to increase as the level at which fit occurs increases. The depression results suggested that the slope of the fit line was significant ($b_1 + b_2 = .0060$, $p < .10$), and the curve of the fit line was as well (b3 + b4 + b5 =- .0048, $p < .01$). Because neither the slope nor curve of the misfit line was significant, the response surface was not previously graphed but is provided in Figure 33. The response surface suggests an inverted U-shaped curve, such that physical health symptoms increase as the level at which fit occurs increases until it reaches medium levels of fit, at which marital satisfaction begins to decrease as the level at which fit occurs increases.

Only one regression equation was significant for relationships involving Partner B's well-being (family labor needs-supplies fit and physical health symptoms). Neither the slope nor the curve of the fit line was significant.

In order to examine the shape of the fit line in all of the moderator hypotheses, the response surfaces of relationships where evidence of significant moderation was found were rotated. The rotated curves are not presented; instead, Table 29 summarizes

the shape of the fit line for each level of the moderator variables. In general, the shapes of the misfit curves did differ across the different levels of the moderators; however, there was no consistent discernable pattern.

Chapter Four

Discussion

The aim of this study was to examine how misfit between dual-earner couples' pre-child division of labor preferences and post-child actual divisions of labor in the paid and family labor domains related to well-being. Using P-E fit as the theoretical framework, this question was addressed within the context of needs-supplies and demands-abilities fit, with a focus on well-being for both members of the marital dyad. Although some previous research exists on the topic, this study made several unique contributions to the literature by examining both the work and family domains, assessing fit in an all-encompassing manner, testing for moderator effects, and using more appropriate statistical analyses (i.e., polynomial regression) to examine the research questions.

In the subsequent sections, these findings and further summarized and interpreted, followed by a discussion of theoretical and practical implications, study limitations, and future directions.

Summary and Interpretation of Results

Needs-supplies fit and satisfaction. Based on P-E Fit theory (French et al., 1982) and self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987, 1989), I predicted that the extent of congruence between Partner B's post-child labor contributions (supplies) and Partner A's pre-child desires for Partner B's labor contributions (needs), would relate to domain-specific and marital satisfaction. In all cases the relationships were expected to take the

form of an inverted U-shaped curve, such that satisfaction would be maximized at the point of fit and lowest at the points of extreme misfit in either direction.

Beginning with paid labor, the results for desire-division of paid labor fit and career satisfaction only supported part of the hypothesis. That is, in situations where supplies fell short of needs (where Partner B contributed less post-child than Partner A desired pre-child), career satisfaction increased, consistent with expectations. On the other hand, past the point of fit when supplies exceed needs (Partner B was contributing more to paid labor than Partner A desired), career satisfaction remained constant, rather than decreasing as predicted. This asymptotic relationship is somewhat puzzling, as research suggests that career compromise may relate to less career satisfaction (Tsaousides & Jome, 2005), and it may be difficult to be successful at work, which is often a component of satisfaction (Heslin, 2005), when scaling back (Becker & Moen, 1999). One potential explanation for the observed pattern of results lies in the burden that financially providing for one's family can carry. Research suggests that there are some notable emotional downsides to greater participation than desired in paid labor, including feelings of worry, pressure, and resentment, as the family's financial livelihood is more dependent upon the individual's paid labor contributions (Gerson, 1993; Gilbert, 1985; Meisenbach, 2010). In turn, these negative sentiments may have an effect on attitudes at work, fostering resentment toward the job. In situations where supplies exceed needs, and Partner A is contributing less than (s)he initially desired, the burden of the paid labor role is lifted, as are its negative effects on career satisfaction. This study represents the first known direct inquiry about dual-earner couples' division

of paid labor and career satisfaction. Clearly, more research is needed to truly understand the observed pattern of effects.

With regard to paid labor and marital satisfaction, findings were in line with expectations. Marital satisfaction was maximized at the point of fit and suffered as supplies deviated from needs in either direction. Said otherwise, spouses tend to be dissatisfied in their marriages when they feel that their partner is contributing too much or too little to the paid work domain, as it may impact their own need fulfillment or threaten their identity. The finding that the division of paid labor impacts a family construct, marital satisfaction, further reinforces the notion that work and family are highly intertwined (Kanter, 1977). For optimal functioning within a marriage, dual-earners should be aware of their spouse's career desires and carefully consider how their own career choices affect their spouses' work situation (Haddock & Rattenborg, 2003).

Moving to the division of family labor and satisfaction, results were consistent with the hypothesized relationships for both family and marital satisfaction. These findings highlight the delicate nature of dividing family labor between spouses. Despite the fact that family labor is often viewed as undesirable (Coltrane, 2000), having a spouse who does too much of this disagreeable work is associated with negative sentiments toward the spouse and family in general. According to self-discrepancy theory, this may be a function of identity. When one's spouse does more than the ideal share of family labor, one's own family identity is challenged and negative emotions in that domain may ensue. Furthermore, lending greater credence to the marital satisfaction results, they are consistent with a previous longitudinal study on the childcare labor (Khazan et al., 2008), where women's marital satisfaction was found to

decrease three months post-partum when their husbands contributed less to childcare than the wives desired before child birth.

Needs-supplies fit and mental and physical health. Depression and physical health symptoms were also examined as correlates of needs-supplies fit. A shortage of needs relative to supplies is considered a stressor, which may trigger a wide variety of psychological and physiological strain reactions in the body (e.g., Beehr & Newman, 1978; Kahn & Byosiere, 1992; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) with potential chronic effects (Frankenhaeuser, 1986; Johnson et al., 1990). Based on this notion, it was predicted that as Partner B's labor contributions increased toward Partner A's desires for Partner B's labor contributions, depression/physical health symptoms would decrease to the point of fit. Building on the ideas that excess supplies create self-discrepancies which are linked to health through negative emotions (Higgins et al., 1986; Kiecolt-Glaser, McGuire, Robles, & Glaser, 2002) , it was predicted that as Partner B's labor contributions surpassed Partner A's desires for Partner B's labor contributions, depression/physical health symptoms would increase. In sum, a U-shaped relationship was hypothesized.

The results for desire-division of paid labor fit were consistent with the hypotheses for depression and physical health symptoms. These results are significant, implying that the consequences of desire-division of labor fit extend beyond attitudes in the work and family domains to health, an area that permeates all functioning. Previous P-E fit research has found that needs-supplies fit at work relates to physical and mental health (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison & Pinneau, 1980; Edwards, 1996; Edwards & Harrison, 1993; Edwards & Rothbard, 1999). Based on the present results, it seems that

fit extends to a more macro level, and well-being is maximized when the work situation fits within the context of employee's broader family life.

Contrary to the paid labor results, the hypotheses concerning division of family labor and depression and physical health symptoms were not supported. However, when the relationship between paid labor needs-supplies fit and depression was examined in the supplementary analysis with the larger pool of Partner As (N = 578), the equation and curve were significant and the response surface revealed a U-shaped curve consistent with prediction. In order to determine if the smaller sample showed a similar, albeit non-significant trend, the b weights from the initial regression equation were plotted. The trend was consistent with prediction. Based on these results, it seems likely that there is a relationship between desire-division of paid labor fit and depression, but the effect size is small (and therefore was not detected in the initial analyses with lower power).

The non-significant results for physical health symptoms do not appear to be a function of power. Although the overall polynomial regression equation was significant for physical health symptoms, further analysis revealed that this was a function of curve in the fit line, rather than misfit line. In fact, the response surface shows that the misfit line is very flat, suggesting that there is not even a small association between paid labor fit and physical health. One potential explanation for the null results is that the stressor-strain relationship within the desire-division of family labor misfit context is not potent enough to have chronic effects on health-related outcomes, particularly those that are physical in nature. Previous research corroborates this to some extent, as Milkie et al.

(2002) found that the relationship between perceiving that husbands contribute less than the ideal amount to parenting and wives' stress reactions (i.e., strain) was small.

As a whole, the health results beg the question of why the stress-strain relationship is apparently weaker with desire-division of family labor than with paid labor. When considering shortage of supplies, the differences may be a function of the more controllable nature of the family domain compared to work. The division of paid labor tends to be less amenable to change and more dependent upon external factors, whereas family members have greater control over their actions at home (e.g., it is more feasible for a spouse to do more housework than to find a higher paying job). In turn, control plays an important role in reducing the impact of stress on strains (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). With regard to excess supplies, the differences revolve around identity permanency. Family identity is one that is somewhat persistent no matter the amount of labor contributed (e.g., being a parent is always to some extent part of a parent's identity no matter how much he or she is contributing to childcare). The work role identity is arguably more highly tied to actual current behavior at work (e.g., identity as upper level manager). In this sense, excess supplies may have some effect on family identity but not a large enough effect to produce severe self-discrepancy and mental and physiological health reactions. The aforementioned explanations are tentative, and their merit can only be determined through further research on the mediating mechanisms between desire-division of family labor fit and health.

Supplementary analysis of fit line in needs-supplies and well-being relationships. In an exploratory manner, the slope and curve of the fit line was examined for each significant regression equation from the hypothesis testing. The fit line provides

information about variation in well-being that is associated with the absolute levels of needs and supplies when fit is held constant (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999).

For desire-division of paid labor fit, there was a significant slope or curve of the fit line for all four well-being variables. For career satisfaction, depression, and physical health symptoms, the general trend was that as the absolute level of fit increased, well-being decreased. In other words, individuals who both wanted their partners to contribute a large amount to paid labor before children were born and whose partners did contribute a large amount to paid labor after children were born were least satisfied with their careers, more depressed, and reported experiencing more physical health symptoms. It is not surprising that career satisfaction is lowest at highest absolute levels of fit, given that career satisfaction is driven by factors such as hours spent at work, training and development opportunities, and career sponsorship (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). Those who contribute a small amount to paid labor, as is likely the case when fit occurs at high absolute high levels of the components, are apt to have fewer opportunities to foster career satisfaction.

Moreover, the depression and physical health results support Barnett and Hyde's (2001) expansionist theory, which emphasizes the mental and physical health benefits of multiple role occupation (Simons, 1992;Thoits, 1989), particularly when these roles are of high quality. Although the amount that one contributes to paid labor relative to his/her spouse is not a direct indication of poorer paid labor role quality, there is arguably an association. Those who work fewer hours or are in lower paying jobs are less likely to reap the same benefits from the worker role than their more involved counterparts.

The results for division of paid labor fit and marital satisfaction are the opposite of those for the three other forms of well-being. Marital satisfaction tends to increase as the absolute value of fit increases, meaning that those who had high paid labor needs (desired their spouse to contribute a great deal) and high labor supplies (the spouse does contribute a large amount) were most satisfied in their marriages. Also, this relationship is not strictly linear, as the rate at which marital satisfaction increases is less at low levels of fit than high levels of fit. Because these individuals have higher paid labor needs, they necessarily are placing greater demands on their spouses than those with lower labor needs. When the spouse in turn meets these high demands, it may generate even more positive affect toward the marital partner, given the extremity of the needs. Alternatively, there may be fundamental differences in the types of people who have their high paid labor needs met versus those with lower needs. These differences could represent a third variable that also relates to marital satisfaction.

Finally, the supplementary analyses with desire-division of family labor fit showed a significant curve of the fit line for marital satisfaction and physical health symptoms. In both cases, well-being was lowest at medium levels of fit and highest at the extremes. This is surprising, given that previous research suggests that a more equitable division of family labor relates to better marital satisfaction (Cooke, 2006; Stevens, Kiger, & Mannon, 2005) and health (Booth & Johnson, 1994). However, other research suggests that a major disadvantage of such equity is the negative impact it can have on marital relations due to the stressful daily negotiations and compromises (Rosenbluth, Steil, & Whitcomb, 1998). Hence, it is possible that the constant striving for equity that those couples at medium levels of fit face has some negative

repercussions. Furthermore, the expression of gratitude for a spouse's labor contributions is related to marital satisfaction (Hochshild, 1989). When both spouses are contributing a medium amount to labor, the other's spouse's contributions may not be readily apparent and both may be less obliged to express gratitude, resulting in poorer well-being. In summary, although the absolute level of fit was not the focus of the present study, the findings suggest that it is a ripe area for future research.

Moderators of needs-supplies fit and well-being. With the exception of gender, previous research has not considered boundary conditions that temper the strength of the relationships between desire-division of labor fit and well-being. In an effort to fill this gap, three potential moderators were examined in the present study – domain centrality, gender, and voice in division of labor decision making. Overall, there was little evidence for moderators. Evidence of a moderator effect was found with three of the paid labor – well-being relationships; however, none were fully consistent with the proposed pattern of moderation. No significant interactions were found with desire-division of family labor fit and well-being.

The theoretical rationale behind the first moderator, domain centrality, stemmed from French et al.'s (1974) original theory of P-E fit, where the individual importance of the needs and supplies were proposed to have a meaningful impact on the effect of needs-supplies misfit. Greater importance of needs should relate to more grave consequences of misfit. In the desire-division of labor context, those who find paid labor central to their identity should be more affected by excess paid labor supplies (as it translates into less contribution to paid labor for them) and less affected by shortage of paid labor supplies (as it translates into more contribution to paid labor form them)

compared to those with less career centrality. The same pattern as predicted for family centrality and division of family labor.

Evidence of significant moderation of career centrality was found only with marital satisfaction. As predicted, excess supplies (having a partner that contributed more than desired) related more strongly to marital satisfaction. Contrary to prediction, shortage of supplies also related more strongly to marital satisfaction. In summary, those with lower career centrality appear less sensitive to any type of needs-supplies misfit than those with higher career centrality. From a theoretical standpoint, it is difficult to determine why the results were contrary to expectation for shortage of supplies. From a statistical standpoint, there is reason to suspect that the negative correlation between the moderator and dependent variable (career centrality and marital satisfaction correlation is -.24) could create issues with interpretation of the moderator effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Given that there was no evidence that career centrality moderated the relationship between fit and other forms of well-being (career satisfaction, depression, and physical health symptoms), it seems that career centrality only impacts the desire-division of paid labor fit in one way – desire-division of labor fit matters very little in predicting the marital satisfaction of those who have low career centrality.

Family centrality was predicted to moderate the relationships between desire-division of family labor fit and family satisfaction, marital satisfaction, depression, and physical health symptoms. No significant moderating effects were found. Inspection of the descriptive statistics for family centrality reveals that the mean score on this variable was very high with little variance (mean = 4.53; SD = .54). Thus, the moderator analyses comparing those low in family centrality to those high in family centrality were

in reality comparing two groups with rather high scores on the variable, meaning these hypotheses could not be tested at the level that the theoretical rationale assumed. It is noteworthy that the present study is not the first to encounter this problem, as Edwards and Rothbard (1999) report similarly high means for family centrality. Although it is possible that the true population mean score on this trait is very high, it is likely that scores are inflated to some extent by social desirability bias (an example item is "I am very much involved personally in my family."). Perhaps a more appropriate way to assess this construct is through a measure with work-family conflict scenario-based items that force participants to state whether they would engage in the work or family event. A measure of this nature is certainly not immune to social desirability bias, but it may be more effective in reducing the bias than Likert scale items. Nonetheless, future researchers are urged to consider the measurement of domain centrality carefully.

Gender was also investigated as a moderator of both desire-division of paid and family labor fit. Owing to women's tendency to expect and prepare for struggles in managing work and family (e.g., Orrange, 2003; Sanders et al., 1998; Spade & Reese, 1991), I hypothesized that women's well-being would be less affected by needs-supplies misfit in the work and family domains. There was little evidence for a gender effect, as a significant moderator effect was only observed in one instance – the relationship between desire division of paid labor fit and physical health symptoms.

The response surfaces revealed that the nature of the significant moderator effect was not consistent with prediction. Desire-division of paid labor fit mattered relatively little for men, but their well-being was maximized at the extreme point of undersupplies, or, in other words, when wives were contributing much less to paid labor than husbands

had initially desired. The observed pattern for women was much different. Women were in the poorest health at the extreme point of undersupplies and in the best health at the point of fit. There was an asymmetrical curvilinear relationship, such that as husband's labor contributions approached pre-child desires, physical health symptoms decreased. Past the point of fit, where labor contributions were in excess, symptoms began to increase again but at a much slower rate.

This pattern of results was contrary to prediction but may be explained by the general stress reactivity and gender socialization literatures. First, there is some evidence that women experience more acute stress-related somatic symptoms and physical illnesses than men (Jick & Mitz, 1985; Wofford, Daly, & Jubin, 1999) and that this is particularly marked when the stressors involve family issues (Zuckerman, 1989). Thus, although women may be more able to effectively cope with desire-division of labor misfit than men (Loscocco & Spitze, 2007), this may be offset by their increased propensity to react to stress in general. Second, there are some health benefits to having a partner who contributes relatively little to the paid domain and focuses more on the family domain, in terms of more healthy family meal preparation (Neumark-Stzainer, Hannan, Story, Croll, & Perry, 2003) and less stress surrounding work-family conflict (Eagle, Icenogle, Maes, Miles, 1998), which could explain men's tendency to be healthiest when spouse's paid labor supplies are low.

However, this does not account for the marked gender difference, as women are *least* healthy when spouse's paid labor supplies are low. What might account for this difference is gender socialization of the breadwinner role. When husbands contribute significantly less than wives desired to paid labor, they are minimizing their identity as

breadwinner and placing more of the breadwinner burden on the women. While gender roles have become increasingly more egalitarian, the notion of breadwinner is still considered a standard for male but not female identity (Janssens, 1998; Meisenbach, 2010; Warren, 2007). Due to differences in socialization, the pressure that comes with the breadwinner burden may simply be stronger for women who have not been socialized to take on such a role. Furthermore, research suggests that husbands of female breadwinners may react negatively to wives due to masculine identity threat (Atkinson, Greenstein, & Lang, 2005; Buzzanell & Turner, 2003; Doucet & Merla, 2007) and often actually reduce their labor at home (Bittman, England, Folbre, Sayer, & Matheson, 2003), factors which may further exacerbate wives' stress and physical health reactions.

On the surface, the lack of significant gender differences in the present study is surprising, given that most previous desire-division of labor studies found some type of gender effects (e.g., Khazan et al., 2008; Loscocco & Spitze, 2007; Milkie et al, 2002; Ross et al., 1983). Scrutiny of these studies suggests that there is great inconsistency in the nature of gender differences across studies. Although some of this inconsistency may be attributable to the different research contexts, it is reasonable to suspect that some of the variation stems from within-gender variation. That is, there is as much variation in most personality traits, work tendencies, and family behaviors within genders as there is across genders (Barnett & Hyde, 2001), making it difficult to accurately predict how a person of a given gender will feel or behave. Rather than focusing on the objective characteristic of gender, it would be useful for future researchers to investigate constructs that are more phenomenologically rich, such as

gender role identity and the meaning ascribed to work and family roles (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005).

Voice in division of labor decision making was the final variable considered as a moderator in the division of labor needs-supplies fit and well-being relationships. Based on the general voice in decision making literature (e.g., LaTour, 1978; Lind et al., 1980), and a few studies specific to voice in work and family role structure (Hiller & McCaig, 2007; Madden, 1987; Thompson & Walker, 1989), voice in division of labor decision making was predicted to serve as a buffer between pre-child division of labor desires and post-child division of labor reality fit and well-being. Said otherwise, both shortage and excess of supplies were predicted to have a stronger relationship with well-being when voice was low rather than high.

Results were largely unsupportive of the voice in division of labor decision making moderator hypotheses. There was only once instance when a significant moderating effect was found: paid labor needs-supplies fit and marital satisfaction. However, the effect was in direct opposition to the hypothesis. Thus, low rather than high voice seemed to serve as a buffer against the negative effects of misfit. Although laboratory studies suggest that voice improves outcome satisfaction and process appraisal, it seems to function differently in the context of dual-earner's division of labor. There may be a backlash effect that occurs when voice in decision making is high, but the division of labor still does not reflect one's desires. Specifically, if an individual has little input into a process and the process ends in desire-division of labor misfit, their marital satisfaction may be minimally affected, as the situation was never discussed. On the other hand, if an individual makes his/her opinion known and the

division of paid labor still ends up incongruent with his/her desires, the spouse may feel that (s)he was ignored, sparking negative sentiments toward the marital partner. In fact, research suggests that the use of ignore tactics when negotiating division of labor relates to lower marital satisfaction (Alafita, 2008). Perhaps a more fruitful approach to understanding the moderating role of the decision making process would be to investigate decision control, or the actual degree of influence one has over a decision (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Decision control is distinct from process control (i.e., voice) which refers to the extent to which people have an opportunity to expression their opinions. Theoretically, less backlash should occur with decision control, as by definition it implies influence, rather than just opinion, over the decision.

With regard to career satisfaction, there was no evidence of voice as a moderator effect of paid labor needs-supplies fit with the main sample, but it was significant when tested with the larger sample of Partner As. The pattern of the moderation was relatively consistent with that of marital satisfaction, such that the relationship between shortage of supplies and career satisfaction was strongest when voice was high. There were no differences with excess supplies. It is impossible to know whether the lack of significant results in the smaller sample is a function of power or if the effect of voice were fundamentally different in the two samples. Nonetheless, the fact that the pattern was similar to that of marital satisfaction lends greater credence to the unexpected findings.

Demands-abilities fit and well-being. The first set of study hypotheses were focused solely on one member of the marital dyad ("Partner A"). In the next set of hypotheses, the spouse ("Partner B") was also considered, but in the context of another form of P-E fit, demands-abilities fit. Specifically, Partner A's needs, or the amount of

labor (s)he desired Partner B to contribute before children were born, were considered environmental demands on Partner B. Partner B's abilities to fulfill these demands were represented by Partner B's post-child actual labor contributions. Based on the core ideas of demands-abilities fit theory and self-discrepancy theories, well-being was again predicted to be highest at the point of fit and lowest at points of extreme misfit.

None of the hypotheses were fully supported for paid or family labor. Family labor demands-abilities fit was significantly associated with Partner B's physical health symptoms, but the relationship was linear. Consistent with prediction, as Partner B's family labor contributions approached Partner A's pre-child desires for Partner B's contributions, Partner B's physical health symptoms decreased; however, contrary to prediction, as Partner B's contributions surpassed Partner A's desires physical health symptoms continued to decrease. In other words, the more Partner B contributed relative to his/her spouse's desires, the healthier (s)he was. These findings are puzzling as extreme situations of excess supplies imply that Partner B is doing an disproportional share of family labor, which has been negatively linked to both men and women's health (Bird & Fremont, 1991) and household strain (Golding, 1990). Future researchers should further investigate this perplexing finding to determine the conceptual link. Speculatively, there is a third variable that is common to situations where abilities exceed demands and good physical health.

Regarding this set of hypotheses as a whole, there are several potential explanations for the mostly null results. First, on a conceptual level, the effects of demands-abilities fit on well-being are indirect, operating through needs-supplies fit (Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Harrison, 1978; Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1976; Smith et al.,

1969). In this sense, environmental demands must either be internalized as needs or meet another personal need that enhances well-being. Because previous research shows that spouses are typically aware of and responsive to each other's needs (Clark, 1984; Clark et al.,1986; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987), it was assumed that Partner A's pre-child desires for Partner B's labor contributions acted as demands on Partner B and were internalized as Partner B's own needs (the need to satisfy Partner B's desires). This was a theoretical assumption, not a process that was actually measured in the present study. Thus, a lack of demand internalization as needs may have halted the demands-abilities fit process and contributed to the null results.

A second explanation concerns the distinction between the objective and subjective representations of the demands and abilities (Edwards et al., 1998; French et al., 1982; Harrison, 1978). Partner A's reports of his/her own desires for Partner B's labor contributions were used as the demands variable for Partner B, representing the objective environment. The subjective environment, or Partner B's interpretation of these demands, was not assessed. This could have impacted the results in the sense that the objective environment is a more distal predictor, meaning its effects on fit and subsequent well-being were likely smaller and more difficult to detect. Additionally, the imperfect relationship between the objective and subjective environment (Harrison, 1978) may have distorted the relationship. Partner B may have incorrectly interpreted Partner A's needs, or (s)he may have never have been aware of them in the first place. Research suggests that many couples do discuss their future work-family lives before children are born (Steffy & Ashbaugh, 1986; Wright, 2001), but this is certainly not an absolute. One way to better understand the null results is to also measure the subjective

environment, or Partner B's perceptions of Partner A's pre-child desires for the division of labor, in future research.

Third, meeting the division of labor demands imposed by one's partner may simply not be a salient enough demand to impact well-being. Within a marriage, two sets of needs are at play, and spouses' pre-child desires for paid labor contributions are not always in sync. To illustrate, the correlation between Partner A's pre-child desires for Partner B and Partner B's pre-child desires for him/herself is .35 for family labor and .67 for paid labor. When Partner B's pre-child desires for division of labor are different than Partner A's, Partner B's own needs-supplies fit (congruence between how much Partner B wanted Partner A to contribute before children and Partner A's actual post-child contributions) may simply be an overriding force. Finally, there may be important moderators of the relationships that are concealing significant main effects. Two moderators that seem to account for some variation are discussed below.

Moderators of demands-abilities fit and well-being. Personal and contextual factors that should theoretically temper the relationship between demands-abilities fit and well-being were also investigated, namely gender and satisfaction with the current division of labor. Owing to women's greater responsiveness to others (Gilligan, 1982) and empathetic orientations (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983), both forms of demands-abilities misfit were expected to have a stronger relationship to well-being for women compared to men. Evidence of a significant moderator effect was found in three instances: paid labor fit and marital satisfaction, family labor fit and depression, family labor fit and physical health symptoms.

None of the moderating effects were consistent with prediction and as a whole did not follow a discernable pattern. Beginning with desire-division of paid labor and marital satisfaction, the moderator effect along the misfit line was quite small. The curve for men and women was similar, although there appeared to be a slightly stronger relationship among excess abilities and marital satisfaction for women. It is important to note that this relationship was positive, rather than negative as predicted, meaning that as Partner B contributed more to paid labor than Partner A desired him/her to contribute, Partner B's marital satisfaction increased. There are many benefits of high participation in paid labor, as it is likely to lead to personal career advancement which affords status, independence, and job satisfaction, among other things (England & Kilbourne, 1990; Oppenheimer, 1997). Perhaps when Partner B places a greater investment in paid labor than Partner A desires, Partner B recognizes the compromise Partner A had made and as a result is more satisfied with the relationship. This may be especially marked for women, whose greater career contribution is contrary to traditional gender norms. Moreover, a stronger moderator effect appears along the fit line. While the absolute level of fit did not affect women's marital satisfaction, there was a mostly positive relationship for men, such that marital satisfaction generally increased as higher levels of fit (and decreased slightly at extreme high levels). Thus, men seem to be happiest in their marriages when their wives wanted them to contribute a relatively large amount to paid labor and they did so.

Gender also significantly moderated the relationships between desire-division of family labor fit and depression and physical health symptoms. In both cases, the shape of the misfit curve for men resembled the prediction in the main effect – a curvilinear

relationship where depression and physical health symptoms were lowest at the point of fit. The effect of demands-abilities fit for women was not consistent across the two health outcomes. With regard to depression, women were less affected by shortage of abilities. In other words, depression decreased at a slower rate for women as their labor contributions increased toward their partner's desires. This was opposite of the hypothesized effect that women would be more affected. For physical health symptoms, the response surface curve was starkly different for women than men. It was relatively linear, and physical health symptoms decreased as Partner B's contributions approached Partner A's desires for Partner B's contributions and continued to decrease as contributions exceeded desires. Overall, it seems that men's health is affected by desire-division of family labor fit in a reliable manner, consistent with prediction. On the other hand, the nature of the relationships for women is difficult to interpret. There tends to be greater variance in women's amount of family labor contributions than men's (General Social Survey, 2006), and this lack of homogeneity may be part of the reason why the results for women are inconsistent and rather inexplicable.

The last set of hypotheses examined the moderating role of Partner B's satisfaction with current division of paid and family labor. Satisfaction with the current division of labor was expected to act as a buffer to the negative effects of demands-abilities misfit, for the negative repercussion of not meeting your partner's pre-child division of labor demands may be offset by the positive repercussions of personally being happy with the way labor is currently divided.

