Chapter 4

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
This chapter is devoted to making a brief review of previous studies on the problem and significant writings pertaining to our study. The review of literature provides a summary of the current state of knowledge in the area of investigation.

**Review of Literature**

The study of gender in sociology first emerged in the research on sex roles. Under the influence of role theory and functionalism, gender was conceived of as an achieved status accompanied by a set of patterned gender roles. Feminist sociologists critiqued such a conception as overlooking historical change, reifying expectations and marginalizing the politics of the structures of domination (Connell 1992; Stacey & Thorne 1985).

What is Gender? Gender is used by sociologists to describe the cultural and social attributes of men & women which are manifested in appropriate masculinity and femininity. Sociologist use gender as distinct from the anatomical division of sex because although the two are connected they are not necessarily coterminous. For example, the anatomical male can adopt feminine behavior patterns. *(Source Complete AZ Sociological Hand Book)*

In our study we are examining the gender dynamics in a professional family. We shall look at gender interplay at the work front and at the home front. In our review of literature, we have categorized the available research into three general headings: -
1. The household task allocation studies.

2. The marital power/decision making/marital interaction studies.

3. The Dual-Career Family studies.

**Household Task Allocation**

Beginning with Blood & Wolfe's (1960) classic study, sociologists have attempted to explain the division of household labour between husbands and wives and to determine whether the division is changing over time.

Various perspectives have been used to study household labour with the frequent one's being (i) The resource-power perspective which focuses on the economic and social contexts in which husbands and wives bring their individual resources (it can be unequal earnings) education, social status etc. (ii) Socialization and Gender role attitudes - which suggests that husbands and wives perform household labour in differing amounts depending upon what they have learned and have come to believe about appropriate behavior for men and women. (iii) The time availability hypothesis which suggests that husbands and wives perform housework in amounts relative to the time left over after paid work time is subtracted. Time allocation to housework and paid work is jointly determined and based on the relative efficiency of husbands wives in both arenas (at the workplace and at home). These three perspectives (power-resources, socialization-gender roles and time availability) have guided much of the sociological research on household and have produced mixed results.
Below are the various works pertaining to household division of labour that we examined.

*Blair and Johnson* (1991) examine the impact of household labour upon wives' perceptions of the fairness of its division. The sample consisted of white married women between the ages of 18-65 years who reported a weekly household labour performance of 120 hours or less.

It was found that regardless of the wife's employment housework, like meal preparation, dishes, cleaning, ironing and washing clothes, so called as women's work occupied the majority of their labour time. Employed wives were doing twice as much housework in hours/week than their husbands.

Also firstly male help in the above mentioned female dominated task & secondly women's perceptions of the extent to which their household labour is appreciated had a major impact upon the women's perception of fairness of household labour. Ideology has no effect on the perceptions of fairness of household labour.

*Peterson & Gerson* (1992) used data on young dual earner couples to study the determinants of responsibility for child care arrangements among them. Two approaches are tested - the social-structural theory and the human capital theory. The social-structural approach argues that structural arrangement account for the prevalence of an unequal division of labour among dual earner couples.
The human capital theorists argue that individuals attempt to maximize household utility by trading off between investments in household labour and market work.

The results show that the mean responsibility level reported by women is more than that of men. The researchers argue that taking responsibility for child care arrangement emerges from social-structural arrangements that produce not only gender differences but also variation within gender groups. When women in full time employment move into occupations with greater opportunity and longer working hours, then men are more likely to increase their responsibility. When the demands of household labour are extreme, men are more likely to increase their responsibility. However, when both male & female workers have job pressures and a heavy workload then both have less responsibility for child care arrangements.

Condran & Bode (1980) present information regarding the family division of labour specifically singling out five aspects namely preparing meals, paying bills, performing home repairs, disciplining children and taking a child to the doctor. A random sample of currently married adults were taken.

The data points to a significant disjunction between the perceptions of husband and wife concerning the amount of husband’s help with household tasks. Husbands believe that they help more than wives think husbands help. The findings reinforce the fact that men do not participate a great deal on those tasks generally defined as household labour. Those with working wives,
to a small degree helped with meal preparation and taking children to the doctor however, the impact of the wife's work status in not strong. Moreover, reports of significant help in these areas are much more likely to come from men than from women.

It has been inferred that sex role socialization plays a dominant role in the internal divisions of households labour. Attitudes & sympathies may have changed but husband's still don't wash the dishes very often.

Wallace et al. The researcher draws up a list of 41 tasks that are typical in the town of Sheppey in order to study the division of household labour between men and women of different social & economic status. A measuring index was constructed in order to provide a more precise measure of the gender linkedness of the tasks.

The researchers found an asymmetrical division of labour when wife is not employed and the children are young. When both partners are in full-time employment then there is the least likelihood of the conventional pattern of the domestic division of labour. Women in employment have three choices in relation to a range of conventional domestic tasks - they can leave many of the tasks undone, they can pay someone else to do them, or the male partner can do a greater share.

Also, a considerably greater sharing is present in later stages of the life cycle when the female partner returns to part-time and even more, full-time employment.
Gronseth article takes a look at Norwegian couples who tried out an experimental work sharing arrangement. This programme was started by the Norwegian family council in 1971 in order to propagate the pattern of work sharing among working couples. The research aimed to systematically study the conditions under which it actually was voluntarily adopted by Norwegian couples.

The couples were to be employed cohabiting and having at least one child below 7 years of age.

The work sharing pattern seems to be a viable alternative to the current sex-role, family and occupational patterns. However, its large-scale adoption meets with serious structural constraints. By spring 1975 out of the 23 families who volunteered, only 2 of the families had been practicing the pattern for about 4 years and 6 for half a year.

All together the chief reasons for choosing the work sharing pattern appeared to be: a concern for and interest in the children in combination with the wife's very positive, but moderate involvement in occupational work and the men's anti or moderate career orientation in some cases along with job problems and finally a desire for equality in their own relationship. In general according to the researcher it appeared that other practical & personal problems and motives were the driving forces for the work sharing choice, sex equality rationales coming essentially as a consequence of these other concerns.
Verma & Larson (1996) examined the time spent by urban middle class working and non-working women on household work and their accompanying subjective state of mind. The study was carried out on 100 families residing in Chandigarh, Panchkula and Mohali. The results reveal that although women spend a large amount of their time on household work than their husbands, they do not view housework with aversion. They felt constrained but not out of control i.e. although they did not feel highly fulfilled they neither felt highly distressed. Traditional Indian family roles with clear demarcation of women’s labour continue to exist in urban middle class families. However, the argument that housework is oppressive to these women is weakened by the finding that on an average they did not experience it as outside their choice and control. It is important to note that the largest quantity of family work for these middle class women is food preparation accounting for about half of all family work time. Child care was minimal in these families because their children were older.

