

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES

**CHANGING GENDER ROLES AND ITS EFFECTS ON THE PSYCHOSOCIAL
WELLBEING OF MARRIED MEN: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF RURAL AND
URBAN DWELLERS IN GREATER ACCRA REGION.**

BY

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**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON IN
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DECLARATION

I, Kofi Asoandze Edu-Ansah, do hereby declare that this thesis is my own work conducted under supervision as an MPhil candidate in the Department of Psychology, University of Ghana. To the best of my knowledge, it contains neither materials previously published by another person(s) nor materials which have been accepted for the award of any other degree in this University or elsewhere. All references to the works of other researchers and/or organisation(s) have been duly acknowledged. With the approval of my supervisors, I present this thesis to the School of Graduate Studies through the Department of Psychology, University of Ghana, Legon.

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DEDICATIONS

To Hannah Aboyinga and her husband Anthony Mba Ndor, vessels of love God used in my life throughout the two years MPhil programme and beyond. You have not just shown me love but have been good examples of love to me. Your labour of love will never be in vain.



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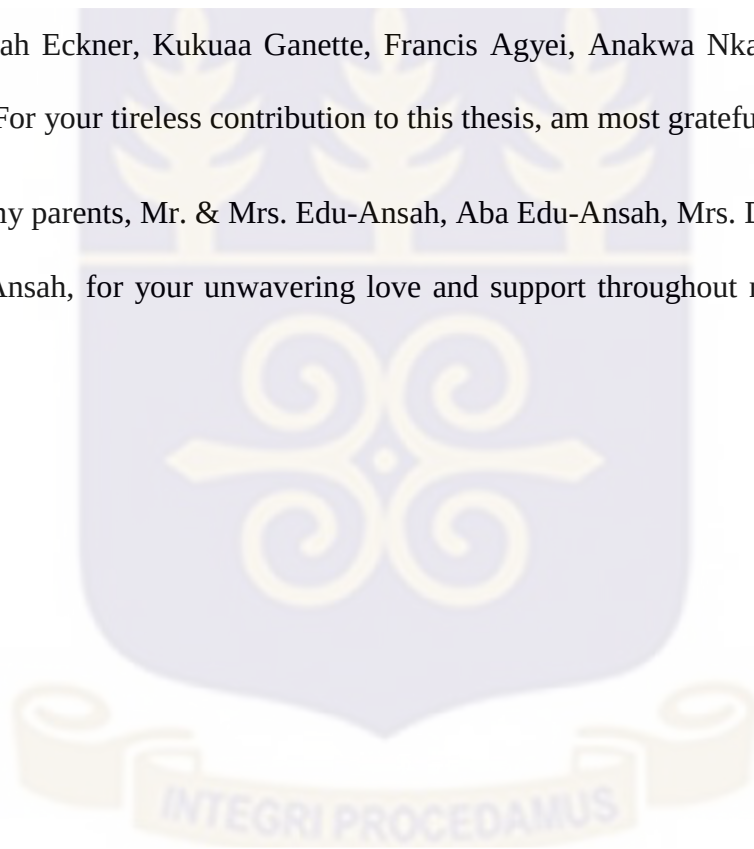


Table of Contents

DECLARATION	i
DEDICATIONS.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
LIST OF TABLES.....	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
ABSTRACT.....	ix
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the study.....	1
1.2 Spousal role discrepancy.....	3
1.3 Gender role attitude	5
1.4 Setting (rural and urban settlement)	6
1.4 Problem statement.....	7
1.5 Aims and objectives	8
1.6 Research questions	9
1.7 Relevance of study	9
CHAPTER TWO	11
LITERATURE REVIEW	11
2.1 Introduction	11
2.2 Theoretical Framework	11
2.2.1 Identity Theory.....	11
2.3 Review of Related Studies	18
2.3.1 Spousal Role Discrepancy and psychosocial outcomes.....	18
2.3.2 Gender role attitude.....	23
2.3.3 Rural and Urban Settings	31
2.4 Rationale for the study	31
2.5 Statement of hypotheses.....	32
2.6 Operational definition of terms.	33
2.7 Hypothesised Model.....	34
CHAPTER THREE	35
METHODOLOGY	35
3.1 Introduction	35
3.2 Research Design.....	35
3.3 Study Setting	36

3.4 Population of the study.....	37
3.5 Sample and Sampling Technique	37
3.6 Measurements and Instruments	40
3.7 Procedures	44
3.7.1 The pilot study.....	44
3.7.2 The Main Study.....	46
3.8 Ethical Considerations.....	47
3.9 Analysis of Data	48
3.9.1 Analysis of Qualitative Data	48
3.9.2 Analysis of Quantitative Data	50
CHAPTER FOUR.....	51
RESULTS	51
4.1. Introduction	51
4.2 Quantitative analysis	51
4.2.1 Preliminary Analyses	51
4.2.2 Hypotheses Testing	57
4.3 Qualitative findings	69
4.4.1 Summary of Quantitative Findings	78
4.4.2 Observed Model	78
4.4.3 Summary of Qualitative Findings	79
CHAPTER FIVE	82
DISCUSSION	82
5.1 Introduction	82
5.2 Urban and rural differences on study variables.....	83
5.3 Spousal role discrepancy and psychosocial outcomes	85
5.4 Gender role attitude and psychosocial outcomes	89
5.5 Changes in Gender roles among couples	92
5.6 Implications of the Study	94
5.6.1 Practical Implications of the Study	95
5.6.2 Theoretical Implications of the Study	95
5.7 Limitations of the Study.....	96
5.8 Recommendations	96
5.9 Conclusion.....	97
REFERENCES	99
APPENDICES	107