A significant moderator effect was found for all three forms of well-being desire-division of paid labor fit, but none were consistent with each other, nor with prediction. When

satisfaction with current division of paid labor was lower rather than higher, there was in fact a stronger relationship between both directions of demands-abilities misfit and marital satisfaction as predicted. However, the misfit curve was inverted, such that marital satisfaction was lowest at the point of fit, and highest at either extreme of misfit. For depression, results were opposite that of prediction, as Partner B was more affected by desire-division of labor misfit when satisfaction with the current division of labor was high rather than low, but gain the relationship was such that depression was highest rather than lowest at the point of fit. Finally with physical health symptoms, the pattern was entirely different. When satisfaction with current division of paid labor was low, the pattern of relationships was as predicted, with the lowest symptoms at the point of fit and the highest at either extreme of misfit. At medium levels of satisfaction with current division of paid labor, there was no relationship between fit and health. At high levels of satisfaction with current division of labor, the relationship was inverted, such that well-being was poorest at the point of fit.

Finally, satisfaction with the division of current family labor moderated a single family labor relationship: desire-division of family labor fit and depression. Consistent with expectations, the relationship between shortage of demands (Partner B contributing less than Partner A wanted Partner B to contribute) and depression was stronger for those with lower satisfaction with the current division of family labor than among those with higher satisfaction. Inconsistent with expectations, the relationship between excess demands (Partner B contributing more than Partner A wanted Partner B to contribute) and depression was stronger for those with higher satisfaction.

In summary, although it is clear that satisfaction with the current division of labor impacts the relationship between desire-division of labor fit and well-being, the nature of this interaction is varied and in no case consistent with hypotheses. One potential explanation for this diversity of results is that dissatisfaction with the current division of labor can stem from different sources. Specifically, one may be dissatisfied because (s)he is doing too much or dissatisfied because (s)he is doing too little. The nature of the satisfaction with current division of labor measure used in this study did not account for these differences, and perhaps grouping analyses according to the type of dissatisfaction might produce results that are more clearly interpretable. Future researchers are encouraged to further explore these relationships.

Theoretical Implications

As a whole, the findings of the present study have several theoretical implications. Although there have been a few previous studies that addressed pre-child desires and post-child division of labor realities, none have employed a strong theoretical framework. This study suggests that P-E fit theory, in particular the needs-supplies variant, is an appropriate framework, as the majority of needs-supplies fit and well-being relationships tested conformed to the theory's predictions. Moreover, self-discrepancy theory seems to be complementary to needs-supplies fit theory, providing a basis for the effects of excess supplies. On the other hand, demands-abilities fit as a framework for understanding desire-division of labor that incorporates both members of the marital dyad received little support. Thus, while there is evidence that pre-child desires act as a need for one spouse, they do not necessarily cross over and act as a demand for the other. This study served as a starting point for enhancing the theory behind this complicated construct, but there is

definitely room for additional theory to help explain how spouses are influenced by each other's division of labor needs. Likewise, the investigation of contextual factors was largely unsuccessful, meaning other theoretically relevant moderating variables need to be examined before we can fully understand the impact of personal and situational factors on the desire-division of labor fit relationships.

One of the primary aims of this study was to comprehensively examine the link between desire-division of labor fit and well-being in an all-encompassing manner. This was accomplished in a variety of ways. First, three dimensions of the division of paid labor (income, work hours, and career prioritization decisions) were assessed, representing both an improvement in measurement and a more complete understanding of the paid labor domain over past research. Second, by using polynomial regression analyses, I was able to capture the full range of misfit and avoid statistical problems associated with other methods of evaluating fit. Not only does this lend greater credence to the accuracy of results, but it also provided theoretical advancement. Specifically, in many cases, the effects of one's partner contributing too much were not identical to the effects of one's partner contributing too little. Thus, the present study solidifies the idea that the different forms of misfit are unique and should be considered as such in research. Third, multiple forms of well-being were examined, expanding our understanding of the widespread implications of desire-division of labor misfit, for the work, family, and general health domains were all related to paid or family labor misfit. Finally, although few significant findings were found with the dyadic analyses, the null results are informative and, as noted above, make it clear that future theorizing is necessary. In sum, this study extended a relatively narrow line of research and provided a richer theoretical

understanding of how lack of congruence between dual-earner's desires for division of labor and actual post-child division of labor relates to well-being.

This study also provides insight about gender. Clearly gender is an important factor in the division of labor, as studies consistently find that women do more family labor and men do more paid labor (Coltrane, 2000; Moen & Roehling, 2005). However, there do not seem to be profound differences in the way that desire-division of labor fit relates to men and women's well-being. Previous research has found some gender differences in some forms of misfit, but there is considerably inconsistency within and across studies. As previously noted, there may be other moderators that correlate with gender (i.e., identity) that are actually accounting for this variance. In general, research would benefit from a closer inspection of the processes that link gender to desire-division of labor misfit, rather than making assumptions largely based on traditional roles.

Additionally, organizational researchers tend to pay "lip service" to the division of family labor, frequently mentioning its importance in dual-earner's work and family functioning but rarely empirically assessing it. The division of paid labor is neglected to the extent that a search of the phrase in psychology research databases produces zero studies. The results of this study suggest that this is a significant omission, given the links between desire-division of labor fit and career satisfaction and health. At the very least, desire-division of labor fit represents an important family structure variable that should be considered, as it satiates complaints (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Eby et al., 2005 Zedeck, 1992) that work-family research is too reliant on objective characteristics of the person to the neglect of role quality. Similarly, a key variable in family research, marital satisfaction, was the well-being variable that most consistently related to desire-division

of labor fit and exhibit several significant moderator effects. Thus, family researchers are also encouraged to expand their typical theories to incorporate the quality of paid labor roles research, rather than distilling the worker role to "breadwinner" as is often done (e.g., Brennan et al., 2001; Loscocco & Spitze, 2007; Potucheck, 1997). To sum up, both organizational and family researchers would benefit from including a comprehensive assessment of desire-division of labor research in theory and research.

Practical Implications

In addition to theoretical explanations, there are a few practical implications of the present study. The results suggested that needs-supplies fit in the paid labor domain affects career satisfaction. To the extent that organizations want to foster career satisfaction in their employees, they should consider implementing programs that facilitate desire-division of labor fit. As Moen and colleagues (Moen, 2003; Moen & Roehling, 2005; Moen & Orrange, 2002) note, there is a structural lag in most organizations. Career paths are still modeled on the 1950s blueprint, assuming that workers have a full time homemaker to assist them with family responsibilities and career development. By reducing this lag and recognizing the dual-earner context that most workers operate in, organizations may facilitate employees' achievement of a division of labor that is consistent with pre-child desires. Potential solutions include making careers more flexible with multiple paths to success, making jobs themselves more flexible by offering flexible work arrangements, and placing greater consideration on spouse's work situations in relocation decisions.

Moreover, if the link between desire-division of labor fit and career satisfaction is not enough to spark organizational interest in the construct, its effects on health should

be. Beyond the added expenses in healthcare insurance, depression costs employers in the United States more than $35 billion annually due to reduced performance at work. Physical health symptoms are even more expensive, adding up to an estimated $47 billion in productivity losses (Hemp, 2004). Given these statistics, employers should be motivated to foster the mutable variable of employee desire-division of labor fit.

On the family side, the study's results have implications for marital counseling. Early in marriages before children are born, couples should be advised to discuss their desires regarding the division of labor through various stages of their lives. Being aware of each other's desires may help foster eventual desire-division of labor congruence and can help couples come to early compromises if their desires are initially incongruent. Additionally, because the division of labor is sometimes a dynamic process, couples who have children might benefit from counseling that promotes consistent goal setting and monitoring to ensure that their behaviors stay in line with mutual desires.

Limitations

Despite its contributions, the present study has several limitations in terms of study design, measurement, sampling, and statistical power. With regard to study design, retrospective reports were used to assess pre-child desires for division of labor, requiring participants to recall their division of labor desires before children were born. There is a great deal of evidence that retrospective reports are prone to memory biases (cf., Bernard, Killworth, Kronenfeld, & Sailer, 1984). Many cognitive processes influence the recall process, including current emotions (Levine & Safer, 2002; Safer & Keuler, 2002) and attitudes (Ross, 1989), source memory errors (Johnson, Hashtroudi, & Lindsay, 1993), and suggestibility effects (Loftus, 1982). Thus, the accuracy of the

pre-child desires measure is uncertain. The sole way to circumvent this issue is to conduct longitudinal research, assessing attitudes before children and born and post-child division of labor post-partum. Because the present study was addressing several novel concepts, the use of retrospective reports was deemed a suitable first step, but future researchers are urged to conduct longitudinal studies.

Relatedly, a second limitation of the study is its cross-sectional design. Although the hypotheses were all grounded in P-E fit theory, which suggests that fit between needs (demands) and supplies (abilities) impacts well-being, the cross-sectional design precludes any firm conclusions about directionality. Another concern is common method variance. Even though dyadic data were collected, several of the study hypotheses relied solely on self-reported variables (i.e., needs-supplies fit and well-being for Partner A). Assessment of common method variance's influence is difficult (Spector, 2006), and doing so requires consideration of the constructs of interest as well as the methods by which they were measured (Spector & Brannick, 1995). In this case social desirability may be especially relevant, as respondents may have been motivated to exaggerate their marital or family satisfaction as well as their current labor contributions.

Beyond study design, there are a few measurement concerns. Several scales were created for the study (pre-child desires for division of labor, post-child actual division of labor, voice in division of labor decision making, and satisfaction with current division of labor) because previous measures did not exist or were not comprehensive. Of particular concern are the pre-child desires and post-child actual family division of labor scales. Due to low internal consistency reliability and inter item

correlations, the item assessing emotion work was dropped from the pre-child desires scale and thus dropped from the post-child actual contributions measure for consistency purposes. Even then, the internal consistency reliability of the pre-child desires for division of family labor scale was low (.66), calling into question the measurement accuracy. The other measures appeared highly internally reliable with clear unidimensional structure. Nonetheless, additional tests of their validity in external contexts would bolster confidence in measurement.

Emotion work is considered an important component of family labor (Erikson, 1993), but it has received relatively little empirical attention (Coltrane, 2000) and no attention in the context of pre-child desires. It is unclear whether this concept really exists (i.e., people do not consider their desires for emotion work before children), if it is simply difficult to assess using retrospective reports, or if the problems with the item were due to wording. In general, it seems that more research is needed on emotion work, particularly people's cognitions about it before children are born.

Another limitation concerns the sample and sampling strategy. Participants were recruited through a variety of strategies, all of which involved convenience sampling, rather than random sampling. This resulted in a sample that was not representative of the larger population, as participants were overwhelmingly White, highly educated, employed in mostly white-collar jobs, and had a high household income. These characteristics could have a profound effect on the division of labor, as past research suggests that blue-collar couples negotiate the work and family domains differently than white-collar couples (Berardo, Shehan, & Leslie, 1987; Vanfossen, 1979) and that racial differences exist in the meaning of the division of labor (Maret & Finlay, 1986; Shelton

& John, 1993; Vega, Patterson, Sallis, Nader, Atkins, & Abramson, 1986). Consequently, the generalization of the results to the larger population is questionable. Moreover, the spouses were randomly selected as Partner A and Partner B for analysis. It is possible that a different randomization process could produce a different pattern of results.

A second point of concern with the sampling strategy is the method by which dyadic data was obtained. There may have been meaningful differences in key study variables among participants whose spouses participated and participants whose spouses did not participate. In an attempt to evaluate this issue empirically, *t*-tests were conducting comparing the sample of initial respondents whose spouses did not respond to respondents whose spouses did respond. This information is presented in Table 27, in the "F (1 vs. 2)" column. In a few instances, significant differences on study variables emerged. Initial respondents whose spouses did not respond contributed less to family labor and more to paid labor, reported lower career centrality, and had less voice in family division of labor decisions than those participants who were used in analyses. Therefore, it is possible that the results of the present study are biased toward couples with more egalitarian ideals and may not accurately represent individuals with more traditional marriages.

The final limitation is statistical in nature. A power analysis suggested that the power was lower than ideal for detecting effects, particularly when using hierarchical moderated regression. A lack of power could have contributed to the erroneous dismissal of effects as null when in fact a meaningful moderating effect did occur. In an attempt to reduce such Type II error, the alpha level was raised and relationships were

interpreted as significant when $p < .10$. This, however, also raised the possibility of Type I error, which should be kept in mind when interpreting results. Another way to improve power would be to increase the sample size, and future researchers are encouraged to do so.

Future Directions

The present study has paved the way for numerous future research endeavors. In addition to the ideas for future research ideas presented in previous sections, there are four main areas that remain largely untapped. First, the present investigation incorporated the division of family and paid labor, but hypotheses and analyses were conducted independently. In another words, there was little consideration of how desire-division of labor fit in one domain affects the other domain. Given that many dual-earner work-family management strategies consider the work and family domains as a whole (Becker & Moen, 1999; Roehling, 2003), rather than each domain independently, research that incorporates both domains simultaneously would be illuminating.

One idea is to explore desire-division of labor congruence in one domain as a moderator of the relationship between desire-division of labor fit in the other domain. This would allow researchers to determine if the association between getting what you wanted in one domain is affected by getting what you wanted in the other domain. Theoretically, individuals with high desire-division of labor fit in the work domain may not experience increased well-being if there is very low fit in the family domain. Such a scenario is likely commonplace, as the average woman, regardless of employment status, work hours, or income still performs more family labor than her husband (Bianchi, Milkie, Sayer, & Robinson, 2000).

A related idea is to include desire for the division of paid labor as one of the fit components and desire for the division of family labor as the other fit component and compare their congruence to well-being. This design would allow researchers to address the research question of where the optimal level of respective desires lies. It may be that desiring 50% in both domains maximizes well-being or that a deviation from perfect equality is actually more beneficial. Moreover, there are several individual difference variables that might moderate this relationship, such as gender and domain identities.

Second, as was mentioned in the introduction, several researchers (e.g., Goldberg & Perry-Jenkins, 2004; Kalmuss, Davidson, & Cushman, 1992; Nicolson, 1990; Ruble, Fleming, Hackel, & Stangor, 1988; Van Egeren, 2004) have previously examined a topic that is distinct but related to pre-child desire-post child actual division of labor fit – met expectations for division of labor. In the organizational literature, the concept of the psychological contract (Argyris, 1960; Rousseau, 1989, 1995, 2001) is often used to examine the impact of expectations on employment relationships. In the present study the organizational concept of P-E fit was applied to the dual-earner context, and may be informative to also apply psychological contracts to dual-earners. Based on psychological contract theories, the non-explicit agreements that couples have before children regarding the future division of labor may have an important effect on how the actual division of labor post-children influences well-being. Understanding both how met desires and met expectations function in dual-earners would greatly contribute to our theoretical understanding of the complexity of dual-earner's work and family management.

A third avenue of future exploration revolves around process variables. The findings of this study and previous research (Clarkberg & Moen, 2001; Moen & Roehling, 2005; Moen & Yu, 2000) show that there is often a discrepancy between what couples want pre-child and what they get post-child with regard to the division of labor. Less is known about why this discrepancy occurs. Some theorists argue that is a function of changing preferences (Hakim, 2000), economics (Becker, 1991) or power dynamics (McDonald, 1980), but there is minimal research on the role of workplace factors in creating this discrepancy. Previous research suggests that the spouse with greater flexibility may actually experience greater family to work conflict (Hammer, Neal, Newsom, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005). If one spouse's job is more flexible than the other spouses, (s)he may take on more of the family activities. Over time, this may have an effect on the overall division of labor. Mechanisms linking desires and actual behaviors were not examined in the present study, but future researchers are encouraged to further explore these issues, with a focus on work-related processes.

Finally, replication of the research questions addressed in the current investigation would be valuable. Not only would replication with a larger sample size help ascertain if the null results were a function of Type II error, but it would also bolster confidence in the polynomial regression analyses. Although polynomial regression was the appropriate statistical test for the research questions (e.g., Edwards, 2002, 2007), there is some evidence that polynomial regression findings are prone to problems with replication (Yang, Levine, Smith, Ispas, & Rossi, 2008). Thus, cross-validation is particularly important in the present context.

Conclusion

The question posed by the title of this study is "You can't always get what you want, but does it matter?" In short, the answer is yes. The results from the study suggest that congruence between an individual's own pre-child desires for the division of paid labor and the actual post-child division of paid labor relates to his/her own career and marital satisfaction, depression, and physical health symptoms. Congruence in the family domain, is also important as desire-division of family labor fit related to affective sentiments toward family and one's spouse. On the other hand, although one's own desire-division of labor fit impacts their own satisfaction, I found little evidence that an individual's well-being relates to his/her abilities to meet spousal demands for the division of labor. Finally, moderators of these relationships were assessed, including domain centrality, gender, voice in division of labor decision making, and satisfaction with the current division of labor. Evidence of moderation was only found in a few cases, and none were consistent with prediction, highlighting the need for future research on the contextual condition s of P-E fit in the dual-earner context. In closing, this study represents an important extension of the literature through its comprehensive and statistically sophisticated examination of dual-earner couples desire-division of labor fit and well-being.

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Table 1. *Summary of previous desire-division of labor fit and well-being research*

Authors	Journal	Sample used in analysis	Division of labor variable	Well-being variable	Type of fit/misfit	Analytic method
Khazan, McHale, & Decourcey, 2008	Infant Mental Health Journal	Husband and wife dyads	Congruence between ideal division of childcare labor during pregnancy and actual division measured 3 months post-partum	Husbands' and wives' marital satisfaction	Husband contributing less than he or wife desired to childcare	Difference scores
	Results: When the husband contributed less than the wife desired, her marital satisfaction decreased. When husband was less involved than he had desired, his marital satisfaction did not change.					
Loscocco & Spitze (2007)	Journal of Family Issues	Men and women living with a partner (not dyads)	Congruence between ideal perceptions of who provides for the family and actual providing situation	Anxiety, marital satisfaction, life satisfaction	Belief that one is financially providing too much, too little, or right amount	Difference scores
	Results: For men, providing less than desired related to greater anxiety, but among men who desired to be the main provider, congruence between attitudes and reality related to greater anxiety. Congruence did not affect men's life or marital satisfaction. For women, providing more than desired was related positively to life satisfaction, and no significant effects were found with regard to martial satisfaction or anxiety.					
Milkie, Bianchi, Mattingly, & Robinson (2002)	Sex Roles	Married men and women with children (not dyads)	Discrepancies btw. ideal and actual contributions of men to providing and parenting	Men and women's stress levels	Father less involved than ideal; father more involved than ideal	Difference scores
	Results:					

	Perceptions that fathers contributed less than the ideal amount to parenting were positively related to stress for both genders, although the effect was only marginally significant. Perceptions that fathers contributed less than the ideal amount to breadwinning also related positively to stress, and the effect was stronger for men than women. There was no significant association between fathers being more involved than ideal and stress.					
Perry-Jenkins, Seery, & Crouter, 1992	Psychology of Women Quarterly	Wives	Congruence between wives preferences for her provider status and actual provider status	Wives' role overload, depression, marital love, conflict, and satisfaction	Wives who are co-providers and want to be; wives who are co-providers but do not want to be; wives who are home-makers and want to be	Difference scores
	Results: Wives who were co-providers but did not want to be reported less marital satisfaction than wives who desired to be co-providers and were co-providers and wives who desired to be homemakers and were homemakers. No significant effects with role overload, depression, marital love, or marital conflict.					
Ross, Mirowsky, & Huber, 1983	American Sociological Review	Husband and wife dyads	Congruence between desires toward wives' employment status and her actual employment status	Husbands' and wives' depression	Husband's and wives' desires for her employment (employed or not) and her actual status	Interaction terms
	Results: Husbands were most depressed when they preferred wife to stay home but she had a job. Wives were most depressed when they were staying home but wanted to have a job.					

Table 2. *Recruitment sources and response rate information for initial respondents*

	Number contacted	Number responded (response rate)	Number completed (response rate)	Number in final sample (response rate)
Women's organization	13943	2379 (17.06%)	993 (7.12%)	498 (3.57%)
University Alumni	845	76](8.99%)	24 (2.84%)	7 (.82%)
First Time Fathers Website	889	16 (1.79%)	10 (1.12%)	3 (.003%)
Personal and extended networks	unknown	173	129	70
Total	15861	2644 (16.67%)	1134 (7.14%)	578 (3.6%)

Table 3. *Recruitment sources and response rate information for spouse respondents*

	Total number agreed to spouse participation	Number provided spouse email	Number agreed to personally contact spouse	Number spouse completed (response rate)	Number spouses in final sample (response rate)
Women's organization	386	119	267	152 (39.37%)	108 (27.97%)
University Alumni	8	5	3	2 (12.5%)	2 (12.5%)
First Time Fathers Website	2	2	0	1 (50%)	1 (50%)
Personal and extended networks	67	18	49	15 (22.38%)	15 (22.38)
Total	463	144	319	170 (36.71%)	126 (27.21%)

Table 4. *Descriptive statistics of study variables for Partner A*

PARTNER A	N	# of Items	α	M	SD	Obs. Min.	Obs. Max.	Scale Min	Scale Max
Hypotheses Variables									
Pre-child desires for spouse fam labor (needs for A/demands for B)	125	2	.66	49.77	12.51	20.00	100.00	0	100
Pre-child desires for self fam labor	125	2	.66	50.23	12.51	.00	80.00	0	100
Post-child spouse's actual fam labor (supplies)	123	2	.84	46.94	17.60	.00	90.00	0	100
Post-child self actual fam labor	123	2	.84	53.06	17.60	10.00	100.00	0	100
Pre-child desires for spouse paid labor (needs for A/demands for B)	125	3	.92	50.36	21.16	.00	100.00	0	100
Pre-child desires for self paid labor	125	3	.92	49.63	21.16	.00	100.00	0	100
Post-child spouse's actual paid labor (supplies)	123	3	.79	48.26	15.83	5.00	88.33	0	100
Post-child self actual paid labor	123	3	.79	51.74	15.83	11.67	95.00	0	100
Family satisfaction	125	4	.87	4.33	.62	2.00	5.00	1	5
Career satisfaction	126	5	.89	3.67	.80	1.60	5.00	1	5
Marital satisfaction	125	5	.97	4.46	.64	1.00	5.00	1	5
Depression	120	10	.84	2.41	.64	1.00	3.80	1	5
Physical health symptoms	120	11	n/a	18.64	5.23	11.00	39.00	11	66
Gender*	126	1		.50	.50	0	1	0	1
Career centrality	126	4	.82	3.32	.73	1.50	5.00	1	5
Family centrality	125	4	.79	4.53	.54	2.33	5.00	1	5
Voice in family labor decisions	120	7	.96	4.01	.82	1.71	5.00	1	5
Voice in paid labor decisions	120	7	.95	4.31	.64	2.00	5.00	1	5
Satisfaction with current family labor division	120	3	.90	3.66	.99	1.33	5.00	1	5

Satisfaction with current paid labor division	120	3	.87	3.86	.95	2.00	5.00	1	5
Control variables									
Family income**	119	1		7.03	1.49	1	8	1	8
Length of marriage	126	1		8.26	3.51	1.83	17.83		
Family responsibility	126	1		10.84	4.24	6.00	26.00		
Total number children	126	1		1.80	.80	1	5		
Number children under age 6	126			1.43	.57	0	3		
Number children over age 6	126			.40	.73	0	4		
Demographics									
Age	120	1		35.58	4.33	27	48		
Career Stage***	126	1		2.27	.57	1	4	1	4
Education Level****	120	1		6.14	1.38	2	8	1	8
Weekly work Hours	124	1		42.24	12.58	12	90		

Shaded variables are those of interest to hypotheses concerning Partner A.
*Gender coded male = 0, female = 1
**Family income coded 1 = less than $20,000, 2 = $20,000 - $39,000, 3 = $40,000 – 59,999, 4 = $60,000-79,999, 5 = $80,000 – $99,999, 6 = $100,000 - $119,999, 7 = $120,000 - $139,999, 8 = $140,000 or more
***Career stage coded 1 for earliest career stage to 4 for most established career stage
****Education level coded 1 = Grades 9 through 11 (some high school), 2 =Grade 12 or GED (high school graduate), 3 = Some college, 4 = Associate/two year degree, 5 = Bachelor's degree, 6 = Some graduate work, 7 = Master's degree, 8 = Advanced degree

Table 5. *Descriptive statistics of study variables for Partner B*

PARTNER B	N	# of Items	α	M	SD	Obs. Min.	Obs. Max.	Scale Min	Scale Max
Hypotheses Variables									
Pre-child desires for spouse fam labor	126	2	.61	49.46	10.84	10.00	90.00	0	100
Pre-child desires for self fam labor	126	2	.61	50.54	10.84	10.00	90.00	0	100
Post-child spouse's actual fam labor	126	2	.82	45.89	16.27	2.50	82.50	0	100
Post-child self actual fam labor (abilities)	126	2	.82	54.11	16.27	17.50	97.50	0	100
Pre-child desires for spouse paid labor	126	3	.90	50.92	18.90	3.33	100.00	0	100
Pre-child desires for self paid labor	126	3	.90	49.08	18.90	.00	96.67	0	100
Post-child spouse's actual paid labor	126	3	.84	50.03	15.24	5.00	93.33	0	100
Post-child self actual paid labor (abilities)	126	3	.84	49.96	15.24	6.67	95	0	100
Family satisfaction	126	4	.83	4.33	.54	2.50	5.00	1	5
Career satisfaction	126	5	.86	3.67	.72	1.00	5.00	1	5
Marital satisfaction	126	5	.96	4.48	.65	1.80	5.00	1	5
Depression	126	10	.80	2.40	.64	1.00	3.80	1	5
Physical health symptoms	121	11		17.86	5.07	11.00	41.00	11	66
Gender*	126	1		.50	.50	0	1	0	1
Career centrality	126	4	.79	3.15	.66	1.00	4.50	1	5
Family centrality	126	4	.79	4.56	.52	3.00	5.00	1	5
Voice in family labor decisions	126	7	.94	4.07	.70	2.00	5.00	1	5
Voice in paid labor decisions	126	7	.95	4.25	.60	2.57	5.00	1	5
Satisfaction w/ current family labor division	126	3	. 88	3.63	.95	1.33	5.00	1	5
Satisfaction w/ current paid labor division	126	3	.86	3.83	.95	1.00	5.00	1	5
Control variables									
Family income**	119	1		7.03	1.49	1	8	1	8
Length of marriage	126	1		8.26	3.51	1.83	17.83		
Family responsibility	126	1		10.84	4.24	6.00	26.00		

Total number children	126	1	1.80	.80	1	5		
Number children under age 6	126		1.43	.57	0	3		
Number children over age 6	126		.40	.73	0	4		
Demographics								
Age	126	1	35.71	4.25	27	47		
Career Stage***	125	1	2.26	.56	1	4	1	4
Education Level****	126	1	6.38	1.21	3	8	1	8
Weekly work hours	126	1	43.16	10.01	10	72		

Shaded variables are those of interest to hypotheses concerning Partner B.
*Gender coded male = 0, female = 1
**Family income coded 1 = less than $20,000, 2 = $20,000 - $39,000, 3 = $40,000 – 59,999, 4 = $60,000-79,999, 5 = $80,000 – $99,999, 6 = $100,000 - $119,999, 7 = $120,000 - $139,999, 8 = $140,000 or more
***Career stage coded 1 for earliest career stage to 4 for most established career stage
***Education level coded 1 = Grades 9 through 11 (some high school), 2 =Grade 12 or GED (high school graduate), 3 = Some college, 4 = Associate/two year degree, 5 = Bachelor's degree, 6 = Some graduate work, 7 = Master's degree, 8 = Advanced degree

