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**VARIATIONS IN THE MARITAL ATTITUDES AND MARITAL STATUS OF
BLACK AND WHITE AMERICANS: AN INTERSECTIONAL APPROACH**

by

STACEY ELLEN COLEMAN

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

2017

MAJOR: SOCIOLOGY

Approved By:

Advisor

Date

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DEDICATION

To Inez Bland-Holliman, Josiephine Coleman-Johnson, Eddie Lee Kelly, and Sandra Holliman-Coleman. Their shared lived experiences strongly influenced my perceptions of the social world. The world has been set “afire” Selah...

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

“If I have seen further it is by standing on the shoulders of giants”
(Sir Isaac Newton 1676).

This journey would not have been complete without the assistance, support, encouragement, and guidance of many parties.

Dr. Janet Hankin, I am very pleased and grateful that you decided to accompany me, as advisor and chair in the last lap of this journey. Thank you for your patience, guidance, and words of wisdom. You have made a difference in my life. My dissertation committee: Dr. Khari Brown, Dr. Heather Dillaway, and Dr. Walter Edwards your support, confidence, knowledge and time are so greatly appreciated.

Dr. Leon Wilson, you were there at the beginning. Thank you for believing. Dr. George Ntiri, the journey would not have been complete without your knowledge and guidance. Dr. Mary Cay Sengstock, whose contribution to my academic success was invaluable and will always be cherished.

My parents, Clay and Sandra Coleman, have supplied me with the firm foundation of a loving and supportive family. You are both a true blessing. Scott, Todd, and Lance Coleman, you were each there with encouragement at just the right time, I love you all. Cierra, I see you and appreciate your support, you are irreplaceable. Kristi, this experiment is over, on to the next. I truly appreciate your unique insight. Patricia, you have no idea how you have influenced my life, unforgettable (4-life and thereafter). Finally, Elohim, my rock and resource on all journeys traveled and to come. Thank you.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this dissertation was to assess if the unique socio-demographic positions of Black and White Americans were related to variations in their marital attitudes and marital status, and if the relationships differed according to sex. Variations in marital attitudes and marital status of Blacks and Whites are a topic of research in social science literature (Raley et al 2015; Taylor et al 2010). Unfavorable attitudes related to the current institution of marriage and declines in marital unions are apparent in every racial-ethnic group (Wilcox and Marquardt 2010). Some scholars contend that when compared to Whites, Blacks are more likely to have unfavorable attitudes about the current institution of marriage and are less likely to marry (Taylor et al 2010). While other scholars suggest that the lived experiences and social realities of Black Americans and particularly, Black women, are not compatible with a hegemonic institution of marriage, modeled after middle-class White America that promotes patriarchy and a nuclear family structure (Chaney 2011; Hill 2005, 2006; Johnson and Loscocco 2015).

Racial differences in marital attitudes and marital behaviors have implications for individual, as well as family outcomes. Social scientists argue that marriage has a positive impact on the overall well-being of children (Haskins 2015; Popenoe 2008; Ribar 2015) and adult women and men (Murray 2000; Schoenberg 2004; Steinsultz 2006). Recent studies suggest that marital attitudes and behaviors in opposition to those of dominant culture norms that include the nuclear family or the male-breadwinner/female-homemaker ideology, contribute to the growth in family inequality (e.g. Lundberg et al 2016; Ribar 2015; Wilcox et al 2015). In this dissertation, I contend

that to understand marriage as an institution and racial variations in marital attitudes and marital status, an examination of the connection of these factors to socio-demographic factors that direct human experiences, thoughts, ideas, and behaviors related to social institutions is needed (Chappell and Waylen 2013; Collins and Bilge 2016; Nash and Calonico 1993). Given that there were differences in marital attitudes and marital status by race and sex, two questions became important: 1) Are socio-demographic differences for marital attitudes related to race and sex; and 2.) Are variations in marital status of Black and White Americans situated by the interplay of socio-demographic factors?

Previous research suggests that structural, cultural, and individual factors contribute to racial variations in marital attitudes and marital status (Cherlin 2009; Dixon 2009; Raley et al 2015; Sawhill 2015; Wilcox et al 2015). What is meant by structural factors is the decline in the male/female wage gap, high rates of unemployment, underemployment, intermittent employment, low-wage paying jobs, incarceration, mortality, and low rates of educational attainment among Black men (Dixon 2009; Raley et al 2015). Cultural factors consist of shifts in societal norms, such as, the decline in 'familistic' and the rise of 'individualistic' attitudes related to the organization of adult life, increased educational attainment, participation of women in the paid labor force, economic independence of women from men, relaxation of norms associated with divorce, sex outside of marriage, unmarried cohabitation, and increased separation of marriage from childbearing, which make marriage more of an option today than ever before in history (Amato et al 2007; Cherlin 2009; Dixon 2009; Raley et al 2015; Wilcox et al 2015). Individual factors refer to the "internalization of cultural values that affect

[individual's attitudes]" (Dixon 2009: 29) about conformity to mainstream or dominant culture norms related to marriage and family (Hattery and Smith 2007; Hill 2005).

Taken together, these studies suggest that relative to marriage, race and sex may be related in some complex fashion. Yet how race and sex intersect to influence marital attitudes and behaviors of Blacks and Whites at the individual level requires further investigation. While Blacks and Whites occupy markedly different social locations within society, heterogeneity also exists within these subgroups (Brown 2012; Dozier 2010; Grollman 2014). Race and sex are two primary forces that situate social groups and individuals differentially into positions of privilege/power versus oppression/subordination (Zinn and Dill 1996). Nevertheless, quantitative analysis demonstrates that at the individual level, "people experience race and sex differentially depending upon their social location in the structures of race [class] and sex" (Zinn and Dill 1996:326-327). In addition, research on race and sex and how they simultaneously intersect and function as systems of inequality is limited (Collins and Bilge 2016; Harnois 2009).

Little is known about how other socio-demographic factors including age, education, employment status, and income, as well as the interaction between race and sex to influence human experiences, ideas, thoughts, and behavior (Collins and Bilge 2016; Zinn and Dill 1996). Limited research has been published on how these social factors are associated with racial variations in attitudes and outcomes related to marriage. Recent studies suggest that socio-demographic factors have some bearing on Blacks' and Whites' marital attitudes and marital status (Lundberg and Pollak 2015; Raley et al 2015; Stanik et al 2013; Wilcox et al 2015). Although most studies have

focused on the effects of individual socio-demographic variables on marital attitudes and behaviors (Furdyna et al 2008), other researchers have investigated the impact of combinations of socio-demographic factors on these variables (Gibson-Davis and Murry 2009). Determining if a complete set of socio-demographic factors, that socially locate individuals within the social structure, are associated with the marital attitudes and marital status of Black and White American men and women has not been the focus of previous research.

Drawing on individual-level, attitudinal, marital, and socio-demographic data collected from the 2010 Changing American Family Survey, the two aims of this research study are:

Aim 1: to assess whether socio-demographic factors were related to marital *attitudes* of Black versus White Americans and if the relationships varied by sex.

Aim #2: to assess whether socio-demographic factors had a differential impact on the marital *status* of Black versus White Americans and if they varied by sex.

Significance of the Study

An investigation of the relationship between socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital status of Black versus White Americans and if they differ by sex is important to social science literature for several reasons. First, this study uses an intersectional framework that serves to increase an understanding of how interlocking systems of power relations (i.e., race and sex) shape ideas and behaviors associated with institutional (i.e., marriage) processes and outcomes of Black and White women

(Collins and Bilge 2016; Harnois 2009). This approach brings the significance of variations in women's individual characteristics and lived experiences that are affected by their social location according to intersecting social hierarchies such as race and sex to the forefront (Harnois 2009). Thus, this study contributes to feminist social science research, as well as social science research in general, by highlighting how differential social locations shape marital attitudes and marital behaviors of Black and White women.

Second, few previous studies created a multi-item attitude scale that investigated if socio-demographic factors were associated with marital attitudes related to a 'familistic' and/or 'individualistic' ethos. Cherlin (2009) in "The Marriage-Go-Round: The State of Marriage and Family in America" describes a familistic (or marriage) ethos as an attitude that holds marriage in high esteem as a family form and views married as the "most prestigious way to live your life" (Cherlin 2009: 9). The author further referred to an 'individualistic' ethos as an attitude that emphasizes the importance of an individual's need for self-expression and personal growth throughout the adult life course, even if at the expense of marriage and family (Cherlin 2009). In addition, past studies investigating variations in marital ethos within the American population, while controlling for race, implied that relationships between variables hold true simply because of similar racial characteristics or geography (e.g., Cherlin 2009). While applicable when examining the general U.S. population, studies controlling for race are limited in explanation at the individual level. This study examines the relationship between several measured variables to determine if there is a shared understanding relative to the concept of 'individualism.' Examination of the shared understanding of the

concept of “individualism” served two purposes: (1.) it ensured that this social phenomenon (i.e., individualism) carried the same meaning and (2.) it revealed if the relationship between socio-demographic factors and marital attitudes differed for women across racial groups (Harnois 2009).

Third, linking marital attitudes to racial variations in marital behavior, remains a puzzle among social scientists (e.g., Cherlin 2008). This dissertation addressed the lacuna in social research by examining the relationships between marital attitudes related to the achievement of “personal goals” and marital attitudes; “... is the current institution of marriage becoming obsolete?”; “What kind of marriage ... is the best way of life?”; and “What is the easiest way to raise a family?”; “...is it easier for a single person or a married person to - be financially secure, get ahead in a career, have social status, find happiness, or have a fulfilling sex life;” to assess if views on the current hegemonic (modeled after middle-class, White America) institution of marriage and its biased structure relative to sex norms are associated differentially with the marital behavior of Blacks and Whites.

Organization of Study

This dissertation is organized in the following respect: Chapter 2 reviews the most recent literature related to marital attitudes and marital status of Black and White Americans and socio-demographic factors, provides a statement of research hypotheses, description of theoretical perspective, and theoretical model. Chapter 3 includes an overview of data source, descriptive statistics, measures, and plan of statistical analyses. Chapter 4 discusses findings from preliminary analyses of data, and a series of parametric and non-parametric techniques that were used as an initial test of

this study's two hypotheses. Chapter 5 provides findings from a series of multivariate techniques: (1) an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) used to create a multi-item attitudinal scale that represented "familistic" and "individualistic" marital attitudes; (2) a series of ordinary least squares regressions that estimated the association between socio-demographic factors and marital attitudes; and (3) a series of binary logistic regression analyses that assessed the relationship among socio-demographic predictors of marital attitudes for the Full-Sample, Blacks versus Whites, and females versus males. Chapter 6 describes findings from a series of binary logistic regression analyses of the odds in occurrence of marriage by socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and socio-demographic factors and marital attitudes, according to race and sex. Chapter 7 includes an overall summary of the study, conclusions, discussion of study's strengths and weaknesses, directions for future research, and policy implications.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter 2 includes a comprehensive review of the available literature related to socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital status of Black-White Americans. Building on Chapter 1, this study's theoretical perspective that was used to analyze and interpret data is presented along with a theoretical model that illustrates associations between independent (i.e. socio-demographic factors) and dependent variables (i.e. marital attitudes and marital status). Second, available literature emphasizing marital attitudes and marital status of Black and White Americans is described. Third, the significance of socio-demographics factors, with a focus on race and sex, relative to the institution of marriage is presented. Throughout the review of literature, a comparative analysis of Black and White Americans occurs where possible.

Race, Class, and Gender (RCG) Theory: An Intersectional Approach

This study employed race, class, and gender (RCG) theory as the theoretical framework. The intersectional approach of this theory highlights how two of primary social hierarchies, race and sex that organize and locate actors (Ridgeway 2009), simultaneously converge to reinforce systems of advantage (e.g. patriarchy) and disadvantage (e.g. sexism/racism). These systems shape access to opportunities and experiences with respect to social institutions (Collins and Bilge 2016; Hill 1991) and “vary depending on the actor's position (e.g. race and sex) in the social hierarchy” (Hattery and Smith 2007: 8). Accordingly, the intersectional approach brings to the forefront how unique social locations and lived experiences of Black and White women and men construct qualitatively different ideas, thoughts, and subsequently, behaviors

with respect to hegemonic ideologies (Berger and Guidroz 2009; Hattery and Smith 2007; Zinn and Dill 1997).

Over the past two decades, RCG theory has extended across humanities, social sciences, natural sciences and has been used in studies examining adolescent female identity, class identity, race, age, education, paid and household labor, domestic violence, colonialism, work and organizations, and African American families (Acker 2006; Bettie 2000; Dillaway and Broman 2001; Glenn 2002; Hattery and Smith 2007; Higginbotham and Romero 1997; McClintock 1995; Weis and Fine 2000; Yoshihama 1999). Figure 1 illustrates this study's theoretical model that can be used to predict relationships between socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, marital status and the proposed relationship between marital attitudes and marital status for Black and White Americans.

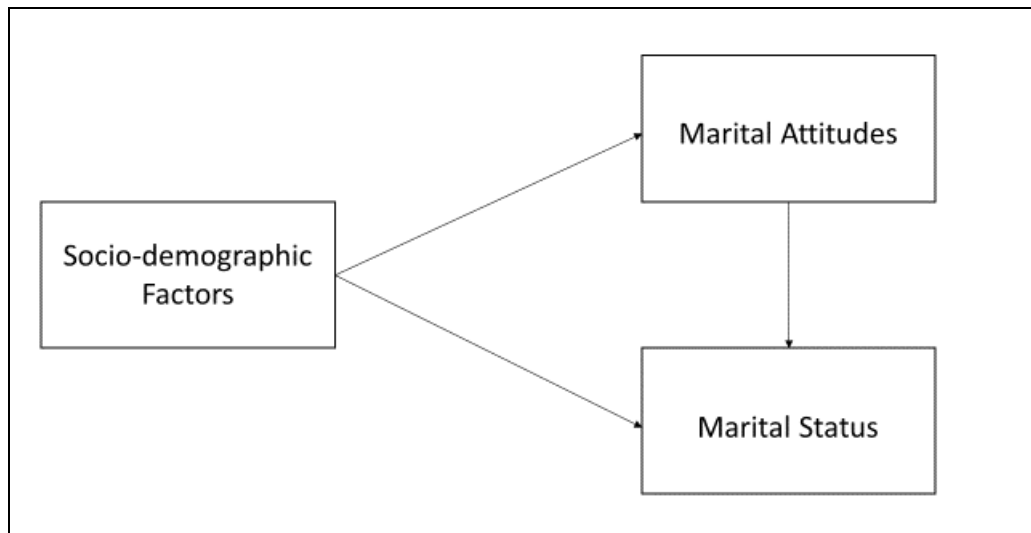


Figure 1 Theoretical model illustrating the predicted relationship for Blacks and Whites between socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, marital status, and the proposed association between marital attitudes and marital status.

Marital Attitudes and Marital Status

Background

Over the last several decades, the United States has experienced vast and profound changes related to the institution of marriage. Examination of the most recent and available U.S. Census Bureau (2015) data offered insight on changes in American marital behavior. For example, from 1950 to 2015, rates of marriage declined from 67% to 52% in the general population. Prior to this period, death of a spouse was the primary reason for a marriage ending. However, during this time frame, rates of widowhood declined (from 8% to 6%), while rates of divorce soared from 2% to 10%. Although, rates of divorce increased substantially from 1950 to 2015, they leveled off (at a high rate) by the 1990s. At the same time, the proportion of Americans who never married climbed from 23% to 32% (U.S. Census Bureau 2015).

Changes in marital status suggest that there has been a weakening in the strength of marriage as an organizing force for adult life among the general U.S. population (Cherlin 2004). Disaggregation of data (U.S. Census Bureau 2015) related to American marital behavior offers a picture of often missed nuances. Focusing on this study's target population (i.e., Black and White Americans), teasing census data apart revealed shifts in marital behavior that are more explicit when examined by race. For example, from 1950 and 2015, marriage rates fell from 67% to 55% for Whites and dropped from 63% to 35% for Blacks (U.S. Census Bureau 2015). Indicating that in the last 65 years, Blacks (32%) have experienced a precipitous decline in marital unions nearly three times that of Whites (12%). At the same time, widowers increased from 6% to 8% for Whites and declined from 10% to 6% for Blacks. While rates of divorce climbed from 2% to 10% and 2% to 11% among Whites and Blacks, respectively. These

changes were joined by a population of never-married individuals that increased from 23% to 29% for Whites and doubled among Black Americans (from 24% to 48%). The data revealed that between group variations are evident between Black and White Americans.

However, further disaggregation of data by race and sex revealed more differences in marriage behaviors within these racial groups. From 1950 to 2015, rates of marriage among White men and women declined from 68% to 56% and 66% to 54% respectively. For Black men, and particularly Black women, reductions in rates of marriage were much greater. During this period, Black men experienced a precipitous decline in rate of marriage from 64% to 38% (U.S. Census Bureau 2015). Thus, from 1950 and 2015, the rate of marital decline for Black men was more than twice that of their White counterparts. However, compared to all other subgroups the decline in marriage was more prevalent among Black women. Specifically in 1950, 62% of Black women were married and by 2015 that rate had decreased to 32% (U.S. Census Bureau 2015). Thus, the data suggested that in 65 years, the decline in marriage for Black women (30%) slightly exceeded that of Black men (26%) and was approaching four times that of White men (8%) and women (8%).

High rates of divorce and never-married contributed to changes in marriage rates among the general U.S. population. An increased understanding of what role divorce and never-marriage play in relationship to shifts in marital status among Black and White women and men needs attention. Maintaining a focus on the time frame of 1950 to 2015, the U.S. Census Bureau (2015) reported that rates of divorce for White men rose from 2% to 9% and 2% to 12% for White women. At the same time, divorce among

Black men rose at a rate comparable to that of White men from 2% to 9% and Black women experienced a climb in rate of divorce comparable to that of White women (from 3% to 13%). Dramatic variations are evident, however, when examining changes overtime among the never-married population by race and sex.

In 1950, 26% of White men had never married and in 2015, the proportion had increased to 32% (U.S. Census Bureau 2015). The rise of never married among Black men (28% to 50%) was nearly twice that of White men. At the same time, the proportion of never-married White women rose from 20% to 25%, while the never marriage percent among Black women more than doubled, increasing from 21% to 47%. Thus, in slightly more than five decades, the never-married population of Black women experienced a significant (26%) increase that was slightly (3%) more than that of Black men but, five times more than that of White men (6%) and White women (5%).

In addition to these trends in marital behavior, Americans have experienced profound changes in family structure. Coupled with the decline in marital unions among Black and White Americans, living arrangements of children also were altered. The most recent available data (U. S. Census Bureau, 2015) indicated that from 1960 to 2015, White children under 18 years of age living in a two-parent household declined from 91% to 75%, while Black children experienced a drop from 67% to 39%. The decline of two-parent households was replaced by an increase in single-parent, mother-only families that tripled during this period, jumping from 6% to 18% for White and increasing from 20% to 49% for Black children (U.S. Census Bureau 2015). These changes suggested that nearly one-fifth of White and one-half of Black children are experiencing an alteration in family structure within their lifetime.

Unlike the past, many children residing in single-parent households are being reared by parents that have never-married. The data showed that in 2015, 13% and 3% of White children lived with a never-married mother or father, only, respectively. Rates for Black children living with a never-married mother or father were dramatically higher at respectively, 82% and 59% (U.S. Census Bureau 2015). These data indicated that a substantial proportion of Black and White children were experiencing living arrangements in opposition to that of the traditional nuclear family. A population of children also is being reared in unmarried, two-parent households (Payne et al 2012). The U.S. Census Bureau (2015) reported that 4% of White and 12% of Black children were residing in households consisting of their two-biological parents who were not married. In contrast to Whites, lone-parenting among Blacks in the 21st century appears to be primarily the result of never-marriage rather than marital dissolution. Additional research is needed to determine if racial variations in marital status is related to the unique lived experiences of Black and White Americans dictated by their socio-demographic positions and if these differences vary by sex.

Taken together, data suggested that decline in marriage rates of Americans has been linked to an increased acceptance of divorce, never-marriage, or births to never-married and unmarried cohabiting single-parents (Payne, Manning, and Brown 2012). The changes in marriage rates reflect alterations in marital attitudes among Black and White Americans (Cherlin 2010). Although the social institution of marriage was once a primary force in the regulation, guidance, and structure of adult and family life, it is now one of several arrangements in the adult life course (Cherlin 2004). Based on these

trends, variations are expected in marital attitudes and marital status among Black and White women and men.

A growing body of literature, suggested that attitudes associated with “individualism” and “familism,” the hegemonic (modeled after middle-class White America) and patriarchal structure of marriage, division of household and childcare responsibilities between men/women, and preference for the traditional nuclear family as opposed to single-parent or extended kin network as a method of organizing family life contribute to variations in Black and White women and men’s marital status (Amato et al 2007; Cherlin 2009; Dixon 2009; Hattery and Smith 2007; Hill 2005, 2006; Raley et al 2015; Ridgeway 2009; Sayer and Fine 2011; Taylor et al 1999; Wilcox and Nock 2007). However, analyses of individual attitudinal components of marital status in the context of “familistic” and “individualistic” ethos, the current institution of marriage, specialized sex roles, and family structure need more attention. The unique social positions and lived experiences of Black and White Americans may be related to ideas, thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors (Collins and Bilge 2016). Determining if these relationships are associated with marital attitudes and marital status and if the relationships vary according sex needs to be addressed in greater detail.

Familistic v. Individualistic

Shifts in marital behavior among Blacks and Whites suggested that marriage has lost some of its fervor as a means of organizing one’s adult life. Few studies have analyzed variations in American’s “familistic” and “individualistic” attitudes. A small yet growing body of literature (Amato et al 2007; Cherlin 2009), associated the rise of “individualism” with changes in marital attitudes and marital status among Americans. In

“The Marriage-Go-Round: The State of Marriage and Family in America Today,” Cherlin (2009) examined structural and cultural changes that occurred during the second half of the 20th century and how these changes influenced American marriage and family life. To assess these changes, Cherlin (2009) used data from the 2002 Fertility and Family Survey for comparison of American marriage and family patterns with two other Western countries: Britain and France. Cherlin (2009) found that at the end of the 20th century, Americans were transitioning in and out of marriage and other intimate relationships (i.e. unmarried cohabitation) much more frequently than adults in other Western countries. He attributed variations in marital behavior or the “merry-go-round” of relationships/partners, to the presence of two contradictory models of marriage, the cultural model of “marriage” and the cultural model of “individualism” that Americans referenced when organizing their social worlds.

Cherlin (2009) described the cultural model of “marriage” (which is familistic in nature), as “contain[ing] the following elements:

- Marriage is the best way to live one’s family life;
- A marriage should be a permanent, loving relationship;
- A marriage should be a sexually exclusive partnership;
- Divorce should be a last resort” (Cherlin 2009:26).

In sum, referencing the cultural model of “marriage” includes the desire to participate in a lifelong monogamous and intimate commitment and develop a conventional family arrangement between parties.

While the “individualistic” cultural model, which Cherlin (2009) described as more pronounced among Americans compared to other Western countries “emphasizes the following elements:

- One’s primary obligation is to oneself rather than to one’s partner and children;
- Individuals must make choices over the life course about the kinds of intimate lives they wish to lead;
- A variety of living arrangements are acceptable;
- People who are personally dissatisfied with marriages and other intimate partnerships are justified in ending them” (Cherlin 2009:31).

In contrast to the “cultural” model of marriage, the “individualistic” cultural model shifts in focus from the needs of the family unit to that of the individual (Cherlin 2009). Cherlin (2009) argued that dependent on individual circumstances; Americans now “flip-flop” between “familistic” and “individualistic” marriage models when organizing their adult world. Cherlin’s (2009) account of variations in marital ethos addressed variations in marital attitudes and marital status of Americans in general. Whether “familistic” and “individualistic” marital attitudes are associated with socio-demographic factors and if the relationships vary among Black and White women and men remains unclear.

In “Do Men Need A Spouse More than Women? Perceptions of the Importance of Marriage for Men and Women,” Kaufman and Goldscheider (2007) used data from the 1992-1994 wave of the National Survey of Families and Households (NSFH2), to address perceived necessity of marriage for women and men using a sample of Black, White, Hispanic, and Asian American women and men. The authors found that at the end of the 20th century, both women and men felt that women needed marriage less than men. In the advent of increased educational attainment, paid labor force

participation, economic independence from men, relaxation of divorce laws and norms related to marital dissolution, unmarried cohabitation, and nonmarital births, many women viewed marriage as less of a necessity and more of an option than before (Amato et al 2007; Cherlin 2009). Gibson-Davis and Murry (2009) found that the economic low-income parents were less likely to marry.

Of equal importance, research of Kaufman and Goldscheider (2007) revealed that women rather than men were more inclined to express “individualistic” as opposed to “familistic” attitudes related to marriage. Increased educational attainment and presence of women in the paid labor force, coupled with their ability to achieve economic self-sufficiency, has altered the significance of marriage for women as an organizing force for adult life (Cherlin 2004). Further, women’s increased earning power has given them greater leverage in marital arrangements, because women no longer need economic support from men and are a financial asset to a marital union. Many women are demanding more social and emotional compatibility void of an economic provision (Boyd and Bridges 2016).

The increased desire among women to obtain more than economic support from a mate is not acceptable for all men. Hurt et al (2014) examined married Black men’s opinions on why Black women are disproportionately single and found that Black men (specifically, Black men who were married) viewed increased independence and individualistic attitudes of Black women as unattractive and a contributing factor to their significantly unmarried state.