Benjamin & Sullivan (1999) investigate the change in marital communication & domestic division of labours in relation both to women’s material and to their relational (interpersonal) resources. Working women exposed to therapeutic discourse either in their professional or personal lives under-go an enhancement of gender consciousness and the development of particular inter-personal skills. These skills facilitate gender negotiation and change in the boundaries regulating both communication and the domestic division of labour within the marital relationship.
The researchers therefore selected professional women from 4 occupations with differential exposures to therapeutic discourse as they had hypothesized that women with the most systematic exposure to such discourse would be professional women, who came into contact with it through their employment. The researchers found that women from occupational groups with high levels of exposure to therapeutic discourse (in professional training, personal counseling, reading etc.) are more likely to report themselves as having acquired specific interpersonal skills through their occupations. Acquiring these skills were associated with the successful challenging of normative boundaries regulating both the communicative sphere within marriage and the material arena of the division of domestic labour. Also women with high levels of both material and relational resources were more likely to have more participatory partners.

Bittman, England et al (2003), their study explores the effect of spouses contribution to family income vis-à-vis housework division by using data from time-diary survey. Looking across the evidence on the U.S. and Australia, the researchers find evidence consistent, with exchange-bargaining theories in both societies. Women’s bargaining power is affected by earnings i.e. women decrease their housework when they increase their earnings so long as its within the range where women’s earnings don’t exceed men’s. While women can and do use income based bargaining power to reduce their own housework, they either cannot or do not try to use it to increase their husband’s housework. They replace their time with purchased services, or housework simply goes undone.
Calculating predicted hours of men's and women's housework from the regressions the researchers found that even when men and women both work full time and provide equal income, there is ascription by sex that leads women to do more housework than men. Finally, gender trumps money when women provide more income than their husband's. In this zone where men are earning less than their wives'. Australian couples respond by having the wife do substantially more housework and in the U.S. couples at least at the extremes of the distribution have men reduce their housework slightly.

Thus gender trumps money in the baseline amount of housework women do and also when traditional housework behavior seems needed to compensate for “gender deviance” in economic provision.

Spitze (1988) reviews a decade of research on the effects of women's employment on families. She finds that the effects of wife's employment on marital happiness seems to have changed from a negative to a null or perhaps even positive one, and any negative effects are now likely to be due to specific aspects of her employment, such as long hours or dissatisfaction with her job.

With regards to household labour there are two major types of data: time budgets and survey items on the distribution of responsibility of labour overall or on individual tasks. Overall research has shown some level of disagreement as to how a wife's employment influences the division of household labour. Husbands appear to increase family time when wives are employed, but
mainly through an increase in child care, wives appear to spend fewer hours in housework when they are employed, but there is some disagreement as to how their total work loads compare to their husband. Also the basic types of research hypothesis that have been generated to interpret the effects of independent variables on the division of household labour are relative resources, time availability, the relative productive capacity in the labour marked and in the home.

Marital Power - Most research continue to measure family power in terms of husband and wife decision making. In predicting the distribution of family power, the major theoretical focus has been on resources which may include earnings as well as education or occupational status.

Yogev (1978) undertook to determine whether a new egalitarian marital pattern exists in the lives of professional women. Her focus was on the division of house work and child care. Using questionnaire with open ended & multiple choice questions information was collected from the female respondents.

On analysis results show that working women perceived the effects of their careers on their marriages to be positive. Another important pattern that emerged was that these women did not want to change the traditional aspect of their lives i.e. they assumed most of the responsibilities for house work & child care and did not expect their husbands to have an equal share in these matters. Also these women perceived themselves to be basically equal to their husbands.
A possible explanation to this phenomena, according to the researcher is that in order not to cross identity tension lines, these women underwent role expansion by adding new responsibilities, without relinquishing old one's.

Baxter & Western's (1998) paper examines

(a) The division of household tasks in Australian households.
(b) Looks at men's & women's levels of satisfaction with the domestic division of labour.

The researchers found that on the whole women were devoting more time to housework & child care than men irrespective of their employment status. Also women reported lower levels of satisfaction with housework & child care arrangements than men, even though about 40-45% of women were very satisfied with household labour arrangement and some 40% or so are somewhat satisfied; thus leaving only about 20-25% as unsatisfied. On further analysis it was found that women who are satisfied with their paid employment are also more inclined to be satisfied with the domestic division of labour i.e. satisfaction in one significant domain of life is associated with satisfaction in other domains. For most women, it seems that the benchmark against which their own household arrangements are judged is not some ideal in which men & women contribute equally to domestic labour but a pragmatic assessment of reality in which men do much less and in which there is a pronounced gender division of labour. Thus any consistent participation by husbands in non-traditional male activities is better than the alternative of no help & hence associated with increased satisfaction amongst women.
Coltrane & Kuntz, focusing on husbands undertook to study the potential influence of birth timing on divisions of household labour by comparing early timed (27 years & below) & late timed (28 years & above) first child births to husbands.

The results suggest that divisions of household labour are the result of multiple causal factors. Who does what around the house is shaped by time availability relative resources & ideology.

The results show that the timing of a first birth makes a difference, particularly the factors associated with the mother are important to divisions of labour in early birth families. Fathers who had a first child before age 28 were likely to do more of the couples housework if their wives contributed more to the household income and if their wives held less traditional values.

Summary

From the above mentioned studies we find that women as compared to men on the whole are devoting more time to housework and childcare irrespective of their employment status [Baxter & Western (1998), Bittman (2003), England et al, Blair & Johnson (1991)].

However, there are differing views about the impact of wife's work status in the internal divisions of household labours. Condran & Bode (1980) and Wallace feel that women in employment have choices in relation to a range of conventional domestic tasks i.e. they can involve their husbands more or pay someone else to do it. Infact, women with high levels of both material and relational resources
were more likely to have more participatory partners (Benjamin & Sullivan, 1999). Women, use income based bargaining power to reduce their own housework but however, do not try to increase their husbands' housework according to the findings of Bittman, England et al. In fact women do not want to change the traditional aspect of their lives (Yogev, 1978), do not view housework with aversion (Verma & Larson, 1996) are content with whatever help is rendered by their husband (Baxter & Western, 1998) as they have pragmatically assessed the reality of their situation.

Coltrane & Kuntz believe that the division of housework is dependent on time availability, relative resources & ideology. In fact, fathers who had a first child before the age of 28 were more likely to do more of the couples housework provided the wives were earning more money than them and were holding less traditional views.

Spitze's (1988) analysis reveals that there is some disagreement as to how the wife's total workload compares to their husband's whether it be housework or childcare.