Table 6. *Descriptive statistics of study variables by gender*

	Males		Females	
	M	SD	M	SD
Hypotheses Variables				
Pre-child desires for spouse fam labor (needs A/demands for B)	55.51	10.78	43.76	9.41
Pre-child desires for self fam labor	44.49	10.78	56.23	9.41
Post-child spouse's actual fam labor (supplies)	56.45	13.72	36.61	13.71
Post-child self actual fam labor (abilities)	43.54	13.72	63.39	13.71
Pre-child desires for spouse paid labor (needs for A/demands for B)	37.86	14.73	63.32	16.16
Pre-child desires for self paid labor	62.13	14.73	36.68	16.16
Post-child spouse's actual paid labor (supplies)	43.26	13.62	54.90	15.17
Post-child self actual paid labor (abilities)	56.73	13.62	45.10	15.17
Family satisfaction	4.31	.53	4.36	.63
Career satisfaction	3.67	.73	3.81	.75
Marital satisfaction	4.40	.61	4.56	.66
Depression	4.10	2.40	2.48	.60
Physical health symptoms	17.15	4.80	18.85	5.44
Career centrality	3.23	.71	3.24	.69
Family centrality	4.41	.54	4.68	.49
Voice in family labor decisions	3.99	.71	4.11	.81
Voice in paid labor decisions	4.15	.59	4.40	.62
Satisfaction with current family labor division	3.66	.84	3.63	1.08
Satisfaction with current paid labor division	3.75	.85	3.94	1.03
Demographics				
Age	35.88	4.17	34.65	4.12
Career Stage*	2.24	.55	2.37	.60
Education Level**	6.18	1.34	6.46	1.24
Weekly work Hours	42.69	11.37	38.52	12.86

*Career stage coded 1 for earliest career stage to 4 for most established career stage
**Education level coded 1 = Grades 9 through 11 (some hig school), 2 =Grade 12 or GED (high school graduate), 3 = Some college, 4 = Associate/two year degree, 5 = Bachelor's degree, 6 = Some graduate work, 7 = Master's degree, 8 = Advanced degree

Table 7. *Source of reports for hypotheses*

Hypotheses	Needs	Supplies	Well-being
1 – 14	A	A	A
Hypotheses	Demands	Abilities	Well-being
15- 24	A	B	B

Table 8. *Results of confirmatory factor analyses*

	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	χ^2 (df)	χ^2 (df) diff
Pre-child desires for division of labor (Partner A)					
1 factor	.939	.898	.149	33.714(9)**	
2 factor	.981	.965	.087	15.528(8)*	18.186 (1)** (vs. 1)
2 factor w/o emotion work	.939	.987	.063	5.961 (4)	27.753 (5)** (vs. 1)
					9.567 (4) * (vs. 2)
Post-child division of labor (Partner A)					
1 factor	.889	.816	.171	40.731 (9)**	
2 factor	.979	.961	.079	13.995 (8)	26.736**(vs. 1)
2 factor w/o emotion work	.993	.983	.061	5.793 (4)	34.938** (vs. 1)
					8.202 (vs. 2)
Post-child division of labor items (Partner B)					
1 factor	.906	.844	.179	45.108 (9)**	
2 factor	1.000	1.021	.000	3.779 (8)	41.329** (vs. 1)
2 factor w/o emotion work	1.000	1.014	.000	2.125 (4)	42.983 (vs. 1)
					1.654 (vs. 2)
Voice in division of labor decision making (Partner A)					
1 factor	.906	.844	.179	931.957 (77)**	
2 factor	.911	.893	.148	267.906 (76)**	664.051 (1)**
Satisfaction with current division of labor (Partner B)					
1 factor	.616	.361	.392	183.598 (9)**	
2 factor	.958	.921	.138	27.027 (8)**	156.57 (1)**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 9. *Results of exploratory factor analysis and inter-item correlations for voice in division of labor decision making (Partner A)*

Number eigenvalues > 1	2							
Elbow in scree plot	2							
	Factors Loadings		Inter-Item Correlations					
	1	2	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Voice paid labor 1	**.71**	.26	--					
2. Voice paid labor 2	**.86**	.28	.79	--				
3. Voice paid labor 3	**.86**	.31	.69	.83	--			
4. Voice paid labor 4	**.86**	.31	.67	.81	.87	--		
5. Voice paid labor 5	**.80**	.24	.56	.72	.77	.80	--	
6. Voice paid labor 6	**.75**	.28	.58	.69	.70	.70	.71	--
7. Voice paid labor 7	**.84**	.30	.64	.78	.78	.82	.78	.78
1. Voice family labor 1	.37	**.70**	--					
2. Voice family labor 2	.28	**.86**	.76	--				
3. Voice family labor 3	.30	**.87**	.72	.88	--			
4. Voice family labor 4	.30	**.85**	.72	.81	.85	--		
5. Voice family labor 5	.27	**.84**	.68	.77	.79	.81	--	
6. Voice family labor 6	.23	**.79**	.62	.72	.72	.74	.74	--
7. Voice family labor 7	.31	**.85**	.70	.80	.81	.79	.82	.80

Table 10. *Results of exploratory factor analysis and inter-item correlations for satisfaction with current division of labor (Partner B)*

Number eigenvalues > 1	2				
Elbow in scree plot	2				
	Factors Loadings		Inter-Item Correlations		
	1	2	1	2	3
1. Satisfaction w/ current paid labor 1	.28	**.86**	--		
2. Satisfaction w/ current paid labor 2	.21	**.86**	.76	--	
3. Satisfaction w/ current paid labor 3	.20	**.68**	.65	.63	--
1. Satisfaction w/ current family labor 1	**.93**	.22	--		
2. Satisfaction w/ current family labor 2	**.93**	.23	.84	--	
3. Satisfaction w/ current family labor 3	**.69**	.29	.66	.65	--

Table 11. *Correlations between study variables*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Pre-child desires for spouse's fam labor (A)[a]	--										
2. Pre-child desires for self fam labor (A)	-1.00**	--									
3. Post-child spouse's actual fam labor (A)[b]	.50**	-.50**	--								
4. Post-child self actual fam labor (A)	-.50**	.50**	-1.00**	--							
5. Pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor (A) [a]	-.57**	.57**	-.56**	.56**	--						
6. Pre-child desires for self paid labor (A)	.57**	-.57**	.56**	-.56**	-1.00**	--					
7. Post-child spouse's actual paid labor (A)[b]	-.36**	.36**	-.57**	.57**	.49**	-.49**	--				
8. Post-child self actual paid labor (A)	.36**	-.36**	.57**	-.57**	-.49**	.49**	-1.00**	--			
9. Family satisfaction (A)	-.08	.09	-.04	.04	.03	-.03	.08	-.08	--		
10. Career satisfaction (A)	-.03	.03	.00	.00	.00	.00	-.27**	.27**	.19*	--	
11. Marital satisfaction (A)	-.17	.17	-.17	.17	.02	-.02	.12	-.12	.54**	.09	--
12. Depression (A)	-.22*	.22*	-.15	.15	.22*	-.22*	.20*	-.20*	-.49**	-.16	-.34**
13. Phys health symp (A)	-.17	.17	-.25**	.25**	.12	-.12	.21*	-.21*	-.20*	.02	-.09*
14. Gender (A)	-.49**	.49**	-.59**	.59**	.64**	-.64**	.35**	-.35**	.06	.16	.21*
15. Career centrality (A)	.24**	-.24**	.18*	-.18*	-.33**	.33**	-.21*	.21*	-.10	.28**	-.24**
16. Family centrality (A)	-.26**	.26**	-.26**	.26**	.22*	-.22*	.20*	-.20*	.44**	-.03	.47**
17. Voice fam labor decs (A)	-.02	.02	.12	-.12	-.02	.02	.05	-.05	.38**	.01	.47**
18. Voice paid labor decs (A)	.01	-.01	.07	-.07	.02	-.02	.02	-.02	.31**	.14	.31**

Table 11. *Correlations between study variables (continued)*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
19. Satisfaction w/ current division of fam labor (A)	.03	-.03	.19*	-.19*	-.10	.10	.09	.09	.29**	.12	.35**
20. Satisfaction w/ current division of paid labor (A)	.06	-.06	.03	-.03	.02	-.02	.04	-.04	.42**	.22*	.39**
21. Age (A)	.23*	-.23*	.17	-.17	-.19*	.19*	-.15	.15	-.01	-.01	-.04
22. Career stage (A)	-.04	.04	-.02	.02	.11	-.11	-.02	.02	.15	.28**	.17
23. Education level (A)	-.13	.13	-.07	.07	.08	-.08	-.05	.05	.11	.26**	.05
24. Weekly work hours (A)	.24**	-.24**	.49**	-.49**	-.33**	.33**	-.53**	.53**	.06	.25**	-.09
25. Pre-child desires for spouse's fam labor (B)	-.35**	.35**	-.50**	.50**	.50**	-.50**	.44**	-.44**	.00	.02	.00
26. Pre-child desires for self fam labor (B)	.35**	-.35**	.50**	-.50**	-.50**	.50**	-.44**	.44**	.00	-.02	.00
27. Post-child spouse's actual fam labor (B)	-.45**	.45**	-.75**	.75**	.58**	-.58**	.66**	-.66**	.10	-.07	.18*
28. Post-child self actual family labor[c] (B)	.45**	-.45**	.75**	-.75**	-.58**	.58**	-.66**	.66**	-.10	.07	-.18*
29. Pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor (B)	.51**	-.51**	.59**	-.59**	-.67**	.67**	-.50**	.50**	-.11	.04	-.11
30. Pre-child desires for self paid labor (B)	-.51**	.51**	-.59**	.59**	.67**	-.67**	.50**	-.50**	.11	-.04	.11
31. Post-child spouse's actual paid labor (B)	.38**	-.38**	.61**	-.61**	-.55**	.55**	-.81**	.81**	.06	.22*	-.01
32. Post-child self actual paid labor[c] (B)	-.38**	.38**	-.61**	.61**	.55**	-.55**	.81**	-.8**	-.06	-.22*	.01
33. Family satisfaction (B)	.04	-.04	-.01	.01	-.04	.04	-.01	.01	.23*	.12	.24**
34. Career satisfaction (B)	.10	-.10	-.06	.06	-.11	.11	.18*	-.18*	.16	-.05	.11
35. Marital satisfaction (B)	.07	-.07	-.08	.08	-.07	007	.11	-.11	.30**	.06	.36**
36. Depression (B)	-.10	.10	.00	.00	.06	-.06	-.12	.12	-.16	-.08	-.19*

Table 11. *Correlations between study variables (continued)*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
37. Phys health symp (B)	-.20*	.20*	.03	-.03	.00	.00	-.03	.03	-.03	-.09	-.12
38. Gender (B)	.49**	-.49**	.59**	-.59**	-.64**	.64**	-.35**	.35**	-.06	-.16	-.21*
39. Career centrality (B)	.00	-.01	-.17	.17	.12	-.12	.21*	-.21*	.03	-.11	-.08
40. Family centrality (B)	.05	-.05	.17	-.17	-.16	.16	-.14	.14	.03	.06	-.11
41. Voice fam labor decs (B)	.10	-.10	-.05	.05	-.14	.14	-.07	.07	.11	.05	.11
42. Voice paid labor decs (B)	.01	-.01	-.02	.02	-.11	.11	.01	-.01	.10	.00	.11
43. Satisfaction w/ current division of fam labor (B)	-.05	.05	-.21*	.21*	.05	-.05	.14	-.14	.10	.12	.15
44. Satisfaction w/ current division of paid labor (B)	.09	-.09	-.03	.03	-.08	.08	.05	-.05	.12	.02	.05
45. Age (B)	.09	-.09	-.04	.04	.05	-.05	.05	-.05	-.07	.00	-.05
46. Career stage (B)	.11	-.11	.05	-.05	-.09	.09	.00	.00	.11	-.01	-.11
47. Education level (B)	.09	-.09	-.01	.01	.00	.00	-.05	.05	.03	.05	.05
48. Weekly work hours (B)	-.42**	.42**	-.40**	.40**	.38**	-.38**	.39**	-.39**	.04	.06	.08
49. Family income	-.09	.09	-.01	.01	.05	-.05	.03	-.03	.08	.14	.07
50. Length of marriage	.10	-.10	.17	-.17	-.08	.08	-.19*	.19*	-.11	.09	-.12
51. Family responsibility	.20*	-.20*	.13	-.13	-.08	.08	-.12	.12	.05	.03	.06
52. Total number children	.22*	-.22*	.15	-.15	-.11	.11	-.16	.16	.05	.05	.05
53. Number children over 6	.30**	-.30**	.22*	-.22*	-.23**	.23**	-.24**	.24**	.05	.13	.06
54. Number children under 6	.05	-.05	-.04	.04	.10	-.10	.04	-.04	.02	-.06	-.01

Table 11. *Correlations between study variables (continued)*

	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
12. Depression (A)	--											
13. Phys health symp (A)	.37**	--										
14. Gender (A)	.06	.22*	--									
15. Career centrality (A)	-.03	.10	-.02	--								
16. Family centrality (A)	-.21*	-.13	.29**	-.29**	--							
17. Voice fam labor decs (A)	-.24**	-.07	.03	-.15	.30**	--						
18. Voice paid labor decs (A)	-.18*	-.11	.13	-.02	.03	.61**	--					
19. Satisfaction w/ current division of fam labor (A)	-.28**	-.03	.02	-.001	.19*	.69**	.42**	--				
20. Satisfaction w/ current division of paid labor (A)	-.25**	-.12	.12	-.01	.18*	.41**	.59**	.50**	--			
21. Age (A)	.05	-.09	-.23*	.12	.00	-.06	-.04	-.01	-.14	--		
22. Career stage (A)	-.15	-.09	.17	.03	.07	.14	.25**	.08	.14	.29**	--	
23. Education level (A)	-.01	-.09	.24**	.19*	.27**	.06	.06	.14	.11	.05	-.04	--
24. Weekly work hours (A)	-.17	-.15	-.30**	.21*	-.01	.03	-.08	.01	-.08	.14	.08	.09
25. Pre-child desires for spouse's fam labor (B)	.17	.05	.53**	-.14	.20*	-.06	-.02	-.06	.01	-.05	.11	.21*
26. Pre-child desires for self fam labor (B)	-.17	-.05	-.53**	.14	-.20*	.06	.02	.06	-.01	.05	-.11	-.21*
27. Post-child spouse's actual fam labor (B)	.13	.13	.59**	-.19*	.28**	.08	.10	-.04	.07	-.20*	.05	.08
28. Post-child self actual family labor[c] (B)	-.13	-.13	-.59**	.19*	-.28**	-.08	-.10	.04	-.07	.20*	-.05	-.08
29. Pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor (B)	-.14	-.07	-.64**	.23**	-.32**	-.05	-.10	.00	-.06	.16	-.07	-.19*
30. Pre-child desires for self paid labor (B)	.14	.07	.64**	-.23**	.32**	.05	.10	.00	.06	-.16	.07	.19*

Table 11. *Correlations between study variables (continued)*

	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
31. Post-child spouse's actual paid labor (B)	-.21*	-.27**	-.41**	.27**	-.16	.04	.03	.08	.00	.24**	.04	.06
32. Post-child self actual paid labor[c] (B)	.21*	.27**	.41**	-.27**	.16	-.04	-.03	-.08	.00	-.24**	-.04	-.06
33. Family satisfaction (B)	-.17	-.03	-.03	-.13	.23**	-.02	-.02	-.01	.16	-.06	.06	-.10
34. Career satisfaction (B)	-.02	-.10	-.17	-.02	.15	.02	-.07	-.02	.04	-.00	-.10	-.02
35. Marital satisfaction (B)	-.17	-.20*	-.04	-.01	.13	-.01	.03	-.02	.11	.06	.01	-.11
36. Depression (B)	.14	.05	-.07	-.01	-.12	-.08	.07	-.05	-.10	-.02	-.04	.09
37. Phys health symp (B)	.05	.10	-.11	.04	-.03	.15	.18	.21*	-.08	-.13	-.04	.03
38. Gender (B)	-.06	-.22**	-1.00**	.02	-.29**	-.03	-.13	-.02	-.12	.23*	-.17	-.24**
39. Career centrality (B)	.15	-.08	-.04	.00	-.01	-.02	-.07	-.09	-.03	.08	-.09	-.02
40. Family centrality (B)	-.14	-.10	-.21*	-.05	-.02	-.04	-.04	.06	.01	-.02	.01	-.08
41. Voice fam labor decs (B)	.05	-.14	-.13	.11	-.07	-.02	.02	-.06	-.06	.09	-.12	-.10
42. Voice paid labor decs (B)	.16	.00	-.26**	-.03	-.05	.01	.01	.01	.10	.07	-.13	-.14
43. Satisfaction w/ current division of fam labor (B)	.04	-.02	.05	.04	.16	.12	.18*	.11	.21*	-.05	-.12	.08
44. Satisfaction w/ current division of paid labor(B)	.07	-.01	-.08	-.03	.04	.03	-.01	-.01	.17	-.01	-.16	-.04
45. Age (B)	.10	.09	.12	.08	.05	-.07	.01	-.04	-.18*	.79**	.27**	.09
46. Career stage (B)	-.03	.04	-.08	.03	.02	-.07	-.10	.03	-.08	.37**	.16	.00
47. Education level (B)	-.07	-.26**	-.13	.16	-.01	-.02	-.02	.04	.04	.24**	.12	.28**
48. Weekly work hours (B)	.18	.16	.37**	-.04	.13	.00	.01	.00	-.01	-.19*	-.02	.27**
49. Family income	.03	-.19*	-.06	-.05	.03	.05	.00	-.05	-.06	.20*	.15	.04
50. Length of marriage	.05	.01	.03	.18*	-.05	-.02	.04	-.02	-.15	.59**	.28**	.06
51. Family responsibility	-.01	-.09	-.05	-.08	.08	.03	.08	.08	.12	.32**	.29**	.07
52. Total number children	-.02	-.03	-.05	-.05	.06	.03	.06	.07	.09	.40**	.31**	.07
53. Number children over 6	-.12	-.03	-.10	.12	-.02	.04	.08	.10	.03	.50**	.29**	.02
54. Number children under 6	.05	-.12	.03	-.19*	.08	-.04	.01	-.04	.13	-.12	.06	.09

Table 11. *Correlations between study variables (continued)*

	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
24. Weekly work hours (A)	--										
25. Pre-child desires for spouse's fam labor (B)	-.37**	--									
26. Pre-child desires for self fam labor (B)	.37**	-1.00**	--								
27. Post-child spouse's actual fam labor (B)	-.50**	.63**	-.63**	--							
28. Post-child self actual family labor[c] (B)	.50**	-.63**	.63**	-1.00**	--						
29. Pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor (B)	.42**	-.67**	.67**	-.66**	.66**	--					
30. Pre-child desires for self paid labor (B)	-.42**	.67**	-.67**	.66**	-.66**	-1.00**	--				
31. Post-child spouse's actual paid labor (B)	.63**	-.51**	.51**	-.64**	.64**	.59**	-.59**	--			
32. Post-child self actual paid labor[c] (B)	-.63**	.51**	-.51**	.64**	-.64**	-.59**	.59**	-1.00*	--		
33. Family satisfaction (B)	-.04	.15	-.15	.02	-.02	.06	-.06	.06	-.06	--	
34. Career satisfaction (B)	-.09	-.05	.05	.05	-.05	.13	-.13	-.13	.13	.24**	--
35. Marital satisfaction (B)	.03	.04	-.04	.06	-.06	.06	-.06	.14	-.14	.59**	.16
36. Depression (B)	.01	-.15	.15	-.12	.12	.04	-.04	.00	.00	-.37**	-.27**
37. Phys health symp (B)	.03	-.09	.09	-.09	.09	.00	.00	.03	-.03	-.30**	-.20*
38. Gender (B)	.30**	-.53**	.53**	-.59**	.59**	.64**	-.64**	.40**	-.40**	.03	.17
39. Career centrality (B)	-.06	.17	-.17	.21*	-.21*	-.12	.12	-.21*	.21*	-.09	.40**
40. Family centrality (B)	.10	-.03	.03	-.17	.17	.10	-.13	.13	-.13	.36**	.16
41. Voice fam labor decs (B)	.02	.01	-.01	.17	-.17	.10	-.10	.21*	-.21*	.33**	.16
42. Voice paid labor decs (B)	-.13	-.02	.02	.08	-.08	.13	-.13	.06	-.06	.21*	.23*
43. Satisfaction w/ current division of fam labor (B)	-.14	.09	-.09	.40**	-.40**	-.06	.06	.00	.00	.27**	.22*

Table 11. *Correlations between study variables (continued)*

	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
44. Satisfaction w/ current division of paid labor (B)	-.02	.04	-.04	.07	-.07	.04	-.04	.05	-.05	.38**	.43**
45. Age (B)	.02	.13	-.13	.05	-.05	-.11	.11	-.03	.03	-.18*	-.06
46. Career stage (B)	-.05	-.05	.05	-.03	.03	.03	-.03	.01	-.01	.05	.23**
47. Education level (B)	.09	.07	-.07	-.02	.02	.05	-.05	.02	-.02	-.04	.12
48. Weekly work hours (B)	-.08	.33**	-.33**	.46**	-.46**	-.46**	.46**	-.50**	.50**	-.13	-.05
49. Family income	.22*	.04	-.04	.02	-.02	-.04	.04	.12	-.12	.11	.11
50. Length of marriage	.13	-.09	.09	-.13	.13	.06	-.06	.18*	-.18*	-.22*	-.12
51. Family responsibility	.12	-.06	.06	-.07	.07	.06	-.06	.17	.17	-.11	.01
52. Total number children	.14	-.08	.08	-.10	.10	.08	-.08	.21*	-.21*	-.11	-.02
53. Number children over 6	.07	-.11	.11	-.11	.11	.13	-.13	.26**	-.26**	-.02	-.07
54. Number children under 6	.10	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	-.03	.03	-.01	.01	-.06	.04

Table 11. *Correlations between study variables (continued)*

	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45
35. Marital satisfaction (B)	--										
36. Depression (B)	-.38**	--									
37. Phys health symp (B)	-.30**	.50**	--								
38. Gender (B)	.04	.07	.11	--							
39. Career centrality (B)	-.06	.01	-.09	.04	--						
40. Family centrality (B)	.28**	-.18*	-.02	.21*	-.21*	--					
41. Voice fam labor decs (B)	.46**	-.31**	-.17	.13	.20*	.03	--				
42. Voice paid labor decs (B)	.25**	-.16	-.07	.26**	.12	.11	.53**	--			
43. Satisfaction w/ current division of fam labor (B)	.34**	-.36**	-.15	-.05	.11	.03	.60**	.35**	--		
44. Satisfaction w/ current division of paid labor (B)	.28**	-.31**	-.30**	.08	.16	.12	.38**	.50**	.40**	--	
45. Age (B)	-.04	.02	-.10	-.12	.07	-.08	-.04	-.03	-.05	-.04	--
46. Career stage (B)	-.05	-.04	-.19*	.08	.02	.11	-.04	-.01	-.01	.19*	.41**
47. Education level (B)	.09	.07	-.04	.13	.28**	-.04	.06	.02	.02	.02	.14
48. Weekly work hours (B)	-.15	.06	.07	-.37**	.20*	-.19*	-.18*	-.20*	-.04	-.17	.05
49. Family income	.14	-.05	-.03	.06	.13	.08	.11	-.01	-.04	.00	.23*
50. Length of marriage	-.10	-.07	-.13	-.03	-.08	-.02	-.06	-.01	-.05	-.06	.62**
51. Family responsibility	.06	-.07	-.11	.05	-.14	.08	-.09	.04	-.03	.07	.33**
52. Total number children	.07	-.10	-.12	.05	-.16	.08	-.07	.03	-.02	.05	.40**
53. Number children over 6	.14	-.15	-.16	-.10	-.12	.13	.05	.03	.08	.02	.41**
54. Number children under 6	-.03	.08	-.03	-.03	-.07	-.05	-.13	.03	-.10	.09	-.01

Table 11. *Correlations between study variables (continued)*

	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54
45. Age (B)	--									
46. Career stage (B)	.41**	--								
47. Education level (B)	.14	-.09	--							
48. Weekly work hours (B)	.05	.08	.06	--						
49. Family income	.23*	.18	.09	.26**	--					
50. Length of marriage	.62**	.27**	.15	-.08	.04	--				
51. Family responsibility	.33**	.21*	-.02	-.16	-.03	.52**	--			
52. Total number children	.40**	.24**	.00	-.18*	-.02	.61**	.98**	--		
53. Number children over 6	.41**	.26**	.11	-.22*	-.07	.64**	.57**	.69**	--	
54. Number children under 6	-.01	.05	-.15	.04	.09	-.02	.59**	.47**	-.27**	--

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
[a] In P-E fit language this represents Partner A's labor needs and Partner B's labor demands
[b] In P-E fit language this represents Partner A's labor supplies
[c] In P-E fit language this represents Partner B's labor abilities
N for correlations vary from 117 to 126 due to missing data.
Letter in parentheses (A or B) indicates source of the variable.
Variables without parentheses are common to both A and B.
Shaded variables are those used in hypothesis testing.

Table 12. *Correlations between study variables used in hypothesis testing*

	Career sat (A)	Family sat (A)	Marital sat (A)	Deprs (A)	Health (A)	Marital sat (B)	Deprs (B)	Health (B)
Pre-child desires for spouse's fam labor [a] (A)	-.03	-.08	-.17	-.22*	-.17	.07	-.10	-.20*
Pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor [a] (A)	.00	.03	.02	.22*	.12	-.07	.06	.00
Post-child spouse's actual fam labor [b] (A)	.00	-.04	-.17	-.15	-.25**	-.08	.00	.03
Post-child spouse's actual paid labor [b] (A)	-.27**	.08	.12	.20*	.21*	.11	-.12	-.03
Post-child self actual family labor[c] (B)	.07	-.10	-.18*	-.13	-.13	-.06	.12	.09
Post-child self actual paid labor[c] (B)	-.22*	-.06	.01	.21*	.27**	-.14	.00	-.03
Career centrality (A)	.28**	-.10	-.24**	-.03	.10	-.01	-.01	.04
Family centrality (A)	-.03	.44**	.47**	-.21*	-.13	.13	-.12	-.03
Gender (A)	.16	.06	.21	.06	.22*	.04	-.07	-.11
Gender (B)	-.16	-.06	-.21*	-.06	-.22*	.04	.07	.11
Voice in division of family labor (A)	.01	.38**	.47**	-.24**	-.13	-.01	-.08	.15
Voice in division of paid labor (A)	.14	.31**	.31**	-.18*	-.07	.03	.07	.18*
Satisfaction w/ current division of family labor (B)	.12	.29**	.35**	.04	-.02	.34**	-.36**	-.15
Satisfaction w/ current division of paid labor (B)	.22*	.42**	.39**	.07	-.01	-.28**	-.31**	-.30**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

[a] In P-E fit language this represents Partner A's labor needs and Partner B's labor demands

[b] In P-E fit language this represents Partner A's labor supplies

[c] In P-E fit language this represents Partner B's labor abilities

Letter in parentheses (A or B) indicates source of the variable.