Appreciation for the increased independence and individualistic attitudes of women may vary by level of education and income. Amato et al. (2007) in “Alone

Together: How Marriage in America is Changing” examined how marriage in America changed during the last two decades of the 20th century. The authors used data from two national surveys, the first wave of the 1980 Marital Instability over the Life Course study (Booth, Johnson, White, and Edwards 1981) and the 2000 Survey of marriage and Family Life to examine the marital attitudes and behaviors using a sample consisting of married individual’s.

Amato et al (2007) found that a shift in social norms from a familistic to an individualistic focus, where spouses appease the self-expression and personal growth of each other, placed the bar for the achievement of marital happiness and stability extremely high. In the first half of their analyses, Amato et al (2007) assessed that between 1980 and 2000, the rise of an “individualistic” ethos was associated with a decline in marital stability among Americans. During this period, Amato et al (2007) found that marriage shifted from a patriarchal breadwinner-homemaker model stance to one that was more egalitarian. As wives increased their presence in the labor force, they became substantial contributors to the financial well-being of the family unit and active agents in the decision-making process within the household. At the same time, husbands’ earning power shifted from primary to equal or secondary within the marital union and their participation in household labor as well as child care responsibilities also expanded, suggesting that marital attitudes related to “hegemonic masculinity”, or the “narrowly constrained expectations of men’s appropriate behavior” (Freidman 2015:140) relative to work and home, were going through a transitional period.

A “person-centered” approach was used to identify the marital stability of groups of married couples who shared (or differed on) multiple characteristics. Relying on

cluster analysis of married individuals within the sample having similar characteristics and using a straightforward, parsimonious categorization of parties, Amato et al (2007) found the following five groupings:

- disadvantaged, young, single-earner marriages, 18%;
- working-class, young, dual-earner marriages, 32%;
- working-class/middle-class, traditional, single-earner marriages, 30%;
- middle-class, egalitarian, dual-earner marriages, 14%;
- upper-middle-class, prosperous, mostly dual-earner marriages, 6%.

As illustrated above, the research of Amato et al (2007) revealed that from 1980 to 2000, married couples had begun to embrace both traditional (single-earner) and unconventional (dual-earner) attitudes towards marriage (Cherlin 2009; Wilcox and Nock 2007). However, the most favorable marital attitudes and marital quality were found among higher income married couples who exhibited more of an “individualistic” marriage ethos (Amato et al 2007). The lived experiences of Black and White women and men are expected to dictate variations in marital attitudes and marital status, by race and sex.

The Current Institution of Marriage

Over the last several decades, rates of marriage in the United States have declined among every racial-ethnic group. Yet, they have declined most among Blacks and particularly, Black women (U.S. Census Bureau 2015). Studies contend that there is a faltering in Americans attitudes related to the current institution of marriage that has impacted marital proclivity (Taylor et al 2010; Wilcox and Marquart 2010). In “The Decline of Marriage and the Rise of New Families,” Taylor et al. (2010), using 2010 Pew

Research Center data, found adults less than 50 years of age, individual's having less than a four-year college degree, and Blacks more often than Whites felt that the current institution of marriage is becoming obsolete. The Taylor et al study (2010) is largely descriptive in content and offers a good example of how quantitative analyses are limited in depth and breadth void an intersectional approach.

Structural changes in the United States have affected the marital attitudes and marital status of young and old Blacks and Whites. The late 20th century shift from industry to technology/service sector mode of production, left many older and younger Americans who lack educational preparation and have limited skills unable to thrive or compete in the current labor market (Danziger and Ratner 2010; Wilcox and Marquardt 2010). Scholars argued that a lack of educational requisites, poor employment prospects, and lower income have affected marital attitudes of young adults and adults adversely, with men more than women and Blacks more so than Whites negatively affected (Berlin, Furstenberg, and Waters 2010; Danziger and Ratner 2010; Sironi and Furstenberg 2012; Dixon 2009).

In "Trends in the Economic Independence of Young Adults in the United States: 1973-2007," Sironi and Furstenberg (2012) examined data from the National Longitudinal Survey original cohorts (NLS), NLSY79, and NLSY97, to determine how timing of entry into the labor market and achievement of financial independence has changed since the 1970s, how trends differed between young men and women, as well as if there was a convergence between men and women in employment and financial independence overtime. The authors found an prolongation of the transition to adulthood over the last four decades of the 20th century that had a negative impact on

family formation, particularly among young men. Obstacles were most apparent for the less-educated (having less than a 4-year college degree), as reduction in demand for low-skilled labor, stagnation of a living wage, increased outsourcing of labor, and weakening of labor unions, and depleted labor force opportunities for low- and unskilled Americans. These circumstances negatively affected the labor force participation of low- and unskilled young adult males and adult males in general. In sum, labor force transitions have had a negative effect on marital attitudes and marital entry among a significant proportion of Black and many White men (Murray 2012; Oppenheimer 2000; Oppenheimer et al 1997; Lichter et al 1992; Raley et al 2015; Wilson 1997).

During this period, women experienced increased levels of educational attainment, labor force participation, and income status. Sironi and Furstenberg (2012) found that women's economic prosperity was less important than men's when considering marital entry. While these shifts in economic self-sufficiency were apparent among the general population, their effects were more perverse for Black Americans, because the current institution of marriage reinforces a patriarchal stance that emphasizes the traditional male-breadwinner/female-homemaker family model. This model embraces the subordination of women due to the economic superiority of men (Hattery and Smith 2007) and specifically, dictates that the male/husband is to be the sole or primary financial resource for the family unit and thus ruler of the household and all its members. The female/wife is charged with the responsibilities of domestic labor, child care, and subordination to the male/husband (Hattery and Smith 2007). The male-breadwinner/female-homemaker family model is a longstanding cultural "ideal" type admired by both Black and White Americans (Cherlin 2009; Hill 2005). This family

model stands in stark contradiction to the lived experiences of Black women and men (Hill 2006; Johnson and Loscocco 2015). For example, due to systemic racism, discrimination, and marginalization from the paid labor force, Black American men have historically contended with economic constraints (e.g., high rates of unemployment and incarceration, intermittent employment, low wage jobs, and wage disparities compared to White men) that have impaired their ability to assume the male-provider role (Dixon 2009; Glauber 2008; Hill 2005; Raley et al 2015; Wilson 1996). Thus, Black women have traditionally worked in the paid labor force and made necessary financial contributions to ensure survival of the family (Hill 2006; Johnson and Loscocco 2015). These lived experiences shape the attitudes of Black women and men, regarding the practicality of a hegemonic family model.

The descriptive analysis of Johnson and Loscocco (2015) emphasized that Black women as opposed to White women, faced a “double bind” in respect to the current institution of marriage. In the current marriage model, the social hierarchies of race and sex intersect and place many Black women in a position of dual disadvantage, because most Black men aspire to the traditional marriage model which dictates that the husband is ruler of the household and all members due to economic superiority (Hattery and Smith 2007; Taylor et al 1999). Despite the economic contributions of Black women to the family unit, Black women must constantly subordinate power over household or family decisions to Black men who are wrestling with the desire to project hegemonic masculinity. However, hegemonic masculinity is not realistic for the Black family unit, because economic resources of Black men are limited (in many cases) to the extent of economic impotence (Hill 2005).

Anderson (2008), Dixon (2009) and other scholars (Seitz 2009; Lane et al 2004; Furdyna et al 2008; Lichter et al 1992; Wilson 1987, 1996) described insufficient economic circumstances as a catalyst for poor attitudes toward the current institution of marriage. However, economic factors alone do not explain marital attitudes among Black men or women. Individual factors may play some role in attitudes related to the current institution of marriage. Cherlin et al. (2008) tested three propositions drawn from the study of Edin and Kefalas (2005) regarding mothers' attitudes toward childbearing, marriage, and divorce, using data from the Three-City Study Survey of low income families in Boston, Chicago, and San Antonio, along with supplementary information from an ethnographic sample of families in the same neighborhoods. Cherlin et al. (2008) suggested that beyond gaining stable employment, financial security, and enduring a deteriorating pool of attractive "marriageable" men, internalized constraints that were subject to individual circumstances also may play key roles in marital attitudes and marital status.

Specialized Sex Roles

The current institution of marriage is organized by the social hierarchy of sex, that works as a primary cultural frame that defines difference and determines status inequality. Marriage has historically functioned under a patriarchal belief system that privileges men over women (Ridgeway 2009). A study by Freidman (2015) suggested that the "stalled revolution" of Hochschild (1989) remains "stalled." Men's participation in traditionally feminine activities, such as household and childcare responsibilities, are limited compared to women's immersion in historically male labor force activity. The stalled revolution may be the result of a cultural lag among both women and men.

Wilcox and Nock (2007) in, "Her' Marriage After the Revolutions," used data from the second wave of the National Survey of Families and Households to evaluate self-reported quality of women's marriage in the aftermath of both the gender and family revolutions that respectively aided in the increased presence of women in the paid labor force and witnessed a rise in "individualism" and reduced influence of social norms related to "institutionalized" marital arrangements among Americans in general.

The findings of Wilcox and Nock (2007) reflected both the traditional marriage model and the "individualized" cultural model of marriage. The authors found that married women felt the greatest marital satisfaction when their husbands contributed somewhat to domestic and childcare responsibilities, but also maintained the traditional position of male-breadwinner. Marital attitudes of American women regarding specialized sex role arrangements were dependent upon the husbands' ability to fulfill the male-provider role.

Women's attitudes toward sex role arrangements in marriage may vary by level of education. Cunningham (2008) used data from the Intergenerational Panel Study of Parents and Children and latent growth modeling techniques to identify patterns and predictors of attitude change related to support for the male-breadwinner/female-homemaker ideology using a sample (N=848) of White mothers in the metro-Detroit area, from 1977 through 1993. The author found that White women who entered the paid labor force during this period experienced a decline in support for the male-breadwinner/female-homemaker family model. Educational attainment also played a role in women's attitudes, as higher-educated White women were more likely than less-educated White women to have negative attitudes towards the traditional family model.

Bridges and Boyd (2016) in their descriptive analysis, "On the Marriageability of Men", examined the various definitions of "marriageability" related to men, as a method of increasing our understanding of differences in perceptions of marriage worthiness among diverse groups of Americans. Bridges and Boyd (2016) argued that structural, cultural, and individual factors have influenced women's perceptions of marriageability. In recent years, many women have achieved educational attainment, success within the paid labor force, and economic self-sufficiency. A significant proportion of heterosexual women who desire marriage set their sights on a male partner who is supportive of their individual desire and personal aspirations rather than financial security.

A study by Hattrey and Smith (2007) suggested that Black men have embraced the ideal of hegemonic masculinity that can place a strain on marital attitudes. Stanik et al (2013) using data from the 3-year longitudinal study of [Black] American family relationships in two-parent [Black] American families, examined attitudes of 146 married Black couples who were parents regarding the division of household labor, time with children, parental knowledge, and their trajectory of marital love. The authors found that although Black men contributed to household and family responsibilities, Black men with patriarchal views regarding sex roles arrangements in marriage reported the least favorable outcomes of marital love, while there was no significant relationship for Black women.

Addressing the promotion of marriage initiatives, Harris and Parisi (2008) conducted 56 semi-structured interviews with ever- and never-married Black mothers, with a history of welfare receipt, to examine how they viewed marriage as an avenue out of poverty and welfare dependency. Most women considered marriage a personal

goal, but apprehensive attitudes were associated with difficulty in finding an attractive “marriageable” mate or “Mr. Right.” Many Black women’s marital aspirations did not entail dominant norms of the male-breadwinner/female-homemaker family model. Most Black women have been reared to understand that self-reliance, independence, and financial inclusiveness are characteristics of a Black women married or not (Blum and Deussen 1996; Chaney 2011; Dow 2016; Packer-Williams 2009). Many Black women perceived that a dual-earner household was the most ideal platform to ensure marital feasibility (Harris and Parisi 2008; Chaney and Marsh 2009).

A substantial body of qualitative literature indicated economic viability played an overarching role in the marital attitudes of low-income women in general and particularly, Blacks. Burton and Tucker (2009) used data from the ethnographic component of their *Welfare, Children, and Families: A Three-City Study*, a multilevel, multi-method longitudinal project designed to examine the lives of urban African American, Mexican American, Puerto Rican and non-Hispanic White low-income families with children in Boston, Chicago, and San Antonio. The authors described the daily lives of impoverished Black women as overwhelmed with “uncertainties” that negatively influenced attitudes related to the institution of marriage. Specifically, many wrestled with what Burton and Tucker (2009) described as temporal uncertainties. These uncertainties primarily focused on the ability to maneuver daily social, familial, and personal demands successfully and sufficiently when faced with limited economic resources. Sex role uncertainties resulted from vast structural and cultural changes related to educational attainment and labor force participation experiences of Black men. According to Burton and Tucker (2009), many low-income Black women felt that

marriage was impractical, as their prospects for marital unions were limited to Black men who lacked or were limited in their ability to fulfill the male-provider role. Black women and men for the most part agreed that a dual-earner compared to a single-breadwinner household offered a family unit more economic security (Taylor et al 1996). Many women were unwilling to marry and be subjected to patriarchal rule because their marriage prospects often lacked economic suitability,.

In her qualitative study “The Character of Womanhood: How African American Women’s Perceptions of Womanhood Influence Marriage and Motherhood”, Chaney (2011) analyzed the written narrative responses of 15 Black women between 18 and 55 years of age to gain a better understanding of “1.) How do [Black American] women define womanhood? 2.) How do [Black American] women practice womanhood? 3.) How do [Black American] women understand and perceive womanhood, and how might these ideas influence the choice that they make regarding marriage and motherhood?” (Chaney 2011: 513). In contrast to Burton and Tucker (2009), Chaney (2011) found that Black women described maintaining traditional household and childcare responsibilities as expected staples in any relationship. Their study revealed that many Black women viewed contributing to the economic provision of the family unit was a duty that was characteristic of “womanhood.” Many Black American women felt that submission to male dominance when required was a significant requirement of “womanhood.”

The marital behavior of Blacks and particularly Black women are subject to structural and cultural factors and differ from that of the dominant culture. Due to historical economic constraints, Black women have been traditionally reared to be self-reliant, goal oriented, and economic producers (Hill 2005). Because most Black men

often have difficulty in achieving the status of predominant economic provider, Black women have begun to consider economic provision a secondary characteristic when selecting a mate (Beamon 2009; Marsh et al 2011). The ethnographic study of Beamon (2009) in “I Didn’t Work this Hard Just to Get Married” found that many higher educated, upper income Black women viewed the financial circumstances of a Black male to be of little consequence for a potential mate. Beamon (2009) found that most Black women preferred a Black male who could relate to them socially and without exhibiting insecurities. Bridges and Boyd (2016) in a descriptive analysis found that higher educated and upper income women in general were more interested in social compatibility than their ability to fulfill the male-provider role.

However, studies showed that Black women are more liberal regarding their views on sex role arrangements in marriage, while Black men have a more conservative stance (Hill 2005; Hurt et al 2014; Stanik et al 2013). Hurt et al (2014) in her qualitative study, “Married Black Men’s Opinions as to Why Black Women are Disproportionately Single: A Qualitative Study,” explored reasons Black men perceived Black women were marrying at lower rates. Findings revealed that Black men viewed the increased educational attainment and economic independence of Black women as decreasing Black women’s attractiveness as potential mates. Many Black men felt that the educational and financial achievements of Black women contributed to a strain in their ability to form relationships.

Family Structure

In the last several decades, norms related to family structure have shifted to the extent that unmarried cohabitation, unmarried births, and single-parent households,

especially female-headed, have become commonplace. Changes in attitudes toward family structure are evident among every racial-ethnic group, but are most pronounced among Blacks (Popenoe 2008). Concerns regarding family structure that is different from the dominant nuclear family type are reportedly related to adult and childhood overall well-being (Wilcox and Nocks 2015), as well as susceptibility to family inequality (Lundberg and Pollak 2015). Family structure for Blacks has always existed outside the norm of dominant culture ideology. Black families traditionally practice “role flexibly” among extended family and community networks as a means of ensuring financial and emotional stability and that proper care is available for all members (Franklin-Boyd 2003).

Family structure is a secondary concern, as economic factors tend to be of primary importance for Black families (Blum and Deussen 1996). In her qualitative study, Chaney (2011) investigated how Black women perceived “womanhood” and how those perceptions influenced attitudes about marriage and motherhood. The author found that Black women viewed “womanhood” as being able to adapt to less than ideal circumstances, although they desired the traditional nuclear family model. For example, in the absence of a male-provider, “womanhood” was considered best displayed by filling in the gap: emotionally, financially, and as a single parent.

Dow (2016) in her recent qualitative study, “Integrated Motherhood: Beyond Hegemonic Ideologies of Motherhood,” examined the influence of the hegemonic ideology of mothering on the mothering practices of upper-middle class, professional Black women. Most women were or had been married and each earned a middle-class income. All the women viewed survival of the family unit as requiring assistance from

extended family members or reliable fictive kin networks. In fact, they resisted dominant cultural norms related to family structure (Blum and Deussen 1996), as they were viewed as conflicting with cultural preparation regarding family rearing.

Socio-Demographic Factors

Age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex locate individuals within society (Anderson and Hill-Collins 2007), and play key roles in the formulation of thoughts and behaviors related to institutions (Nash and Calónico 1993). Anderson and Hill-Collins (2007) argued that “institutions are both sources of support and sources of repression. . . [Thus,] general patterns of behavior emerge because of the societal conditions in which groups live” (Pp. 267-268). The authors described race [class] and sex, as well as age, employment status, and income, as factors that simultaneously, intersect and serve as systems of oppression for some and privilege for others relative to institutions, such as marriage.

Sociological research has overlooked the contextual relevance of socio-demographic factors with respect to Black marital circumstances. Given that variations in racial marriage patterns can be somewhat attributed to the well-researched reduction in supply of “marriageable” Black men (Banks 2012; Darity and Meyers 1995; Guttentag and Secord 1983; Wilson 1987, 1997) and a shortage in supply of “marriageable” Black males to females explains part of tenuous marital circumstances (Sawhill 2015; Seitz 2009; Tucker and Mitchell-Kernan 1995). This study advances marriage and family literature, examining racial variations in marital attitudes and marital status in the context of socio-demographic position.

Hypotheses

Based on a comprehensive review of past literature, the following hypotheses were developed for this study:

- H₁: Socio-demographic factors have a differential impact on marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites and the relationships vary.
- H₂: Socio-demographic factors have a differential impact on marital status for Black and White Americans.

CHAPTER 3: DATA AND METHODS

Introduction

Chapter 3 provides information on the data and methods used for this dissertation. The chapter is divided into five sections, including an overview of the data source, method of data screening and descriptive statistics, data manipulation procedures, a description of measures to be utilized, and the plan of statistical analyses.

Data Source

Statistical analyses for this dissertation were conducted using data from interviews with Black and White respondents that was obtained from the October 2010 Changing American Family Survey. The October 2010 Changing American Family Survey is a cross-sectional, social and demographic trends study administered to a nationally representative sample of 2,691 adults in the continental United States from October 1-21, 2010. Call scheduling and questionnaire administration for the survey were handled by Princeton Survey Research Associates International (PSRAI) on behalf of the Pew Social Trends and Demographic Project. PSRAI removed all respondent identifiers before releasing data for public use. Because I conducted secondary analyses of data, human subjects were not at risk. Permission for data use was obtained from Pew Research Center (see Appendix A).

PSRAI collected data using a multi-stage (eight) disproportionately-stratified random-digit dialed (RDD) telephone sample (both cell and landline [LL]) design. Black and Hispanic residents and target groups of cohabiting parents (COPs), divorced/separated parents (DSPs), and never-married parents (NMPs) were oversampled by county of residence to ensure sample sizes sufficient for analytical purposes. To address reliability and validity, the questionnaire was pre-tested twice by

experienced interviewers to insure that the highest quality and most accurate content of answers were given. In administering the survey, a single respondent who was at least 18 years of age was randomly selected for all reported interviews. Reported response rates for the eight-stage RDD telephone samples were 14.2% for Segment 1 which consisted of LL RDD of respondents 18+ years of age, 10.4% for Segment 2 which focused on LL RDD of respondents 18-64 years old, 16.1% for Segment 3 which was limited to the Cell RDD of respondents 18+ years of age, 26.9% for Segments 4 (three target groups) and 6 (never married parents), LL Callback and 36.8% for Segment 5 (three target groups), Segment 7 (never married parents), and Segment 8 (cohabiting parents) Cell Callback (PSRAI 2010).

The October 2010 Changing American Family Survey was an ideal data source for several reasons. Having access to data already collected made secondary analyses possible and thus, ensured a reduction in time and financial resources necessary for this research project. The survey also solicited a complete set of socio-demographic factors as well as a series of key attitudinal and marital measures that were not readily available in other cross-sectional or longitudinal datasets (e.g. National Survey of Family Growth, 2006 to 2010; United States Bureau of Census 2010; National Survey of Families and Households 1987 to 1988). Third, the complete array of socio-demographic factors found in this data source allowed this researcher an opportunity to determine correlations among predictor variables (i.e. age, education level, employment status, income, race, and sex). Finally, the 2010 data offered an opportunity to gain insight on contemporary characteristics --- attitudes and actions --- of Americans related to the institution of marriage.

Further, women and men participating in the 2010 Changing American Family Survey represented a population that in prior research studies were characterized as: having rising attitudes of uncertainty relative to marriage (Taylor et al. 2010); record high age at first marriage (Hymowitz et al. 2013); record low marriage rates (Cohn et al. 2011); high divorce rates (Kim 2012); increases in unmarried cohabitation (Popenoe 2008) and never-married (Cohn 2011; Hymowitz et al. 2013; Wang and Parker 2014); rising separation of childbearing and rearing (Wu 2008); inequalities in income (Martin 2006; Neckerman 2004), education (Zambrana and MacDonald 2009), employment (Sironi and Furstenberg 2012), and family life (Wilcox and Marquardt 2010). Thus, it was no surprise that this rich data source had been used for several studies (e.g. Morin 2011; Parker et al. 2011; Wang and Taylor 2011) focused on changes in American marriage and family structure.

Data Screening and Descriptive Statistics for Entire Sample

Employing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 24, I screened the weighted sample (N= 2,691) of the 2010 Changing American Family Survey dataset. Data screening provided descriptive statistics for categorical (e.g., minimum and maximum range, frequency, and percent) and continuous (e.g., mean, mode, median, standard of deviation, skewness, and kurtosis) variables, as well as information on missing data, multicollinearity, normality, and outliers.

Descriptive statistics for categorical variables indicated that scores on variable were within range and no errors were present. The sample consisted of 1859 (69%) White/not Hispanic, 477 (18%) Black/not Hispanic, 67 (2%) Asian or Asian American, 240 (9%) respondents were reportedly of Some Other Race, and 48 (2%) said they did

not know their race or refused to respond. Due to small group sizes for Asian or Asian Americans (67) and respondents who reported Some Other Race (48) the samples were omitted from future analyses. The marital statuses of the sample included married (n = 1,859, 48%), never been married (n = 631, 23%), divorced (n = 351, 13%), living with a partner (n = 206, 8%), widowed (n = 114, 4%), separated (n = 70, 3%), and 13 (13%) who reported that they did not know or refused. Most of the sample was fully immersed in the labor force, with nearly half (49.2%) of all respondents identifying as having full-time employment, 12.6% reporting part-time employment status, 27.3% indicating they were not employed. Those respondents who identified as retired from the workforce comprised 1.2% of the original sample, with less than 10% (9.2%) of the sample reporting that they were students, and less than 1% (0.5%) of respondents indicating either not know or refused to respond. Overall sex breakdown of survey participants indicated that there were 1447 (54%) female and 1244 (46%) male respondents. Inspection of the correlations table revealed that multicollinearity ($r > 0.3$) was not an issue for these socio-demographic characteristics.

Descriptive statistics on continuous variables revealed that distribution of scores were reasonably 'normal', missing cases on variables were not extreme, and outliers were not present. Findings showed that the sample (N = 2691) consisted of a group of participants who had – on average – reached an age of personal and professional maturity. For instance, the participants ranged in age was from 18 to 99 years, with a mean of 46.53 years and a standard of deviation of 17.42. The average respondent was moderately educated. As the range of education was from 1 (none, or grade 1-8) to 9 (don't know/refused), with a mean of 4.78 [some college, no 4-year degree (including

associate degree)] and a standard of deviation of 1.27. Concerning the income levels of the participants, the range was from 1 (under \$10,000) to 10 (\$150,000 and above) and the mean was 5.85 (average annual household of \$50,000 to under \$75,000) with a standard of deviation of 2.74. Data screening indicated the 2010 Changing American Survey dataset displayed a sufficient number of cases to analyze differences in Blacks versus Whites and married versus not married respondents.

Data Manipulation

To promote clarity and accuracy among findings, prior to conducting analyses, the cases missing data (i.e. don't know/refused) on marital status (N=13) and race (N=48) were omitted from the sample. The sample was further restricted to only Blacks (N = 474) and Whites (N = 1852) to compare racial differences. Sample sizes of those who identified as never been married (N = 631), divorced (N = 351), living with a partner (N = 206), widowed (N = 114), and separated (N = 70) were insufficient in size for analysis. Therefore, marital status categories were collapsed and recoded to 0= not married (N = 1157) which included those respondents that reported they were either living with a partner, divorced, separated, widowed, or had never been married and 1= married (N = 1169).