In our study, we shall focus on specifically consultant doctor couples who are bringing into their marriage the same resources namely education, employment and earnings & examine the impact of these resources on the modern Indian family's professional and family life as very few studies have tried to understand the lives of professional couples. We shall examine both men and women's household roles and responsibilities and see whether the personal resources of the couple namely education, employment and earning have an impact on household task division.
The study of power relationships and decision making patterns in contemporary families has been a major topic in the marriage and family literature since the 60's. Interest in the substantive area of "family power" was initially sparked in large part by Blood & Wolfe's, Husband and Wives (1960) and their elaboration of a "resource theory of family power". Subsequent social scientist, have tested and retested this resource theory model and derivative models, as well as elaborating the theoretical and methodological issues in family power research. One of the main problems has been the proper conceptualization of the family power concept.

In broad terms power has been defined as the ability of an individual within a social relationship to carry out his or her will, even in the face of resistance by others. Below are some of the studies that we reviewed.

Bahr (1982) did a study on marital power processes using four hypothesis derived from social exchange theory. Four roles namely - provider role, housekeeper role, child socialization & care role and recreation role were studied for husband & wife.

The researcher postulates that the spouse who is more competent will have more control within a given role. Also normative assignment of roles influences disputed decision outcomes. Further role competence and perceived norms about control interact to affect marital control. Lastly, there is a modest positive relationship between marital satisfaction and level of marital control.
The findings give a mixed picture of marital power. In the provider & housekeeper role, competency is not linked to control. Also norms have a greater influence on marital control than relative competence. The control of the husband tends to be strongest when the norms are patriarchal and he is more competent than the wife. Finally, the data are consistent with the idea that one is more likely to comply with the control attempts of one’s spouse when marital satisfaction is high.

Godwin & Scanzoni (1989) test a conceptual model of the context processes and outcomes of married couples decision making. The findings point to the influence of socio-emotional factors on coerciveness and control.

The more past cooperativeness and less current coerciveness and the more the emotional bonded ness between the couples contributes to the couple’s influence over each other and hence indirectly to consensus in decision making.

Another important factor is the economic resource symmetry. While it does not apparently effect control dynamics, great resource symmetry nevertheless contributes to shared consensus.

Bell & Newby in their paper explore the relational and normative means by which men (particularly husbands) maintain their traditional authority over women (wives).

The researchers note that in most societies, the power of the husband over his wife is legitimated by tradition. Even with
working women, this asymmetrical relationship between husbands and wives persist. And it is unlikely to change as wives continue to be in the subordinate position because of the propagation of 'false consciousnesses. The germ of false consciousness arises in the family i.e. here it is both created and supported. So the relationship between husband and wife is a deferential one in that it is traditionally-legitimated and hierarchical. It appears both natural and immutable. It also has become – because it has been in the interests of those in the superordinate position – 'a moral order' – which is expressed through and by ideological hegemony.

Deference stabilizes the hierarchical nature of the husband - wife relationship. This relationship is embedded in a system of power. Two sorts of power form the constant background to the deferential dialectical between husbands and wives. There are the power of the hand and the power of the purse. Also, the contradictions within the deferential dialectic of identification and differentiation need constant 'tension management' and the most notable social mechanism by which this is done is by the 'gift'.

Little (1982) examines the association between spousal power structure and marital quality in black married couples. Data was collected from 75 married couples from an urban North Carolina area. Using self report and four behavioral power measures, couples were classified as husband - dominant, egalitarian or wife dominant. The researcher found that the highest levels of marital quality were found in husband led power pattern. On the other hand, egalitarian and wife led couples reported lower levels of marital quality.
Feree (1984) points out that the impact of women's employment on relative power in the household may depend on how they choose to activate their potential power and whether they view female power as legitimate. Gillespie (1971) emphasizes the structural constraints on women's power in all societies, placing limits on the power they can derive within individual bargainings situation.

Turk & Bell (1972) using 9 major measures of power attempted to test them on 211 families. Power measures were of three types - (i) questionnaire (ii) task outcome & (iii) interactional. Some important discrepancies in the measures of power were revealed. The questionnaire measures showed husband dominance to prevail, while the observational measures showed a balance between the spouses. Also the findings depend on which family members is treated as the key informant.

Another conclusion that arises from the data is that one gets similar results irrespective of whether one asks about ideal or actual patterns or about the family as distinct from the marital relationship. Thus, the researcher's conclude that the concept of power is lacking proper measures & meaning.

Kendel & Lesser (1972) conducted a comparative study on marital decision making in American & Danish Urban families. Using structured questionnaires data was collected from adolescents & their parents.
Overall findings show that a shared pattern of marital authority in family decision making was the most common pattern in both the countries (the list of decisions used were those developed by Blood & Wolfe; 1960). Also it was found that marital power is neither consistently nor always positively correlated with the resources brought into the marriage by each spouse. Marital power in the family was related to the relative education of husband & wife, wife’s employment status & family income.

Husbands were found to have more power when they were either better or equally educated as compared to their wives. Employed women whether employed full time or part time had more power as compared to unemployed women. Family income is not directly related to husband’s marital power.

**Sexton & Perlman** (1989) study investigates the influence of resource exchanges and of gender role on marital power by comparing dual-career & single-career couples. The research had predicted that dual career couples would share marital power more equitably because of the similarity of each partner’s contribution of resources to the marriage.

The results demonstrate dual-career and single career couples to perceive their marital resource exchange similarly, contrary to prediction. Despite sharing of the role of financial provider between spouses of dual-career couples, husbands & wives of both kinds of couples reported wives contributing more to their marriages in all other roles and in general contributions to the family or the marriage.
Also self-ratings of masculinity or femininity were not associated with powering behaviour or with perceived marital power by wives of either dual-career & single career marriages.

The research concludes that marital power processes and the resource exchange processes affecting them may be unique to each couple.

Gillespie (1971) sought to examine the causes of male dominance in marital power. He says that the conception & measurement of power is biased as it does not explore certain kinds of power which automatically accrue to the husband by virtue of his work. Also Blood & Wolfe’s list of decisions, have a differential importance.

Kapil (2001) conducted a comparative study of employed and unemployed educated women. Using an interview schedule, a sample of 100 graduate women in all (with 50 school teachers and 50 housewives) were taken to compare their empowerment level and decision making.

Empowerment is defined as the ability to take decisions and participate in the social, economic and political spheres of their society. Under decisions the study examined routine major and minor decisions with regard to household, children and leisure along with the participation in their social, economic and political spheres of the society.
By participation in the social sphere (as a member of the family or community groups); in the economic sphere (as a producer/consumer or an entrepreneur/employee); and in the political sphere (as a vote's or a member of the political party was gauged.

The results point to the impact of employment and family structure that is, the presence or absence of joint family living playing an important part.

When the women were residing in joint families then most major decisions were not in their hands for both employed and unemployed women, though between the two, the employed women were making more decision than the housewives.

