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Effects of Income Disparity on Relationships

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EFFECTS OF INCOME DISPARITY ON RELATIONSHIPS

by

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ABSTRACT

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Shifting social norms are leading to changes in family structures. More women are working, and more families are relying on dual income to provide for the household than ever before. These changes in family income are happening fairly quickly in our society and for that reason, as our society shifts towards a more egalitarian mindset, we should view these variables using primary and secondary earner as opposed to through the lens of a husband and a wife. The aim of this study was to examine relationship satisfaction and how that might be affected by differences in income or earner status of partners within a relationship in conjunction with domestic labor involvement and positive and negative life events.

Instead of looking at the impact of income on relationship satisfaction from a 'breadwinner/homemaker' mindset, we examined it from an earner status mindset and found that earner status impacted the relationship between domestic labor involvement and relationship satisfaction beyond that of what was seen by gender. When looking at income disparity we found that domestic labor involvement mediated the relationship between income disparity and relationship satisfaction, where greater income disparity between partners increased the amount of domestic labor that was reported, which also increased the amount of relationship satisfaction.

When looking at housework and emotional labor, non-parents who perceived themselves as more involved than their partner in housework and emotional labor also reported higher relationship satisfaction and when looking at both housework and emotional labor and earner

status a primary earner within the relationship would perceive themselves as more involved in domestic labors in the household than their partner and they reported greater relationship satisfaction. Although secondary earners also demonstrated this positive association it was much weaker than that of primary earners.

When looking these results and the importance of them in society it should be noted that a lot of past studies have looked at domestic labor and how it's divided in a relationship through a gender-based lens. Our study found that earner status and emotional labor have an association with relationship satisfaction that's well beyond what's explained by gender.

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INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades more relationships have shifted away from traditional gender roles, such that men and women now more equally share fiscal and domestic responsibilities (Bird, Sacker, & McMunn, 2020; Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Donnelly et al., 2016). Although traditional gender roles paint men in opposite-gender relationships as "breadwinners" and women as "homemakers", in 2019, only 18.5% of households relied upon sole income of the husband compared to 40 years earlier when 36% of households depended on sole income from the man in a relationship (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1967-2011).

Family stress studies have found that families can be substantively impacted by income disparity between partners. Income disparity can result in a control differential which hinders positive family relations (Weigel, & Weigel, 1990). Coughlin and Wade (2012) suggested that income of partners is a point of contention due to differences in partner perceptions of what it means to be a "provider." Paid work may be necessary to survive as a family unit, however, Starzdins and Broom (2004) found that regardless of who supplies the income, both partners prefer balanced division of labors within the relationship, whether fiscal or domestic. Imbalance in domestic labors in a household can cause resentment if the partners are not in agreement on how sharing of household duties should be undertaken. When both partners have a good understanding of partner expectations within the relationship and both partners strive to meet said expectations, higher relationship satisfaction often results (Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001). When examining dual earning mixed-gender couples, concordance and attitudes towards working mothers and actual employment by the wife had significant effects on relationship satisfaction, such that when both partners had positive attitudes towards maternal employment

relationship satisfaction was higher than if they had disagreed. Further it was indicated that regardless of which partner had a negative view of maternal employment, it was associated with lower relationship satisfaction in their partner (Bird, Sacker, & McMunn, 2020). Regardless of which partner holds the role of "breadwinner" or primary earner within a relationship, both men and women in relationships report a need to feel respected and valued as productive contributors to the household needs, both domestically and fiscally (Starzdins & Broom, 2004). Similarly, both partners in a relationship report a need to feel a sense of control over their life, which can be met in terms of effectively communicating their own needs and expectations and proper perception of partners needs and expectation, which can improve relationship quality (Thoits, 1987).

Past studies have often examined traditional gender roles in which husbands are the primary earner within a relationship and wives are the secondary (or non-earner) in a relationship (Wunderer, & Schneewind, 2008; Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008; Conger & Petersen, 1984; Brines, 1990). However, despite about half of couples in both 1981 and 2018 being dual earning, primary earner status changed over time. In 1981, only 15.9% of wives earned more than their husbands, whereas in 2018, 29.4% of wives earned more than their husbands (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2018). These results indicate a trend in change of primary and secondary earners which may make it valuable for more studies examining the effects of income disparity regardless of gender, while understanding there may be underlying gender norms which influence the impact of income disparity on the division of unpaid work within the home between partners and relationship satisfaction. Therefore, there is a need for further exploration of how income disparity between partners impact relationships when there are mismatched perceptions of each partner's financial, emotional, and domestic contributions to the

family unit. With the changes in societal trends in income by gender, changing as they are, there may be differences between the strong role of gender observed in past research and its role today.

INTERACTIONISM

Interactionism is a theory that proposes that humans' sense of self depends upon the situation they find themselves in, which is constructed based on the time, place, and people included in the situation (Sandstrom, Lively, Martin, & Fine, 2014). This theory implies that individuals' expectations of their selves and their environment will develop through situations, altering their perceptions as needed. In situations where others are present, this theory suggests the self's perceptions shift depending upon others' specific traits and abilities. In such ways, interactionism suggests that people should not be viewed separately from their position in life or from the individuals who may impact their perceptions of themselves and their current lifestyle.

Interactionism within relationships. When examining intimate relationships through the lens of interactionism, the interactions between perceptions of the self, perception of the relationship, perception of the situation in life in which where the relationship takes place, and other individuals' impact on self-perception and perception of the relationship make up the framework for understanding individual behaviors and outcomes. Each individual in a relationship has a separate view of their life situation, and different expectations of changes in life, needs in the relationship, and personal happiness. To examine relationships through the lens of interactionism, perceptions of how partners behaviors and perceptions impact self and situational perception, need to be assessed as well. The expectations of one partner in the relationship are expected to affect the satisfaction of the other partner and vice versa (Conger & Donnellan, 2007). Accurate perceptions of each partners expectations and a sense of shared

values may result in higher satisfaction for both partners in the relationship (Whisman, Uebelacker, & Weinstock, 2004). Past studies of mixed-gender couples indicate differences in partners' expectations are dependent in part upon each partner's internalized gender norms, in which higher relationship satisfaction is not dependent upon shared values so long as partners have a clear perception of one another's values which may result in less emotional strain and a higher likelihood of meeting one another's needs (Wunderer, & Schneewind, 2008). Coughlin and Wade (2012) found that when couples were flexible instead of rigid in their gender ideology there was less impact of income disparity on relationship satisfaction.

Interactionism within families. Studies on the interaction between economic hardship and family systems indicate that economic hardship detracts from couple's ability to attend to their relationship (Conger, Rueter, & Conger, 2000). According to the Family Stress Model, a model built on interactionist theory, economic pressure creates strain in a relationship which culminates in numerous undesirable outcomes, such as negative child development outcomes, relationship discord, and negative relational behaviors. Economic pressure in this model is often attributed to job loss, high debt to income ratio, unexpected pregnancy, or economic problems. The strains of economic pressure may be experienced more in one partner than the other depending upon the roles held in the relationship. In 1990, Weigel and Weigel determined that income plays a significant part in the assignment of roles within a family structure and that fiscal duties and household duties may be split between partners such that the primary earner in the relationship takes on more fiscal responsibilities, which are balanced by the secondary or non-earner taking on more domestic responsibilities. A study by Strazdins and Broom (2004), indicates that although paid work is viewed as important to provide necessary resources for a family system, equal balance of emotional work is preferred by both partners in the relationship,

regardless of pay. Indeed, Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, and Lazarus (1981) found that as people age their daily stress caused by fiscal responsibility rises, but these stressors can be negated by more time spent with one's family. Bringing an emotional-fiscal balance into the relationship which may provide uplifting occasions of emotional connection to offset the daily financial stressors. Indicating that the primary earner in the relationship may benefit from sharing in the domestic labor of the relationship to provide uplifting occasions of emotional connection to offset the daily stress which may be caused by financial responsibilities.

ACTOR-PARTNER EFFECTS

Donato and colleagues (2015), found that when both partners in a relationship had an accurate perception of one another's stress, they were better able to convey their support and positive affect to one another which resulted in a higher level of relationship satisfaction. Although, it has been shown that women are more likely to have more accurate perceptions of their partners than men, both partners in relationships tend to hold each other in higher regard than either partner's self-rating (Donato et al. 2015). The ability to accurately perceive partners may be a desirable trait as there is a tendency to seek partners similar to ourselves due to an attraction to individuals with similar communications styles. Weigel and Ballard-Reisch (2008) posit that both partners in a relationship will frequently examine partner satisfaction and adjust their own actions accordingly to promote high relationship satisfaction.

Daily Stress. DeLongis, Coyne, Dakof, Folkman, and Lazarus (1982) found that daily stressors were significantly related to overall mental health due to the chronic nature of these minor repeated stressors. Although individuals may impact one another during stressful events, Thoits (1987) found that partners within a relationship can experience the same stressor but have wildly different stress responses. This difference in stress response is due to past experiences and

potential coping mechanisms available to each individual, but also to the gender and relationship role of each individual. Thoits (1987) suggested that women who feel a lack of control may have greater stress responses. Thoits' study displayed gender differences in which married men are more likely to feel anxious or depressed when faced with negative controllable events whereas married women are more susceptible to uncontrollable personal events such that women who were not employed felt relationship stressors more acutely than their employed counterparts (Thoits, 1987). Similarly, Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, and Lazarus (1980) found that the experience of daily events whether negative(stressors) or positive(uplifts), had different effects of participants depending on gender. Women were more likely to report that changes in positive life events resulted in a subsequent change in mental health. Men, however, showed no change in mental health based on change in the amount of uplifts if their day to day life.

Income Disparity. Past studies have addressed income disparity in terms of perceived control; where those individuals who earn more in the relationship feel a sense of fiscal control and the partner who earns less will strive to make up for the disparity by undertaking domestic or household responsibilities (Thoits, 1987; Weigel & Weigel, 1990). Conger and Peterson (1984) found that among working wives, wives who chose to enter into the work force had greater relationship satisfaction than those wives who worked due to economic need. Similarly, although husbands' satisfaction was shown to be highest with wives who did not work, husbands' relationship satisfaction was higher in couples in which wives were able to choose to work compared to wives who had to work due to economic need (Conger & Petersen, 1984). Although recent studies (Minnotte, Minnotte, Pendersen, Mannon, & Kiger, 2010; Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008; Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001) have indicated that the division of household work may be due to partner income, Brines (1990) found that men who were in

couples in which they earned less money than their partners still contributed less to housework. In fact, those men who made less income than their wives did similar amount of housework as men who were primary earners and overtime, did less housework. In more recent studies, the effect of income disparity on relationships has been characterized by the perceived fairness of duties and the acceptance of negotiated terms within a relationship (Minnotte, Minnotte, Pendersen, Mannon, & Kiger, 2010; Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008; Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001). Expectations of one parent staying home to care for a child are dependent upon the ability of a sole earner in the relationship to provide the fiscal needs of the family (Minnotte, Minnotte, Pendersen, Mannon, & Kiger, 2010). The oft mentioned "second-shift" which describes women who care for the home and children upon completion of the workday, may be more balanced in relationships with no income disparity. However, differences in the amount of income earned by each partner may influence which partner is given the duties of second shift (Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008).

The Distribution of Labor. The division of work in a household cannot only be defined by how much income is brought in to support a family; childcare, work around the house such as making dinner or doing laundry, and also emotional labor of caring for other family members must also be included. Certain tasks are more taxing on different partners within a relationship, and this may intensify if there is an imbalance across these domains. Past studies indicate that the majority of childcare, housework, and emotional labor in mixed gender relationships are handled by women (Erickson, 1993; Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001; Starzdins & Broom, 2004). When examining partner relations, Stevens, Kiger, and Riley (2001) found that the division of labor in a household does not need to be an even split, only that partners expectations of the division of labor are clear and are consistently met. However, findings indicated that an overbalance of

manual and emotional labor in housework on the wife may create resentment from overwork and a rising need in the husband for emotional work both leading to a reduction in relationship satisfaction . When there is an imbalance in a relationship which results in wives taking the homemaker role and husbands taking the breadwinner role, both partners are more likely to report a perception of one-sidedness in the relationship. This results in a drop in psychological health and marital satisfaction in women and a desire for greater family contact for the men (Strazdins & Broom, 2004).

RELATIONSHIP SATISFACTION

Over the past decade there has been a 2% decline in divorce within the United States, however, in 2018 alone, 782,038 divorces were reported (NCHS, 2020). The Bureau of Labor statistics projects expected job growth for marriage and family therapists by 22% by 2029 (BLS, 2020). A 2018 meta-analysis of couples therapy examined the efficacy of different couples therapy strategies, the researchers supposed a large number of variables impact marital success and relationship satisfaction and more research is needed to ascertain the impact of variables that are so far unaccounted for (Rathgeber, et al., 2018). Relationship satisfaction can impact many factors within an individual's life. Intimacy, attachment, romance, affection; are displayed and interpreted in many ways by individuals and impact relationship satisfaction but also how relationship satisfaction impacts other parts of an individual's life (Dillow, et al., 2014). Past studies have found that quality partner support can enhance coping in stressful situations (Kane, et al., 2018), and aide in coping with mental health issues (Maisel & Karney, 2012), as well as long reaching effects on children within the family system (Graham, et al., 2006).

Acitelli Douvan, and Veroff (1993), found that the person with more fiscal control in a relationship, such as the primary earner, may have less pressure to perceive their partner as

accurately as their partner in order to maintain high relationship satisfaction. The greater need to accurately perceive their partner by the secondary earner (or non-earner) may give the partner who provides less income a feeling of greater relative control in the relationship which leads to heightened relationship satisfaction. Wunderer and Schneewind (2008) found that when partners in a relationship understood one another's needs and strived to provide those needs it resulted in feelings of support which resulted in higher relationship satisfaction. Among dual earner couples, Minnotte, Minnotte, Pedersen, Mannon, and Kiger, (2010) found that examining both partners' perceptions was crucial to gaining a full picture of how division of housework and paid work impacted overall relationship satisfaction in both partners. When examining both partners perceptions, they found that regardless of each partner's gender norm ideologies, if the woman's work life created conflict in their home life it had a significant impact on the overall satisfaction in the relationship, though this was not true when husband's work life impacted home life.