Measures

The 2010 Changing American Family Survey dataset was designed to investigate Americans views on marriage and family structure at the close of the 2000s. This dataset consisted of questions that addressed the socio-demographic position of respondents as well as an extensive collection of attitudinal measures focused on marriage and family structure, sex norms, and achievement of "Personal Goals."

Predictor Variables: Socio-demographic Factors

The key independent variables in the study included the following: age, education level, employment status, income, race, and sex. To simplify interpretation of findings, the dichotomous predictor variables race and sex were recoded. Race was measured by the question, “Which of the following describes your race? You [the participant] can select as many as apply” and responses were recoded to, 0 = Black or African American and 1 = White. To measure sex, interviewers observed if respondents were male or female. These response categories were recoded to 0 = female and 1 = male.

Evidence was found that full-time employment was connected with marital attitudes and marital status of Blacks and Whites (Murray 2013; Perry 2014). To gain a clear understanding of the role that full-time employment plays in the marital attitudes and marital status of Blacks and Whites, the predictor employment status was measured by the following question, “Are you now employed full-time, part-time or not employed?” (IF RESPONDENT VOLUNTEERS THAT THEY WORK IN THE HOME, I.E., CARING FOR THEIR KIDS OR BEING A HOMEMAKER, ASK: Are you now employed FOR PAY full-time, part-time, or not employed for pay and response categories were dichotomized and recoded as, 0 = Other (inclusive of part-time, not employed, student, retired), 1 = Full-time, and 9 = Don’t know/Refused.

The measurement of continuous predictor variables age, education level, and income were assessed by the questions and response categories: “What is your age?” with response categories, ____ years, 97= 97 or older, and 99= Don’t Know /Refused; education level were measured by asking, “What is the last grade or class that you completed in school?” with response categories, 1 = None, or grade 1-8, 2 = High

school incomplete (Grades 9-11), 3 = High school graduate (Grade 12 or GED certificate), 4 = Technical, trade, or vocational school AFTER high school, 5 = Some college, no 4-year degree (including associate degree), 6 = College graduate (B.S., B.A., or other 4-year degree), 7 = Post-graduate training or professional schooling after college (e.g. toward a Master's degree or Ph.D.; law or medical school), 9 = Don't Know/Refused. Respondent's annual household Income was measured by asking, "Last year, that is in 2009, what was your total family income from all sources, before taxes? Just stop me when I get to the right category" and response categories were, 1 = Less than \$10,000, 2 = 10 to under \$20,000, 3 = 20 to under \$30,000, 4 = 30 to under \$40,000, 5 = 40 to under \$50,000, 6 = 50 to under \$75,000, 7 = 75 to under \$100,000, 8 = 100 to under \$150,000, 9 = \$150,000 or more, 10 = Don't know/Refused.

Dependent Variables: Marital Attitudes and Marital Status

More than four decades of declining rates of marriage, alongside continuously high rates of divorce and increases in never-married, unmarried cohabitation, unmarried births, and single-parent households suggested that there has been an alteration in the attitudes and behaviors of Americans with respect to the institution of marriage (Manning 2013; U.S Bureau of Census 2015). Cherlin (2009) suggested that although marriage remains a 'cultural ideal', Americans now utilize two competing and contradictory cultural models that they reference according to their given circumstances.

Such as,

...The 'cultural model of marriage' ... a public formal, lifelong commitment to share your life with another person and, in most cases, to raise children together... although optional, remains the most highly valued form of family life in American culture, the most prestigious way to live your life" and the 'cultural model of individualism' which is about personal growth, getting in touch with your feelings, and expressing your needs

...emphasizing the continuing development of your sense of self throughout your life. (Cherlin 9: 2009).

Adhering to the concepts of Cherlin (2009), this study's marital attitude dependent variable included a set of eight attitudinal measures that focused on the current marriage and individualistic mindsets of Americans. Specifically, "Some people say the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete. Do you agree or disagree?" To simplify the process of interpreting findings response categories were recoded to 0 = Disagree, 1= Agree, and 9 = Don't know/Refused; "I am going to read you a list of things some people may want out of life. Please tell me whether you think it is easier for **(ALTERNATED RESPONSE: a single person; a married person)** to achieve this goal or easier for a (a married person; single person), or doesn't make a difference? a.) Be financially secure, b.) Get ahead in a career, c.) Raise a family, d.) Have a fulfilling sex life, e.) Have social status, f.) Find happiness" with response categories, 1= Easier for a single person, 2= Easier for a married person, 3= Doesn't make a difference, 4= Depends on the person, 9= Don't know/Refused; and "What kind of marriage do you think is the more satisfying way of life?" with responses that were recoded to, 0 = One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children OR 1= One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children, and 9= Don't know/Refused, to simplify interpretation of findings. See Table 1, for full summary of concepts, variables, and final coding.

Table 1

List of Concepts, Variables, and Coding

Variables	Measures	Response Categories and Codes
	Dependent	
Marital Attitudes	Some people say the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete. Do you agree or disagree?	-Disagree 1-Agree 9-Don't know/Refused
	I am going to read you a list of things some people may want out of life. Please tell me whether you think it is easier for (ALTERNATED RESPONSE: a single person; a married person) to achieve this goal or easier for a (a married person; single person), or doesn't make a difference? A.) Be financially secure, b.) Get ahead in a career, c.) Raise a family, d.) Have a fulfilling sex life, e.) Have social status, f.) Find happiness	1-Easier for a single person 2-Easier for a married person 3-Doesn't make a difference 4-Depends on the person 9-Don't know/Refused
	What kind of marriage do you think is the more satisfying way of life?	0-One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children OR 1-One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children 9-Don't know/Refused
	Are you currently married, living with a partner, divorced, separated, widowed, or have you never been married?	0-Not married 1-Married
	Independent	
Education	<i>What is the last grade or class that you completed in school?</i>	1-None, or grade 1-8 2-High school incomplete (Grades 9-11) 3-High school graduate (Grade 12 or GED certificate) 4-Technical, trade, or vocational school AFTER high school 5-Some college, no 4-year degree (including associate degree)

Variables	Measures	Response Categories and Codes
		6-College graduate (B.S., B.A., or other 4-year degree) 7-Post-graduate training or professional schooling after college (e.g. toward a Master's degree or Ph.D.; law or medical school) 9-Don't know/Refused 0-Other
Employment Status	<i>Are you now employed full-time, part-time or not employed? (IF RESPONDENT VOLUNTEERS THAT THEY WORK IN THE HOME, I.E. CARING FOR THEIR KIDS OR BEING A HOMEMAKER, ASK: Are you now employed FOR PAY full-time, part-time, or not employed for pay.)</i>	1-Full-time 9-Don't know/Refused
Income	<i>Last year, that is in 2009, what was your total family income from all sources, before taxes? Just stop me when I get to the right category.</i>	1-Less than \$10,000 6-50 to under \$75,000 2-10 to under \$20,000 7-75 to under \$100,000 3-20 to under \$30,000 8-100to under \$150,000 4-30 to under \$40,000 9-\$150,000 or more 5-40 to under \$50,000 10-Don't know/Refused
Race	<i>Which of the following describes your race? You can select as many as apply.</i>	0-Black or African American 1-White
Sex	[ENTER RESPONDENT'S SEX]	0-Female 1-Male
Age	<i>What is your age?</i>	_____ years 97-97 or older 99-Don't know or Refused

Source: The 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Plan of Analysis

In the literature review, I argued that to understand racial variations in marital attitudes and marital status requires the use of a lens that highlights the consistent intersection of race, class, and sex (Johnson and Loscocco 2015). Because race, class, and sex are not merely systems of classification, but also, social hierarchies that simultaneously and cumulatively intersect to dictate positions of power/privilege or oppression/discrimination (Berger and Guidroz 2009). Moreover, understanding that “race [is (and has always been)] associated with ... disadvantage” (Raley, Sweeney, and Wondra 2015: 89). I further argued that the social location --- as dictated by the intersection of race, class, and sex --- of Blacks and Whites creates and shapes their life experiences, as well as, their ideas and actions (Billingsley 1968; Nash and Calonico 1993) toward the institution of marriage. The current line of research investigated whether socio-demographic factors (i.e. age, education level, employment status, income, race, and sex), predict marital attitudes and marital status of Black and White Americans and if they vary according to race. The study’s two research hypotheses were:

- H₁: Socio-demographic factors are related to the marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites and the relationships varied according to sex.
- H₂: Socio-demographic factors have a differential impact on the marital status of Blacks and White Americans and they varied by sex.

A series of statistical techniques were performed to test the hypotheses. As discussed in chapter 4, using SPSS 24, the 2010 Changing American Family Survey dataset was screened to check for errors on the independent and dependent variables as well as to

determine if the data were suitable for analyses. Descriptive univariate statistics were run to evaluate the range of scores, frequency distribution, as well as, percentage of categorical variables. Continuous variables were analyzed to describe their mean, mode, and median, standard of deviation, skewness, and kurtosis.

Next, independent-samples t-tests were conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores of continuous predictors (age, educational level, and income) according to marital status (married or not married). Chi-square for independence tests were used to explore relationships between eight attitudinal dependent variables, race (Black or White), and marital status (married or not married) of respondents. Further, collinearity diagnostics (values $0.3 \geq 0.10$) indicated no issues with multicollinearity, while inspection of residuals table suggested outliers were not present.

Next, Chapter 5 illustrated the techniques used to test this study's first hypothesis: Socio-demographic factors are related to the marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites and the relationships vary according to race. Because the dependent variable, marital status, consisted of eight individual attitudinal questions, a factor analysis was conducted to assess their underlying structure and reduce the items to a smaller number of more coherent subscales. Suitability of data was determined by sample size (Tabachnick and Fidell 2001) and ratio of cases to items (Nunnally 1978). Strength of inter-correlations among the items were assessed to be acceptable, as correlation matrix coefficients were ≥ 0.3 . Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at $p < 0.05$, indicating that factorability of data was appropriate. Values for the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

measure of sampling adequacy were 0.6 and above, suggesting data were good for a factor analysis to be performed.

Principal component analysis was conducted to determine the smallest number of factors that could be extract to represent the inter-correlations among the set of items. Kaiser's criterion and scree test techniques also were used to assist in assessment of the number of factors to retain. To assist in interpretation of factors the Varimax rotation method --- which attempts to minimize the number of variables that have high loadings on each factor --- was employed. Inspection of the total variance table and the rotated component matrix revealed the distribution of explained variance and factor loadings of variables, respectively, on the resultant component. To assess reliability of the scales, Cronbach's alpha was computed ($\alpha = 0.71$). Resultant factor was evaluated and found to consist of characteristics related to "Personal Goals", (Amato et al 2007; Cherlin 2009; Hymowitz et al 2013). Finally, descriptive statistics were run to assess the dependent variable related to marital attitudes: Achievement of "Personal Goals."

Next, a series of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) Regressions were conducted to predict the relationship between independent variables: age, education level, employment status, income, race, sex and the continuous dependent variable Achievement of "Personal Goals." It should be noted that OLS and subsequent regressions were completed for the full sample and also, according to race and sex of respondents. This method of analysis ensured the determination of within and between group variations. In addition, a separate series of regressions were run with the inclusion of marital status as an independent variable. The inclusion of marital status as

a predictor allowed insight on whether being married or not married had a significant impact on the prediction or occurrence of outcomes for the full sample, Blacks vs Whites, and female's vs males.

Using forced entry method---which allowed all variables to be tested in one block to assess their predictive ability, while controlling for other predictors in the model---a series of five separate logistic regressions were conducted for each of the marital attitudes: 1) "The Present Institution of Marriage is Becoming Obsolete", 2) "What kind of Marriage is the Most Satisfying Way of Life", and 3) "What is the Easiest Way to Raise a Family" to determine the odds in their occurrence by socio-demographic factors for the full sample, Blacks vs Whites, and females vs males.

Chapter 6 illustrates the techniques used to test this study's second hypothesis: Socio-demographic factors have a differential impact on the marital status of Black and White Americans. To assess 1) how well socio-demographic factors predict marital status for Blacks and Whites and if racial variations exist; 2) to assess differences in attitudinal predictors of marital status and if they vary; and 3) to determine how well socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital attitudes related to Achievement of "Personal Goals" predict marital status. A series of five separate logistic regressions using Forced Entry Method were conducted to 1) predict the odds in occurrence of marriage by socio-demographic factors; predict the odds in occurrence of marriage by marital attitudes and marital attitudes; and 3) predict the odds in occurrence of marriage by socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and Achievement of "Personal Goals" for the Full Sample, as well as, according to race and sex.

CHAPTER 4: BIVARIATE RESULTS

Chapter 4 is divided into four sections that discuss findings from the preliminary analyses of data, along with a series of parametric and non-parametric techniques that were used as an initial test of this study's two hypotheses:

H₁: Socio-demographic factors are related to the marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites and the relationships vary;

H₂: Socio-demographic factors have a differential impact on the marital status of Black and White Americans.

In the first section, I discussed the distribution of the data sample. Section two, discuss results from a series of three-way cross-tabulations that explored differences in frequency of this study's eight-attitudinal independent measures by race and marital status. In section three, I present findings from a series of chi-square for independence tests that were used to test differences in the relative frequency of occurrence of discrete independent variables (i.e., employment status, race, and sex) for respondents who were married or not married. In the fourth section, I present findings from a series of t-tests for independent sample that were used to explore differences in means of continuous independent variables (i.e. age, education level, and income) by marital status.

Preliminary Analysis

Preliminary analysis of this study's sample (N = 2,326) revealed that a majority of respondents were White (80%) and 20% were Black. There was a balanced distribution in marital status among respondents, 50% reported they were married and 50% reported not married. A majority (54%) of respondents were female.

Three-way Cross-Tabulations: Frequency of Attitudinal Independent Variables

Scholars (Amato et al. 2007; Cherlin 2009; Wilcox & Marquardt, 2010) contended that Americans currently employ two competing and contradictory marriage models – cultural model of marriage and individualistic model of marriage – that contributed to perceptions of how individuals should structure their personal lives. To gain an understanding of the marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites, determine if they vary according to race, and test the first hypothesis of this study, I conducted a series of three-way cross-tabulations to explore the frequency of eight marital attitudinal measures. These measures included:

- Some people say the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete.
Do you agree or disagree?
- “I am going to read you a list of things some people may want out of life. Please tell me whether you think it is easier for **(ALTERNATED RESPONSE: a single person; a married person)** to achieve this goal or easier for a (a married person; single person), or doesn’t make a difference?
 - (a) Be financially secure,
 - (b) Get ahead in a career,
 - (c) Raise a family,
 - (d) Have a fulfilling sex life,
 - (e) Have social status,
 - (f) Find happiness” and

- “What kind of marriage do you think is the more satisfying way of life?”), according to race and marital status.

As shown in Table 2, attitudes differed on the status of the institution of marriage between the total sample of Whites and Blacks. A majority of Whites (60%) felt that marriage is currently a stable institution, while 48% of Blacks disagreed, indicating that “...the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete.” Teasing apart data by race and marital status revealed more detailed variations in perceptions of the current institution of marriage. Substantially more than half of married (68%) and slightly more than half (51%) of not married Whites viewed marriage as here to stay. Marital status made a difference in perceptions of marriage for Blacks. Preliminary findings revealed that although more than half (61%) of married Blacks said that marriage was still a relevant institution, slightly more than half (53%) of not married Blacks considered marriage to be an out-of-date practice. This finding was not surprising as prior research indicated that at the close of the first decade in the new millennium, single Blacks compared to other groups (married Blacks and single/married Whites) were more-likely to view marriage as an antiquated institution (e.g. Taylor et al. 2010). Further, a rise in the significance of achieving “Personal Goals” also was described as playing a key role in Americans’ marital attitudes.

Hymowitz and Associates (2013) characterized Americans in general, as preferring to postpone marriage until after achieving “Personal Goals.” Bivariate findings also showed that Blacks and Whites held similar views on whether achieving “Personal Goals,” such as, gaining financial security, getting ahead in a career, raising a family, having a fulfilling sex life, social status, and finding happiness is easier for a married

person or a single person. The current study found that when asked, “Is it easier for a single person or a married person to achieve financial security?” half (50%) of Whites and slightly more (54%) Blacks said that it did not make a difference. Examination of data according to race and marital status offered additional insight. About half of race/marital status groups said that marital status did not impact the achievement of financial goals (50% married Whites, 49% not married Whites, 57% married Blacks, 53% not married Blacks).

Moreover, many young adults reportedly were postponing marriage so that energy could be focused on the advancement of their career (Hymowitz et al 2013). However, bivariate findings indicated that for the sample as a whole, 60% of Whites and Blacks felt that getting ahead in your career was not impacted by whether you were single or married. Analysis of data by race and marital status revealed that significantly more than half (61% and 63%) of married and (58%) of not married Whites and Blacks, considered getting ahead in your career as not related to whether you are married or single.

Additionally, the exceptional rise in unmarried births and single-parent, particularly, mother-only households (Manning 2013) suggested that many Americans might not view marriage as an asset when it came to raising a family. Bivariate findings indicated that more than three-quarter (79%) of Whites and significantly more than half (66%) of Blacks considered the task of raising a family as easier to achieve within a marital union. In fact, when data were disaggregated according to race and marital status, Blacks and Whites continued to hold similar views on the importance of marriage when raising a family. Specifically, a significant majority (84% and 70%) of married

Whites and Blacks, respectively, and more than half (58% and 64%) of not married Whites and Blacks, respectively, said that raising a family is more difficult for a single person.

In recent years, having a fulfilling sex life has become an important aspect of views on marriage (Banks 2010; Cherlin 2009; Collins 2009). As shown in Table 2, when asked whether having a fulfilling sex life is easier for a single person or a married person, as a whole, more than half of Whites (51%) and nearly half (49%) of Blacks felt that marital status was not a determining factor. When analyzed according to race and marital status, cross-tabulations revealed a consensus in views among White and Black Americans. Specifically, a majority of married Whites (48%) and Blacks (46%) as well as more than half (55%) of not married Whites and half (50%) of not married Blacks thought that having a fulfilling sex life was not assigned to a particular marital category.

Among Americans, marriage has traditionally been a means of gaining social status. Marriage is a social institution that is highly revered and symbolic of a successful transition to adulthood, indicates maturity to manage and maintain a relationship, as well as has the capability to form and develop a family unit (Cherlin 2009). When asked, "...is it easier for a single person, married person to gain social status, or doesn't it make a difference?" Bivariate findings showed that in 2010 well over half of Whites (64%) and Blacks (67%) felt that being married was not the primary method of gaining social status, although marriage continues to be highly regarded and revered by White and Black Americans (Dixon 2009; Wilcox and Marquardt 2010). A teasing apart of the data by race and marital status suggested that by the end of the 2000s, a shift in perceptions regarding the social relevance of marriage had occurred in the U.S.

(Lundberg and Pollak 2015). For example, more than half (63% and 68%) of married and (64% and 67%) not married Whites and Blacks, respectively, felt that gaining social status has nothing to do with marital status.

Cherlin (2009) contended that a heightening of individualism had elevated the significance of finding and maintaining happiness among Americans and played a key role in marital attitudes, as well. This study found that when asked whether marital status was relevant to finding happiness, 64% of Whites and even more (67%) Blacks felt that marital status was not a factor. Interestingly, a closer examination of the data revealed that most (59% and 65%) married and (69% and 67%) not married Whites and Blacks, respectively, said that happiness could be achieved whether you are married or not.

Traditional sex roles related to marriage and family structure also played an important part in the marital attitudes of Black and White Americans (Burton and Tucker 2009; Collins 2009; Dillaway and Broman 2001). When asked, "What kind of marriage is considered the most satisfying way of life: One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children **OR** one where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children." More than half of Whites(60%) and a significant majority of Blacks (79%) preferred, a non-traditional marital arrangement where both husband and wife actively participate in maintenance of the household and caring for their offspring. This finding held true even when data were examined according to race and marital status. More than half of married (55%) and not married (67%) Whites felt that an egalitarian marriage was most satisfying. While, more married (77%) and not married (80%) Blacks felt that the equal division of household

and family labor was necessary for optimal marital circumstances. Bivariate results suggested that there were variations in marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites. For a full summary of Marital Attitudes by Race and Marital Status, see Table 2.

Table 2

Cross-tabulation of Marital Attitudes by Race and Marital Status, United States 2010

Attitudinal Variables	<u>Marital Status by Race</u>											
	<u>White</u>						<u>Black</u>					
	<u>Married</u>		<u>Not Married</u>		<u>Total</u>		<u>Married</u>		<u>Not Married</u>		<u>Total</u>	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Some people say the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete. Do you agree or disagree.												
Agree	303	29.5	366	44.4	669	36.1	52	36.6	177	53.3	229	48.3
Disagree	696	67.8	423	51.3	1119	60.4	86	60.6	141	42.5	227	47.9
Don't know	28	2.7	36	4.4	64	3.5	4	2.8	14	4.2	18	3.8
Total	1,027	100.0	825	100.0	1852	100.0	142	100.0	332	100.0	474	100.0
Is it easier for a single person or a married person (Alternated) to – Be financially secure or Doesn't it make a difference?												
Easier for a single person	88	8.6	96	11.6	184	9.9	17	12.0	44	13.3	61	12.9
Easier for a married person	381	37.1	292	35.4	673	36.3	41	28.9	99	29.8	140	29.5
Doesn't make a difference	520	50.6	408	49.5	928	50.1	81	57.0	1745	52.7	256	54.0
Depends on the person	30	2.9	18	2.2	48	2.6	2	1.4	12	3.6	14	3.0
Don't know	8	0.8	11	1.3	19	1.0	1	0.9	2	0.6	3	0.6
Total	1,027	100.0	825	100.0	1,852	100.0	142	100.0	332	100.0	474	100.0
Is it easier for a single person or a married person (Alternated) to – Get ahead in a career or Doesn't it make a difference?												
Easier for a single person	192	18.7	209	25.3	401	21.7	31	21.8	81	24.4	112	23.6
Easier for a married person	165	16.1	108	13.1	273	14.7	19	13.4	50	15.1	69	14.6
Doesn't make a difference	630	61.3	481	58.3	1,111	6.0	90	63.4	193	58.1	283	59.7
Depends on the person	32	3.1	17	2.1	49	2.6	1	0.7	6	1.8	7	1.5
Don't know	8	0.8	10	1.2	18	1.0	1	0.7	2	0.6	7	1.5
Total	1,027	100.0	825	100.0	1,852	100.0	142	100.0	332	100.0	474	100.0
Is it easier for a single person or a married person (Alternated) to – Raise a family – or Doesn't it make a difference?												
Easier for a single person	6	0.6	15	1.8	21	1.1	3	2.1	12	3.6	15	3.2
Easier for a married person	864	84.1	596	72.2	1,460	78.8	100	70.4	212	63.9	312	65.8
Doesn't make a difference	141	13.7	192	23.3	333	18.0	37	26.1	101	30.4	138	29.1
Depends on	10	1.0	16	1.9	26	1.4	2	1.4	4	1.2	6	1.3

Attitudinal Variables	Marital Status by Race													
			White				Total		Black				Total	
	Married		Not Married				Married		Not Married		Total			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
the person														
Don't know	6	0.6	6	0.7	12	0.6	0	0.0	3	0.9	3	0.6		
Total	1,027	100.0	825	100.0	1,852	100.0	142	100.0	100.0	100.0	474	100.0		
Is it easier for a single person or a married person (Alternated) to – Have a fulfilling sex life – or Doesn't it make a difference?														
Easier for a single person	38	3.7	67	8.1	105	5.7	13	9.2	38	11.4	51	1.8		
Easier for a married person	459	44.7	254	30.8	713	38.5	59	41.5	112	33.7	171	36.1		
Doesn't make a difference	488	47.5	455	55.2	943	50.9	66	46.5	167	50.3	233	49.2		
Depends on the person	17	1.7	18	2.2	35	1.9	0	0.0	6	1.8	6	1.3		
Don't know	25	2.4	31	3.8	56	3.0	4	2.8	9	2.7	13	2.7		
Total	1,027	100.0	825	100.0	1,852	100.0	142	100.0	332	100.0	474	100.0		
Is it easier for a single person or a married person (Alternated) to – Have social status – or Doesn't it make a difference?														
Easier for a single person	76	7.4	90	10.9	166	9.0	17	12.0	56	16.9	73	15.4		
Easier for a married person	268	26.1	184	22.3	452	24.4	26	18.3	44	13.3	70	14.8		
Doesn't make a difference	651	63.4	532	64.5	1,183	63.9	96	67.6	222	66.9	318	67.1		
Depends on the person	17	1.7	10	1.2	27	1.5	2	1.4	4	1.2	6	1.3		
Don't know	15	1.5	9	1.1	24	1.3	1	0.7	6	1.8	7	1.5		
Total	1,027	100.	825	100.0	1,852	100.0	142	100.0	332	100.0	474	100.0		
Is it easier for a single person or a married person (Alternated) to – Find happiness – or Doesn't it make a difference?														
Easier for a single person	15	1.5	37	4.5	52	2.8	7	4.9	35	10.5	42	8.9		
Easier for a married person	372	36.2	184	22.3	556	30.0	37	26.1	58	17.5	95	20.0		
Doesn't make a difference	68	59.2	572	69.3	1,180	63.7	92	64.8	224	67.5	316	66.7		
Depends on the person	21	2.0	24	2.9	45	2.4	5	3.5	9	2.7	14	3.0		
Don't know	11	1.1	8	1.0	19	1.0	1	0.7	6	1.8	7	1.5		
Total	1,027	100.0	825	100.0	1,852	100.0	142	100.0	332	100.0	474	100.0		
What kind of marriage do you think is the more satisfying way of life?														
One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children	355	34.6	195	23.6	550	29.7	28	19.7	53	16.0	81	17.1		
One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children	566	66.8	551	66.8	1,117	60.3	110	77.5	265	79.8	375	79.1		

Attitudinal Variables	Marital Status by Race											
	White						Black					
	Married		Not Married		Total		Married		Not Married		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Don't know	106	10.3	79	9.6	185	10.0	4	2.8	14	14	18	3.8
Total	1,027	100.0	825	100.0	1,852	100.0	142	100.0	332	100.0	474	100.0

Source: The 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends and Demographic Project, 2011

Chi-square for Independence Tests: Frequency of Occurrence of Discrete Independent Variables

A series of chi-square for independence tests were conducted to test differences in the relative frequency of occurrence of discrete independent variables according to marital status. As shown in Table 3, bivariate results revealed that marriage was almost twice as prevalent among Whites (55%) compared to Blacks (30%). Findings also showed that males (53%) were far more likely to be married than females (48%). Confirming past research (Raley, Sweeney, and Wondra 2015), respondents with full-time employment were more likely to be married (56%) than not married (44%) and surprisingly, those reporting student as an employment status were more than twice as likely to be married (67%) than single (33%). As expected, respondents who said they were employed part-time or not employed were more likely to be not married rather than married, respectively, (58% vs 42% and 60% vs 40%). Interestingly, respondents who reported they were retired from the workforce were five times more likely to be single (85%) than married (15%). See Table 3, for a full summary of socio-demographic factors, including means, by marital status.

