The Relationship Between Husband Supportiveness and Wife's Adjustment to Motherhood

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A Dissertation Presented to the Graduate Faculty of the University of Virginia in Candidacy for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Education

University of Virginia

May, 1982

FOR THE GRADUATE FACULTY

OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to the members of my committee, Dr. Richard Abidin, Dr. Donna Cowan, Dr. David Waters and Dr. Herb Richards, for their invaluable guidance and support during this endeavor. Dick Abidin was an important resource in both conceptual and practical matters. His enthusiasm for the project, sharing of his understanding of children and parents under stress, and insistence that my ideas for the study be clear all contributed to the improvement of the study. Donna Cowan provided invaluable ideas, support, and encouragement throughout the project. I am particularly grateful for her calming influence and steadfast support during the inevitable times of crises. David Waters's vast and sensitive understanding of families and family therapy has been a major influence on how I think about and work with families. He is both a wonderful friend and teacher. Working with Herb Richards on the statistical analysis was a delight. His infectious enthusiasm and extensive knowledge of data analysis made this aspect of the project an exciting challenge rather than an overwhelming burden. I am also very grateful for the support and gentle guidance provided by my father, Avery Catlin, as I ventured into the world of computers.

A great deal of thanks is also extended to the doctors and staff of the four pediatric clinics for their willingness to take time from their hectic schedules to talk to parents about the study. Thanks also to Peggy Marshall for her excellent typing.

Special acknowledgement goes to my husband, Fran, whose support during our transition to parenthood provided the stimulus for the dissertation topic. And it was with his support and love that my transition from graduate student to psychologist was accomplished.

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ABSTRACT

The major purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between husband support and wife's parenting stress level. It was hypothesized that there would be a negative relationship between husband support and parenting stress. Specific aspects of husband support that were examined were: emotional support, acceptance of the father role, favorable evaluation of wife as mother, companionship, and direct service in child care and household tasks. Additionally, it was predicted that the couples' sex role ideology would have an intervening effect between support and stress, such that the negative relationship between parenting stress and husband support would be stronger for couples with an egalitarian sex role ideology. Thirdly, it was predicted that husband support would have a greater influence in mediating wife's parenting stress arising from mother characteristics than stress arising from either child or situational/demographic characteristics.

The subjects were 100 couples with a first child in the four to twelve month age range. It was predominantly a white, middle-class sample. The Parenting Stress Index (Burke & Abidin, 1978) was used to obtain an overall total stress score and subscale scores which provide information about specific sources of stress pertaining to child, mother, and situational/demographic characteristics. The Husband Support Scale, de-

signed by the researcher, was used to assess various aspects of husband support.

The data analysis revealed a significant inverse relationship between husband support and wife's parenting stress level. Aspects of husband support found to have the greatest relationship with stress were emotional support, acceptance of the father role, and favorable evaluation of wife as mother. The hypothesis that the negative relationship between parenting stress and husband support would be stronger for couples holding an egalitarian sex role ideology was not confirmed. Additionally, husband support explained the greatest amount of variance in stress arising from mother characteristics, but not significantly more than that explained in stress arising from situational/demographic characteristics. The results are discussed in terms of the interactive influence marital relations and parenting can have on each other, as well as on a new mother's parenting stress level.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The transition to parenthood as a stressful period has received a great deal of attention in the last twenty years. It has been hypothesized that the addition of a child into the marriage relationship may be stressful for the couple because it requires a change from a dyad to a triad (LeMasters, 1957; Jacoby, 1969). The child creates a system of multiple relationships so that interactions in a relationship with one member affects his or her relationship with the other member. From his work on stage-critical tasks in family development, Solomon (1973) concluded that a couple must solidify their relationship to one another as man to woman as well as develop their new roles as father and mother in order to make a successful adjustment.

Rossi (1968) suggested a number of reasons why the transition to parenthood might be stressful, especially for women. She pointed out that the cultural pressures on women to become mothers is as great as the cultural pressure on men to work. Furthermore, the desire to become a parent includes perceiving parenthood as a religious or civic obligation, acceptance of one's gender role and a sign of mental health (Veevers, 1973). Although more women are choosing not to become mothers or to delay motherhood (Bram, 1971), there continues to be a cultural norm for women to fulfill their

role as mother, whether or not they are ready or capable of handling the ensuing tasks.

Lack of preparation for parenthood has also been identified as a reason why the adjustment might be stressful (LeMasters, 1957; Rossi, 1968). LeMasters (1974) pointed out that not only is there little preparation for parental obligations but the effects of such ignorance are magnified by erroneous "folklores," such as "children improve the marriage," and "love is enough to sustain good parental performance." In addition, the advice offered by experts is often contradictory (LeMasters, 1974; Wylie, 1978). Modern society and women's expanded education have increased both the importance and complications of the role of motherhood by providing an image of the ideal, without delineating the steps for achieving it (Lopata, 1971).

Parenthood can also be stressful because it is irrevocable (Rossi, 1968; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1977). Parents must adjust to the fact that they have reached a new stage--a point of no return. Mothers, especially, do not have the freedom to leave or return their infant if they find motherhood unsatisfactory. As Rossi (1968, p. 32) noted, "We can have ex-spouses and ex-jobs, but not ex-children."

Thus, the transition to parenthood requires changes for a couple. Not only does the addition of a first child mean additional work and responsibilities for the parents, but it also moves them to a new stage in their own development. It

brings forth developmental issues and tasks concerning the self, the marital dyad, and the newly forming family system. Although it is a period of adjustment for both father and mother, the mother is viewed as having to make the most adjustment (Hobbs & Cole, 1976; Rossi, 1968).

The ways in which women cope with the transition to motherhood have been the focus of a large body of literature. Controversy exists as to the degree of crisis women experience during this transition, but it is clear that some find it stressful (Dyer, 1963; Leifer, 1977; LeMasters, 1957). Variables that have been identified as affecting the ease or difficulty of adjustment include characteristics of the mother (Hobbs & Cole, 1976; Russel, 1974); the child's temperament (Gibaud-Wallston & Wandersman, 1978; Russell, 1974); and the role of the extended family and community as potential resources (Gladieux, 1978). Little attention, however, has been given to the husband's role during this period and, in particular, its relationship to the wife's transitional stress.

There are several reasons why the husband's role during the transition to parenthood should be examined. First of all, it has recently become apparent that men are more interested in and capable of early involvement with the tasks of parenthood than had been thought previously (Fein, 1976). They are likely to participate in prenatal classes during pregnancy and be actively involved with their wives during

delivery. Contrary to popular beliefs, men tend to be "engrossed" with their newborn baby (Greenberg & Morris, 1973) and, when given the opportunity, are comfortable with and enjoy holding the baby during its first days of life (Parke & Swain, 1976).

Secondly, husbands are increasingly likely to be asked for help and support by their wives during the transition to parenthood. Women have found husband involvement and help during labor and delivery to be extremely supportive (Blehar, 1979). It follows that they would continue to want his reassurance, advice and support in the ensuing transition to parenthood as well (Grossman et al., 1979). As has been found in labor and delivery, husband support is likely to be an important mediator of stress for a mother coping with the new demands, expectations and responsibilities of parenthood.

It is probable, however, that a couple's sex role ideology modifies the degree of support a woman would want from her husband during the transition to parenthood and, as a result, the degree that his support would mediate her parenting stress level. There are indications that women with egalitarian sex role views may experience more stress with parenthood than more traditionally oriented women. They are more likely to report lower pregnancy satisfaction (Gladieux, 1978) and to experience child-career conflict when they become parents (Lopata, 1971). Additionally, they tend to view

their husbands as a major source of support. These couples are more likely to want to share the responsibilities of housework and child care since sharing has been their pattern in the past (Rapoport et al., 1977; Cowan et al., 1978). Women with an egalitarian sex role ideology are also less likely to have a close knit network of friends and relatives to call upon for support (Bott, 1971; Gladieux, 1978) and are more likely to have a companionate relationship with their husbands (Feldman, 1971). Whereas a more traditionally oriented woman might view husband involvement as a bonus, a woman with egalitarian views is likely to expect his involvement since sharing has been an accepted aspect of their relationship in the past. Thus, it seems probable that while husband supportiveness may be inversely related to wife's parenting stress level during the transition to parenthood for all new mothers, this relationship may be stronger for egalitarian women.

While a great deal has been learned about specific consequences of parenthood that can be stressful for the mother, the need for future researchers to investigate the conditions which are related to a woman's successful adjustment to parenthood has been emphasized (Hobbs & Cole, 1976). Given that men have shown an interest in being involved in parenthood and are more likely to be asked for help and support by their wives, especially by those with an egalitarian orientation, it follows that an investigation of the various roles

that husbands fulfill should be made. Discovering how a husband can facilitate his wife's adjustment should be valuable in understanding the transition to parenthood.

Statement of the Problem

The research problem examined in this study is the relationship between husband supportiveness and parenting stress for a new mother. Six aspects of husband supportiveness were chosen, based on their identification either by the transition to parenthood literature and/or by the social support literature as potentially important aspects of supportiveness. They are: emotional support, problem solving support, direct service in child and household responsibilities, companionship, acceptance of the father role, and the degree he supports his wife's involvement in non-mother roles. It is hypothesized that the relationship between these aspects of husband support and wife's parenting stress level will be negative.

The second purpose of the study is to explore the relationship between husband support and wife's parenting stress level, while controlling for the couple's sex role ideology. It is hypothesized that the relationship between husband support and parenting stress for a new mother will be greater for couples holding egalitarian sex role ideology than for couples holding a traditional sex role ideology.

The third purpose of the study is to explore on which aspects of parenting stress husband support has its strongest influence. It is hypothesized that the relationship between

husband support and wife's parenting stress level will be greater on the stress index subscale assessing "mother characteristics" than on the subscales assessing "child characteristics" or "situational characteristics."

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature on the impact of parenthood has used the term "crisis" to define the process brought about by the addition of the first child (Hobbs, 1965; LeMasters, 1957; Meyerowitz & Feldman, 1966). Rossi (1968) suggested that the term "crisis" or "normal crisis" are both misnomers. "Crisis" is inappropriate if the couple is able to reintegrate successfully their social roles with minimal difficulty and "normal crisis" suggests there is a successful outcome when this is not necessarily true for all couples. She suggested, instead, that the term "transition" be used.

The definition of "crisis" in this body of literature has, for the most part, been based on Reubin Hill's conceptualization of crisis (Dyer, 1963; LeMasters, 1957; Russell, 1974). Hill defined crisis as "any sharp or decisive change for which old patterns are inadequate . . . A crisis is a situation in which the usual behavior patterns are found to be unrewarding and new ones are called for immediately" (Hill, 1949, p. 51). Hill goes further, stating that changes of this nature can create stress for the individual members of the system.

Burr (1973) suggested that crisis as used in the transition literature is synonymous with the amount of disruption that occurs in the family system. The family is viewed as a social system with interrelated roles and positions and the

extent of crisis is a direct reflection of the amount of disruption in the routine operations of the family.

Wandersman (1978) pointed out that the focus on crisis obscures the fact that the adjustment to parenthood is an ongoing process. The infant changes rapidly during the first year and the parents' successful adoption of roles at one stage does not ensure adequate adjustment to changes at a later stage. She suggested that the adjustment to parenthood should be viewed as a ". . . complex, transitional process rather than as an end state" (Wandersman, 1978, p. 2).

Research on Parenthood as "Crisis"

The major question addressed in research on the transition to parenthood has been whether or not this period is experienced as stressful or as a crisis by most new parents. Results are contradictory. Building on Hill's work, LeMasters (1957) was the first to postulate parenthood as a crisis. He interviewed 46 middle and upper class, educated couples with a first child five years old or under. He rated the couple's experience with first parenthood on a five point scale from "severe" to "no crisis." "Extensive" or "severe" crisis in adjusting to the first child was reported by 83% of the couples. LeMasters (1957) pointed out that the crisis was not a result of not wanting the child, since pregnancy was planned by 35 of the couples. In addition, almost all of the marriages were rated as good. LeMasters concluded that parenthood as a crisis was the norm because of poor preparation

offered expectant parents, the adjustment required in changing from a dyadic to a triadic relationship, and the fact that parenthood forces a couple into maturity and adult responsibilities.

Dyer (1963) essentially replicated LeMaster's study using 32 couples with a first child two years old or younger. Using a questionnaire to assess potential difficulty for new parents, he found that 53% of his couples reported "extensive" or "severe" crisis and 38% reported "moderate" crisis. He suggested that experiencing parenthood as stressful or a crisis was related to ". . . a) the state of the marriage and family organization at the birth of the child; b) the couple's preparation for marriage and parenthood; c) the couple's marital adjustment after the birth of the child; and d) certain social background and situational variables such as the number of years married, 'planned parenthood,' and the age of the child" (Dyer, 1963, p. 199).

More recent support of LeMaster's conception of parenthood as crisis comes from an intensive study of 19 white, middle-class first mothers by Leifer (1977). She collected data at seven points; three postpartum. Postpartum measures included a four hour interview at 3 days and 6 - 8 weeks postpartum and a questionnaire at 7 months postpartum. Leifer reported that the majority of her sample found the adjustment to motherhood difficult: "In adapting to the general life changes incurred by parenthood, the majority of women experienced

moderate to high degrees of stress and maintained ambivalent or negative perceptions about parenthood at seven months postpartum" (Leifer, 1977, p. 81). She also noted that despite the difficulty, the majority of women felt an increase in self-esteem. Leifer cautioned, however, against concluding that increased self-esteem necessarily goes hand in hand with becoming a mother.

Feldman's work on the impact of children on the marital relationship also provides support for parenthood as crisis (Feldman, 1971; Meyerowitz & Feldman, 1966). His findings suggest that couples are significantly less satisfied with their marriage after the first child is born than before. Based on a survey of 400 primaparous couples, Meyerowitz and Feldman (1966) found that couples reported a steady decline in the percentage of time "things are going well" from pre-pregnancy to five months postpartum. Couples recalled the period before pregnancy as going well 85% of the time compared to 65% of the time five months after the baby was born. As there was only a slight decline at one month postpartum, Meyerowitz and Feldman (1966) concluded that couples are most likely to experience stress during the 2nd - 5th months. They noted, however, that there was a discrepancy in the couples' reports.

> The respondents agreed strongly that having a baby made the marriage even better. But in response to specific questions they also agreed at a lower qualitative level with items stating 'our baby's needs conflict with our own desires,' 'care of the

> baby limits the recreational activities we can do together,' and 'when the baby is awake we find less time for each other.' But they disagreed with the statement that 'the baby's demands are a strain on the marital relationship.'
>
> (Meyerowitz & Feldman, 1966, p. 83)

In a longitudinal study of 64 mothers and 57 fathers during the first year of parenthood, Wandersman (1978) also found a decline in marital satisfaction. Although the mothers indicated predominantly positive feelings about themselves, their babies and their spouses at 3 months postpartum, 6 weeks later and 8 months postpartum, they reported a statistically significant decrease in the quality of their marital relationship. A decrease was found in the mothers' overall satisfaction with the marriage, shared feelings, laughing together and feeling loved. Although not statistically significant, the trend was in this direction for fathers as well. Wandersman (1978) concluded that the marriage shows increasing strain during the first year of parenthood as the baby continues to compete with the marital relationship for time and feelings.

The first to suggest that parenthood might not be a crisis for the majority of parents was Daniel Hobbs in 1965. He developed a 23 item checklist of difficulties for new parents and asked his random sample of 53 couples to indicate the extent to which (none, somewhat, not at all) they had been bothered by each variable. His sample differed from those of LeMasters and Dyer in that the couples had varied educational

and economic backgrounds and the average age of the child was 9.8 weeks. In contrast to previous findings, none of his couples reported "extensive" or "severe" crisis. Eighty-six percent of the couples fell into the "slight" category and 13.2% in the "moderate" category. Mothers had significantly higher crisis scores than fathers, although the mean for both fell in the "slight" category.

In an attempt to explain the divergence between his findings and those of others, Hobbs conducted two replication studies (Hobbs, 1968; Hobbs & Cole, 1976). His samples consisted of 27 and 65 couples whose babies' mean age was approximately 24 weeks. The results of these studies were similar to the results of his 1965 study. Seventy-five percent of the couples in both replication studies had crisis scores which placed them in the "slight" or "none" categories. On the theory that middle-class couples, the population LeMasters (1957) and Dyer (1963) used, might experience greater crisis than the general population, he did a subanalysis of 28 couples where the husband was college-educated. He found results similar to his larger sample; 93% were in the "slight" or "none" category (Hobbs & Cole, 1976). He did find variations between his original and replication studies, however, on specific areas of difficulty that discriminated between high and low stressed parents and on relationship and situational variables that might predict a couple's crisis level. The specific items and predictor variables will be discussed in

the next section. Hobbs concluded that ". . . initiating parenthood may be slightly difficult, but not sufficiently difficult to warrant calling it a crisis experience for parents whose first child is still an infant" (Hobbs & Cole, 1976, p. 729).

Other studies have supported Hobbs' conclusion that the transition to parenthood is only moderately to slightly stressful (Fein, 1976; Russell, 1974; Wente & Crockenberg, 1976; Wylie, 1978). Russell (1974) reported data from a random sample of 271 couples that indicated 95% experienced no more than moderate difficulty in adjusting to the first child. She also included an 11 item gratification checklist and found that the proportion of "gratification" items checked was higher than "crisis" items. Studies examining the adjustment to fatherhood suggest that fathers experience only minimal to moderate difficulty in making the transition (Wente & Crockenberg, 1976) and if a "crisis" exists, it is likely to come before birth or during the first two weeks after birth (Fein, 1976).

Explanations of contradictory findings have been offered by a number of researchers, yet these attempts to clarify the discrepancies have themselves been contradictory. Jacoby (1969) postulated that middle-class women, when compared to lower-class women, might experience more stress with the transition to motherhood because they are likely to have less previous experience with child care, higher ideals without

means for achieving them, and potential conflict over abandoning vocational pursuits. Studies which used only middle-class respondents (Dyer, 1963; Leifer, 1977; LeMasters, 1957) reported higher crisis scores than those using a more representative sample (Hobbs, 1965, 1968; Russell, 1974). Yet neither Hobbs nor Russell found higher crisis scores for a middle-class subsample of their larger sample.

The age of the child has also been offered as a reason for the contradiction. Studies using babies under one year of age (Hobbs, 1965, 1968; Hobbs & Cole, 1976; Russell, 1974; Wylie, 1978) generally have reported lower crisis scores (exception: Leifer, 1977) than those with babies over a year old (Dyer, 1963; LeMasters, 1957; Lopata, 1971). However, Dyer (1963) found a negative relationship between age of baby and crisis, and others reported no relationship (Hobbs, 1968; Russell, 1979).

The contradictions can perhaps best be explained by differences in measurements of crisis used by the various studies. Those using Hobbs' checklist generally report lower crisis scores than those using other questionnaires or interviews. Hobbs (1968), for example, found that 20% of the women interviewed were classified as experiencing "severe" crisis, whereas none were in this category among his questionnaire group. Yet, Wente and Crockenberg (1976) found that reports of adjustment difficulty, especially regarding the marital relationship, tended to be minimized in interviews but not

on questionnaires. As Hobbs and Cole noted (1976), further work is needed on developing a more effective instrument.

Although researchers disagree on the amount of crisis most parents experience with their first child, they have begun to identify several variables that relate to the degree of difficulty. In particular, the literature suggests several areas of concern for new parents or consequences of parenthood that make the transition more difficult. Steps have also been taken to specify various situational, demographic, and behavioral factors which might predict or mediate stress for the couple. Since this study's focus is the mother's experience of stress and potential mediators of this stress for her, the review will be limited to this area.

Before beginning this review, however, it is important to note that the transition to parenthood is best conceptualized as a period having difficulties and gratifications. One study, for example, found that parents checked proportionately more "gratification" items than "crisis" items (Russell, 1974). Even studies which focused primarily on the stressful nature of the transition point out that most couples eventually make a successful transition (LeMasters, 1957; Dyer, 1963) and find the experience to be maturing and growth producing (Leifer, 1977; Lopata, 1971). The transition to parenthood requires a number of changes and adjustments from the parents and the mother in particular. Yet, it is evident that the majority eventually make the adjustments.

Areas of Concern for New Mothers

That mothers find new parenthood exhausting, especially during the early months, has been supported by a number of studies (Alpert et al., 1978; LeMasters, 1957; Russell, 1974). Dyer (1963) reported that 85% of the mothers in his sample complained of tiredness, exhaustion and loss of sleep. Similarly, Hobbs and Cole (1976) found "feeling edgy and upset" to be the most discriminating item between high and low crisis mothers. On the basis of studies of fathers and adoptive mothers which found they also experienced some depression and upset during parenthood transition, Leifer (1977) concluded that social factors rather than merely hormonal changes may be a major contributor to postpartum stress.