On analysis, Gillespie concludes that the differences in marital power are not due to individual resources or personal competence of the partners, but to the discrimination against women in the larger society.

Husband's gain power in marriage as a class, not as individuals and women are blocked as a class, not as individuals. The researcher debunks the norm of an equalitarian marriage as a myth saying that women will not be able to get equal power so long as the present socio-economic system prevails. Working women who are better educated than their men have more power as compared to the housewives & less educated women but when compared to men all these women have less power than them.
Kapur (1970) conducted a study on the marital adjustment of 300 educated working women. They were personally interviewed using a structured interview schedule. The sample had women belonging to 3 occupational categories - teachers, office workers & doctors.

Her findings show that the wife's employment in itself, does not affect her marital relationship adversely. In her study, she finds that no single factor, in itself, was found to be highly associated with adjustment or maladjustment in the marriages of working women. The study puts forward a theoretical formulation that marital adjustment to a considerable extent is a matter of attitudinal compatibility between the spouses attitudes towards the wife's employment. Further, it is hypothesized that the incompatible attitudinal interaction occurs when the attitudes of one of the spouses affecting the marital relationship changes abruptly or in greater degree than those of the other spouse. A large majority of husbands don’t mind that their wives are working women but are not ready to make adjustments at the expectation & behavioral levels i.e. they still want traditional wives.

Kapur (1973) assesses the change in the attitudes of young urban middle class educated working women in Delhi towards love, sex & marriage within the time span of a decade. Using two points of time, a decade apart, two matched samples each comprising of 500 educated working women were taken. Data was collected from the respondents using a structured questionnaire & supplemented with interviews.
The study finds a considerable change in the attitudes of young urban middle class educated working women during the decade. These women were found to be less conservative & traditional towards love, marriage & sex. Radical tendencies are developing though the conservative forces persist.

Ross (1961) examines the strains and stresses in role structure & role relationships in traditional middle & upper class families. A sample of 157 middle & upper class men & women from Bangalore belonging to different castes, income, occupation & linguistic groups were used in the study.

The study points out that young modern urban women want to have a nuclear family. Women also want a change in division of labour at home and also a change in the responsibility towards their extended family and kin. The husband & wife relationship has become more closer than before, however there are new strains & problems. Men are not able to orient themselves as helpers to their wives in the domestic sphere.

Gore (1968) studies the effect of industrialization and urbanization on family relationships. For his study he focuses on the Aggarwal families in Delhi.

His findings point to a limited change in the family. Increasing education and granting of the rights of inheritance have given women some power in her family. Women are giving more attention to their conjugal relationship instead of filial. Men on the other hand continue to be dominated by the traditional kinship ties. They are
more in favour of living in joint families while women prefer nuclear families. This has given rise to a new situation which the researcher feels will create tensions in their relationships.

Amato & Booth (1988) in their study seek to sort out the relationship between gender role attitudes & reports of marital quality by examining the changes in gender role attitudes over an eight year period. Both positive & negative marital qualities namely happiness, interaction, disagreement, problems & divorce proneness (marital instability) are assessed.

The results indicate that changes toward non-traditional gender role attitudes among wives are accompanied by reports of general decline in marital quality (less happiness, less interaction, more disagreements, more problems & higher divorce proneness). In contrast, if husbands became more egalitarian in their attitudes, their reports of negative marital quality declined (fewer problems, fewer disagreements & lower divorce proneness).

Edgell (1975) sets out to critically focus on whether the conjugal role relationships in industrial capitalist societies are in the process of becoming less segregated & more equalitarian. Data is collected from 38 couples in the child rearing stage of the family cycle.

It was found that the marital relationships remain highly segregated unequal & husband dominated. Among professional men with working wives, a majority of the couples reported that the wife typically performed a distinct range of domestic & child-rearing
tasks considerably more often than the husband and generally deferred to the husband’s authority in the more important areas of decision-making. The least segregated area of the household division of labour was child care behavior.

The study sums up that neither the work, nor the family career cycles have a major influence on the conjugal role patterns. Instead it is suggested that the husband’s orientation to paid work, plus the wife’s orientation to domestic work and to a lesser extent each spouses orientation to leisure (all of which were susceptible to changes over time) seemed to be the main factors that affected the degree of conjugal role segregation.

Misra (1998) conducted a study to trace some of the predictors of work and family conflict among working women along with identifying the area where conflict was experienced to a maximum extent.

Using a sample of 406 working women from Lucknow city, women belonging to academics, governmental & banking organizations were studied. These women were married and having children.

Analysis of data reveals spouse support to be an important dimension of family life which significantly and substantially reduces role conflict of women. It was found that role conflict was greatest in profession Vs. parent, followed by profession Vs. self & thereafter spouse Vs. self.
Other variables found to be important for predicting conflict in different areas were length of married life, number of children, respondent's age & income.

**Quarm** (1981) in her study specifically focused on the source of discrepancies that arise between husbands & wives responses on marital power and task allocation. Both random measurement error & error arising from the respondent were measured using Campbell & Fiske procedure (1959). The researcher's study demonstrates that by increasing the reliability of measures the correlation between the spouses can be increased in questions pertaining to wife's work, money & spare time. Variance is large with regard to responses of husbands & wives to items concerning child discipline, vacation & car purchase. In these cases it is prudent to construct new items measuring these power spheres that show less error due to the respondent.

Also it was found that single item measures of most dimensions e.g. marital powers are unreliable as the correlation was not high even for same item asked of same respondent at two points in time. The researcher concludes that single item measures of marital power are unreliable, much more unreliable than single item measures of task allocation.

**Rothschild & Dijkers**, did a study on working women to examine the effect of status inequalities. 250 couples of different social classes in Athens were selected. The husband's restrictiveness & dominance was measured on the basis of 8 questions. The researchers found that when the husband is less educated then wife
he is more restrictive than when they have the same level of education. Also the more income the wife contributes to the family, the more restrictions the husband places on her activities & behavior. Also the lower the education & income of the husband as compared to the wife, the more restrictive & dominant he is. On the other hand couples with equal education have husbands being more open minded with wives regarding management of her earnings. Also status similarity between spouses makes way for better communication between the spouses and better educated women are more satisfied with their sexual relationship as compared to less educated women. The study finds education to be a salient element in couple relationship than sheer income or occupational prestige as in many developing countries earning power relates to a variety of factors which do not necessarily reflect the esteem a person is accorded.