Independent Samples t-Tests: Differences in Mean of Continuous Independent Variables

Independent-samples t-test were used to explore differences in mean scores of continuous independent variables: age, education level, and income according to marital status (see Table 3). Results showed that for each of the three variables equal variance could not be assumed. Concerning the variable age, mean scores showed that married respondents ($M = 51.2$, $SD = 15.0$) were older than not married ($M = 43.2$, $SD = 17.8$; $t [2250.942] = 11.60$, $p < .001$) respondents. For the variable, education level, a significant difference was found in mean scores between married respondents ($M = 5.04$, $SD = 1.57$) who on average had obtained a higher level of educational achievement than not married respondents ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 1.62$; $t (2319.615) = 7.99$, $p < .001$). The comparison of mean scores for annual household income between married and not married respondents provided evidence of a statistically significant difference ($t [2187.9] = 16.8$, $p < .001$). The annual household income of married respondents ($M = 6.73$, $SD = 2.22$) was significantly higher than that of not married respondents ($M = 4.96$, $SD = 2.83$). In sum, overall findings showed that on average, the age, education level, and annual household income of married respondents were significantly higher than that of not married respondents (Frye and Cohn 2010). To test this study's two research hypotheses further, in subsequent chapters, I conducted a series of multivariate analyses.

Table 3

Socio-demographic Factors including Mean by Marital Status, United States, 2010

Variables	<u>Marital Status</u>					
	<u>Married</u>		<u>Not Married</u>		<u>Total</u>	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Employment Status						
Full-time	636	54.4	509	44.0	1145*	49.2
Part-time	122	10.4	170	14.7	292*	12.6
Not employed	257	22.0	378	32.7	635*	27.3
Retired	4	0.3	23	2.0	27*	1.2
Student	144	12.3	71	6.1	215*	9.2
Don't know/refused	6	0.5	6	0.5	12*	0.5
Total	1,169	100.0	1,157	100.0	2326*	100.0
Race						
White	1,027	87.9	825	71.3	1852	79.6
Black	142	12.1	332	28.7	474	20.4
Total	1,169	100.0	1,157	100.0	2326*	100.0
Sex						
Male	565	48.3	503	43.5	1,068	45.9
Female	604	51.7	654	56.5	1,258	54.1
Total	1,169	100.0	1,157	100.0	2,326**	100.0
	N	M	N	M	N	M
Education Level	1,169	5.04 ¹	1,157	4.51 ²	2,326	4.78***
Income	1,169	6.73 ₃	1,157	4.96 ⁴	2,326	5.85***
Age	1,169	51.16	1,157	43.22	2,326*	47.21***

Source: The 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: 1=some college, but no 4-year degree (including associate degree); 2=technical, trade, or vocational school **AFTER** high school; 3=75 to under \$100,000 annual household income; 4=40 to under \$50,000 annual household income;

* = Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) < .001, ** = Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) < .05; *** = Sig. (2-tailed) < .001.

CHAPTER 5: PREDICTING MARITAL ATTITUDES

Introduction

In Chapter 5, the findings from a series of multivariate techniques – exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and then, ordinary least squares and binary logistic regression – are presented to (a) identify a set of variables that could be combined to create scales of marital attitudes, (b) determine how well socio-demographic measures predict marital attitudes, and (c) assess differences in socio-demographic predictors of marital attitudes for the full sample; Blacks versus Whites; and females versus males. Prior to a discussion of findings, a description of data manipulation and procedures are provided.

Creation of Scales for Marital Attitudes

To create a scale for marital attitudes, I used the following eight attitudinal variables. First, respondents were asked the following six questions in a random order, “...is it easier for ___ to

- a) Be financially secure (FinSecure),
- b) Get ahead in a career (CarAdv),
- c) Raise a family (RaiFam),
- d) Have a fulfilling sex life (HFSxLife),
- e) Have social status (HSocStat),
- f) Find happiness (FdHpness).

The question asked “Is it easier for a single person or for a married person.” However, the ordering of the words “married” and “single” were alternated. Thus, half of the sample had the phrasing, “for a single person or for a married person” in the question, and half had the phrasing “for a married person or a single person” in the question. In other words, respondents were randomly assigned the different ordering of “single or married” versus “married or single.” The coding for the question’s response was 1 = single, 2 = married, 3 = doesn’t make a difference, 4 = depends on the person, 9 = don’t

know/refused (9 = missing). For the purpose of running a factor analysis, the question was recoded as 1 = doesn't make a difference and 0 = makes a difference. I tried other recoding techniques (ex. 1 = easier for a married person versus 0 = all other responses for marital status) however, alpha coefficients were not acceptable.

In addition, two other questions were recoded and included in the factor analysis: "Some people say the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete. Responses of do you 1 = agree or 2 = disagree?" were recoded to MarOb and the responses were adjusted to 0 = disagree and 1 = agree. The second variable "What kind of marriage do you think is the more satisfying way of life? 1 = One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children OR 2 = One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children?" was recoded to MostSatLife and response categories were adjusted to, 0 = One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children 1 = One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children.

Data were screened to ensure suitability for factor analysis. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients measuring 0.3 and above. The variable FdHpness correlated with variables CarAdv ($r= 0.337$), HSocStat ($r= 0.368$), HFSxLife ($r= 0.359$), and FinSecur ($r= 0.365$). Variables RaiFam, MarOb, and MostSatLife were not significantly correlated with any variables. These correlations suggested that one interpretable factor would result from EFA. Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was 0.77, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 (Kaiser 1970, 1974) and the

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance of 0.000 (Bartlett 1954). These findings supported the factorability of the correlation matrix.

PCA was then conducted revealing the presence of two factors, each with an eigenvalue exceeding 1.00, that explained 29.5% and 14.0% of variance, respectively. Inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the second component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, I decided to retain two components for further investigation. To aid in interpretation of the two components, a varimax rotation was performed. After rotation, a two component solution explaining a total of 46% of variances between items resulted. Component number 1 explained 30.0% and component number 2 accounted for 16.0% of factor variance. All variables had positive loadings. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess reliability of the scales. Results showed a reliable scale for component number 1 (FinSecur, HSocStat, CarAdv, FdHpness, and HFSxLife; $\alpha = 0.71$) and an unreliable scale for component number 2 (MostSatLife, MarOb, and RaiFam; $\alpha = 0.20$). Inspection of item-total statistics table indicated deletion of variable MarOb would improve reliability of scale for component number 2.

Variable MarOb was deleted and reliability index (Cronbach's α) was rerun on component number 2. An unreliable ($\alpha = 0.24$) score was again indicated and the item-total statistics table showed no further improvement of model possible. This suggested a unidimensional marital attitudes scale. Therefore, the optimal solution consisted of one factor consisting of 5-items [Be financially secure (FinSecur), Have social status (HSocStat), Get ahead in a career (CarAdv), Find happiness (FdHpness), and Have a fulfilling sex life (HFSxLife)]. The following 3-items were deleted from the present procedure: What kind of marriage do you think is the most satisfying way of life

(MostSatLife), Is the present institution of marriage becoming Obsolete (MarOb), and Is it easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family (RaiFam). I named the sole dependent factor “Achievement of Personal Goals.” The “Achievement of Personal Goals” Scale included questions about financial security, having social status, getting ahead in a career, finding happiness, and having a fulfilling sex life. Table 4 presents final loadings for the factor “Achievement of Personal Goals.”

Table 4

Results of Factor Loadings for “Achievement of Personal Goals” Scale

Factor	Loadings
Achievement of “Personal Goals	
Financial security	.72
Have social status	.70
Get ahead in a career	.70
Find happiness	.68
Having a fulfilling sex life	.50

Table 5 presents summary statistics of the “Achievement of Personal Goals” Scale that ranged from 0 (marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 “Achievement of Personal Goals”) to 5 (marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 “Achievement of Personal Goals”). Results from 2,631 respondents had a mean of 2.87, a median of 3.00, and a standard deviation of 1.66. The scale showed that respondents had a wide distribution of responses when considering the relationship between marital status and “Achievement of “Personal Goals.” A total of 21% said that marriage made no difference in the achievement of financial security, social status, career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life. Conversely, 11.8% said that “Achievement of

Personal Goals” depended on if the respondent was single or married. Another 21% of respondents felt that marital status mattered for the achievement of only one of the five “Achievement of Personal Goals.” While the remainder (12.2% + 15.7% + 18.2%) of respondents had mixed feelings regarding the relationship between marital status and the achievement of all five “Achievement of Personal Goals.” Thus, the marital attitudes of Americans ranged between a marriage and individualistic mindset (Cherlin 2009) when referencing “Achievement of Personal Goals.” Specifically, these findings indicated that Americans viewed being married or not as making a small difference in the “Achievement of Personal Goals.”

Table 5

Summary Statistics for “Achievement of Personal Goals” Scale

Achievement of Personal Goals	Frequency	Percent
0 = Marital status made a difference for achievement of all “Personal Goals	312	11.8
1 = 4 of the achievement of goals	320	12.2
2 = 3 of the achievement of goals	413	15.7
3 = 2 of the achievement of goals	478	18.2
4 = Achievement of one goal	554	21.0
5 = Did not matter for achievement of any of the 5 “Achievement of Personal Goals	554	21.0
Total	2,631	100.0

Mean = 2.87 (SD = 1.66), Median = 3.00

Predicting Marital Attitudes Related to the Achievement of “Personal Goals”

Subsequent analyses in this chapter examined socio-demographic factors including race and correlates of these attitudes. Ordinary least squares regressions (OLS) were conducted to determine how well age, education, employment status, income, marital status, race, and sex predicted marital attitudes related to “*Achievement of Personal Goals*” for the full sample; Blacks and Whites; and men and women. Equation 5.1 presents the linear regression equation for conducting such an analysis:

Equation 1. Multiple Linear Regression Equation

$$Y' = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 \dots + \beta_xX_x$$

Equation 2 presents the multiple linear regression equation predicting the effect of socio-demographic factors on achievement of “Personal Goals” for the Full Sample:

Equation 2. The Effect of Socio-demographic Factors on Achievement of “Personal Goals” for Full Sample

$$\underline{\text{Achievement of “Personal Goals”}} = \beta_{\text{age}}X_{\text{age}} + \beta_{\text{education}}X_{\text{education}} + \beta_{\text{employment}}X_{\text{employment}} + \beta_{\text{income}}X_{\text{income}} + \beta_{\text{race}}X_{\text{race}} + \beta_{\text{sex}}X_{\text{sex}} + \hat{\epsilon}_i$$

Tables 6 through 8 present the coefficients obtained from the OLS regressions of socio-demographic factors (age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex) on the “Achievement of Personal Goals” variable for the full sample; Blacks and Whites; and men and women. I ran separate models for race (Blacks and Whites) and sex (females and males) of respondents to (a) test this study’s theoretical contention that the effects of socio-demographic factors shape individual’s (Blacks/Whites and

women/men) perceptions of the social world and (b) further highlight variations in marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” that existed between and within racial/sex groups. Further, to investigate whether being married or single made a difference in the models, a second set of regressions were run with the addition of marital status as a predictor.

Predicting Marital Attitudes Related to the Achievement of “Personal Goals” by Socio-demographic Factors for the Full Sample

Table 6 presents coefficients for the OLS regression of predictors (e.g., age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex) on “Achievement of Personal Goals” for the Full Sample. Model 1 predicted 1.9% of the variance in “Achievement of Personal Goals” and was statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Surprisingly, predictors, race, education, and income, were not significantly associated with the feeling that marital status matters in “Achievement of Personal Goals.” However, as expected, men viewed marriage as more beneficial for the attainment of “Achievement Personal Goals” than women. In this model, males with an adjusted beta of - 0.13 made the strongest unique contribution to explaining marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals.” Specifically, age ($\beta = -0.01$; $p = .022$) and male ($\beta = -0.42$; $p < .001$) were significant and negatively associated with “Achievement of Personal Goals.” This finding suggested that older respondents and males were more likely to say that marital status mattered for the achievement of financial security, social status, career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life.

Conversely, full-time employment ($\beta = 0.19$; $p = .010$) was significant and positively associated with marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals,”

indicating that respondents who were employed full-time were more likely to report that “Achievement of “Personal Goals” did not matter if you are married or single.

With the addition of marital status as a control variable, Model 2 showed a slight increase in the explained variance in “Achievement of Personal Goals” from 1.9% in Model 1 to 2.0%. The equation was statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$, but it explained a small amount of variance in the “Achievement of Personal Goals” variable. Age was no longer a significant predictor of attitudes. For this model, male ($p < .001$) and full-time employment ($p = .008$) were significantly associated with “Achievement of “Personal Goals.” The associations were similar to those in Model 1. Inspection of adjusted β values revealed male (-0.13) continued to be the strongest predictor of attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals.” This negative relationship was statistically significant. Thus, men were less likely than women to say that marital status did not play a role in attaining financial security, social status, a career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life. In addition, respondents working full-time were more likely than those with other employment statuses to view marital status as a contributing factor in the attainment of the achievement of all five “Achievement of Personal Goals.”

Summation. Across the tables, results indicated that male was the strongest predictor of marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals”, with the statistically significant relationship in a negative direction. Full-time employment in all models indicated marriage was not considered necessary for “Achievement of Personal Goals.” Moreover, the association between full-time employment ($\beta = 0.19$; $p = .008$) and “Achievement of “Personal Goals” was significant and in a positive direction. Thus, respondents who were employed full-time rather than part-time or unemployed were

more likely to consider marital status irrelevant to the achievement of the five \ "Personal Goals." Control variables age, education, income, marital status, and race did not significantly contribute to the predictability of the model.

Table 6

Results of Ordinary Least Squares Regression of Marital Attitudes Related to the Achievement of "Personal Goals by Socio-demographic Factors for full Sample, United States, 2010

Predictor	Full Sample (N = 2,312)			
	Without Marital Status ^a		With Marital Status ^b	
	Model 1		Model 2	
	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.01*(-0.05)	0.00	-0.00(-0.04)	0.00
Education	0.04(0.03)	0.02	0.04(0.04)	0.02
Full-time Employment	0.19*(0.02)	0.07	0.19***(0.06)	0.01
Income	0.01(0.02)	0.01	0.02(0.03)	0.01
White	-0.10(-0.02)	0.09	-0.08(0.03)	0.01
Male	-0.42**(-0.13)	0.07	-0.42**(-0.13)	0.07
Married			-0.13(-0.04)	0.08
Constant	3.08	0.15	3.05	0.15
F-statistic (df)	8.598 (6)		7.812 (7)	
Significance (Overall)	p < .001		p < .001	
Adjusted R ²	0.019		0.020	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: Standardized coefficients are in parentheses; SE = Standard error; (df) = degrees of freedom; achievement of "Personal Goals" (5= marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 "Personal Goals", 0= Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 "Personal Goals"); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Sex (1 = Male; 0 = Female); Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.001; ***p < 0.01

Predicting Marital Attitudes Related to the Achievement of “Personal Goals” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Race

Table 7 presents regression results of predictors on the “Achievement of Personal Goals” variable according to race. For Blacks, Model 1 predicted 2.8% of the explained variance in “Achievement of Personal Goals” and Model 2, with the addition of independent variable marital status predicted a similar variance (2.7%). Both models were statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Regression findings suggested that male was the only significant predictor of marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” for Blacks. For Models 1 and 2, the variable male made the strongest – adjusted betas were, respectively, -0.16 and -0.17 – unique contributions to explaining marital attitudes associated with “Achievement of Personal Goals.” In Models 1 and 2, male as a predictor was also significant and negatively associated with “Achievement of Personal Goals,” respectively, $\beta = -0.55$ and $\beta = -0.56$. As expected, this finding indicated that Black men were more likely than Black women to feel that marriage is needed to obtain financial security, social status, a career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life. No other predictor variables were found to be significant.

Models 3 and 4 show coefficients for the regression results of socio-demographic factors on the “Achievement of Personal Goals” variable for Whites. Model 3 predicted 1.9% of the explained variance in achievement of “Personal Goals” and was statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. In this model, the strongest predictor of “Achievement of Personal Goals” was the variable, male, with an adjusted beta of -0.12. The variables age ($\beta = -0.01$) and male ($\beta = -0.39$) had a significant negative effect on marital attitudes associated with “Achievement of “Personal Goals,” suggesting older Whites were more likely than younger Whites to say that marital status mattered in achieving all five

“Achievement of Personal Goals.” In addition, White men, like their Black counterparts, considered marital status a contributing factor in the “Achievement of goals. Findings indicated that compared to White women, White men were more likely to say that marital status made a difference in the achievement of financial security, social status, a career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life.

Conversely, full-time employment ($\beta = 0.23$) had a significant positive influence on marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals.” For instance, this study’s findings indicated that Whites who were employed full-time were more likely to view marital status as inconsequential in the “Achievement of Personal Goals” compared to those with other employment statuses. No other variables were significantly associated with marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals.”

Model 4 with the addition of marital status, predicted 2.2% of the variance in “Achievement of Personal Goals” explained by socio-demographic factors. As in Model 3, the socio-demographic variable, male with an adjusted beta = -0.12 had the strongest influence on “Achievement of Personal Goals.” Socio-demographic variables, age ($\beta = -0.01$; $p = 0.046$), male ($\beta = -0.39$; $p = 0.000$), and married ($\beta = -0.20$; $p = 0.015$), were significant and negatively associated with “Achievement of Personal Goals.” This finding suggested that older Whites were more likely than younger Whites to view marital status as a significant factor in the achievement of all five “Achievement of Personal Goals.” White males were more likely than White females to consider the attainment of “Achievement of Personal Goals” was related to marital status. Married Whites were

more likely than single Whites to answer that marriage is important to the realization of financial security, social status, a career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life.

Economic factors were also found to influence the marital attitudes of respondents (see model 4). For example, full-time employment ($\beta = 0.24$, $p = 0.003$) and income ($\beta = 0.04$, $p = 0.022$) were significant and positively associated with marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals.” Whites who were employed full-time were more likely to report that the achievement of financial security, social status, a career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life is not influenced by whether you are single or married than those with other employment statuses. Higher rather than lower income Whites were more likely to view marital status as unimportant in the attaining all five “Achievement of Personal Goals. Education was not significantly associated with “Achievement of Personal Goals.”

Summation. Overall, results of the regression analyses indicated that a significant and negative relationship between the predictor male and marital attitudes related to achievement of “Personal Goals” of Blacks and Whites was found across models. Differences in Black versus White respondents showed influence of the socio-demographic variables remained the same for regressions with and without marital status, the exception being income for Whites. Also, for Blacks only one variable (male) was a significant predictor of marital attitudes with and without marital status as a predictor, indicating that marriage had become more optional for Black women than Black men (Johnson & Loscocco 2014; Kaufman & Goldscheider 2007). While for Whites, three variables (age, full-time employment, and male) were significant predictors of marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” and with the

addition of marital status, the variables (age, full-time employment, income, married, and male) were all significant predictors.

Table 7

Results of Ordinary Least Squares Regression of Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of “Personal Goals” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Race, United States, 2010

Predictor	Blacks (N = 474)				Whites (N = 1,851)			
	<u>Without Marital Status</u>		<u>With Marital Status</u>		<u>Without Marital Status</u>		<u>With Marital Status</u>	
	<u>Model 1</u>		<u>Model 2</u>		<u>Model 3</u>		<u>Model 4</u>	
	B	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.00(-.01)	0.01	-0.00(-.02)	0.01	-0.01**(-.06)	0.00	-0.01**(-.05)	0.00
Education	0.09(.09)	0.05	0.09(.09)	0.05	0.02(.02)	0.03	0.02(.02)	0.30
Full-time Employment	-0.05(-.02)	0.16	-0.06(-.02)	0.16	0.23***(.07)	0.08	0.24****(.07)	0.08
Income	-0.03(-.05)	0.03	-0.04(-.06)	0.03	0.03(.04)	0.02	0.04**(.06)	0.02
Male	-0.55*(-.16)	0.16	-0.56*(-.17)	0.16	-0.39*(-.12)	0.08	-0.39*(-.12)	0.08
Married			0.13(.04)	0.19			-0.20**(-.16)	0.08
Constant	3.1	0.31	3.1	0.31	3.0	0.17	3.0	0.17
F-statistic (df)	3.70 (5)		3.18 (6)		8.24 (5)		7.88 (6)	
Significance (overall)	p < 0.005		p < .01		p < 0.001		p < 0.001	
Adjusted R ²	0.03		0.03		0.02		0.02	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: Standardized coefficients in parentheses; SE = Standard error; (df) = degrees of freedom; Achievement of “Personal Goals” (5= marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 achievement of “Personal Goals”, 0= Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 achievement of “Personal Goals”); Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females), Race (1 = White, 0 = Black).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.001; **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01, ****p < 0.005.

Predicting Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of “Personal Goals” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Sex

Table 8 presents results of the OLS regression of socio-demographic factors on “Achievement of Personal Goals” by sex. Regression results for Models 1 and Model 2 were similar. A slight difference was noted in the explained variance between Model 1 (1.1%) and Model 2 (1.0%) for women. Both models were statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Findings indicate that the labor force participation of women contributed to marital attitudes related to “Achievement of “Personal Goals.” First in Models 1 and 2, employment status with adjusted betas of 0.10 made the strongest contribution to explaining achievement of “Personal Goals” and were statistically significant and positively associated (respectively, $\beta = 0.33$, $p < .001$ and $\beta = 0.33$, $p < .001$) with marital attitudes related to all five achievement of goals. Suggesting, women with full-time labor force participation rather than those that were not working full-time were more likely to report that the attainment of financial security, social status, a career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life does not require marriage. Models 1 and 2 also, showed that race did not make a statistically significant impact on marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” for women. No other socio-demographic factors were statistically significant.

Model 3, explained 0.07% of variance in achievement of “Personal Goals” for men and this was statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Age ($\beta = -0.01$, $p = .019$) was the only socio-demographic measure significantly related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” and the association was negative. Thus, older men were more likely than their younger counterparts to say that marital status had an impact on the “Achievement of Personal Goals.” Race along with full-time employment, education, and income were

not statistically significant predictors of marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals.”

With the addition of marital status as a predictor, explained variance increased slightly to 0.08% in Model 4 compared to Model 3. The model was statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. However, for this model the variable income ($\beta = 0.05$, $p = 0.033$) was statistically significant and positively associated with marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals.” This finding suggests that high income men were more likely than low income men to report financial security, social status, a career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life can be attained whether you are married or not. Moreover, with the addition of marital status, race was not a statistically significant predictor of attitudes. No other variables in the model were significantly associated with “Achievement of Personal Goals.”

Summation. For women, regression results were the same with and without marital status. Across models, women working full-time did not consider marriage a necessary practice to attain “Achievement of “Personal Goals.” Yet, for men, findings indicated age and income influenced marital attitudes related to achievement of goals. Unexpectedly, across models with and without the inclusion of marital status as an independent variable, race was not a statistically significant predictor of “Achievement of Personal Goals” related to marital attitudes for women or men.