Table 13. *Polynomial regression equations regressing Partner A's well-being on Partner A's paid labor needs and supplies (Hypotheses1, 3, 5, 7)*

	Partner A's well-being			
	Career Satisfaction	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Phys health Symptoms
Control variables				
Family responsib	-.0144	.0115	-.0012	-.1542
Length of marriage	.0247	-.0233	.0173	.2096
Total family income	.0681	.0359	.0154	-.7598*
Needs and supplies				
Partner A's paid labor needs(A)	.0010	.0054	.0006	-.0128
Partner A's paid labor supplies(A)	-.0197**	.0005	.0092	.0816*
Partner A's paid labor needs^2	-.0002	-.0002	.0000	-.0003
Partner A's paid labor needs x Partner A's paid labor supplies	.0002	.0007*	-.0005*	-.0034*
Partner A's paid labor supplies^2	.0002	-.0002	.0003	0.0023
Intercept	3.167	4.295	2.137	24.167
F	2.50*	2.49*	1.95†	2.71*
Df	8, 114	8, 114	8, 111	8, 111
R^2	.148	.149	.123	.164
Needs = - Supplies (misfit) line shape				
$b_1 - b_2$	.0297**	.0049	-.0086	-.0944
$b_3 - b_4 + b_5$	-.0003	-.0011**	.0009*	.0053†
Needs = Supplies (fit) line shape				
$b_1 + b_2$	- .0097*	.0059	.0097*	.0688*
$b_3 + b_4 + b_5$	.0002	.0004*	-.0001	-.0014

†$p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.
The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.
A's needs represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor contributions
A's supplies represent Partner A's spouse's post-child actual paid labor contributions
Letter in parentheses (A) indicates source of the variable (Partner A).
b_1 , b_2 , b_3 , b_4 , and b_5 are the coefficients of needs, supplies, needs^2, needs x supplies, and supplies^2

Table 14. *Polynomial regression equations regressing Partner A's well-being on Partner A's family labor needs and supplies (Hypotheses 2, 4, 6, 8)*

	Partner A's well-being			
	Family satisfaction	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Phys health symptoms
Control variables				
Family responsib	.0278	.0255	-.0017	-.1494
Length marriage	-.0357	-.0363	.0176	.1947
Total family income	.0442	.0447	-.0027	-.7871*
Needs and supplies				
Partner A's family labor needs(A)	-.0063	-.0081	-.0069	.0019
Partner A's family labor supplies(A)	-.0005	-.0036	-.0023	-.0679*
Partner A's family labor needs^2	-.0001	-.0002	-.0001	-.0021
Partner A's family labor needs x Partner A's family labor supplies	.0008*	.0008*	-.0004	-.0023
Partner A's family labor supplies^2	-.0004*	-.0001	.0001	-.0004
Intercept	4.064	4.137	2.315	24.695
F	1.81†	2.50*	1.46	3.17**
df	8, 114	8, 114	8,111	8, 111
R^2	.113	.149	.095	.186
Needs = - Supplies (misft) line shape				
$b_1 - b_2$	-.0058	-.0046		.0698
$b_3 - b_4 + b_5$	-.0013*	-.0011†		-.0001
Needs = Supplies (fit) line shape				
$b_1 + b_2$	-.0068	-.0117*		-.0060†
$b_3 + b_4 + b_5$	.0003	.0006**		-.0048**

†$p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.
The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.
Partner A's needs represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's family labor contributions; Partner A's supplies represent Partner A's spouse's post-child actual family labor contributions
Letter in parentheses (A) indicates source of the variable (Partner A).
b_1 , b_2 , b_3 , b_4 , and b_5 are the coefficients of needs, supplies, needs^2, needs x supplies, and supplies^2

Table 15. *Hierarchical moderated regression involving the regression of Partner A's well-being on the interaction between career centrality and Partner A's paid labor fit (Hypothesis9)*

	Partner A's well-being			
	Career satisfaction	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Phys health symptoms
Control variables				
Family responsibility	.0031	-.0023	.0003	-.1217
Length of marriage	.0036	-.0125	.0128	.2057
Total family income	.0890	.0172	.0236	-.6494
Needs and supplies				
Partner A's paid labor needs (A)	.0246	.0006	.0230	-.029
Partner A's paid labor supplies (A)	-.0053	-.0083	-.0008	.2421
Partner A's paid labor needs^2	-.0009	.0003	-.0003	.0012
Partner A's paid labor needs x Partner A's paid labor supplies	.0009	-.0012	-.0005	-.0024
Partner A's paid labor supplies^2	.001	.001	.0007	-.0069
Career centrality	.2771*	-.1526	.0277	.2172
R^2	.195	.196	.124	.206
Interaction Terms				
Partner A's needs x career cent	-.0039	.0011	-.0068	.0052
Partner A's supplies x career cent	-.0041	.0030	.0033	-.0472
Partner A's needs^2 x career cent	.0002	-.0002	.0001	-.0005
Partner A's needs x Partner A's supplies x career cent	-.0002	.0006	-.0000	-.0005
Partner A's supplies^2 x career cent	-.0003	-.0004	-.0001	.0029
Intercept	2.069	4.995	2.007	22.281
R^2	.233	.263	.137	.188
ΔR^2	.038	.067†	.013	.018
F	3.05**	3.06**	1.73	1.74
df	14, 108	14, 108	14, 105	14, 105

†$p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.
A's needs represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor contributions
A's supplies represent Partner A's spouse's post-child actual paid labor contributions
Letter in parentheses (A) indicates source of the variable (Partner A).

Table 16. *Hierarchical moderated regression involving the regression of Partner A's well-being on the interaction between family centrality and Partner A's family labor fit (Hypothesis10)*

	Partner A's well-being			
	Family satisfaction	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Phys health symptoms
Control variables				
Family responsibility	.0175	.0146	.0087	-.0973
Length of marriage	-.0284	-.0322	.0092	.1384
Total family income	.0362	.0416	-.0053	-.7517*
Needs and supplies				
Partner A's family labor needs (A)	.0215	-.0111	.0954	-.7274
Partner A' family labor supplies (A)	-.0089	-.0806*	-.0299	-.3008
Partner A's family labor needs^2	-.0002	-.0004	.0006	.0204
Partner A's family labor needs x Partner A's family labor supplies	-.0011	.0038	-.0069	.0103
Partner A's family labor supplies^2	.0001	.0005	.0028	.0184
Family centrality	.4939	.4916**	-.2655	-.3166
R^2	.249	.285	.163	.199
Interaction Terms				
Partner A's needs x fam cent	-.0050	.0002	-.0222	.1442
Partner A's supplies x family cent	.0024	.0175*	.0058	.0453
Partner A's needs^2 x family cent	.0001	.0001	-.0003	-.0052
Partner A's needs x Partner A's supplies x family cent	.0004	-.0007	.0015	-.0014
Partner A's supplies^2 x family cent	-.0003	-.0001	-.0006	-.0043
Intercept	1.946	2.028	3.499	25.853
R^2	.257	.314	.194	.231
ΔR^2	.009	.029	.03	.032
F	4.16**	5.01**	2.29*	3.03**
df	14, 108	14, 108	14, 105	14, 105

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.
A's needs represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's family labor contributions
A's supplies represent Partner A's spouse's post-child actual family labor contributions
Letter in parentheses (A) indicates source of the variable (Partner A).

Table 17. *Hierarchical moderated regression involving the regression of Partner A's well-being on the interaction between gender and Partner A's paid labor fit (Hypothesis11)*

	Partner A's well-being			
	Career satisfaction	Marital satisfactio	Depression	Physical health symptoms
Control variables				
Family responsibility	-.0049	.0191	.0013	-.0825
Length of marriage	.0126	-.0317	.0154	.1173
Total family income	.0838	.0295	.0253	-.623*
Needs and supplies				
Partner A's paid labor needs (A)	-.0009	-.0025	.0122	.1417
Partner A's paid labor supplies (A)	-.0178	.0016	.0074	.0092
Partner A's paid labor needs^2	-.0005	.0001	-.0001	.0018
Partner A's paid labor needs x Partner A's paid labor supplies	.0008	.0001	.0001	.0013
Partner A's paid labor supplies^2	-.0003	-.0001	.0001	-.0038
Gender	.3474	.3948*	-.2170	.8958
R^2	.179	.209	.137	.182
Interaction Terms				
Partner A's needs x Gender	-.0076	.0069	-.0323	-.4181**
Partner A's supplies x Gender	.0018	-.0154	.0137	.1576
Partner A's needs^2 x Gender	.0006	-.0004	.0007	.0029
Partner A's needs x A's supplies x Gender	-.0008	.0011	-.0001	-.0079
Partner A's supplies^2 x Gender	.0005	-.0001	.0002	.0071
Intercept	2.914	4.104	2.248	23.732
Total R^2	.195	.255	.207	.297
ΔR^2	.016	.047	.069	.115**
F	1.87*	2.65**	1.96*	3.17**
df	14, 108	14, 108	14, 105	14, 105

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Gender is coded male = 0 female = 1

The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.

A's needs represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor contributions

A's supplies represent Partner A's spouse's post-child actual paid labor contributions

Letter in parentheses (A) indicates source of the variable (Partner A).

Table 18. *Hierarchical moderated regression involving the regression of Partner A's well-being on the interaction between gender and Partner A's family labor fit (Hypothesis12)*

	Partner A's well-being			
	Family satisfaction	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Phys health symptoms
Control variables				
Family responsibility	.0230	.0236	-.0004	-.1759
Length of marriage	-.0321	-.0391	.0186	.2265
Total family income	.0631	.0635	-.0148	-.6557
Needs and supplies				
Partner A's family labor needs (A)	-.0255	-.0215	.0090	-.1519
Partner A' family labor supplies (A)	-.0026	-.0028	-.0139	.0207
Partner A's family labor needs^2	.0002	.0001	-.0003	-.0002
Partner A's family labor needs x Partner A's family labor supplies	.0012	.0011*	-.0010	.0032
Partner A's family labor supplies^2	-.0003	-.0000	.0007	-.0045
Gender	-.0349	.1809	-.033	-.5695
R^2	.113	.16	.101	.189
Interaction Terms				
Partner A's needs x Gender	.0239	.0319	-.0155	-.0948
Partner A's supplies x Gender	-.0120	-.0102	.0112	-.1874
Partner A's needs^2 x Gender	-.0003	.0001	.0003	-.0118
Partner A's needs x A's supplies x Gender	-.0005	-.0001	.0008	-.0085
Partner A's supplies^2 x Gender	-.0007	-.0005	-.0006	.0025
Intercept	3.944	3.971	2.368	23.91
Total R^2	.163	.185	.127	.237
ΔR^2	.05	.025	.026	.048
F	1.51	1.76	1.09	2.33**
df	14, 108	14, 108	14, 105	14, 105

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.
Gender is coded male = 0 female = 1
A's needs represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's family labor contributions
A's supplies represent Partner A's spouse's post-child actual family labor contributions
Letter in parentheses (A) indicates source of the variable (Partner A).

Table 19. *Hierarchical moderated regression involving the regression of Partner A's well-being on the interaction between voice in paid labor decision making and Partner A's paid labor fit (Hypothesis 13)*

	Partner A's well-being			
	Career satisfaction	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Physical health symptoms
Control variables				
Family responsibility	-.0060	.0046	.0003	-.134
Length of marriage	.0172	-.0205	.0244	.1933
Total family income	.0925	.0126	-.0019	-.7751
Needs and supplies				
Partner A's paid labor needs(A)	.0095	.0301	.0070	.1575
Partner A's paid labor supplies (A)	-.0061	.0010	-.0164	.2174
Partner A's paid labor needs^2	.0002	.0014	-.0020*	-.0006
Partner A's paid labor needs x Partner A's paid labor supplies	.0013	-.0018	.0043*	.0101
Partner A's paid labor supplies^2	-.0013	.0022	.0002	.0034
Voice paid labor decs	.1036	.5145	-.1492	.2465
R^2	.175	.209	.140	.164
Interaction Terms				
Partner A's needs x Voice	.0001	-.0062	-.0013	-.0368
Partner A's supplies x Voice	-.0033	.0004	.0060	-.0331
Partner A's needs^2 x Voice	-.0001	-.0004	.0005*	.0000
Partner A's needs x Partner A's supplies x Voice	-.0003	.0006	-.0011*	-.0030
Partner A's supplies^2 x Voice	.0004	-.0006	.00003	-.0001
Intercept	2.496	2.289	2.825	23.103
Total R^2	.210	.306	.193	.188
ΔR^2	.035	.097*	.052	.024
F	1.99*	3.30**	1.79*	1.74
df	14, 105	14, 105	14, 105	14, 105

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.
The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.
A's needs represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor contributions
A's supplies represent Partner A's spouse's post-child actual paid labor contributions
Letter in parentheses (A) indicates source of the variable (Partner A).

Table 20. *Hierarchical moderated regression involving the regression of Partner A's well-being on the interaction between voice in family labor decision making and Partner A's paid labor fit (Hypothesis 14)*

	Partner A's well-being			
	Family satisfaction	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Physical health symptoms
Control variables				
Family responsibility	.0264	.0161	.0016	-.0899
Length of marriage	-.0349	-.0261	.0153	.1301
Total family income	.0307	.0153	.0007	-.8635
Needs and supplies				
Partner A's family labor needs (A)	-.0115	.0276	.0374	-.0124
Partner A's family labor supplies (A)	-.0278	-.0213	-.0022	-.2905
Partner A's family labor needs^2	-.0000	-.0054	.0007	.0298
Partner A's family labor needs x Partner A's family labor supplies	.0019	.0079*	-.002	-.0340
Partner A's family labor supplies^2	-.0013	-.001	.0004	.0034
Voice paid labor decs	.2162*	.3528**	-.1719	.1741
R^2	.199	.348	.136	.189
Interaction Terms				
Partner A's family labor needs x Voice	.0012	-.0068	-.0112	-.0076
Partner A's family labor supplies x Voice	.0068	.0040	.0004	.0613
Partner A's family labor needs^2 x Voice	-.0000	.0013	-.0002	-.0077
Partner A's family labor needs x Partner A's family labor supplies x Voice	-.0004	-.0019*	.0005	.0079
Partner A's family labor supplies^2 x Voice	.0003	.0003	-.0001	-.0012
Intercept	3.265	2.898	2.971	24.494
Total R^2	.237	.395	.155	.221
ΔR^2	.038	.047	.019	.032
F	2.34**	4.90**	1.38	2.13*
df	14, 105	14, 105	14, 105	14, 105

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.
A's needs represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's family labor contributions
A's supplies represent Partner A's spouse's post-child actual family labor contributions
Letter in parentheses (A) indicates source of the variable (Partner A).

Table 21. *Polynomial regression equations regressing Partner B's well-being on Partner B's paid labor demands and abilities (Hypotheses 15, 17, 19)*

	Partner B's well-being		
	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Phys health symptoms
Control variables			
Family responsibility	.0218	-.0013	-.0542
Length of marriage	-.0322	-.0149	-.2504
Total family income	.0534	-.0291	-.0272
Demands and abilities			
Partner B's paid labor demands (A)	.0002	.0021	-.0061
Partner B's paid labor abilities (B)	-.0054	-.0032	-.0202
Partner B's paid labor demands ^{2}	-.0001	.0001	.0022*
Partner B's paid labor x Partner B's paid labor abilities	.0003	-.0004	-.0032
Partner B's paid labor abilities^2	-.0002	.0001	.0011
Intercept	4.175	2.798	19.665
F	1.18	.55	1.47
df	8, 116	8, 116	8, 116
R^2	.075	.037	.077

* $p < .05$

The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.

B's demands represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's family labor contributions

B's abilities represent Partner B's post-child actual family labor contributions

Letter in parentheses (A or B) indicates source of the variable (Partner A or B).

Table 22. *Polynomial regression equations regressing Partner B's well-being on Partner B's family labor demands and abilities (Hypotheses 16, 18, 20)*

	Partner B's well-being		
	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Phys health symptoms
Control variables			
Family responsibility	.0214	.0039	.0287
Length of marriage	-.0302	-.0114	-.2232
Total family income	.0669	-.0328	-.1844
Demands and abilities			
Partner B's family labor demands (A)	.0064	-.0054	-.1224**
Partner B's family labor abilities (B)	-.0061	.0078	.1009*
Partner B's family labor demands ^{2}	.0001	.0002	-.0002
Partner B' family labor x Partner B's family labor abilities	-.0001	-.0007*	.0002
Partner B's family labor abilities^2	.0001	.0001	-.0016
Intercept	4.015	2.737	20.366
F	1.05	1.67	2.04*
df	8, 116	8, 116	8, 116
R^2	.067	.103	.123
Shape of Demands = - Abilities line			
$b_1 - b_2$			-.2233**
$b_3 - b_4 + b_5$			-.0021
Shape of Demands = Abilities line			
$b_1 + b_2$			-.0195
$b_3 \_ b_4 + b_5$			-.0016

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.

B's demands represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's family labor contributions

B's abilities represent Partner B's post-child actual family labor contributions

Letter in parentheses (A or B) indicates source of the variable (Partner A or B).

b_1 , b_2 , b_3 , b_4 , and b_5 are the coefficients of demands, abilities, demands^2, demands x abilities, and abilities^2

Table 23. *Hierarchical moderated regression involving the regression of Partner B's well-being on the interaction between gender and Partner B's paid labor fit (Hypothesis 21)*

	Partner B's well-being		
	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Phys health symptoms
Control variables			
Family responsibility	.0153	.0053	-.0002
Length of marriage	-.0204	-.0173	-.2908
Total family income	.0651	-.0414	-.2219
Demands and abilities			
Partner B's paid labor demands (A)	.0079	-.0043	-.0728
Partner B's paid labor abilities (B)	.003	-.0076	-.0556
Partner B's paid labor demands^2	-.0002	.0003	.0036*
Partner B's paid labor x Partner B's paid labor abilities	-.0004	-.0002	.0001
Partner B's paid labor abilities^2	.0005	.0000	.0005
Gender (B)	.106	.0932	.8047
R^2	.077	.05	.103
Interaction Terms			
Partner B's demands (A) x Gender	.0016	-.0095	.0012
Partner B's abilities (B) x Gender	-.022	.0097	-.0024
Partner B's demands^2 x Gender	.0005	-.0007	-.0031
Partner B's demands x B's abilities x Gender	.0005	-.0001	-.0063
Partner B's abilities^2 x Gender	-.001*	.0001	.0013
Intercept	3.960	2.782	20.317
Total R^2	.171	.087	.138
ΔR^2	.094*	.037	.034
F	1.62	.75	1.25
df	14, 110	14, 110	14, 110

* $p < .05$
The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights. Gender is coded male = 0 female = 1
B's demands represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor contributions
B's abilities represent Partner B's post-child actual paid labor contributions
Letter in parentheses (A or B) indicates source of the variable (Partner A or B).

Table 24. *Hierarchical moderated regression involving the regression of Partner B's well-being on the interaction between gender and Partner B's family labor fit (Hypothesis 22)*

	Partner B's well-being		
	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Physical health symptoms
Control variables			
Family responsibility	.0185	.0094	.0010
Length of marriage	-.0295	-.0154	-.1971
Total family income	.0593	-.0518	-.3756
Demands and abilities			
Partner B's family labor demands (A)	.0327	.0073	-.0019
Partner B's family labor abilities (B)	-.0099	.0192*	.0571
Partner B's family labor demands ^{2}	.0009	.0010	.0123
Partner B's family labor x Partner B's family labor abilities	.0005	-.0006	-.0118
Partner B's family labor abilities^2	-.0003	.0004	.0037
Gender (B)	-.0931	.1076	2.5929
R^2	.069	.104	.140
Interaction Terms			
Partner B's demands (A) x Gender	-.0254	.0127	-.0469
Partner B's abilities (B) x Gender	.0119	-.0306	.1294
Partner B's demands ^{2} x Gender	-.0008	-.0012	-.0159
Partner B's demands x Partner B's abilities x Gender	-.0008	-.0007	.0136
Partner B's abilities^2 x Gender	.0003	.0002	-.0088*
Intercept	4.134	4.072	20.796
Total R^2	.097	.183	.213
ΔR^2	.028	.079†	.073†
F	.84	1.76	2.13*
df	14, 110	14, 110	14, 110

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$
The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights. Gender is coded male = 0 female = 1
B's demands represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's family labor contributions
B's abilities represent Partner B's post-child actual family labor contributions
Letter in parentheses (A or B) indicates source of the variable (Partner A or B).

Table 25. *Hierarchical moderated regression involving the regression of Partner B's well-being on the interaction between satisfaction with current division of paid labor and Partner B's paid labor fit (Hypothesis 23)*

	Partner B's well-being		
	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Phys health symptoms
Control variables			
Family responsibility	.0163	.0094	.0500
Length of marriage	-.0263*	-.0204	-.3835*
Total family income	.0648	-.0479	-.1353
Demands and abilities			
Partner B's paid labor demands (A)	-.0149	.0132	.0103
Partner B's paid labor abilities (B)	-.0361	-.0000	.0043
Partner B's paid labor demands ^{2}	.0000	.0007*	.0095**
Partner B's paid labor x Partner B's paid labor abilities	-.0021**	.0003	-.0118
Partner B's paid labor abilities^2	-.0001*	.0003	.0009
Satisfaction with current division of paid labor (B)	.1184	-.0762	-.7842
R^2	.132	.119	.154
Interaction Terms			
Partner B's demands (A) x Satisfaction	.0038	-.0035	-.0087
Partner B's abilities (B) x Satisfaction	.0085	-.0005	-.0059
Partner B's demands ^{2} x Satisfaction	.0000	-.0002*	-.0023**
Partner B's demands x Partner B's abilities x Satisfaction	.0005**	-.0001	.0033
Partner B's abilities^2 x Satisfaction	.0001	-.0001	-.0006
Intercept	3.582	3.207	23.688
Total R^2	.268	.207	.224
ΔR^2	.136**	.088*	.07†
F	2.87**	2.05*	2.27**
df	14, 110	14, 110	14, 110

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.

B's demands represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's paid labor contributions

B's abilities represent Partner B's post-child actual paid labor contributions

Letter in parentheses (A or B) indicates source of the variable (Partner A or B).

Table 26. *Hierarchical moderated regression involving the regression of Partner B's well-being on the interaction between satisfaction with current division of family labor and Partner B's family labor fit (Hypothesis 24)*

	Partner B's well-being		
	Marital satisfaction	Depression	Phys health symptoms
Control variables			
Family responsibility	.0216	.0018	.0281
Length of marriage	-.0395*	-.0045	-.2489
Total family income	.0915*	-.0404	-.3298
Demands and abilities			
Partner B's family labor demands (A)	.0751*	-.0614*	-.5681*
Partner B's family labor abilities (B)	-.0134	.0080	.1627
Partner B's family labor demands ^{2}	-.0006	.0007	.0086
Partner B's family labor x Partner B's family labor abilities	-.0027*	.0009	.0040
Partner B's family labor abilities^2	.0007	.0003	-.0028
Satisfaction with current division of family labor (B)	.2277**	-.1495*	-.2362
R^2	.199	.214	.131
Interaction Terms			
Partner B's demands (A) x Satisfaction	-.0194*	.0161*	.1222
Partner B's abilities (B) x Satisfaction	.0031	-.0015	-.0175
Partner B's demands ^{2} x Satisfaction	.0002	-.0001	-.0027
Partner B's demands x Partner B's abilities x Satisfaction	.0007	-.0004	-.0007
Partner B's abilities^2 x Satisfaction	-.0001	-.0002	.0003
Intercept	3.04	3.350	22.432
Total R^2	.260	.294	.051
ΔR^2	.061	.080*	.027
F	2.76*	3.27**	1.47
df	14, 110	14, 110	14, 110

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

The coefficients listed are the unstandardized b weights.

B's demands represent Partner A's pre-child desires for spouse's family labor contributions

B's abilities represent Partner B's post-child actual family labor contributions

Letter in parentheses (A or B) indicates source of the variable (Partner A or B).

Table 27. *Summary of hypothesis testing*

Hypoth.	Variables	Supported
1	Paid needs-supplies and career satisfaction	Partial
2	Family needs-supplies and family satisfaction	√
3	Paid needs-supplies and marital satisfaction	√
4	Family needs-supplies and marital satisfaction	√
5	Paid needs-supplies and depression	√
6	Family needs-supplies and depression	X
7	Paid needs-supplies and physical health symptoms	√
8	Family needs-supplies and physical health symptoms	X
9a	Paid needs-supplies x career centrality and career satisfaction	X
9b	Paid needs-supplies x career centrality and marital satisfaction	Partial
9c	Paid needs-supplies x career centrality and depression	X
9d	Paid needs-supplies x career centrality and physical health symptoms	X
10a	Family needs-supplies x family centrality and family satisfaction	X
10b	Family needs-supplies x family centrality and marital satisfaction	X
10c	Family needs-supplies x family centrality and depression	X
10d	Family needs-supplies x family centrality and phy health symptoms	X
11a	Paid needs-supplies x gender and career satisfaction	X
11b	Paid needs-supplies x gender and marital satisfaction	X
11c	Paid needs-supplies x gender and depression	X
11d	Paid needs-supplies x gender and physical health symptoms	X~
12a	Family needs-supplies x gender and family satisfaction	X
12b	Family needs-supplies x gender and marital satisfaction	X
12c	Family needs-supplies x gender and depression	X
12d	Family needs-supplies x gender and physical health symptoms	X
13a	Paid needs-supplies x voice and career satisfaction	X
13b	Paid needs-supplies x voice and marital satisfaction	X~
13c	Paid needs-supplies x voice and depression	X
13d	Paid needs-supplies x voice and physical health symptoms	X
14a	Family needs-supplies x voice and family satisfaction	X
14b	Family needs-supplies x voice and marital satisfaction	X
14c	Family needs-supplies x voice and depression	X
14d	Family needs-supplies x voice and physical health symptoms	X
15	Paid demands-abilities fit and marital satisfaction	X
16	Family demands-abilities and marital satisfaction	X
17	Paid demands-abilities and depression	X
18	Family demands-abilities and depression	X
19	Paid demands-abilities and physical health symptoms	X
20	Family demands-abilities and physical health symptoms	Partial
21a	Paid demands-abilities fit x gender and marital satisfaction	X~
21b	Paid demands-abilities fit x gender and depression	X
21c	Paid demands-abilities fit x gender and physical health symptoms	X
22a	Family demands-abilities fit x gender and marital satisfaction	X
22b	Family demands-abilities fit x gender and depression	X~
22c	Family demands-abilities fit x gender and physical health symptoms	X~
23a	Paid demands-abilities fit x satisfaction and marital satisfaction	X~
23b	Paid demands-abilities fit x satisfaction and depression	X~

23c	Paid demands-abilities fit x satisfaction and physical health symptoms	X~
24a	Family demands-abilities fit x satisfaction and marital satisfaction	X
24b	Family demands-abilities fit x satisfaction and depression	X~
24c	Family demands-abilities fit x satisfaction and phys health symptoms	X

√ indicates full support, X indicates no support, X~ indicates significant results but nature of moderation different than predicted.

Table 28. *T-test results comparing Partner As that not are not matched to partner As that are matched pre- and post- randomization.*

Column Number *Hypotheses Variables*	1 Non-matched (N = 452)	2 Pre-randomized matched (N = 126)	*F* (1 vs. 2)	3 Randomized matched (N = 126)	*F* (1 vs. 3)
Pre-child desires for spouse fam labor (needs for A/demands for B)	43.68 (11.22)	44.47 (11.31)	.71	49.77 (12.51)	5.23**
Post-child spouse's actual fam labor (supplies)	33.31 (15.06)	37.66 (15.14)	2.88**	46.94(17.06)	8.57**
Pre-child desires for spouse paid labor (needs for A/demands for B)	64.94 (17.74)	62.11 (17.64)	1.60	50.36 (21.16)	7.05**
Post-child spouse's actual paid labor (supplies)	59.65 (17.74)	54.45 (15.69)	3.22**	48.26 (15.83)	6.89**
Family satisfaction	4.34 (.60)	4.34 (.62)	.82	4.33 (.62)	1.00
Career satisfaction	3.75 (.75)	3.81 (.68)	.73	3.68 (.80)	.95
Marital satisfaction	4.43 (.73)	4.54 (.66)	1.47	4.46 (.64)	.45
Depression	2.41 (.61)	2.47 (.60)	.99	2.41 (.64)	.06
Physical health	19.04 (5.56)	18.78 (5.27)	.53	18.32 (4.79)	1.38
Gender	.98 (.15)	.94 (.24)	1.78	.50 (.50)	10.56**
Career centrality	3.12 (.72)	3.27 (.69)	2.07*	3.32 (.73)	2.73**
Family centrality	4.73 (.40)	4.71 (.43)	.53	4.53 (.54)	2.96**
Voice in family labor decisions	3.97 (.80)	4.08 (.80)	1.38	4.02 (.82)	
Voice in paid labor	4.21 (.68)	4.39 (.62)	2.63**	4.31 (.64)	1.40
Satisfaction with current family labor division	3.43 (1.05)	3.61 (1.05)	1.73	3.66 (.99)	2.19
Satisfaction with current paid labor division	3.75 (.96)	3.92 (1.02)	1.72	3.87 (.95)	1.20
Control variables					
Family income	6.84 (1.48)	7.03 (1.49)	1.22	7.03 (1.49)	1.22
Length of marriage	8.26 (3.81)	8.19 (3.51)	.20	8.19 (3.51)	.20
Family responsibility	10.5 (3.68)	10.83 (4.24)	.85	10.83 (4.24)	.85
Total number children	1.75 (.72)	1.80 (.80)	.69	1.80 (.80)	.69
Number children under age 6	1.37 (.54)	1.43 (.57)	1.16	1.43 (.57)	1.16

Number children over age 6	1.43 (.57)	.40 (.73)	1.12	.40 (.73)	1.12
Demographics					
Age	35.22 (4.21)	35.02 (4.03)	.49	35.58 (4.34)	.84
Career Stage	2.38 (.62)	2.30 (.58)	1.29	2.27 (.57)	1.94
Education Level	6.26 (1.18)	6.49 (1.18)	1.99*	6.14 (1.38)	.84
Weekly work hours	37.09 (13.47)	38.65	1.19	42.24 (12.58)	3.82

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 29. *Description of shape of fit line for significant moderator relationships*

Hyp	Variables	Low	Med/Male	High/Female
9b	Paid needs-supplies x career centrality and marital satisfaction	Linear increase	U - shaped	U - shaped
11d	Paid needs-supplies x gender and physical health symptoms		Linear increase	Slight linear decrease
13b	Paid needs-supplies x voice and marital satisfaction	Linear increase	Linear increase	Flat
21a	Paid demands-abilities fit x gender and marital satisfaction		Sharp increase with slight decrease at high levels of fit (> 80)	Relatively flat; slight inverted U shape
22b	Family demands-abilities fit x gender and depression		Linear increase	Increase with slight decrease at high levels of fit (> 80)
22c	Family demands-abilities fit x gender and physical health symptoms		U- shaped	Relatively flat; slight inverted U shape
23a	Paid demands-abilities fit x satisfaction and marital satisfaction	Relatively flat; slight inverted U shape	Flat	Slight decrease to medium levels, sharp increase past
23b	Paid demands-abilities fit x satisfaction and depression	Flat	Flat	Inverted U shape
23c	Paid demands-abilities fit x satisfaction and physical health symptoms	Flat	Flat	Flat
24b	Family demands-abilities fit x satisfaction and depression	Linear decrease	Increase with slight decrease at high levels of fit (> 80)	Increase with slight decrease at high levels of fit (> 70)

The shape described is the pattern of the fit line as the level at which fit occurs increases.