CURRENT STUDY

Over a 41-year span from 1970 to 2011, the percentage of family income provided by women went from 27% to 37% (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). In contrast, in 2020 the U.S. Census Bureau reported that between 1994 and 2020, the number of stay-at-home fathers increased from 76,000 to 215,000, a 2.8-fold increase, indicating a shift in gender roles within family structures in more recent years. As indicated by past studies, traditional masculine gender roles as a "provider" would be expected to increase relationship satisfaction in men (Coughlin, & Wade, 2012). Bird and colleagues (2020) found that in recent years fathers are participating more fully in household and childcare duties, altering expectations of partners who are women in relationships. This shift in women's gender roles from one of homemaker to more egalitarian gender roles, has been associated with lower relationship satisfaction (Bird, Sacker, & McMunn,

2020; Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Donnelly et al., 2016). Therefore, partner income should be examined both within and outside of the context of gender, as earner status may play a stronger role than gender, as opposed to past studies where traditional gender roles were more commonly examined, thus more impactful (Starzdins & Broom, 2004). Because of these shifts in earnings and changing social norms around women's role in providing income to the family, along with men's changing roles and greater involvement in childcare, a greater understanding of current family structure is necessary. Since past studies show that the divide of household labor has an impact on the functioning of healthy relationships, I expect that the divide of paid, emotional, and domestic workload between partners will affect relationships differently depending on the relative differences in partners' incomes (Starzdins & Broom, 2004; Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001; Whisman, Uebelacker, & Weinstock, 2004; Wunderer, & Schneewind, 2008). Past studies indicate that the primary earner, who was historically the man in mixed gender relationships, reported the need for greater emotional involvement in the household for mental well-being (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, and Lazarus, 1981; Strazdins and Broom, 2004). Strazdins and Broom (2004) found that both women and men in a relationship began to feel a lack of balance in relationships when one partner took care of all the domestic labors while the other was shouldering all the financial burdens; both partners reported a desire for more give and take for the different dimensions of labor within a relationship. While Kanner and colleagues (1981) found that the partner who bears the financial burden of the relationship feels less emotional strain with reports of positive family interaction. Indicating that when burdened with stress from the different domains in life, individuals find relief when contributing to the emotional needs of a family which will be regarded as a positive event within the family system.

Applying the interactionist view, in which perceptions of the self and others combine to affect perceptions of positive and negative events, the current study focuses on both partners in opposite- relationships. Partners will be identified by earner status, where P1 will designate the high earner and P2 will designate the low earner. Participants were asked to rate themselves and their partner on a number of dimensions. This will allow for examination of individuals in relationships with analysis based on their earner status and how the disparity between perceptions interacts with other variables within our model and determine differences between high and low earners.

Possible covariates which must be accounted for within this studies model were determined by examining studies using similar variables. In a study by Thoits (1987) it was found both gender and relationship status impacted the participants perceptions of negative and positive life events. Weigle and Weigle (1990) examined the relationship between the impact of positive and negative life events with income disparity within the family system and determined that age and role within a family impacted how individuals view life events as stressors and the potential impact of income disparity. Alhough multiple studies have found that income impacts the amount of domestic labor involvement contributed by each partner, past studies have often looked at this from the vantage of gender roles (Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008; Starzdins & Broom, 2004; Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001; Whisman, Uebelacker, & Weinstock, 2004; Wunderer, & Schneewind, 2008), therefore gender was be included as a covariate in the models within this study.

To examine these current trends in earner status and relationship functioning, this study examines an individuals' views of how their earner status within their relationship impacts their relationship perceptions and relationship satisfaction for their current relationship. The

responses for each measure will be combined to create several different concordance ratio values, each made up from the individuals self-rating and their perceptions of their partner as their other rating, with higher values representing more accurate perceptions on each study construct. This will create concordance ratios: one for each scale to represent similarity and discrepancy between self and partner perceptions. Partner relationship involvement will be examined separately to examine the accuracy of partner understanding of the division of paid, emotional, and domestic work as it relates to income and relationship satisfaction. Positive and negative life events will be examined separately and using concordance ratios to depict discrepancy between partners perception of one another's negative and positive daily life events to determine the impact of similarity or discrepancy in partner stress perception on relationship satisfaction. Previous findings identify gender as a primary variable when examining a perceived need for emotional involvement in relationships (Brines, 1990; Conger & Petersen, 1984; Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008; Wunderer, & Schneewind, 2008). However, due to recent shifts in earnings and norms related to gender, this study examined the extent to which being a primary earner in a cohabitating mixed-gender relationship affects perceived need for relationship involvement and account for potential effects of gender ideology. The following aim will be examined:

Aim: Among individuals in cohabitating relationships, examine the associations between income disparity and relationship satisfaction and the interplay of distribution of labor and positive and negative life events within this relationship.

H1: Income disparity will be negatively associated with relationship satisfaction.

H1a: The relationship between income disparity and relationship satisfaction will be mediated by distribution of labor and positive and negative life events. It is expected that

income disparity will impact the distribution of labor and positive and negative life events, which in turn will impact relationship satisfaction, such that greater income disparity between partners will result in lower relationship satisfaction through the distribution of labor and positive and negative life events responses.

H2: The distribution of labor will change depending on earner status, such that P1 will report less involvement in housework, childcare, and emotional labor.

H2a: It is expected that there will be a negative association between housework, childcare, and emotional labor subscales and relationship satisfaction for P1 but a positive association for P2.

H2b: I expect there will be a positive association between self-rating of emotional labor and relationship satisfaction for P1 but not P2.

H3: Similarity in self/other ratings for positive and negative life events will be higher for P2 but not for P1; partners with high similarity (low discrepancy) will have higher relationship satisfaction scores.

Research Question: Examining both earner status and gender role ideology, which variable will contribute more to relationship satisfaction? How is the overall model influenced by earner status and gender role ideology? Does gender role ideology interact with earner status?

METHODOLOGY

PARTICIPANTS

Participants for this study were recruited from a large southeastern university as well as Facebook. This study examined only individuals in a current relationship, where relationships were defined as cohabitating individuals. Eligible participants were adults (i.e., 18 years of age) in a mixed-gender relationship. All participants who met eligibility criteria were included in analysis. Participants were recruited via electronic announcements as well as the Psychology Departments SONA pool and Facebook advertisements. G*Power power analysis was used for the analysis requiring greatest sample size found in sub-hypothesis H1b regarding the relationship of earner statis and relationship satisfaction being mediated by distribution of labor and positive and negative life events, thus a small effect size of f^2=.02 (Brines, 1994; Wuensch, 2009), power of .80 and an alpha of .05, a sample of 395 individuals was determined.

Missing data was addressed using listwise deletion, resulting in 48 participants being excluded. The sample was derived of 136 parent and 313 non-parents as seen in Table 1. The sample was split between parents and non-parents for comparative analysis. The mean age for parents was 21.76, with a range of 18-62 years. The mean age for non-parents was 21.32 with a range of 18-41 years. The median age for both samples was 19 years of age. Most of this sample was from a college populace and fell between the ages of 18-24, with only 41 of the total participant sample of 449 above the age of 30. The final sample for the current study consisted of 449 participants, the participants ranged from 18-62 years of age, with the sample having a mean age of 21.62 (sd = 6.4). Of this sample, 344 were women, 105 men. Participants were predominantly white (55.2%), college students, from a southeastern university. The majority of the sample were married (36.7%) respectively), followed closely by dating (36.1%). There were

69 participants who reported being together for less than a year. The majority (26.1%) of the sample reported a relationship length of 1 year followed closely by 2 years (22%) and 3 years (12.7%) with the longest relationship reported at 18 years and the shortest at 3 months. The majority of the parenting sample had only one child (41.9%) followed by 2 children (29.4%). The majority of parents (43.4%) reported having 1 child who still lived with them followed by parents who reported 2 children lived at home with them (29.4%). The sample contained 34 participants (7.6%) who were currenting pregnant or expecting.

Table 1.
Sample Demographics

Characteristic	***N*(%)**
Gender	
Male	105(23.4)
Female	344(76.6)
Race/Ethnicity	
White	248(55.2)
Black/African-American	143(31.8)
Asian	6(1.3)
Hispanic	35(7.8)
American Indian/Alaska Native	8(1.8)
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	2(.4)
Other	6(1.3)
Relationship Status	
Married	165(36.7)
Dating	162(36.1)
Committed	82(18.3)
Engaged	30(6.7)
Separated	8(1.8)
Other	1(.2)
Earner Status	
Primary Earner	207(46.1)
Secondary Earner	242(53.9)
Parent/Non-Parent	
Parent	136(30.3)
Non-Parent	313(69.7)

N = 449

PROCEDURES

There was an informed consent page prior to beginning the study. Participants each completed a basic demographic portion of the survey where they reported their own income as well as their partners income. Participants then completed the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) before completing other measures as to avoid participants answering based on other measure items. The remainder of the survey was in the same order for all participants. Collection of the participants partner perception was last, as it is undesirable to collect responses based on themselves when they have already thought of their perception of their partner. Randomization was not used, as there was no option for participants to backtrack and change previous responses, therefore, if a participant were to take the partner perception measure first and answer for themselves instead of partner perceptions and realize later that they were retaking the same measure and they made an error, there would be no way for them to correct their error. Participants took the Daily Hassles and Uplifts Scales in relation to their self (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981). Participants then completed the Domestic and Paid Work Involvement Measure (Strazdins & Broom, 2004). The last measure was their perceptions of their partners stress using the Daily Hassles and Uplifts Scale (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981). The last measure collected perceptions of the participants' partner and had a clear heading stating that in that section all questions were pertaining to their partner and not themselves, this was to ensure there was no confusion as the second measure was identical but pertaining to themselves. Incentives to participate was Sona credit for students who participated through Sona and entrance in a raffle for those who participated through Facebook.

MEASURES

Demographics. Income disparity was assessed during the demographics section of the survey asking for amount of money the participant earns on average every month as well as a question asking for the amount of money their partner earns on average every month. Income disparity was measured as a ratio between lower and higher income. Participants indicated to which gender they identify. An item pertaining to type of residence was included to account for potential differences between participants based on living situation. Additionally, an item was included for hours worked to ascertain if average number of hours worked per week impacts participant responses to various measures. To account for the impact of COVID-19 a text answer was available for participants to include how COIVD-19 impacted their lives and potential responses to survey.

Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). The DAS was developed by Spanier in 1976 and is a 32-item measure rated using a Likert-type scale (Agree-Disagree). Higher scores indicate better relationship satisfaction. The DAS is used to measure all couples including mixed-gender and same-gender relationships, and long-term or cohabitating couples, not only married couples. The DAS can be used to examine both partners in a relationship, allowing for accurate measure of the relationship in its entirety. The DAS contains four subscales. The Consensus subscale measures how much the couple agree on important matters (Cronbach's α=.90). The Satisfaction subscale measures the level of stability within a relationship by examining each partners intention to remain together (α=.94). The Cohesion subscale measures the interests held by each partner, (α=.86). Affectional Expression is the only subscale that measures the individual in the relationship and not dyadic, it examines the individual's expression of affection within the relationship (α=.73). The total score for the DAS has good reliability (α =.96). Validity of the

DAS, as depicted by Spanier (1979), is shown to have high construct validity as compared to the Marital Adjustment Scale (Locke &Wallace, 1959), with a correlation of .86 ($p < .001$). Within the current sample, the DAS had a Cronbach's α of .741.

Daily Hassles Scale (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981). This measure examines participants' views of resources which exhaust the individual that are non-relationship specific, but which may impact the relationship indirectly. Subscales of the measure include; household, finances, work, environmental, and social issues. The measure is 117 items on a 3-point scale of 'how severe was the hassle', 1 – Somewhat Severe, 2 – Moderately Severe, and 3 Extremely Severe. Adapted versions include a 0 – Not Applicable. For self-ratings participants will answer in relation to 'how severe was the hassle" and for perception of partner participants will answer in relation to 'how severe was the hassle for your partner'. Using test-retest, reliability of the Daily Hassles Scale is $\alpha = .79$. A correlation of .34 ($p < .001$), indicates strong convergent validity when comparing the Daily Hassles Scale to the Bradburn Morale Scores negative affect subscale (Bradburn & Caplowitz, 1965). Within the current sample, the Daily Hassles Scale had a Cronbach's α of .977.

Daily Uplifts Scale (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981). The measure examines participants' views of factors which bolster the individual that are non-relationship specific but may indirectly impact the relationship. Subscales of the measure include; household, finances, work, environmental, and social issues. The measure is 135 items on a 3-point scale of how often uplifts occurred, 1 – Somewhat Often, 2- Moderately Often, 3 - Extremely Often. Adapted versions include a 0 – Not Applicable. For self-ratings participants will answer in relation to 'how often uplift occurred" and for perception of partner participants will answer in relation to 'how often uplift occurred for your partner'. Using test-retest, reliability for the Daily Uplifts

Scale is α = .72. A correlation of .25 ($p < .05$), indicates strong convergent validity when comparing the Daily Hassles Scale to the Bradburn Morale Scores positive affect subscale (Bradburn & Caplowitz, 1965). Within the current sample, the Daily Uplifts Scale had a Cronbach's α of .993.

Domestic and Paid Work Involvement Measure (DPWIM). The DPWIM (Strazdins & Broom, 2004) examines the distribution of labor in participants relationship. Subscales of the measure include Emotional Work, Paid Work, Housework, and Child Care. The measure is 19 items on a 7-point Likert scale of involvement from (1) partner does all to (7) self does all. This measure examines how involved the individual is in paid work/occupation and household/family work relative to how involved their partner is in paid work/occupation and household/family work. Scale will be reverse coded for Partner 1 in analysis. The DPWIM subscales reliability range is measured at α = .51-.83, the total measure has good reliability (α=.64). Measure items were compiled from the domestic labor scales in Baxter (1992) where all items were chosen after factor analysis based on pilot tests with an array of domestic labor tasks. Within the current sample, the DPWIM had a Cronbach's α of .903.