Table 8

Results of Ordinary Least Squares Regression of Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of “Personal Goals” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Sex, United States, 2010

Predictor	Females (N = 1,408)				Males (N = 1,223)			
	<u>Without Marital Status</u>		<u>With Marital Status</u>		<u>Without Marital Status</u>		<u>With Marital Status</u>	
	<u>Model 1</u>		<u>Model 2</u>		<u>Model 3</u>		<u>Model 4</u>	
	B	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.00(-.03)	0.00	-0.00(-.03)	0.00	-0.01**(-.06)	0.00	-0.01(-.06)	0.00
Education	0.02(.02)	0.03	0.02(.02)	0.03	0.05(.05)	0.03	0.05(.05)	0.03
Full-time Employment	0.33*(.10)	0.10	0.33*(.10)	0.10	-0.02(-.01)	0.11	0.01(.00)	0.11
Income	-0.01(-.01)	0.02	-0.00(-.01)	0.02	0.00(.06)	0.02	0.05**(.07)	0.02
White	-0.18(-.05)	0.12	-0.00(-.01)	0.02	0.03(.01)	0.13	0.05(.01)	0.13
Married			-0.04(-.01)	0.10			-0.19(-.06)	0.12
Constant	3.20	0.20	3.20	0.20	2.60	0.22	2.50	0.23
F-statistic (df)	3.69 (5)		3.09 (6)		2.43 (5)		2.48 (6)	
Significance (overall)	p < 0.005		p < 0.05		p < .05		p < 0.05	
Adjusted R ²	0.01		0.01		0.01		0.01	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: Standardized coefficients are in parentheses; SE = Standard error; (df) = degrees of freedom; Achievement of “Personal Goals” (5= marital status does NOT make a difference for any of the achievement of goals, 0= Marital status makes a difference for all 5 achievement of goals); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other); Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married).
^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses as predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.005; **p < 0.05

Odds in Occurrence of Marital Attitudes by Socio-demographic Factors

To address gaps in the literature related to marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites and if they vary, I conducted a series of binary logistic regressions to determine if socio-demographic factors (e.g. age, education, employment status, income, marital status, race, sex) predict the odds in occurrence of marital attitude measures: Is the present institution of marriage becoming Obsolete, What kind of marriage do you think is the

most satisfying way of life, and Is it easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family for the Full Sample; Blacks and Whites; females and males.

Coding from previous analysis was retained. Thus, the measure “Some people say the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete” was coded MarOb with response categories, 0 = disagree and 1 = agree. “What kind of marriage do you think is the more satisfying way of life?” was coded MostSatLife and 0 = “One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children”, 1 = “One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children”, will be utilized; and the variable “it is easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family, or doesn’t it make a difference” was coded RaiFam with responses, 1 = does not make a difference and 0 = does make a difference.

Equation 5.3 presents the logistic regression equation for conducting such an analysis:

Equation 3. Logistic Regression Equation

$$\text{Logit}(p) = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + \dots + b_kX_k$$

Odds in Occurrence of Marital Attitude “The Present Institution of Marriage is Becoming Obsolete” by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample

In Table 9, results from two logistic regression models assessing the odds in occurrence of marital attitude “...the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete” are presented for the Full Sample. Findings revealed that Models 1 and 2 were statistically significant at $p < 0.001$. Regression results for Model 1 indicated the odds of answering that marriage is an antiquated institution were 99% lower with every one-year increase in age of respondent, $p < .001$; 82% lower with every additional year

of education beyond the 8th grade reported, $p < .001$; and 94% lower with every one-unit increase in annual household income beyond \$10,000, $p < 0.01$. Findings also showed the odds of viewing marriage as a relic of the past were 75% lower for Whites than Blacks, $p < .01$ and 76% lower for males compared to females, $p < .01$. Employment status was not significantly associated with marital attitude, “the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete.”

In Model 2, I added the control marital status and found results were similar to those in Model 1. Although, race made a marginal ($p = .056$) contribution to the predictability of the model, race and income were not statistically significant predictors of the marital attitude, “the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete.”

Regression coefficients showed an overall model fit for four (age, education, male, and marital status) predictors indicating, the odds of reporting the present institution of marriage is out of date were 99% lower with every one-year increase in age of respondent, $p < .001$; 82% lower for higher educated respondents, $p < .001$; 61% lower for married compared to single respondents, $p < .001$; and 77% lower for men than women, $p < .01$.

Summation. In all cases, race and education as predictors were not significantly associated with the marital attitude, “the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete.” With and without the inclusion of marital status, across the board older respondents and those higher educated, as well as, males felt that being married is still in fashion.

Table 9

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Attitude “The Present Institution of Marriage is Becoming Obsolete” by Socio-demographic Factors for full Sample, United States, 2010

Predictor	Full Sample (N = 2,312)			
	Without Marital Status ^a		With Marital Status ^b	
	Model 1		Model 2	
	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.018 (0.99)	0.00	-0.01* (0.99)	0.00
Education	-0.21* (0.82)	0.03	-0.20* (0.82)	0.03
Full-time Employment	0.08 (0.41)	0.10	0.11 (1.10)	0.10
Income	-0.03** (0.94)	0.02	-0.04 (0.97)	0.02
Married			-0.50* (0.61)	0.10
White	-0.30*** (0.75)	0.11	-0.22 (0.81)	0.11
Male	-0.28** (0.76)	0.09	-0.27** (0.77)	0.09
Constant	1.85*	0.20	1.74*	0.20
-2 Log Likelihood	2860.30		2834.29	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	7.54 (.48)		10.90 (.21)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.09		0.10	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: SE = Standard error; (Odds Ratio); Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (1 = Agree; 0 = Disagree); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses as predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.001; **p < 0.005, ***p < 0.01

Odds in Occurrence of Marital Attitude “The Present Institution of Marriage is Becoming Obsolete” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Race

Table 10 summarizes four logistic regression models that evaluate potential correlates of marital attitude, “...the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete” by race. Results indicate Models 1 and 2 were statistically significant at, respectively, $p < .05$ and $p < .005$. Model 1 specified that every one-year increase in age was associated with a 99% decrease in the odds that Blacks viewed marriage as a defunct institution, $p < .05$. Results from Models 1 and 2 indicated that every one-unit increase in level of education beyond the 8th grade was associated with an 85% decrease in the odds that Blacks agreed the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete, $p < .05$. When controlling for race, multivariate results confirmed this study’s bivariate findings which showed that single more so than married Blacks are uncertain about the institution of marriage. Specifically, Model 2 indicated the odds that marriage was considered an out-of-date practice were 54% lower for married compared to not married Blacks, $p < .01$.

Models 3 and 4 were both statistically significant at $p < .001$ and indicated similar findings. Specifically, the probability that Whites viewed the institution of marriage as a relic of the past decreased 99% with every one-year increase in age reported, $p < .001$; decreased 81% with every one-unit increase in level of education beyond the 8th grade, $p < .001$; decreased from 0.93 to 1.00% with every one-unit increase in annual household income reported, $p < .001$; and decreased 77% for men rather than women, $p < .05$. Model 4 findings also suggested the odds of viewing marriage as no longer in vogue were 63% lower for married compared to single Whites, $p < .001$.

Summation. In three out of four equations younger Blacks and Whites viewed marriage as an institution that is becoming obsolete. Across all models lower educated Blacks and Whites believed that marriage is a practice of the past. However, marriage is considered a sound institution among high income Whites and White males.

Table 10

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Attitude “The Present Institution of Marriage is Becoming Obsolete” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Race, United States, 2010.

Predictor	Blacks (n = 453)				Whites (n = 1,781)			
	Without Marital Status		With Marital Status		Without Marital Status		With Marital Status	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.01**(.99)	0.01	-0.01(.99)	0.01	-0.01***(.99)	0.00	-0.01**(.99)	0.99
Education	-0.17**(.85)	0.06	-.16**(.85)	0.06	-0.22***(.81)	0.03	-0.22***(.81)	0.03
Full-time Employment	-0.01(.10)	0.20	0.03(1.03)	0.21	0.10(1.10)	0.11	0.12(1.10)	0.11
Income	-0.00(.10)	0.04	0.02(1.02)	0.04	-0.08***(.93)	0.02	-0.05(1.00)	0.02
Married			-0.61*(0.54)	0.23			-0.50***(.63)	0.11
Male	-0.31(.73)	0.20	-0.27(.77)	0.20	-0.27**(.77)	0.11	-0.27**(.77)	0.11
Constant	1.40***	0.40	1.30*	0.41	1.70***	0.23	1.70***	0.23
-2 Log Likelihood	612.86		605.31		2242.84		2225.07	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 Significance	9.53 (0.30)		7.62 (0.47)		2.95 (0.94)		5.47 (0.71)	
Nagelkerke R^2	0.04		0.07		0.08		0.10	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: SE = Standard error; (Odds Ratio); Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (1 = Agree; 0 = Disagree); Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Marital Status (1= Married; 0 = Not Married), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses as predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.01; **p < 0.05; ***p < 0.001

Odds in Occurrence of Marital Attitude “The Present Institution of Marriage is Becoming Obsolete” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Sex

In Table 11, I present results from four logistic regression models assessing the odds of marital attitude “...the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete” by sex. Models 1 and 2 were statistically significant at $p < .001$. Regression coefficients indicated that every one-year increase in age was associated with a 99% decrease in the probability a woman viewed marriage as old-fashioned, $p < .01$ and every one-unit increase in level of education beyond the 8th grade was associated with an 81% decrease in the odds a woman said that the present institution of marriage is becoming extinct, $p < .001$.

Findings for Model 1 showed that with every one-unit increase in annual household income the odds that a woman responded marriage is an outmoded custom decreased 94%, $p < .05$. Especially interesting, multivariate results reported views that the institution of marriage was becoming a thing of the past were 72% lower among White compared to Black women, $p < .05$. For women, full-time employment did not significantly contribute to the predictability of the model.

In Model 2, the predictor’s race, full-time employment, and income were not significant. However, findings revealed that the odds were 75% lower if married women answered that the present institution of marriage is becoming antiquated than single women.

For males, across models (Models 3 and 4) race and full-time employment were not found to be statistically significant predictors of the marital attitude, “...the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete.” Results showed that Models 3 and 4 were statistically significant at $p < .001$. Regression coefficients indicated that the odds a man

answered the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete decreased from 98% to 99% with every one-year increase in age, $p < .001$; $p < 0.05$ and from 82% to 83% with every reported one-unit increase in level of education beyond the 8th grade, $p < .001$.

In Model 3, findings suggested the odds that marriage was considered out-of-date were 94% lower among higher when compared to lower income men, $p < .05$. Model 4 specified the probability that marriage was considered out of fashion was 47% lower among married versus single men, $p < .05$.

Summation. Across all models, younger and less educated women and men viewed the institution of marriage as a dated practice. In two out of four equations, the feeling that marriage is old-fashioned was specified among single women and men, as well as, females and males who had lower incomes. Of additional importance, race was a significant predictor of the marital attitude "... is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?" for women. Black women, when compared to their White counterparts, were more inclined to view marriage as an institution declining in significance.

Table 11

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Attitude “The Present Institution of Marriage is Becoming Obsolete” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Sex, United States, 2010.

Predictor	Females (n = 1,206)				Males (n = 1,028)			
	Without Marital Status		With Marital Status		Without Marital Status		With Marital Status	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.01**(.99)	0.00	-0.01**(.99)	0.00	-0.02*(.98)	0.00	-0.01***(.99)	0.01
Education	-0.22*(.81)	0.04	-0.21*(.81)	0.04	-0.19*(.83)	0.04	-0.20*(.82)	0.05
Full-time Employment	0.15(1.20)	0.13	0.14(1.20)	0.13	-0.02(.98)	0.14	0.11(1.12)	0.15
Income	0.06***(.94)	0.02	-0.04(.96)	0.02	*0.06***(.94)	0.03	-0.03(.97)	0.03
Married			-0.29***(.75)	0.13			-0.75*(0.47)	0.15
White	-0.33***(.72)	0.15	-0.27(.77)	0.15	-0.24(.79)	0.17	-0.17(0.85)	0.17
Constant	1.80*	0.27	1.70*	0.27	1.70*	0.29	1.40*	0.30
-2 Log Likelihood	1570.77		1565.72		1287.51		1262.90	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 Significance	6.90 (.546)		3.10 (.928)		17.30 (.027)		6.80 (.560)	
Nagelkerke R^2	0.08		0.08		0.09		0.12	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: SE= Standard Error; (Odds Ratio); Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (1 = Agree; 0 = Disagree); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Marital Status (1= Married; 0= Not Married).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses as predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.05

Odds in Occurrence of Marital Attitude “What Kind of Marriage Do You Think is the Most Satisfying Way of Life” by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample

In Table 12, results of two logistic regression models assessing correlates of the marital attitude, “What kind of marriage do you think is the most satisfying way of life” for the Full Sample are presented. Findings indicated that Models 1 and 2 were statistically

significant at $p < .001$ and the results were similar. Regression coefficients indicated the odds of a respondent answering that having a marital arrangement where both spouses equally participate in housekeeping and child care needs is the most pleasing way to live were 44 to 47% lower for Whites compared to Blacks, $p < .001$ and the odds that a marriage where both husband and wife divide household duties is considered the best way to live were from 71% to 73% lower for men versus women, $p < .01$. For every one-year increase in age reported, the odds of saying the most fulfilling marriage is one where both a husband and wife work and take care of the house and children decreased 99%, $p < .05$.

Conversely, with every one-unit increase in level of education beyond the 8th grade, the odds that a respondent answered that the most satisfying way of life is when childrearing and household responsibilities are divided between husband and wife increased 1.1 times, $p < .05$ and increased from 130% to 140% among those employed full-time versus those employed part-time or unemployed, $p < .01$.

Also, Model 2 (with the addition of marital status as a control variable) revealed that the odds of viewing the most satisfying way of life as one where both the husband and wife care for the house and children was 58% lower for married compared to single adults, $p < .001$. Across models income as a predictor was not significant.

Summation: On the whole, variables age, White, and male were significant and negatively associated with marital attitude, "What kind of marriage do you think is the most satisfying way of life?" This suggested that older respondents, Whites, and males preferred a traditional versus a nontraditional marital arrangement. Higher educated

respondents and those who were employed full-time said that an egalitarian marriage was the most satisfying way to live.

Table 12

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Attitude, “What Kind of Marriage Do You Think Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life?” by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample, United States, 2010.

Predictor	Full Sample (N = 2,312)			
	Without Marital Status ^a		With Marital Status ^b	
	Model 1		Model 2	
	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.01**(0.99)	0.00	-0.01***(0.99)	0.00
Education	0.07***(1.10)	0.33	0.08***(1.10)	0.03
Full-time Employment	0.27*(1.30)	0.10	0.30*(1.40)	0.11
Income	-0.01(0.99)	0.02	0.02(1.02)	0.02
Married			-0.55**(0.58)	0.11
White	-0.83**(0.44)	0.14	-0.75**(0.47)	0.14
Male	-0.34*(0.71)	0.10	-0.32*(0.73)	0.10
Constant	1.80**	0.22	1.70**	0.22
-2 Log Likelihood	2,492.49		2,465.54	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	9.70 (0.28)		9.60 (0.29)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.05		0.07	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: (Odds Ratio); SE = Standard Error; What kind of Marriage Do You Think Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children; 0 = One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Marital Status (1= Married; 0 = Not Married), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses as predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.01; **p < 0.001; ***p < 0.05

Odds in Occurrence of Marital Attitude “What Kind of Marriage is the Most Satisfying Way of Life” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Race

Table 13 summarizes the results of four logistic regression models that evaluate potential correlates of the marital attitude, “What kind of marriage is the most satisfying way of life?” by race. Interestingly, regression coefficients indicated Models 1 and 2 were not statistically significant at $p > .05$. Also, with and without the control marital status none of the socio-demographic factors (age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex) influenced whether Blacks reported, the kind of marriage that is the most satisfying way of life is one where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children OR one where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children.

However, Models 3 and 4 were both statistically significant at $p < .001$, indicating the odds of reporting that an egalitarian marriage offered the most satisfying way of life were 0.1 times higher among Whites that were higher rather than lower educated, $p < .05$ and increased from 0.4 to 0.5 times among Whites who were employed full-time compared to those with other forms of labor force participation, $p < .01$.

Conversely, for every one-year increase in age the odds of a White person answering that the most satisfying way of life consists of a marriage where both the husband and wife share household responsibilities decreased by a factor of 0.99, $p < .01$, $p < 0.05$; and the odds of reporting that a husband and wife sharing household and childcare responsibilities was the ideal marital arrangement were from 0.71 to 0.72 times lower among White men versus White women, $p < .01$. Moreover, results for Model 4 showed, the odds that a marriage where both spouses share household and

childrearing responsibilities was viewed as the most desirable way to live were 54% lower among married rather than single Whites, $p < .001$.

Summation. For Blacks, there were no significant coefficients that associated socio-demographic measures with the marital attitude, "What kind of Marriage Do You Think Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life?" However, across models, older White men favored the conventional marital arrangement while highly educated Whites and those with full-time employment preferred a more egalitarian lifestyle.

Table 13

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Attitude, “What Kind of Marriage Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life?” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Race, United States, 2010.

Predictor	Blacks (n = 453)				Whites (n = 1,658)			
	Without Marital Status		With Marital Status		Without Marital Status		With Marital Status	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.01(.99)	0.01	-0.01(.98)	0.01	-0.018(.99)	0.00	-0.01**(.99)	0.00
Education	0.04(1.04)	0.08	0.04(1.00)	0.08	0.08**(1.10)	0.04	0.09**(1.10)	0.04
Full-time Employment	-0.12(.88)	0.26	-0.12(.89)	0.26	0.34*(1.40)	0.11	0.38*(1.50)	0.12
Income	0.06(1.10)	0.05	0.07(1.10)	0.05	-0.02(.98)	0.02	0.01(1.01)	0.02
Married			-0.23(.79)	0.28			-0.34***(.54)	0.12
Male	-0.39(.68)	0.25	-0.37(.69)	0.25	-0.34*(.71)	0.11	-0.3*(.72)	0.11
Constant	1.70*	0.51	1.70*	0.52	0.97***	0.23	0.92***	0.23
-2 Log Likelihood	419.30		418.62		2,068.27		2,040.59	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 Significance	7.2 (0.51)		7.90 (0.45)		11.10 (0.20)		12.40 (0.13)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.02		0.03		0.03		0.05	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: (Odds Ratio); SE = Standard Error; What kind of Marriage Do You Think Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children; 0 = One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses as predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.01; **p < 0.05; ***p < 0.001

Odds in Occurrence of Marital Attitude “What Kind of Marriage is the Most Satisfying Way of Life” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Sex

Table 14 summarizes the results of four logistic regression models that evaluate potential correlates of the marital attitude, “What kind of marriage is the most satisfying

way of life?" by sex. In Models 1 and 2, regression coefficients indicated that for females both equations were significant, $p < .001$. Results suggested the odds that an egalitarian marriage was viewed as the most fulfilling way of life were from 41 to 46% lower among White rather than Black women, $p < .001$.

Moreover, Model 1 regression results also showed the odds that women thought the most fulfilling marriage was one where husband and wife both work and share household and child care duties were from 1.0 to 1.1 times higher among those employed full-time versus those with other forms of employment, $p < .001$.

The addition of marital status as a control variable in Model 2 revealed that with every one-unit increase in level of education beyond the 8th grade, the odds a female answered that the most satisfying marriage was one where spouses share household tasks increased 110%, $p < .05$. While the odds that women viewed the most satisfying lifestyle as one consisting of an egalitarian marital arrangement were 50% lower among those who were married rather than single, $p < .001$.

For males, results showed that Models 3 and 4 were both significant at $p < .001$. Findings indicated that compared to Black men, the odds that a husband and wife both working and taking care of the house and children was a marital arrangement considered the most satisfying lifestyle were from 49 to 51% lower among White men, $p < .001$. With every one-year increase in age, the probability that a marriage where both spouses share household and childrearing tasks was viewed as the most pleasing life arrangement decreased from 98% to 99%, $p < .001$; $p < .01$. Moreover, Model 4 revealed that the odds that an egalitarian marriage was viewed as the most satisfying way of life were 73% lower among married when compared to unmarried men, $p < .001$.

Summation. When examined by sex, a difference in views of Black and White women became evident. As Black women indicated a stronger preference for a nontraditional marital arrangement where the husband and wife both work and share household as well as child care responsibilities. In addition, highly educated women and women who worked full-time indicated they preferred an egalitarian marriage. Further, across all models a conventional marital arrangement was favored by married White women and men.

Table 14

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Attitude, “What Kind of Marriage Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life?” By Socio-demographic Factors According to Sex, United States, 2010.

Predictor	Females (n = 1,132)				Males (n = 979)			
	Without Marital Status		With Marital Status		Without Marital Status		With Marital Status	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.08(.99)	0.00	-0.01(.99)	0.00	-0.02(.98)	0.00	-0.01(.99)	0.01
Education	0.08(1.1)	0.05	0.10***(1.1)	0.05	0.05(1.1)	0.05	0.05(1.1)	0.05
Full-time Employment	0.72*(2.1)	0.15	0.71*(2.0)	0.15	-0.19(.82)	0.15	-0.15(.87)	0.15
Income	-0.01(.99)	0.03	0.03(1.0)	0.03	0.01(1.0)	0.03	0.02(1.0)	0.03
Married			-0.70*(.50)	.015			-.032***(.73)	0.16
White	-.089(.41)	0.19	-0.77(.46)	0.20	-0.71(0.49)	0.20	-0.67(0.51)	0.20
Constant	1.50*	0.30	1.40*	0.31	1.90*	0.32	1.80*	0.32
-2 Log Likelihood	1,260.78		1,239.40		1,210.74		1,206.54	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 Significance	8.90(.35)		8.10(.43)		3.80(.88)		3.80(.88)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.08		0.10		0.04		0.05	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: (Odds Ratio); SE = Standard Error; What kind of Marriage Do You Think Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children; 0 = One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses as predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.01; **p < 0.05; ***p < 0.001

Odds in Occurrence of “What is the Easiest Way to Raise a Family” by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample.

In Table 15, the results of two logistic regression models that evaluated potential correlates of the marital attitude, “it is easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family, or doesn’t it make a difference”, are presented for the full sample.

Regression results indicated Models 1 and 2 were both statistically significant at $p < .001$ and findings revealed that the odds respondents reported being married or single did not make it easier to raise a family were from 61 to 65% lower for Whites compared to Blacks, $p < .001$; from 72 to 73% lower among men rather than women, $p < .01$; and from 88 to 89% lower among higher educated versus lower educated respondents, $p < .001$.

Moreover, Model 2 (with the addition of marital status as a control) showed the odds that respondents answered marriage does not make a difference in the ease of raising a family were 65% lower among those that were married compared to those who were not married, $p < 0.001$.

Table 15

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Attitude “Easiest Way to Raise a Family” by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample, United States, 2010.

Predictor	Full Sample (N = 2,312)			
	Without Marital Status ^a		With Marital Status ^b	
	Model 1		Model 2	
	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.01(1.0)	0.00	-0.00(1.0)	0.00
Education	-0.12*(.88)	0.04	-0.12*(0.89)	0.04
Full-time Employment	-0.01(.96)	0.11	0.02(1.0)	0.11
Income	-0.04(.96)	0.02	-0.02(.98)	0.02
Married			-0.44**(.65)	0.12
White	-0.50**(.61)	0.12	-0.44**(.65)	0.12
Male	-0.33*(.72)	0.11	-0.32*(.73)	0.11
Constant	0.18	0.22	0.06	0.22
-2 Log Likelihood	2257.90		2243.64	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	6.0(.07)		4.30(.83)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.04		0.05	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: (Odds Ratio); SE = Standard Error; What kind of Marriage Do You Think Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children; 0 = One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Marital Status (1= Married; 0 = Not Married), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses as predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.01; **p < 0.001; ***p < 0.05

Odds in Occurrence of Marital Attitude “What is the Easiest Way to Raise a Family” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Race

Table 16 summarizes the results of four logistic regression models that evaluated potential correlates of the marital attitude, “it is easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family, or doesn’t it make a difference,” by race. For Blacks, regression

coefficients indicated both Models 1 and 2 were not statistically significant at $p > .05$. With and without the control marital status, the six socio-demographic factors were not statistically significant and therefore did not contribute to the prediction of whether Blacks answered that marital status does or does not make it easier to raise a family.

In contrast, Models 3 and 4 for Whites were both statistically significant at $p < .001$. However, predictor's age and full-time employment did not contribute to the model. Multivariate findings showed across models the odds that Whites answered marital status does not make a difference in the ease of raising a family were 63% lower among men rather than women, $p < .001$ and with every one-unit increase in level of education the odds that respondents answered marital status has no impact on raising a family were 89% lower among higher educated compared to lesser educated Whites, $p < .01$. Regression results for Model 4 indicated that the odds associated with being single or married was consider unimportant when raising a family were 58% lower among Whites that were married versus single, $p < .001$.

Summation. Socio-demographic factors did not significantly predict the marital attitude, "it is easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family, or doesn't it make a difference" for Blacks, although married Whites viewed marriage as an important component of family life. Whites who were less educated, single, or female did not view marriage as necessary to raise a family.

Table 16

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Attitude “Easiest Way to Raise a Family” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Race, United States, 2010

Predictor	Blacks (n = 468)				Whites (n = 1,832)			
	<u>Without Marital Status</u>		<u>With Marital Status</u>		<u>Without Marital Status</u>		<u>With Marital Status</u>	
	<u>Model 1</u>		<u>Model 2</u>		<u>Model 3</u>		<u>Model 4</u>	
	B	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.00(1.0)	0.01	-0.00(1.0)	0.01	-0.01(1.0)	0.00	-0.00(1.0)	0.00
Education	-0.13(.88)	0.07	-0.13(.88)	0.07	-0.12*(.89)	0.04	-0.12*(0.89)	0.04
Full-time Employment	-0.13(.88)	0.22	-0.13(.88)	0.22	0.06(1.1)	0.13	0.08(1.1)	0.13
Income	-0.04(1.0)	0.04	-0.04(.97)	0.04	-0.04(.96)	0.03	-0.01(.99)	0.03
Married			-0.10(.90)	0.24			-0.55**(.58)	0.13
Male	0.02(1.0)	0.21	0.03(1.0)	0.21	-0.47**(.63)	0.13	-0.46**(.63)	0.13
Constant	-0.01	0.42	-0.04	0.42	-0.29	0.56	-0.35	0.26
-2 Log Likelihood	557.54		557.36		1695.86		1678.43	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 Significance	8.0(.44)		10.0(.26)		10.2(.25)		10.9(.21)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.03		0.03		0.03		0.01	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: (Odds Ratio); SE = Standard Error; What kind of Marriage Do You Think Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children; 0 = One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses as predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.01; **p < 0.05; ***p < 0.001

Odds in Occurrence of Marital Attitude “What is the Easiest Way to Raise a Family” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Sex

Table 17 summarizes results of four logistic regression models that evaluated potential correlates of the marital attitude, “it is easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family, or doesn’t it make a difference” according to sex. Models 1 and

2 (females) were statistically significant at $p < .001$. Regression results showed that with every one-unit increase in education beyond the 8th grade the odds that respondents answered marriage does not make raising a family easier were 83% lower for higher educated compared to lower educated women, $p < .001$. In Model 2 results showed that the odds respondents felt that whether you are single or married did not make it easier to raise a family were 63% lower for married versus single women, $p < .01$. Interestingly, among women, race was not a significant factor in predicting whether it was easier for a married person to raise a family.