The additional amount of work required by the presence of a baby is another major area of concern to mothers who find the transition stressful (Hobbs & Cole, 1976; Cowan et al., 1978; LeMasters, 1957). In a study of household time-use patterns, it was found that housework responsibilities more than double during the first year of parenthood (Walker, 1970). A number of studies has reported that with the addition of a child the division of labor tends to change in a more traditional direction: fewer shared tasks and more role specialization (Cowan et al., 1978; Wandersman, 1978). Leifer (1977) found that the majority of stressed mothers complained of not enough help with baby or household chores.

The mother's concern about her appearance and "loss of figure" has also been identified as a potential stressor during

this period (Hobbs & Cole, 1976; Gruis, 1977; LeMasters, 1957). Russell (1974) reported that 74% of the new mothers in her sample found this to be bothersome. Leifer (1977) noted that more women felt negative about their appearance in the postpartum period than at any time during the pregnancy.

Dyer (1963) found that adjusting to being tied down was one of the most frequently checked items by mothers experiencing "severe" crisis. Feeling isolated and bored has also been associated with the transition to motherhood (Hoffman, 1978; Leifer, 1977). Lopata (1971) reported that the isolation experienced by a new mother had two effects--a single focus and limited interaction. Consequently, new mothers often experienced an "identity crisis." She noted that: "The care of infants calls for repetitious actions, isolation from interaction and intellectual stimulation, and limitation of occasions to display a wide range of personality behaviors in a variety of social contexts which show the uniqueness of the self" (Lopata, 1971, p. 193).

Anxiety about her adequacy as a mother is another concern expressed by women who find the transition difficult (Dyer, 1963; Hobbs, 1965; LeMasters, 1957; Leifer, 1977). Lopata (1971), for example, reported that many women were confused and upset about their emotional reaction to the strains of living with a baby, and experienced anxiety, guilt, and frustration over their interaction when things did not go well. Leifer (1977), however, noted that feelings of inadequacy and doubt decreased near the end of the second month.

The last major area of concern or consequence of parenthood that has been identified as making the transition for mothers more difficult is an increased strain in the marital relationship (Shereshefsky, 1973; Wandersman, 1978). One study found that women felt more needed but were less satisfied with their marriage after the addition of a child (Feldman, 1971). Others have indicated that new mothers feel neglected (Ryder, 1973) and less loved (Wandersman, 1978). Raush et al. (1974) found that the empathy and understanding husbands offered their wives during pregnancy ended when the child was born. New fathers tended to be more rational and cognitive rather than conciliatory. Raush concluded that: "Apparently they no longer see their wives as needing special support when engaged in marital conflict . . . and . . . may be failing their wives just when support is most needed" (Raush et al., 1974, pp. 190-191).

Other studies, however, have found that some women reported their marriage as happier and more satisfactory after the addition of the baby (Hobbs & Cole, 1976; Hoffman, 1978). Based on a subanalysis of his data, Feldman (1971) suggested a reason for these contradictory findings. He concluded that whether or not marital satisfaction increased or decreased with the addition of a child depended upon the type of marriage the couple had prepartum. Couples with a differentiated marriage, who had lower verbal communication, lower emotionality during conflict, seldom used their spouse as an interpersonal

resource, and held a belief system precluding husband's help in household tasks, showed an increase in marital satisfaction. Couples having a more companionate marriage reported a decrease in marital satisfaction after becoming a parent.

Thus, the consequences of parenthood that can be stressors for the mother include feeling edgy and exhausted, being tied down and isolated, the additional amount of work required, concern about her appearance and her adequacy as a mother, and a strain in her relationship with her husband. Many situational, demographic and behavioral factors have been examined to determine their association with the stressfulness of motherhood. These have included parents' age, education and income, length of marriage, career orientation of the mother, and preparation (Hobbs, 1965; Hobbs & Cole, 1976; LeMasters, 1957; Russell, 1974). However, none of these has been found to be consistently related to a mother's difficulty in adjusting to the first child (Hobbs & Cole, 1976). Exceptions are that a calm, non-problematic baby (Alpert et al., 1978; Russell, 1974) and a planned pregnancy (Russell, 1974) appear to be negatively related to higher crisis scores.

Perhaps the most consistent finding has been that the degree of marital adjustment affects the adjustment to motherhood. Numerous studies have found that the husband-wife relationship, when characterized by mutuality, affection, and inclusion, is itself a deterrent to the development of stress during the transition (Dyer, 1963; Feldman, 1971; Russell, 1974; Shereshefsky et al., 1973). This suggests that the

husband can facilitate or hinder his wife's transition to motherhood depending upon how he performs his role as father and husband. Wives who have their husband's support and help may experience less stress than those who do not.

The Effect of Sex Role Ideology on the Husband's Role

Before discussing the husband's role of support during the transition to parenthood, it is important to consider the possibility of an interaction effect between sex role ideology and husband supportiveness (Blood & Wolfe, 1960). Whether or not a husband's supportiveness is inversely related to his wife's level of stress with parenthood may be a function of the couple's sex role ideology. Literature on sex role ideology suggests several important distinctions between the life styles and expectations of women with an egalitarian orientation as opposed to a more traditional orientation. Differences in life styles and expectations would, in turn, affect the importance women placed on the husband's role of support during her adjustment to motherhood.

First of all, women with an egalitarian conception of roles tend to be educated, members of the middle class who value companionship in the marriage and have training in an occupational skill (Erickson et al., 1979; Udry, 1974). Many researchers (Javron, 1966; Jacoby, 1968; Lopata, 1971; Rossi, 1968) have noted that these women are more likely to experience child-career conflict when they become parents. Since they view their husbands as an important resource (Feldman,

1971), it follows that they would turn to them for support and help when they were experiencing stress.

Secondly, traditional women have lower expectations that their husbands will share in household and child care responsibilities (Perrucci et al., 1978; Stafford et al., 1977). By definition, they tend to view household work and child care as the woman's major role. Egalitarian couples, on the other hand, are more likely to expect to share these tasks. One study, for example, found that the best (although modest) predictor of the husband's participation in household and child care activities was his sex role ideology rather than time-availability or wife's employment (Perrucci et al., 1978).

A third distinction between women with an egalitarian versus traditional sex role ideology is that egalitarian women are less likely to have a close-knit social network of friends and relatives (Bott, 1971; Gladieux, 1978). Bott (1971, p. 60) stated that "the degree of segregation in the role relationship of husband and wife varies directly with the connectedness of the family's social network. Blood and Wolfe (1960) reported that wives in egalitarian marriages were more likely to share their problems with their husbands. Again, this suggests the possibility that for a woman with egalitarian views, a major source of social support would be her husband rather than friends or relatives.

Two of the transition to parenthood studies have examined the possible relationship between a couple's sex role ideology and the husband's role during the transition. Both suggest

that egalitarian women experience more stress in the transition to parenthood than do traditional women. As noted earlier, Feldman (1971) reported that women with traditional sex role conceptions experienced less marital strain than did women with more egalitarian views. He also found that all wives who reported increased marital satisfaction tended to expect their husbands' involvement in child care activities. Although this was not explored by Feldman, it is probable that a husband's involvement for a woman with egalitarian views would be more important since this has been an accepted aspect of their relationship, whereas a more traditionally oriented woman might view his involvement as a bonus.

Gladieux (1978) found that egalitarian women reported lower pregnancy satisfaction and that husband support was related to satisfaction for both traditional and egalitarian women. In further analysis, however, she found that egalitarian women experienced more stress than any group when their husbands shared their concern about whether parenthood would be satisfying. These husbands were less able to offer their wives reassurance and support. Thus it appears that egalitarian women are more likely to experience stress during the transition to motherhood and may turn, first, to their husbands for support and reassurance. It seems plausible that, especially for egalitarian women, husband supportiveness would be inversely related to wife's stress during the adjustment to motherhood.

Support and Resistance to Stress

The potential impact of stress on an individual's psychological and physical functioning has been well documented. Based on his pioneering work on the physiological effects of stress, Seyle (1956, 1974) postulated that each person has a finite amount of "adaptational energy" which becomes depleted with continued demands for adaptation. Stress has a cumulative effect and when it is in excess of an individual's capacity to adapt, adverse physiological consequences are likely to occur.

Seyle's hypothesis about the cumulative nature of stress has received a great deal of support. In a series of well-known studies on the amount of adjustment required for specific life events, Holmes and his colleagues (Holmes & Masuda, 1974) found that the magnitude of a subject's life change experiences was significantly related to illness onset. Yamamota and Kinney (1976) found that there was a significant correlation between the number and intensity of life stresses the mother experienced during pregnancy and the previous year and her pregnancy complications. Based on a recent review of the stress research, Burke (1978) noted that parents who were under multiple sources of stress were more likely to have difficulty with their children and to experience impaired parent-child relationships.

Many researchers have reported, however, that social support can act as a moderator of life stress (McGrath, 1970; Cobb, 1976; Zimmerman, 1979).

> Every crisis presents both an opportunity for psychological growth and a danger of psychological deterioration. During the crisis a person is more susceptible to influence by others than during periods of stable functioning. Thus, a relatively minor intervention may drastically change the ultimate outcome.
>
> (Moos & Tsu, 1976, p. 13)

Cobb (1976) did an extensive review of stress research and concluded that there is ". . . hard evidence that adequate social support can protect people in crisis from a wide variety of pathological states: from low birth weight to death, from arthritis through tuberculosis to depression, alcoholism, and other psychiatric illness" (Cobb, 1976, p. 310). More recent research continues to provide evidence of an inverse relationship between support and stress. For example, social support has been found to moderate the effects of the stress of unemployment (Gore, 1978) and raising handicapped children (Zimmerman, 1979). Additionally, there is substantial evidence that social support is associated with resistance to psychological distress (Tolsdorf, 1976; Andrews et al., 1978; Holohan & Moos, 1979; Wilcox, 1979). Several of the stress studies which raise issues related to the proposed study will be discussed in more detail. In particular, these studies address the nature of the relationship between stress and support, under what conditions of stress support is useful, what kinds of support are useful, and the importance of who provides the support.

The first two studies to be discussed examine the nature of the relationship between support and stress as it relates to

illness. While this differs from the proposed study where the stress of a particular life event, transition to parenthood, rather than illness, will be the criterion variable, their results are relevant. Nuckolls (1975) looked at the relationship between life stress, psychosocial assets and number of pregnancy complications in 170 primaparous women. The questionnaire measure of psychosocial assets was composed of items measuring marital solidarity, support from relatives, self-perceptions, and attitudes toward pregnancy. Those women with high life change before and during pregnancy and low psychosocial assets had the highest percentage of pregnancy complications (91%) while those with high life change and high support had only one-third the complication rate. As neither life stress nor psychosocial assets shows an independent relationship with pregnancy complications, she concluded that psychosocial assets acted as a mediating variable between stress and illness.

Andrews, Tennant, Hewson and Valliant (1978) examined the effects of life stress, social support, and coping style on psychological impairment. The measure of social support included items of neighborhood interaction, community participation, and crisis support. Crisis support (the presence of friends who could be counted upon in an emergency) was found to be the only significant support variable. Additionally, while both coping style and crisis support showed a significant relationship with psychological impairment, crisis support had the stronger relationship. With a representative sample of

863 Australians, they found that people under low stress with above mean coping and support had an impairment risk of 12.8%. In contrast, those under high stress with below mean coping and support had an impairment risk of 43.3%, twice that of the entire population. Unlike Nuckolls (1975), however, their results indicated that rather than either coping style or social support having a mediating affect on the relationship between life event stress and impairment, they were both independently related to psychological impairment.

In noting the discrepancy between the two studies, Andrews et al. suggested that it is probable that support and coping can be important to mental health in their own right and also act as mediating variables between stress and health. This suggests that when examining the relationship between support and the stress of a specific life events, such as the transition to parenthood, it would be important for the measurement of stress to include items pertaining to the stresses arising from the woman's expectations and perceptions of her functioning as a mother (her psychological health in this circumstance) as well as items pertaining to the stresses arising from situational variables (life events).

Another issue raised in the stress literature is the conditions of stress in which support is useful. Several investigators have concluded that under conditions of minimal life stress, social support has little to no effect, but as stresses accumulate the effects of social support become evident (Wilcox, 1979; Zimmerman, 1979).

Gibaud-Wallston and Wandersman (1978), for example, found that a low degree of social support (including husband supportiveness) affected a woman's confidence in herself as a mother only if she had a "difficult" baby. This result must be viewed somewhat cautiously in relation to the proposed study, however, since these researchers were only examining one potential stressor - lack of confidence - associated with the adjustment to parenthood. As noted earlier, stress has generally been viewed as a multifaceted phenomenon which has a cumulative effect. While husband supportiveness may not affect an isolated aspect of a woman's adjustment to parenthood, it may facilitate her total adjustment. Nevertheless, the question of under what degrees of stress support is useful is an important one, especially when considered in light of the controversy in the transition to parenthood literature about the degree of crisis a new mother experiences. Is husband supportiveness related to new mothers' adjustment for those mothers under moderate degrees of stress or only for those experiencing high stress?

A study by Zimmerman (1979) begins to provide an understanding of the relationship between support and different stress levels by examining the various kinds of support found useful. He examined the relationship between parenting stress level and support systems of 20 mothers of handicapped children compared to 15 mothers of nonhandicapped children. Stress was assessed by the Parenting Stress Index and support by a

Support System Checklist designed by Zimmerman to reflect the contribution of different sources, levels and kinds of support. As might be expected, he found that mothers of handicapped children perceived a greater degree of stress than mothers of nonhandicapped children. There was a significant negative relationship between degree of stress and degree of support for these mothers, but not for mothers of nonhandicapped children. However, the kind of support the mother received was related to levels of parenting stress for mothers of both groups. In particular, for mothers of handicapped children, emotional support was most related to reduced stress levels while advice feedback was the most effective in reducing stress perceptions of mothers with nonhandicapped children. Zimmerman concluded that while level or quantity of support may not affect perception of stress in low stress conditions, the kind of support received does. In high stress conditions, both the kind and degree of support are important.

In addition to Zimmerman (1979), others have also reached the conclusion that it is not so much quantity but quality of support that plays an important role in mediating stress (Holohan & Moos, 1979; Wilcox, 1979). For example, Wilcox (1979) examined the effects of social support and life stress on the psychological adjustment of 320 subjects. Support was measured by a scale which assessed emotional, tangible, and informational support (quality) and the number of close friends available to the subject (quantity). Using a self report index of psychological adjustment as the criterion, he found

that under conditions of stress the quality of support was more highly related to resistance to psychological distress than the quantity of support.

The question of who provides the support is an equally important variable when conceptualizing the relationship between support and stress. McGrath (1970), for example, reviewed 200 social psychological studies on stress and concluded that while support can modify the effects of stress, this relationship is strongest when the person has an *a priori* affective relationship with the supporter. Although most of the stress studies have defined support as social support, thus, including among the sources immediate family members, relatives and friends, several studies have provided information about the effect of husband support on wife's stress level, in particular. Henderson (1977) reviewed the results of a study that examined the relationship of stress and support in psychiatric disturbance (Brown *et al.*, 1975) and observed that ". . . a close relationship with a husband or boyfriend was found to provide almost complete protection in the face of adverse life events or difficulties." (Henderson, 1977, p. 190).

Similarly, research on marital satisfaction has identified mutual support within the marriage as a moderator of stress (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Burke & Weir, 1977a, 1977b; Rausch *et al.*, 1976). Burke and Weir (1977a) examined the consequences of husband-wife helping behavior among husband-wife pairs. They mailed out 300 questionnaires but only had

189 returned. Thus, their results may be biased. They found that couples who reported greater marital satisfaction were: 1) more open and communicative about their problems and concerns; 2) more cognizant of their partner's helping needs; and 3) exerted themselves more to meet these needs. They concluded that ". . . marital helping can be viewed as a moderator of the relationship between stress and well-being, influencing the degree to which stress will be translated into psychophysical symptomatology" (Burke & Weir, 1977b). In particular, they hypothesized that marital helping interaction can reduce stress for the spouse by: 1) providing comfort, support, and validation; 2) offering short-term relief by allowing ventilation; and 3) offering long-term relief by clarifying perceptions and suggesting alternatives (Burke & Weir, 1977a).

During the transition to parenthood, women tend to become more dependent on their husbands because of increased responsibilities and reduced interpersonal contacts with others (Blood & Blood, 1978). Thus, they are more likely to turn to their husbands for support (Gruis, 1977). Although little research has been done directly in this area, there is evidence that the husband's level of support is important in the mediation of stress for the wife during this transition. Research on families of infants with colic (Lakin, 1957) and low birth weight (Blake et al., 1975) indicates that the husband can mediate his wife's level of stress. These studies have found that mothers who received sympathy, support,

and help from the fathers experienced less difficulty in adjusting. Based on a review of the literature on pregnancy adaptation, Leifer (1977) concluded that the degree of emotional support offered by the husband played a significant role in whether or not the wife experienced pregnancy as a crisis. More specifically, Cohen's (1966) longitudinal study of 50 women in first pregnancy and postpartum found that the husband played a large role in the wife's well-being. These women reported that the husband's sympathy, support, help with planning, reassurance and advice aided their adjustment.

Finally, additional evidence for the role husband supportiveness can play in affecting his wife's parenting stress level comes from an extensive, longitudinal study of 84 married couples in the transition to parenthood. Grossman et al. (1980) followed their couples from early in the pregnancy to one year postpartum, looking at the general psychological health and adaptation of both parents, their relationship with each other, and their relationship with their infant. They noted that, even in this relatively favored group of largely middle-class, happily married and economically comfortable couples who had planned the pregnancy, the transition to parenthood required major adjustment and inevitable strains. In assessing what affected the mother's adjustment at one year postpartum, they found that characteristics of the mother, father, infant, and the quality of the marriage all interacted with each other to determine the kind of adaptation

that a woman made. Each aspect of the system enhanced and was enhanced by every other aspect. Conversely, when one aspect, such as the marriage or the baby's temperament, presented a problem, all other aspects of the system were affected.

Despite this interconnectedness, however, they were able to identify husband supportiveness and aspects of his behavior as a major predictor variable of the wife's adjustment. They noted that this relationship was more crucial for first time mothers than for experienced mothers. As they concluded,

> It is clear that women rely enormously on continuing support and reassurance from their husbands for their sustained capacity to deliver and nurture a newborn and respond to its needs without experiencing overwhelming anxiety.
>
> (Grossman et al., 1980, p. 248)

In summary, then, the stress/support literature clearly indicates that there is a general negative relationship between support and stress. Additionally, these studies provide a framework within which to examine the specific relationship between husband supportiveness and wife's parenting stress. The work by Nuckolls (1975) and Andrews et al. (1978) suggests that support may mediate both the effects of stressors from the environment and those arising from the woman's expectations and perceptions of her own functioning as a mother. Thus, it would be important for the measurement of parenting stress to include both these components. As indicated by the work

of Grossman et al. (1980), it should also include items measuring stresses arising from the child's characteristics and marital relationship, as problems in either of these areas are likely to add to a woman's adjustment difficulty. Finally the work by Zimmerman (1979) and Wilcox (1979) points to the importance of assessing the kinds of support that may be useful under various degrees of stress. While research on the adjustment to parenthood has begun to identify husband supportiveness as an important variable in a new mother's adaptation, there has yet to be a clear delineation of what aspects of his supportiveness may be important in mediating her level of stress.

Specific Aspects of Husband Supportiveness

Several of the studies on support and stress which have examined the various kinds of support offered by social networks suggest a beginning delineation of those aspects of husband supportiveness that may mediate the wife's parenting stress level. Cobb (1976) hypothesized that social support was informational rather than instrumental help. He viewed this informational help as consisting of three elements: "information leading the subject to believe he is cared for and loved . . . esteemed and valued . . ." and ". . . that he belongs to a network of communication and mutual obligation." (Cobb, 1976, p. 300).

Tolsdorf (1976), on the other hand, conceptualized social support as both informational and instrumental help. He defined support as ". . . any action or behavior that functions

to assist the focal person in meeting his personal goals or in dealing with the demands of any particular situation" (Tolsdorf, 1976, p. 410). Included in his definition was tangible support, such as financial or physical assistance, and intangible support, such as encouragement, love, or emotional support. Additionally, he suggested that advice and feedback were two other important functions which a social network could provide. He defined advice as providing information or guidance on how to achieve a goal or complete a task and feedback as providing evaluative statements regarding how goals were being met.