Figure 1. *Model of division of family labor hypotheses*

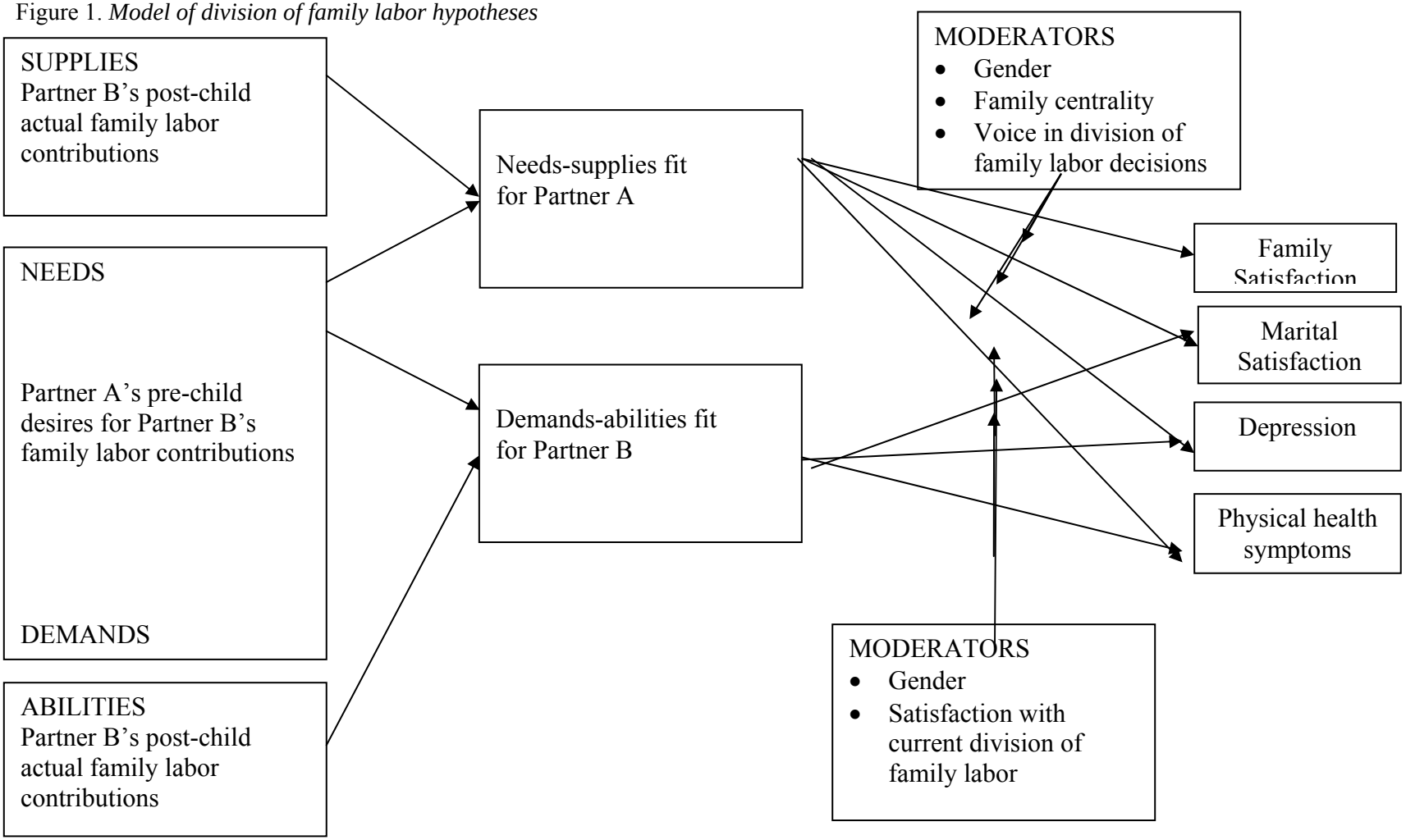


Figure 2. *Model of division of paid labor hypotheses*

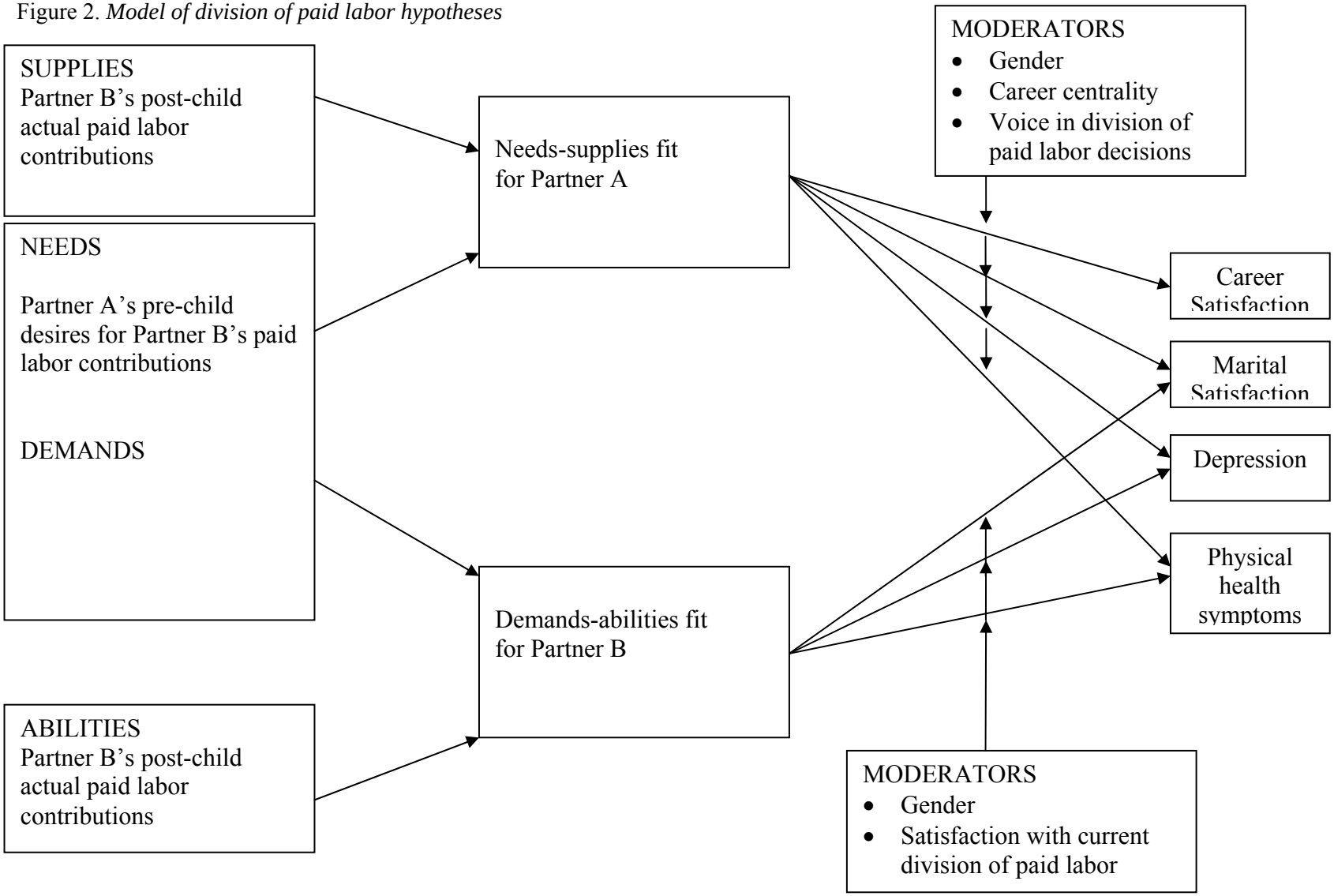


Figure 3. *Predicted pattern of relationships in Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 15, and 16*

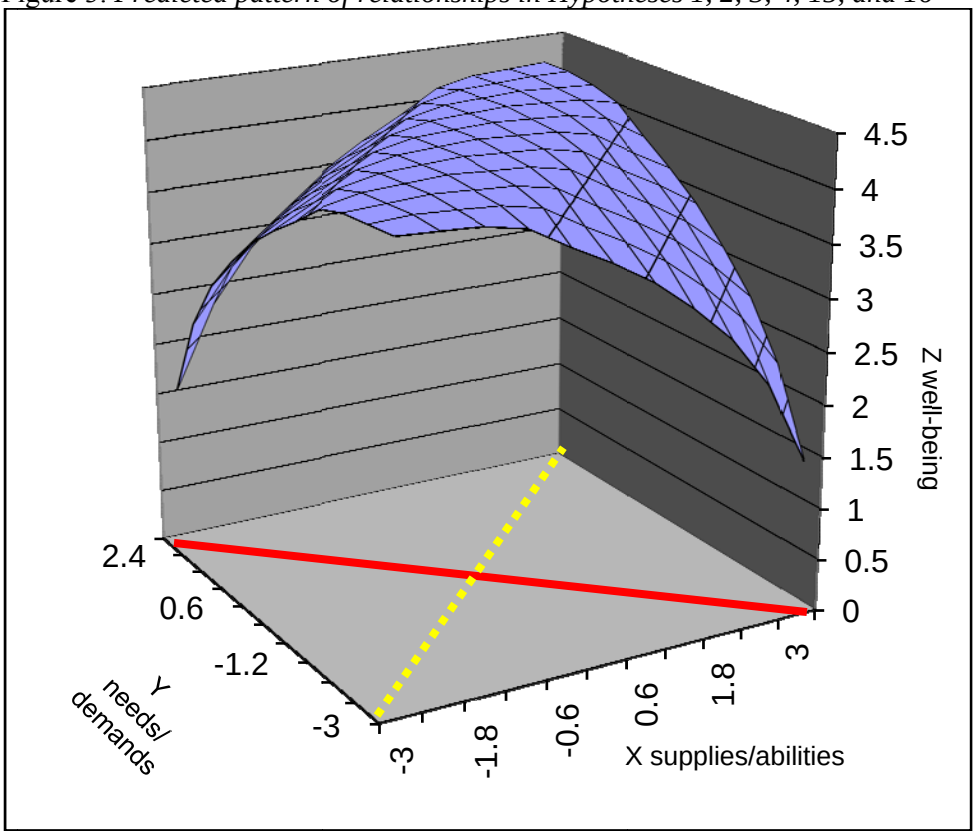


Figure 4. *Predicted pattern relationships in Hypotheses 5, 6, 7, 8, 17, 18, 19, 20*

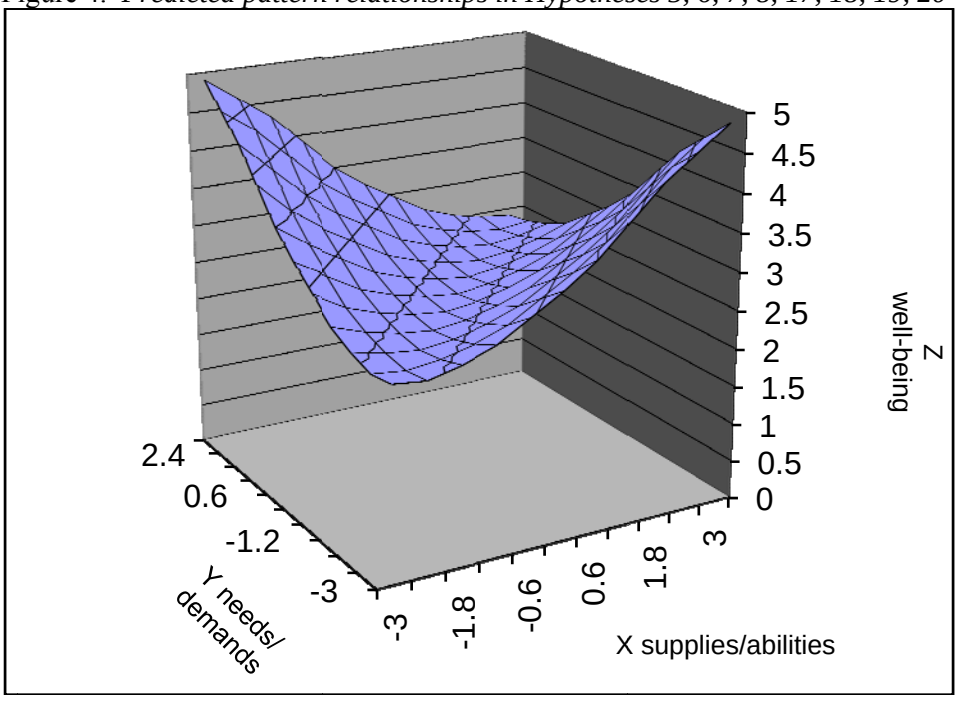
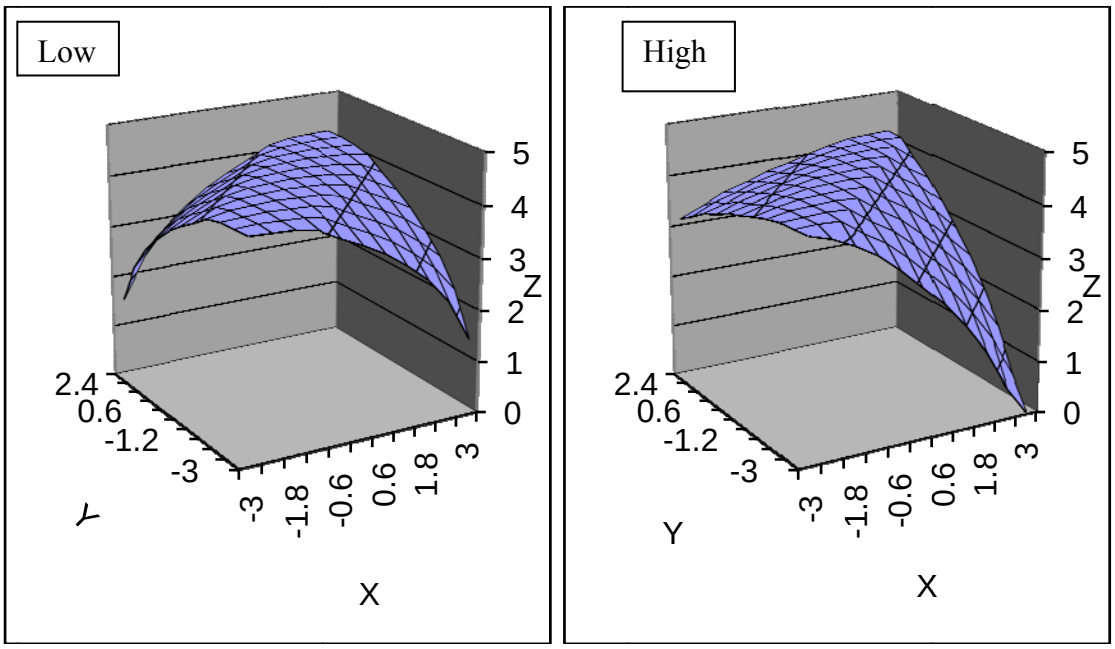
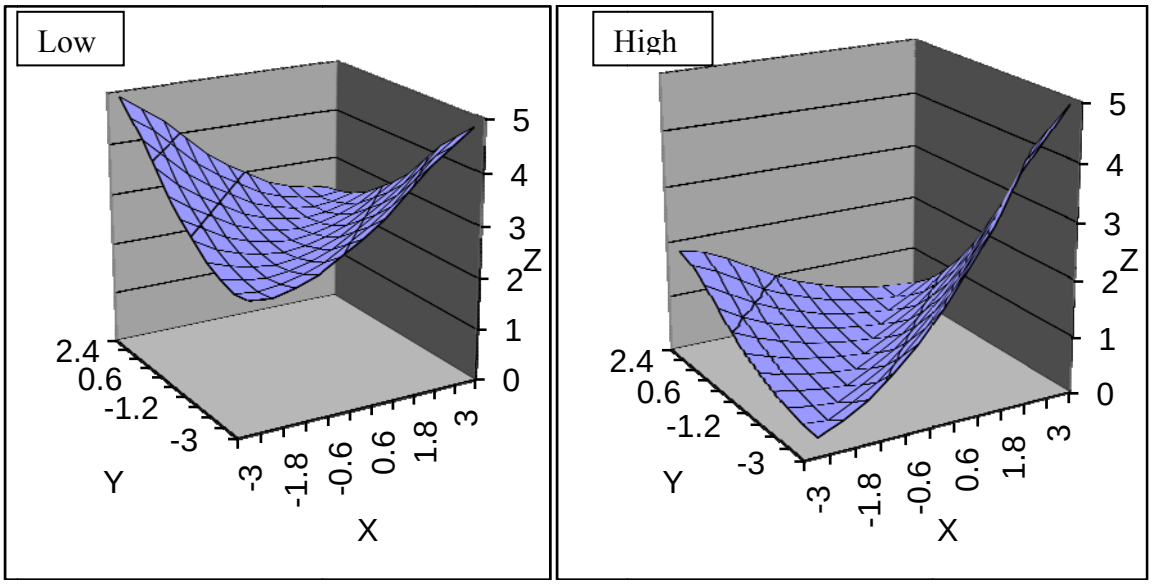


Figure 5. *Predicted pattern of relationships for parts a and b of Hypotheses 9 and 10*



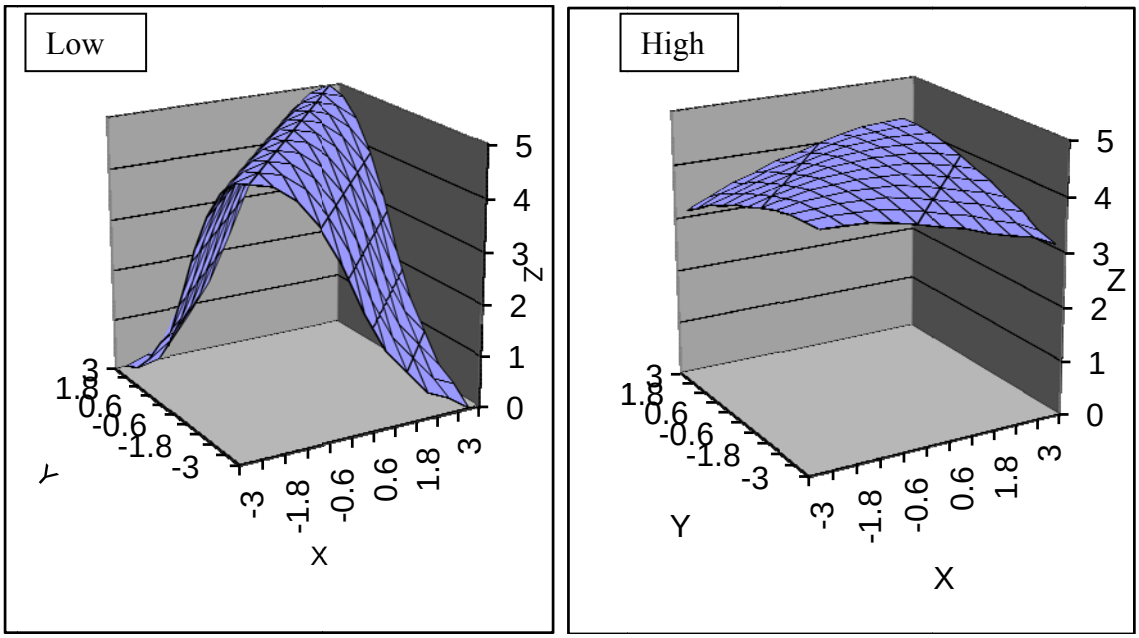
Note: The figure labeled Low represents the predicted relationship when partner A's domain centrality is lower, and the figure labeled High represents the predicted relationship when partner A's domain centrality is higher. The X axis represents abilities, the Y axis represents demands, and the Z axis represents the dependent well-being variable.

Figure 6. *Predicted pattern of relationships for parts c and d of Hypotheses 9 and 10*



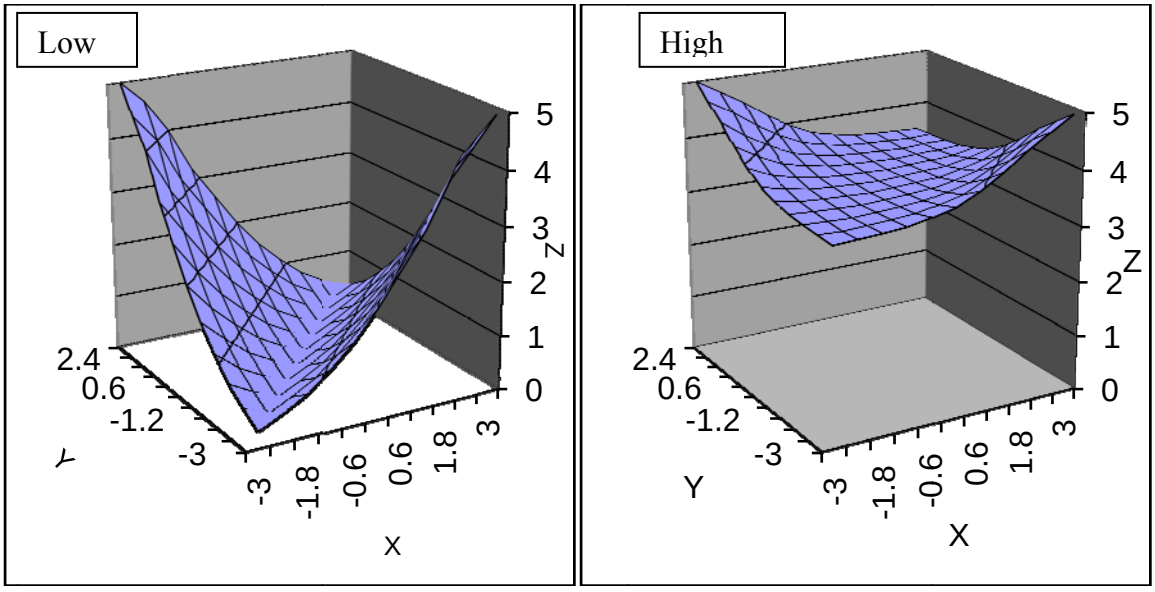
Note: The figure labeled Low represents the predicted relationship when partner A's domain centrality is lower, and the figure labeled High represents the predicted relationship when partner A's domain centrality is higher. The X axis represents abilities, the Y axis represents demands, and the Z axis represents the dependent well-being variable.

Figure 7. *Predicted pattern of relationships for parts a and b of Hypotheses 11, 12, 13, 14, and part a of Hypotheses 23, and 24*



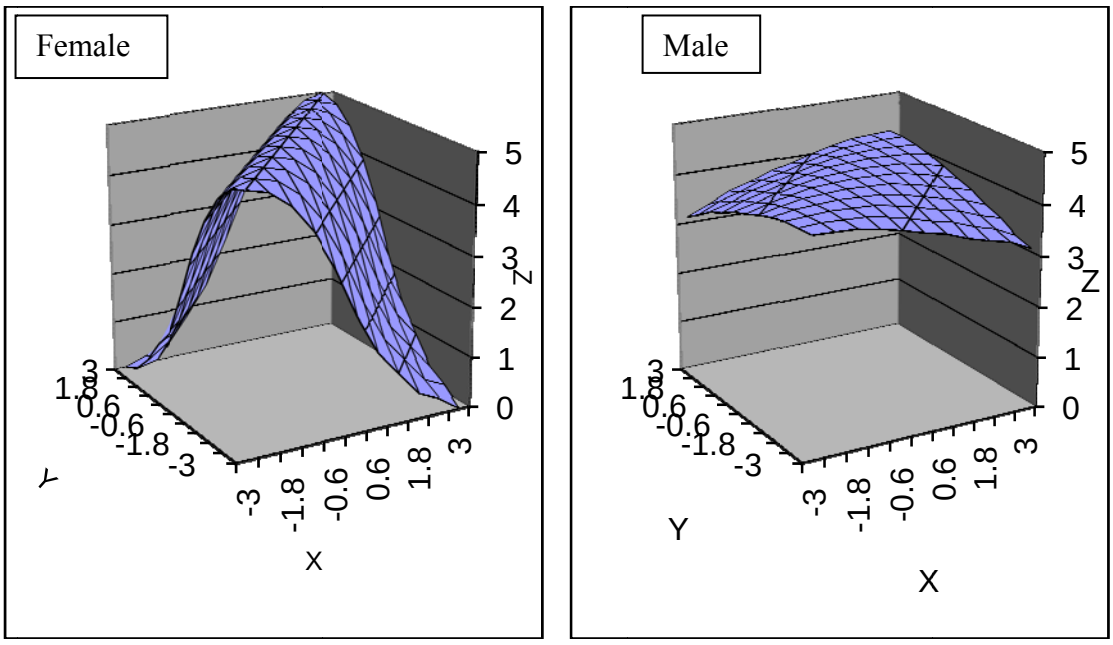
Note: The figure labeled Low represents the predicted relationship when partner A is a male (Hypotheses 11 and 12), when partner A's voice in division of labor decisions is lower (Hypotheses 13 and 14), and when partner B's satisfaction with current labor divisions is lower (Hypotheses 23 and 24). The figure labeled High represents the predicted relationship when partner A is a female (Hypotheses 11 and 12), when partner A's voice in division of labor decisions is higher (Hypotheses 13 and 14), and when partner B's satisfaction with current labor divisions is higher (Hypotheses 23 and 24). The X axis represents supplies/abilities, the Y axis represents needs/demands, and the Z axis represents the dependent well-being variable.