Regression results showed for males both Models 3 and 4 were statistically significant, $p < .001$. Results indicated the odds that being married was not viewed as the easiest way to raise a family were 44 to 46% lower for White compared to Black men, $p < .001$. Moreover, Model 4 revealed the odds of respondents answering that being single or married did not make it easier to raise a family were 66% lower among married rather than single men, $p < .05$.

Summation. Married women and men believed that it was easier to raise a family inside of rather than outside of a marital union. However, lesser educated women and Black men did not think being married made it easier to raise a family.

Table 17

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Attitude “Easiest Way to Raise a Family” by Socio-demographic Factors According to Sex, United States, 2010

Predictor	Females (n = 1244)				Males (n = 1056)			
	<u>Without Marital Status</u>		<u>With Marital Status</u>		<u>Without Marital Status</u>		<u>With Marital Status</u>	
	<u>Model 1</u>		<u>Model 2</u>		<u>Model 3</u>		<u>Model 4</u>	
	B	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Age	-0.0(1.0)	0.00	-0.00(1.0)	0.00	-0.01(1.0)	0.01	-0.00(1.0)	0.01
Education	-0.19*(.83)	0.05	-0.18*(.83)	0.05	-0.04(1.0)	0.05	-0.04(1.0)	0.06
Full-time Employment	0.05(1.1)	0.15	0.04(1.0)	0.15	-0.05(.95)	0.18	0.02(1.0)	0.18
Income	-0.05(.95)	0.03	-0.03(.97)	0.03	-0.02(.98)	0.04	-0.01(1.0)	0.04
Married			-0.47**(.63)	0.15			-0.42***(.66)	0.19
White	-0.28(.76)	0.16	-0.19(.82)	0.17	-0.83*(.44)	0.19	-0.79*(.46)	0.19
Constant	0.31	0.29	0.23	0.29	-0.33	0.34	-0.50	0.34
-2 Log Likelihood	1295.12		1285.64		953.11		948.08	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 Significance	12.3(.14)		7.2(.52)		5.6(.69)		11.3(.19)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.04		0.06		0.04		0.05	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: (Odds Ratio); SE = Standard Error; What kind of Marriage Do You Think Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children; 0 = One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses as predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

*p < 0.01; **p < 0.05; ***p < 0.001

CHAPTER 6: PREDICTING MARRIAGE

Introduction

Chapter 6 presents findings from a series of binary logistic regressions used to address this study's second hypothesis: Socio-demographic factors have a differential impact on marital status for Black and White Americans. Qualitative and mixed method studies suggested that social position affected marital attitudes (Edin and Kefalas 2005), marital attitudes related to "Achievement of Personal Goals" (Amato et al. 2007; Cherlin 2009), and subsequently, the marital status of Blacks and Whites (Cherlin et. al 2009). Chapter 6 is divided into three sections: (a) determine how well socio-demographic factors predict the marital status of Black and White Americans and if they differ; (b) assess differences in attitudinal predictors of marital status and if they vary according to race; and (c) determine how well socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital attitudes related to "Achievement of Personal Goals" predict the marital status of Blacks and Whites and if there are racial variations. Further, to investigate variations between as well as within groups and fill a void in the literature, analyses were also conducted according to sex (female/male).

Odds in Occurrence of Marriage by Socio-demographic Factors

Dependent and independent variable coding from prior analyses were retained. For the dichotomous dependent variable, Marital Status, 1 equaled Married and 0 equaled Not Married. Independent variables: employment status, race, and sex were dichotomously coded, with age, education, and income analyzed as continuous variables. For employment status, full-time was coded 1 and part-time, unemployed, retired, and student were grouped (Other) and coded 0. To ensure clarity in the

interpretation of findings for race, Black was coded 0, White was coded 1 and for sex, female was coded 0 and male was coded 1.

I conducted preliminary analyses that consisted of a series of logistic regressions. Each regression contained varying combinations of socio-demographic measures that were analyzed separately for the Full Sample, Blacks, Whites, females, and males. Controlling for their effects, age and sex variables were included in all models and the best fitting models were retained (See Appendix C).

Odds in Occurrence of Marriage by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample

Tables 18 through 20 summarize results for the logistic regression of marital status by socio-demographic factors for the Full Sample, Blacks and Whites, females and males. In Table 18, regression coefficients are presented for the Full Sample. A test of the full model against the constant only model was statistically significant, indicating that socio-demographic factors as a set reliably distinguished between married and not married respondents at $p < .001$. However, education and male were not significant predictors. As expected, findings indicated that the odds of being married were 220% higher for Whites compared to Blacks, $p < .001$ and 130% higher among respondents employed full-time rather than part-time or unemployed, $p < .01$.

Moreover, regression coefficients showed that with every one-year increase in education beyond the eighth grade, the odds of being married increased 100%, $p < .001$ and with every one-unit increase in annual household income beyond \$10,000 the odds of marriage increased 130%, $p > .001$.

Summation: Marriage was more than twice (220%) as high for Whites versus Blacks, while economic factors, full-time employment (1.3 times) and higher income (1.3 times), contributed to an increase in the presence of marital unions.

Table 18

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample, United States, 2010 (N = 2312)

Predictor	β	SE
Age	0.03(1.0)	0.0
Education	0.04(1.0)	0.03
Full-time employment	0.26**(1.3)	0.10
Income	0.22*(1.3)	0.02
White	0.80*(2.2)	0.12
Male	0.15(1.2)	0.09
Constant	-3.61	0.23
-2 Log Likelihood	2784.86	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	33.17(0.00)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.22	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: N= 2326; SE= Standard Error; (Odds Ratio); Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females), Race (1 = White; 0 = Black)

*p < 0.001, **p < 0.01

Odds in Occurrence of Marriage by Socio-demographic Factors According to Race

Table 19 presents regression coefficients for models predicting marital status by socio-demographic factors according to race. For Blacks (Model 1) regression results indicated a statistically significant model at $p < .001$. Confirming past research (U.S. Census Bureau 2014), sex played a significant role in the marital status of Blacks. Regression results suggested that the odds of marriage were 160% higher among Black men rather than Black women, $p < .05$. Moreover, as expected, the odds of being

married were 100% higher for older versus younger Blacks, $p < .001$ and the odds of being married increased 1.2 times with every one-unit increase in annual household income beyond \$10,000, $p < .001$. Education and full-time employment did not contribute significantly to the model.

In Model 2 (Whites), a test of the full model against the constant only model was statistically significant at $p < .001$. As expected and similar to their Black counterparts, findings showed that the odds of reporting married were 100% higher among older versus younger Whites, $p < .001$ and 130% higher for higher rather than lower income Whites, $p < .001$. Results also revealed, the odds ratio for being married was 1.3 for Whites employed full-time. This means that Whites with full-time employment had odds of marriage that were 130% higher than Whites with other labor force statuses, $p < .05$. The variables, male and education, did not contribute significantly to the model.

Summation. Across models, age and income had a significant influence on marital status for Blacks and Whites. However, being a male played a significant role in whether Blacks reported being married, while having full-time employment significantly contributed to the prevalence of marriage for Whites.

Table 19

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Socio-demographic Factors According to Race, United States, 2010.

Predictors	Blacks (n = 470)		Whites (n = 1841)	
	<u>Model 1</u>		<u>Model 2</u>	
	β	SE	β	SE
Age	0.04(1.0)	0.01	0.02*(1.0)	0.00
Education	0.08(1.1)	0.17	0.04(1.0)	0.03
Full-time Employment	0.27(1.3)	0.23	0.26**(1.3)	0.11
Income	0.15*(1.2)	0.04	0.25*(1.3)	0.02
Male	0.46**(1.6)	0.22	0.09(1.1)	0.10
Constant	-4.00	0.51	-2.76	0.24
-2 Log Likelihood	516.46		2259.00	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	11.13(.195)		34.12(.000)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.17		0.19	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: (Odds Ratio); SE = Standard Error; Marital Status (1= Married; 0 = Not Married) Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), , Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females).

*p < 0.01; **p < 0.001; ***p < 0.05

Odds in Occurrence of Marriage by Socio-demographic Factors According to Sex

Table 20 presents regression results of socio-demographic factors on marital status according to sex. Regression coefficients indicated Model 3 (females) was statistically significant at $p < .001$ and two variables, education and employment status, were not significant predictors of marital status. Confirming past research (U.S. Bureau of Census 2014), race was a significant predictor of marriage among women. According to this study's findings, the odds ratio for White females was 2.6. This means that odds of marriage among White females were significantly (260%) higher than that of Black females, $p < .001$. Moreover, findings suggested that with every one-year increase in

age, the odds of a female being married increased 1.0 times, $p < .01$; and with every one-unit increase in annual household income beyond \$10,000, the odds of a female reporting married increased 130%, $p < .001$.

In Model 2 (Males), regression coefficients also revealed a statistically significant model at $p < .001$. As expected, race was also a significant predictor of marriage for men. Specifically, results showed the odds ratio of being married was 1.7 for White males. This finding suggests White men had odds of being married that were approaching twice (170%) that of Black men, $p < .01$. Findings indicated that for men with every one-year increase in age, the odds of being married increased 1.1 times, only slightly more than for females (1.0 times), $p < .001$. With every one-unit increase in annual household income beyond \$10,000, the odds of a male reporting married increased 120%, significantly less than for females (130%), $p < .001$; and the odds of being married were 120% higher among men with full-time rather than part-time or other types of employment, $p < 0.001$. Education did not contribute significantly to the model.

Summation. Across models, age, income, and race were significant, positive predictors of marital status for women and men, with the significance varying according to sex. Further, for men, unlike women, full-time employment was an important contributor to the prevalence of marriage, suggesting that the ability to fulfill the male-provider role continues to have a positive influence on the marital status of men.

Table 20

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Socio-demographic Factors According to Sex, United States. 2010.

Predictors	Females (n = 1249)		Males (n = 1062)	
	<u>Model 1</u>		<u>Model 2</u>	
	β	SE	β	SE
Age	0.01**(1.0)	0.00	0.06*(1.1)	0.01
Education	0.06(1.1)	0.04	0.03(1.0)	0.05
Full-time Employment	-0.11(.90)	0.13	0.86*(2.4)	0.16
Income	0.25*(1.3)	0.02	0.18*(1.2)	0.03
White	0.96*(2.6)	0.16	0.09**(1.7)	0.10
Constant	-3.00	0.30	-4.62	0.37
-2 Log Likelihood	1519.49		1192.28	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	17.86(.02)		23.51(.003)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.21		0.31	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: (Odds Ratio); SE = Standard Error; Marital Status (1= Married; 0 = Not Married) Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Race (1 = White; 0 = Black).

*p < 0.01; **p < 0.001; ***p < 0.05

Odds in Occurrence of Marriage by Marital Attitudes and Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of “Personal Goals”

Tables 21 through 23 summarize results of a series of logistic regressions that examined how well marital attitudes and marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” predicted marital status for the Full Sample, Blacks and Whites, females and males. Prior coding of variables was retained. The dependent variable, marital status, was coded as 1 = Married; 0 = Not Married. The independent variables, “Some people say the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete” was coded MarOb with response categories, 0= Disagree and 1= Agree; “What kind of marriage do you think is the more satisfying way of life?” was coded MostSatLife with response

categories, 0= One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children, 1= One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children, will be used. The variable “it is easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family, or doesn’t it make a difference” was coded RaiFam with responses, 1=doesn’t make a difference and 0=all other responses. Marital attitudes related to the “Achievement of Personal Goals” variable was coded achievement of “Personal Goals” with responses, 0 = Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 “Achievement of Personal Goals” and 5 = Marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 “Achievement of Personal Goals.”

Odds in Occurrence of Marriage by Marital Attitudes and Marital Attitudes Related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” for Full Sample

For the full sample, multivariate results indicated a statistically significant model at $p < .001$. All predictors with the exception of “Achievement of Personal Goals” were statistically significant. Regression coefficients indicated the odds that the present institution of marriage was viewed as becoming obsolete were 50% lower among married versus single respondents, $p < .001$. The feeling that the most satisfying marital arrangement was one where both the husband and wife work and share household as well as child care responsibilities were 60% lower among married compared to not married respondents, $p < .001$. The perception that marital status did not make a difference in the ease of raising a family were 58% lower among married rather than single respondents, $p < .001$.

Summation. Conventional views toward marriage and family were more common among respondents who were married versus those who were single.

Table 21

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Marital Attitudes and Marital Attitudes Related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” for Full-Sample, United States, 2010 (N = 2315)

Predictor	β	SE
Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?	-0.69*(.50)	0.09
Is it easier for a single person, a married, to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference?	-0.54(.58)	0.11
What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life?	-.52*(.60)	0.11
“Achievement of Personal Goals”	-0.18(0.08)	0.13
Constant	0.87	0.14
-2 Log Likelihood	3070.05	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	5.28(.051)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.08	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: SE = Standard error; (Odds Ratio); Marital Status (1 = Married, 0 = Not Married),

Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (0 = Disagree, 1 = Agree),

Is it easier for a single person, married person to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference? (1 = Doesn't make a difference, 0 = Other);

What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have a job and both take care of the house and children OR 0 = One where the husband works and the wife takes care of the house and children);

Achievement of “Personal Goals” (5= marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 achievement of “Personal Goals”, 0= Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 achievement of “Personal Goals”).

*p < 0.001

Odds of Marriage by Marital Attitudes and Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of “Personal Goals” According to Race

Table 22 presents regression results for marital status by marital attitudes and marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” according to race. For Blacks (Model 1), regression coefficients indicated a statistically significant model at $p < .01$. Findings showed that marital attitudes, “What kind of marriage do you think is the most satisfying way of life,” “Is it easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family”, and marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” did not contribute to the model. This study found the odds ratio of the attitudinal measure, “Some people say the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete” was 0.48 for

Blacks. This means the feeling that the institution of marriage is a relic of the past were 48% lower among married rather than not married Blacks, $p < .005$.

For Whites (Model 2) regression results indicated a statistically significant model at $p < .001$. However, unlike Model 1 (Blacks), all three attitudinal measures were significant predictors of marital status. Regression coefficients showed that feeling the present institution of marriage is archaic were 51% lower among married compared to single Whites, $p < .001$. The idea that the best type of marriage is one where the husband and wife equally manage household and childcare tasks were 64% lower among married versus not married Whites, $p < .001$ and the perception that being married does not make raising a family easier were 57% lower among married rather than single Whites, $p < 0.001$.

Summation. Married Blacks and Whites viewed the institution of marriage as intact. Married Whites preferred adherence to conventional sex roles and family structure. Marital attitudes related to "Achievement of Personal Goals" were not significant in predicting marital status for Blacks or Whites.

Table 22

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Marital Attitudes and Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of "Personal Goals" According to Race, United States, 2010

Predictors	Blacks (n = 437)		Whites (n = 1610)	
	Model 1		Model 2	
	β	SE	β	SE
Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?	-0.74*(.48)	0.21	-0.68**(.51)	0.11
Is it easier for a single person, a married, to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference?	-0.14(.87)	0.24	-0.57**(.57)	0.14
What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life?	-0.30(0.74)	0.27	-0.45**(.64)	0.11
"Achievement of Personal Goals"	-0.02(.98)	0.33	-0.24(.79)	0.16
Constant	-0.16	0.39	1.1	0.17
-2 Log Likelihood	524.98		2123.03	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	4.35(.63)		1.42(.92)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.04		0.07	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: SE = Standard error; (Odds Ratio); Marital Status (1 = Married, 0 = Not Married),

Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (0 = Disagree, 1 = Agree),

Is it easier for a single person, married person to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference? (1 = Doesn't make a difference, 0 = Other);

What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have a job and both take care of the house and children OR 0 = One where the husband works and the wife takes care of the house and children);

Achievement of "Personal Goals" (5= marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 "Personal Goals", 0= Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 "Personal Goals").

*p < 0.005, **p < 0.001

Odds of Marriage by Marital Attitudes and Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of "Personal Goals" According to Sex

Table 23 presents results for the regression of marital attitudes on marital status according to sex. Results showed Model 1 (Females) was statistically significant at $p < .001$. Regression coefficients indicated the odds that the present institution of marriage was viewed as a relic of the past were 60% lower among married versus single women, $p < .001$. The odds that women perceived that being married or single did not make a difference in the ease of raising a family were 56% lower among married compared to

single women, $p < .001$ and the odds that the best type of marriage was considered to be one where both spouses worked and shared household and family obligations were 52% lower among married compared to not married women, $p < .001$. The predictor “Achievement of Personal Goals” did not significantly contribute to the model.

Findings for males (Model 2) also revealed a statistically significant model at $p < .001$. Results showed that the odds men felt that marriage was an out of date institution were 41% lower among those that were married versus not married, $p < 0.001$. The odds that an egalitarian marriage was considered the ideal marital arrangement were 69% lower among married compared to single men, $p < .01$ and odds that respondents viewed marital status as unrelated to the ease of raising a family were 62% lower among married versus not married men, $p < .01$. Moreover, the odds that achieving financial security, social status, a career, and a fulfilling sex life was viewed as being related to marital status were 64% higher among married versus single men, $p < .05$.

Summation. Across models, marital attitudes, “Some people say the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete,” “What kind of marriage do you think is the more satisfying way of life,” and “Is it easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family” were significantly and positively associated with the marital status for both women and men. Only men considered “Achievement of Personal Goals” as relevant to marital status. As expected, findings indicated that married as opposed to single respondents held more conservative views regarding marriage and family structure.

Table 23

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Marital Attitudes and Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of “Personal Goals” According to Sex, United States, 2010

Predictors	Females (n = 1238)		Males (n = 1077)	
	Model 1		Model 2	
	β	SE	β	SE
Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?	-0.52*(.60)	0.12	-0.90*(.41)	0.13
Is it easier for a single person, a married, to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference?	-0.60*(.57)	0.15	-0.48**(.62)	0.17
What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life?	-0.65*(.52)	0.13	-0.37**(.69)	0.14
Achievement of “Personal Goals”	0.14(1.2)	0.20	-.45***(.64)	0.19
Constant	0.57	0.21	1.1	0.20
-2 Log Likelihood	1647.59		1410.44	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	1.96(.93)		3.51(.74)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.07		0.10	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: SE = Standard error; (Odds Ratio); Marital Status (1 = Married, 0 = Not Married),

Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (0 = Disagree, 1 = Agree),

Is it easier for a single person, married person to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference? (1 = Doesn't make a difference, 0 = Other);

What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have a job and both take care of the house and children OR 0 = One where the husband works and the wife takes care of the house and children);

Achievement of “Personal Goals” (5= marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 “Personal Goals”, 0= Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 “Personal Goals”).

*p < 0.001, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.05

Odds in Occurrence of Marriage by Socio-demographic Factors, Marital Attitudes, and Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of “Personal Goals”

Tables 24 through 26 summarize the results of logistic regression analyses of marital status by socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” for the Full Sample and separately for Blacks and Whites, females and males. Coding from prior analyses was retained for all measures.

**Odds in Occurrence of Marriage by Socio-demographic Factors,
Marital Attitudes, and Marital Attitudes Related to “Achievement
of Personal Goals” for the Full Sample**

In Table 24, the regression analyses of marital status by socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” for the Full Sample are presented. Regression coefficients indicated the equation was significant at $p < .001$. However, the variables education, male, and “Achievement of Personal Goals” did not contribute significantly to the model. Results showed that race was a significant predictor of marital status. Specifically, this study found that the odds ratio for being married was 1.9 for Whites, $p < .001$, meaning that the odds of being married for Whites were nearly twice (190%) that of Blacks. Further, the odds of marriage among older respondents were 1.0 times higher than that of younger respondents, $p < .001$ and were 1.2 times higher among higher compared to lower income respondents, $p < .001$. Moreover, the odds of being married among respondents with full-time employment were 130% higher than respondents with other work statuses, $p < .05$.

Regression coefficients revealed that the odds marriage was perceived as an outmoded institution were 61% lower among married rather than not married respondents. The odds that the ease of raising a family was viewed as not related to whether one is single or married were 70% lower among respondents who were married as opposed to single, $p < .01$. The odds that the most satisfying marital arrangement was considered to be one where both the husband and wife participated in nontraditional sex roles were 63% lower among married rather than not married respondents, $p < .001$.

Summation. Married respondents held more conventional attitudes about the structure of marriage and family. Marriage was more likely among Whites, older respondents, and those with higher income.

Table 24

Odds of Marital Status by Socio-demographic Factors, Marital Attitudes, and Marital Attitudes Related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” for Full Sample, United States, 2010 (N = 2037)

Predictor	β	SE
Age	0.03(1.0)	0.00
Education	0.03(1.0)	0.03
Full-time Employment	0.24**(1.2)	0.02
Income	0.22*(1.2)	0.02
White	0.62*(1.9)	0.13
Male	0.10(1.1)	0.10
Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?	-0.49*(.61)	0.10
Is it easier for a single person, a married, to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference?	-0.39***(.68)	0.13
What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life?	-0.47*(.63)	0.12
“Achievement of Personal Goals”	-0.26(.77)	0.16
Constant	-2.4	0.30
-2 Log Likelihood	2399.87	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	34.04(.000)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.25	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: SE = Standard error; (Odds Ratio); Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (1 = Agree, 0 = Disagree), Is it easier for a single person, married person to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference? (1 = Doesn't make a difference, 0 = Other);

What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have a job and both take care of the house and children OR 0 = One where the husband works and the wife takes care of the house and children),

Achievement of “Personal Goals” (5= marital status does not make a difference in the achievement of all 5 “Personal Goals”, 0= Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 “Personal Goals”)Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Employment status (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Sex (1 = Male; 0 = Female);

*p < .001, **p < .05, ***p < .005

**Odds in Occurrence of Marriage by Socio-demographic Factors,
Marital Attitudes, and Marital Attitudes Related to “Achievement
of Personal Goals” According to Race**

Table 25 summarizes regression results of marital status by socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” according to race. Model 1 for Blacks was statistically significant at $p < .001$. Regression coefficients revealed that the variable male ($p = .055$) was marginally significant for this model, however, male, education, full-time employment, “What kind of marriage do you think is the more satisfying way of life,” “Is it easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family,” and “Achievement of Personal Goals” were not statistically significant predictors. Specifically, findings indicated that the odds of being married were 110% higher among older rather than younger Blacks, $p < .001$ and 119% higher among Blacks with higher versus lower incomes, $p < .001$. The odds that the present institution of marriage was thought of as becoming obsolete were 52% lower among married rather than single Blacks, $p < .01$.

In Model 2 (Whites), a test of the full model against the constant only model was statistically significant, indicating that socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital attitudes related to achievement of “Personal Goals” as a set reliably distinguished between married and not married Whites at $p < .001$. For Whites, the “Achievement of Personal Goals” ($p = 0.051$) variable was marginally significant however, the measures “Achievement of Personal Goals”, education, and male did not contribute to the predictability of the model. Results showed that for older Whites the odds of being married were 100% higher than younger Whites, $p < .001$ and 127% higher among higher versus lower income Whites, $p < .001$. In addition, the odds of

being married were 130% higher for Whites with full-time employment rather than part-time or other work statuses, $p < .05$. Moreover, the view that marriage is now an antiquated institution was 64% lower for married compared to not married Whites, $p < .001$. Further, the odds that married Whites viewed an egalitarian marital arrangement as the best way to live were 62% lower than single Whites, $p < .001$ and the feeling that marriage did not make a difference when it came to raising a family were 61% lower among Whites who were married versus those who were not married, $p < .001$.

Summation: Across models age and "... is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?" were significant predictors of marital status for Blacks and Whites. Interestingly, for Whites rather than Blacks, most socio-demographic factors and marital attitudes contributed to the prediction of marital status.