Vannoy & Philliber explore how wife’s employment and the gender role attitudes of both spouses affect perceptions of marital quality of husbands & wives. Findings point out that gender role identities and role expectations are much important in determining the quality of marriage a person experiences than are the attainments of either spouse. In general, the husband’s attitudes are more important to the experience of marital quality for both spouses than are the attitudes of the wife. His role expectations, gender-role identity and support are important as is his wife’s perceptions of his expectations & support. Her own expectations and her husband’s perception of those expectations show no relationship to marital quality perceived.
The only attitude of the wife which shows a relationship to marital quality is competitiveness; the more competitive she is, the less both husband’s & wife’s marital quality.

Nyman (1999) set out to examine the different positions & experiences, regarding access to money and consumption in Swedish working couples.

He finds that most of the couples pooled their income. However, more women than men, find it more difficult to spend on themselves as they have learned implicitly or explicitly that they must manage money & see to the needs of others and put their own needs last. Also the men’s responsibilities for the larger areas of the family’s income granted them control over their wives area of responsibility in that it set the agenda for discussion & change, determined the system of management adopted, as well as set the financial limits for what consumption was possible on a daily basis.

The researcher concludes that though the shared view of the couples was that both spouses incomes were equally as important for the family economy, women seemed to experience less influence over economic decision making and less access to personal spending money.

Thus despite the advances in the area of gender equality & women’s increased economic independence, women & men seem to have different positions & experiences regarding access to money & consumption in the family.
Summary

From the above studies, we understood that the concept of power needs proper measures (Turk & Bell, 1972). Generally decision making is an indication of the power equation between the husband & wife. However, the items of measure used for gauging decision making power have (a) different items of measure for different studies, (b) these list of decisions have a differential importance (Sexton & Perlman, 1989; Gillespie, 1971).

Marital power is linked to performance of roles (Bahr, 1982), resource symmetry (Godwin & Scanzoni, 1989), ideology (Bell & Newby; Ross, 1961 & Feree, 1984) relative education, employment & income of husband & wife (Kendel & Lesser, 1972) according to the various researchers. There is a difference of opinion on which element is salient in locating the marital power relation of a couple Rothschild & Dijkers attribute importance to education rather than employment and occupation in understanding a couples' relationship. Bahr, 1982 finds no clear picture of marital power. Power is exerted as norms sanction it however higher compliance to them is linked to higher marital satisfactory Little (1982). Godwin & Scanzoni (1989) feel that when there is more emotional bondedness than there is more shared decision making.

The marital relationship is unequal and male dominated especially in the child rearing stage of the family cycle in dual career families (Edgell, 1975) and it is necessary to change the gender role attitude to improve marital quality (Amasto & Booth, 1988).
Women are becoming less traditional towards marriage (Kapur, 1970, 1973) and want change in division of labours while men are not interested (Ross, 1961).

Thus, overall we understand that in order to study the gender relations, we have to (a) use and construct new item measures concerning the power spheres, (b) not use single item measures, (c) seek both men & women's response.

**Dual Career Family**

The study of dual career families and consequently the coining of the term "dual-career" family can be credited to Rapoport & Rapoport (1969) who were the pioneers in the study of the impact of career and family on each other.

A dual career family is a marriage in which husband and wife each has a career as opposed to a job. Both may travel both may relocate, both are on tight schedules and both earn better than average incomes. While increased economic benefits play a major part in their careers choice, that is only a part of their motivation. Self-fulfillment is one of their dominant goals and it is at least as important to them as money. Each career requires a separate major commitment outside the marriage and that dictates crucial trade offs in the marriage as well as in the kind of family life that is then possible.

*Below is a review of dual career family literature.*
Hiller & Philliber (1982) reviewed research on dual-worker couples specifically relating to their marital and career success. Stress is created in marriages where the wife’s occupational achievements exceeds the husbands. Which couples are able to overcome this status incompatibility and status competition process and which couples cannot is explained using gender role expectation and self gender identities of the marital couple.

A relationship is expected to be more stable when the role performances of self and the partner are consistent with performances of self and those role expectations are consistent with self-concepts or gender identities. Only some couples sustain a marriage in which the wife’s occupational attainments continue to surpass her husband’s. It is found that for a marriage to succeed, the individuals should be able to change their role expectations and self-concepts or gender identities to meet the social circumstances in which they find themselves.

When one or both spouses have traditional gender identities, pressure for change will result when the occupational achievements of the wife exceed those of the husband; when both have androgynous gender identity the partners are more likely to be comfortable with this condition.

Potuchek (1992) in his study used gender theory to examine employed wives orientation to breadwinning; the focus is on the meaning attached to wives employment and on breadwinning as a gender boundary in families.
Three dimensions of breadwinning were studied that is the financial support, the job centrality in their life and the norms regarding breadwinning that were observed to be prevalent in the women. Results point to the fact that there is no single orientation towards breadwinning and that these depend primarily on situational factors.

Garland & Poloma - According to Garland & Poloma the studies on the dual profession family indicate at least 4 models for interrelating the husband's & wife's professions. The first is the colleague model (Holmstrom, 1972 : 121-132), where the marital partners discuss work with each other, influence each other's work and may engage in joint work.

The second model is a competitive one, where professional competition between husband & wife leads to a battle between the sexes. A third model is the independent model, where the husband & wife each pursue separate careers with little or no attempt made to interrelate them. The fourth model is the supportive one where one career (usually that of the husband) has prime importance with the other profession (usually the wife's) as support.

Brotherton, Le Bailly (1993) examines the effect on family life and compare it with single physician couples of dual doctor couples. Using data from a national survey of pediatricians, the researchers had hypothesized that marriage to physicians would affect the work lives of male pediatricians much as parental responsibility does for female pediatricians.
Logistic & multiple regression models confirmed that marriage to physicians and the presence of children did affect career decisions of female pediatricians. Male pediatricians in dual-physician marriages worked significantly fewer hours than male pediatricians in single-physician marriages.

Silberger et al (1986) examine the practice characteristics of male & female physicians. They provide an update on past findings. The significant one’s are - A higher percentage of male physicians were self-employed; female physicians saw fewer patients in all settings; male physicians spent more hours per week in medical & administrative activities than female physicians; there was no significant difference in the number of weeks that male & female physicians worked, and female physicians on average earned less than male physicians even after adjusting for fewer hours worked per week and weeks worked per year.

Johnson C.A., Johnson B.E., Liese B.S. (1992) studied dual doctor marriages by interviewing 21 married doctor couples in Britain. The focus of their study was on career development.

They found that female physicians selected their specialty on the basis of its anticipated effect on their wife and motherhood roles and obligations while only 5% of males considered these factors in selecting a specialty. Husband physicians generally worked longer hours, took more calls, earned more money and pursued their professional training in an uninterrupted fashion as compared to women physicians.
More wives on the other hand had to opt out of full-time career when need arose and relocate if their husbands had a better opportunity elsewhere.

Thus we find that a husband’s career development takes priority over the wife’s.