Gender Role Ideology Measure *(GRI: Fuwa, 2014).* The measure is 5 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = strongly agree to 4 = strongly disagree. The GRI examines participants attitudes toward gender roles on a scale of 0 to 20 (egalitarian to traditional, respectively). The GRI reliability has good reliability (α=.73). A correlation of .54 ($p < .05$) indicates strong construct validity when compared to the Gender Empowerment Measure (Batalova & Cohen, 2002). Within the current sample, the GRI had a Cronbach's α of .809.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data was analyzed using SPSS 26. Data were cleaned and checked for outliers, multicollinearity, linearity, normality, homoscedasticity, and lack of independence. Univariate outliers were checked using boxplots, examining skew and potential outliers. Multivariate outliers were examined using Mahalanobis, Studentized Deleted Residuals, and Cooks D. VIF and Tolerance were assessed to determine multicollinearity. Linearity was determined using scatterplots. QQ plots were used to ensure data were normally distributed. Durbin-Watson was used to ensure data does not violate the independence assumption. For predictors that were not categorical, scatterplots of the predictor and dependent variable for each step of the analysis were used to determine homoscedasticity. For categorical predictors, Bartlett's Test for homogeneity of variances was used to determine homoscedasticity.

In a series of hierarchical models, the following covariates were included, gender (Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008; Thoits, 1987), relationship status (Thoits, 1987) and age (Weigle & Weigle, 1990) as they have been shown to influence the relationship between income disparity and relationship satisfaction. These covariates were added to models and removed if they did not account for a statistically significant amount of variance.

Income disparity was calculated as a ratio of P1/P2 income on an annual basis. Where P1 is the partner with the higher income in the relationship and P2 is the partner with the lower income in the relationship. Concordance ratios above 1 indicated greater income disparities in relationships. Each participant gave self-ratings and other-ratings, where self-ratings were reports of how the measure (either Domestic and Paid Work Inventory or Daily Hassles and Uplifts Scale) applied to themselves and other-ratings were their perceptions of how the measure applied

to their partner. Partner level discrepancy rates were the ratio between P1's self-ratings on the measure (Daily Hassles and Uplifts Scales) and P1's other-rating (for P2) of the same measure.

Hypothesis 1 was analyzed using hierarchical multiple regression in two steps, where the first step examined the contribution of covariates including age, gender, and relationship status' impact on the model. The second step determined the relationship between income disparity and relationship satisfaction. Sub-hypothesis 1a was analyzed using model four of the Andrew Hayes PROCCESS Macro (Hayes, 2017) within SPSS for mediation to determine how the relationship between income disparity and relationship satisfaction was mediated by the distribution of labor and positive and negative life events.

Hypothesis 2 was analyzed using hierarchical regression. The first step included age, gender, and relationship status as covariates. This step examined the contribution of preexisting variables impact on the model. Following this the second step examined the relationship between earner status and distribution of labor. Sub-hypothesis 2a examined the moderating effect of self-ratings on distribution of labor involvement on the relationship between other-rating of distribution of labor and relationship satisfaction in the second step of the hierarchical regression. Sub-hypothesis 2b examined the differences in P1 and P2's self-rating of emotional labor and relationship satisfaction in the second step of the hierarchical regression.

Hypothesis 3 was analyzed using hierarchical regression in 2 steps. The first step included age, gender, and relationship status as covariates. This step examined the contribution of preexisting variables impact on the model. Following this Hypothesis 3 examined similarity between self-rating and other-rating for positive and negative life events impact on relationship satisfaction for different earner status in the second step of the hierarchical regression.

The research question was analyzed using hierarchical regression. The first step included age, gender, and relationship status as covariates. This step examined the contribution of preexisting variables impact on the model. Following this gender role ideology and earner status were added individually to ascertain differences in contributions to variance on the model. Initial analysis checks indicated variables were bimodal, to correct for this, it was determined that analysis should be run on two levels. Therefore, the sample of this study was split between parents and non-parents. To ensure variables were speaking to the sample appropriately, the domestic labor measure was split by subscales and used to create specific variables therein. The Domestic and Paid Work Inventory Measure (DPWIM) was scaled to ensure all items in the measure were scored, however, for the non-Parents sample, items pertaining to childcare were removed. Therefore, when looking at the combined subscales of Childcare, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL), the parents sample response consists of all subscales, however, the non-Parent sample analysis includes only the Housework and Emotional Labor (HEL) subscales. All hypotheses were analyzed using hierarchical regression with multiple models. The initial model for each hierarchical regression is a covariates-only model which includes variables for sex, age, relationship status (RelStat), depression (CES-D), job satisfaction (AJS), and gender role ideology (GRI).

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removed. Therefore, when looking at the combined subscales of Childcare, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL), the parents sample response consists of all subscales, however, the non-Parent sample analysis includes only the Housework and Emotional Labor (HEL) subscales. All hypotheses were analyzed using hierarchical regression with multiple models. The initial model for each hierarchical regression is a covariates-only model which includes variables for sex, age, relationship status (RelStat), depression (CES-D), job satisfaction (AJS), and gender role ideology (GRI).

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1 – Parents. A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) by income disparity. For the first step of the model, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were included. The result of covariates-only model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 value of .078 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 7.8% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 2.

The second step of the model for hypothesis 1 included the predictor variable income disparity. The results of model 2 analysis revealed a non-significant model as well ($p>.05$). The R^2 of .079 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 7.9% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .001, meaning income disparity accounts for .1% of the variation in relationship satisfaction, as seen in Table 2.

Table 2.
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Parents

		Model 1			Model 2		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.109	.180	.003	.097	.183	.002
Gender[a]		.006	2.599	.000	.190	2.651	.000
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-.087	11.131	.000	-.455	11.209	.000
	Separated/ Divorced	6.659	12.141	.002	6.581	12.184	.002
	Dating	-5.089	11.585	.002	-5.238	11.631	.002
	Engaged	-.099	11.473	.000	-.440	11.545	.000
	Committed	6.161	11.618	.002	5.888	11.679	.002
GRI		-.417	.312	.014	-.411	.313	.014
AJS		.033	.068	.002	.037	.069	.002
CES-D		-.136	.102	.014	-.135	.102	.014
Income Disparity					2.557	6.581	.001
R^2			.078			.079	

Note: N=136. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.
a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.
b. Relationship statistics compared to Other.
*p <.05. **p<.01.

Hypothesis 1 - Non-Parents. A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from income disparity. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p > .05$). The R^2 value of .048 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 4.8% of variation in relationship satisfaction, as seen in Table 3.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 1 included the predictor variable income disparity. The results of model 2 analysis revealed a non-significant model as well ($p > .05$). The R^2 of .053 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 5.3% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .005, meaning income disparity accounts for .5% of the variation in relationship satisfaction, as seen in Table 3.

Table 3.
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Non-Parents

		Model 1			Model 2		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.107	.101	.004	.114	.101	.004
Gender[a]		-.281	1.737	.000	-.435	1.739	.000
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-1.811	2.123	.002	-1.734	2.121	.002
	Separated/ Divorced	.499	7.331	.000	.817	7.328	.000
	Dating	.064	1.768	.000	.143	1.767	.000
	Engaged	-.285	3.249	.000	-.095	3.249	.000
GRI		.382	.213	.011	.414	.214	.012
AJS		.119*	.050	.019	.117*	.050	.018
CES-D		.039	.069	.001	.037	.069	.001
Income Disparity					-6.608	5.228	.005
R^2			.048			.053	

Note: N=312. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.
a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.
b. Relationship statistics compared to Committed.
*p <.05, **p<.01

Hypothesis 1a. To investigate hypothesis 1a a mediation analysis was performed using the Andrew Hayes PROCESS macro. The outcome variable for the mediation was relationship satisfaction (DAS). The predictor variable for the analysis was income disparity. The mediator variables for the analysis were positive and negative life events (Uplifts/Hassles) and Domestic Labor (DPWIM). The indirect effect of income disparity on relationship satisfaction was found to be statistically significant [Effect = 2.896, 95% C.I. (.45, 5.5)] (Figure1) for the mediating variable for domestic labor (DPWIM) as seen in Table 4.

Table 4.

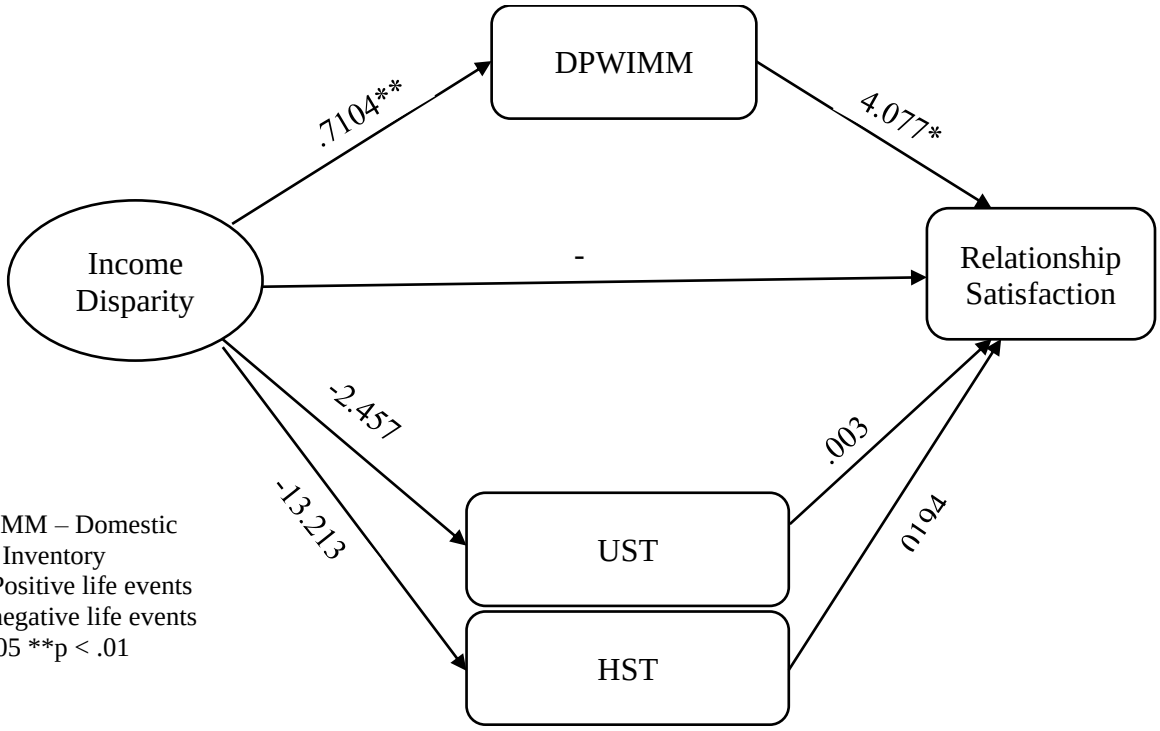
Summary of Mediation Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction

Mediator	Effect of IV on Mediator (a)	Effect of Mediator on DV (b)	Indirect effect (ab)	Lower	Upper
DPWIM	.7104**	4.077**	2.896*	.4468	5.4973
Uplifts Discrep	-2.457	.0037	-.009	-.473	.426
Hassles Discrep	-13.213	.0194	-.257	-1.1967	.5873

Note: *p <.05, **p<.01. DPWIM = Domestic and Paid Work Involvement Measure.

Figure 1.

Mediation Model for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction



Note.
DPWIMM – Domestic Labor Inventory
UST Positive life events
HST negative life events
*p < .05 **p < .01

Hypothesis 2 - Parents. For hypothesis 2, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of the combined variable Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) from earner status. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p > .05$). The R^2 value of .106 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 10.6% of variation in Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL), as seen in Table 5.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 2 included the predictor variable earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed a non-significant model as well

(p>.05). The R^2 of .108 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 10.8% of variance in Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) with an R^2 change of .002, meaning earner status accounts for .2% of the variation in Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL), as seen in Table 5.

Table 5.
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor for Parents

		Model 1			Model 2		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.002	.016	.000	.002	.016	.000
Gender[a]		-.692*	.231	.067	-.646*	.249	.051
Relationship Status[b]	Married	.988	.225	.000	.248	.992	.001
	Separated/ Divorced	1.078	.298	.001	.373	1.086	.001
	Dating	1.028	-.040	.000	-.003	1.034	.000
	Engaged	1.018	.078	.001	.102	1.022	.000
	Committed	1.031	.377		.411	1.035	.001
GRI		-.052	.028	.028	-.051	.028	.027
AJS		-.008	.006	.014	-.008	.006	.013
CES-D		-.003	.009	.001	-.003	.009	.001
Earner Status[c]					.096	.189	.002
R^2			.106			.108	

Note: N=136. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.
a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.
b. Relationship statistics compared to Other.
c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.
*p <.05. **p<.01.