Another categorization of social support comes from a study by Gottlieb (1977). He developed a classification scheme of 26 helping behaviors which were empirically generated from interviews with 40 sole support mothers asked to identify three problem areas and the helping behaviors extended to them. He organized the 26 categories of helping behaviors into four classes: emotionally sustaining behaviors, problem solving behaviors, indirect personal influence, and environmental action. For problems most similar to those likely to be experienced during the transition to parenthood, child-centered problems and personal emotional problems, the first two classes of support were viewed by these mothers as being the most helpful. Together they represented 70% to 80% of the total helping responses.

Emotionally sustaining behaviors consisted of twelve categories that described helper qualities or behaviors which pro-

moted emotionally supportive conditions for the helpee. Gottlieb noted that seven of the twelve categories resembled facilitative therapeutic conditions as described by Rogers (1957). "Talking" (unfocused), "Listens", and "Reflects understanding" accounted for almost 75% of all responses in this class. As Gottlieb pointed out, ". . . these lay helpers create a supportive context simply by providing an opportunity for the helper to ventilate concerns to persons who attend to her and who signal understanding of these concerns." (p. 113) The remaining five categories represented the importance of the simple presence or companionship of the helper and the helper's provision of reassurance and encouragement.

Problem solving behaviors consisted of eleven categories that described ways in which the helper augments the helpee's coping resources either by providing new information and perspectives or by personally intervening in the problem situation. A cluster of four helping behaviors accounted for approximately 90% of the responses in this category: "Talking" (focused), "Provides suggestions", "Models/Provides testimony of own experience", and "Provides material aid and/or direct service." Thus, the problem solving processes viewed as most helpful were behaviors or characteristics of the helper which promoted ventilation of specific problem details and involved the provision of services or new information either indirectly through modeling or directly through suggestions. Although of less significance, two other categories in this class represented

the importance of the helper buffering or distracting the helpee from the problem focus by encouraging or initiating involvement in an alternative activity.

The last two classes of helping behaviors were much smaller. Indirect personal influence consisted of two categories representing "milieu reliability", that is, the helpee's conviction that the helper or his resources were available when needed. This kind of help was elicited most frequently for financial problems. Environmental action was a single category which represented the helper's intervention in the environment to reduce the source of stress and was only significant for child-centered problems.

From the support classification schemes offered by Cobb (1976), Tolsdorf (1976) and Gottlieb (1977) and the delineation of problem areas for new mothers offered by the transition to parenthood literature, we can begin to develop a categorization of husband support which may mediate the wife's parenting stress level. The six aspects of husband supportiveness which appear to include the different social support functions identified as important and address the stresses of motherhood are: emotional support, problem solving support, direct service, companionship, acceptance of father role, and support for non-mother roles.

Emotional Support

Zimmerman was the first to suggest that what Gottlieb calls emotionally sustaining behaviors and Tolsdorf calls intangible support are similar and should be labeled emotional

support. Cobb's first two classes of support as information that the individual is cared for, loved and valued, would also fall under this category. Emotional support appears to be both the provision of empathy and understanding and the conveyance of respect and esteem for the individual under stress.

The importance of empathy and respect or positive regard in any helping relationship has been widely acknowledged following its conceptualization by Rogers (1957) as two of three "necessary and sufficient" conditions for an effective therapeutic relationship. Carkhuff and Berenson (1977, p. 10) noted that ". . . the communication of respect appears to shatter the isolation of the individual and to establish a basis of empathy." Rogers (1959, p. 210) defined empathy as the ability ". . . to perceive the internal frame of reference of another with accuracy and with the emotional components and meanings which pertain thereto as if one were the person, but without ever losing the 'as if' condition".

While empathy has been found to be related to improved pupil performance and self-concept (Aspy, 1975) and therapeutic effectiveness (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967), a recent analysis of empathy research concluded that it is not as "prepotent" as once believed (Bergin & Suinn, 1975). Gladstein (1977) has suggested that much of the contradictory findings on the importance of empathy can be explained by differences in definition and measurement. Within the area of marital satisfaction, for example, husband's level of empathy has not been

found to be related to his wife's rating of marital satisfaction. However, in two studies (Luckey, 1961; Stuckert, 1963) empathy was defined as intellectual awareness of the wife's role conceptions rather than emotional understanding of and support for her concerns. Recent conceptualizations of empathy have suggested that it must include both to be effective (Feshback, 1975; Gladstein, 1975; Rogers, 1975). A third study by Kieren & Tallman (1972) did attempt to look at the relationship between empathy as a cognitive and affective process and marital satisfaction but suffered from unreliable instrumentation. Although they found little or no relationship between empathy (in the context of spouse adaptability) and marital satisfaction, they suggested that their instrument needed further work as it accounted for only 10% of the variance between populations and had low split-half reliability (Kieren & Tallman, 1971).

That the husband's level of empathy for his wife's concerns might be positively related to her adjustment to motherhood is suggested by the transition literature. Heyerowitz and Feldman (1966), for example, reported that one source of stress for new mothers was the inability to express their feelings to their spouse. This is likely related to Raush et al.'s (1974) finding that the husband's level of support in communication was significantly lower four months postpartum than during the pregnancy period. Many researchers have noted the importance of being provided with the opportunity to

ventilate concerns as a means of coping with stress (Raush et al., 1976; Burke & Weir, 1977a, 1977b; Gottlieb, 1977). If the husband is unempathic to his wife's concerns about motherhood, she is less likely to share these feelings and concerns with him. While Gottlieb's (1977) work suggests that the ability to provide empathy and understanding is an important helping behavior for mothers experiencing personal emotional problems and child-related problems, Zimmerman's (1979) findings suggest that it may only be related to a mother's stress level in high stress situations.

The other component of emotional support - respect or positive regard - is referred to as "esteem support" by Cobb (1976). He suggested that information leading the person to believe that he is valued, encourages a person to cope and to manipulate the environment in service of self. As noted earlier, one area of difficulty for a new mother is anxiety about her adequacy as a mother. It is likely that the husband's respect and positive regard for his wife as a mother in the form of favorably evaluating her mothering skills would modify her stress in this area.

A large body of literature has dealt specifically with teachers' respect for and favorable evaluation of students and its effects on student's performance (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Braun, 1976). Although a number of criticisms have been made of Rosenthal and Jacobson's seminal report of the "pygmalion effect" in the classroom, a recent review of the teacher expectancy literature supported the concept of

favorable evaluation affecting student's performance and self-concept (Braun, 1976). The reviewer concluded that

> ... there is a close relationship between the teachers' expectations for the learner, the teachers' treatment (output) of the learner, and, ultimately, the child's self-expectation. This expectation of self is inseparable from self image.
>
> (Braun, 1976, p. 205)

More pertinent research is that by Shereshefsky, Liebenberg, and Lockman (1973). In a longitudinal study of couples from pregnancy to six months postpartum, they rated the husband's reaction to his wife as mother and his responsiveness to her on a five point scale from "critical, hostile" to "enthusiastic, highly appreciative and supportive." They found that women whose husbands were responsive to them and favorably evaluated their mothering skills had less difficulty adjusting to motherhood. It would appear, then, that the second aspect of emotional support, husband's favorable evaluation of his wife's mothering skills, would also mediate her stress during the transition to motherhood.

Problem Solving Support

The second potentially important aspect of husband supportiveness during the transition to parenthood is problem solving support. Tolsdorf (1976) referred to this as providing advice and feedback in his conceptualization of social support. Gottlieb (1977) suggested that, in addition to providing suggestions and advice, this category also included promoting ventilation of the specific problems and the will-

ingness to become more physically involved by providing material aid and/or direct service in response to a problem. The key characteristic of this kind of support appears to be the supporter's willingness to exert himself to meet the needs expressed by the individual with the problem. As noted earlier, Burke and Weir (1977b) found that the ability or willingness to exert oneself to meet spouse needs was an important aspect of spouse helping behavior. Problem solving support, then, involves a willingness to talk about the problem and, perhaps more importantly, a willingness to become involved with and offer help in the problem solving process.

As there has yet to be a delineation of husband supportiveness, the transition to parenthood literature only hints at the possibility that problem solving support by the husband could act as a mediator of the wife's parenting stress level. For example, in their intensive study of how eight couples handled the transition to parenthood from pregnancy to four months postpartum, Cowan et al. (1978) considered the couple's problem solving ability to be one of several important processes affecting adjustment. More specifically, the new mothers in Cohen's (1966) study of first pregnancy and postpartum reported that along with other behaviors, their husband's help with planning and advice aided their adjustment to motherhood. As parenthood brings with it new responsibilities and issues to be resolved, it seems likely that new mothers,

especially those with egalitarian sex role views, will seek support from their husband in solving problems which relate to the baby. The husband's ability to provide this problem solving support is likely to mediate the wife's parenting stress level.

Direct Service

Both Tolsdorf and Gottlieb included direct service as an important support function; Tolsdorf referred to it as "tangible support", Gottlieb as "environmental action". As noted earlier, many researchers have found that a major area of concern to new mothers is the additional amount of work required by the presence of a baby. Leifer (1977), for example, reported that the majority of stressed mothers complained of not enough help with the baby or household chores. An important aspect of husband supportiveness, then, might include his sharing in the additional tasks and responsibilities required by a baby.

Two studies which examined how couples cope with parenthood, however, suggest that it is not so much the amount of sharing in tasks that affects adjustment but the couple's agreement on what their individual roles should be (Cowan et al., 1978; Fein, 1976). Although having help and support from their husbands on the additional amount of work may reduce the stress for some women, again, more so for those with a less traditional sex role orientation, agreement on what the husband's role should be may be more important.

Companionship

During the transition to parenthood there is a strong inclination for the couple to forego their usual joint activities in order to meet the constant needs of the baby. Many theorists, however, have stated that maintaining the dyadic relationship is an important process in successful adjustment (Solomon, 1976; Udry, 1974). Deutscher (1970) suggested that it is the husband's role to pull his wife back from the intense mother-child relationship.

Companionship, or the extent to which a couple engages in joint activities, has been found to be positively related to marital satisfaction (Birchler & Webb, 1977; Blood, 1963; Weiss et al., 1973). In a study of 1,716 people, for example, Orden and Bradburn (1968) reported that companionship and sociability was positively correlated with marital adjustment. Pratt (1972) found that the degree of companionship exhibited by a couple was positively related to their physical health. Three of the 26 helping behaviors identified by the mothers in Gottlieb's study could be classified as companionship.

The transition to parenthood literature also suggests that involvement in joint marital activities would facilitate adjustment. Cowan et al. (1978) reported that couples who could maintain the same type of relationship they had postpartum (coupleness or individuality) experienced less stress than those that could not. Meyerowitz and Feldman (1966) noted that unshared leisure time was a source of stress for

new mothers. Others have suggested that new mothers find their isolation stressful (Lopata, 1971) and are dissatisfied with the amount of attention their husband pays to them (Ryder, 1973). Since the mother tends to be more heavily involved in the parenting role, encouraging re-involvement in the marital relationship is likely to be an important part of the husband's role.

Acceptance of the Father Role

Another aspect of a husband's supportiveness during the transition to parenthood might be his acceptance of the father role. This would include both his valuing of as well as comfort in the father role. Family theorists have suggested that one characteristic that distinguishes families who cope adequately with stress from those that do not is the member's acceptance of their roles in the family (Glasser & Glasser, 1970; Hansen & Hill, 1964).

Several researchers have suggested that men's acceptance of their roles of husband and father affects marital happiness. Dizard (1968) analyzed the Burgess-Wallin longitudinal data and reported that men who devote themselves to their wives and families rather than to high occupational success and community involvement had happier marriages than those who placed a higher priority on occupational success. Bailyn (1970) reported that a husband's acceptance of his family role and ability to integrate work and family plays a crucial role in marital happiness for both spouses. Further, women were better

able to cope with the problems of a career of their own if their husbands were able to give primary emphasis to their family while functioning satisfactorily in their own careers at the same time.

Stryker (1968) was the first to suggest that transition to parenthood might be affected by identity salience. He hypothesized that the higher the identity of parent in an individual's identity hierarchy, the easier the transition to parenthood and the more likely that person would be to seek out opportunities to perform in terms of that identity. Udry (1974) also suggested that the importance assigned to the father role can minimize problems of transition. In particular, he noted that a man's acceptance of the father role can make him feel more a part of what is going on and his participation can relieve pressure on the wife, freeing her up to give more energy and time to marital companionship.

Based on Stryker's hypothesis, Russell (1974) examined the relationship between role salience and transition to parenthood. She found that the lower the role of "father" in men's hierarchy of identifications, the greater men's reported level of crisis. Placing "father" high was positively associated with their level of gratification with parenthood. Shereshefsky and her colleagues (Shereshefsky et al., 1973) examined the relationship between role salience for the father and the mother's adjustment. They reported that the husband's reaction to his paternal role was significantly correlated with

the mother's adjustment. They rated the husband's acceptance of the father role on a five point scale from "highly resentful-disappointed" to "marked gratification" and found that it correlated with 8 of 12 of their measures of maternal adaptation at 6 months postpartum. Thus, the husband's acceptance of the father role is likely to be an important aspect of husband supportiveness.

Support for Wife's Involvement in Non-Mother Activities

As noted above, feeling isolated and tied down has been identified as a postential stressor for new mothers. Involvement in non-mother activities away from the baby would be a way of mediating this stress. Burr (1973) has hypothesized that "the amount of social activity of wives outside the home is related to the regenerative power of families . . ." in all types of crises. Lopata (1971) noted that the "identity crisis" that often accompanies motherhood is partially a result of the limited opportunity to display a range of personality behaviors which show the uniqueness of self. She suggested that a new mother's adjustment difficulties could be minimized if she maintained her involvement in non-mother activities.

The husband could facilitate this means of coping by his acceptance and encouragement of his wife's need for her own time. His support in this area might also include his offering to care for the baby or supporting the use of a babysitter to free up the mother. This aspect of husband supportiveness, however, is most likely to mediate stress for women with less

traditional sex role conceptions. As Gladieux (1978) noted, women with modern sex role conceptions found it the most difficult to adjust to the loss of personal freedom that accompanied motherhood.

Summary

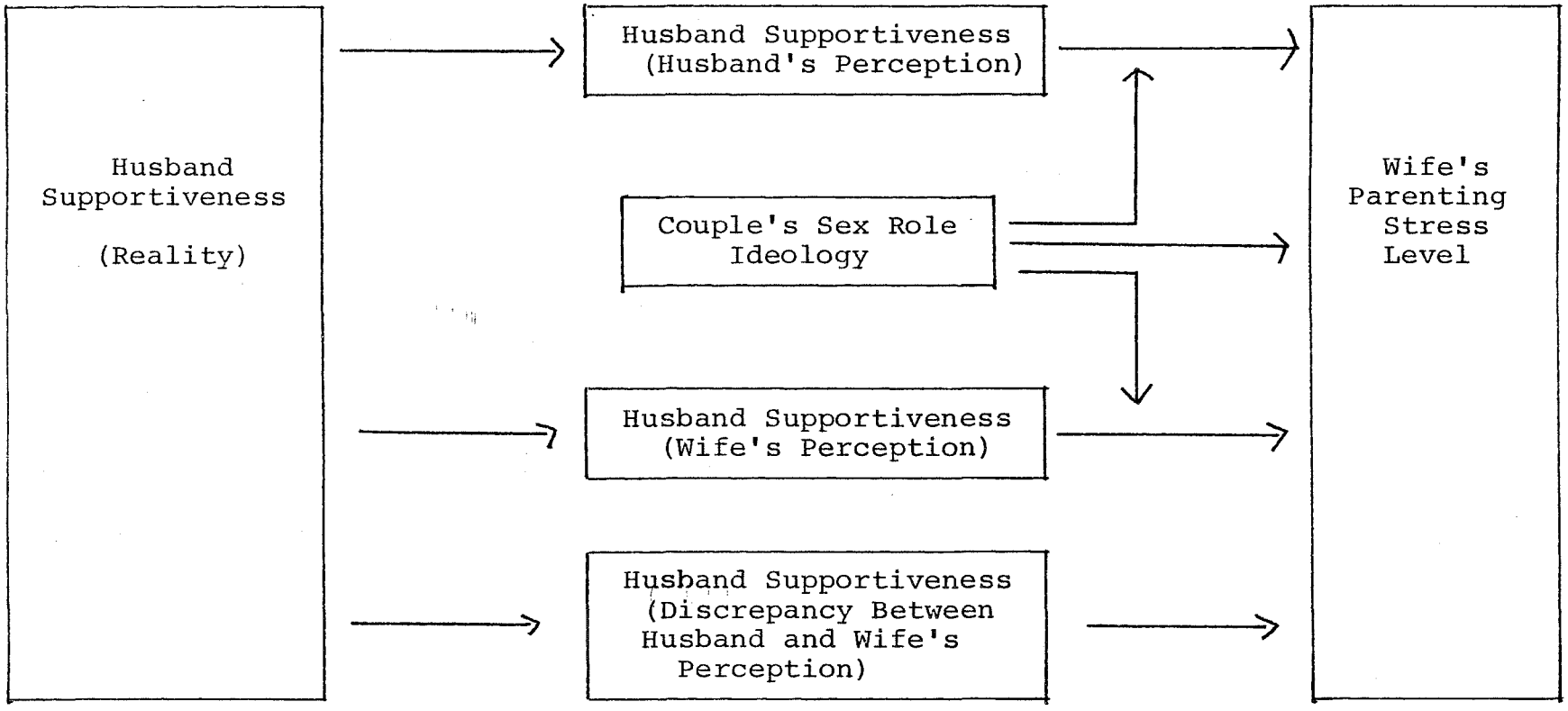
In summary, the literature suggests that the transition to parenthood is stressful for some mothers. Specific consequences of motherhood that are potential stressors have been identified. They include feeling exhausted, tied down, and isolated, the additional amount of work, concern about personal appearance as a woman and adequacy as a mother, and decreased satisfaction in the marital relationship. Reliable predictor variables include a planned pregnancy, a calm, non-problematic baby, and a marriage characterized by mutuality, affection, and inclusion and the couple's sex role ideology. It has been suggested, however, that more research is needed to discover other variables that are related to a successful adjustment to motherhood (Hobbs & Cole, 1976).

Research on life stress has identified the role of social support as a stress moderator (Cobb, 1976; Tolsdorf, 1976; Gottlieb, 1977). Given men's increased interest in early parenting and the greater likelihood that they will be asked for help, especially by women with egalitarian views, it appears that a major source of support and help for a new mother can come from her husband. Possible aspects of husband supportiveness during the transition to parenthood have

been hypothesized. They are emotional support, problem solving support, direct service companionship, acceptance of the father role, and support for the wife's involvement in non-mother activities. The research problem examined in this study is the relationship between these aspects of husband's supportiveness and the wife's adjustment to motherhood. In addition, it is hypothesized that the predicted inverse relationship between husband supportiveness and wife's stress level will be greater for couples with a more egalitarian sex role ideology (Figure 1). It is also hypothesized that the negative relationship between husband supportiveness and wife's parenting stress level will be greater on the stress index subscale assessing "mother characteristics" than on the subscales assessing "child characteristics" or "situational characteristics."

Figure 1

Hypothesized Relationship Between Variables
Related to Wife's Parenting Stress



CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

The sample consists of 100 married couples with a first and only child in the 4-12 month age range. This age range was the criterion for inclusion in the sample for three reasons. First of all, parents with a child this age are well beyond the "honeymoon stage" as identified by Meyerowitz and Feldman (1966). They believe that the honeymoon period is characterized by elation and lasts up to six weeks after which the stresses of parenthood become more profound. Secondly, while studies of parents with children over 2 years report higher crisis scores, assessing earlier stress at this time relies upon subject recall. Parents may be more willing to admit difficulty in adjustment but there is a greater likelihood of distortion in perceptions of the husband's behavior during this period. Leifer (1977) found that mothers of 7 month old babies did report a significant amount of stress with adjusting to motherhood. Thirdly, an eight month age range (4-12 months) was used rather than the originally proposed six month range (6-12 months) to increase subject availability.

Subjects were recruited from three sources - the patient populations of four pediatric clinics in Virginia, birth records for Albemarle County, and parents who were identified by couples who had already participated.

Independent reports of husband supportiveness were obtained from both the husband and wife. Research that has included both reports indicates that it may be the wife's perception of her husband's behavior that has a closer relationship to her satisfaction than the husband's own perception of his behavior (Udry, 1974). Wives in the sample completed three questionnaires: one measuring her stress with parenting and two measuring her evaluation of her husband's supportiveness and her sex role ideology. Husbands completed the two questionnaires measuring husband supportiveness and sex role ideology.