Figure 8. *Predicted pattern of relationships for parts c and d of Hypotheses 11, 12, 13, 14, and parts b and c of Hypotheses 23, and 24*



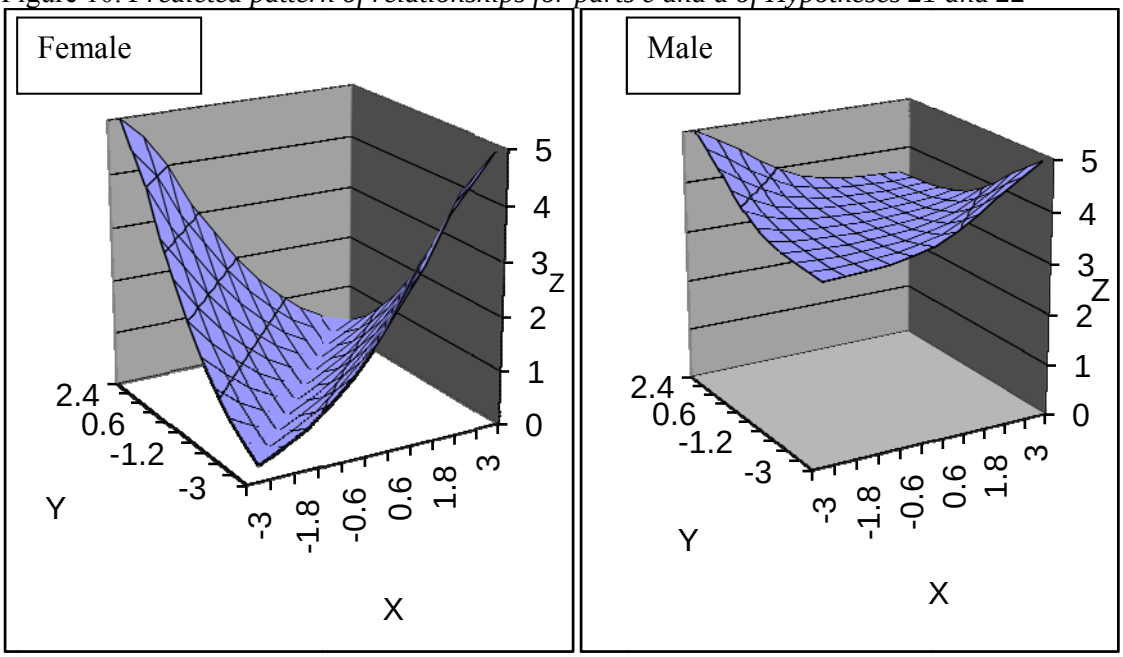
Note: The figure labeled Low represents the predicted relationship when partner A is a male (Hypotheses 11 and 12), when partner A's voice in division of labor decisions is lower (Hypotheses 13 and 14), and when partner B's satisfaction with current labor divisions is lower (Hypotheses 23 and 24). The figure labeled High represents the predicted relationship when partner A is a female (Hypotheses 11 and 12), when partner A's voice in division of labor decisions is higher (Hypotheses 13 and 14), and when partner B's satisfaction with current labor divisions is higher (Hypotheses 23 and 24). The X axis represents supplies/abilities, the Y axis represents needs/demands, and the Z axis represents the dependent well-being variable.

Figure 9. *Predicted pattern of relationships for part a Hypotheses 21 and 22*



Note: The figure labeled Female represents the predicted relationship when partner B is a female, and the figure labeled Male represents the predicted relationship when partner B is a male. The X axis represents abilities, the Y axis represents demands, and the Z axis represents the dependent well-being variable.

Figure 10. *Predicted pattern of relationships for parts c and d of Hypotheses 21 and 22*



Note: The figure labeled Female represents the predicted relationship when partner B is a female, and the figure labeled Male represents the predicted relationship when partner B is a male. The X axis represents abilities, the Y axis represents demands, and the Z axis represents the dependent well-being variable.

Figure 11. *Response surface for paid labor need-supplies fit and career satisfaction for Partner A (Hypothesis1)*

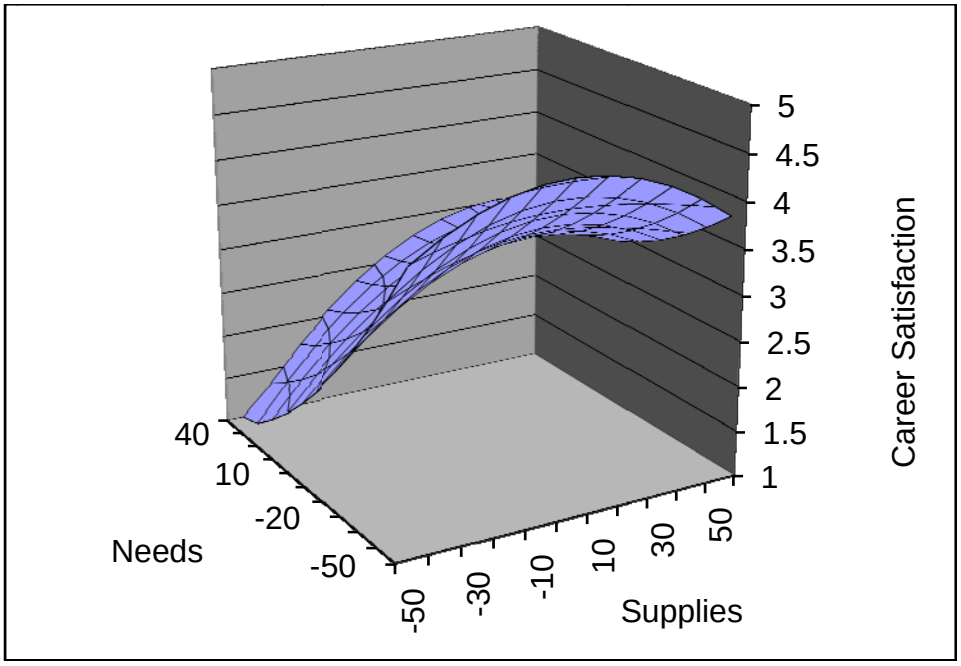


Figure 12. *Response surface for family labor need-supplies fit and family satisfaction for Partner A (Hypothesis2)*

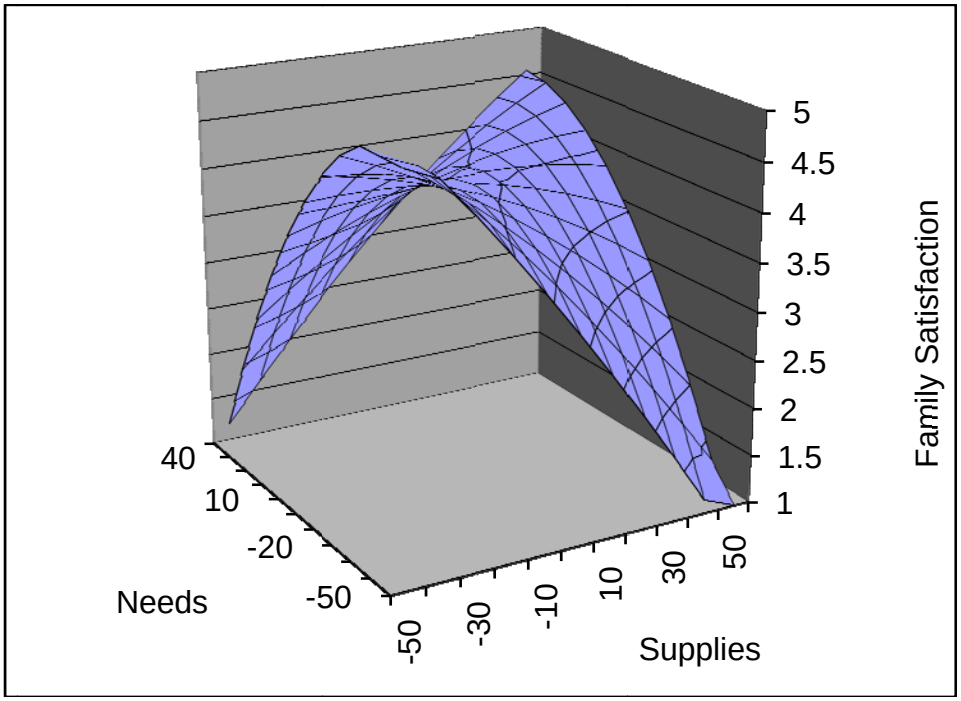


Figure 13. *Response surface for paid labor need-supplies fit and marital satisfaction for Partner A (Hypothesis3)*

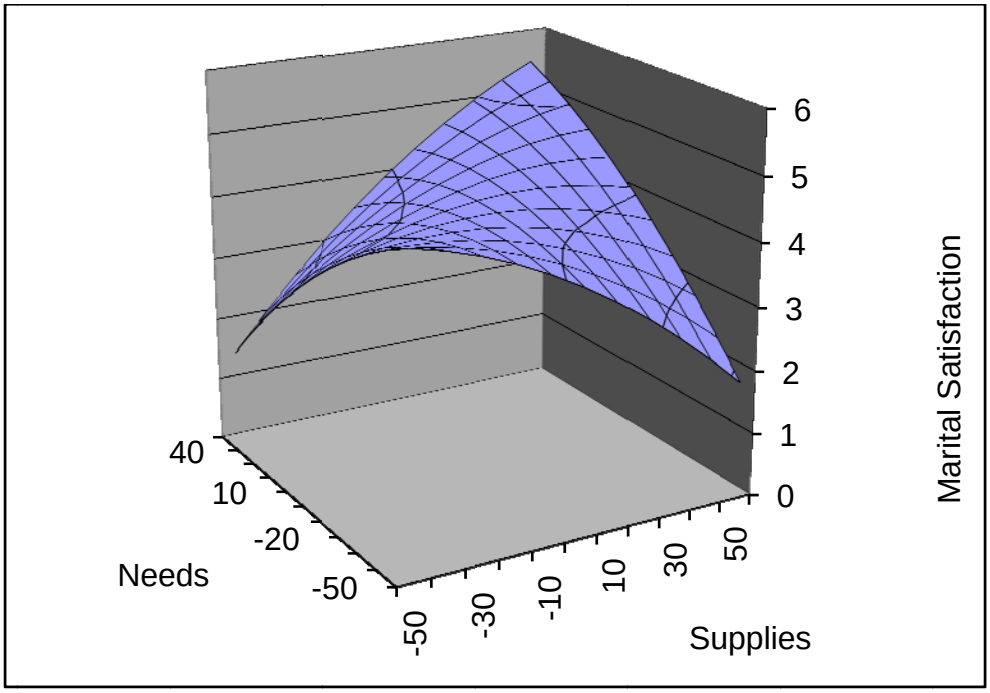


Figure 14. *Response surface for family labor need-supplies fit and marital satisfaction for Partner A (Hypothesis4)*

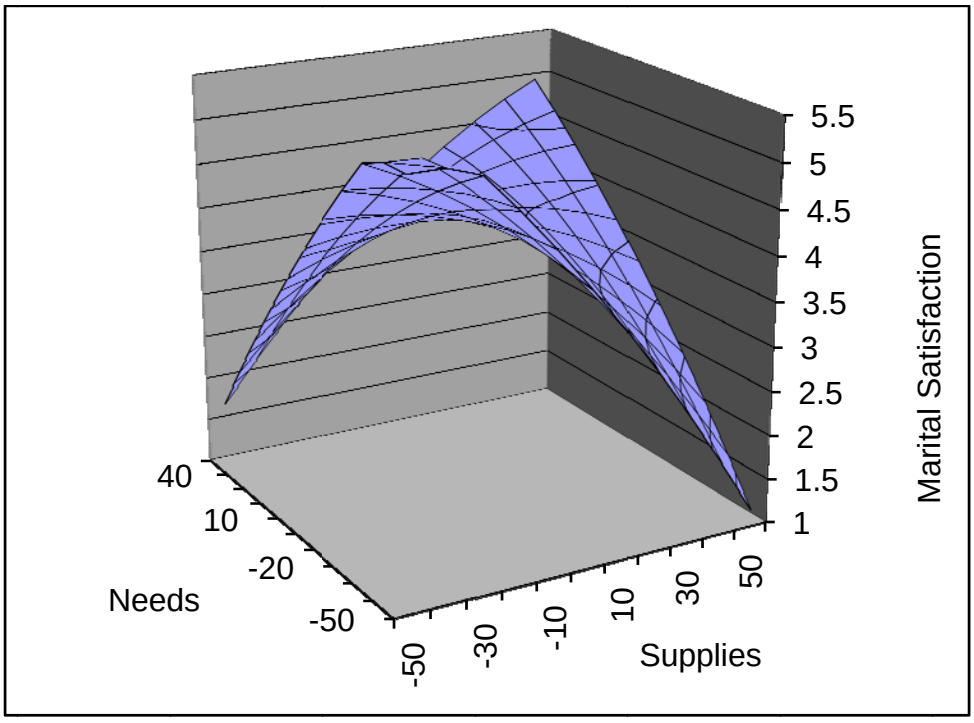


Figure 15. *Response surface for paid labor need-supplies fit and depression for Partner A (Hypothesis5)*

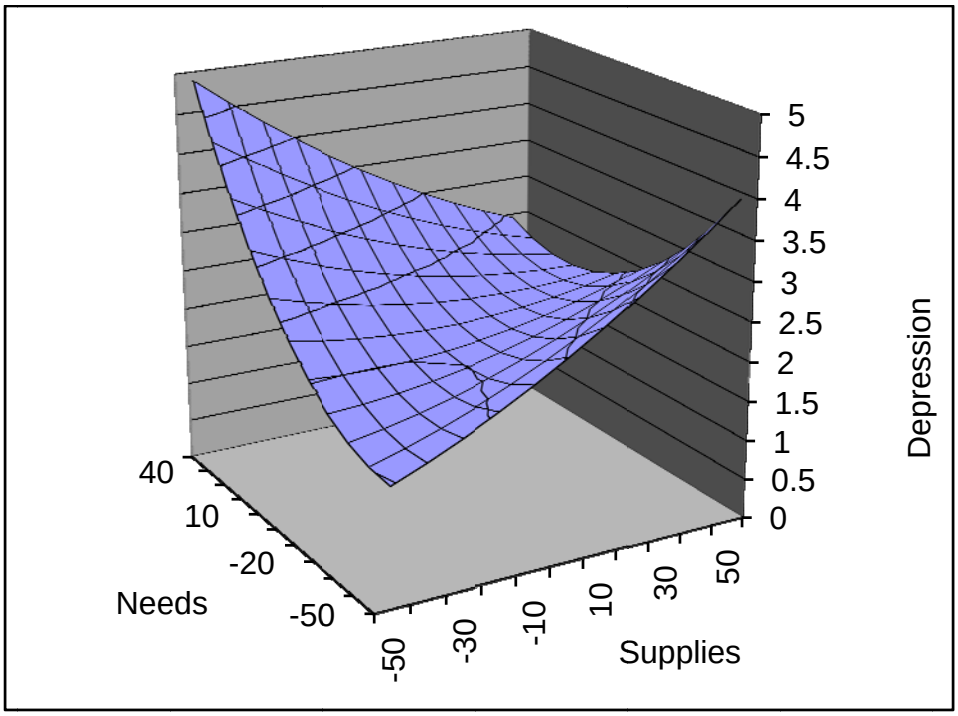


Figure 16. *Response surface for paid labor need-supplies fit and physical health symptoms for Partner A (Hypothesis7)*

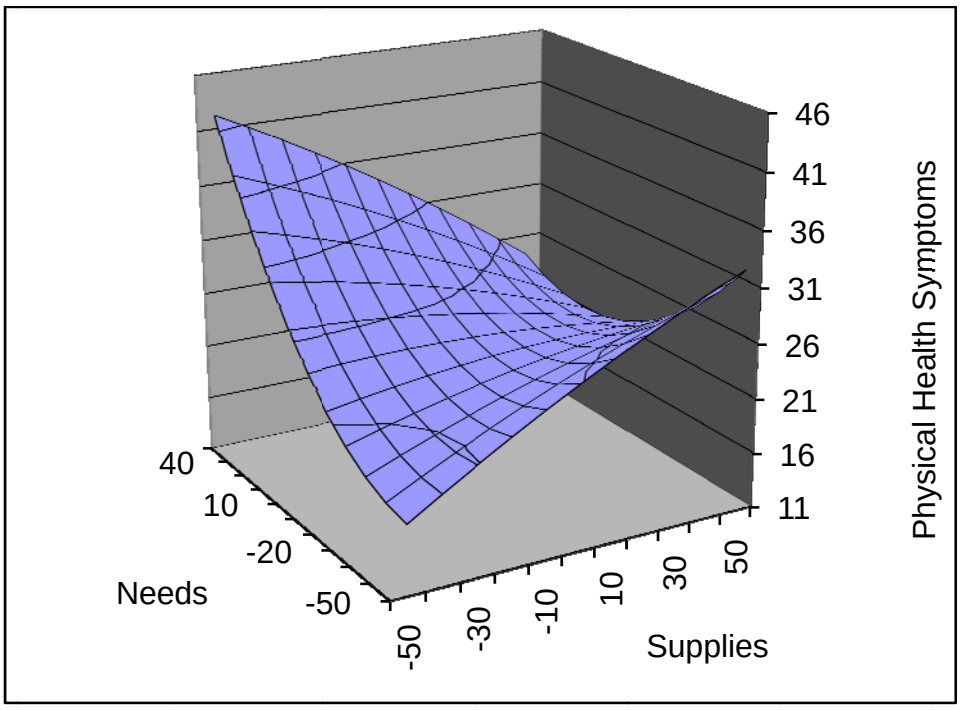
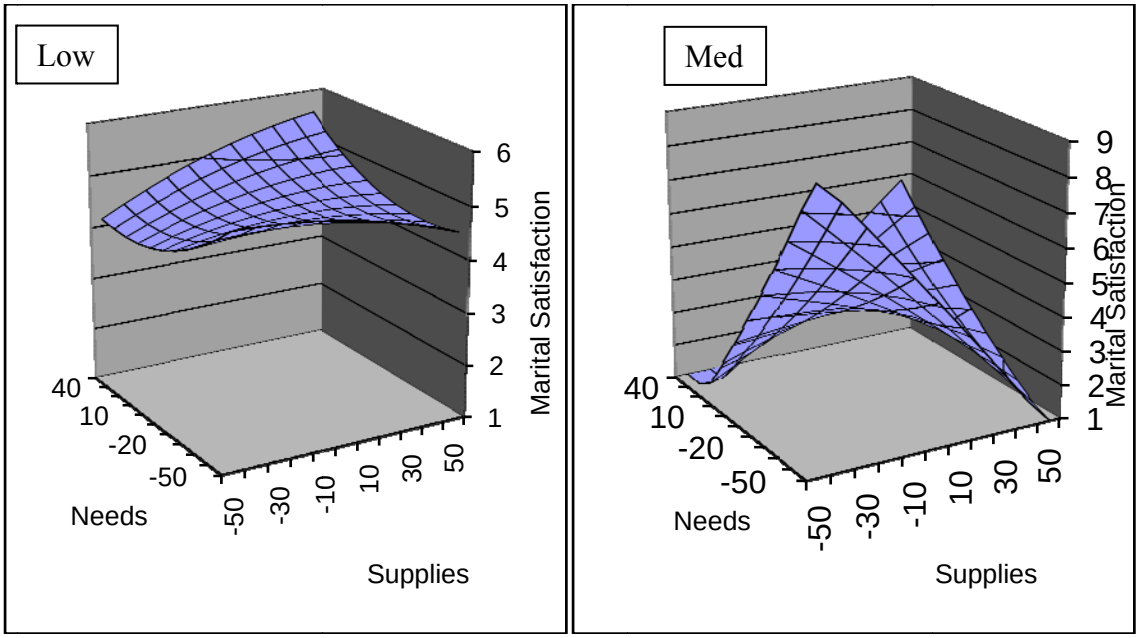


Figure 17. *Response surface for moderating role of career centrality between the relationship of paid labor need-supplies fit and marital satisfaction for Partner A (Hypothesis9b)*



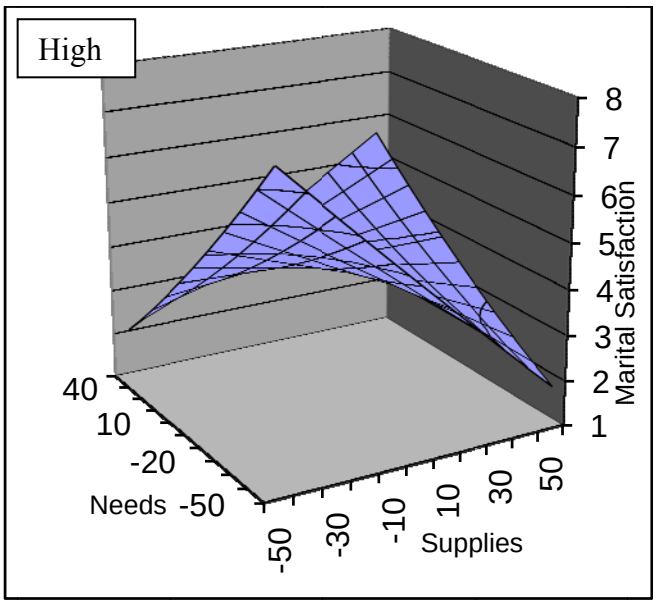


Figure 18. *Response surface for moderating role of gender between the relationship of paid labor need-supplies fit and physical health symptoms for Partner A (Hypothesis11d)*

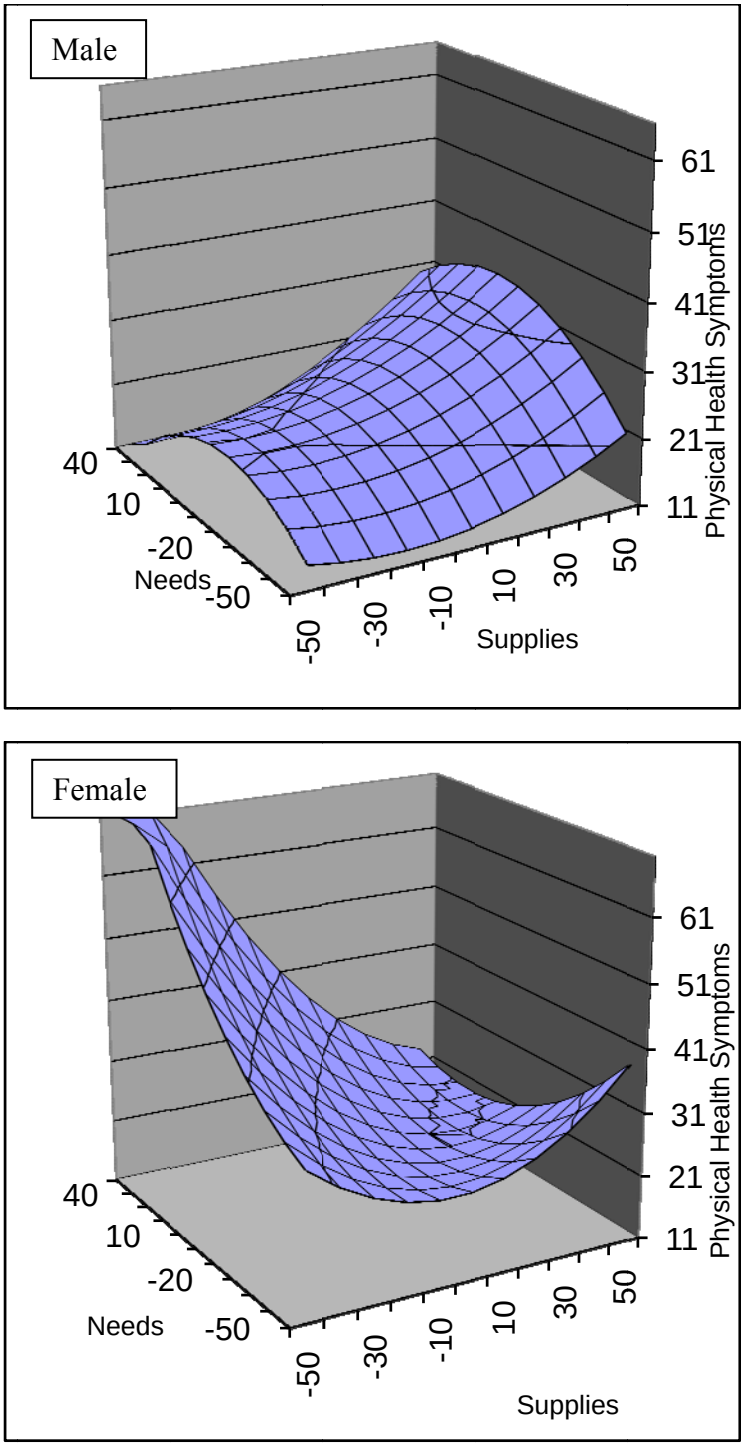


Figure 19. *Response surface for moderating role of voice in division of paid labor decision making between the relationship of paid labor need-supplies fit and marital satisfaction for Partner A (Hypothesis13b)*

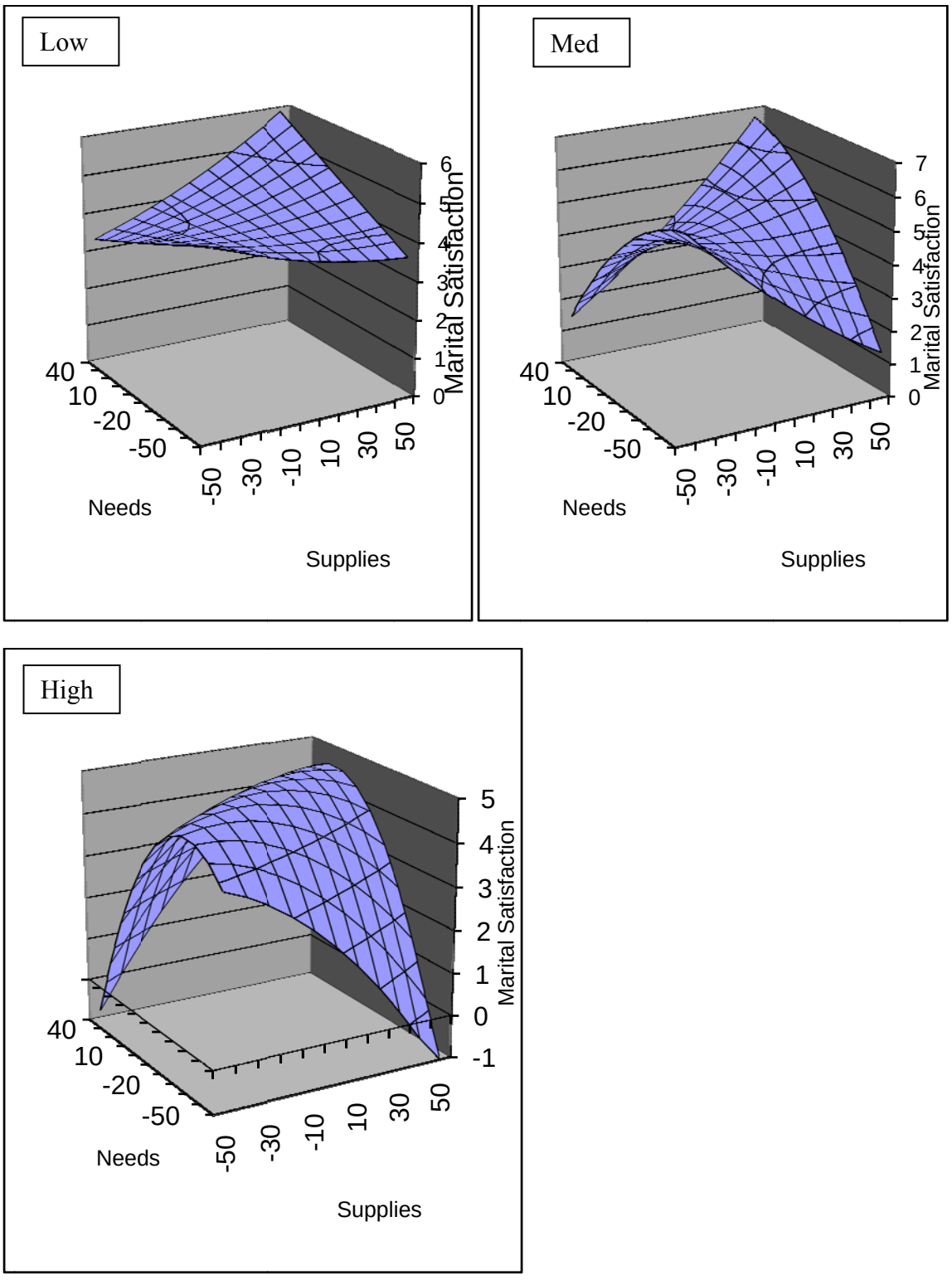


Figure 20. *Response surface for family labor demands-abilities fit and physical health symptoms for Partner B (Hypothesis20)*