Hypothesis 2 - Non-Parents. For hypothesis 2, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of the combined variable Housework, and Emotional Labor

(HEL) from earner status. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was statistically significant ($p<.001$). The R^2 value of .231 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 23.1% of variation in Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL). Controlling for other covariates in this step, the regression coefficient [B = -.314, 95% C.I. (-.470, -.157) $p<.001$] associated with gender suggests that on average women rate themselves as doing more Housework, and Emotional Labor in their relationship than men. Controlling for other covariates in this step, the regression coefficient [B = -.269, 95% C.I. (-.461, -.078) $p<.05$] associated with relationship status suggests that married participants perceive themselves as doing more Housework, and Emotional Labor in their relationship. A similar effect [B = -.171, 95% C.I. (-.331,.012) $p<.05$] is found for dating participants, where they perceive themselves as doing more Housework, and Emotional Labor in their relationship. Controlling for other covariates in this step, the regression coefficient [B = .043, 95% C.I. (.023,.062) $p<.001$] associated with gender role ideology (GRI) suggests that participants who rate as more egalitarian perceive themselves involved more in Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL). Controlling for other covariates in this step, the regression coefficient [B = .005, 95% C.I. (.001,.010) $p<.05$] associated with job satisfaction (AJS) suggests that participants who have higher job satisfaction perceive greater involvement in Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL) as seen in Table 6.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 2 included the predictor variable earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed a significant model as well ($p<.001$). The R^2 of .248 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the

predictor variable accounted for 24.8% of variance in Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL) with an R^2 change of .017, meaning earner status accounts for 1.7% of the variation in Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL). Controlling for other covariates in this step, the regression coefficient [B = -.266, 95% C.I. (-.425, -.106) p<.001] associated with gender suggests that on average women rate themselves as doing more Housework, and Emotional Labor in their relationship than men. Controlling for other covariates in this step, the regression coefficient [B = -.274, 95% C.I. (-.464, -.084) p<.05] associated with relationship status suggests that married participants perceive themselves as doing more Housework, and Emotional Labor in their relationship. A similar effect [B = -.171, 95% C.I. (-.329,.013) p<.05] is found for dating participants, where they perceive themselves as doing more Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor in their relationship. Controlling for other covariates in this step, the regression coefficient [B = .039, 95% C.I. (.019,058) p<.001] associated with gender role ideology (GRI) suggests that participants who rate as more egalitarian perceive more involvement in Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL). Controlling for other covariates in this step, the regression coefficient [B = .005, 95% C.I. (.001,.010) p<.05] associated with job satisfaction (AJS) suggests that participants who have higher job satisfaction perceive greater involvement in Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL). Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = .178, 95% C.I. (.043,.313) p<.05] associated with earner status suggests that secondary earners perceive themselves as more involved in Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL) than primary earners perceive their involvement as seen in Table 6.

Table 6.
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Housework, and Emotional Labor for Non-Parents

		Model 1			Model 2		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		-.001	.005	.000	-.001	.005	.000
Gender[a]		-.314**	.080	.049	-.266**	.081	.035
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-.269*	.097	.025	-.274*	.096	.026
	Separated/ Divorced	-.014	.336	.000	-.097	.334	.000
	Dating	-.171*	.081	.015	-.171*	.080	.015
	Engaged	-.147	.149	.003	-.189	.148	.005
GRI		-.052**	.028	.028	.039**	.010	.049
AJS		-.008*	.006	.014	.005*	.002	.018
CES-D		-.003	.009	.001	-.003	.003	.003
Earner Status					.178*	.068	.022
R^2			.231			.248	

Note: N=312. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.
a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.
b. Relationship statistics compared to Committed.
c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.
*p <.05. **p<.01.

Hypothesis 2a - Parents. For hypothesis 2a, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) when moderated by earner status. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant (p>.05). The R^2 value of .078 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 7.3% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 7.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 2a included the predictor variable Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) and the moderating variable earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed a significant model ($p<.001$). The R^2 of .256 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variables accounted for 25.6% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .178, meaning Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) and earner status accounts for 17.8% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Controlling for the other covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 5.467, 95% C.I. (.317, 10.616) $p < .05$] associated with gender suggests that men have greater relationship satisfaction than women by on average 5.5 points. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 5.314, 95% C.I. (1.498, 9.129) $p < .05$] associated with earner status indicates that on average, secondary earners have greater relationship satisfaction than primary earners by 5.3 points. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 4.149, 95% C.I. (2.340, 5.957) $p < .001$] associated with Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) indicates that participants who perceive greater involvement in Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) have higher relationship satisfaction by approximately 4.1 points.

The third step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 2a included the predictor variable Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) and the moderating variable earner status as well as the interaction between Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) and earner status. The results of model 3 analysis revealed a significant model ($p<.001$). The R^2 of .308 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 30.8% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .052, meaning the interaction between Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) and earner status accounts

for 5.2% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Controlling for the other covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 6.426, 95% C.I. (1.401, 11.451) $p < .05$] associated with gender suggests that men have greater relationship satisfaction than women by on average 6.4 points. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 29.382, 95% C.I. (13.273, 45.491) $p < .001$] associated with earner status indicates that on average, secondary earners have greater relationship satisfaction than primary earners by 29.4 points. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 7.521, 95% C.I. (4.712,10.330) $p < .001$] associated with Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) indicates that participants who perceive greater involvement in Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) have higher relationship satisfaction by approximately 7.5 points. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = -5.457, 95% C.I. (-9.012, -1.902) $p < .05$] (Figure 2) associated with the interaction between Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) and earner status indicates Primary earners who perceive they have more involvement in Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) have higher relationship satisfaction. Secondary earners who perceive they have more involvement in Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) have greater relationship satisfaction, though not as high as that of primary earners as seen in Table 7.

Table 7.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Parents

		Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.109	.180	.003	.10	.163	.003	.119	.158	.005
Gender[a]		.006	2.599	.000	5.467*	2.602	.035	6.426*	2.538	.050
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-.087	11.131	.000	.415*	10.096	.000	.413	9.774	.000
	Separated/ Divorced	6.659	12.141	.002	8.189	11.049	.004	7.077	10.703	.004
	Dating	-5.089	11.585	.002	-2.778	10.520	.001	-1.201	10.198	.000
	Engaged	-.099	11.473	.000	.831	10.400	.000	.622	10.069	.000
	Committed	6.161	11.618	.002	5.793	10.538	.002	4.747	10.208	.002
GRI		-.417	.312	.014	-.134	.287	.002	-.167	.278	.003
AJS		.033	.068	.002	.078	.062	.013	.074	.060	.012
CES-D		-.136	.102	.014	-.087	.093	.007	-.076	.090	.006
Earner Status[c]					5.314*	1.927	.058	29.382**	8.137	.097
CHEL					4.149	.913	.144	7.521**	1.419	.187
Interaction								-5.457*	1.796	.070
R^2			.078			.256			.308	

Note: N=136. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.

a. Gender statistics for men as compared to Women.

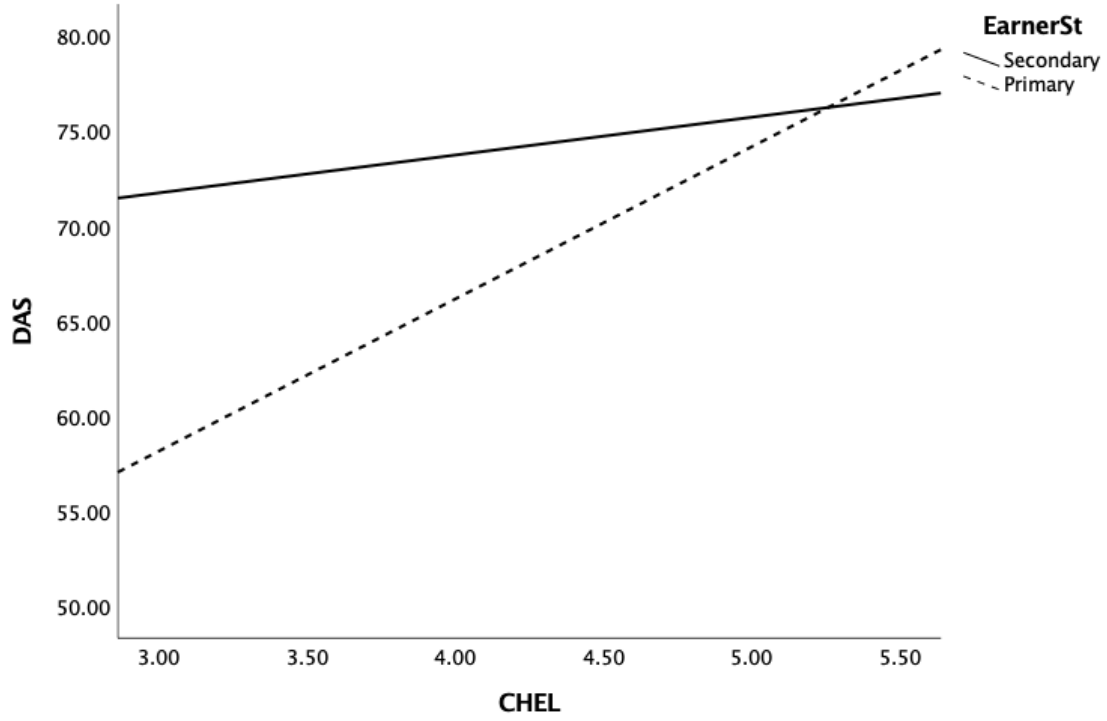
b. Relationship statistics compared to Other.

c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.

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

Figure 2.

Interaction Between Child, Household, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) and Relationship Satisfaction (DAS) for Parents



Hypothesis 2a - Non-Parents. For hypothesis 2a, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL) when moderated by earner status. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 value of .048 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 4.8% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 8.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 2a included the predictor variable Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL) and the moderating variable earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed a significant model ($p<.001$). The R^2 of .099 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 9.9% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .051, meaning Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL) and earner status accounts for 5.1% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 5.07, 95% C.I. (2.633, 7.508) $p<.001$] associated with Household, and Emotional Labor (HEL) suggests that participants who perceive greater involvement in Household, and Emotional Labor have higher relationship satisfaction as seen in Table 8.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 2a included the predictor variable Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL) and the moderating variable earner status as well as the interaction between Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL) and earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed a significant model ($p<.001$). The R^2 of .107 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 10.7% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .008, meaning Housework, and Emotional Labor (HEL) and earner status accounts for .8% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 6.577, 95% C.I. (-3.558, 9.595) $p<.001$] associated with Household, and Emotional Labor (HEL) suggests that participants who perceive greater involvement in Household, and Emotional Labor have higher relationship satisfaction as seen in Table 8.

Table 8.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Non-Parents

		Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.107	.101	.004	.112	.099	.004	.114	.099	.004
Gender[a]		-.281	1.737	.000	1.295	1.771	.002	1.374	1.767	.002
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-1.811	2.123	.002	-.444	2.099	.000	-.166	2.1	.000
	Separated /Divorced	.499	7.331	.000	.593	7.189	.000	1.012	7.173	.000
		.064	1.768	.000	.932	1.738	.001	.983	1.734	.001
	Dating Engaged	-.285	3.249	.000	.472	3.199	.000	.471	3.189	.000
GRI		.382	.213	.011	.167	.215	.002	.143	.215	.001
AJS		.119*	.050	.019	.091	.049	.012	.081	.049	.009
CES-D		.039	.069	.001	.057	.067	.002	.059	.067	.003
Earner Status[c]					-.053	1.488	.000	12.149	7.515	.009
HEL					5.070**	1.239	.053	6.577**	1.534	.058
Interaction								-3.966	2.394	.009
R^2			.048			.099			.107	

Note: N=312. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.

a. Gender statistics for men as compared to Women.

b. Relationship statistics compared to Committed.

c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.

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

Hypothesis 2b - Parents. For hypothesis 2b, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from Emotional Labor. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 value of .078 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 7.3% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 9.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 2b included the predictor variable emotional labor. The results of model 2 analysis revealed a significant model ($p<.001$). The R^2 of .266 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 26.6% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .188 meaning earner status and emotional labor account for 18.8% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 3.562, 95% C.I. (2.078, 5.046) $p<.001$] associated with emotional labor suggests that as the perception of emotional labor involvement increases, relationship satisfaction increases as well. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 5.799, 95% C.I. (2.013, 9.584) $p<.05$] associated with earner status suggests that secondary earners have greater relationship satisfaction than primary earners.

The third step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 2b included the predictor variable emotional labor. The results of model 3 analysis revealed a significant model ($p<.001$). The R^2 of .327 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 32.7% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .061, meaning the interaction between earner status and emotional labor accounts for 6.1% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 6.734,

95% C.I. (4.371, 9.097) p<.001] associated with emotional labor suggests that as the perception of emotional labor involvement increases, relationship satisfaction increases as well. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 25.975, 95% C.I. (13.453, 38.497) p<.001] associated with earner status suggests that secondary earners have greater relationship satisfaction than primary earners. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = -5.034, 95% C.I. (-8.023, -2.045) p<.001] (Figure 3) associated with the interaction between emotional labor and earner status suggests that as the perception of emotional labor involvement increases, relationship satisfaction increases as well, for both primary and secondary earners, however to a greater extent for primary earners as seen in Table 9.

Table 9.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Parents

		Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.109	.180	.003	.115	.162	.004	.121	.155	.005
Gender[a]		.006	2.599	.000	3.055	2.518	.012	3.037	2.420	.013
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-.087	11.131	.3.868	6.698	10.086	.004	3.869	9.372	.001
	Separated/ Divorced	6.659	12.141	9.644	13.116	10.992	.011	9.644	10.618	.007
	Dating	-5.089	11.585	1.879	2.527	10.509	.000	1.879	10.104	.000
	Engaged	-.099	11.473	3.300	6.407	10.386	.003	3.330	10.027	.001
	Committed	6.161	11.618	8.947	12.421	10.511	.011	8.947	10.158	.006
GRI		-.417	.312	.014	-.155	.284	.002	-.156	.273	.003
AJS		.033	.068	.002	.057	.062	.007	.044	.059	.004
CES-D		-.136	.102	.014	-.054	.093	.003	-.039	.090	.002
Emotional Labor					3.562**	.750	.155	6.734**	1.194	.207
Earner Status					5.799*	1.913	.070	25.975**	6.325	.121
Interaction								-5.034**	1.510	.083
R^2			.078			.266			.327	

Note: N=136. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.