Information describing the demographic characteristics of the sample of 100 families is presented in Appendix A. Mothers ranged in age from 18 to 40 years with a mean age of 27.6 years. The father's age ranged from 20 to 28 years with a mean age of 29 years. The mean age for the infants was 8.1 months. All the families were intact and 99 of the 100 were white. One couple was Hispanic. In general, the couples comprising the sample were highly educated. All had at least a 9th to 12th grade education with the majority having a college education or higher (68% of the mothers, 72% of the fathers). Income was also high. Ninety-one percent of the families had a yearly income of $10,000 or higher. Eighty-eight percent of the fathers were employed full or part time while the remainder were students or looking for work. Mothers, on the other hand, were more evenly split between working and not working. Fifty-five percent of the mothers

were not employed but 30% were employed full time and 15% were employed part time. Overall, the demographic information is descriptive of a white, middle class, highly educated population.

Procedure

Field-Test. The first stage of the study was field-testing the battery of instruments measuring the various aspects of husband supportiveness. A group of 18 couples with an only child 4 to 12 months old was selected from among associates of the experimenter and asked to complete the questionnaires. Follow-up interviews either by phone or in person were held with 10 of the couples. The purpose of the field-test was three-fold. First of all, an evaluation was made of the questionnaires' understandability and clarity. While they were completing the questionnaires, couples were asked to note and write comments about items which seemed confusing or badly written. During the interview session they were asked to elaborate on their reactions to individual items as well as their understanding of a question's meaning. Based on the couples' criticisms and suggestions, several items were deleted, while others were re-worded to improve their clarity.

Secondly, the validity of the six hypothesized support categories was assessed. During the interview the couples were asked to identify behaviors or characteristics of the husband perceived by the wife as being supportive during the

transition to parenthood. While no new support categories were generated, a few new items within existing categories were added. For example, several couples suggested the addition of "putting baby to bed" as an important component of direct service.

Lastly, a determination of how best to administer the total questionnaire battery was made. Half of the couples in the field-test sample received the PSI first and were sent the second set of questionnaires (husband supportiveness and sex role ideology) once they had returned the completed PSI. The second group was given the total battery at one time. Additionally, both groups were asked to keep track of the time required to complete the questionnaires. There was a noticeable difference in return rates between the two groups. All couples receiving the total battery returned the completed questionnaires while three of the first group had to be called several times to remind them to complete and send in the second set of questionnaires. There was no difference between the groups on time required to complete the measures with both averaging approximately 45 minutes for the wives and 15 minutes for the husbands. Thus, it was concluded that the best administration of the total battery was to hand it all out at one time.

Data Collection. The final sample of 100 couples was drawn from three sources: the patient population of four pediatric clinics, birth records for Albemarle County, and parents who were identified by couples who had already par-

ticipated. The receptionists of the pediatric clinics asked primaparous mothers of 4 to 12 month olds who brought their infants in for their well-baby check-up if they would be willing to participate in a study on the transition to parenthood. Those who agreed were given a packet which included an introductory letter indicating the nature of and time required for participation (see Appendix B), both the wife's and husband's version of the questionnaires, and a stamped, self-addressed envelope. They were requested to fill the packets out at home, independently of one another, and return the completed questionnaires in the enclosed envelope. Fifty-six of the final one hundred couples were obtained this way although the return rate was low (30%).

Primaparous couples identified by either the birth records or by friends were contacted by telephone, told the nature of the study, and asked if they would be willing to participate. Ninety-two percent of those contacted agreed to participate and were sent the packet, again including instructions, questionnaires and a stamped, self-addressed envelope with which to return them. The return rate for couples who were contacted by phone was seventy-nine percent. Forty-four of the final one hundred couples were obtained this way. All the couples who participated were sent letters providing them with feedback regarding their questionnaire results, if they so desired.

Instruments

Measurement of Parenting Stress (Dependent Variable). The Parenting Stress Index (Burke & Abidin, 1978) was used to assess the amount and sources of parenting stress for mothers. It is a self-report measure which is based on the assumptions that stressors are multidimensional and that the effects of stressors are additive (Abidin, 1979). It consists of 150 items which include a wide range of parent, child, and situational variables that represent potential stressors for a parent. It is composed of multiple choice items, statements requiring a parent to respond on a five point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree, a checklist for stressful life events experienced over the past year and questions concerning demographic information. Testing time is approximately thirty minutes and the instrument has a sixth grade reading level. The PSI yields a total score and three domain scores: (1) Child Domain, (2) Mother Domain, and (3) Situational/Demographic Domain. Additionally, these domains can be further divided into 17 subscales. The Child Domain subscales include: adaptability, acceptability, demandingness, mood, and distractibility. The Mother Domain subscales include: child reinforcement of the mother, depression, attachment, restrictions in role, sense of competence, social isolation, realistic attitudes, health, and relationship with spouse. The Situational/Demographic Domain subscales include: life stresses and situational factors.

Norms for the PSI are based on a sample of 470 mothers who had at least one child under 3 years of age (Abidin, 1979). Test-retest reliability over a three week period yielded the following coefficients: Total Score, .82; Child Domain, .84; Mother Domain, .70; and Situational/Demographic Domain, .78. Alpha-reliability coefficients of internal consistency were: Total Score, .93; Child Domain, .87; Mother Domain, .91; and Situational/Demographic Domain, .68.

The PSI's validity is in the process of being established. Several studies to date have found that it validly discriminates between normal and clinical populations. Zimmerman (1979), for example, found that families raising a handicapped cerebral palsy child (N = 20) produced mean PSI scores which were significantly higher than the normative sample (N = 15) and that nearly all the differences were in the Child Characteristics Domain, as one would expect. Lafiosca (1981) found significant differences ($p < .0001$) for the Total Score and the three domain scores between a clinic-referred population (N = 40) and a normal matched sample (N = 30). On the other hand, in a study of the attachment patterns of 37 mother-infant pairs, Hamilton (1981) found the PSI to be ineffective in discriminating between infants showing secure versus anxious attachment unless the PSI results were combined with a personality measure for the mother.

The PSI's validity has also been assessed in relation to more established measures. Lafiosca (1981) found that

the Total Score was significantly correlated ($p < .01$) with the Trait State Anxiety Scale of Spielberg (1972) and that the Child Characteristics Score was significantly correlated with the Behavior Problem Checklist (Quay and Patterson, 1979). She also found that the Total Score was significantly correlated ($p < .05$) with the Crowne and Marlowe Scale of Social Desirability (1964) in her normal subgroup. Based on his clinical use of the PSI, Abidin (1979) has suggested that mothers known to be under high stress but who earn low Total Scores tend to have relatively high spikes on three subtests (acceptability of child, mother's health and realistic attitudes) but there is currently no correction factor.

Measurement of Husband Support (Independent Variable). There existed no measure of support which tapped the various types of husband support identified by the literature as potentially important to a mother's transition to parenthood. Therefore, a measure was developed for use in this study which consisted of items from existing support, parenting and marital satisfaction measures, as well as items developed by this researcher. The final support measure was conceived as having six subscales: Emotional Support, Acceptance of Role, Support for Non-Mother Roles, Companionship, Problem Solving Support and Direct Service. Because of the untested nature of this compiled instrument, several factor analyses were done prior to any other analysis to determine the structure of the instrument and, thus, how best to score it.

The source for each of the items in the measure and the results of the factor analyses are discussed below.

Emotional Support. For the purposes of this study, emotional support was defined as providing understanding, caring, the opportunity to ventilate concerns, and positive regard. The first three components, empathy, caring and talking, were measured by the Husband-Wife Helping Relationship Scale developed by Burke, Weir and DuWors (1979). This scale consists of thirteen statements about emotional support within the marriage that are responded to on a five point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. For this study, two of the items were reworded in a negative direction to improve the positive/negative balance among the items. Burke, Weir and DuWors (1979) report internal consistency reliability of .91 for husbands and .91 for wives. Although little work has been done as of yet on the instrument's construct validity, they did find that husbands and wives who reported a higher quality of helping from their spouse were less likely to prefer to keep or actually keep their problems to themselves (Burke et al., 1979). While all thirteen items were included in the final instrument, it was assumed that when factor analysis was done, two of the items which more accurately measure concrete assistance or companionship were unlikely to be associated with the emotional support factor.

The second component of emotional support - positive regard or favorable evaluation - was assessed by

five items adapted from Gibaud-Wallston and Wandersman's Parenting Sense of Competence Scale (1978) and four items developed by this researcher. The Gibaud-Wallston and Wandersman items are five statements about skill in and knowledge of parenting. For the purposes of this study, the husband is asked to indicate the extent to which he agrees or disagrees that each statement is true of his wife as a mother, thus, assessing his level of positive regard for her as a mother. The mother is asked to indicate how she thinks her husband would rate them on each item, an assessment of the husband's level of favorable evaluation as perceived by his wife. The four additional items measure a more active type of evaluation of the wife as mother, that is, the degree to which the husband compliments her and/or tells her she is a good mother. All items are measured on a five point Likert-type scale.

Acceptance of Role. Husband acceptance of the father role was measured by six items from the Valuing/Comfort subscale of the Parenting Sense of Competence Scale and six items developed by the experimenter. Each item is a statement about valuing and/or comfort with the father role and parents are asked to respond on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Companionship. The degree to which a couple engages in joint marital activities was measured by the twelve item marital satisfaction subscale of the Marital Adjustment

Balance Scale developed by Orden and Bradburn (1968). Validity for the scale comes from its positive correlation with marital adjustment (Orden and Bradburn, 1968; Bradburn, 1969). Orden and Bradburn (1968) report reliability correlations of .88 for men and .82 for women. Instructions were changed, however, for the purposes of this study. Rather than indicating whether or not they had been involved in these activities "the past few weeks", couples are asked to indicate the degree of involvement "since the baby was born" on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from almost never to most of the time.

Support for Non-Mother Roles. The husband's degree of support for his wife's involvement in non-mother activities was measured by five items developed by the researcher which assess the frequency with which he supports her involvement in activities outside the home. These are measured on a five point Likert-type scale.

Problem Solving Support. As a result of limitations in existing questionnaire measures of problem solving support (Glick & Gross, 1975), one was designed by this researcher. The measure consists of eight vignettes of different concerns suggested by the research as being potential stressors for new mothers. Areas of concern include: more work, exhaustion, loneliness, attractiveness and quality of mothering. Each vignette has five response choices representing the following categorization of problem solving support:

a) offering help or suggestions in order to mutually generate a solution;

b) acknowledging the problem, appreciating the wife's efforts but not becoming involved in generating a solution;

c) acknowledging the problem and implying that it will go away;

d) acknowledging the problem but implying that it is her responsibility only; and

e) listening to the problem but not responding.

Wives and husbands are asked to indicate the response the husband is most likely to offer if the wife presents this concern. Additionally, the wife is asked to indicate which response she would like him to say. Whether or not her perception of the actual response and ideal response are the same indicates her satisfaction with the husband's problem solving support. The wives perceptions of ideal responses were also compared to an a priori assignment of weights to each response to determine if the responses represented a continuum of highly supportive to highly unsupportive statements and, thus, whether a score of degree of support could be ascertained. This comparison, however, revealed a large degree of variance among wives' choices of the ideal response, suggesting that more work is needed on the instrument before weights can be assigned accurately.

Direct Service. The husband's degree of direct service in child-care and household activities was assessed by a scale developed by Cowan et al. (1978). Consisting of twenty-two items evenly split between the two areas, parents are asked to indicate on a 9 point Likert-type scale the degree to which the husband or wife is responsible for each activity. A score of 5 indicates that both are perceived to be equally responsible for the activity, whereas 1 means that it is perceived to be the wife's responsibility and 9 means that it is perceived to be the husband's responsibility. The questionnaire also measures the degree to which each person is satisfied with the role division for each activity by asking him/her to indicate, again on a 9 point Likert-type scale, how s/he would like it to be. Thus, this instrument offers a measure of perception of husband's direct service in child-care and household activities and satisfaction with this degree of involvement.

Cowan et al. (1978) used this measure in their intensive study of eight couples in the transition to parenthood and found that it adequately measured a wide range of role divisions. Partial evidence for its reliability comes from results of their re-administering it to these couples six months postpartum. Based on the literature, it was expected that even couples with egalitarian views would shift toward a more traditional division of roles following the birth of the baby. Cowan et al. found this to be the case

with all eight couples, suggesting that the instrument is sensitive to these expected changes.

While the validity of the instrument has not been tested, it has high face validity and a large number of items is similar to a better known marital activities measure by Weiss et al. (1973). Its advantage over the Weiss instrument is that it is more oriented to activities directly related to the transition to parenthood. Three items from the Weiss measure which relate to child and house responsibilities (play with baby, put baby to bed, care of yard) but not on the Cowan measure were added for the purposes of this study.

Measurement of Sex Role Ideology (Intervening Variable). Although numerous measures of sex role ideology exist, most are oriented toward general attitudes about roles for men and women rather than husband, wife and parenting roles (Chun et al., 1975). An exception is the Family Role Differentiation Scale developed by Cowan (1976). It consists of statements about husband, wife and parenting roles in the family to which couples are asked to respond on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The final scale of thirteen items for women and eleven items for men was built using only those items from her initial pool which had a .5 or higher absolute loading. Parallel test reliability for the scale has been assessed at .76 to .87 and validity (correlation between the items in the composite and the underlying variable it is trying to measure) at .88 to .90 (Cowan, 1976).

Factor Analysis Results of Husband Support Measure

Three separate factor analyses were performed on the husband support measure because of differences in the scaling properties of the six subscales. Thus, the four subscales measured by a five point Likert-type scale (Emotional Support, Acceptance of Role, Companionship and Support for Non-Mother Roles) were analyzed together and the Problem Solving and Direct Service subscales were each analyzed separately.

Factor Analysis of Four Subscales. A principal component factor analysis of the 51 questionnaire items from the four subscales was initially performed in order to determine the appropriate number of factors to be used in further analyses. Husband and wife data were combined for these analyses. A scree test performed on the results suggested that a four factor solution was most appropriate. Next, a classical factor analysis was conducted and a varimax rotation performed. Together, the four factors accounted for 40.3% of the variance. The factor loadings are presented in Table 1.

In order to determine if husband and wife data should be combined or needed to be treated as separate data sets, factor analyses were performed next with wife-only and husband-only data and coefficients of similarity between factor patterns were calculated. A scree test performed on the results

suggested that while wife-only data supported four factors, husband-only data supported three factors. On examination of the factor patterns, however, it was noted that Factor I and II of the wife-only data were combined on the husband-only data. Despite the difference in the number of factors, there was a high degree of similarity between the factor structures for husbands and wives (.80 to .89). It seemed reasonable, therefore, to interpret the factor pattern produced when the data were combined.

Examination of the four factor solution from the combined data (see Table 1) suggests that items on Factor I come almost entirely from the Acceptance of Role subscale. Factor I contains eleven items, ten of which are from this subscale. The other item, "offers to care for baby, so wife has time for self" was assigned a priori to Support for Non-Mother Roles but, upon further examination, it also appears to be measuring a husband's acceptance of the father role. Further, there is little association between the five items of the Support for Non-Mother Role subscale, suggesting that these items do not represent a separate and cohesive subscale. Thus, this subscale was not considered in further analysis.

Table 1

Principal Component Factor Loadings
of Husband Support Subscales
(N=189)

ITEM NUMBER	DESCRIPTION	I	II	III	IV
	Acceptance of Role				
18	being good father is reward in itself	.69			.33
12	talents & interests in other areas, not father	.66			
8	father frustrated while child infant	.63			
(9)	willing to put up with changes because of baby	.59			
26	father enjoys spending time alone with baby	.58			
6	mixed feelings about being father	.56			
29	proud of being father	.54			
47	offers to care for baby so wife has time for self	.54		.37	
24	if fatherhood more interesting, do better job	.52			
34	being parent makes him tense and anxious	.45			
17	he's uncomfortable around baby	.43	.38		
	Emotional Support				
16	can't talk about pressures of being mother		.75		
32	can't talk about personal concerns		.74		
20	don't talk because afraid lose respect		.65		
22	some things can't talk about yet		.64		
13	don't talk about problems because afraid burden		.56		
31	relationship is superficial		.48		
27	can talk about work ambitions/goals		.46		
14	cares about how things going for me	.35	.45		.35
33	doesn't care how things going	.31	.44	.31	
10	willing to listen to personal problems		.42		.31
9*	been affectionate	.41	.46	not used	

		I	II	III	IV
	Companionship				
11*	did something other really appreciated			.62	
5*	worked on project together			.56	
7*	had good laugh			.56	
12*	helped other solve problem together		.41	.55	
10*	taken drive/walk for pleasure			.54	
4*	spent evening chatting		.40	.53	
(9*)	been affectionate		.41	.46	
7	goes out of way to be helpful when work gets her down	.39		.42	
8*	ate out together			.42	
30	can rely on him for help when things tough	.37		.41	
	Favorable Evaluation				
2	meets his expectations for baby expertise				.68
23	he thinks she's fine model for new moms				.67
15	thinks she has all skills for good mother				.66
11	thinks she's familiar with role				.65
44	feels she's doing job as he'd want				.49
21	thinks if any one can find problem with baby, she can				.43
45	complains about things she does with baby				.41

NOTE: loadings less than .41 omitted

* on questionnaire 3. Otherwise items are on questionnaire 2

The other change suggested by the factor analysis is a breakdown of the Emotional Support subscale into two scales. Factor II contains the ten items from the subscale which measures caring, talking and listening while Factor IV contains the seven items which assess the husband's degree of favorable evaluation of the wife. The one other item on Factor II, "been affectionate with each other", comes from the Companionship subscale but has a high loading on Factor III as well. Since this item does not clearly represent one category over another, it was not used in final calculations.

Factor III contains ten items, eight of which come from the Companionship subscale. The remaining two items are from the Emotional Support subscale but their high loading on the Companionship factor was expected as they more accurately measure concrete assistance or companionship than emotional support.

Thus, the factor analysis supports the a priori assignment of items in the Acceptance of Role and Companionship subscales but suggests two changes among the other items. The results do not support the psychometric usefulness of a Support for Non-Mother Role subscale since four of these five items were not highly loaded on a common factor. The other change suggested by the factor analysis is the breakdown of the Emotional Support subscale into two scales - Emotional

Support (caring, talking and listening) and Favorable Evaluation (positive regard for wife as a mother). For scoring purposes, then, four subscales will be defined on the basis of item loadings greater than .40. The four subscales are: Emotional Support, Favorable Evaluation, Acceptance of Role and Companionship.

Factor Analysis of Problem Solving Support Subscale. As mentioned earlier, degree of problem solving support could not be obtained because of the limitations of the measurement. However, the subscale does provide a measure of the wife's satisfaction with her husband's problem solving support. This was obtained by assigning a score of 1 if her perception of his actual response and her ideal response matched and 0 if they did not. A principal component factor analysis of these matches was then performed (see Table 2). An examination of the associated eigenvalues indicated that the subscale sould be considered as representing one factor (40% of total variance). Therefore, wife's satisfaction with husband problem solving support was derived by summing the number of matches between her perception of her husband's actual responses and her ideal responses.

Factor Analysis of Direct Service Subscale. The Direct Service subscale consists of 24 items evenly split between service in child care and household areas. In

Table 2

Principal Component Factor Loadings of Match Between Wife's Actual and Ideal Ratings of Problem Solving Support (N=94)

Item Number	Description	Factors I	Factors II
35	more work, no energy	.71	-.46
36	physically tired	.75	-.35
37	feel unattractive	.40	.53
38	not enough time for self	.68	.06
39	unsure of mothering	.55	.38
40	feel lonely	.69	.24
41	worry about baby's abilities	.41	.65
42	not easy to do routine things	.75	-.39

order to determine how best to make use of the data generated from the subscale, several different analyses were done and compared. First of all, the total subscale (child and housecare items) was factor analyzed. A principal component factor analysis of wife ratings did not support a clear break between the 12 child care and 12 housecare items. Rather, the analysis indicated that all of the child care items and six of the house care items were loosely clustered together with a high or moderate positive loading on Factor 1. Five of the remaining house care items had low or negative loadings on Factor I. Interestingly, these items (repairs around home, paying bills, caring for yard, looking after car and providing income) are traditionally male oriented jobs. The analysis suggests that the more a husband is perceived as being involved in these areas, the less is he involved with cleaning house and caring for the baby. One item (making social arrangements) was not significantly associated with either factor but fell between the two. The unrotated factor loadings are presented in Table 3.