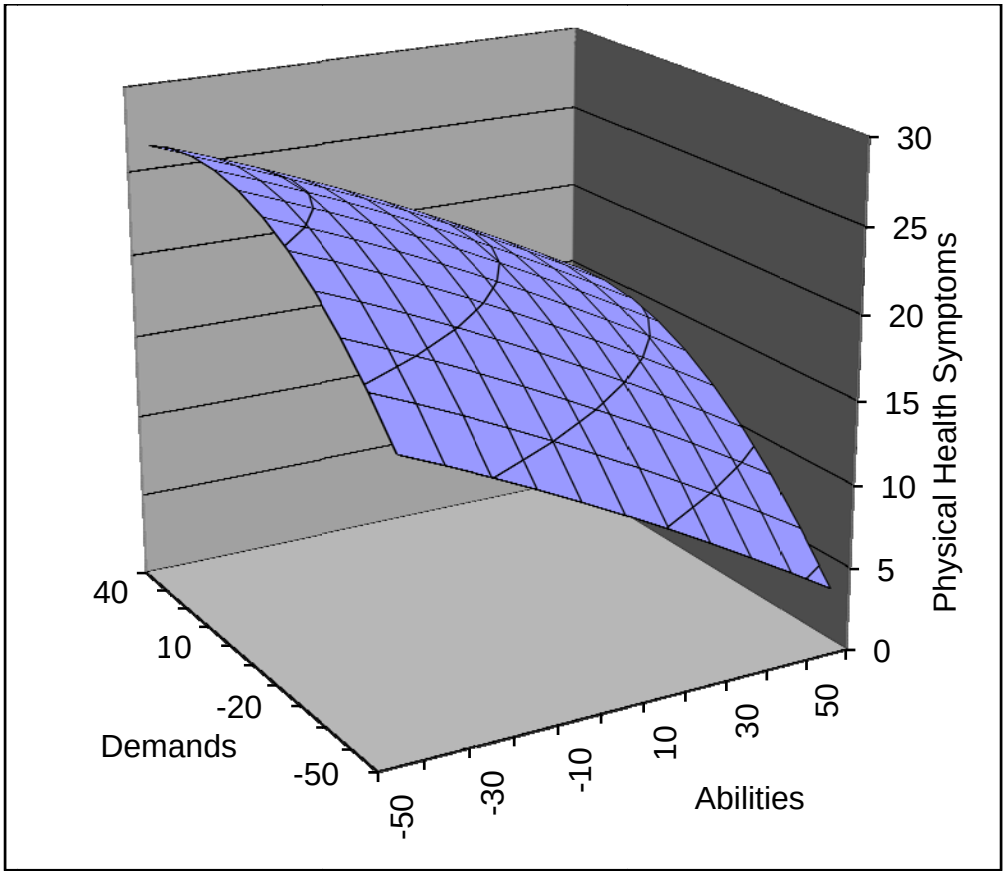


Figure 21. *Response surface for moderating role of gender between the relationship of paid labor demands-abilities fit and marital satisfaction for Partner B (Hypothesis21a)*

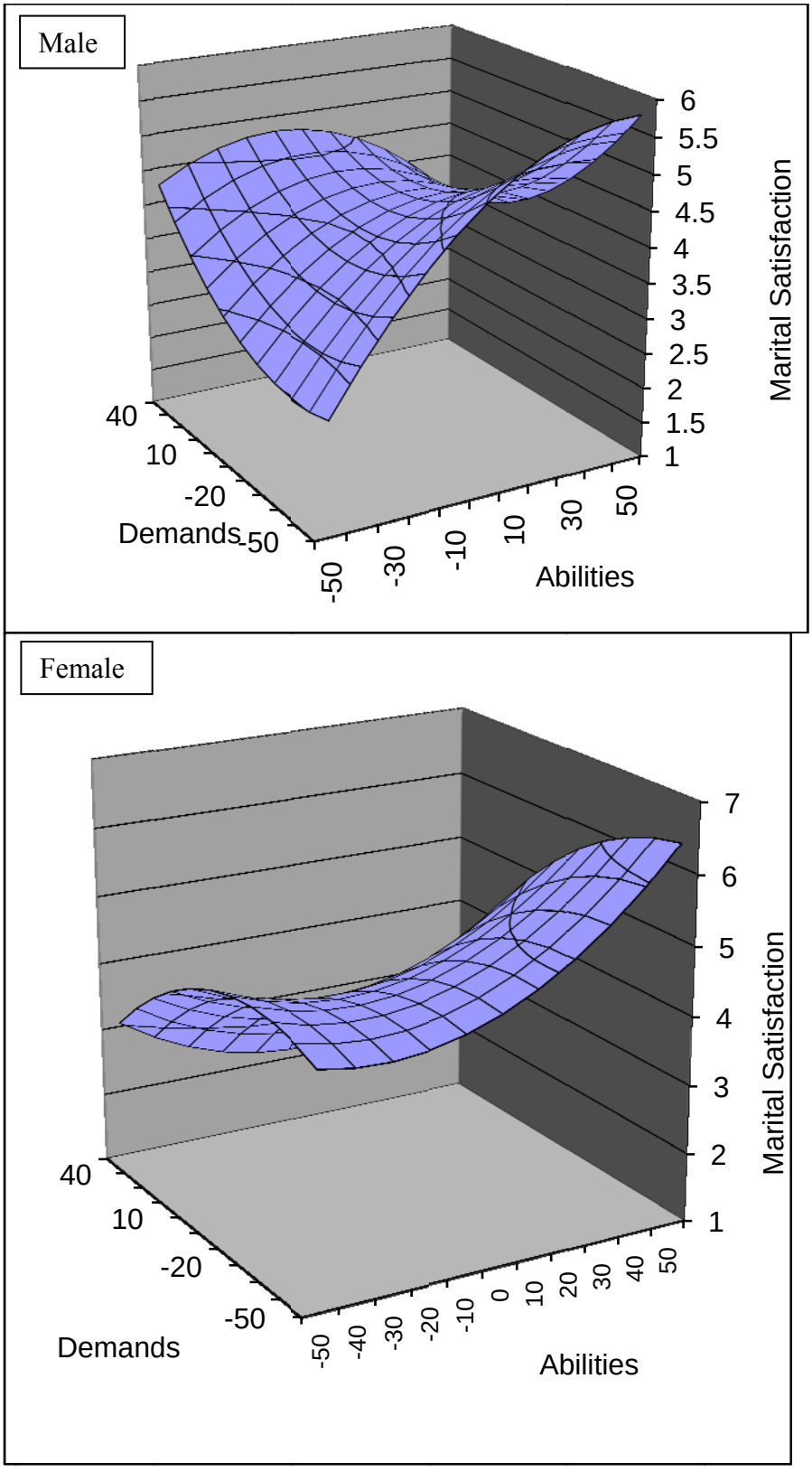
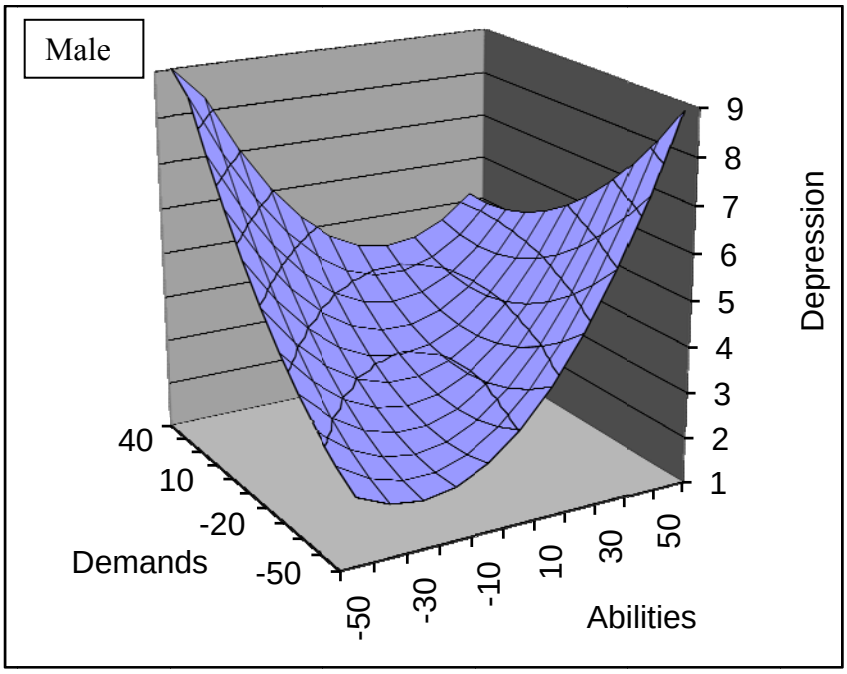


Figure 22. *Response surface for moderating role of gender between the relationship of family labor demands-abilities fit and depression for Partner B (Hypothesis22b)*



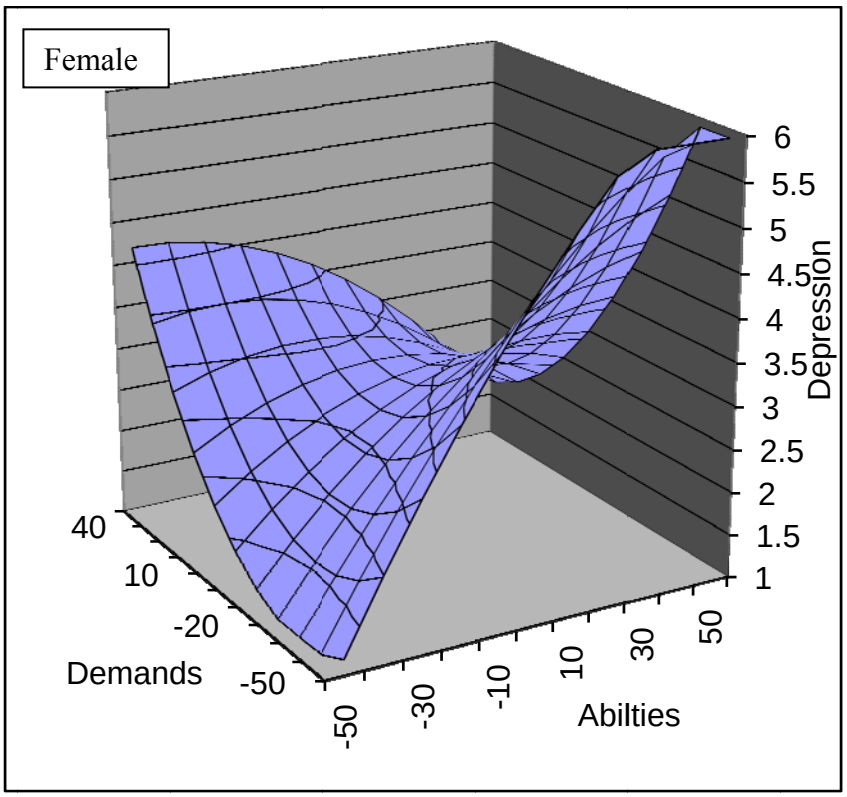
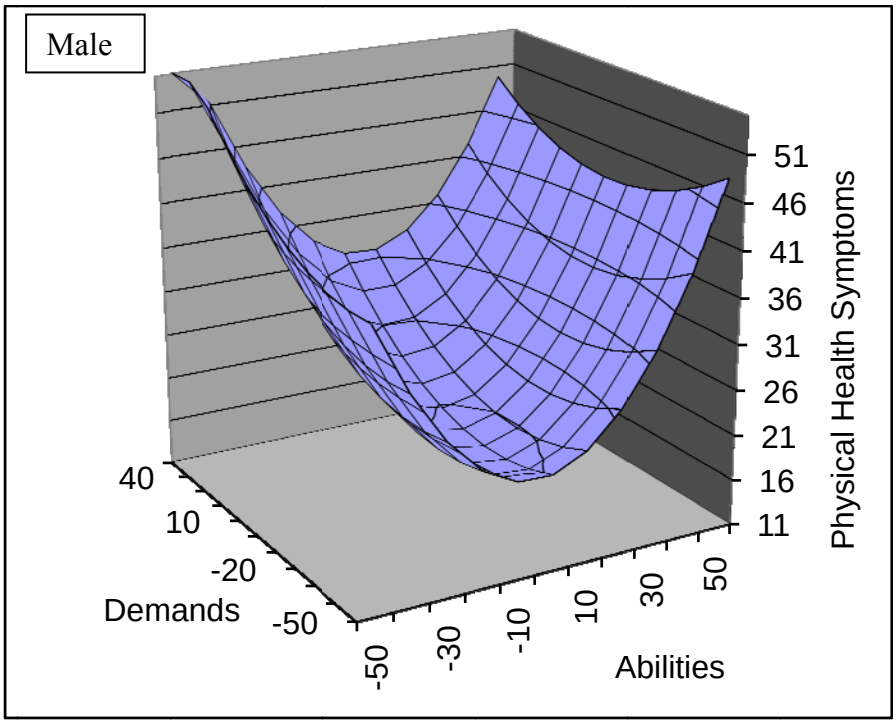


Figure 23. *Response surface for moderating role of gender between the relationship of family labor demands-abilities fit and physical health symptoms for Partner B (Hypothesis22c)*



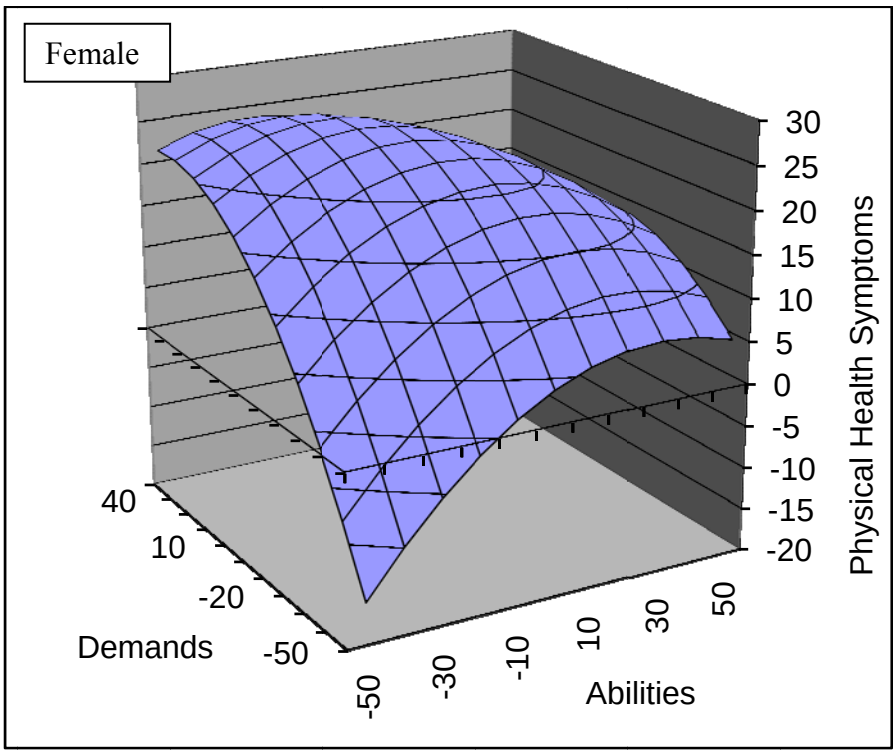


Figure 24. *Response surface for moderating role of satisfaction with current division of paid labor between the relationship of paid labor demands-abilities fit and marital satisfaction for Partner B (Hypothesis23a)*

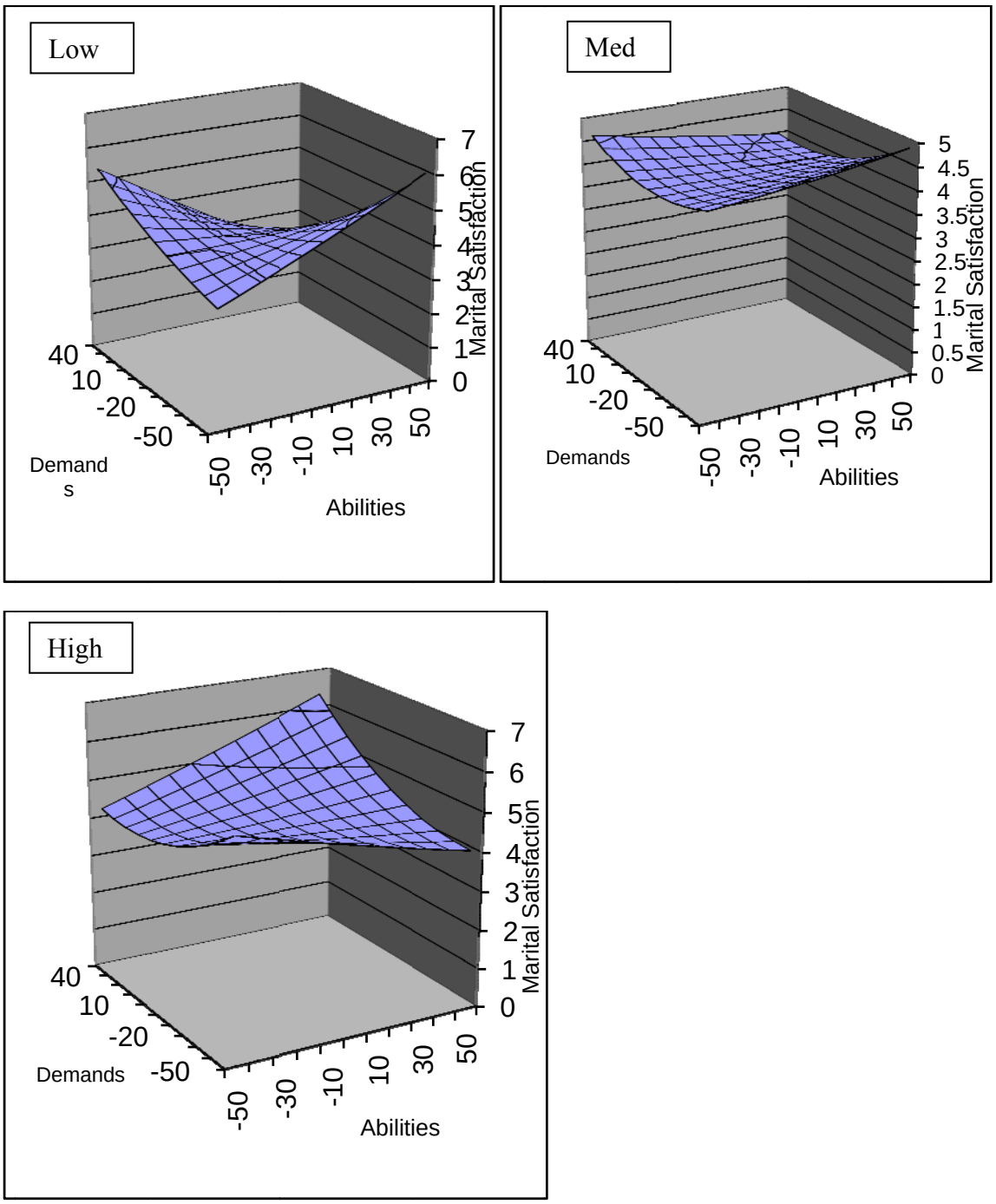


Figure 25. *Response surface for moderating role of satisfaction with current division of paid labor between the relationship of paid labor demands-abilities fit and depression for Partner B (Hypothesis23b)*

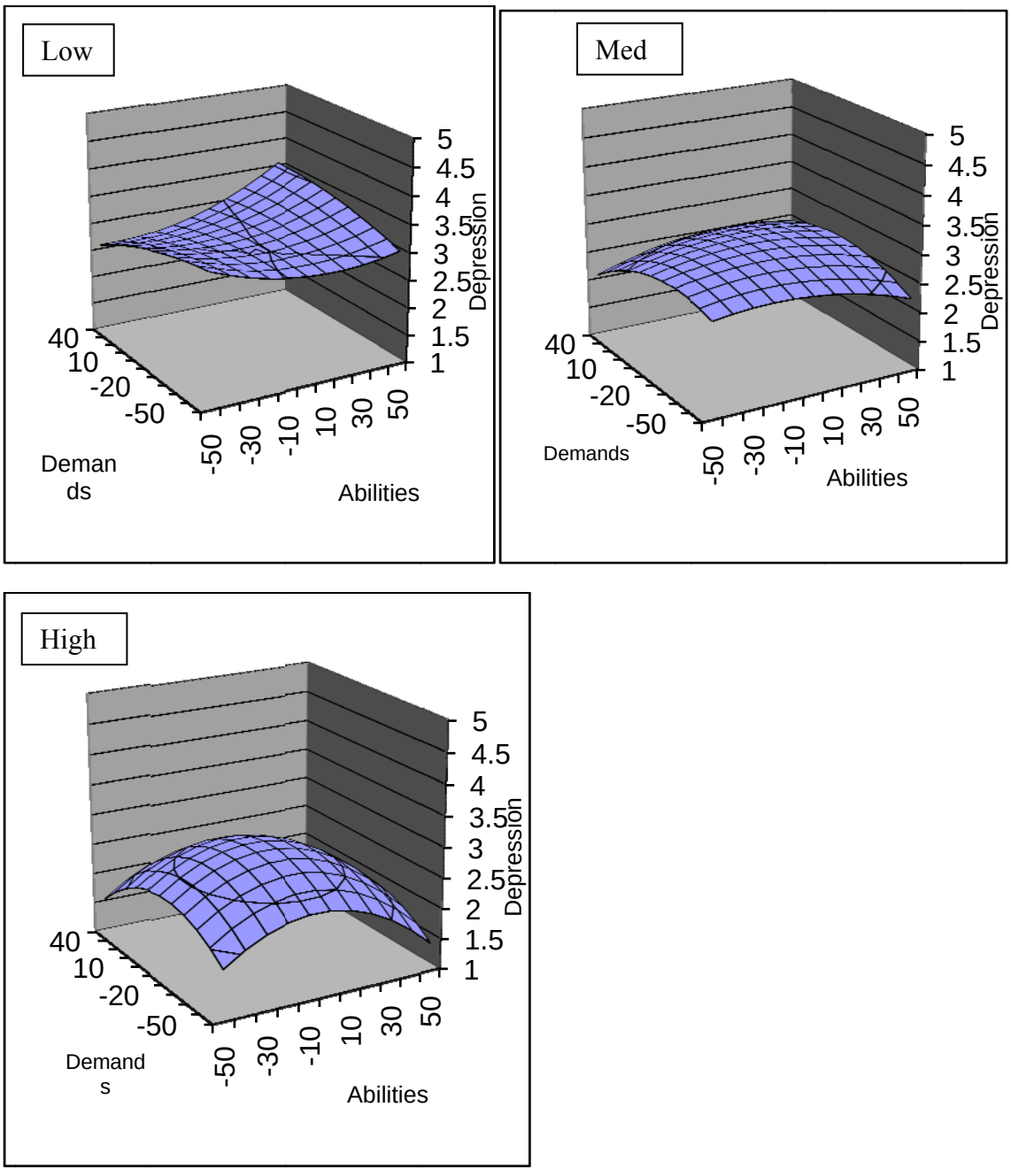


Figure 26. *Response surface for moderating role of satisfaction with current division of paid labor between the relationship of paid labor demands-abilities fit and physical health symptoms for Partner B (Hypothesis23c)*

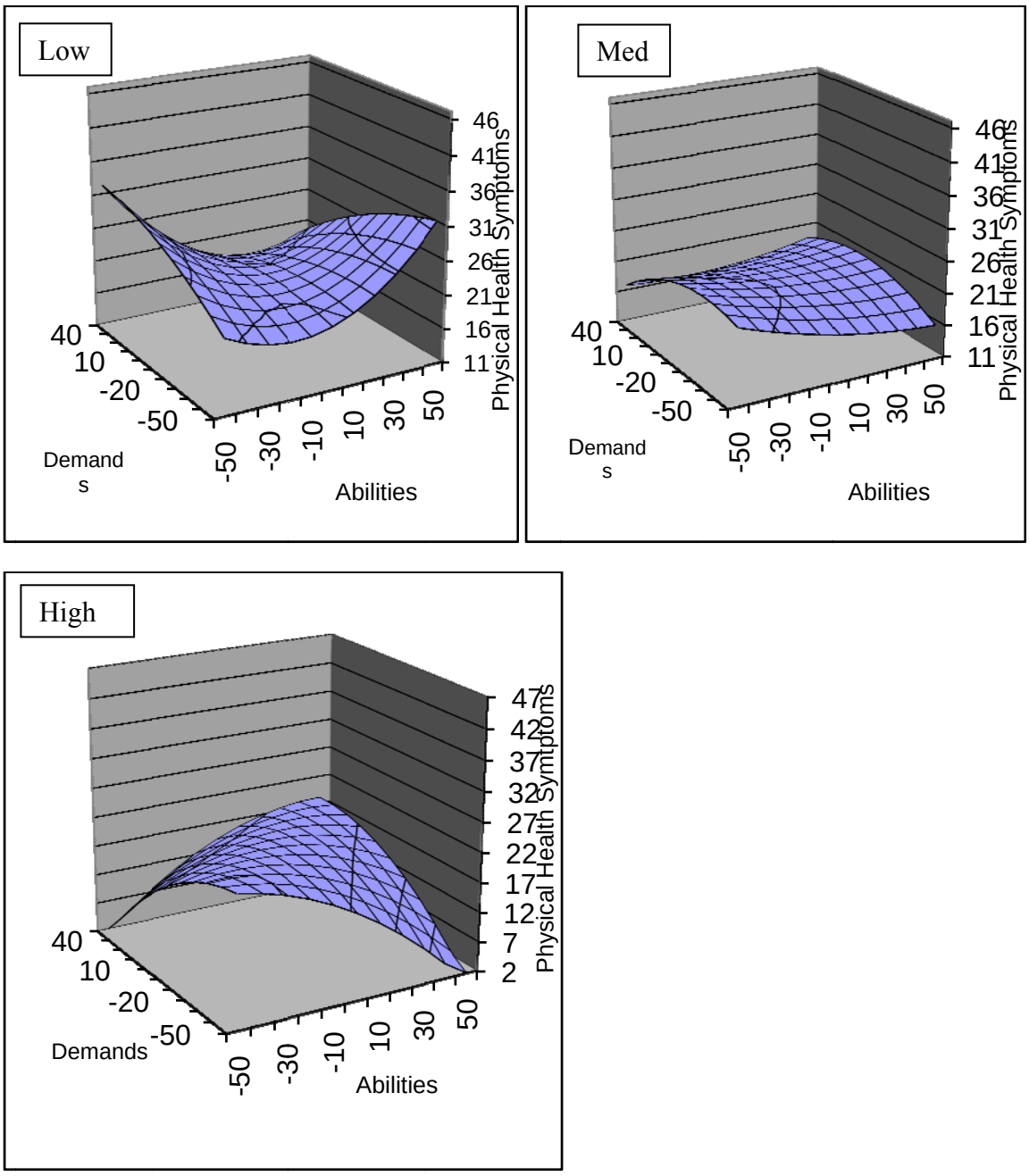


Figure 27. *Response surface for moderating role of satisfaction with current division of family labor between the relationship of family labor demands-abilities fit and depression for Partner B (Hypothesis24b)*