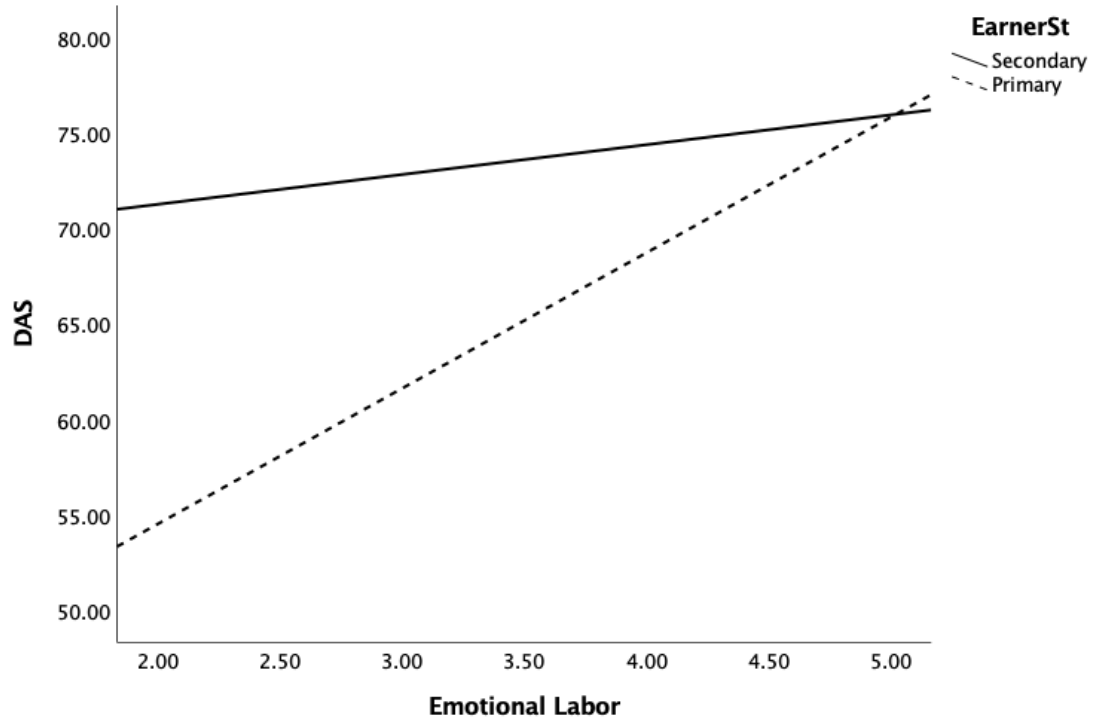
a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.

b. Relationship statistics compared to Other.

c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.

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

Figure 3.
Interaction between Emotional Labor and Relationship Satisfaction (DAS) for Parents



Hypothesis 2b - Non-Parents. For hypothesis 2b, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from Emotional Labor. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 value of .048 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 4.8% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 10.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 2b included the predictor variable emotional labor and the moderating variable earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed a significant model ($p<.05$). The R^2 of .090 indicated that the full model

including covariates as well as the predictor variables accounted for 9% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .042, meaning earner status and emotional labor account for 4.2% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Controlling for other covariates, the regression coefficient [B = .1, 95% C.I. (.004, .197) p<.05] associated with job satisfaction (AJS) suggests that participants with higher job satisfaction report greater relationship satisfaction. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 6.256, 95% C.I. (2.938, 9.574) p<.001] associated with emotional labor suggests that as emotional labor increases, relationship satisfaction increases as well.

The third step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 2b included the interaction between earner status and emotional labor. The results of model 3 analysis revealed a significant model (p<.001). The R^2 of .102 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variables accounted for 10.2% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .012, meaning the interaction between earner status and emotional labor accounts for 1.2% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 8.550, 95% C.I. (4.544, 12.555) p<.001] associated with emotional labor suggests that as emotional labor increases, relationship satisfaction increases as well. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 14.545, 95% C.I. (.478, 28.613) p<.05] associated with earner status suggests that for secondary earners have higher relationship satisfaction than primary earners. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = -6.942, 95% C.I. (-13.805, -.079) p<.05] (Figure 4) associated with earner status suggests that for both primary and secondary earners, as emotional labor involvement increases, so too does relationship satisfaction, however for Primary earners this effect is as significant increase as seen in Table 10.

Table 10.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Non-Parents

		Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.107	.101	.004	.108	.10	.004	.110	.099	.004
Gender[a]		-.281	1.737	.000	-.334	1.75	-.191	-.330	1.742	.000
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-1.811	2.123	.002	-.511	2.112	.000	-.374	2.103	.000
	Separated/ Divorced	.499	7.331	.000	-1.132	7.230	.000	.646	7.250	.000
	Dating	.064	1.768	.000	1.055	1.754	.001	1.240	1.748	.002
	Engaged	-.285	3.249	.000	.669	3.220	.000	.404	3.207	.000
GRI		.382	.213	.011	.219	.215	.003	.189	.214	.003
AJS		.119*	.050	.019	.1*	.049	2.054	.088	.049	.011
CES-D		.039	.069	.001	.063	.068	.003	.056	.068	.002
Emotional Labor					6.256**	1.686	.044	8.550**	2.035	.056
Earner Status[c]					.621	1.480	.001	14.545*	7.149	.014
Interaction								-6.942*	3.487	.013
R^2			.048			.090			.102	

Note: N=312. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.

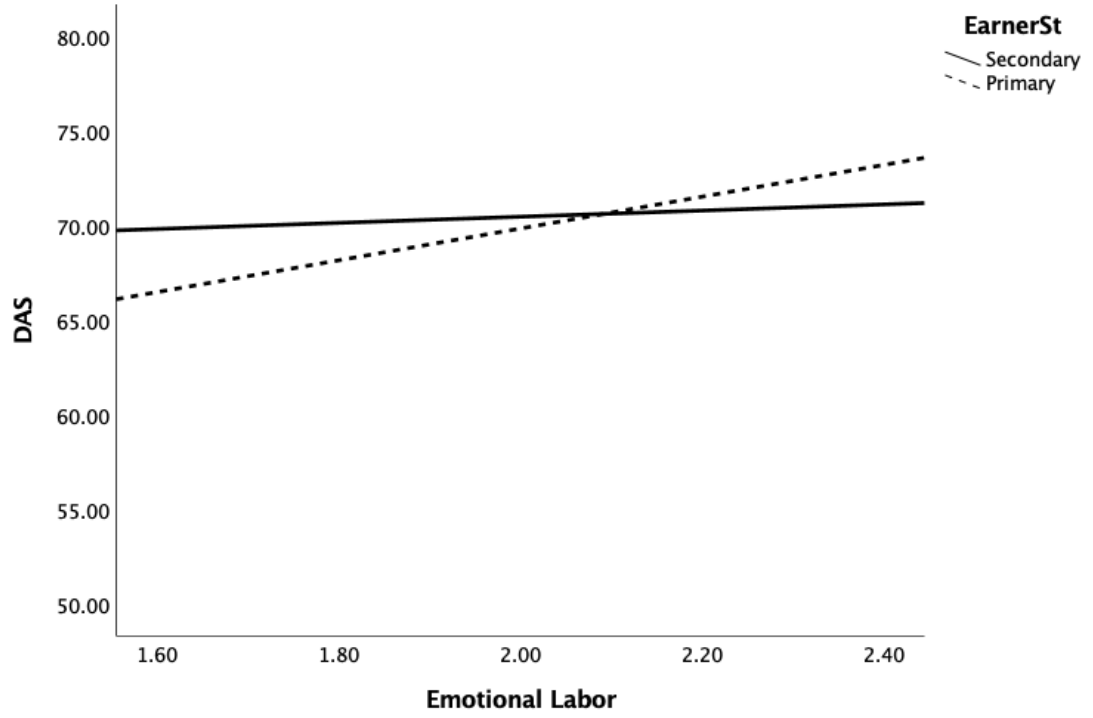
a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.

b. Relationship statistics compared to Committed.

c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.

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

Figure 4.
Interaction between Emotional Labor and Relationship Satisfaction (DAS) for Non-Parents



Hypothesis 3 Uplifts - Parents. For hypothesis 3, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from positive life events(Uplifts) when moderated by earner status. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 value of .048 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 4.8% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 11.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 3 included the predictor variable for positive life events (Uplifts) and the moderating variable earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed the model was not significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 of .141 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variables accounted for 14.1% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .093, meaning positive life events (Uplifts) and earner status account for 9.3% of the variation in relationship satisfaction.

The third step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 3 included the predictor variable for positive life events (Uplifts) and the moderating variable earner status as well as the interaction between positive life events (Uplift) and earner status. The results of model 3 analysis revealed the model was significant ($p<.05$). The R^2 of .163 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variables accounted for 16.3% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .022, meaning the interaction of positive life events (Uplifts) and earner status account for 2.2% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 9.363, 95% C.I. (3.613,15.113) $p < .05$] associated with earner status suggests that secondary earners have greater relationship satisfaction than primary earners. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = 9.363, 95% C.I. (3.613,15.113) $p < .05$] associated with positive life events suggests that participants who perceive greater positive life events have greater relationship satisfaction. Controlling for the covariates, the regression coefficient [B = -.102, 95% C.I. (-.213,.009) $p = .072$] associated with the interaction between positive life events and earner status suggests that, for primary earners, as the perception of positive life events increases, relationship satisfaction increases as well. For secondary earners, as the perception of positive life events increases relationship satisfaction does not increase. The effect size for the parent sample is .026 for this

interaction with a p-value of near significant ($p = .072$) indicates that with a greater sample size this result may be significant as seen in Table 11

Table 11.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Parents

		Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.109	.180	.003	.128	.176	.004	.111	.174	.003
Gender[a]		.006	2.599	.000	3.541	2.797	.013	4.696	2.843	.022
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-.087	11.131	.000	.947	10.854	.000	2.037	10.771	.000
	Separated/ Divorced	6.659	12.141	.002	9.720	11.867	.005	11.478	11.798	.008
	Dating	-5.089	11.585	.002	-3.285	11.312	.001	-3.076	11.209	.001
	Engaged	-.099	11.473	.000	.112	11.216	.000	1.242	11.131	.000
	Committed	6.161	11.618	.002	7.0	22.324	.003	8.173	11.239	.004
GRI		-.417	.312	.014	-.356	.304	.011	-.383	.302	.013
AJS		.033	.068	.002	.043	.067	.003	.048	.066	.004
CES-D		-.136	.102	.014	-.074	.102	.004	-.072	.101	.004
Earner Status[c]					5.635	2.070*	.057	9.363*	2.905	.078
Uplifts					.034	.029	.011	.095*	.044	.036
Interaction								-.102	.056	.026
R^2			.078			.141			.163	

Note: N=136. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.

a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.

b. Relationship statistics compared to Other.

c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.

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

Hypothesis 3 Uplifts - Non-Parents. For hypothesis 1, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from income disparity. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 value of .048 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 4.8% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 12.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 3 included the predictor variable positive life events (Uplifts) when moderated by earner status as well as the interaction between positive life events (Uplifts) and earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed the model was not significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 of .049 indicated that the model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 4.9% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .001, as seen in Table 12.

The third step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 3 included the predictor variable positive life events (Uplifts) when moderated by earner status as well as the interaction between positive life events (Uplifts) and earner status. The results of model 3 analysis revealed the model was not significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 of .051 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variables and interaction terms accounted for 5.1% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .002, as seen in Table 12.

Table 12.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Non-Parents

		Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.107	.101	.004	.105	.102	.003	.098	.102	.003
Gender[a]		-.281	1.737	.000	-.034	1.803	.000	-.001	1.804	.000
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-1.811	2.123	.002	-1.848	2.137	.002	-1.643	2.149	.002
	Separated /Divorced	.499	7.331	.000	-.006	7.505	.000	1.598	7.701	.000
		.064	1.768	.000	.055	1.780	.000	.218	1.788	.000
	Dating Engaged	-.285	3.249	.000	-.486	3.278	.000	-.437	3.279	.000
GRI		.382	.213	.011	.364	.216	.009	.361	.216	.009
AJS		.119*	.050	.019	.118*	.050	.018	.115	.050	.017
CES-D		.039	.069	.001	.042	.069	.001	.047	.069	.002
Earner Status[c]					.864	1.522	.001	2.231	2.113	.004
Uplifts					.002	.023	.000	.015	.027	.001
Interaction								-.047	.050	.003
R^2			.048			.049			.051	

Note: N=312. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.

a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.

b. Relationship statistics compared to Committed.

c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.

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

Hypothesis 3 Hassles - Parents. For hypothesis 3, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from negative life events (Hassles) when moderated by earner status. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 value of .078 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 7.3% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 13.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 3 included the predictor variable for negative life events (Hassles) and the moderating variable earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed the model was not significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 of .139 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variables accounted for 13.9% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .061, meaning negative life events (Hassles) and earner status account for 6.1% of the variation in relationship satisfaction, as seen in Table 13.

The third step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 3 included the predictor variable for negative life events (Hassles) and the moderating variable earner status as well as the interaction between negative life events (Hassles) and earner status (Figure 8). The results of model 2 analysis revealed the model was not significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 of .140 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variables accounted for 14% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .001, meaning the interaction between negative life events (Hassles) and earner status account for 1% of the variation in relationship satisfaction, as seen in Table 13.

Table 13.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Parents

		Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.109	.180	.003	.115	.175	.004	.116	.176	.004
Gender[a]		.006	2.599	.000	3.505	2.803	.013	3.405	2.900	.011
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-.087	11.131	.000	1.219	10.856	.000	1.210	10.9	.000
	Separated/	6.659	12.141	.002	9.998	11.879	.006	9.970	11.928	.006
	Divorced			.002				-3.566	11.391	.001
	Dating	-5.089	11.585	.000	-3.624	11.339	.001	.601	11.245	.000
	Engaged	-.099	11.473	.002	.592	11.2	.000	7.252	11.374	.003
	Committed	6.161	11.618		7.279	11.327	.003			
GRI		-.417	.312	.014	-.325	.305	.009	-.322	.307	.009
AJS		.033	.068	.002	.042	.067	.003	.040	.067	.003
CES-D		-.136	.102	.014	-.114	.101	.010	-.114	.102	.010
Earner Status[c]					5.809*	2.073	.060	5.531	2.851	.030
Hassles					.047	.043	.010	.040	.064	.003
Interaction								.012	.085	.000
R^2			.078			.139			.140	

Note: N=136. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.

a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.

b. Relationship statistics compared to Other.

c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.