The unrotated factor pattern of the husbands' ratings of direct service was very similar (see Table 4). In fact, the correlation between husband and wife ratings of direct service was .79. Like the structure derived from the wife's ratings, there was a loose clustering of all the child care items and the same six house care items on Factor 1 and a negative relationship between these items and the five more male-oriented house care items. The one exception was

Table 3

Principal Component Factor Loadings of Wife Ratings of Direct Service (N=90)

Item Number	Description	Factors I	Factors II
19	washing, ironing clothes	.70	-.28
5	baby's laundry	.69	-.29
13	planning & preparing meals	.64	-.06
16	house cleaning	.64	-.29
3	changing diapers	.64	.31
11	playing with baby	.61	.33
1	decide feeding schedule	.57	-.11
9	dealing with doctors	.56	.32
4	bathe/dress baby	.56	.02
2	feeding baby	.54	.22
14	cleaning up after meals	.53	-.14
6	decide about responding to cry	.52	.20
17	grocery shopping	.51	-.36
8	choosing baby's toys	.50	.22
12	putting baby to bed	.47	.32
21	correspondence/calls to friends	.47	-.32
10	arranging for babysitters	.45	-.06
7	responding to cry in night	.36	.32
20	making social arrangements	.25	-.04
15	repairs around home	.10	.55
18	paying bills	.04	.05
24	caring for yards	.01	.68
22	looking after car	-.18	.50
23	providing income	-.48	.10

Loading criteria for subscale: .30 on Factor 1

Factor 4

Principal Componant Factor Loadings of Husband's Ratings of Direct Service (N=90)

Item Number	Description	Factors I	II
3	changing diapers	.76	.18
19	washing, ironing clothes	.75	-.09
5	baby's laundry	.72	-.03
1	deciding feeding schedule	.65	-.11
2	feeding baby	.64	-.02
4	bathing/dressing baby	.64	.23
13	planning & preparing meals	.58	-.10
6	deciding about responding to cry	.51	.30
16	house cleaning	.50	-.05
11	playing with baby	.48	.10
8	choosing toys	.45	.14
12	putting baby to bed	.45	.40
10	arranging for babysitters	.43	.04
14	cleaning up after meals	.39	-.06
17	grocery shopping	.38	-.15
9	dealing with baby's doctor	.35	.20
21	correspondence/calls to friends	.32	.23
7	responding to cry in night	.26	.57
20	making social arrangements	.26	.01
18	paying bills	-.04	.24
24	caring for yard	-.23	.71
15	repairs around home	-.35	.27
22	looking after car	-.49	.58
23	providing income	-.55	.28

Loading criterion for subscale: .30 on Factor 1
(exception: #7 is included so wife and husband scores will contain same items)

one child care item (responding to baby's cry) which was not associated with either clustering. Factor 1 on both the husband and the wife structures accounted for 25% of the total variance.

Thus, for the purposes of deriving a score for total direct service, all the child care items and the six associated house care items will be added together and averaged. These same eighteen items will be used for both husband and wife despite the small discrepancy between structures on one item in order to simplify interpretations. While the negative relationship between male oriented and female oriented household and child care jobs is of theoretical interest, it is not of practical interest for the purposes of this study and will therefore not be used in the calculation of a direct service score.

Wife's satisfaction with husband's direct service was assessed as the absolute discrepancy between the wife's actual and ideal rating of direct service. A principal component factor analysis was computed to determine if item clustering followed the theoretically expected pattern of child care versus household areas. The analysis suggested that wife's satisfaction with direct service fell into two, possibly three, factors with the two factor division representing a fairly clean split between child care and household items. However, since the distribution was too positively skewed to be appropriate for factor analysis, it was decided to use the

a priori breakdown of child care and household items. Thus, two satisfaction with direct service scores were derived; the total absolute discrepancy between her ideal and actual ratings on child care items and the total absolute discrepancy between her ideal and actual ratings on household items.

In summary, then, the measure of husband support will be comprised of five subscales. They are as follows: Emotional Support, Favorable Evaluation, Acceptance of Role, Companionship, and Direct Service. Wife's rating, husband's rating and a discrepancy score between wife's and husband's ratings will be derived for each subscale. The subscale discrepancy scores will be the sum of the husband's overrating of himself (in comparison to the wife's rating) on each item within a subscale. Additionally, three satisfaction scores will be derived from wife's ratings of husband support. They are: Satisfaction with Child Care Direct Service, Satisfaction with Household Direct Service and Satisfaction with Problem Solving Support.

Analysis 1

In order to address the major goal of the study--assessing the relationship between husband supportiveness and wife's parenting stress level--multiple regression analysis was conducted with the PSI (Total Score) as the dependent variable and the five husband support scales (Emotional Support, Acceptance of Role, Favorable Evaluation, Companionship, and Direct Service) as the independent variables. In addition,

a determination of the relative predictive power of wife's rating, husband's rating, and discrepancy between their ratings of husband support was made.

Analysis 2

In order to address a secondary goal of the study - assessing the intervening effect of a couple's sex role ideology on the relationship between stress and support - forward (stepwise) multiple regression analysis was conducted to allow examination of the possible improvement of the predictive power of husband support when the couple's sex role ideology was considered.

Analysis 3

To provide more information about the relationship between husband support and wife's parenting stress level, multiple regression analyses were conducted with each of the three PSI domain scores (Child Domain, Mother Domain, Situational/Demographic Domain) as the dependent variable and the five husband support subscales as the independent variables. Comparing the results of these three analyses allowed for examination of the relative predictive power of husband support in explaining variance in wife's parenting stress arising from child, mother, or situational/demographic characteristics.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Sample Characteristics

The means, standard deviations and ranges of PSI total scores are presented in Table 5. The overall distribution of PSI total stress scores in this sample approximates that of the original sample by Burke and Abidin (1978) although it is slightly skewed toward the low end of the stress continuum. On the average, mothers in the present sample score lower on total stress than those in the original study. This slight difference holds even when comparing the mean total scores of the primaparous mothers in Burke's sample with the present sample. Comparing the demographic characteristics of the two samples, the mothers in the present sample tend to be more educated (68% with college degree or higher as compared with 46% in the Burke sample) and are more likely to be employed full or part-time (45% as compared with 35% in the Burke sample). However, it is not known if this difference in education and employment status accounts for the slight difference in stress scores.

Table 6 presents the means, standard deviations and ranges of husband support subscale scores. Notable is the high degree of similarity between wife and husband mean ratings on each of the subscales. Also of note is the skewness toward the high end of the support continuum on the subscales Emotional Support, Favorable Evaluation and Acceptance of Role.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of PSI Scores from the Present Sample and the Original Sample

	PRESENT SAMPLE	ORIGINAL SAMPLE
Total Stress Score		
Mean	259.45	272.71
Standard Deviation	37.76	41.73
Range	206	224
N of Cases	100	208
Child Domain		
Mean	100.87	104.50
Standard Deviation	17.03	16.41
Range	95	93
N of Cases	100	208
Mother Domain		
Mean	106.5	109.67
Standard Deviation	18.17	20.96
Range	94	115
N of Cases	100	208
Situational/Demographic Domain		
Mean	52.08	58.54
Standard Deviation	9.80	11.99
Range	40	65
N of Cases	100	208

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of Husband Support Subscale Scores and Sex Role Ideology

	Wives' Ratings	Husbands' Ratings
Emotional Support		
Mean	4.26	4.18
Standard Deviation	.55	.54
Range*	2.4-5.0	2.1-5.0
N of Cases	97	99
Favorable Evaluation		
Mean	4.12	4.34
Standard Deviation	.49	.47
Range*	2.3-4.9	3.0-5.0
N of Cases	99	100
Acceptance of Role		
Mean	4.11	4.16
Standard Deviation	.58	.50
Range*	1.8-5.0	2.3-4.9
N of Cases	99	100
Companionship		
Mean	3.39	3.43
Standard Deviation	.63	.54
Range*	1.6-4.9	1.8-4.5
N of Cases	99	100
Direct Service		
Mean	2.89	3.25
Standard Deviation	.98	.89
Range**	1.1-7.9	1.3-6.2
N of Cases	93	93

	Wives' Ratings Only
Satisfaction with Direct Service - Child Care	
Mean	6.69
Standard Deviation	.78
Range***	4 - 8
N of Cases	93

Satisfaction with Direct Service - Household	Wives' Ratings Only
Mean	6.80
Standard Deviation	.78
Range ***	3.1 - 8
N of Cases	95

Satisfaction with Problem Solving Support	
Mean	5.98
Standard Deviation	3.01
Range ****	0 - 10
N of Cases	94

	Wives' Ratings	Husbands' Ratings
Sex Role Ideology		
Mean	4.03	3.86
Standard Deviation	.61	.71
Range*****	2.4-5.0	1.5-5.0
N of Cases	100	100

* (Possible Range: low support=1; high support=5)
** (Possible Range: wife's responsibility only=1; husband's responsibility only=9)
*** (Possible Range: low satisfaction=0; high satisfaction=8)
**** (Possible Range: low satisfaction=0; high satisfaction=10)
***** (Possible Range: traditional=1; egalitarian=5)

This indicates that husbands in this sample are generally viewed as being very supportive in these areas by both themselves and their wives. The Direct Service and Satisfaction with Direct Service mean scores, on the other hand, indicate that both wife and husband perceive the wife as being more responsible for child care and household duties and that wives are very satisfied with this division of labor. This finding is somewhat surprising given the couples' theoretical position on family role division. The mean Sex Role Ideology score suggests that they hold fairly egalitarian views about how family roles should be differentiated. Taken together, the findings indicate that, while on a theoretical level the couples appear to reject the stereotypical assignment of male versus female family duties, on a practical level they tend to follow this pattern. The relatively high Problem Solving Satisfaction mean score indicates that, in general, wives are fairly satisfied with their husband's responses when discussing a problem related to the transition to parenthood.

Data Analysis

To test the hypothesis that husband support is negatively related to wife's parenting stress level, multiple regression analysis was performed using the PSI (Total Score) as the dependent variable and husband support subscale scores defined according to the high loading items of the factor analysis as the independent variables. Separate multiple regression analyses were done for wife and husband ratings of support and, later, these analyses were compared. In the first analyses, the five

support subscales which yielded scores for both wife and husband were used as the independent variables. These subscales are Emotional Support, Favorable Evaluation, Acceptance of Role, Companionship and Direct Service. Pairwise intercorrelations among these variables and stress were generated. Next, a forward stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed so that the relative improvement in the relationship between stress and support as each support variable was included could be examined.

The resulting product-moment correlations are presented in Table 7 for wife's ratings and in Table 9 for husband's ratings. Looking first at the wife's ratings, the significant negative correlations between Emotional Support, Acceptance of Role, Companionship, Favorable Evaluation, Direct Service and PSI supports the hypothesis that these aspects of husband support are negatively related to wife's parenting stress level ($p < .01$). The intercorrelation among the support subscales is also of interest and suggests how these five variables might interact in their relationship with parenting stress. Companionship, Acceptance of Role, and Favorable Evaluation are all highly correlated with Emotional Support. In fact, their relationship with Emotional Support is stronger and/or almost equal to their relationship with wife's parenting stress. This suggests that a husband's ability to favorably evaluate his wife as a mother, accept the role of father and be involved in joint marital activities are significantly related to his ability to be emotionally supportive to her.

Table 7

Product Moment Correlations of PSI and Husband Support Subscales

Wife's Ratings
(N = 89)

Variable	PSI	Emotional Support	Acceptance of Role	Companionship	Favorable Evaluation
Emotional Support	-.44**				
Acceptance of Role	-.53**	.51**			
Companionship	-.41**	.67**	.34**		
Favorable Evaluation	-.46**	.50**	.38**	.41**	
Direct Service	-.28**	.23*	.46**	.24*	.003

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

This finding is not surprising as the social support literature has identified emotional support as a key aspect of supportive behavior (Tolsdorf, 1976; Gottlieb, 1977).

Given the relationship between the support variables, it was decided that Emotional Support would be regressed first against stress to determine the amount of stress variance it explained followed by each of the other support variables that explained the greatest amount of variance unexplained by the variables already in the equation. The results for wife's ratings are presented in Table 8. Taken together, the five support variables account for 39% (R=.62) of wife parenting stress level, although the contributions made by Companionship and Direct Service are not significant. While Emotional Support accounts for almost 20% of the parenting stress variance, of equal significance is that Acceptance of Role then accounts for 12% of the remaining variance and Favorable Evaluation then accounts for an additional 5%. Thus, both a husband's acceptance of the father role and his favorable evaluation of his wife as a mother make significant independent contributions in explaining her level of parenting stress above that explained by his ability to be emotionally supportive. The relationship between Companionship and stress, on the other hand, is almost totally explained by Emotional Support and the relationship between Direct Service and stress is almost totally explained by Acceptance of Role.

The intercorrelations and multiple regression analysis of husband's ratings of husband supportiveness and wife's

Table 8

Multiple Regression Analysis of PSI and Husband Support

Wife's Ratings

Variable	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Emotional Support	.44	.20	.20**
Acceptance of Role	.56	.32	.12**
Favorable Evaluation	.61	.37	.05*
Companionship	.62	.39	.02
Direct Service	.62	.39	.0

* $p < .02$

** $p < .001$

perception of her parenting stress are presented in Table 9 and Table 10 respectively. As with the wife's ratings, Emotional Support, Acceptance of Role, Favorable Evaluation and Companionship are all significantly negatively correlated with the PSI ($p < .01$), thus, supporting the hypothesis that these aspects of husband supportiveness are negatively related to wife's parenting stress level. The correlation between husband's rating of Direct Service and wife's parenting stress, however, is negative but not significant.

The multiple regression analysis of husband's ratings of his support with wife's parenting stress presents a slightly different pattern of which support variables contribute more in explaining stress variance. First of all, the husband's ratings of his supportiveness account for a smaller percentage of the variance in wife's parenting stress (29.5%) than do the wife's ratings (39%). This is not surprising in the wife's case it is her perception of both his support and her stress whereas in the husband's case it is his perception of his support regressed against her perception of her stress. What is of note, however, is that even given the expected lower correlation between husband support and stress because of different raters, husband support still accounts for a significant proportion of the variance in wife's parenting stress level. Also, while the difference is fairly large, it is not statistically significant.

The second difference is in the relative contribution of Acceptance of Role and Favorable Evaluation in explaining

Table 9

Product Moment Correlations of
PSI and Husband Support Subscales

Husband's Ratings
(N = 92)

Variable	PSI	Emotional Support	Acceptance of Role	Compan-ionship	Favorable Evaluation
Emotional Support	-.36**				
Acceptance of Role	-.40**	.52**			
Compan-ionship	-.36**	.48**	.22*		
Favorable Evaluation	.43**	.39**	.42**	.27**	
Direct Service	-.14	.33**	.43**	.22*	-.06

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

Table 10

Multiple Regression Analysis of
PSI and Husband Support

Husband's Ratings

Variable	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Emotional Support	.36	.13	.13**
Favorable Evaluation	.48	.23	.10**
Companionship	.51	.26	.03
Acceptance of Role	.54	.30	.03*
Direct Service	F-level insufficient for further computation		

* $p < .05$

** $p < .001$

stress variance. Whereas, wife's ratings of husband support revealed a stronger influence of Acceptance of Role on stress variance, husband's ratings indicate that Favorable Evaluation has a stronger relationship. The contribution of Emotional Support is approximately the same when either rates it as is the lack of contribution of Companionship and Direct Service. This suggests, then, that in addition to a husband's emotional supportiveness, his rating of his wife as a good mother and her rating of his acceptance of the father role are significant indices relating to her level of parenting stress.

In a further attempt to understand the relationship between husband support and wife's parenting stress, a multiple regression analysis of the discrepancy between wife's and husband's ratings of support and wife's parenting stress level was conducted to determine which rating of husband support (wife's, husband's or discrepancy between the two) had the strongest relationship with stress level. The five subscales of husband support which were rated by both wife and husband were used as the independent variables and the PSI (Total Score) was the dependent variable. It was assumed that a husband's overrating of his support in comparison to his wife's rating would be more related to her stress level than his underrating himself. Thus, only the magnitude of his overrating on each support item was used in calculating the subscale discrepancy scores. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Multiple Regression Analysis of
PSI and Husband Support Discrepancy Scores
(N = 85)

Variable	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Emotional Support	.27	.07	.07*
Acceptance of Role	.40	.16	.09**
Direct Service	.42	.18	.01
Favorable Evaluation	.42	.18	0
Companionship	.42	.18	0

* $p < .01$

** $p < .005$

While the five discrepancy scores account for 18% (R=.42) of the variance in wife's stress level, this is less than that explained by husband's ratings of support (30%) and significantly less than that explained by wife's ratings (39%). Of interest is that, again, Emotional Support and Acceptance of Role are the subscales that have the greatest influence on stress. Thus, new mothers who perceive their husband as less emotionally supportive and accepting of the father role than the husband sees himself tend to have higher parenting stress levels.

Looking again at wife's ratings of husband support, when the three satisfaction scores (Satisfaction with Child Care Direct Service, Satisfaction with Household Direct Service, and Satisfaction with Problem Solving Support) are included in the regression analysis along with the five support subscales, husband support accounts for 48% (R=.69) of the variance in wife's parenting stress level (Table 12). Interestingly, however, while both wife's satisfaction with child care direct service and with problem solving support are significantly negatively correlated with her stress level ($p < .01$), it is her satisfaction with household direct service that accounts for an additional 5.9% of stress variance after the influence of emotional support, acceptance of the father

Table 12

Multiple Regression Analysis of PSI
Husband Support and Satisfaction with Support Subscales

Wife's Ratings
(N = 83)

Variable	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Emotional Support	.45	.21	.21**
Acceptance of Role	.58	.33	.13**
Favorable Evaluation	.62	.38	.05*
Satisfaction with Child Care Direct Service	.63	.40	.02
Satisfaction with Household Direct Service	.68	.46	.06**
Companionship	.69	.48	.02
Satisfaction with Problem Solving Support	.69	.48	0
Direct Service	.69	.48	0

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

role and his favorable evaluation of her mothering are removed. Neither satisfaction with child care direct service nor problem solving support makes a significant contribution. Interpreting the relationship between satisfaction with household direct service and parenting stress is all the more difficult, because while wife's satisfaction with household direct service is not significantly correlated with stress, including the stress subscales, the direction is positive for total stress and stress in the Child Domain. This appears to suggest that the greater a wife's satisfaction with husband's household direct service, the greater her parenting stress and, in particular, parenting stress arising from child characteristics. One possible explanation is that while wives may be satisfied with their husbands' involvement with household activities, including providing income, his involvement in these areas may necessitate her being the more active participant with the child and, thus, influence her perception of parenting stress arising from child characteristics. While this hypothesis requires further investigation, minor support for it comes from the relationship between satisfaction with household direct service and the other husband support variables. Satisfaction with husband's acceptance of the father role is least correlated with his involvement in joint marital activities ($r = .34$).

To summarize, then, the hypothesis that husband support is negatively related to wife's parenting stress is confirmed.

Of the three ratings of husband support - wife's ratings, husband's ratings and the discrepancy between their ratings - wife's ratings account for the most variance in her parenting stress scores. The intercorrelations among the support subscales indicates that emotional support is a key aspect of the other types of support. However, despite this multicolinearity, when the influence of emotional support is removed, husband's acceptance of the father role and his favorable evaluation of his wife as a mother significantly relate to the remaining variance of the wife's parenting stress level. Additionally, while degree of direct service in household care does not explain any further parenting stress variance, wife's satisfaction with his involvement in this aspect of direct service does, especially in relation to stress arising from child characteristics. Thus, the findings suggest that the higher the husband's emotional supportiveness, acceptance of the father role and favorable evaluation of his wife as a mother and the lower her satisfaction with his involvement in household direct service, the lower her parenting stress level.

To test the hypothesis that the relationship between husband supportiveness and wife's parenting stress level will be greater for couple's holding a more egalitarian sex role ideology, stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted so that the influence of sex role ideology on wife's parent-

ing stress level was removed first to allow examination of the possible improvement in the predictive power of husband supportiveness. For wife's sex role ideology, the hypothesis is not confirmed. As her sex role ideology does not account for a significant portion of the variance of her parenting stress level, there is no improvement in the predictive power of husband support (Table 13).

The relationship between husband's sex role ideology and wife's parenting stress level is significant, however (Table 14). Husband's sex role ideology is significantly correlated with wife's parenting stress level ($p < .01$) and accounts for 6.7% ($R=.26$) of the stress variance. Taken together with husband's ratings of husband support, 31.4% of the variance in wife's parenting stress level is accounted for as opposed to 29.5% when husband support alone is considered. This relative improvement in predictive power, while not a statistically significant improvement, appears to come from the positive intercorrelation sex role ideology has with both emotional support ($p < .01$) and direct service ($p<.01$). In other words, husbands who hold an egalitarian sex role ideology are more likely to be more emotionally supportive and higher in direct service and have wives with lower parenting stress levels than husbands with a traditional sex role ideology.