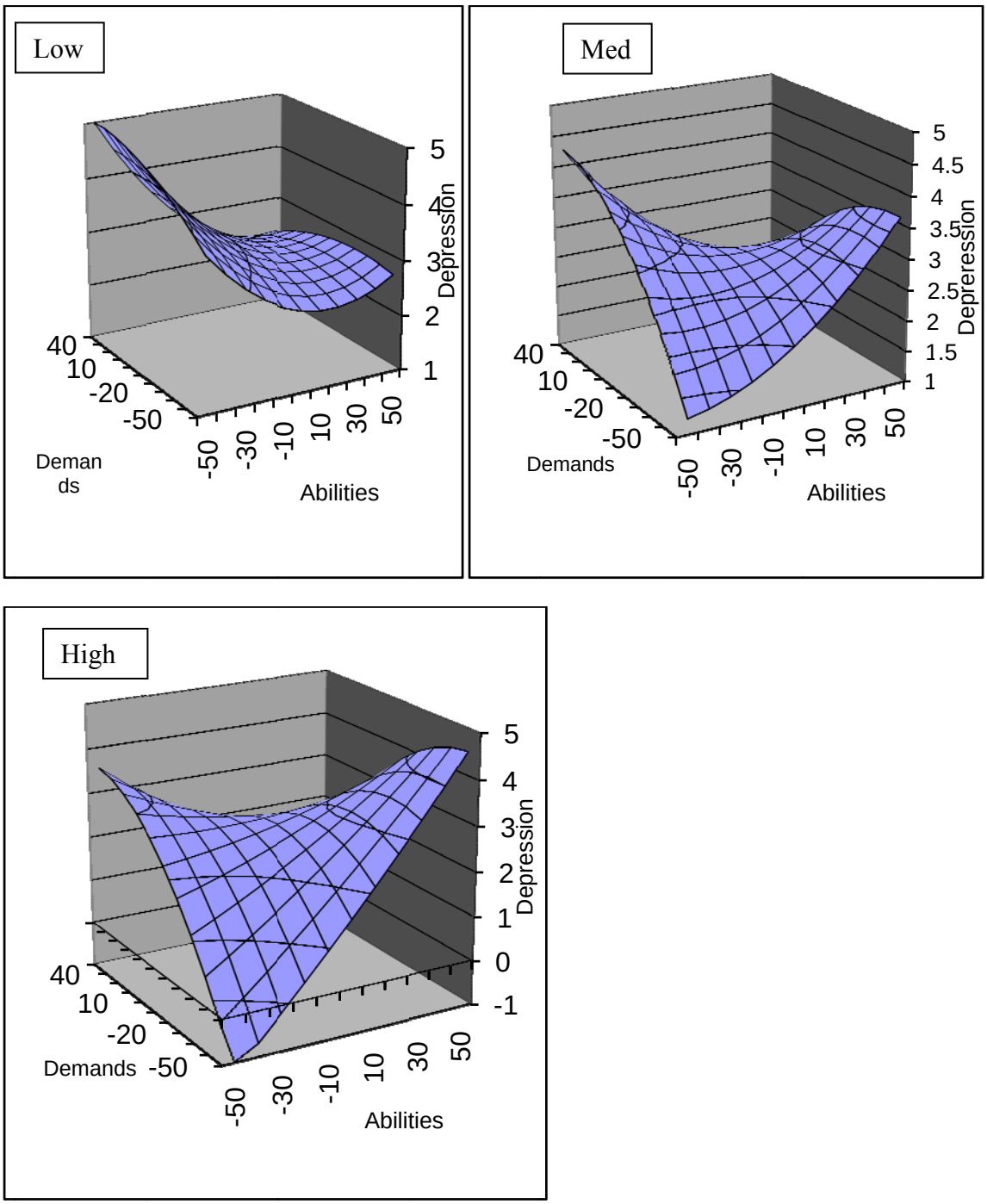


Figure 28 (Rotated Figure 11). *Response surface for paid labor need-supplies fit and career satisfaction for Partner A (Hypothesis1)*

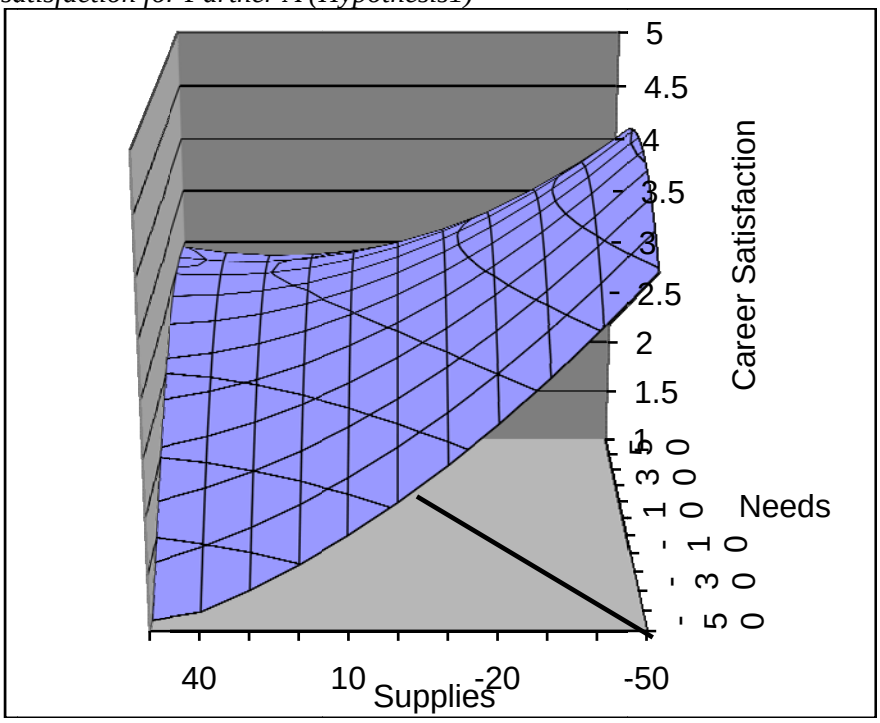


Figure 29. (Rotated Figure 13). *Response surface for paid labor need-supplies fit and marital satisfaction for Partner A (Hypothesis3)*

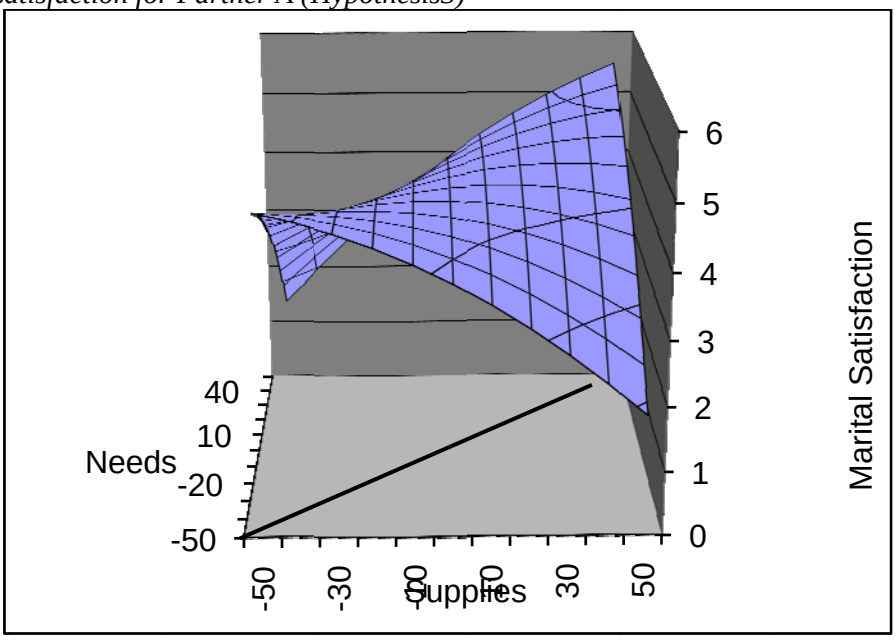


Figure 30. (Rotated Figure 15). *Response surface for paid labor need-supplies fit and depression for Partner A (Hypothesis5)*

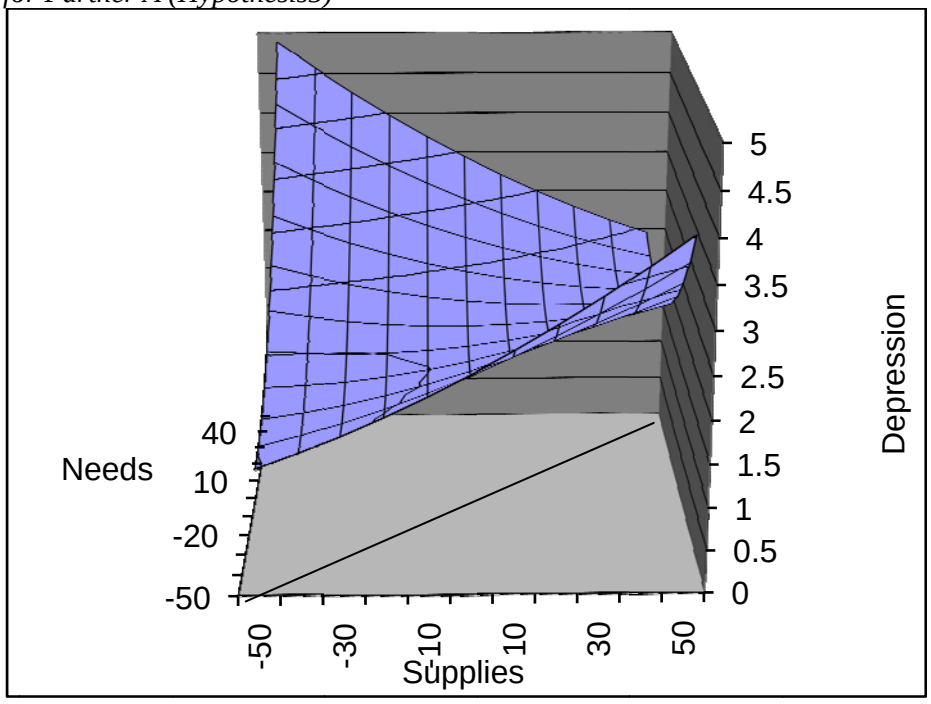


Figure 31 (Rotated Figure 16). *Response surface for paid labor need-supplies fit and physical health symptoms for Partner A (Hypothesis7)*

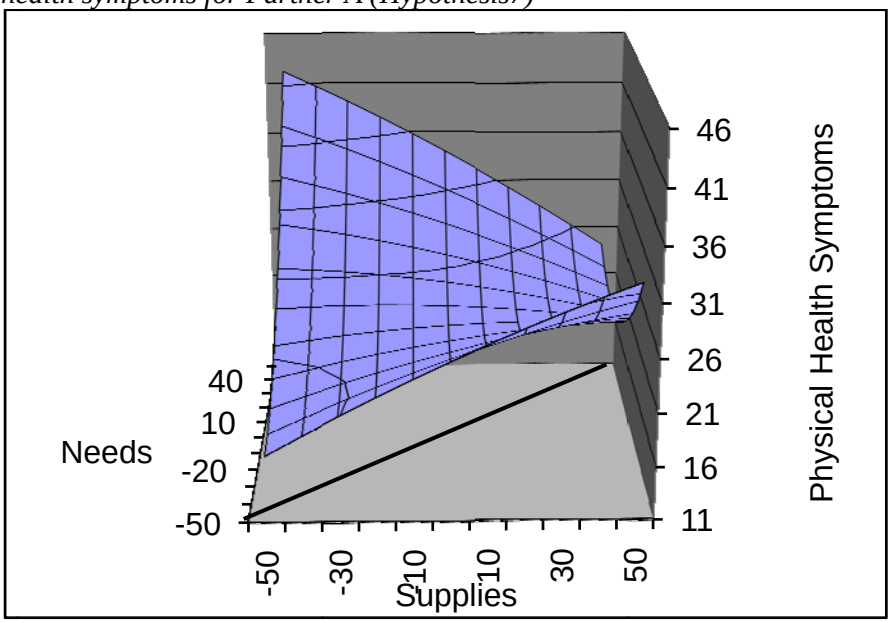


Figure 32 (Rotated Figure 14). *Response surface for family labor need-supplies fit and marital satisfaction for Partner A (Hypothesis4)*

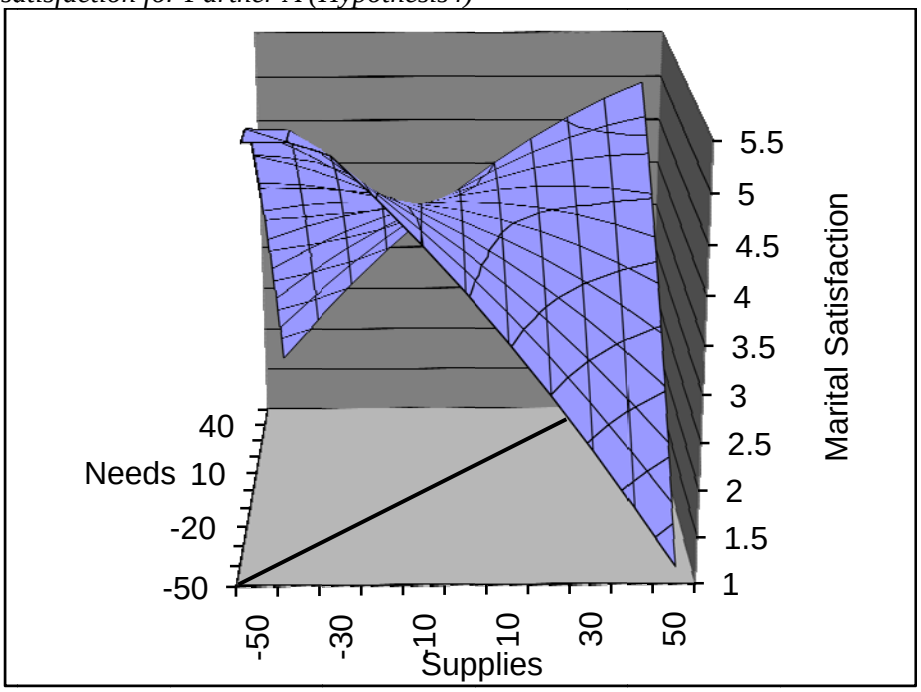
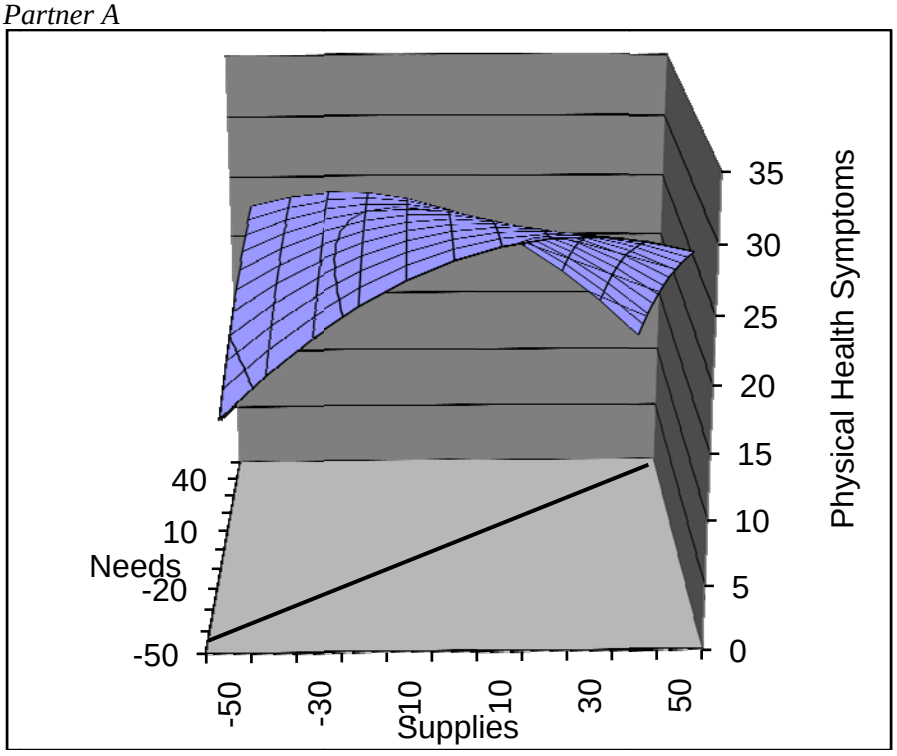


Figure 33. *Response surface for family labor need-supplies fit and physical health symptoms for Partner A*



Appendices

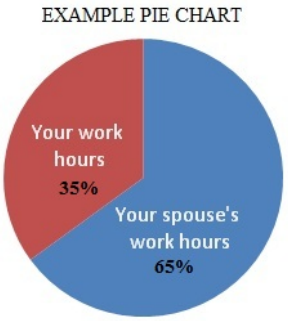
Appendix A

Pre-child desires for division of paid labor

Before having children, many couples think and discuss what their life will be like 'post-children.'

For the next set of questions, we are interested in knowing what your desires and expectations were BEFORE you had children with regard to what your life would be like AFTER you did have children.

1. Picture the total number of combined hours that you and your spouse spend in paid employment as a pie chart that sums to 100%.

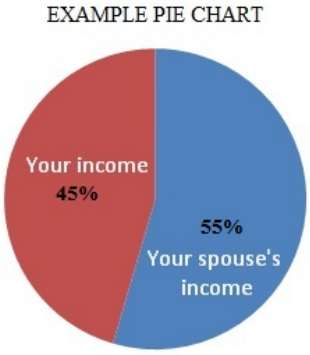


Before you had children and were thinking into the future...

...what proportion of that pie chart did you WANT to be YOUR work hours once children were born?
..what proportion of that pie chart did you WANT to be YOUR SPOUSE'S work hours once children were born?

These percentages should add up to 100%.

2. Picture the total income that you and your spouse earn from paid employment as a pie chart that sums to 100%.

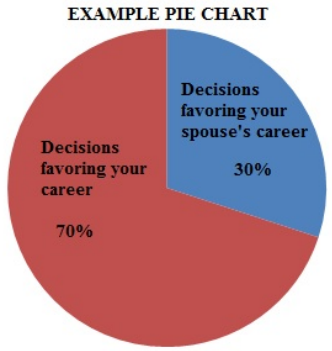


Before you had children and were thinking into the future...

...what proportion of that pie chart did you WANT to be YOUR income once children were born?
..what proportion of that pie chart did you WANT to be YOUR SPOUSE'S income once children were born?

These numbers should add up to 100%

3. Career favoring decisions are decisions that require one spouse's career to be given priority over the other spouse's career. Picture the total number of career prioritization decisions in your marriage as a pie chart that sums to 100%.



Before you had children and were thinking into the future...

...what proportion of that pie chart did you WANT to be decisions that favored YOUR career once children were born?
..what proportion of that pie chart did you WANT to be decisions that favored YOUR SPOUSE'S career once children were born?

These numbers should add up to 100%

Pre-child desires for division of family labor

1. Childcare related tasks are activities that involve caring for and raising children. Some examples include supervising, bathing, punishing, playing with children, and taking children to appointments or play dates.

Think about the total amount of childcare tasks that must be performed in your home. Before you had children and were thinking into the future...

...what percentage of these tasks did YOU WANT to perform?
..what percentage of these tasks did you WANT YOUR SPOUSE to perform?

These numbers should add up to 100%

2. Maintaining a household requires several household tasks to be completed, such as meal preparation, cooking, housecleaning, yard work, shopping for groceries and household goods, washing dishes or cleaning up after meals, doing laundry, paying bills, and taking out the trash.

Think about the total amount of household tasks (not including childcare) that must be performed in your home. Before you had children and were thinking into the future...

...what percentage of these tasks did YOU WANT to perform once children were born?
..what percentage of these tasks did you WANT YOUR SPOUSE to perform once children were born?

These numbers should add up to 100%

3. Emotion work is work that enhances other family member's well-being and creates a positive emotional atmosphere. Some examples include offering encouragement and advice, paying attention to important events in other family member's lives, giving compliments, and expressing concern for family member's well-being.

Think about the total amount of emotion work that is performed in your home. Before you had children and were thinking into the future...

...what percentage of this work did YOU WANT to perform once children were born?
...what percentage of this work did you WANT YOUR SPOUSE to perform once children were born?

These numbers should add up to 100%

Appendix B

Post-child actual division of paid labor

For the next set of questions, please think about the present time.

1. Again, picture the total WORK HOURS you and your spouse spend in paid labor as a pie chart.

   Currently, what proportion of this pie is made up of your work hours, and what proportion is made of your spouse's work hours?
   __self __spouse

2. Again, picture the total INCOME you and your spouse earn from paid labor as a pie chart.

   Currently, what proportion of this pie is made up of your income, and what proportion is made of your spouse's income?
   __self __spouse

3. Again, picture the total CAREER FAVORING DECISIONS that have been made throughout your marriage as a pie chart.

   Currently, what proportion of this pie is made up of decisions that have favored your career, and what proportion is made of decisions that have favored your spouse's career?
   __self __spouse

Post-child actual division of family labor

For the next set of questions, please think about the present time.

1. Currently, what percentage of CHILDCARE tasks do you and your spouse each perform?
   __self __spouse

2. Currently, what percentage of HOUSEHOLD tasks do you and your spouse each perform?
   __self __spouse

3. Currently, what percentage of EMOTION WORK do you and your spouse each perform?
   __self __spouse

Appendix C

Career Satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990)

1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.
2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.
3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.
4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.
5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.

Appendix D

Family Satisfaction (adapted from Cammann et al., (1979)

1. I am happy with my progress toward the goals I have for my family.
2. I am satisfied with my present family situation.
3. Overall, I am pleased with the state of my family life.
4. In general, I like my family life.

Appendix E

Marital Satisfaction (Norton, 1983)

Think about your marriage and your spouse when responding to the following questions. (Response scale: strongly disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree, strongly agree)

1. My relationship with my partner is very stable.
2. We have a good marriage.
3. My relationship with my partner makes me happy.
4. I really feel like part of a team with my partner.
5. Our marriage is strong.

Appendix F

Depression (Quinn & Shepard, 1974)

Considering the past 3 months, indicate your agreement with the following statements. (Response scale: strongly disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree, strongly agree)

I feel downhearted and blue.
I get tired for no reason.
I find myself restless and can't keep still.
My mind is as clear as it used to be.
I find it easy to do the things I used to do.
I feel hopeful about the future.
I find it easy to make decisions.
I am more irritable than usual.
I still enjoy the things I used to.
I feel that I am useful and needed.

Appendix G

Physical Health Symptoms (adapted from National Study of Daily Experiences)

Over the past 3 months, how often have you experienced the following symptoms? (never, less than once per month, 2-3 times a month, 1-2 times a week, 3-4 times a week, 5 or more times a week)

1. Upset stomach or nausea
2. Backache
3. Headache
4. Acid indigestion or heartburn
5. Diarrhea
6. Stomach cramps (Not menstrual)
7. Loss of appetite
8. Shortness of breath/difficulty breathing
9. Dizziness
10. Chest pain
11. Flu or cold symptoms (fever, sore throat, chills)

Appendix H

Career centrality (Lobel & St Clair, 1992)

1. A major source of satisfaction in my life is my career.
2. Most of the important things that happen to me involve my career.
3. I am very much involved personally in my career.
4. Most of my interests are centered around my career

Family centrality (Eddleston et al., 2006)

1. A major source of satisfaction in my life is my family.
2. Most of the important things that happen to me involve my family.
3. I am very much involved personally in my family.
4. Most of my interests are centered around my family.

Appendix I

Voice in division of paid labor decisions

1. In general, I have a lot of opportunity to present my views about decisions that affect the division of paid labor in my family.[1]
2. My views are considered and taken into account in decision-making related to the division of paid labor among my spouse and I.[1]
3. What I want is considered when my partner and I arrive at decisions concerning the division of paid labor.[1]
4. I feel my voice is heard in family decisions about the division of paid labor.[2]
5. I am granted a significant degree of influence in decisions that affect the division of paid labor.[3]
6. My spouse usually asks for my opinions and thoughts about decisions affecting our division of paid labor.[3]
7. In my marriage, I have a real say in the important decisions that impact the division of paid labor. [4]

Voice in division of family labor decisions

1. In general, I have a lot of opportunity to present my views about decisions that affect the division of family labor.[1]
2. My views are considered and taken into account in decision-making related to the division of family labor among my spouse and I.[1]
3. What I want is considered when my partner and I arrive at decisions concerning the division of family labor.[1]
4. I feel my voice is heard in decisions about the division of family labor.[2]
5. I am granted a significant degree of influence in decisions that affect the division of family labor.[3]
6. My spouse usually asks for my opinions and thoughts about decisions affecting our division of family labor.[3]
7. In my marriage, I have a real say in the important decisions that impact the division of family labor. [4]

Previous research that the new scales were based on (* indicates item that was adapted):
[1]Brockner et al (2001)

*1. I had a lot of opportunity to present my views about how this dispute should be resolved
*2. My views were considered and taken into account
*3. What I wanted was considered in arriving at a solution.

[2]Denton & Zeytinoglu (1993)
1. I have been a member of important decision making committees in the Department.
*2. I feel my voice is heard in Department and Committee meetings of the Department.
3. I have been a member of important decision making committees in the Faculty.

4. I feel my voice is heard in Faculty level committee meetings.
5. I have been a member of important decision making committees at the University level.
6. I feel my voice is heard in University level committee meetings.

[3]Steel & Mento (1987)

1. Within my work group the people most affected by decisions frequently participation in making the decisions.
2. In my work group there is a great deal of opportunity to be involved in resolving problems which affect the group.
3. I am allowed to participate in decisions regarding my job.
*4. I am allowed a significant degree of influence in decisions regarding my work.
*5. My supervisor usually asks for my opinions and thoughts in decisions affecting my work.

[4]Campion, Medsker, & Higgs (1993)
*1. As a member of a team, I have a real say in how the team carries out its work.
2. Most members of my team get a chance to participate in decision making.
3. My team is designed to let everyone participate in decision making.

Appendix J

Satisfaction with current division of family labor

1. I am satisfied with the way that my partner and I divide family labor.
2. I am pleased with the amount of family labor that I perform relative to my spouse.
3. I am unhappy with the current division of family labor in my home. ®

Satisfaction with current division of paid labor

1. I am satisfied with the way that my partner and I divide paid labor.
2. I am pleased with the amount of paid labor that I perform relative to my spouse.
3. I am unhappy with the current division of paid labor in my home. ®

® reverse scored item.

Appendix K

Family Responsibility

1. Please indicate the month and year your children were born (e.g., February 2005). Leave blanks empty that are not applicable.

First Born _____
Second Born _____
Third Born _____
Fourth Born_____
Fifth Born _____
Sixth Born _____

2. Approximately what percent of the time does your child live in your home? (Response options are 0%, 10%, 20%, 30%, 40%, 50%, 60%, 70%, 80%, 90%, 100%).

First Born _____
Second Born _____
Third Born _____
Fourth Born_____
Fifth Born _____
Sixth Born _____

	Item Weights	
	Living with Individual	Not living with Individual
Each child ages < 1 year	7.0	4.0
Each child aged 1 -2 years	6.5	3.5
Each child aged 3 -5 years	6.0	3.5
Each child aged 6 – 9 years	5.0	3.0
Each child aged 10 – 14 years	5.0	3.0
Each child aged 15 – 18 years	4.5	2.5
Each child aged 18 and older	3.0	1.0

Appendix L

Age
What is your current age in years?

Ethnicity
Please select the answer that best describes your ethnicity (select all that apply).

White/Caucasian
Black/African-American
Asian
Hispanic/Latino
Native American
Other, please describe: _____

Job title
What is your current job title? _____

Education level
What is the highest grade or year of school you completed?

Grades 9 through 11 (some high school)
Grade 12 or GED (high school graduate)
Some college
Associate/two year degree
Bachelor's degree
Some graduate work
Master's degree
Advanced degree (e.g., PhD, MD)

Career Stage
Please select the option below that most accurately describes your current career situation:

-I have recently started my career and am just beginning to explore my career options. I am involved in self-examination and trying to discover the kind of work and career that will best suit me.
-I am mostly concerned with securing my place in my organization/vocation, demonstrating outstanding performance, establishing relationships with others, and advancing to new levels of responsibility. I feel relatively stable in my career.
-I am focused on preserving my career achievements already attained and my self image. I have a strong personal identification with my career and organization/vocation.
-I am approaching retirement and beginning to detach from my job, organization, and occupation.

About the Author

Kristen M. Shockley received a Bachelor's Degree in Psychology from the University of Georgia in 2004 with a minor in French. She entered the Industrial and Organizational Psychology Ph.D. program at the University of South Florida in 2005 and received her Master's Degree in Industrial and Organizational Psychology in 2007 under the advisement of Dr. Tammy D. Allen. While enrolled at the University of South Florida, Ms. Shockley conducted research in various topics, including managing work and family roles, dual-career couples, mentoring, and career success. She has co-authored five published articles in the *Journal of Vocational Behavior* as well as three chapters in edited books. She has presented at several professional conferences, including the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) and the Society for Occupational Health Psychology. Ms. Shockley also received a pilot grant through the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health. She has been formally recognized for her contributions in both research (Mary L. Tenopyr award granted through SIOP; Top Poster award granted at the 2009 SIOP conference) and teaching (University of South Florida Provost's commendation for outstanding teaching by a graduate student).