Table 25

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Marital Attitudes and Marital Attitudes Related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” According to Race, United States, 2010

Predictors	Blacks (n = 434)		Whites (n = 1603)	
	Model 1 β	SE	Model 2 β	SE
Age	0.04(1.1)	0.01	0.02*(1.0)	0.00
Education	-0.01(.99)	0.08	0.04(1.0)	0.04
Full-time Employment	0.22(1.2)	0.24	0.24***(1.3)	0.12
Income	0.18*(1.2)	0.05	0.24*(1.3)	0.02
Male	0.44(1.6)	0.23	0.00(1.0)	0.11
Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?	-0.65**(.52)	0.23	-0.45*(.64)	0.12
Is it easier for a single person, a married, to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference?	-0.04(.96)	0.26	-0.49*(.61)	0.15
What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life?	-0.28(0.75)	0.30	-0.48*(.64)	0.12
“Achievement of Personal Goals”	0.11(0.0)	0.36	-0.34(.71)	0.18
Constant	-3.5	0.70	-1.6	0.32
-2 Log Likelihood	463.19		1918.05	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	8.35(.400)		33.57(.000)	
Nagelkerke R ²	463.19		1918.05	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: SE = Standard error; (Odds Ratio); Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (0 = Disagree, 1 = Agree), Is it easier for a single person, married person to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference? (1 = Doesn't make a difference, 0 = Other);

What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have a job and both take care of the house and children OR 0 = One where the husband works and the wife takes care of the house and children), Achievement of “Personal Goals” (5= marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 “Personal Goals”, 0= Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 “Personal Goals”)

Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Employment status (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Sex (1 = Male; 0 = Female);

*p < .001, **p < .01, ***p < .05

**Odds in Occurrence of Marriage by Socio-demographic Factors,
Marital Attitudes, and Marital Attitudes Related to “Achievement
of Personal Goals” According to Sex**

Table 26 summarizes regression results of marital status by socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” according to sex. Regression coefficients indicated that Model 1 (Females) was statistically significant at $p < .001$. Findings revealed that race was a significant predictor of marital status for women. Specifically, this study found that the odds ratio for a White female was 2.3, meaning that the odds of White women being married were 230 times higher than that of Black women, $p < .001$. Further, results showed that with every one-year increase in age the odds a female was married increased 101%, $p < .05$ and with every one-unit increase in annual household income beyond \$10,000 the odds of marriage increased 130%, $p < .001$. Moreover, the odds that women viewed marriage as a relic of the past were 75% lower among married compared to single women, $p < .05$; the odds that an egalitarian marital arrangement was considered the best way to live were 54% lower among married versus single women, $p < .001$; and the odds that marital status was viewed as having no impact on raising a family were 61% lower for married rather single women, $p < .005$. Education, full-time employment, and “Achievement of Personal Goals” predictors were not significant.

Model 2 (Males) also was found to be statistically significant at $p < .001$. The variables of education, “Is it easier for a single person, married person to raise a family or doesn’t it make a difference?”, and “What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life?” did not contribute to the model. However, findings revealed that like their female counterparts, race contributed to the predictability of marital status among men. For

example, this study found that the odds ratio for a White male was 1.5, $p < .05$. This finding means that the odds of marriage among White males were 150% higher than that of Black males. Among men who were employed full-time, there was an odds ratio of 2.1, $p < .001$, indicating that the odds of a man with full-time employment who were married were more than twice (210%) that of a man with another type of labor force participation, $p < .001$. Findings also showed that with every one-year increase in age, the odds a male would report being married increased 101%, $p < .001$ and with every one-unit increase in annual household income beyond \$10,000, the odds that a male responded as married increased 120%, $p < .001$.

Moreover, the odds that marriage was viewed as an outdated institution were 47% lower for married versus single men, $p < .001$. As noted in the previous multivariate analysis, men, unlike their female counterparts, felt that there was a connection between "Achievement of Personal Goals" and marital status. According to findings, the odds that the achievement of all 5 personal goals (e.g. financial security, social status, a career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life) was considered unrelated to whether the respondent was married or not were 52% lower among married rather than not married men, $p < .01$.

Summation. For both women and men, being married was significantly associated with being White, older, or possessing an attitude that marriage is a stable institution. Of interest, having a higher income was indicative of married women, while having a full-time job and a higher income characterized married men. Equally important, a significant proportion of married men viewed the achievement of financial

security, social status, a career, happiness, and a fulfilling sex life to be linked with whether an individual is in a marital union or not.

Table 26

Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Socio-demographic Factors, Marital Attitudes, and Marital Attitudes Related to the Achievement of "Personal Goals" According to Sex, United States, 2010

Predictors	Females (n = 1096)		Males (n = 941)	
	Model 1		Model 2	
	β	SE	β	SE
Age	0.09**(1.0)	0.00	0.05*(1.05)	0.01
Education	0.07(1.1)	0.05	-0.02(.98)	0.05
Full-time Employment	-0.09(.90)	0.14	0.76*(2.1)	0.17
Income	0.24*(1.3)	0.03	0.18*(1.2)	0.03
White	0.82*(2.3)	0.17	0.41**(1.5)	0.20
Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?	-.03(.75)	0.14	-0.76*(.47)	0.16
Is it easier for a single person, a married, to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference?	-.05****(.61)	0.17	-0.19(.83)	0.21
What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life?	-0.62*(.54)	0.16	-0.17(.84)	0.17
Achievement of "Personal Goals"	0.25(1.3)	0.22	-0.66***(.52)	0.24
Constant	-2.40	0.40	-3.10	0.46
-2 Log Likelihood	1301.15		1028.07	
Hosmer & Lemeshow χ^2 (Significance)	3.86 (.355)		24.88(.002)	
Nagelkerke R ²	0.24		0.34	

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey, Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011.

Note: SE = Standard error; (Odds Ratio); Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (0 = Disagree, 1 = Agree), Is it easier for a single person, married person to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference? (1 = Doesn't make a difference, 0 = Other);

What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have a job and both take care of the house and children OR 0 = One where the husband works and the wife takes care of the house and children), Achievement of "Personal Goals" (5= marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 "Personal Goals", 0= Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 "Personal Goals")

Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Employment status (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Race (1 = White; 0 = Black);

*p < .001, **p < .01, ***p < .05. ****p < .005

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The current research began with an interest in whether social location had a bearing on the marital attitudes and marital status of Black and White Americans and if the relationships varied by race and sex. The study was guided by two research aims:

1. to assess if socio-demographic factors were related to racial variations in the *marital attitudes* of Blacks and Whites and if the relationships differ by race and sex and
2. to assess if socio-demographic factors were differentially associated with the *marital status* of Black and White Americans and if they varied by race and sex.

Analyses were divided into three parts. The study drew on individual-level, nationally representative, cross-sectional, 2010 Changing American Family Survey data with a sample (N = 2326) restricted to Black (N = 474) and White (N = 1852) Americans. I first, created a scale that represented attitudinal measures related to the “Achievement of Personal Goals” ($\alpha = 0.71$). To address this study’s first hypothesis, socio-demographic factors are related to marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites and the relationships vary according to race and sex, I conducted a series of OLS regressions that estimated the association between socio-demographic factors and marital attitudes related to “Achievement of Personal Goals” and a series of logistic regressions that assessed how well socio-demographic factors predicted marital attitudes related to the current institution of marriage, specialized sex-roles in marriage, family structure, and if the associations varied by race and sex. In the third section of analysis, I addressed this

study's second hypotheses: Socio-demographic factors have a differential impact on marital status according to race and sex, by conducting a series of logistic regressions that assessed how well socio-demographic factors explained the marital status of Blacks and Whites according to race and sex. All analyses were run for the Full Sample, Blacks and Whites, women and men and an additional series of regressions were run with the inclusion of predictor variable marital status.

The data tell a complicated story. Table 27 presents results for ten ordinary least squares regression models used to estimate the association between socio-demographic factors (without and with the inclusion of the explanatory factor married), and marital attitudes related to the achievement of "Personal Goals" by race and sex. In these analyses, I was interested in knowing if attitudes about marriage as a central force in the organization of adult life, whether "individualistic" or "familistic" in nature, were associated with social location and if the relationships varied for Blacks and Whites, women and men. It appears that even with the addition of predictor marital status, attitudes about marriage and goal achievement varied by sex. As shown in Table 27, male was the most consistent socio-demographic predictor of marital attitudes related to the achievement of "Personal Goals." This finding was important because it revealed that at the end of the 2000s, Black and White women were less likely than Black and White men to feel that marriage was necessary for the organization of an adult life. A possible explanation could be that with the decreased economic dependence of Black and White women on Black and White men, decline in the male/female paid wage gap, poor employment prospects among low-skilled men, alongside relaxation of social norms and stigma related to premarital sex, unmarried

cohabitation, and divorce (Cherlin 2010; Collins 2009; Sawhill 2015), women felt marriage was not needed to gain financial security, social status, get ahead in a career, find happiness, or having a fulfilling sex life (Cherlin 2004, 2009).

Another interesting find (see Table 27) was that in 6 of 10 regression equations, Whites and women with full-time employment felt that marriage was not a necessary element for the achievement of goals. This find also makes sense and is consistent with the research of Cherlin (2009) that for many Americans, the gains to marriage have decreased, as alternatives (e.g., unmarried cohabitation, divorce, and never-marriage) to marriage have grown in social practice and acceptance.

Table 27

Summary of Ordinary Least Squares Regression Models of Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of “Personal Goals” by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample, Blacks, Whites, Females, and Males, 2010 from Tables 6 through 8.

Predictors	Full Sample		Blacks		Whites		Females		Males	
	Marital Status		Marital Status		Marital Status		Marital Status		Marital Status	
	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b
Age	X(-)				X(-)	X(-)			X(-)	
Education										
Full-time Employment	X(-)	X(+)			X(+)	X(+)	X(+)	X(+)		
Income						X(+)				X(+)
Married	NA		NA		NA	X(-)	NA		NA	
White			NA	NA	NA	NA				
Male	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	NA	NA	NA	NA

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Note: ^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

X= significant; Direction = (-) negative, (+) positive;

Achievement of “Personal Goals” (1 = marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5

“Personal Goals”, 0= Marital Status makes a difference in achieving all 5 “Personal Goals”);

Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Sex (1 = Male; 0 = Female); Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married).

Tables 28 through 30 summarize results of a series of binary logistic regressions, conducted to assess how well socio-demographic factors explain marital attitudes related to the current institution of marriage, specialized sex-roles in marriage, and family structure for the Full Sample, Blacks, Whites, women, and men. It appears that positive attitudes about the current institution of marriage were isolated to those individuals who had more rather than fewer resources. As shown in Table 28, education and married were the most consistent and significant predictors of whether people felt that the present institution of marriage was a remnant of the past. Consistent with the research of Wilcox and Marquardt (2010) and Taylor et al (2010), analyses showed that higher educated people and married individuals reported more positive attitudes about the current institution of marriage. In 8 of 10 equations run (the exceptions being Blacks and males with the inclusion of married as a predictor), consistent with the research of Sironi and Furstenberg (2012), Taylor (2010), and Wilcox and Marquardt (2010), I found that conservative attitudes about marriage were more pronounced among older rather than younger persons. It is possible that the increasing difficulty to maintain and prolonged route to obtain economic self-sufficiency among lesser educated persons and younger adults has negatively influenced their marital attitudes (Danziger and Ratner 2010; Sironi and Furstenberg 2012; Wilcox and Marquardt 2010). Although confusing, analyses indicated that with addition of married as an explanatory factor the variable age was not a significant predictor of marital attitude, "Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?" for Blacks and males. This finding suggested that whether older Blacks and older men felt that the current institution of marriage is becoming obsolete could have gone either way, agree or disagree.

An especially important find was that attitudes towards the current institution of marriage differed across race (see Table 28). Multivariate analyses showed that at the end of the first decade in the 21st century, the stability of the current institution of marriage was questionable for Black men, while White men considered marriage to be a sound entity. That male was not a significant predictor for Blacks made sense. The current institution of marriage, hegemonic in character and sexually biased in design (Hattery and Smith 2007; Hill 2005), is a family model that is essentially at odds with the lived realities of most Black women and Black men (Boyd-Franklin 2003; Hill 2005). Thus, it is plausible that when considering if the current institution of marriage is viable, feelings among Blacks could go either way (i.e. agree or disagree) depending on their life experiences and circumstances (Franklin-Boyd 2003; Hill 2005; Johnson and Loscocco 2015).

Attitudes related to the current institution of marriage also varied within group (see Table 28). Data showed that although White men were content with the current institution of marriage, White women felt that the institution was no longer in tune with their lived experiences. A finding in line with the research of Cunningham (2008) in that alongside increased labor force participation, traditional marital attitudes of White women appear to have shifted from preference for conservative to liberal (i.e., egalitarian) marital practices. At the end of the 2000s, a willingness to subject to sexually-biased institutional norms (Ridgeway 2009) has diminished and many White women now feel that the current institution of marriage requires revision (Collins 2009; Freidman 2015).

Table 28

Summary of Logistic Regression Models of Marital Attitude “Is the Present Institution of Marriage Becoming Obsolete?” by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample, Blacks, Whites, Females, and Males, United States, 2010 from Tables 9-11

Predictors	<u>Full Sample</u>		<u>Blacks</u>		<u>Whites</u>		<u>Females</u>		<u>Males</u>	
	<u>Marital Status</u>		<u>Marital Status</u>		<u>Marital Status</u>		<u>Marital Status</u>		<u>Marital Status</u>	
	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b
Age	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)		X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	
Education	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)
Full-time Employment										
Income	X(-)	X(-)			X(-)	X(-)	X(-)		X(-)	
Married	NA		NA	X(-)	NA	X(-)	NA	X(-)	NA	X(-)
White	X(-)		NA	NA	NA	NA	X(-)			
Male	X(-)	X(-)			X(-)	X(-)	NA	NA	NA	NA

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Note: ^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

X= significant; Direction = (-) negative, (+) positive;

Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (1= Agree, 0= Disagree); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Sex (1 = Male; 0 = Female); Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married).

Table 29 summarizes findings from the regression of socio-demographics on the marital attitude, “What is the most satisfying way of life?” In these analyses, I wanted to examine if location within the social structure was associated with marital attitudes related to sex role arrangements among Black and White Americans. Data indicated that across- and in-group variations existed. First, apart from Blacks, married was a consistent socio-demographic predictor of the marital attitude, “What is the most satisfying way of life?” Consistent with the research of Wilcox and Marquardt (2010) and Wilcox and Nock (2007), analyses found that the traditional family model where a husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the household and children was a preference of married compared to single individuals.

Marital attitudes related to the male-breadwinner/female-homemaker family model, appeared to also be "...race specific" (Hattery and Smith 2007: 46). Regression analyses showed that in contrast to White women and men, Black women and men, did not feel that the traditional male-breadwinner/female-homemaker model was the most satisfying way of life. This finding lent support to past research (Billingsley 1968; Boyd-Franklin 2003; Chaney 2011; Hill 2005; Johnson and Loscocco 2015) in that Blacks traditionally practice "adaptability in family roles" as an added insurance for survival of the family unit in times of economic uncertainty.

Preference for the traditional family model, however, differed for Whites. As shown in Table 29 and consistent with the research of Cunningham (2008) and Perrone et al (2009), White women were more inclined than White men to feel that the traditional male-breadwinner/female-homemaker family model offered a less than satisfying way to live. Despite White women's increased labor force participation, the "stalled" revolution (Hochschild 1989) continues or is unfolding (Lang and Risman 2007). White men appear to be less inclined to participate in household and child care responsibilities that challenge the norms of hegemonic masculinity (Freidman 2015). More research is needed to increase the understanding of how socio-demographic location of women and men impacts attitudes about marital sex roles in contemporary society.

In addition, regression analyses showed that in contrast to Whites, for Blacks none of the socio-demographic factors contributed to prediction of the marital attitude, "What is the most satisfying way of life?" indicating that for Blacks a preference for traditional or nontraditional sex role arrangements in a marital union could not be determined. This finding was not surprising, as scholars argued that the meaning of

sex-role arrangements in marriage is contextually different for Blacks and Whites (Furdyna et al 2008). For example, Black women currently outpace Black men in attainment of higher education degrees, are nearing parity in labor force participation, and are approaching parity in median annual income with Black men (U.S. Census Bureau 2015). Thus, the sex role constrictions of the breadwinner ideology present a problem for the family arrangements of Blacks and particularly, Black women (Hattery and Smith 2007).

Table 29.

Summary of Logistic Regression Models of Marital Attitude “What Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life?” by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample, Blacks, Whites, Females, and Males, United States, 2010 from Tables 12-14

Predictors	<u>Full Sample</u>		<u>Blacks</u>		<u>Whites</u>		<u>Females</u>		<u>Males</u>	
	<u>Marital Status</u>		<u>Marital Status</u>		<u>Marital Status</u>		<u>Marital Status</u>		<u>Marital Status</u>	
	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b	Without ^a	With ^b
Age	X(-)	X(-)			X(-)	X(-)			X(-)	X(-)
Education	X(+)	X(+)			X(+)	X(+)		X(+)		
Full-time Employment	X(+)	X(+)			X(+)	X(+)	X(+)	X(+)		
Income										
Married	NA	X(-)	NA		NA	X(-)	NA	X(-)	NA	X(-)
White	X(-)	X(-)	NA	NA	NA	NA	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)
Male	X(-)	X(-)			X(-)	X(-)	NA	NA	NA	NA

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Note: ^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

X= significant; Direction = (-) negative, (+) positive;

What kind of Marriage Do You Think Is the Most Satisfying Way of Life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children; 0 = One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Sex (1 = Male; 0 = Female); Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married).

Next, logistic regression analyses were used to assess whether socio-demographic factors had some bearing on marital attitudes related to family structure.

As shown in Table 30, few variables were significant predictors of the marital attitude,

“What is the easiest way to raise a family?” In 4 out of 5 equations, the exception being Blacks, I found that married people were more likely to feel that marriage offered the best circumstances for raising a family. This finding was surprising, although it is possible that single compared to married persons are less aware of the positive impact (e.g. better mental and physical health, emotional and cognitive development) that marriage has on the overall well-being of children (Ribar 2015).

Data also indicated that attitudes about family structure differed within racial groups. White women as opposed to their male counterparts did not feel that matrimony made raising children any easier. In the last several decades, the increased labor force participation of White women has significantly decreased their economic dependence on White men. Thus, it is possible that the “Stalled Revolution”, where men continue to limit their contribution (for the most part) to the family unit to productivity outside of the household, may be influencing the marital attitudes of White women relative to “raising a family” (Friedman 2015; Hochschild 1989).

Attitudes about family structure also varied for men. As shown in Table 30, White men were more likely than Black men to feel that marriage was beneficial for childrearing. Moreover, Blacks without and with the predictor marital status, did not feel that being married or single offered the best circumstance for raising a family. These findings, in line with the research of past scholars (Boyd-Franklin 2003; Chaney 2011; Johnson and Loscocco 2015; Dow 2015, 2016) suggested that for Blacks structural and cultural conditioning may contribute to an attitude that the raising of children is to be a joint or group effort inclusive of extended family and/or fictive kin.

Table 30

Summary of Logistic Regression Models of Marital Attitude “What Is the Easiest Way to Raise a Family?” by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample, Blacks, Whites, Females, and Males, United States, 2010 from Tables 15-17

Predictors	<u>Full Sample</u>		<u>Blacks</u>		<u>Whites</u>		<u>Females</u>		<u>Males</u>	
	<u>Without^a</u>	<u>With^b</u>	<u>Without^a</u>	<u>With^b</u>	<u>Without^a</u>	<u>With^b</u>	<u>Without^a</u>	<u>With^b</u>	<u>Without^a</u>	<u>With^b</u>
Age										
Education	X(-)	X(-)			X(-)	X(-)	X(-)	X(-)		
Full-time Employment										
Income										
Married	NA	X(-)	NA		NA	X(-)	NA	X(-)	NA	X(-)
White	X(-)	X(-)	NA	NA	NA	NA			X(-)	X(-)
Male	X(-)	X(-)			X(-)	X(-)	NA	NA	NA	NA

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

^aWithout Marital Status uses only the predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex.

^bWith Marital Status uses predictors: age, education, employment status, income, race, sex, and marital status.

Note: X= significant; Direction = (-) negative, (+) positive; Please tell me whether you think it is easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family, or doesn't it make a difference? (1 = Does not make a difference; 0 = Does make a difference); Race (1 = White; 0 = Black), Employment (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Sex (1 = Male; 0 = Female); Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married).

This study's assessment of the relationship between sociodemographic factors and marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites, made three contributions to marriage and family literature. First, Kaufman and Goldscheider (2007) found that at the end of the 20th century women exhibited attitudes that were more “individualistic” than “familistic” compared to men. Examining marital attitudes related to the “Achievement of Personal Goals”, I found that “individualistic” rather than “familistic” marital attitudes were more pronounced among Black and White women versus Black and White men. Thus, it appears that when organizing their adult life, Black and White women no longer consider marriage a priority (Cherlin 2009). Second, confirming the research of Cunningham (2008) and Perrone et al (2009), analyses revealed that at the end of the

2000s, a preference for traditional sex roles related to marriage and family remained strong among White men, but lost vigor among White women. Whether the “Stalled Revolution” of Hochschild (1989) is unfolding (Lang and Risman 2007) and inclusive to White men (Friedman 2015) thus, remains a question. Third, in contrast to White Americans, social location was not associated with marital attitudes related to sex-roles or family structure for Black women or Black men. It is plausible that participation in hegemonic marriage and family models were subject to the lived experiences of Black Americans (Blum and Deussen 1996; Boyd-Franklin 2003; Chaney 2011; Dow 2016; Hattery and Smith 2007; Hill 2005, 2006; Johnson and Loscocco 2015). Accordingly, analyses of the relationship between socio-demographic factors and marital attitudes supported this study’s first hypothesis, as socio-demographic factors were related to marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites and the relationships varied by race and sex.

In the last section of analysis, I conducted a series of logistic regressions to address this study’s second hypothesis: Socio-demographic factors have a differential impact on marital status according to race and sex. To determine whether social location is associated with marital behavior, I examined the relationship between socio-demographic factors and marital status of Black and White Americans. Data indicated that marriage was associated with more rather than less resources. As expected (see Table 31) and consistent with the research of Taylor and Associates (2010), analyses of the relationship between socio-demographic factors and marital status revealed that being older in age or having a higher income were significant predictors of marriage among Americans. This find lent credence to the research of Danziger and Ratner (2010) and Sironi and Furstenberg (2012) and suggested that the increased difficulty in

obtaining economic self-sufficiency, because of the change in mode of production in the United States from industry to service sector/technology, has contributed to marital delay and in some cases, marital dissolution among younger people and lower income Americans.

As shown in Table 31, marital status differed for women. Confirming past studies (Burton and Tucker 2009; Dixon 2009; Hurt et al 2014), Black women were less likely to be married than White women. Three plausible explanations exist for this finding. First, the severely deficient pool of attractive “marriageable” Black men, due to high rates of unemployment, incarceration, mortality, and substance abuse, may be hindering marriage among Black women (Banks 2012; Burton and Tucker 2009; Bryant et al 2010; Chambers and Kravitz 2011; Dixon 2009; Harris and Parisi 2008; Hurt 2014; Lane et al 1996; Lichter et al 1992; Rodrigue and Reeves 2015; Sironi and Furstenberg 2012). Or perhaps, the economic independence of Black women is viewed as an unattractive characteristic for a potential mate among some (Hurt et al 2014) although not all Black men (King and Allen 2009). Thus, a desire among Black men to practice norms related to hegemonic masculinity may be deterring marital entry for many Black women (Mason 2013).

Another interesting find was that in all five multivariate models run, the socio-demographic factor, education, had no bearing on the prediction of marriage. This find was interesting because the current study and a growing body of research (Wilcox and Marquardt 2010; Wilcox et al 2015) found that higher education was associated with positive attitudes related to the current institution of marriage. Analyses showed that

educational attainment was not a significant predictor of marriage among Black or White Americans.

Table 31

Summary of Results of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Socio-demographic Factors for Full Sample, Blacks, Whites, Females, and Males, United States, 2010 from Tables 18-20

Predictors	Full Sample	Blacks	Whites	Females	Males
Age	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
Education					
Full-time Employment	X (+)		X (+)		X (+)
Income	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
White	X (+)	NA	NA	X (+)	X (+)
Male		X (+)		NA	NA

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Note: X = Significant; Direction ([+] = positive, [-] = negative); Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Employment status (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females), Race (1 = White; 0 = Black)

Next, to assess if attitudes have a bearing on marital behavior, I investigated the relationship between marital status and marital attitudes of Blacks, Whites, women, and men. Conservative attitudes about the current institution of marriage, marital sex roles, and family structure were associated with matrimony (see Table 32). Assessment of marital status by marital attitude, “Is the current institution of marriage becoming obsolete?” confirmed the research of Wilcox and Marquardt (2010) in that people with positive attitudes about marriage were more likely to marry than individuals without. In addition, except for Blacks, marriage was more likely among people who felt the rearing of children should occur in a two-parent household. This finding was interesting, because it suggested that the separation of marriage and childrearing may be selective of individuals who had views on family structure that were alternative to conventional norms. Two possible explanations exist for this finding. On one hand, it is possible that

many individuals were unaware of the benefits that a married, two-parent versus a single-parent household offers children and adults (Popenoe 2008; Ribar 2015). Conversely, it is also plausible that with the increased economic independence of women, alongside an extensive relaxation of social norms related to unmarried cohabitation, divorce, never-marriage, and unmarried births (Amato et al 2007; Cherlin 2010), many people now view marriage and childrearing as mutually exclusive adult activities (Gibson-Davis and Murry 2009).

Analyses also revealed (the exception being Blacks) that a preference for the traditional male-breadwinner/female-homemaker family model was predictive of marriage. This finding was not surprising. The male-breadwinner/female-homemaker family model is a longstanding “ideal type” that many Americans aspire to (Cherlin 2009). In fact, for many Americans the inability to fulfill the prerequisite (e.g. male-breadwinner) voids the possibility of marital entry (Cherlin 2008).

Interestingly, for Blacks, marital status was not significantly related to marital attitudes about family structure or marital sex-roles. This finding confirmed research of Boyd-Franklin (2003) and Hill (2005) who suggested that participation in traditional hegemonic practices related to family structure and marital sex-roles were dependent on the social and economic circumstances of Black Americans.