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

Hypothesis 3 Hassles - Non-Parents. For hypothesis 3, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from negative life events (Hassles) when moderated by earner status. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), gender role ideology (GRI), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 value of .048 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 4.8% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 14.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 3 included the predictor variable negative life events (Hassles) when moderated by earner status as well as the interaction between negative life events (Hassles) and earner. The results of model 2 analysis revealed the model was not statistically significant ($p > .05$). The R^2 of .049 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 4.9% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .001, meaning negative life events (Hassles) and earner status account for .1% of the variation in relationship satisfaction, as seen in Table 14.

The third step to the hierarchical regression for hypothesis 3 included the predictor variable negative life events (Hassles) when moderated by earner status as well as the interaction between negative life events (Hassles) and earner status. The results of model 3 analysis revealed the model was not statistically significant ($p > .05$). The R^2 of .057 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 5.7% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .008, meaning negative life events (Hassles) and earner status account for .8% of the variation in relationship satisfaction, as seen in Table 14.

Table 14.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Non-Parents

		Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.107	.101	.004	.108	.102	.004	.106	.102	.004
Gender[a]		-.281	1.737	.000	.003	1.791	.002	-.209	1.791	.000
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-1.811	2.123	.002	-1.752	2.133	.002	-1.679	2.129	.002
	Separated /Divorced	.499	7.331	.000	.372	7.401	.000	1.227	7.401	.000
		.064	1.768	.000	.138	1.777	.000	.151	1.773	.000
	Dating Engaged	-.285	3.249	.000	-.456	3.277	.000	-.629	3.271	.000
GRI		.382	.213	.011	.365	.216	.009	.363	.215	.009
AJS		.119*	.050	.019	.119*	.050	.019	.122*	.050	.020
CES-D		.039	.069	.001	.037	.070	.001	.035	.070	.001
Earner Status[c]					.885	1.513	.001	-1.311	2.045	.001
Hassles					.015	.028	.001	-.014	.033	.001
Interaction								.093	.058	.008
R^2			.048			.049			.057	

Note: N=312. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.

a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.

b. Relationship statistics compared to Committed.

c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.

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

Research Question – Parents. To investigate the impact of earner status and gender role ideology (GRI) on DAS, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 value of .065 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 6.5% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 15.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for the research question, included the predictor variable gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 of .131 indicated that the model including covariates as well as the predictor variables gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status accounted for 13.1% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .066, meaning gender role ideology(GRI) and earner status account for 6.6% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Although this model is not significant, the effect size is moderate with a partial eta squared of .131, and a near significance of $p = .08$ indicates that with a greater sample size the model and subsequent results may be significant as seen in Table 15.

The third step to the hierarchical regression for the research question included the predictor variables gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status as well as the interaction between gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status. The results of model 3 analysis revealed the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 of .143 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 14.3% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .012, meaning gender role ideology (GRI) and

earner status account for 1.2% of the variation in relationship satisfaction. Although this model is not significant, the effect size is moderate with a partial eta squared of .143, and a near significance of p = .073 indicates that with a greater sample size the model and subsequent results may be significant as seen in Table 15

Table 15.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Parents

		Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.135	.179	.004	.110	.175	.003	.149	.177	.006
Gender[a]		.438	2.587	.000	2.788	2.727	.008	3.862	2.846	.015
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-2.037	11.070	.000	1.445	10.863	.000	2.795	10.886	.001
	Separated/ Divorced	4.964	12.113	.001	9.735	11.885	.005	11.534	11.937	.008
	Dating	-6.027	11.600	.002	-2.791	11.322	.000	-1.770	11.321	.000
	Engaged	-2.395	11.379	.000	1.252	11.192	.000	2.484	11.204	.000
	Committed	3.855	11.526	.001	7.497	11.334	.004	8.672	11.342	.005
AJS		.021	.068	.001	.045	.067	.004	.054	.067	.005
CES-D		-.107	.100	.009	-.098	.100	.008	-.106	.100	.009
Earner Status[c]					5.711*	2.072	2.756	17.186	9.184	.028
GRI					-.346	.305	.010	.120	.474	.001
Interaction								-.781	.609	.013
R^2			.065			.131			.143	

Note: N=136. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.

a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.

b. Relationship statistics compared to Other.

c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.

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

Research Question Non-Parents. To investigate the impact of earner status and gender role ideology (GRI) on DAS, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of relationship satisfaction (DAS) from gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status. For the covariates-only model analysis, the covariates gender, age, relationship status (RelStat), depression (CES-D), and job satisfaction (AJS), were analyzed. The result of the first model of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated the model was not statistically significant ($p > .05$). The R^2 value of .037 for Model 1 suggest that the covariates account for 3.7% of variation in relationships satisfaction, as seen in Table 16.

The second step to the hierarchical regression for the research question, included the predictor variable gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status. The results of model 2 analysis revealed the model was not statistically significant ($p>.05$). The R^2 of .049 indicated that the model including covariates as well as the predictor variables gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status accounted for 4.9% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .012, meaning gender role ideology(GRI) and earner status account for 1.2% of the variation in relationship satisfaction, as seen in Table 16.

The third step to the hierarchical regression for the research question included the predictor variables gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status as well as the interaction between gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status. The results of model 3 analysis revealed the model was not statistically significant ($p=.15$). The R^2 of .050 indicated that the full model including covariates as well as the predictor variable accounted for 5% of variance in relationship satisfaction with an R^2 change of .001, meaning gender role ideology (GRI) and earner status account for .1% of the variation in relationship satisfaction, as seen in Table 16.

Table 16.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Relationship Satisfaction for Non-Parents

		Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable		B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2	B	SE B	η_p^2
Age		.103	.102	.003	.105	.102	.004	.107	.102	.004
Gender[a]		-1.350	1.637	.002	-.053	1.785	-.030	.147	1.805	.000
Relationship Status[b]	Married	-2.126	2.123	.003	-1.833	2.125	.002	-1.748	2.130	.002
	Separated/ Divorced	.792	7.356	.000	.099	7.374	.000	.425	7.391	.000
	Dating	-.097	1.772	.000	.067	1.770	.000	.022	1.772	.000
	Engaged	-.799	3.248	.000	-.487	3.273	.000	-.477	3.275	.000
AJS		.126*	.050	.021	.118	.050	.019	.117*	.050	.018
CES-D		.042	.050	.021	.042	.069	.001	.045	.069	.001
Earner Status[c]					.850	1.509	.001	5.911	6.714	.003
GRI					.363	.215	.009	.495	.275	.011
Interaction								-.332	.429	.002
R^2			.037			.049			.050	

Note: N=312. GRI = Gender Role Ideology; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression.

a. Gender statistics for men as compared to women.

b. Relationship statistics compared to Committed.

c. Where earner status statistics are compared to Partner 1.

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

All data for this study were collected during the Covid-19 pandemic. Therefore, a question was included to ascertain the participants' state of mind regarding any impacts Covid-19 had on their life. There were many participants who left this question unanswered and a few who stated that Covid-19 had no impact on their lives or how they answered this questionnaire. Many participants remarked that they had less income or dealt with job loss during Covid-19. A small number related they had suffered from adverse mental health such as, depression, anxiety, and fear of outdoors/crowds. A couple of the participants contracted Covid-19 or knew someone who had; a small portion of those participants lost a family member which affected their family structure and mental health. The loss of social connections and inability to see family was also a frequently mentioned negative impact of Covid-19. While some participants stated that the stay-at-home mandate and extended family time was taken in a negative light, that was not the case for all participants.

There were a few positive impacts people were able to derive during this time. Quite a few participants talked about how Covid-19 and the entire family working/school from home made them closer as a family. Parents were noting that they were learning more about their children and partners and this new experience of constant exposer made them more knowledgably about their family's needs. One participant noted that their income had significantly increased due to hero pay. Other participants regarded the work from home a better, more flexible schedule for their lifestyle or childcare needs.

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to examine how relationship satisfaction among intimate partners was related to differences in income disparity and earner status. It also addressed how positive and negative life events and division of labor created or inhibited this association. It was not originally intended for the study sample to be split between parent and non-parent; therefore, hypotheses were written without subsequent research into the possible differences between the two groups. For this reason, results differing from expected hypotheses were anticipated upon conducting analysis.

Earlier research suggests that relationship satisfaction is altered by a number of variables including but not limited to; domestic labor, fiscal responsibility, gender norms, and various forms of stress (Conger & Peterson, 1984; Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1980; Thoits, 1987). These studies have found both similar (Minnotte, Minnotte, Pendersen, Mannon, & Kiger, 2010; Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008) and differentiating (Minnotte, Minnotte, Pendersen, Mannon, & Kiger, 2010; Conger & Peterson, 1984) associations for many of these areas.

Many studies in the past have looked at these variables through the scope of gender and more recently gender norms. Gender study findings indicated there were definite changes for emotional needs, mental health concerns, involvement in domestic labor, stress response and feelings of control within a relationship that changed depending on gender or gender ideology (Brines, 1990; Conger & Peterson, 1984; Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1980; Thoits, 1987; Weigel & Weigel, 1990). These studies were conducted in a time where the Bureau of Labor Statistics (1976-2011) reported that predominantly men were either the sole earner or the primary earner within relationships. However, there has been a decrease in households relying on

men as sole earners over the past 40 years indicating that more recently societal norms are shifting towards more egalitarian mindsets (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). More households are seeing stay at home fathers and more income provided by women in mixed-gender relationships. Census data indicates that there was a 2.8-fold increase in stay-at-home fathers between 1994 and 2020 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2020). Between 1970 and 2011 there has been a 10% increase in family income provided by women in the household (Bureau of Labor Statistics). The current study particularly wanted to examine the possibility that when studies from last century examined relationship satisfaction and income disparity, it was through the lens of husband and wife, as opposed to primary and secondary earner (Brines, 1990; Conger & Peterson, 1984; Weigel & Weigel, 1990).

For this reason, gender was included in all models to examine whether gender gave a significant contribution to the dependent variable. However, our expectation that gender would not play a significant role due to the shift in social norms indicating more egalitarian views in recent years, were consistent with our results. Gender was only a significant factor in models predicting Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor. Therefore, in models relating to relationship satisfaction, gender was not a significant contributor to the dependent variable and models could be interpreted with the understanding that gender played no significant role in the next step in each model.

After examining covariates, income disparity and earner status were examined to ascertain whether they had any impact on relationship satisfaction for both parents and non-parents. We expected that income disparity and earner status would have a significant contribution of relationship satisfaction and found differences between income disparity and earner status. There were no significant findings that would indicate income disparity was

associate with relationship satisfaction. In contrast, earner status was negatively associated with relationship satisfaction for parents but not for non-parents. Individuals who identified as primary earners report lower relationship satisfaction than secondary earners in a relationship. While Rochlen and colleagues (2008) found that income disparity was a cause for different roles within a relationship, our study did not corroborate those findings. Other studies (Minnotte, Minnotte, Pendersen, Mannon, & Kiger, 2010; Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008; Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001) indicate that role status within a family system will dictate levels of relationship status, where these studies look at breadwinner and homemakers or male and female, ours instead found this difference in primary and secondary earner.

In addition to the main effects examined for this hypothesis, we also looked at mediated effects through positive and negative life events as well as division of labor within a relationship. While positive and negative life events had no mediating effects, domestic labor was shown to mediate the relationship between income disparity and relationship satisfaction for parents and non-parents, such that individuals who report greater income disparity between themselves and their partner also report that they perceive themselves as being more involved in domestic labor within their relationship than that of their partner. When these individuals report high perceptions of involvement in domestic labor, they also report higher levels of relationship satisfaction. Therefore, income disparity has a positive relationship with domestic labor, and domestic labor has a positive association with relationship satisfaction. Therefore, a mediating effect of domestic labor creates a positive relationship between income disparity and relationship satisfaction. This finding corroborates the findings of Thoits, (1987) who supposed that earners who earn less will strive to take on more domestic labors to make up for less income, which would then increase relationship satisfaction.

The lack of significant mediating effects for positive and negative life events on the relationship between income disparity and relationship satisfaction may be due to the use of a discrepancy in self and partner perceptions for the mediating variables of hassle and uplifts. Where responses of hassles and uplifts measures were taken for the self as well as perceptions of participants' partners hassles and uplifts, the difference between these results were used to examine discrepancy between the participant's and their partner's (as perceived by the participant) daily positive and negative life events. Significant effects may have been seen if both partners had been included in the survey. Past studies indicate that when examining dual earner couples, obtaining both partners' perceptions in was important to gain a full picture of daily stressors their association with overall relationship satisfaction (Acitelli Douvan, & Veroff, 1993).

Earner status was also examined in relation to Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) and Housework and Emotional Labor (HEL) (for parents and non-parents respectively), it was expected that primary earners would perceive they were less involved in CHEL and HEL than secondary earners. While this effect was observed for both parents and non-parents, the effect was only significant for non-parents. A comparative meta-analysis by Twenge, Campbell, and Foster (2003), examined parents and non-parents' relationship satisfaction as a function of both gender and financial strain. The study found that on average parents report lower relationship satisfaction than non-parents and a higher number of children was associated with lower relationship satisfaction. A gender effect was found indicating women who recently gave birth had the lowest relationship satisfaction out of any other group. Participants from high SES were more likely to have low relationship satisfaction if they were parents, this result was also found in a study by Jenkins and colleagues (2003), which suggested that this relationship was

found due to higher SES families experiencing role conflict within a relationship. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that results from the current study may not be significant for parents due to other variables that were not taken into consideration, such as recently giving birth, low or high SES, or financial strain.