The research reveals that the doctors were minimally competitive with their spouses, generally sympathetic with their partner’s needs for personal time, supportive of their spouses careers, reasonably satisfied with their sex lives, had some difficulty, relaxing and communicated relatively well with their spouses. The division of household chores, reflected traditional sex-male stereotyping. Overall, the most highly rated sources of conflict in the marriage were the amount of time the husband was away from home at work, in-laws and bringing work home. Respondents, generally rated their marriages high and believed the major advantage of a dual-doctor marriage was understanding on the part of both partners of all aspects of being a doctor. The disadvantage was lack of time for other pursuits and the realization that one partner’s career must take precedence.

Lorber (1993) in her paper on women physicians sums up the position of women medical practitioners. She says that it can readily be shown that women doctors earn less, are cut out of the most prestigious specialties, are poorly represented in powerful
administrative and policy areas, congregate in part time jobs, as locums and in family planning and public health areas that the men do not want.

Hall & Hall in their study identify several types of working couples based upon their orientations to career and family. They also delineate which types of couples might experience more or less stress. Their research concludes that there is no single dual career family role structure. There are four general types, each representing various degrees of relative ego involvement in career family roles. They are:

(i) The Accommodators - one partner who is high in career involvement and low in home involvement complementing the other who is low in career and high in home involvement. The lifestyle of this couple is built around the distribution of their home and work roles. If the persons are truly involved in their respective roles and both value both work and family, then conflicts are minimized.

(ii) The Adversaries - one in which both partners are highly involved in their careers and have low involvement in home. Yet a well ordered home are important to them. The question is who fulfills them and here arises the conflict.

(iii) The Allies - this type of couple involves two people who are both highly involved in either career or home. Here their identities, unlike above are, not tied up in having a well ordered home. The major source of stress for this couple is lack of time spent on each other.
The Acrobats - a couple in which both partners are highly involved in all their roles. Here the partners identities are not defined primarily by a single role. The conflict this couple experience is the stress of meeting all these demands.

The researchers add that none of the above roles are static. It is not uncommon to find couples in transition i.e. moving to or within the role structures defined above.

Pillai (1995). The author reviews research on women physicians in India since the 1930s and provides some insight into their lives. Women physicians gave priority to their family lives and as a result by mid career, they lag behind men with similar initial performance. They had to opt for positions compatible with their family roles and thus refused promotions and transfers. The specialization they chose were either in terms of women and children’s diseases such as gynaecology, obstetrics, pediatrics or non-clinical specialties such as physiology, anatomy or pathology so that there would be fixed hours of duty, less tension and more compatibility to adjust to the family roles.

As regards to sharing of domestic responsibility and childcare. According to Kalarani (1976) and Sinha (1987) both men and women physicians feel that it is demeaning to men to help in these areas.

McRae (1986) looks at the work and family life of men in cross families i.e. families in which the wife in occupationally superior to the husband. It was found that in such families, in order to be stable the couple had a common value system. With many cross class
wives, it was found that neither career commitment, occupational, superiority nor financial power was sufficient to affect traditional beliefs about what is their responsibility and their husband’s responsibility in the home.

Lockley’s (1980) study on the effects of female employment on marital adjustment and companionship, reveals that for both men & women, dual earner marriages do not significantly differ from single earner marriages on a variety of indicators of marital adjustment and companionship. The unfavorable effects that can occur in such marriages is in no way different from the traditional single earner marriages. The assumption that employment emancipates a married women’s life is erroneous. The benefits of dual earner marriage viz greater economic and emotional equity tend to counter its tension.

Agarwal (2001) in a chapter on dual career couples succinctly sums up the dilemma encountered by these couples. Among the numerous problems enumerated are those first of all faced because of job availability. If a spouse gets a better opportunity and can have a significant career advancement then most of the time it is the wife who has to relocate as her husband’s career always takes priority. Another problem faced by dual career families is the decision about having a child as it can impact on the career aspirations of the woman as they have the dominant responsibility towards childcare.

Lastly, stress in dual career families is probably largely due to role conflict. Stress due to work home interface occurs, when an individual experiences incompatible expectations, demands and pressures.
Cassel (1999) conducted a study of the interplay of gender at the work place specifically focusing on women and men surgeons. She studied 33 women surgeons of different ethnicity and life situations drawing her sample from 5 geographic areas within eastern and Midwestern North America. Her research found that subordinate staff in hospital behave differently with male & female surgeons.

Women surgeons are not permitted to indulge in doctors fits. A male surgeon displaying tantrums in the operating room gets a more attentive feedback from the nurses (female) while with a female surgeon showing the same kind of behavior, the female nurses became slow and sulky. The researcher has observed a hard-pressed woman surgeon dress herself but never has observed a male surgeon gown or glove himself.

Women surgeons are relatively powerless in hospital hierarchers rendering them more vulnerable than men to onslaughts by disaffected subordinate. Women residents are particularly tempting targets; if they complain, they may be branded as weak, whiny females who cannot take the heat. Moreover, members of the dominant group, subtly or not so subtly, encourage members of the subordinate group to police others.

In a sexually polarized world of surgeons, it is advantageous for a female trainee to be perceived as a real woman - eg. a senior male had advised a female to always wear lipstick, lest someone assume she was a lesbian!
A lone female resident may be adopted by a male chief of surgery as a symbolic daughter. His protection alleviates the social and psychic rigors of training, mitigating onslaughts by peers and other senior surgeons.

Maret & Finlay conducted an empirical investigation of the hypothesis that women in dual-earner families maintain full responsibility for democratic tasks including care of the home and children.

Analysis of data reveals that none of the wives attitudinal variables (pertaining to women's place, child care and housekeeping) were significantly related to levels of home responsibility. Husband's attitude toward's women's roles also was found to be uncorrelated with the home responsibility levels of the respondents. Wife's age and education were not significantly related to her home responsibility. The researchers found that the most important variables in predicting wife's home responsibility, simultaneously controlling for other variables in the model are wife's wages, race and husband's income.

Rapoport & Rapoport (1969, 1971a, 1971b & 1971c) conducted a study on the internal dynamics of a dual career family by studying intensively 16 families in which not all wives had the same occupation as their husbands.

The researchers found that the organizational environment in which the couple is working to have a significant impact on their domestic organization & child care. All the couples had domestic
help but there were considerable inter family variation in the ways
the domestic help was organized, in childcare & child rearing & in
interpersonal relations between a couple. The families studied
showed a good many elements of strain as well as satisfaction with
their style. In the case of strains there was domestic work overload
fear of negative environmental sanction on their motherhood, issues
of intra-couple’s personal identity and self esteem, social network
dilemmas with regards to friends & family and finally occupational
Vs. parental role enactment.