To test the hypothesis that the relationship between husband supportiveness and wife's parenting stress level will be

Table 13

Multiple Regression Analysis of PSI and Husband Support, Controlling for Sex Role Ideology

Wife's Ratings
(N = 89)

Variable	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Sex Role Ideology	.20	.04	.04
Emotional Support	.45	.20	.16**
Acceptance of Role	.57	.32	.12**
Favorable Evaluation	.61	.37	.05*
Companionship	.62	.39	.02
Direct Service	.62	.39	0

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 14

Multiple Regression Analysis of PSI and Husband Support, Controlling for Sex Role Ideology

Husband's Ratings
(N = 91)

Variable	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Sex Role Ideology	.26	.07	.07*
Emotional Support	.39	.15	.08**
Favorable Evaluation	.50	.25	.10**
Companionship	.53	.28	.03
Acceptance of Role	.56	.31	.03*
Direct Service	.56	.31	0

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

greater on the stress subscale assessing mother characteristics than on the subscales assessing child characteristics or situational/demographic characteristics, separate multiple regression analyses with each of the stress subscales as the dependent variable were conducted and compared (Tables 15, 16 and 17). For husband's ratings of husband support, the hypothesis was not confirmed. There is minimal difference in degree of explained variance between the three stress subscales. For wife's ratings of husband support, the hypothesis is partially confirmed. Husband support accounts for significantly more variance in stress arising from the Mother Domain (R=.65) in comparison to the Child Domain (R=.43) but not in comparison to the Situational/Demographic Domain (R=.55).

Husband's emotional support, favorable evaluation of wife as a mother, and acceptance of the father role are the only significant contributors in explaining stress variance in the Mother Domain. This pattern also holds for explained variance in the Child Domain but not for the Situational/Demographic Domain. When husband support is regressed against this stress subscale, Companionship explains almost 5% of the stress variance after that explained by Emotional Support and Acceptance of Role. This relationship between Companionship and the Situational/Demographic Domain is not surprising as, among other things, this is the stress subscale that assesses stress arising from changed patterns in the marital

Table 15

Product Moment Correlation of PSI Subscales and Husband Support Subscales

Wife's Ratings
(N = 89)

	Variable	HUSBAND SUPPORT Emotional Support	Favorable Evaluation	Acceptance of Role	Companionship	Direct Service
PSI	PSI Total	-.44**	-.46**	-.53**	-.41**	-.28**
	Child Domain	-.28**	-.32**	-.36**	-.25*	-.21
	Mother Domain	-.49**	-.53**	-.52**	-.42**	-.20
	Sit/Dem Domain	-.34**	-.26*	-.47**	-.39**	-.35**

* $p < .02$
** $p < .01$

Husband's Ratings
(N = 92)

	Variable	HUSBAND SUPPORT Emotional Support	Favorable Evaluation	Acceptance of Role	Companionship	Direct Service
PSI	PSI Total	-.36**	-.43**	-.40**	-.36**	-.14
	Child Domain	-.31**	-.35**	-.44**	-.28**	-.19
	Mother Domain	-.29**	-.36**	-.27**	-.29**	-.05
	Sit/Dem Domain	-.34**	-.41**	-.31**	-.37**	-.11

* $p < .02$
** $p < .01$

Table 16

Multiple Regression Analysis of PSI Subscales and Husband Support

Wife's Ratings (N = 89)

	DEPENDENT VARIABLE = MOTHER DOMAIN		
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Emotional Support	.49	.24	.24**
Favorable Evaluation	.59	.35	.11**
Acceptance of Role	.65	.42	.07**
Companionship	.65	.43	.0
Direct Service	F-level insufficient for further computation		

	DEPENDENT VARIABLE = CHILD DOMAIN		
	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Emotional Support	.28	.08	.08**
Acceptance of Role	.38	.14	.06**
Favorable Evaluation	.42	.17	.03
Direct Service	.43	.18	.01
Companionship	.43	.18	.0

	DEPENDENT VARIABLE = SIT/DEM DOMAIN		
	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Emotional Support	.34	.11	.11**
Acceptance of Role	.48	.23	.12**
Companionship	.53	.28	.05*
Direct Service	.55	.30	.01
Favorable Evaluation	.55	.30	.0

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

Table 17

Multiple Regression Analysis of
PSI Subscales and Husband Support

Husband's Ratings (N = 92)

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	DEPENDENT VARIABLE = MOTHER DOMAIN		
	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Emotional Support	.29	.08	.08**
Favorable Evaluation	.40	.16	.07**
Companionship	.42	.18	.02
Acceptance of Role	.43	.19	.01
Direct Service	.43	.19	0

	DEPENDENT VARIABLE = CHILD DOMAIN		
	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Emotional Support	.31	.10	.10**
Acceptance of Role	.45	.20	.11**
Favorable Evaluation	.48	.23	.03
Companionship	.50	.25	.02
Direct Service	.50	.25	0

	DEPENDENT VARIABLE = SIT/DEM DOMAIN		
	R	R^2	R^2 Change
Emotional Support	.34	.11	.11**
Favorable Evaluation	.45	.21	.09**
Companionship	.50	.25	.04*
Acceptance of Role	.51	.26	.01
Direct Service	.51	.26	0

relationship. One would expect, then, that a husband's involvement in joint marital activities would be correlated with low stress in this area. What is of note, however, is the consistently high negative correlation between stress and both emotional support and acceptance of the father role across all three stress subscales.

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, several issues and conclusions stemming from the results of this research will be discussed. In particular, the following areas will be covered: (a) husband support, (b) husband support and stress subscales, (c) sex role ideology, and (d) clinical implications of the findings and suggestions for future research.

The major purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between husband support and wife's parenting stress level. It was hypothesized that there would be a negative inverse relationship between husband support and parenting stress. Additionally, it was predicted that the couple's sex role ideology would have an intervening effect between support and stress such that the negative relationship between parenting stress and husband support would be stronger for couples with an egalitarian sex role ideology. Thirdly, it was predicted that husband support would have a greater influence in mediating wife's parenting stress arising from mother characteristics than stress arising from either child or situational/demographic characteristics.

Husband Support

From a review of the literature on the transition to parenthood and the literature on social support and stress, six aspects of husband supportiveness were identified as being potentially significant factors in mediating a new

mother's parenting stress level. They were: emotional support, acceptance of role, companionship, direct service in child and household responsibilities, problem solving support and support for non-mother roles. Results from factor analyses of the support items, however, dictated several changes in the support subscales. The factor analysis did not support the existence of the Support for Non-Mother Roles subscale and revealed that the items hypothesized to represent Emotional Support actually represented two different and distinct subscales: Emotional Support and Favorable Evaluation. Additionally, there were significant methodological problems in the Problem Solving Support subscale so that the only score that could be derived from it was wife's satisfaction with problem solving support rather than degree of problem solving support. Thus, five aspects of husband support were used in future analyses: emotional support, favorable evaluation, companionship, acceptance of role and direct service. Three satisfaction subscales were also derived for wife's ratings of husband support. They were: satisfaction with child care direct service, satisfaction with household direct service and satisfaction with problem solving support. The results will be discussed primarily in terms of the wife's ratings of husband support as there were only minor differences in the pattern of explained stress variance between wife's and husband's ratings and wife's ratings accounted for more.

The results from the correlations between husband support and stress and the multiple regression analysis clearly

supports the hypothesis that high husband support is negatively related to a new mother's parenting stress level. Using wife's ratings, correlations between support and stress ranged from -.28 to -.53 and, in combination, accounted for 39% of the variance in wife's parenting stress level. When the three satisfaction with support scores were included, 48% of the variance in wife's parenting stress level was accounted for by husband support. This finding confirms previous findings that the relationship between the spouses is a powerful predictor of the wife's adaptation to parenthood (Leifer, 1977; Shereshefsky & Yarrow, 1973). In fact, recent studies have shown that it is not just support in general but husband support in particular that has proven to be significantly related to an easier transition to parenthood (Reibstein in Lieberman, 1981; Richardson & Kagan, 1979). The one exception is the study by Zimmerman (1979) which found that husband support was not significantly correlated with wife's parenting stress level. However, his sample was small (N=15) and consisted of multiparous mothers with older children (mean age=4). Thus, the present study in combination with others, provides further evidence that husbands can and do play an important role in mediating a new mother's parenting stress. The question, then, becomes what aspects of husband support facilitate his wife's transition to parenthood.

The clearest finding in the transition to parenthood literature is that the quality of the marital relationship

affects the wife's adjustment to parenthood (Cowan, 1981; Shereshefsky & Yarrow, 1973). This is certainly confirmed in the present study. Of the six husband support subscales, the husband's ability to be emotionally supportive was consistently correlated with low parenting stress for the wife and provided a key to understanding the interrelationship between the other aspects of support and stress. Despite factor analyzing the support items so that they would represent distinct, orthogonal subscales, there was a high degree of intercorrelation among them, especially with Emotional Support. With the exception of Direct Service, the support subscales had as high if not a higher correlation with Emotional Support than with stress. Several researchers have focused on the importance of emotional support as a supportive behavior (Gottlieb, 1977; Tolsdorf, 1976). The results from this study reaffirm that it is not only important in its own right but also as a part of other supportive behaviors. For example, the findings suggest that part of the influence that a husband's acceptance of the father role, favorable evaluation of wife as mother, and participation in joint marital activities have on wife's parenting stress level is in simply conveying to the wife his emotional support for her.

This appears to be especially true for companionship which is so strongly correlated with emotional support and its influence on stress almost totally explained by emotional support. While involvement in joint marital activities may provide the wife relief from parenting responsibilities, its

major impact appears to be in its conveyance to her of her husband's caring and love for her. Given that both the Companionship and Emotional Support subscales have been found to be significantly correlated with the Locke and Wallace measure of marital satisfaction in previous studies (Burke & Weir, 1977; Orden & Bradburn, 1968), it seems appropriate to conclude that their strong negative correlation with stress represents the impact the quality of the marital relationship can have on a new mother's adaptation to parenthood.

The results of this study, however, suggest that it is not just through the quality of the marital relationship that husband support influences wife's parenting stress. The strong negative correlation between Acceptance of Role and stress and the fact that it consistently explains a substantial proportion of stress variance even after the effects of emotional support are removed indicates that the husband's role as a parent directly influences her parenting stress level. Specifically, it appears to be his interest in and comfort with being a father rather than the degree of his involvement in child care tasks (Direct Service) or her satisfaction with his involvement that has a stronger mediating affect on parenting stress for the wife.

For example, as in previous studies (Cowan, 1981), the couples in this study tended to be more egalitarian in their attitudes about the division of child and household responsibilities than in practice. That this discrepancy did not

significantly impact on wife's parenting stress can be understood by looking at the findings by Curtis-Boles (1981). She found that while new mothers reported feeling overwhelmed at times by their involvement with the child, less sharing of child care tasks and more sharing of household responsibilities was associated with new mothers' high self-esteem. The significant inverse correlation between Direct Service and stress in the present study indicates that some husband involvement in child care tasks is important to the wife. However, Direct Service did not appear as a significant variable in explaining variance in wife's parenting stress level when a multiple regression analysis was done.

Surprisingly, wife's satisfaction with child care direct service was not a significant variable in explaining variance in wife's parenting stress level either. Previous studies have found that during the transition to parenthood it is role satisfaction rather than role arrangement style that is related to marital satisfaction and, presumably, to wife's satisfaction with parenting (Garrett, 1981; Fein, 197). The results of this study, however, suggest that the husband's acceptance of the father role may be a more important variable in understanding wife's parenting stress level than either role satisfaction or degree of involvement. For example, wife's satisfaction with child care direct service, while inversely related to parenting stress, had a stronger correlation with husband's acceptance of the father role than with either degree of direct service or stress. This suggests

that the husband's attitude about being a father, his interest in and comfort with this role, influences both her satisfaction with the division of child care responsibilities and her parenting stress level. Thus, it appears that it is the husband's willingness to spend time with the baby, his pride and comfort in being a father, rather than how often he takes responsibility for child care tasks or her satisfaction with task sharing that has the major impact on wife's parenting stress.

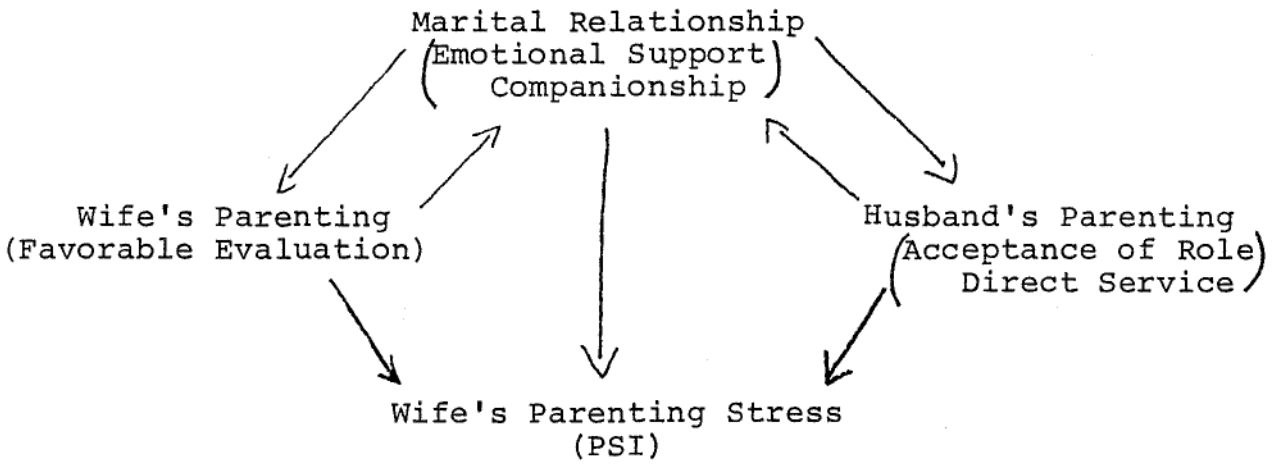
The other aspect of husband support that has a significant influence on wife's parenting stress is the husband's perception of the wife as a good mother. While the strong positive correlation between emotional support and favorable evaluation it not surprising as they are typically considered to be one kind of helping behavior (Gottlieb, 1977), it is of note that favorable evaluation also has an independent influence on wife's parenting stress. The results of the multiple regression analysis suggest that a husband's favorable evaluation of her as a mother conveys to her not only his caring and love for her but also his comfort and regard for her mothering abilities. Both aspects influence her parenting stress level.

Thus, of the five aspects of husband support studied, his emotional support, acceptance of the father role and favorable evaluation of wife as mother, stand out as having the greatest influence in explaining variance in wife's stress level. Given their high intercorrelation with each other as

well as with stress, one can begin to conceptualize an interactive framework of how these aspects of husband support may differentially and conjointly influence wife's parenting stress level. Specifically, the transactional framework proposed by Belsky (1981) for examining early experience in the family system seems appropriate. This model points out the need to delineate the reciprocal influences that marital relations, parenting, and infant behavior/development can have on each other. While the present study does not examine the third component, infant behavior/development, it does begin to shed light upon the reciprocal influences marital relations and parenting have on wife's parenting stress. Thus, as noted earlier, emotional support and companionship could be viewed as representing the impact the quality of the marital relationship can have on wife's parenting stress level. The husband's acceptance of the father role (and direct service to a lesser degree) appears to represent the effect his parenting can have on wife's stress. Favorable evaluation, on the other hand, could be conceptualized as mediating parenting stress through its effect on wife's perception of her parenting (Figure 2). This conceptualization also helps to clarify the second order effects, that is, the intercorrelations between the support subscales. While it has been postulated that part of the influence the husband's acceptance of the father role and favorable evaluation of wife as mother have on her parenting stress is in conveying his emotional support for her, it is

Figure 2

A Framework for Understanding the Reciprocal Effects of Husband Support on Wife's Parenting Stress



also probable that the reverse of this is true. For example, it is likely that the quality of the marital relationship influences the degree that he accepts the father role and favorably evaluates her mothering.

Husband Support and Stress Subscales

Examining the relationship between husband support and the stress subscales (Child, Mother, Situational/Demographic Domains) through the proposed framework further supports its utility in interpreting the results of the study. When viewed through this framework, the findings indicate that the quality of the marital relationship (emotional support) and husband's parenting (acceptance of role) significantly influence wife's parenting stress arising from all three domains. Wife's parenting (as influenced by husband's favorable evaluation of her), on the other hand, only significantly explains variance in stress arising from mother characteristics.

While it was hypothesized that the relationship between husband supportiveness and wife's parenting stress level would be greater on the stress subscale assessing mother characteristics than on the subscales assessing child characteristics or situational/demographic characteristics, this was only partially confirmed. Husband support explained significantly more variance in stress arising from the Mother Domain (43%) when compared with the Child Domain (18%) but not when compared with the Situational/Demographic Domain (30%). The lack of a significant difference in explained variance between the

Mother and Situational/Demographic Domains can be understood in terms of the association husband support has with the quality of the marital relationship. As noted earlier, the Situational/Demographic Domain is the stress subscale that assesses stress arising from changed patterns in the marital relationship.

Although husband support accounted for the smallest amount of variance in the Child Domain, it is of note that it did explain 18%. In fact, when wife's satisfaction with child care and household direct service is included, husband support explains 28% of the variance in stress arising from child characteristics. This finding supports the research by Belsky (1981) and others (Grossman et al., 1980) which has found that the marital relationship and parenting can influence perceptions of the child's behavior.

The other interesting finding stemming from the analysis of husband support and the stress subscales is in the relationship between wife's satisfaction with child care and household direct service and parenting stress. Neither explained a significant amount of variance in total parenting stress for the mother. However, satisfaction with husband's child care involvement accounted for 4% of explained variance in the Child Domain even after the effects of husband's acceptance of father role were removed. Again this indicates the influence the husband's involvement and interest in the father role can have on his wife's perception of the child's behavior.

Husband's involvement in household tasks, on the other hand, has a mixed effect on wife's parenting stress. Research by Cowan (1981) and her colleagues has shown that high sharing in household tasks is associated with a new mothers high self-esteem and marital satisfaction during the transition to parenthood. Results from the present study support this as wife's satisfaction with household sharing explain 4% of the variance in stress in the Mother Domain. However, high sharing in household tasks was associated with high parenting stress arising from child characteristics. Thus, while wife's satisfaction with husband's involvement in household tasks decreases her parenting stress arising from mother characteristics, it increases her parenting stress arising from child characteristics. While this finding is interesting in and of itself, it also reaffirms the importance of using a multidimensional instrument to assess parenting stress.

Sex Role Ideology

The hypothesized intervening effect of a couple's sex role ideology on the relationship between husband support and wife's parenting stress, was not confirmed. In fact, contrary to the suggestion by several researchers (Jacoby, 1968; Lopata, 1971; Rossi, 1968), the negative correlation between sex role ideology and stress, while not significant, suggests that women with an egalitarian sex role ideology may actually feel less parenting stress than women with a traditional sex

role ideology. This is most likely because a woman's egalitarian sex role ideology was positively associated with her husband's degree of emotional support, acceptance of role and direct service.

Clinical Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

The results of this study suggest a number of clinical implications for those working with couples in the transition to parenthood and directions for future research. Before discussing them, however, the limitations of the study should be noted. First of all, the study's sample was predominantly white, middle class and educated. It is questionable, therefore, how applicable the findings are to low income, poorly educated and/or minority couples adapting to parenthood. Secondly, neither the Parenting Stress Index nor the Husband Support Scale have a correction factor. Lafiosca (1981) found that, for a normal population, there was a significant correlation between scores on the stress index and scores on a well known social desirability scale. Thus, one must assume that the low stress and high support scores in the present sample may be somewhat inflated. That there was a large range of scores for both the stress and support measures, however, indicates that there was differential response to items by this sample population.

The third limitation of the study is the untested nature of the Husband Support Scale. The pilot testing and the factor analysis of the scale provide some evidence of the

face validity and construct validity of the items. However, with the exception of the Emotional Support and Companionship subscales, its concurrent validity is largely untested. As this was the first time the scale was used, there is also no indication of its test-retest reliability. That the subscales have a relatively good level of internal consistency is evidenced in alpha-reliability coefficients ranging from .79 to .89. Thus, while there is some indication of the instruments validity and reliability, further investigation is needed.