Table 32

Summary of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Marital Attitudes and Marital Attitudes Related to the achievement of Personal Goals for Full Sample, Blacks, Whites, Females, Males, United States, 2010 from Tables 21-23

Predictors	Full Sample	Blacks	Whites	Females	Males
Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)
Is it easier for a single person, a married to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference?	X (-)		X (-)	X (-)	X (-)
What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life?	X (-)		X (-)	X (-)	X (-)
Achievement of "Personal Goals"					X (-)

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Note: X = Significant; Direction ([+] = positive, [-] = negative);

Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married),

Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (1 = Agree, 0 = Disagree),

Is it easier for a single person, married person to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference? (1 = Does not make a difference, 0 = Does make a difference);

What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have a job and both take care of the house and children OR 0 = One where the husband works and the wife takes care of the house and children);

Achievement of "Personal Goals" (1= marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 "Personal Goals", 0= Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 "Personal Goals").

As reflected in this study's theoretical model, the final series of regression analyses (see Table 33) examined the relationship between socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital status of Black and White Americans. In this stage of analysis, I wanted to determine if social location and attitudes were associated with the marital status of Black and White Americans. Findings confirmed some past research and offered new insight into the impact of social location and marital attitudes on marital behavior of Blacks, Whites, women, and men.

First, regression models indicated that with the inclusion of marital attitudes the predictors; age, income, and White; were the most consistently significant socio-demographic predictors of marriage among individuals. These results indicated that marriage continued to be more likely among older rather than younger persons. A

finding that was expected, as younger adults are postponing marriage until after having achieved goals, such as higher education, advancement in their career, or economic self-sufficiency (Danziger and Ratner 2010; Hymowitz et al 2014; Sironi and Furstenberg 2012). Consistent with prior studies, analyses also showed that economic constraints (i.e., low-income) played a key role in the marital behavior of Americans (Cherlin 2008; Dixon 2009; Gibson-Davis and Murray 2009; Murray 2012). The perceived prerequisites (e.g., fulfillment of male-provider role) for the current institution of marriage may set a bar too high for lower-income individuals to achieve (Wilcox and Marquardt 2010).

Interestingly, race played a significant role in the marital status of women and men. Confirming the research of Banks (2012) and Dixon (2009), White women were more likely to be married than Black women. This finding was expected, because in contrast to White women, marriage for Black women consisted of a great deal of “uncertainty” (Burton and Tucker 2009). Black women endured a marriage pool overwrought with socially incompatible (Beamon 2009; Bridges and Boyd 2016; Robinson 2015) and economically impotent Black men (Burton and Tucker 2009). In addition, data showed that Black men were less likely to be married than their White counterparts. It is possible that depreciated economic circumstances have impeded the ability of Black men to participate in hegemonic matrimony (Hurt 2014; Taylor et al 1999).

In all five equations run, the marital attitude, “Is the current institution of marriage becoming obsolete?” was a consistently, significant predictor of matrimony. Confirming the study of Wilcox and Marquardt (2010), analyses indicated that people with positive

attitudes about marriage were more likely to be married than not. It is possible that attitudes reflected lived experiences that subsequently, influenced the marital status of Americans (Cherlin 2008).

Table 33

Summary of Logistic Regression of Marital Status by Socio-demographic Factors, Marital Attitudes, and Marital Attitudes Related to Achievement of “Personal Goals” for Full Sample, Blacks, Whites, Females, Males, United States, 2010 from Tables 24-26

Predictors	Full Sample	Blacks	Whites	Females	Males
Age	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
Education					
Full-time Employment	X (+)		X (+)		X (+)
Income	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)	X (+)
White	X (+)	NA	NA	X (+)	X (+)
Male				NA	NA
Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete?	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)	X (-)
Is it easier for a single person, a married to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference?	X (-)		X (-)	X (-)	
What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life?	X (-)		X (-)	X (-)	
Achievement of “Personal Goals”					X (-)

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (Pew Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Note: X = Significant; Direction ([+] = positive, [-] = negative);

Marital Status (1 = Married; 0 = Not Married), Employment status (1 = Full-time; 0 = Other), Sex (1 = Males; 0 = Females), Race (1 = White; 0 = Black),

Is the present institution of marriage becoming obsolete? (1 = Agree, 0 = Disagree), Is it easier for a single person, married person to raise a family or doesn't it make a difference? (1 = Does not make a difference, 0 = Does make a difference);

What type of marriage is the most satisfying way of life? (1 = One where the husband and wife both have a job and both take care of the house and children OR 0 = One where the husband works and the wife takes care of the house and children);

Achievement of “Personal Goals” (1= marital status does not make a difference in achieving all 5 of “Personal Goals”, 0= Marital status makes a difference in achieving all 5 of “Personal Goals”).

Overall, analyses of the relationship between socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes, and marital status of Black and White Americans made four contributions to marriage and family literature. This study found that at the end of the 2000s, economic resources and race played a significant role in marital behavior of Blacks and Whites.

Confirming the recent study of Raley et al (2015), analyses showed that Blacks and Whites with more, rather than less, resources were more likely to be married. This finding suggested that social location may influence the marital behavior of Black and White Americans. In 2010, marriage had become an institution reflective of America's growth in economic inequality. Another interesting find was that Black women were less likely to be married than White women and Black men were less likely to be married than White men, indicating that the unique social positions of Black and White, women and men may contribute to differences in marital outcomes (Bryant et al 2010; Chambers and Kravitz 2011). Extending the research of Taylor et al (2010), I found that a preference for the current institution of marriage was common among married as opposed to single, Blacks and Whites. Fourth and in contrast to Whites, attitudes about traditional marital sex-roles and family structure were not indicative of marriage for Blacks. This finding lends credence to the research of past scholars (Boyd-Franklin 2003; Bryant et al 2010; Hill 2005; Johnson and Loscocco 2014) who argued that the hegemonic practices of specialized sex roles in marriage and the nuclear family form are incompatible with lived experiences and thus not viewed as conducive to the best interest of the Black American family.

Strengths of the Study

This study advanced marriage and family research in several ways. First, data were drawn from a nationally representative sample that resembled the U.S. population in structure. Next, the 2010 Changing American Family Survey dataset was recent (2010) and offered attitudinal data that reflected marital ideas of Blacks, Whites, women, and men in contemporary U.S. society. Third, marital attitude questions

alternated between single and married respondents, increasing understanding and allowing comparative analysis of marital ideas among married as well as unmarried population.

Past research investigating marital attitudes had for the most part been restricted to single-item attitudinal scales. Use of these types of scales limited the depth and breadth of analysis of attitudinal measures. The current study used a multi-item attitudinal scale, which allowed an in-depth assessment of marital ideas between and within racial/sex groups. In comparison to previous research, the current study provided a comprehensive set of predictor variables (i.e. age, education, employment status, income, race, and sex) that fully located Blacks, Whites, men, and women within the social structure.

Sixth, most studies on racial variations in marital attitudes and/or marital status focused on working-class or economically disadvantaged populations and women. Individuals who were better-off and men for the most part had been excluded from this line of study. This study examined a population of women and men from varying socioeconomic (i.e., education level, employment, and income) circumstances to obtain a more complete understanding of the connection between social position and racial/sex variations in marital ideas and marital behaviors.

Seventh, past studies examined racial variations in marital attitudes or marital outcomes of either Black and White women or Black and White men, separately. This study adds to the literature with a more comprehensive examination of differences in marital attitudes and marital status among Black and White women and men. Moreover, in the last four decades, Americans have been marrying later and many have been

transitioning to new marital unions (whether due to the loss of a spouse or marital dissolution). However, a great deal of the literature focused on marital attitudes and marital status of young adults (18 to 35 years old) without consideration of more mature women and men (35 to 55 years old). The current research added to the literature by using a sample with a broader age range (18-99) of adult women and men.

Last, this research added to marriage and family studies using a race, class, and sex framework by applying an intersectional paradigm that allowed an increased understanding of how social location created contextually relevant interpretations of the attitudes and behaviors of Black and White, women and men. This approach was lacking, although necessary, in previous comparative analyses inclusive of subordinate groups (Beal 2005; Choo and Ferree 2010; Harnois 2009; Kohlman and Dickerson 2008; Ray 2008).

Limitations of the Study

Although the current study extended prior research on Black-White variations in marital attitudes and marital status in several ways, it was also limited in several respects. A primary limitation is the comparatively small sample size of Blacks (N=474) versus Whites (N= 1852). A larger sample of Blacks would allow for a more meaningful analysis of contextual effects. Also, the limited number of Blacks restricted this study's generalizability to the larger population. Future studies need to replicate and expand research findings on a larger scale. Third, the present study used data collected at one point in time and due to the cross-sectional nature of the data, causal ordering could not be determined. Next, the small sample size of Hispanics and Asian Americans restricted

the possibility of analyzing and comparing the impact of socio-demographic factors on the marital attitudes and marital status of additional racial and ethnic groups.

Data for this research were secondary in nature and measurement of attitudes related to marriage was based on responses limited in scope particularly, relative to perceptions of marriageability. Thus, more extensive and direct response categories that addressed perceptions of marriageability could improve marital attitude measures of Blacks and Whites, as well as men and women. The use of previously collected data restricted this researcher's control over how questions were structured. Some questions could have been reworded to provide a clearer understanding of perspectives on marriage. For example, the question used to measure respondent's marital attitudes was written, "Some people say the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete. Do you agree or disagree? The question could have been reworded or divided into two questions, such as, "Is the present institution of marriage out-of-date? And "Is marriage a necessary institution?" response categories in both cases could be, 1 = very much, 2 = somewhat, and 3 = not at all. This approach would allow a clearer assessment of whether the present institution of marriage is viewed as needing to be adjusted in structure or eliminated in its entirety.

There were also unasked questions that could benefit research. For instance, "Marriage is the most beneficial way to manage one's adult life. Do you agree or disagree?" Such a question would reveal whether Americans consider marriage an asset or not. Although, one of the measures for marital attitudes asked, "...is it easier for a single person or a married person to raise a family?" There remains a need for a data measure that asks, "Marriage is the best environment for raising a family? Agree or

Disagree?” This type of question would increase the understanding of whether Americans now view marriage as important part of raising a family.

Directions for Future Research

Beyond the prior mentioned suggested research, there is a need for longitudinal studies that examine the cause/effect between socio-demographic factors, marital attitudes and marital status of Blacks and Whites from high school to 50 years of age. Next, marriage and family literature could benefit from contemporary qualitative studies that investigates the contexts in which alternative rather than hegemonic sex role beliefs are referenced as a guide to the marital and family behavior of Black Americans. Third, studies that investigate the link between marital attitudes/behaviors of Blacks and Whites by social class are needed. Fourth, a growing body of literature (King and South 2011; Swisher and Waller 2008; Tach and Edin 2011; Western and Wildeman 2009) investigated the impact of incarceration on the marital attitudes and/or marital behaviors of Black men. Research would benefit from future studies that investigate the influence of socio-demographic factors on marital attitudes and marital behaviors of previously incarcerated Black men and women; a group rapidly increasing although rarely explored in social science literature. Last, religion has historically played a major role in the family lives of Black and White Americans. The literature could also benefit from studies that investigate the relationship among socio-demographic factors on marital attitudes/status of Blacks and Whites of varying religious denominations.

Policy Implications

A need exists for policies that promote educational and employment programs that have the manifest purpose of increasing economic self-sufficiency among lower

income individuals and Black Americans with a latent goal of improving perceptions of the attainment of marriage. For example, Black males and Blacks in general would benefit from job training programs that provide technical skills, apprenticeships, or vocational programs beginning at the high school level for individuals, especially people who are not interested in attending college.

Additionally, there is a need for marriage policies that create tax incentives for married couples. This type of policy would encourage marital entry among low-income couples by making marriage a financially prosperous venture. Policies related to curriculum development are needed for children and young people in grades K-12 to improve and/or increase awareness of gains associated with marriage, significance of marriage to overall well-being, and marital expectations and practical sex norms in a marriage and family unit.

Low rates of marriage and a waning of marital attitudes among Blacks that contrast with those of Whites appear to be guided by unique social identities and lived experiences in America. Thus, any improvement in marital attitudes and marital behavior requires the development of marriage and family policies that are sensitive to the disadvantaged social location and cultural variations in marriage and family structure of Black Americans.

APPENDIX A

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**PEW RESEARCH CENTER: PEW SOCIAL TRENDS
CHANGING AMERICAN FAMILY SURVEY
FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE**

October 1, 2010

Target N= ~2,700 adults 18+ (see sample segments grid)

Form 1/Form 2: each a random 1/2 of sample

Pretest 1: September 29, 2010

Pretest 2: September 30, 2010

Interviewing Dates: October 1 – October 21, 2010

Length of Interview: 20 minutes

7-Call Design

English and Spanish interviewing

SAMPLE SEGMENTS

<u>Sample Segment</u>	<u>Comments</u>	<u># of Int.</u>	<u>Projected Incidence</u>
1) LL RDD (18+)	BASE Skewed LL sample	500	100%
2) LL RDD 18-64	BASE Skewed, Age 65+ screened out	1,000	65%
3) CP RDD (18+)	BASE Skewed CP sample	1,000	55%
4) LL Omnibus CB screened	CB parents, screen for 3 target groups	~75	20%
5) CP Omnibus CB screened	CB parents, screen for 3 target groups	~80	30%
6) LL Non-Omnibus CB screened	CB NBM 18-64, screen for NBM parents	~15	10%
7) CP Non-Omnibus CB screened	CB NBM, screen for NBM parents	~25	10%
TOTAL		~2,695	

The three target groups are:

Cohabiting Parents (living with a partner and have kids under 18)

Divorced/Separated parents (divorced or separated and have kids under 18)

Never Been Married Parents (NBM – never been married and have kids under 18)

MAIN INTERVIEW:

SEX [ENTER RESPONDENT'S SEX:]

- 1 Male
- 2 Female

ASK ALL:

Q.3a Some people say that the present institution of marriage is becoming obsolete. Do you agree or disagree?

- 1 Agree
- 2 Disagree
- 9 Don't know/Refused (VOL.)

MARITAL Are you currently married, living with a partner, divorced, separated, widowed, or have you never been married? (IF R SAYS "SINGLE," PROBE TO DETERMINE WHICH CATEGORY IS APPROPRIATE)

- 1 Married
- 2 Living with a partner
- 3 Divorced
- 4 Separated
- 5 Widowed
- 6 Never been married
- 9 Don't know/Refused (VOL.)

ASK ALL:

E3 Are you now employed full-time, part-time or not employed? (INTERVIEWER: IF RESPONDENT VOLUNTEERS THAT THEY WORK IN THE HOME, I.E. CARING FOR THEIR KIDS OR BEING A HOMEMAKER, ASK: Are you now employed FOR PAY full-time, part-time, or not employed for pay.)

- 1 Full-time
- 2 Part-time
- 3 Not employed
- 4 Student (VOL.)
- 5 Retired (VOL.)
- 9 Don't know/Refused (VOL.)

ASK ALL:

AGE What is your age?

- _____ years
- 97 97 or older
- 99 Don't know/Refused (VOL.)

ASK ALL:

Q.8 I'm going to read you a list of things some people may want out of life. Please tell me whether you think it is easier for (**FORM 1:** a single person; **FORM 2:** a married person) to achieve this goal or easier for a (**FORM 1:** married person; **FORM 2:** single person), or doesn't it make a difference? First is it easier for a (**FORM 1:** single person; **FORM 2:** married person) or a (**FORM 1:** married person; **FORM 2:** single person) to (**READ AND RANDOMIZE**), or doesn't it make a difference?

- a. Be financially secure
- b. Get ahead in a career
- c. Raise a family
- d. Have a fulfilling sex life
- e. Have social status
- f. Find happiness

RESPONSE CATEGORIES:

- 1 Easier for a single person
- 2 Easier for a married person
- 3 Doesn't make a difference
- 4 Depends on the person (**VOL.**)
- 9 Don't know/Refused (**VOL.**)

ASK ALL:

Q.17 What kind of marriage do you think is the more satisfying way of life [**READ IN ORDER**]?

- 1 One where the husband provides for the family and the wife takes care of the house and children
OR
- 2 One where the husband and wife both have jobs and both take care of the house and children
- 9 [**VOL. DO NOT READ**] Don't know/Refused

ASK ALL:

RACE1 Which of the following describes your race? You can select as many as apply.
[**READ LIST. RECORD UP TO FOUR RESPONSES IN ORDER MENTIONED**]

- 1 White
- 2 Black or African-American
- 3 Asian or Asian-American
- 4 Or some other race
- 9 [**VOL. DO NOT READ**] Don't know/Refused

ASK ALL:

EDUC What is the last grade or class that you completed in school? **[DO NOT READ]**

- 1 None, or grade 1-8
- 2 High school incomplete (Grades 9-11)
- 3 High school graduate (Grade 12 or GED certificate)
- 4 Technical, trade, or vocational school AFTER high school
- 5 Some college, no 4-year degree (including associate degree)
- 6 College graduate (B.S., B.A., or other 4-year degree)
- 7 Post-graduate training or professional schooling after college (e.g., toward a Master's degree or Ph.D.; law or medical school)
- 9 Don't know/Refused (**VOL.**)

ASK ALL:

INCOME Last year, that is in 2009, what was your total family income from all sources, before taxes? Just stop me when I get to the right category. **[READ]**

- 1 Less than \$10,000
- 2 10 to under \$20,000
- 3 20 to under \$30,000
- 4 30 to under \$40,000
- 5 40 to under \$50,000
- 6 50 to under \$75,000
- 7 75 to under \$100,000
- 8 100 to under \$150,000
- 9 \$150,000 or more
- 10 **[VOL. DO NOT READ]** Don't know/Refused

APPENDIX B
MULTIVARIATE ANALYSES

Series of multivariate analyses conducted by performing separate enter logistic

regressions for the Full Sample, Blacks, and Whites as listed below:

Model 1-Sex + age + income + full-time employment + education

Model 2-Sex + age

Model 3-Sex + age + income

Model 4-Sex + age + education

Model 5-Sex + age + full-time employment

Model 6-Sex + age + income + full-time employment

Model 7-Sex + age + education + full-time employment

Model 8-Sex + age + income + education

To control for their effects, the variables age and sex were included in all models.

Table B.1
Logistic Regression Coefficients

Variables	All Cases (N = 2,326)				Blacks (n = 474)				Whites (n = 1,852)			
	β	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	p	OR
Age	.03	84.89	.000	1.03	.04	27.70	.000	1.04	.02	57.42	.000	1.03
Education	.04	1.86	.173	1.04	.08	1.19	.276	1.08	.04	1.08	.300	1.04
Full-time Employment	.26	7.30	.007	1.30	.26	1.38	.240	1.30	.26	5.59	.018	1.29
Income	.22	139.88	.000	1.25	.15	13.77	.000	1.16	.25	128.76	.000	1.28
Male	.15	2.65	.104	1.16	.46	4.51	.034	1.59	.09	.683	.408	1.09
White	.80	45.38	.000	2.23	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Chi-Square		422.96*				58.46*				273.98*		
-2 Log Likelihood		2784.86				516.46				2259.00		
Cox & Snell R ²		.17				.12				.14		
Nagelkerke R ²		.22				.17				.19		

*p < .0005

df = 1

NA – Not Applicable

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (PEW Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Table B.2
Logistic Regression Coefficients

Variables	<u>All Cases (N = 2,326)</u>				<u>Blacks (n = 474)</u>				<u>Whites (n = 1,852)</u>			
	β	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	p	OR
Age	.03	123.23	.000	1.03	.04	28.68	.000	1.04	.03	81.00	.000	1.03
Male	.03	8.66	.000	1.29	.48	5.16	.020	1.61	.19	4.09	.040	1.21
Chi-Square		140.49*				35.23*				90.08*		
-2 Log Likelihood		3083.96				543.53				2455.26		
Cox & Snell R ²		.06				.07				.05		
Nagelkerke R ²		.08				.10				.06		

*p < .0005

df = 1

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (PEW Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Table B.3
Logistic Regression Coefficients

Variables	<u>All Cases (N = 2,326)</u>				<u>Blacks (n = 474)</u>				<u>Whites (n = 1,852)</u>			
	β	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	p	OR
Age	.03	91.42	.000	1.03	.04	28.08	.000	1.04	.02	54.56	.000	1.02
Income	.25	202.81	.000	1.29	.17	20.02	.000	1.19	.26	160.91	.000	1.30
Male	.21	5.19	.023	1.23	.45	4.42	.036	1.57	.14	1.98	.160	1.15
Chi-Square		364.24*				55.93*				267.55*		
-2 Log Likelihood		2860.22				522.83				2277.79		
Cox & Snell R ²		.14				.11				.13		
Nagelkerke R ²		.19				.16				.18		

*p < .0005

df = 1

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (PEW Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Table B.4
Logistic Regression Coefficients

Variables	<u>All Cases (N = 2,326)</u>				<u>Blacks (n = 474)</u>				<u>Whites (n = 1,852)</u>			
	β	Wald	p	OR	B	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	p	OR
Age	.03	110.13	.000	1.03	.04	27.97	.000	1.04	.03	72.06	.000	1.03
Education	.19	47.41	.000	1.21	.16	6.57	.010	1.18	.16	28.31	.000	1.18
Male	.27	9.59	.002	1.31	.54	6.36	.012	1.71	.20	4.19	.041	1.22
Chi-Square		188.86*				41.91*				118.72*		
-2 Log Likelihood		3035.60				536.85				2426.62		
Cox & Snell R ²		.08				.09				.06		
Nagelkerke R ²		.10				.12				.08		

*p < .0005

df = 1

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (PEW Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Table B.5
Logistic Regression Coefficients

Variables	<u>All Cases (N = 2,326)</u>				<u>Blacks (n = 474)</u>				<u>Whites (n = 1,852)</u>			
	β	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	P	OR
Age	.03	134.81	.000	1.03	.04	29.17	.000	1.04	.03	90.86	.000	1.03
Full-time Employment	.54	36.40	.000	1.71	.49	5.33	.021	1.63	.50	25.06	.000	1.66
Male	.15	3.04	.081	1.17	.45	4.52	.033	1.57	.08	.70	.403	1.09
Chi-Square		177.16*				40.20*				115.61*		
-2 Log Likelihood		3030.66				534.73				2417.37		
Cox & Snell R ²		.07				.08				.06		
Nagelkerke R ²		.10				.12				.08		

*p < .0005

df = 1

NA – Not Applicable

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (PEW Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

Table B.6
Logistic Regression Coefficients

Variables	<u>All Cases (N = 2,326)</u>				<u>Blacks (n = 474)</u>				<u>Whites (n = 1,852)</u>			
	β	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	p	OR	β	Wald	p	OR
Age	.03	97.67	.000	1.03	.04	28.09	.000	1.04	.03	59.49	.000	1.03
Full-time Employment	.31	10.47	.001	1.36	.32	2.22	.136	1.38	.27	6.46	.011	1.31
Income	.24	179.14	.000	1.27	.16	16.77	.000	1.18	.25	143.99	.000	1.29
Male	.15	2.51	.113	1.16	.43	4.02	.045	1.54	.08	.59	.443	1.08
Chi-Square		372.01*				57.27*				272.91		
-2 Log Likelihood		2835.81				517.66				2260.07		
Cox & Snell R ²		.15				.11				.14		
Nagelkerke R ²		.20				.16				.18		

*p < .0005

df = 1

Source: 2010 Changing American Family Survey (PEW Social Trends & Demographic Project, 2011).

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ABSTRACT**VARIATIONS IN THE MARITAL ATTITUDES AND MARITAL STATUS OF
BLACK AND WHITE AMERICANS: AN INTERSECTIONAL APPROACH**

by

STACEY ELLEN COLEMAN**May 2017****Advisor:** Dr. Janet Hankin**Major:** Sociology**Degree:** Doctor of Philosophy

The purpose of this dissertation was to assess the unique socio-demographic positions of Black and White Americans related to variations in marital attitudes and marital status and differences in sex. The study was guided by two research aims: 1.) to assess whether socio-demographic factors were related to racial variations in marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites and if the relationships differ by race and sex and 2.) to assess whether socio-demographic factors were differentially associated with marital status of Black and White Americans and if they varied by race and sex. The study drew on individual-level, nationally representative, cross-sectional, 2010 Changing American Family Survey data with a sample of Black (N=474) and White (N=1852) Americans. This study's assessment of the relationship between sociodemographic factors and marital attitudes of Blacks and Whites, made three contributions to marriage and family literature. First, "individualistic" rather than "familistic" marital attitudes were more pronounced among Black and White women versus Black and White men. When organizing their adult lives, Black and White women no longer considered marriage a priority. Second, analyses revealed that by 2010, a preference for traditional sex roles

related to marriage and family remained strong among White men, but lost importance among White women. Third, in contrast to White Americans, social location was not associated with marital attitudes related to sex-roles or family structure for Black women or Black men. Participation in hegemonic marriage and family models could be subject to the lived experiences of Black Americans. By 2010, economic resources and race played significant roles in marital behavior of Blacks and Whites. Blacks and Whites with more resources were more likely to be married, suggesting that social location may influence marital behavior. By 2010, marriage became an institution reflective of America's growth in economic inequality. The unique social positions of Black and White women and men may contribute to differences in marital outcomes. A preference was found for the current institution of marriage among married Blacks and Whites. Attitudes about traditional marital sex-roles and family structure were not indicative of marriage for Blacks.

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