The central element of gain for women was that their
occupations were avenues to their self expression apart from being
sources of economic gains. Dual career families have relatively high
standard for domestic living, child care, clothing, transportation etc.

Thompson & Walker (1989) in their papers review the
research on gender in the domains of marriage, work & parent hood.
Focusing on intimacy in marriage research consistently has shown
that wives disclose more to their partners than husbands do (Peplau
& Cordon, 1985).

With regards to paid work, it is found that even though most
women do paid work & contribute 30% of family income, the
responsibility & recognition for family provision falls to men
(Szinovacz, 1984) & both women & men are ambivalent about
women as providers. Also when there is an increase in time
demands for family work, wives, not husbands, typically respond by
cutting back on time spent in paid work (Berk, 1985; Plede, 1985).
In the case of family work, no matter what technique is used to measure household division of labour, wives typically do much more than husbands (Warner, 1986). Most women and men agree that women should be responsible for family work and men should "help out" (Szinovacz, 1984). Study after study has shown that attitudes and shared norms continue to define household work as "women's" work, and most wives seem satisfied with the small amount of housework their husband's do (Peplae & Cordon, 1985).

Examining parenthood studies show that regardless of children's age, mothers typically are more invested & involved in the daily lives of their children than are fathers. (Clark Stewart, 1978; Montemayor, 1986; Kivett, 1988).

Susan Hinzé et al. (1999) undertook a study to understand how dual-doctor marriages affect careers and home life. The study found that both men & women in dual-doctor families had lower personal incomes than other doctors, suggesting that the dual-doctor families have greater leeway due to their greater combined income. In addition, both male & female doctors in dual-doctor families had a greater share of child-rearing, although women still bore the brunt of those responsibilities. Also about 90 percent of doctors married to doctors reported satisfaction from shared work experiences, compared to 77 percent of doctors married to non physicians.

The study points out that the medical profession can be a boon in dual doctor relationships because both physicians tend to work fewer hours & are happier about their shared professional experiences.
Garland & Poloma (1990) conducted a study on the dual professional family. They found that men did not feel dominated by wives holding prestigious jobs as almost all of the marital partners Garland questioned said that the man should be the bread winner and the wife should be primarily the home maker. The husband’s career generally takes priority over his wife’s. The wife’s career involvement is usually secondary to that of her husband and to the needs of their family. The researchers thus conclude that there has been no significant change in the traditional sex role.

Bielby & Bielby conducted a study on how dual earner households form & balance work and family identities.

The researchers found that for both men & women, a strong engagement in work & family roles in terms of time demands, responsibilities, and the like leads to identification with those roles. However, the process of identity formation differed for men & women in ways corresponding to gender-based differentiation in roles husband’s & wives play in the family & in the paid labour force. Also married working women gave precedence to family in balancing work & family identities while men don’t have to trade off work & family roles against each other.

Epstein (1970) undertook to study married lawyer couples who were also law partners. Partnerships of husbands & wives in a career such as law have remained small in number.

On analysis of the sample it was found that the women were mostly from immigrant families & exceptionally gifted students. No
comparable data for the husbands is provided. It was found that there was more rank discrepancy between the husband & wife partners. Women are apt to do the less visible & less prestigious work of the family firm in which they work. They reported that they were performing non-legal administrative tasks, which unfortunately do not develop the lawyer’s skill or contacts.

The advantages of a law partnership is that since they are their own masters they have enormous work and time flexibility. They also get equal pay for their work as the men do. As regards to the home life, Epstein says that work, home & leisure often flow into each other but as one went upwards in class & rank this tended to decrease. The wives assumed primary responsibility for home management & care of children & the surrogate home helpers were mostly the women’s kin. Thus to an extent the working partnership between the husbands & wives offer them many structural opportunities for successful combination of work & family life as well as the antecedent restraints.

Aryee (1992) conducted a study on married professional women of Singapore with the objective of examining work & family domain antecedents of 3 types of work family conflict namely job-spouse, job parent & job housemaker. Data for the study was obtained by using a questionnaire on a sample of 354 married professional women employed both in the public & private sectors.

The finding suggest that married professional women do experience moderate levels of each of the three types of work family conflict (job spouse, job parent & job housemaker).
Research points to the fact that the source of work family conflict may more appropriately be located in the socio cultural context within which men & women operate. The main source of conflict or strain experienced by the married professional women in this study is ambivalence.

Simon (1993) in his research examines the meaning of work & family roles to males & females. His findings show that a majority of men believe that their role is to provide economic support for their family while only a minority of women perceived this as their key role. According to them their primary obligation was to their children and spouse by providing a well kept home, emotional support & nurturance. Also more women than men experienced work parent conflicts. Husbands & wives prioritize their children’s needs over their spouse’s. Yet, wives are ultimately held responsible (by themselves & their husbands) for neglecting marriage. Thus, those viewing work & family roles as independent (most women) are more likely to experience role conflicts, especially between work & parenthood, than those viewing these roles as interdependent (most men). On asked to self evaluate their performance as a parent & spouse, most women indicated that they often felt inadequate as mother & wives while husbands evaluated themselves as successful fathers & husbands.

The implications of this research is that cultural as well as structural changes in both men’s & women’s roles are necessary to reduce sex differences in the psychological advantages of multiple role occupancy.
Horna, Lupri & Mills (1984) wrote a paper on the dilemmas in researching family & work roles.

According to the researchers, past conceptual approaches to the study of family & work roles have been duly influenced by structural functional theory. According to this formulation then a married woman doing paid work raises the possibility of disruptive competition between the spouses. This assertion requires a thorough examination in the light of the rapidly increasing labour force involvement of married women.

The researchers propose to use concepts derived from a family development framework. Development theory bridges the two interrelated but often separately conceptualized areas of the changing family & work (& leisure) roles of both men & women. Conceptualizing family as a unit with a set of development task requirements inside & outside the household & treating of housework & paid work as family work & thereby making obsolete the distinctions between man’s work & women’s work is the new perspective. More importantly these tasks are not solved by gender-role segregation but by gender-role symmetry, in which both men & women contribute equally to domestic & non domestic tasks.

Therefore, theory needs to define men’s & women’s role configuration in a manner that will make allowance for the emergence of alternative family work structures. Also a major methodological weakness in past research has been the collection of data on individual males & females (usually the latter) with the subsequent inference made to the marital unit of husbands & wives.
This is a serious limitation because female/male variations provide incomplete & often misleading information about the couple. Requiring duplicate information (the couple unit is seen as a dyad) from both partners will enhance veracity & methodological vigour.

Grant, Simpson & Rong (1990) conducted a study on the work hours of physician parents. They set to find out whether there are significantly different allocations of time to work among early career men & women physicians. Also whether parenthood influences the practice hours of women & men doctors. Finally, what the ideal hours will be. Findings show that male doctors practiced significantly more hours weekly than did female doctors when parental status is not controlled. Differences in women’s & men’s weekly practice hours were much greater for parents then for non parents.