The most significant clinical implication of the study is its identification of the importance of the husband/father in the transition to parenthood. Returning to the adaptation of Belsky's model, the results of the study indicate that husband support influences the quality of the marital relationship and parenting which in turn influence a new mother's parenting stress level. In the past, the inclination of helping professionals working with new mothers who are experiencing stress in parenting has been to look only at the dyadic interaction of the mother and child. The results of this study point to the need to consider the husband's support as a potential mediator of his wife's stress. In particular, a husband's ability and willingness to be emotionally supportive, accepting of the father role, and favorably evaluate his wife as a mother are the aspects of husband support that can have the greatest impact on his wife's parenting stress level.

That the wife's perception of husband support explained more variance in her parenting stress level than the husband's rating of support would suggest that having the husband rate his support is unnecessary. However, having husbands also rate their supportiveness may be important for clinical reasons. Feedback from couples in the sample indicated that the process of filling out the questionnaires generated discussion between them about the husband's role. While there is no guarantee that the discussions would always be productive, several researchers have shown that the process of talking with each other about problems in their relationship is significantly related to an easier transition to parenthood (Reibstein in Lieberman, 1981; Richardson & Kagan, 1979).

In addition to identifying specific aspects of husband support which are important to new mothers' parenting stress level, the study also suggests directions for future research. First of all, efforts to replicate the results of the study using a more diversified population would address the question of the generalizability of the results. Secondly, the significant limitations of the problem solving measure in this and other studies (Cowan & Ball, 1981) has left this potentially important aspect of husband support unassessed. Despite the problems in and time required for coding, recording couples problem solving strategies may be the only accurate

way of assessing the influence that problem solving support may have on parenting stress.

A third direction for future research is to examine what individual and situational characteristics enable a husband to be more supportive during the transition to parenthood. Fein (1976) for example, found that the ease or difficulty of the transition for men was related to their work environment. The work by Cowan (1981) and her colleagues suggests that pre and post-partum group discussions with couples can influence marital satisfaction during the transition. Presumably, group discussions focusing on support could also influence a husband's degree of supportiveness. It would also be important to look at what parenting roles adopted by the wife encourage and/or discourage husband support.

Finally, as noted by Belsky (1981) there is a need for future research on the transition to parenthood to adopt a family system perspective. In particular, a replication of the present study which included assessments of the child's behavior and temperament would be important. While the present study begins to delineate the effects that the quality of the husband-wife relations and parenting can have on parenting stress, it would be valuable to also begin to delineate the reciprocal effects that the child's characteristics can have on these components of the family system.

Appendix A

Summary of Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables for Sample of 100 Couples

Age of Parents

Mothers	Mean	27.6	Minimum	18
	SD	3.4	Maximum	40
Fathers	Mean	29	Minimum	20
	SD	3.4	Maximum	38

Marital Status

Married 100

Age of Child in Months

Mean	8.1	Minimum	4
SD	2.6	Maximum	12

Educational Level of Parents

	9-12th	Some College/ Vocational	College Graduate	Graduate of Professional School
Mother	10	22	45	23
Father	8	20	27	45

Employment Status

	Not Employed	Part-Time	Full-Time
Mother	55	15	30
Father	12	6	82

Total Family Income

Below $5,000	$5,000-$10,000	$10,000-$15,000	$15,000-$20,000	Above $20,000
1	8	18	23	50

Appendix B

Parent Research Project

University of Virginia

Dear Parent:

The Parent Research Project of the University of Virginia is a research project which is designed to find ways of helping parents in their task of raising children. The first step in this project is to gather information about the normal difficulties which parents face in raising a young child.

We are asking both you and your spouse for help in this project. Enclosed in this envelope is a series of questionnaires which we would like to have you and your spouse complete at home and return in the stamped self-addressed envelope. There are three questionnaires for the wife to complete and two for the husband to complete. It is very important that you each work separately on your packet of questionnaires. Please do not discuss the answers among yourselves until you have completed all the questionnaires and returned them.

The questionnaires for mothers should take about 45 minutes to complete. You may want to do questionnaire 1 at one time and questionnaires 2 and 3 at a later time, since 1 is the longest. The questionnaires for fathers should take about 15 minutes to complete.

All information which you provide will be held in the strictest confidence. If you would like to know how your responses compare to those of other new parents, please indicate this on the last page of Questionnaire 1 and we will send you the results.

Again, please remember that it is important not to discuss the answers among yourselves until you have completed the questionnaires.

If you have any questions, please feel free to call at 924-7471.

Thank you,

Dr. Richard R. Abidin
Parent Research Project
University of Virginia

Edith C. Lawrence
Parent Research Project
University of Virginia

APPENDIX C

Parenting Stress Index (PSI)

R. R. Abidin & W. T. Burke

Instructions:

In answering the following questions, please think about the child you are most concerned about.

The questions on the following pages ask you to mark an answer which best describes your feelings. While you may not find an answer which exactly states your feelings, please mark the answer which comes closest to describing how you feel. Your first reaction to each question should be your answer.

Please mark the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the letter which best matches how you feel. If you are not sure, please circle the question mark.

SA	a	?	d	SD
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Example: SA (a) ? d SD I enjoy going to the movies. (If you sometimes enjoy going to the movies you would circle a).

1 2 3 4 5

SA	a	?	d	SD	1.	When my child wants something, my child usually keeps trying to get it.
SA	a	?	d	SD	2.	Compared to the average child, my child has a great deal of difficulty in getting used to changes in schedules or changes around the house.
SA	a	?	d	SD	3.	My child is so active that it exhausts me.
SA	a	?	d	SD	4.	When I do things for my child I get the feeling that my efforts are not appreciated very much.
SA	a	?	d	SD	5.	My child smiles at me much less than I expected.
SA	a	?	d	SD	6.	My child makes more demands on me than most children.
SA	a	?	d	SD	7.	As my child has grown older and become more independent, I find myself more worried that my child will get hurt or into trouble.
SA	a	?	d	SD	8.	My child looks a little different than I expected and it bothers me at times.
SA	a	?	d	SD	9.	In some areas my child seems to have forgotten past learnings and has gone back to doing things characteristic of younger children.

1	2	3	4	5		
SA	a	?	d	SD	10.	My child has had more health problems than I expected.
SA	a	?	d	SD	11.	Sometimes I feel my child doesn't like me and doesn't want to be close to me.
SA	a	?	d	SD	12.	My child doesn't seem to learn as quickly as most children.
SA	a	?	d	SD	13.	There are some things my child does that really bothers me a lot.
SA	a	?	d	SD	14.	My child appears disorganized and is easily distracted.
SA	a	?	d	SD	15.	I feel that my child is very moody and easily upset.
SA	a	?	d	SD	16.	My child reacts very strongly when something happens that my child doesn't like.
SA	a	?	d	SD	17.	My child generally wakes up in a bad mood.
SA	a	?	d	SD	18.	My child gets upset easily over the smallest thing.
SA	a	?	d	SD	19.	When playing, my child doesn't often giggle or laugh.
SA	a	?	d	SD	20.	My child easily notices and overreacts to loud sounds and bright lights.
SA	a	?	d	SD	21.	My child doesn't seem to smile as much as most children.
SA	a	?	d	SD	22.	My child usually avoids a new toy for a while before beginning to play with it.
SA	a	?	d	SD	23.	My child seems to cry or fuss more often than most children.
SA	a	?	d	SD	24.	My child doesn't seem comfortable when meeting strangers.
SA	a	?	d	SD	25.	It takes a long time and it is very hard for my child to get used to new things.
SA	a	?	d	SD	26.	Leaving my child with a babysitter is usually a problem.
SA	a	?	d	SD	27.	Compared to most, my child has more difficulty concentrating and paying attention.
SA	a	?	d	SD	28.	My child does a few things which bother me a great deal.
SA	a	?	d	SD	29.	My child will often stay occupied with a toy for more than 10 minutes.
SA	a	?	d	SD	30.	My child is not able to do as much as I expected.

1	2	3	4	5		
SA	a	?	d	SD	31.	Most times I feel that my child likes me and wants to be close to me.
SA	a	?	d	SD	32.	My child wanders away much more than I expected.
SA	a	?	d	SD	33.	My child makes more demands on me than most children.
SA	a	?	d	SD	34.	My child is always hanging on me.
SA	a	?	d	SD	35.	My child seems to be much harder to care for than most.
SA	a	?	d	SD	36.	My child rarely does things for me that make me feel good.
SA	a	?	d	SD	37.	My child is much more active than I expected.
SA	a	?	d	SD	38.	My child does not like to be cuddled or touched very much.
SA	a	?	d	SD	39.	My child turned out to be more of a problem than I had expected.
SA	a	?	d	SD	40.	My child squirms and kicks a great deal when being dressed or bathed.
SA	a	?	d	SD	41.	My child's sleeping or eating schedule was much harder to establish than I expected.
SA	a	?	d	SD	42.	My child can be easily distracted from wanting something.

For each question, please circle the number which best describes your feelings about your child.

43. Which statement best describes your child?
    1. Almost always likes to play with me. (1)
    2. Sometimes likes to play with me. (2)
    3. Usually doesn't like to play with me. (4)
    4. Almost never likes to play with me. (5)

44. If your child is age 1 mo to 18 months answer Item A. If your child is 19 months or older answer Item B. (Answer Item A or Item B).

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)		
SA	a	?	d	SD	Item A.	When my child cries, I can tell whether it is hunger or something that hurts.
(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)		
SA	a	?	d	SD	Item B.	It is hard for me to know when my child is unhappy until a big upset occurs.

45. My child cries and fusses:
    1. much less than I had expected.
    2. less than I expected.
    3. about as much as I expected.
    4. much more than I expected.
    5. it seems almost constant.

46. When upset, my child is:
    1. easy to calm down.
    2. harder to calm down than I expected.
    3. very difficult to calm down.
    4. nothing I do helps to calm my child.

47. How easy is it for you to understand what your child wants or needs?
    1. Very easy.
    2. Easy.
    3. Somewhat difficult.
    4. It is very hard.
    5. I usually can't figure out what the problem is.

48. When my child cries it usually lasts:
    1. Less than 2 minutes.
    2. 2-5 minutes.
    3. 5-10 minutes.
    4. 10-15 minutes.
    5. more than 15 minutes.

49. How much difficulty does your child have getting used to changes in schedules or changes around the house.
    1. A great deal of difficulty
    2. A moderate amount of difficulty
    3. Some difficulty
    4. A little difficulty
    5. No difficulty

Answer key to questions 50-88.

SA	a	?	d	SD
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

1	2	3	4	5	
SA	a	?	d	SD	50. During the past six months I have been sicker than usual or have had more aches and pains than I normally do.
SA	a	?	d	SD	51. I feel that I am successful most of the time when I try to get my child to do or not do something.
SA	a	?	d	SD	52. Since I brought my last child home from the hospital, I find that I am not able to take care of this child as well as I thought I could. I need help.
SA	a	?	d	SD	53. When I think about the kind of parent I am, I often feel guilty or bad about myself.
SA	a	?	d	SD	54. It takes a long time for parents to develop close, warm feelings for their children.
SA	a	?	d	SD	55. Most of my life is spent doing things for my child.

1	2	3	4	5		
SA	a	?	d	SD	56.	I believe that my child can tell how I feel.
SA	a	?	d	SD	57.	I often have the feeling that I cannot handle things very well.
SA	a	?	d	SD	58.	I expected to have closer and warmer feelings for my child than I do and this bothers me.
SA	a	?	d	SD	59.	I feel alone and without friends.
SA	a	?	d	SD	60.	I am unhappy with the last purchase of clothing I made for myself.
SA	a	?	d	SD	61.	I never expected that punishing my child would hurt me as much as it does.
SA	a	?	d	SD	62.	When my child misbehaves or fusses too much I feel responsible, as if I didn't do something right.
SA	a	?	d	SD	63.	When my child came home from the hospital, I had doubtful feelings about my ability to handle being a parent.
SA	a	?	d	SD	64.	Since having my last child, I have had less interest in sex.
SA	a	?	d	SD	65.	Being a parent is harder than I thought it would be.
SA	a	?	d	SD	66.	Sometimes my child does things that bother me just to be mean.
SA	a	?	d	SD	67.	When I was young, I never felt comfortable holding or taking care of children.
SA	a	?	d	SD	68.	I find myself giving up more of my life to meet my children's needs than I ever expected.
SA	a	?	d	SD	69.	I feel trapped by my responsibilities as a parent.
SA	a	?	d	SD	70.	I feel everytime my child does something wrong it is really my fault.
SA	a	?	d	SD	71.	I feel capable and on top of things when I am caring for my child.
SA	a	?	d	SD	72.	Physically, I feel good most of the time.
SA	a	?	d	SD	73.	I don't enjoy things as I used to.
SA	a	?	d	SD	74.	I feel that I have been a better parent than I thought I would be.
SA	a	?	d	SD	75.	I expected that being a parent would be much easier than it has been.

1	2	3	4	5		
SA	a	?	d	SD	76.	My child knows I am his or her parent and wants me more than other people.
SA	a	?	d	SD	77.	I often feel guilty about the way I feel towards my child.
SA	a	?	d	SD	78.	I often feel that my child's needs control my life.
SA	a	?	d	SD	79.	There are quite a few things that bother me about my life.
SA	a	?	d	SD	80.	I felt sadder and more depressed than I expected after leaving the hospital with my baby.
SA	a	?	d	SD	81.	I can't make decisions without help.
SA	a	?	d	SD	82.	When I go to a party I usually expect not to enjoy myself.
SA	a	?	d	SD	83.	I wind up feeling guilty when I get angry at my child and this bothers me.
SA	a	?	d	SD	84.	I am not as interested in people as I used to be.
SA	a	?	d	SD	85.	I often have the feeling that other people my own age don't particularly like my company.
SA	a	?	d	SD	86.	I have had many more problems raising children than I expected.
SA	a	?	d	SD	87.	I enjoy being a parent.
SA	a	?	d	SD	88.	After my child had been home from the hospital for about a month, noticed that I was feeling more sad and depressed than I had expected.

89. When I think about myself as a parent I believe:
    1. I can handle anything that happens.
    2. I can handle most things pretty well.
    3. Sometimes I have doubts, but find that I handle most things without any problems.
    4. I have some doubts about being able to handle things.
    5. I don't think I handle things very well at all.

90. Raising childeren is:
    1. a lot of trouble.
    2. hard but manageable.
    3. difficult at times.
    4. a good experience - there are a few problems.
    5. a real joy - not hard at all.

91. I feel that I am:
    1. a very good parent.
    2. a better than average parent.
    3. an average parent.
    4. a person who has some trouble being a parent.
    5. not very good at being a parent.

92. Which statement best describes you?
1. I have always liked and been interested in children. (1)
2. When I was younger I liked children but didn't want to spend time around them. (2)
3. I was never really interested in children. (4)
4. I have never really liked being around children. They still bother me. (5)

93. When my children do things that bother me it is:
1. on purpose to be mean.
2. to get attention.
3. for no reason; they are just being children.
4. for a lot of different reasons.
5. because they haven't learned to do what is expected yet.

94. If my child does something bad (like biting another person) I find that the best way to get the child to stop is:
1. ignore it.
2. looking angry.
3. yelling in an angry voice, "No" or "stop it".
4. spanking.
5. biting.

95. Since I've had my child:
1. I have been sick a great deal. (1)
2. I haven't felt as good. (2)
3. I haven't noticed any change in my health. (4)
4. I have been healthier. (5)

96. When I think about my life I find that:
1. I feel happy and satisfied.
2. most of the time I feel happy.
3. I am unhappy and dissatisfied about a few things.
4. I am dissatisfied and unhappy about most things.
5. if I could start over again I would change most things in my life.

97. Think carefully and count the number of things which your child does that bothers you. For example - dawdles, refuses to listen, overactive, interrupts, cries, fights, whines, etc. Please circle the letter which includes the number of things you counted.
1. 1-3
2. 4-5
3. 6-7
4. 8-9
5. 10+

98. I have found that getting my child to do something or stop doing something is:
1. much harder than I expected.
2. somewhat harder than I expected.
3. about as hard as I expected.
4. somewhat easier than I expected.
5. much easier than I expected.

Answer Key to questions 99-114.

SA Strongly Agree	a Agree	? Not Sure	d Disagree	SD Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5

SA a ? d SD 99. Since having my child, my spouse (male/female friend) has not given me as much help and support as I expected.

SA a ? d SD 100. It is hard to find a place in our home where I can go to be by myself.

SA a ? d SD 101. Since having our last child our home seems a lot smaller and we don't have enough space.

SA a ? d SD 102. When I run into a problem taking care of my children I have a lot of people to whom I can talk to get help or advice.

SA a ? d SD 103. Since having children I have a lot fewer chances to see my friends and to make new friends.

SA a ? d SD 104. Since having this child I have been unable to do new and different things.

SA a ? d SD 105. Having a child seems to have increased the number of problems we have with in-laws and relatives.

SA a ? d SD 106. The number of children that I have now is too many.

SA a ? d SD 107. My children are too close together in age and it presents a lot of problems.

SA a ? d SD 108. Since having a child I feel that I am almost never able to do things that I like to do.

SA a ? d SD 109. Having children has been much more expensive than I had expected.

SA a ? d SD 110. Having a child has caused changes in the way I sleep.

SA a ? d SD 111. Having a child has caused more problems than I expected in my relationship with my spouse (or male/female friend).

SA a ? d SD 112. Since having a child my spouse (or male/female friend) and I don't do as many things together.

SA a ? d SD 113. While I was in the hospital with my baby I got a lot of practice taking care of the baby.

SA a ? d SD 114. Since having my child, my spouse (or male/female friend) and I don't spend as much time together as a family as I had expected.

These questions ask you to provide some information about your family.

115. What is your age? ___

116. Your child's father's age? ___

Office Use Only
Age

117. What are your ethnic backgrounds? Put your answers in the ( ).

Mother: ( )
1. American Indian
2. Black
3. Oriental
4. White
5. Other

118. Father: ( )
1. American Indian
2. Black
3. Oriental
4. White
5. Other

119. What were the highest levels in school or college you and the child's father have completed? Pur your answers in the ( ).

Mother: ( )
1. 1-8th grade
2. 9-12th grade
3. Vocational or some college
4. College graduate
5. Graduate or professional school

120. Father: ( )
1. 1-8th grade
2. 9-12th grade
3. Vocational or some college
4. College graduate
5. Graduate or professional school

121. Are you currently living with your spouse?

_____ 1. Yes
_____ 2. No; separated
_____ 3. No; never married
_____ 4. No; divorced
_____ 5. No; widowed

122. How old are the children living in your home?

Girls: ___ ___ ___ ___
Boys: ___ ___ ___ ___

Office Use Only
Add # of children
enter ( )

123. Are persons other than your children living with you?

_____ 1. No
_____ 2. Yes (who?_____)

124. Are you employed now?

_____ 1. No
_____ 2. Yes, full time
_____ 3. Yes, part time

job title _____

125. If you are not currently employed, what is the main reason?

___ 1. Temporarily laid off
___ 2. Not employed, looking for work
___ 3. Not employed, not looking for work
___ 4. Homemaker
___ 5. Student
___ 6. Health reasons
___ 7. Retired
___ 8. Doing volunteer work
___ 9. Other _____

126. Is your spouse (or male/female friend) employed now?
___ 1. No
___ 2. Yes, full time
___ 3. Yes, part time job title_____

127. If he is not currently employed, what is the main reason?
___ 1. Temporarily laid off
___ 2. Not employed, looking for work
___ 3. Not employed, not looking for work
___ 4. Homemaker
___ 5. Student
___ 6. Health reasons
___ 7. Retired
___ 8. Doing volunteer work
___ 9. Other _____

128. What is your family's total annual income?
___ 1. Over $20,000
___ 2. $15,000 to $20,000
___ 3. $10,000 to $15,000
___ 4. $5,000 to $10,000
___ 5. Less than $5,000

129. During the last 6 months, have any family members been in the hospital for at least 3 days?
___ 1. No
___ 2. Yes ___Total number of days

Office Use Only
Enter total # ( )

130. What is the total number of times members of your family saw a doctor during the last 6 months? (Do not count checkups)
___ 1. 0-2 times ___ 3. 6-10 times
___ 2. 2-5 times ___ 4. 11-20 times ___ 5. more than 20 times

During the last 12 months, have any of the following events occurred in your immediate family? Please check any that have occurred.