When examining parents, it was hypothesized that for secondary earners Child, Housework and Emotional Labor (CHEL) would increase as relationship satisfaction increased, however for primary earners, Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) would have an inverse relationship with relationship satisfaction. The results indicated that primary earners have lower relationship satisfaction than secondary earners, although this effect was seen in non-parents as well, it was much weaker for non-parents. When examining Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL), participants who perceived themselves as more involved than their partner in Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor also reported higher relationship satisfaction. It was determined that child, housework, and emotional labor as well as earner status indicated that when the primary earner in relationships perceive they are more involved in domestic labors, they report greater relationship satisfaction. Although secondary earners still demonstrated a positive association between Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) and relationship satisfaction, the association as weaker than what was seen for primary earners. This result was anticipated due to previous findings by Stevens, Kiger, and Riley (2001) which indicated that when there was a balance of both partners within a relationship splitting Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) there would be increased relationship satisfaction.

When examining non-parents, it was hypothesized that for secondary earners Housework and Emotional Labor (HEL) would increase as relationship satisfaction increased, however for primary earners, Housework and Emotional Labor (HEL) would have an inverse relationship

with relationship satisfaction. The results indicated that primary earners have lower relationship satisfaction than secondary earners, although this association was seen in both parents and non-parents, it was much weaker than what was seen for parents. When examining Housework and Emotional Labor (HEL), participants who perceived themselves as more involved than their partner in Housework and Emotional Labor (HEL) also reported higher relationship satisfaction. It was determined that Housework and Emotional Labor (HEL) as well as earner status indicated that when the primary earner in relationships perceive they are more involved in domestic labors, they report greater relationship satisfaction. Although secondary earners still demonstrated a positive association between Housework and Emotional Labor (HEL) and relationship satisfaction, the association as weaker than what was seen for primary earners. This result was anticipated due to previous findings by Stevens, Kiger, and Riley (2001) which indicated that when there was a balance of both partners within a relationship splitting Child, Housework, and Emotional Labor (CHEL) there would be increased relationship satisfaction.

When examining both parents and non-parents, it was hypothesized that for primary earners, if they perceive themselves as more involved in emotional labor than their partner, they will also report higher relationship satisfaction. The results indicated that primary earners have lower relationship satisfaction than secondary earners, although this association was seen in both parents and non-parents, it was much weaker than what was seen for parents. When examining Emotional Labor, participants who perceived themselves as more involved than their partner in Emotional Labor also reported higher relationship satisfaction. It was determined that Emotional Labor as well as earner status indicated that when the primary earner in relationships perceive they are more involved in emotional labor, they report greater relationship satisfaction. Although secondary earners still demonstrated a positive association between Emotional Labor and

relationship satisfaction, the association as much weaker than what was seen for primary earners. This result was anticipated due to past studies indicating that men, who were seen as the breadwinners in the past, were likely to desire greater family contact and emotional ties due to the strain caused by the primary earner status (Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001; Strazdins & Broom, 2004). When controlling for gender, our study found that participants who hold the role of primary earner were more likely to have higher relationship satisfaction if they reported higher emotional involvement in their relationship.

We hypothesized that when examining positive and negative life events, secondary earners would have higher relationship satisfaction if they had low discrepancy between their perceptions of themselves and their perceptions of their partner. Although this hypothesis was unfounded, Wunderer & Schneewind (2008) found a similar effect in their study, where participants who perceived one another's needs accurately reported greater relationship satisfaction. This result may not have been found in the non-parent study as the non-parent sample reported shorter relationship length and may not have built up the partner understanding the parenting sample has gained. Twenge, Campbell, and Foster (2003) believed that a higher level of self-focus occurred during parenthood which enhanced open communication and better understanding of one's partner; therefore, the current sample is less likely to have gained this advantage to their relationship due to time and shared experience.

Exploratory analysis into the possibility that the effects found in this study attributed to earner status may in fact be due to gender role ideology was conducted. A model comprising of all covariates as well as the main effects of earner status and Gender Role Ideology (GRI) and an interaction between the two predictors was examined. For both the parent and non-parent sample, the model was not significant. This could be due to lack of power; the effect sizes were

examined to determine if a larger sample would have a significant finding. In the parent model, the main effect of earner status had a small effect size, however no other main effect or interaction had a large enough effect size to be interpretable. This supports the expected results which would indicate that gender role ideology is not impactful in a model examining relationship satisfaction and our study's decision to look into earner status was the right direction.

SUMMARY

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

These results are impactful due to previous research indicating that the effects of earner status on relationship satisfaction were gendered effects where researchers would attribute findings due to differences based on gender or gender role ideology (Brines, 1990; Conger & Peterson, 1984; Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1980; Thoits, 1987). Our results indicate that although gender may play a role when in how domestic labor may be divided within a relationship, earner status and emotional labor have an association with relationship satisfaction well beyond what is explained by gender. While these effects might have been regarded as due to gender role ideology (GRI), our investigation into the impact of gender role ideology (GRI) found that not only was Gender Role Ideology (GRI) less significant when compared to earner status, it also had no meaningful impact on relationship satisfaction on its own. Therefore, it can be concluded that based on our results, earner status plays a significant role in relationship status between cohabitating partners.

In terms of differences between parents and non-parents, some of our findings varied. Although parents' and non-parents' relationship satisfaction were both impacted by different forms of domestic labor, and earner status did alter the degree to which involvement in domestic labor impacted relationship satisfaction, the presence of a child seems to negate the influence of "breadwinner" or "homemaker" on domestic labors. As found by past studies, it is important for husbands and wives to understand each other's contribution within a relationship and feel they are sharing the domestic workload (Strazdins & Broom, 2004; Stevens, Kiger, & Riley, 2001). This balance in different realms of domesticity can lead to greater psychological health and martial satisfaction. According to Stevens, Kiger, and Riley (2001) men feel a need to interact

with their family unit and form emotional bonds to heighten relationship satisfaction. Our study suggests that regardless of gender, primary earners feel this need as well.

Throughout our findings, it was found that job satisfaction (AJS) was the one covariate which had a significant positive association with relationship satisfaction in almost every model. When looking at the results of models including predictor variables, job satisfaction (AJS) continued to have a significant impact on relationship satisfaction even when the predictor variables did not. Research in job satisfactions association with relationship satisfaction indicates that many factors from work can affect both the worker and the at home partner and relationship satisfaction, this is referred to as work to family conflict, Yucel and Latshaw (2020) investigates spillover crossover effects of bringing work conflict into the home relationship, which can then affect their partners well-being. Allen and colleagues (2000), found that there was a negative relationship between work to family conflict and relationship satisfaction, indicating that when dissatisfaction with work is brought into the home, relationship satisfaction decreases. When examining the effect of job satisfaction on relationship satisfaction through the lens of gender role ideology, it was found that there were significant differences between genders and their reactions to each other's gender role ideologies and how that interplayed with relationship satisfaction (Minnotte, Minnotte, Pendersen, Mannon, & Kiger, 2010; Westman, 2016). However, it should be noted that Minnotte and colleagues (2010), explicitly say that their significant relationships did not occur until the partner gender role ideology was included in the model, therefore the insignificance of GRI in our own model may be due to lack of partner data.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The original intention of this study was to examine the full sample without differentiating between parents and non-parents, however the results were bimodal in most circumstances.

Therefore, the sample was split for all hypotheses which reduces power in the current study. To alleviate the concerns of a smaller sample, partial eta squared was provided to clarify the effect size of the results. The sample size, once split, was weaker than the full model was intended, and future research should aim to have similar sample size in both parents and non-parents where both are the size of the originally intended sample or larger.

As stated previously, this study collected information from only one partner. There are past studies which indicate that results obtained from a study including both partners in a relationship will give more accurate insight into the innerworkings of relationships. However, based on studies done by Acitelli, Douvan, and Veroff, (1993) Donato and colleagues, (2015), and Weigel and Ballard-Reisch (2008), which indicate that partners are more similar than they are dissimilar due to a natural urge to seek out individuals more similar to ourselves, participants would either rate their partners as similar to themselves because it is accurate because they have sought out a similar partner or they would rate them as similar to themselves because they wish to believe their partner is similar to themselves for peace of mind. It was also found that individuals want to think well of their romantic partners, which may also result in participants rating their partners higher than self-rating or their partners self-rating. Therefore, although both partners in the sample were not used, the decision to use only one partner due to time constraints was both practical and reasonable. For results which can be better applied to the general populace, future studies should examine both partner and partner perceptions for accurate depictions of influential variables as they apply to relationship satisfaction.

It must also be noted that this study specifically looked at mixed-gender couples between partners who identified as men and women. Therefore, the results of this study may not apply to same sex couples and non-binary individuals. Future studies should examine same sex couples

and non-binary individuals to see if these results or any which do not account for that specific demographic are generalizable to that portion of the general populace.

The majority of this sample was pulled from a college populace; therefore the age range was lower than many other studies out there. There was a high percentage of expecting parents (7.6%) when considering this study was not aimed at expecting parents. The majority of this sample had either no kids or only 1 child. With the median age being 19 years of age, it is likely that the majority of the sample are young or new parents and any results gained from this sample should be interpreted with this in mind.

When examining distribution of labor, it is measured at an individual's perception of how involved they are in different realms of domestic labor. It should also be noted, that paid labor should be included for more robust interpretation. This study failed to consider the amount of time invested in paid labor. Future studies would benefit from including number of hours worked, as more hours at work means less hours available to spend with the family.

These results may be limited due to self-report; therefore, all results are perceptions of their contribution to domestic labor and positive and negative life events. Additionally, as this study only included one partner, perceptions of relative contributions to domestic labor, and partner positive and negative life events may be particularly problematic. These perceptions may color participants' views on relationship satisfaction as well as their perceptions of themselves. Future studies should look at both partners within a relationship to determine how similar self-ratings are to partner perceptions and vice versa. The differences between accurately perceiving a romantic partner may contribute to relationship satisfaction as well.

All data for this study were collected during the Covid-19 pandemic. Responses and findings of this study may no longer be generalizable to the general public when there is not a

world-wide pandemic. The pandemic could have a substantial impact on how the participants in this study responded to the measures. However, there is no way to tell if these effects are long lasting and significant contributed either positively or negatively towards the results of this study. Therefore, future studies would benefit from conducting the study in a time where a stay-at-home mandate due to the Covid-19 epidemic is not in effect.

CONCLUSION

When looking at all these results and the importance of them in our society overall we really must think about the fact that a lot of these past studies have looked at domestic labor and how it's divided in a relationship. A lot of past studies have findings based on gender and the differences between men and women, and while results do indicate that gender may play a role with how some domestic labor is divided within a relationship, earner status and emotional labor have an association with relationship satisfaction that is well beyond what's explained by gender. Although these results could have been put down to gender role ideology and how that impacts this relationship, gender role ideology was less significant when compared to earner status and it had no meaningful impact on relationship satisfaction on its own. Therefore, it really can be concluded based on our results that earner status plays a significant role in relationship satisfaction between cohabitating couples and that is something that should be noted when looking at studies that attribute similar findings to gender.

In terms of differences between parents and non-parents, relationship satisfaction was impacted by different forms of domestic labor and although earner status did alter the degree to which involvement in domestic labor impacted relationship satisfaction it's looked like it's the presence of a child that it is more attributed to where being a parent kind of negates the influence of the breadwinner/homemaker mindset of domestic labor. Which is supported by what has been

seen in past studies where it's very important for partners to understand each other's contribution within a relationship and feel they're sharing that domestic workload. Many studies have found that balance in different realms of domesticity can lead to greater psychological health or marital satisfaction. Even though past studies showed that men feel the need to interact with their family unit and form these emotional bonds to heighten that relationship satisfaction, our study suggests that regardless of gender, the *primary earner* feels that need. This is important when striving for better mental health practices and in couples or family therapy, providers may want to consider income-based strain may be felt by the primary earner more than by a certain gender, and building an emotional framework at home may alleviate some of that burden.

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DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

Most persons have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occasionally Agree	Frequently Disagree	Almost Always Agree	Always Disagree
Handling family finances	○	○	○	○	○	○
Matters of recreation	○	○	○	○	○	○
Religious matters	○	○	○	○	○	○
Demonstrations of affection	○	○	○	○	○	○
Friends	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sex relations	○	○	○	○	○	○
Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Philosophy of life	○	○	○	○	○	○
Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws	○	○	○	○	○	○
Aims, goals, and things believed important	○	○	○	○	○	○

Amount of time spent together	○	○	○	○	○	○
Making major decisions	○	○	○	○	○	○
Household tasks	○	○	○	○	○	○
Leisure time interests and activities	○	○	○	○	○	○
Career decisions	○	○	○	○	○	○

	All of the time	Most of the time	More often than not	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	○	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you or your partner leave the house after a fight?	○	○	○	○	○	○
In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you confide in your partner?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you ever regret that you married? (or lived together)	○	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you and your partner quarrel?	○	○	○	○	○	○

How often do you and your partner "get on each other's nerves?"	○	○	○	○	○	○
	Every day	Almost every day	Almost every day	Occasionally	Rarely	
Do you kiss your partner?	○	○	○	○	○	

	All of them	Most of them	Some of them	Very few of them	None of them
Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	○	○	○	○	○

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your partner?

	Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More often
Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	○	○	○	○	○	○
Laugh together	○	○	○	○	○	○
Calmly discuss something	○	○	○	○	○	○
Work together on a project	○	○	○	○	○	○

There are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks.

	Yes	No
Being too tired for sex.	○	○
Not showing love.	○	○

The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

Extremely Unhappy	Fairly unhappy	A little unhappy	Happy	Very happy	Extremely happy	Perfect
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?

○ I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does.

○ I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does.

○ I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.

○ It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am do ing now to help it succeed.

○ It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.

○ My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

DAILY HASSLES SCALE

Listed below are a number of ways in which a person can feel hassled. Please indicate how SEVERE each of the hassles has been for you in the past month. If the hassle did not occur in the last month select not applicable.