Women practice significantly fewer hours than men. Type of practice also has a significant main effect on practice hours with physicians in solo practice, practicing more than group practitioners or salaried doctors. Among the doctors in this study there were no significant gender differences in women’s & men’s distributions across practice types & specialities.

Finally, all groups i.e. men, women parent’s & non parents averaged more actual practice hours than they regarded as ideal.

The findings of the study concur that the effects of parental status are gender-specific with parenthood reducing women’s but not men’s work involvement.
Pillai & Sen (1998) conducted a psychosocial study of Dual Career Women. They investigated the life of working women with regard to their dual role as professionals & family care takers. Women representing four professions namely doctors, lawyers, media women & executives were taken as respondents.

Findings show that women have medium involvement in their jobs. Lady executives had more involvement in their jobs followed by media women, women in medicine women in law in descending order. Doctors had high family support followed by lawyers, media women & executives in descending order.

Finally only 7% of women were successful in achieving a harmony between their family & professional lives with the remaining 93% women experiencing various obstacles in achieving the desired harmony. The researcher concludes that most women are unsuccessful in integrating their work & family lives.

Rani (1976) sought to study the working married women's role as (i) a wife & mother and (ii) an employee. The study was undertaken in the Central & Western Zones of Patna city. Working women from various occupations were interviewed.

It was found that the mental make-up of the women greatly influenced their perception of role conflict. Those women having traditional role orientation had more role conflicts. Results show that conflict is neither directly related to education nor class. In cases where there was a direct conflict between the job & home role, it was the home role (i.e. wife & mother role) that was given precedence over the job role.
The researcher concludes that working women in whatever occupations give priority to their familial role over the role of an employee.

The YWCA did a study on educated women i.e. those women with a first university degree. Case studies were undertaken in four professions i.e. teaching, social work, medicine (including surgery) & nursing with the women respondents being in the age group of twenty to fifty eight years. Focusing specifically on the medical profession in India, the study found that the most striking feature about women in the medical profession in India is their number. According to the manpower survey of 1967-68, the existing workforce comprised of 12,000 women out of a total of 1,20,000 doctors. With the possible exception of the USSR, these figures (for women) exceed proportionately from those of any other country, developed or undeveloped.

While in developed countries like the USA & Western Europe, women have shown some reluctance to take up exacting professions like medicine (& law) which would conflict with their home & family, the young women of India, inspite of belonging to a tradition-bound society, have shown no such inhibitions in regard to medicine.

The reasons for this are the dignity of this profession, the ideal of service, the high social status and the monetary gains. The study found that 50% of medical graduates went on for further specialisation.
Kumar seeks to unravel the role of genders in the scientific institutions of India, specifically gender based inequities, particularly in terms of ranking in the academic hierarchy.

The researchers finds a lower percentage of women scientists at higher ranking even though there is no significant gender differences in their performance (whether it be teaching or research).

Her findings indicate that men & women scientists do not differ significantly in terms of recognition in the wider scientific community (e.g. awards) & reaffirms the belief that it is at the institutional level that the inequalities operate especially in the processes of promotion. She concludes that the higher proportion of women in lower ranks is not a simple function of low seniority or research productivity.

Rani & Khandelwal (1992) did a comparative study of Dual & Single career families namely their family environment & the interpersonal behaviour existing in both types of family.

They found that there are no significant differences among members of dual & single career families with regard to cohesiveness & expressiveness.

With regard to dominance, male’s seem to exert greater control & tend to dominate. The working status of women helps to reduce their wish to be dominated by others but makes little or no difference to potential control over the situation.
Perceptions of various members were used as an indicator of power in interpersonal behaviour & expressiveness and cohesiveness of family environment. Data was collected from the couple & their children with the result that there were different perceptions without focusing on specific incidents or criteria which guided their perception.

Gowler & Legge in their study seek to find out the distinctive characteristics of life within dual earner families in Britain. In most dual earner families, the husband appears to give the most & widest ranging help in household tasks early in marriage. After the birth of children the wife spends some years as a full-time housewife. In the technical area of household division of labour, traditional patterns are followed, inspite of the women being employed too. Both full time & part time mothers chiefly rely on informal arrangements for childcare. However, more full time mothers than part time mothers are also dependent on formal child care arrangements too.

Summary

From the literature on dual career family we gather that mostly, the husband’s career takes priority, they are considered the bread winners while women give precedence to family in balancing work and family Bielby (1993); Simon (1993); Pillai & Sen (1998); Thompson & Walker (1989); Potuchek (1992). Locksley’s (1980) research findings indicate that employment does not emancipate a married woman’s life. Also there are different configurations of dual working couples based on their orientation to career and family (Hall; Garland & Poloma, 1990). Studies specifically focusing on doctors find that workwise men doctors worked longer hours, took
more calls, earned work money (Silberger, 1986; Johnson, 1991; Lorber, 1993; Grant, Simpson & Rong, 1990). Women doctors have less power than male doctors (Cassel, 1989; Lorber, 1993).

Their household has a traditional division of labour (Johnson, 1991) women have greater responsibility of child rearing (Kitinze; Pillai & Sen, 1998), women are cut out of prestigious specialities (Lorber, Johnson, Pillai, 1995).

Examining other dual career marriages like lawyers, who are having their own law firm, it was found that these couples have enormous work and time flexibility, get equal pay yet women are apt to do the less prestigious work of the family firm.

Kumar found no significant gender differences in scientists performance and concluded that inequality exists at the institutional level especially in the processes of promotion.

Pillai & Sen (1998) found that women have medium involvement in their jobs & Pillai's research on women physicians reveals that women lag behind men as they give priority to their family lives.

We find some studies also addressing the attendant role conflicts experienced by dual career families, we find Hiller & Philliber (1982) advocating a need to modify role expectations and gender identities. By itself financial power of the women is not sufficient to affect traditional belief according to McRae's (1986) study on cross class families. The most important variables for predicting wives home responsibility are wives' wages, race and

Thus, from the above studies we infer that most dual career families still identify themselves as in male breadwinner and female home maker role. Role conflict is mostly experienced by the women, most of the studies do not try to find out the role conflicts experienced by men. From the methodological point of view, it is important to collect data from both male and female respondents as most researchers tends to collect data from women only with the subsequent inference made to the couple (Horna et al).

Dual professional families are slowly on the rise and there is a need to study how such families cope with their professional and family demands as both career and family demand equal attention. Infact the professionals because of the exacting nature of their career face this problem more acutely as compared to other non-professional dual working couples. By studying these professionals we can learn from their experiences, find out their coping strategies and identify conflict areas which can be remedied by policies/legislations etc.