Office Use - if checked, enter 1, if blank enter 0

131. ___ Divorce
132. ___ Marital reconciliation
133. ___ Marriage
134. ___ Separation
135. ___ Pregnancy
136. ___ Other relative moved into household
137. ___ Income increased substantially (20% or more)
138. ___ Went deeply into debt
139. ___ Moved to new location
140. ___ Promotion at work
141. ___ Income decreased substantially
142. ___ Alcohol or drug problem
143. ___ Death of close family friend
144. ___ Began new job
145. ___ Entered new school
146. ___ Trouble with superiors at work
147. ___ Trouble with teachers at school
148. ___ Legal Problems
149. ___ Graduation from School
150. ___ Death of immediate family member

Childs Name _____ Child's Age _____

parents Name _____ Date of Birth _____

Address _____ Telephone # _____

_____ Family History # _____

_____ Date _____

Special Comments:

Appendix D

Husband Support Scale

Questionnaire 2 - Item subscale assignment is in parenthesis for Emotional Support (ES), Favorable Evaluation (FE), Acceptance of Role (AR) and Companionship (C). Direct Service consists of the table on page 6 of questionnaire 2. Items 1-12 on questionnaire 3 are Companionship items. Items 13-25 are Sex Role Ideology items.

To be filled out by mother

Questionnaire 2

Adjusting to motherhood is often something that takes some time. That's also true for fatherhood. Fathers have lots of demands placed on them - from their job, their wife, and their child. This set of questions asks you about your husband's views and how often, if at all, he does certain things. Please remember to answer with your first reaction to each question, not how you think you should answer.

Please mark the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your husband. Circle the letter which best describes how you feel. If you are not sure, please circle the question mark.

SA Strongly Agree	A Agree	? Not Sure	D Disagree	SD Strongly Disagree

151	SA	A	?	D	SD	1.	He feels that he is a very good father.	(AR)
152	SA	A	?	D	SD	2.	He thinks that I meet his expectations for expertise in caring for the baby.	(FE)
153	SA	A	?	D	SD	3.	His father was better prepared to be a good father than he is.	(AR)
154	SA	A	?	D	SD	4.	He understands how I think and feel about situations at work and at home.	(ES)
155	SA	A	?	D	SD	5.	He sometimes feels that I do too many things by myself without the baby.	(SNM)
156	SA	A	?	D	SD	6.	He has mixed feelings about being a father.	(AR)
157	SA	A	?	D	SD	7.	He goes out of his way to be helpful to me when my work gets me down.	(C)
158	SA	A	?	D	SD	8.	Even though being a parent could be rewarding, he is frustrated now while the child is only an infant.	(AR)
159	SA	A	?	D	SD	9.	He is willing to put up with changes in our life because of the baby.	(AR)
160	SA	A	?	D	SD	10.	He is willing to listen to my personal problems.	(ES)
161	SA	A	?	D	SD	11.	Considering how long I have been a mother, he thinks that I am thoroughly familiar with the role.	(FE)
162	SA	A	?	D	SD	12.	His talents and interests are in other areas, not in being a parent.	(AR)
163	SA	A	?	D	SD	13.	I don't talk with him about my problems or difficulties because I don't want to burden him.	(ES)

W

SA A ? D SD 14. He really cares about how things are going for me. (ES)

SA A ? D SD 15. He thinks I have all the skills necessary to be a good mother to my baby. (FE)

SA A ? D SD 16. I can't talk to him about the pressures and strains I may feel in being a mother. (ES)

SA A ? D SD 17. He feels uncomfortable being around the baby. (AR)

SA A ? D SD 18. For my husband, being a good father is a reward in itself. (AR)

SA A ? D SD 19. He is supportive of my doing things on my own without the baby. (SNM)

SA A ? D SD 20. I don't talk to him about my problems or difficulties because I am afraid he will lose his respect for me. (ES)

SA A ? D SD 21. He thinks that if anyone can find the answer to what is troubling the baby, I can. (FE)

SA A ? D SD 22. There are some things that I simply can't talk to him about yet. (ES)

SA A ? D SD 23. He thinks that I would make a fine model for a new mother to follow in order to learn what she would need to know in order to be a good parent. (FE)

SA A ? D SD 24. If being a father of an infant were only more interesting, he would be motivated to do a better job as a parent. (AR)

SA A ? D SD 25. He is supportive of my use of a babysitter. (SNM)

SA A ? D SD 26. He enjoys spending time alone with the baby. (AR)

SA A ? D SD 27. I can talk with him about my work ambitions and goals. (ES)

SA A ? D SD 28. He is supportive of my visiting with friends without the baby. (SNM)

SA A ? D SD 29. He is proud of being a father. (AR)

SA A ? D SD 30. I can rely on him for help when things get tough at work or at home. (C)

SA A ? D SD 31. His relationship with me is pretty superficial. (ES)

W

182 SA A ? D SD 32. I talk about my personal concerns and difficulties with him. (ES)

183 SA A ? D SD 33. He doesn't seem to care how things are going for me. (ES)

184 SA A ? D SD 34. Being a parent makes him tense and anxious. (AR)

Below are some situations about which many new mothers become concerned. In light of your husband's other commitments and responsibilities, select the letter of the statement which best describes how he would respond and select the letter of the statement which best describes how you would like him to respond if you expressed that concern.

185 35. You complain to him that you have so much more work now with the baby - what with diapers, washing clothes, fixing meals and the housework. You complain that it takes all your time and energy. What would he say? (PS)

He would say: _____ I would like him to say: _____

A. I know how much you do and really appreciate it.
B. You're just tired. It will get better.
C. Tell me what I can do to help you.
D. I know it's a lot to do but it's your job.
E. (He would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)

186 36. You complain to him about being physically tired and exhausted. You say that you have no energy and feel like you could sleep for a week. What would he say? (PS)

He would say: _____ I would like him to say: _____

A. (He would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)
B. I know it must be rough, but that's part of a mother's job.
C. Tell me what I can do to help you.
D. You're tired now but you'll get more rest as the baby gets older.
E. You've really been working hard and I appreciate it.

187 37. You tell your husband that you don't feel as attractive as you did before you got pregnant. You say that you haven't gotten your figure back and are worried about it. What would he say? (PS)

He would say: _____ I would like him to say: _____

A. You've probably had a bad day. You'll feel better about it.
B. I think you are attractive (and would go over and hug you).
C. (He would listen but probably not say anything.)
D. I think you look fine.
E. Honey, you're right, you have got to do something about it.

W

38. You complain to your husband that all you are now is a mother and you don't have enough time for yourself and your other interests. What would he say: (PS)

He would say: _____ I would like him to say: _____

A. I'm sure that's true. That's what being a mother is about.
B. You're really doing a lot for the baby and I appreciate it.
C. You're just tired. It will get better.
D. Let's find ways for you to have some free time.
E. (He would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)

39. You tell your husband that you are not sure you are a good mother and feel that you might be making some mistakes with the baby. What would he say? (PS)

He would say: _____ I would like him to say: _____

A. A lot of mothers feel that way but I think you're doing an OK job.
B. (He would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)
C. Sometimes we make mistakes but for the most part, we are good parents.
D. Maybe you should talk to someone about it.
E. It sounds like you've had a rough day. You'll feel better tomorrow.

40. You complain to your husband that you feel lonely because you don't see your friends as much as you did before the baby was born. You say that you feel stuck in the house with the baby. What would he say? (PS)

He would say: _____ I would like him to say: _____

A. I really appreciate all you do. I know you must get bored sometimes.
B. I bet you've had a bad day. It will get better.
C. Let's figure out what we can do to get you out of the house more often.
D. (He would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)
E. I know it must get boring but it's your job.

41. You tell your husband that the baby doesn't know how to play with boys as well as a friend's baby and you are worried about it. What would he say: (PS)

He would say: _____ I would like him to say: _____

A. You're being silly.
B. I see you're upset. What can I do to help?
C. If you're really concerned you need to teach the baby how to play with the toys.
D. (He would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)
E. I see you're upset about it but I think all babies do things differently.

W

192 42. You complain that since the baby you feel that it is not as easy to do some of the routine things (eat on time, work on projects, go places as often, etc.). What would he say? (PS)

He would say: _____ I would like him to say: _____

A. I'm sure that's true. That's what being a mother is about.
B. I know it's not easy and I understand that.
C. You've probably had a rough day. You'll feel better about it.
D. Tell me what I can do to help.
E. (He would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)

193 43. How often does he brag about your mothering skills to others? (FE)

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

194 44. How often does he feel that you are not doing your job of mother as he wants you to? (FE)

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

195 45. How often does he complain about the things you do with the baby? (FE)

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

196 46. How often does he make you feel like you are a really great mother? (FE)

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

197 47. How often does he offer to take care of the baby so you can have time for yourself? (SNM, AR)

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

W

Please indicate with the 1 to 9 point scale how much responsibility each of you takes for the following activities and how you would like it to be.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

woman's responsibility — Both Share equally — man's responsibility

How it is now		How I would like it to be
	Deciding about feeding schedule	
	Feeding baby	
	Changing diapers	
	Bathing and dressing baby	
	Doing baby's laundry	
	Deciding whether to respond to baby's crying	
	Responding to baby's cries in middle of night	
	Choosing baby's toys	
	Dealing with doctor; taking charge of baby's health	
	Arranging for babysitters	
	Playing with baby	
	Putting baby to bed	
	Planning and preparing meals	
	Cleaning up after meals	
	Repairs around the home	
	House cleaning	
	Shopping: groceries, household needs	
	Paying bills	
	Washing, ironing clothes	
	Making social arrangements	
	Correspondence/calls to family and friends	
	Looking after the car	
	Providing family income	
	Caring for the yard	

To be filled out by mother

Questionnaire 3

Here are some things that married couples often do together. How often have you and your husband done these together since the baby was born?

254 1. Visited friends together?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

255 2. Entertained friends in your home?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

256 3. Gone out together to a movie, bowling, sporting event or some other entertainment?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

257 4. Spent an evening just chatting with each other?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

258 5. Worked on some household project together?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

259 6. Gone shopping together?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

260 7. Had a good laugh together or shared a joke?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

261 8. Ate out in a restaurant together?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

W

262 9. Been affectionate toward each other?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

263 10. Taken a drive or gone for a walk just for pleasure?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

264 11. Did something the other one particularly appreciated?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

265 12. Helped the other solve some problems?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

Please mark the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the letter which best matches how you feel. If you are not sure, please circle the question mark.

SA	A	?	D	SD
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

266 SA A ? D SD 13. A wife should take full responsibility for getting her husband's clothes ready for him to wear.

SA A ? D SD 14. Staying at home with the children should be a wife's job rather than her husband's.

SA A ? D SD 15. Even if a husband earns less money than his wife he should be considered the head of the household.

SA A ? D SD 16. Taking care of the children should be entirely a wife's job while they are small.

SA A ? D SD 17. A wife should put her husband and children first, and make them her full-time job and career.

SA A ? D SD 18. Whether or not a wife works should depend only on what she thinks is best for her own happiness.

W

SA A ? D SD 19. A wife and husband should share household tasks according to individual interests and abilities, rather than according to "woman's work" and "man's work."

SA A ? D SD 20. A husband should not be expected to spend a great deal of time with the children, since he must earn the family's income.

SA A ? D SD 21. In the final analysis, it is the husband's responsibility to earn the family income.

SA A ? D SD 22. Except in unusual circumstances, a wife should do the cooking and housekeeping and a husband should provide the family with money.

SA A ? D SD 23. It is more important for a wife to be responsive to the emotional needs of her husband that it is for a husband to be responsive to her emotional needs.

SA A ? D SD 24. The husband alone should decide all important matters which concern the family.

SA A ? D SD 25. The husband is always the head of the family.

Questionnaire 2

Adjusting to motherhood is often something that takes some time. That's also true for fatherhood. Fathers have lots of demands placed on them - from their job, their wife, and their child. This set of questions ask you about your views and how often, if at all, you do certain things. Please remember to answer with your first reaction to each question, now how you think you should answer.

Please mark the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the letter which best matches how you feel. If you are not sure, please circle the question mark.

SA	A	?	D	SD	
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
SA	A	?	D	SD	1. I feel that I am a very good father.
SA	A	?	D	SD	2. My wife meets my expectations for expertise in caring for the baby.
SA	A	?	D	SD	3. My father was better prepared to be a good father than I am.
SA	A	?	D	SD	4. I understand how she thinks and feels about situations at work and at home.
SA	A	?	D	SD	5. I sometimes feel that my wife does too many things by herself without the baby.
SA	A	?	D	SD	6. I have mixed feelings about being a father.
SA	A	?	D	SD	7. I go out of my way to be helpful to her when her work gets her down.
SA	A	?	D	SD	8. Even though being a parent could be rewarding, I am frustrated now while my child is only an infant.
SA	A	?	D	SD	9. I am willing to put up with changes in our life because of the baby.
SA	A	?	D	SD	10. I am willing to listen to her personal problems.
SA	A	?	D	SD	11. Considering how long my wife has been a mother, she is thoroughly familiar with the role.
SA	A	?	D	SD	12. My talents and interests are in other areas, not in being a parent.
SA	A	?	D	SD	13. She doesn't talk to me about her problems or difficulties because she doesn't want to burden me.
SA	A	?	D	SD	14. I really care about how things are going for her.
SA	A	?	D	SD	15. My wife has all the skills necessary to be a good mother to my baby.
SA	A	?	D	SD	16. She can't talk to me about the pressures and strains she may feel in being a mother.

H

SA A ? D SD 17. I feel uncomfortable being around the baby.

SA A ? D SD 18. Being a good father is a reward in itself.

SA A ? D SD 19. I support my wife's doing things on her own without the baby.

SA A ? D SD 20. She doesn't talk to me about her problems or difficulties because she is afraid I will lose my respect for her.

SA A ? D SD 21. If anyone can find the answer to what is troubling the baby, my wife can.

SA A ? D SD 22. There are some things that she simply can't talk to me about yet.

SA A ? D SD 23. I think that she would make a fine model for a new mother to follow in order to learn what she would need to know in order to be a good parent.

SA A ? D SD 24. If being a father of an infant were only more interesting, I would be motivated to do a better job as a parent.

SA A ? D SD 25. I am supportive of my wife's use of a babysitter.

SA A ? D SD 26. I enjoy spending time alone with the baby.

SA A ? D SD 27. She can talk to me about her work ambitions and goals.

SA A ? D SD 28. I am supportive of my wife's visiting with friends without the baby.

SA A ? D SD 29. I am proud of being a father.

SA A ? D SD 30. She can rely on me for help when things get tough at work or at home.

SA A ? D SD 31. My relationship with my wife is pretty superficial.

SA A ? D SD 32. She talks about her personal concerns and difficulties with me.

SA A ? D SD 33. I don't seem to care about how things are going for her.

SA A ? D SD 34. Being a parent makes me tense and anxious

Below are some situations about which many new mothers become concerned. In light of your other commitments and responsibilities, select the answer below which best describes <u>how you would respond</u> if your wife expressed that concern. Again, remember to circle the number of the response you would probably say, not what you think you should say.

35. Your wife complains to you that she has so much more work now with the baby - what with diapers, washing clothes, fixing meals, and the housework. She complains that it takes all her time and energy. What would you say?
I would say:
A. I know how much you do and really appreciate it.
B. You're just tired. It will get better.

(Other choices on next page)

H

C. Tell me what I can do to help you.
D. I know it's a lot to do but it's your job.
E. (I would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)

36. Your wife complains to you about being physically tired and exhausted. She says that she has no energy and feels like she could sleep for a week. What would you say?
I would say:
A. (I would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)
B. I know it must be rough but that's part of a mother's job.
C. What can I do to help you?
D. You're tired now but you'll get more rest as the baby gets older.
E. You've really been working hard and I appreciate it.

37. Your wife tells you that she doesn't feel as attractive as she did before she got pregnant. She says that she hasn't gotten her figure back and is worried about it. What would you say?
I would say:
A. You've probably had a bad day. You'll feel better about it.
B. I think you are attractive (and I would go over and hug her).
C. (I would listen but probably not say anything.)
D. I think you look fine.
E. Honey, you're right. You have got to do something about it.

38. Your wife complains to you that all she is now is a mother and she doesn't have enough time for herself and her other interests. What would you say?
I would say:
A. I'm sure that's true. That's what being a mother is about.
B. You're really doing a lot for the baby and I appreciate it.
C. You're just tired. It will get better.
D. Let's find ways for you to have some free time.
E. (I would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)

39. Your wife tells you that she is not sure she is a good mother and feels that she might be making some mistakes with your baby. What would you say?
I would say:
A. A lot of mothers feel that way but I think you're doing an OK job.
B. (I would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)
C. Sometimes we make mistakes but, for the most part, we are good parents.
D. Maybe you should talk to someone about it.
E. It sounds like you've had a rough day. You'll feel better tomorrow.

40. Your wife complains to you that she feels lonely because she doesn't see her friends as much as she did before the baby was born. She says that she feels stuck in the house with the baby. What would you say?
I would say:
A. I really appreciate all you do. I know you must get bored sometimes.
B. I bet you've had a bad day. It will get better.
C. Let's figure out what we can do to get you out of the house more often.
D. (I would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)
E. I know it must get boring but it's your job.

41. Your wife tells you that your baby doesn't know how to play with toys as well as a friend's baby and she is worried about it. What would you say?
I would say:
A. You're being silly.
B. I see you're upset. What can I do to help?
C. If you're really concerned, you need to teach the baby how to play with toys.
D. (I would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)
E. I see you're upset about it but I think all babies do things differently.

42. Your wife complains that since the baby she feels that it is not as easy to do some of the routine things (eat on time, work on projects, go places as often, etc.). What would you say?
I would say:
A. I'm sure that's true. That's what being a mother is about.
B. I know it's not easy and I understand that.
C. You've probably had a rough day. You'll feel better about it.
D. Tell me what I can do to help.
E. (I would listen but probably wouldn't say anything.)

43. How often do you brag about her mothering skills to others?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

44. How often do you feel that your wife is not doing her job of mother as you want her to?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

45. How often do you complain about the things she does with your baby?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

46. How often do you make her feel like she is a really great mother?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

47. How often do you offer to take care of the baby so she can have time for herself.

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

Please indicate with the 1 to 9 point scale how much responsibility each of you takes for the following activities and how you would like it to be.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

woman's responsibility — Both Share equally — man's responsibility

How it is now		How I would like it to be
	Deciding about feeding schedule	
	Feeding baby	
	Changing diapers	
	Bathing and dressing baby	
	Doing baby's laundry	
	Deciding whether to respond to baby's crying	
	Responding to baby's cries in middle of night	
	Choosing baby's toys	
	Dealing with doctor; taking charge of baby's health	
	Arranging for babysitters	
	Playing with baby	
	Putting baby to bed	
	Planning and preparing meals	
	Cleaning up after meals	
	Repairs around the home	
	House cleaning	
	Shopping: groceries, household needs	
	Paying bills	
	Washing, ironing clothes	
	Making social arrangements	
	Correspondence/calls to family and friends	
	Looking after the car	
	Providing family income	
	Caring for the yard	

To be filled out by father

Questionnaire 3

Here are some things that married couples often do together. How often have you and your wife done these together since the baby was born?

1. Visited friends together?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

2. Entertained friends in your home?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

3. Gone out together to a movie, bowling, sporting event or some other entertainment?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

4. Spent an evening just chatting with each other?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

5. Worked on some household project together?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

6. Gone shopping together?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

7. Had a good laugh together or shared a joke?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

8. Ate out in a restaurant together?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

9. Been affectionate toward each other?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

10. Taken a drive or gone for a walk just for pleasure?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

11. Did something the other one particularly appreciated?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

12. Helped the other solve some problems?

1	2	3	4	5
almost never	infrequently	sometimes	frequently	most of the time

Please mark the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the letter which best matches how you feel. If you are not sure, please circle the question mark.

SA	A	?	D	SD
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

SA A ? D SD 13. If there is a difference of opinion between a husband and wife about where to live, the husband should decide.

SA A ? D SD 14. A husband should choose where to go and what to do when he and his wife go out.

SA A ? D SD 15. Even if a husband earns less money than his wife he should be considered the head of the household.

SA A ? D SD 16. Taking care of the children should be entirely a wife's job while they are small.

SA A ? D SD 17. A wife should put her husband and children first, and make them her full-time job and career.

SA A ? D SD 18. A husband's most important responsibility to his children should be to make a good living and to provide for them.

SA A ? D SD 19. In the final analysis, it is the husband's responsibility to earn the family income.

SA A ? D SD 20. Except in unusual circumstances, a wife should do the cooking and housekeeping and a husband should provide the family with money.

SA A ? D SD 21. The husband alone should decide all important matters which concern the family.

SA A ? D SD 22. The husband is always the head of the family.

SA A ? D SD 23. Raising children should be much more a mother's job than a father's.

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