	Not Applicable	Somewhat severe	Moderately Severe	Extremely Severe
Misplacing or losing things	○	○	○	○
Troublesome neighbors	○	○	○	○
Social obligations	○	○	○	○
Inconsiderate Smokers	○	○	○	○
Troubling thoughts about your future	○	○	○	○
Thoughts about death	○	○	○	○
Health of a family member	○	○	○	○
Not enough money for clothing	○	○	○	○
Not enough money for housing	○	○	○	○
Concerns about owing money	○	○	○	○
Concerns about getting credit	○	○	○	○

Concerns about money for emergencies	○	○	○	○
Someone owes you money	○	○	○	○
Financial responsibility for someone who doesn't live with you	○	○	○	○
Cutting down on electricity, water, etc.	○	○	○	○
Smoking too much	○	○	○	○
Use of alcohol	○	○	○	○
Personal use of drugs	○	○	○	○
Too many responsibilities	○	○	○	○
Decisions about having children	○	○	○	○
Non-family members living in your house	○	○	○	○
Care for pet	○	○	○	○
Planning meals	○	○	○	○
Concerned about the meaning of life	○	○	○	○

Trouble relaxing	○	○	○	○
Trouble making decisions	○	○	○	○
Problems getting along with fellow workers	○	○	○	○
Customers or clients give you a hard time	○	○	○	○
Home maintenance (inside)	○	○	○	○
Concerns about job security	○	○	○	○
Concerns about retirement	○	○	○	○
Laid-off or out of work	○	○	○	○
Don't like current work duties	○	○	○	○
Don't like fellow workers	○	○	○	○
Not enough money for basic necessities	○	○	○	○
Not enough money for food	○	○	○	○
Too many interruptions	○	○	○	○

Unexpected company	○	○	○	○
Too much time on hands	○	○	○	○
Having to wait	○	○	○	○
Concerns about accidents	○	○	○	○
Being lonely	○	○	○	○
Not enough money for health care	○	○	○	○
Fear of confrontation	○	○	○	○
Financial security	○	○	○	○
Silly practical mistakes	○	○	○	○
Inability to express yourself	○	○	○	○
Physical illness	○	○	○	○
Side effects of medication	○	○	○	○
Concerns about medical treatment	○	○	○	○
Physical appearance	○	○	○	○
Fear of rejection	○	○	○	○

Difficulties with getting pregnant	○	○	○	○
Sexual problems that result from physical problems	○	○	○	○
Sexual problems other than those resulting from physical problems	○	○	○	○
Concerns about health in general	○	○	○	○
Not seeing enough people	○	○	○	○
Friends or relatives too far away	○	○	○	○
Preparing meals	○	○	○	○
Wasting time	○	○	○	○
Auto maintenance	○	○	○	○
Filling out forms	○	○	○	○
Neighborhood deterioration	○	○	○	○
Financing children's education	○	○	○	○
Problems with employees	○	○	○	○

Problems on job due to being a woman or man	○	○	○	○
Declining physical abilities	○	○	○	○
Being exploited	○	○	○	○
Concerns about bodily functions	○	○	○	○
Rising prices of common goods	○	○	○	○
Not getting enough rest	○	○	○	○
Not getting enough sleep	○	○	○	○
Problems with aging parents	○	○	○	○
Problems with your children	○	○	○	○
Problems with persons younger than yourself	○	○	○	○
Problems with your lover	○	○	○	○
Difficulties seeing or hearing	○	○	○	○
Overloaded with family responsibilities	○	○	○	○
Too many things to do	○	○	○	○

Unchallenging work	○	○	○	○
Concerns about meeting high standards	○	○	○	○
Financial dealings with friends or acquaintances	○	○	○	○
Job dissatisfaction	○	○	○	○
Worries about decisions to change jobs	○	○	○	○
Trouble with reading, writing, or spelling abilities	○	○	○	○
Too many meetings	○	○	○	○
Problems with divorce or separation	○	○	○	○
Trouble with arithmetic skills	○	○	○	○
Gossip	○	○	○	○
Legal problems	○	○	○	○
Concerns about weight	○	○	○	○
Not enough time to do the things you need to do	○	○	○	○

Television	○	○	○	○
Not enough personal energy	○	○	○	○
Concerns about inner conflicts	○	○	○	○
Feel conflicted over what to do	○	○	○	○
Regrets over past decisions	○	○	○	○
Menstrual (period) problems	○	○	○	○
The weather	○	○	○	○
Nightmares	○	○	○	○

	Not applicable	Somewhat severe	Moderately severe	Extremely severe
Concerns about getting ahead	○	○	○	○
Hassles from boss or supervisor	○	○	○	○
Difficulties with friends	○	○	○	○
Not enough time for family	○	○	○	○
Transportation problems	○	○	○	○
Not enough money for transportaiton	○	○	○	○
Not enough money for entertainment and recreation	○	○	○	○
Shopping	○	○	○	○

DAILY UPLIFTS SCALE

Uplifts are events that make you feel good. They can be sources of peace, satisfaction, or joy. Some occur often, others are relatively rare.
Listed below are a number of ways in which a person can feel uplifted. Please indicate how often each of the uplifts has occurred for you in the past month. If the uplift did not occur in the last month select not applicable.

	Not applicable	Somewhat often	Moderately often	Extremely Often
Deciding to have children	○	○	○	○
Enjoying non-family members living in your house	○	○	○	○
Pets	○	○	○	○
Car working/running well	○	○	○	○
Neighborhood improving	○	○	○	○
Children's accomplishments	○	○	○	○
Things going well with employee(s)	○	○	○	○
Pleasant smells	○	○	○	○
Getting love	○	○	○	○
Successfully avoiding or dealing with bureaucracy or institutions	○	○	○	○
Making decisions	○	○	○	○

Thinking about the past	○	○	○	○
Giving good advice	○	○	○	○
Praying	○	○	○	○
Meditating	○	○	○	○
Fresh air	○	○	○	○
Confronting someone or something	○	○	○	○
Being accepted	○	○	○	○
Giving love	○	○	○	○
Boss pleased with your work	○	○	○	○
Being alone	○	○	○	○
Feeling safe	○	○	○	○
Working well with fellow workers	○	○	○	○
Knowing your job is secure	○	○	○	○
Feeling safe in your neighborhood	○	○	○	○
Doing volunteer work	○	○	○	○
Contributing to a charity	○	○	○	○

Learning something	○	○	○	○
Being "one" with the world	○	○	○	○
Fixing/repairing something (besides your job)	○	○	○	○
Making something (besides your job)	○	○	○	○
Exercising	○	○	○	○
Meeting a challenge	○	○	○	○
Hugging and/or kissing	○	○	○	○
Flirting	○	○	○	○

DOMESTIC AND PAID WORK INVOLVEMENT MEASURE

Please select the option below which best shows who does what now.

	Partner does all	Partner does most	Partner does more	Both about equal	Self does more	Self does most	Self does all
Setting and enforcing standards for child(ren)'s behavior	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Giving emotional support to your child(ren): being understanding, listening, comforting	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Helping partner with problems, advising	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Helping child(ren) with problems, advising	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Doing things to improve or maintain your relationship	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Giving emotional support to partner: being understanding, listening, comforting	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Earning income: supporting partner and children	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Cooking and menu planning	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Cleaning up after meals	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Grocery shopping	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Laundry: washing, ironing, folding	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Vacuuming, dusting, tidying up house	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Changing diapers and/or toileting	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Bathing child(ren)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Child(ren)'s meals: cooking and feeding	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Child minding and playing, reading, etc.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Getting up to child(ren) at night	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teaching and helping child(ren) with self care	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

(e.g., brushing teeth, dressing)							
Looking after child(ren) if sick	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

GENDER ROLE IDEOLOGY MEASURE

Please answer the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
A job is all right, but what most women really want is a home and children.	○	○	○	○
Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay.	○	○	○	○
A man's job is to earn money; a woman's job is to look after the home and family.	○	○	○	○
All in all, family life suffers when the woman has a full-time job.	○	○	○	○
A preschool child is likely to suffer if his or her mother works.	○	○	○	○

TABLES

Table 17.
Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	25th Percentile	Median	75th Percentile	Max
DAS	70.49	11.85	31	65	72	77	103
Hassles	22.73	24.72	0	5	15	31	106
Uplifts	32.02	32.47	0	10	20	43	139
DPWIM	3.44	.93	.75	3	3.25	3.92	7
Emotional Labor	2.59	1.19	.33	2	2	3.08	7
CHEL	4.42	.98	2.06	3.55	4.47	5	7
HEL	2.97	.62	.73	2.73	3	3.27	5.09
CES-D	21.33	10	1	12	22	28	57
AJS	49.89	14.86	1	42	52	60	78
GRI	14.57	3.45	5	12	15	17	20
Earner Status	.54	.49	0	0	1	1	1
Income Disparity	.64	.14	.5	.5	.58	.73	.95
Relationship Status	2.69	1.49	1	1	3	4	6

N=449. DAS = Dyadic Adjustment Scale; Hassles = Hassle scale; Uplifts = Uplifts Scale; DPWIM = Domestic and Paid Work Involvement Measure; CHEL = Childcare, Housework, and Emotional Labor; HEL = Housework and Emotional Labor; CES-D = Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; GRI = Gender Role Ideology.

Table 18.

Bivariate Correlations for Parents

Variable	DAS	Hassles	Uplifts	PDWIM	Emotional Labor	CHEL	CESD	AJS	GRI	Earner Status	Income Disparity	Gender	Age	RelStat
DAS	1	.028	.096	.382**	.388**	.368**	-.118	.044	-.06	-.218*	.027	-.015	.059	.074
Hassles	.028	1	.067	-.161	-.176*	-.148	.146	-.02	-.07	-.037	.003	.229**	-.03	.088
Uplifts	.096	.067	1	.159	.085	.164	-.23**	.043	.143	-.167	.156	.290**	-.09	.093
DPWIM	.382**	-.161	.159	1	.824**	.996**	-.010	-.12	-.12	-.118	.080	.214*	.037	.044
Emotional Labor	.388**	-.176*	.085	.824**	1	.822**	-.046	-.05	-.15	-.012	.016	.005	.017	.061
CHEL	.368**	-.148	.164	.996**	1**	1.000	-.007	-.14	-.14	-.150	.110	.236*	.043	.039
CESD	-.118	.146	-.227**	-.010	-.046	-.007	1	-.2*	-.3*	.148	-.017	-.100	-.02	-.025
AJS	.044	-.018	.043	-.115	-.052	-.138	-.191*	1	.173*	.068	-.124	-.014	-.07	-.206*
GRI	-.059	-.074	.143	-.121	-.147	-.135	-.26**	.17*	1	-.009	-.020	.136	-.12	.004
Earner Status	-.218*	-.037	-.167	-.118	-.012	-.150	.148	.068	-.01	1	-.460**	-.386**	-.002	-.066
Income Disparity	.027	.003	.156	.080	.016	.110	-.017	-.12	-.02	-.46**	1	.180*	.162	-.082
Gender	-.015	.229**	.290**	.214*	.005	.236**	-.100	-.01	.136	-.39**	.180*	1	.015	.093
Age	.059	-.025	-.092	.037	.017	.043	-.024	-.07	-.12	-.002	.162	.015	1	-.065
RelStat	.074	.088	.093	.044	.061	.039	-.025	-.2*	.004	-.066	-.082	.093	-.07	1

N=136. DAS = Dyadic Adjustment Scale; Hassles = Hassle scale; Uplifts = Uplifts Scale; DPWIM = Domestic and Paid Work Involvement Measure; CHEL = Childcare, Housework, and Emotional Labor; CESD = Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; GRI = Gender Role Ideology; RelStat = Relationship Status.

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

Table 19.

Bivariate Correlations for Non-Parents

Variable	DAS	Hassles	Uplifts	PDWIM	Emotional Labor	HEL	CESD	AJS	GRI	Earner Status	Income Disparity	Gender	Age	RelStat
DAS	1	.022	.012	.290**	.245**	.280**	-.011	.16**	.137*	-.073	-.049	.077	.057	.081
Hassles	.022	1	.088	.039	.055	.033	.178*	-.08	.007	.043	-.089	.078	-.06	.088
Uplifts	.012	.088	1	.010	.021	.012	-.026	.061	-.04	.079	-.071	.052	.076	-.087
DPWIM	.3**	.039	.010	1	.680**	.98**	-.080	.2**	.3**	-.20**	.071	.309**	-.03	.254**
Emotional Labor	.2**	.055	.021	.68**	1	.69**	-.113*	.2**	.2**	-.092	.050	.058	-.00	.186**
HEL	.3**	.033	.012	.981**	.686**	1	-.076	.2**	.4**	-.27**	.093	.347**	-.01	.242**
CESD	-.01	.178**	-.026	-.080	-.113*	-.076	1	-.3**	.022	.076	-.018	.064	-.04	.018
AJS	.2**	-.078	.061	.242**	.178*	.22**	-.29**	1	.13*	-.082	.003	.115*	.029	.115*
GRI	.14*	.007	-.038	.344**	.226**	.36**	.022	.13*	1	-.23**	.142*	.363**	-.02	.154**
Earner Status	-.07	.043	.079	-.202**	-.092	-.3**	.076	-.08	-.2**	1	-.529**	-.294**	-.01	-.072
Income Disparity	-.05	-.089	-.071	.071	.050	.093	-.018	.003	.14*	-.53**	1	.113**	.040	.006
Gender	.077	.078	.052	.309**	.058	.35**	.064	.12*	.4**	-.294*	.113*	1	-.01	.226**
Age	.057	-.056	.076	-.029	-.005	-.014	-.036	.029	-.02	-.012	.040	-.008	1	-.043
RelStat	.081	.088	-.087	.254**	.186**	.24**	.018	.12*	.2**	-.072	.006	.226**	-.04	1

N=449. DAS = Dyadic Adjustment Scale; Hassles = Hassle scale; Uplifts = Uplifts Scale; DPWIM = Domestic and Paid Work Involvement Measure; HEL = Housework and Emotional Labor; CESD = Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression; AJS = Aggregated Job Satisfaction; GRI = Gender Role Ideology; RelStat = Relationship Status.

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

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