APPENDIX I: ETHICAL CLEARANCE.....	107
APPENDIX II: QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE IN ENGLISH.....	108
APPENDIX III: QUANTITATIVE QUESSTIONNAIRE IN TWI.....	113
APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW GUIDE	118



LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Internal Consistency of Adapted Scales for the Pilot Study	46
Table 4.1 Summary of Descriptive Analysis for Variables	51
Table 4.2 Correlation Matrix of the Variables	55
Table 4.3 Summary of Demographic Characteristics	52
Table 4.4 Summary of t– test Results on outcomes between Urban and Rural Dwellers	56
Table 4.5 Summary of Multiple Regression of Predictors on Psychological Distress	57
Table 4.6 Summary of Multiple Regression of Predictors on Marital Satisfaction.....	58
Table 4.7 Summary of Multiple Regression of predictors on Aggression	62
Table 4.8 Summary of Multiple Regression of predictors on Self – esteem	60
Table 4.9 Summary of Moderation analysis of self – esteem between spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress.....	65
Table 4.10 Gender role attitude and Spousal role discrepancy predicting outcomes by settlement.	66

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Hypothesised model	34
Figure 4.1 Observed model for quantitative findings.	79



ABSTRACT

This study examined the impact of changing gender roles on the psychosocial wellbeing of married men in some rural and urban communities in Ghana. A simultaneous quantitative and qualitative mixed method design was employed in this respect. Using the nested sampling design, 16 respondents were interviewed in the qualitative component and 208 respondents responded to questionnaires in the quantitative component from urban and rural communities. Thematic content analysis and multiple regression were used to analyze the qualitative and quantitative data respectively. The results generally indicated that incongruence in the gender role attitude of couples leads to psychological distress and low self-esteem in married men. Incongruence, however, had no implication for the marital satisfaction and aggressive behaviour of married men. In comparing rural and urban men on their psychosocial wellbeing, incongruence in gender role led to psychological distress and marital satisfaction among urban men but not for rural men. It was also observed that, incongruence in gender roles had negative consequences for the self-esteem of rural married men but not for urban married men. Overall, traditional gender role attitude was also found to predict aggression. Qualitative findings also revealed that both rural and urban married men are traditional in their gender roles. Some married men also reported some changes in the gender roles of their wives. These findings are important for psychologists and counsellors in handling issues of domestic violence and marital counselling.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

For researchers interested in mental health, social roles are deemed very important because of their link to mental health outcomes (Burke, 1996; Thoits, 1991). Roles are sets of behavioural expectations associated with occupying a particular position in the social structure (Burke & Stets, 2009; Thoits, 1991). Roles, therefore, provide a form of structure, organisation and meaning to selves and situations (Burke & Stets, 2009). Social roles such as gender roles are very important for the development and maintenance of self-concept and well-being because they provide meaning and guidance to life (Gecas, 1982; Marcusen, 2006; Thoits, 1992). When people perceive themselves as successfully enacting their gender roles, their self-esteem and mental health are enhanced (Marcusen, 2006). Gender roles consist of traditionally held beliefs about what roles and behaviours are deemed appropriate for each sex (Deaux & LaFrance, 1998). Traditional gender roles prescribe the roles that men and women should emphasise, the notion that women's proper place is the home and men's place is paid labour (Powell & Greenhouse, 2010) whereas egalitarian gender roles support equality in all domains (Mickelson, Claffey & Williams, 2006). Therefore, if men and women are unable to successfully enact their socialised gender roles which give them their gender identity, their self-esteem and mental health might be negatively affected (Gecas, 1982; Marcusen, 2006; Thoits, 1992).

The Ghanaian society, like many others, has prescribed gender roles appropriate for each sex. The prescribed traditional role of a Ghanaian woman is to be a wife and a mother (Adomako Ampofo & Boateng, 2007; Sefa-Dedeh & Canetto, 1992). Women are therefore socialised to take up these roles. The traditional role of the man is also primarily to be a father

and provider of the home (Adomako Ampofo, 2001) and also take up the responsibility of taking major decisions on behalf of the family (Oheneba-Sakyi, 1995), consequently he is brought up to take up leadership roles in the home as a father and work outside the home to provide the family income (Akotia & Anum, 2012). These gender roles are reflected in cultural values and norms and are sometimes expressed in proverbs such as "Etu to a, etwere bema bo" (meaning "when a gun goes off it rest on the chest of a man"), "Obaatan na onim nea ne ba bedi" (meaning "it is a mother who knows what her children will eat") (Adomako Ampofo, 2001). These proverbs used in Ghanaian communities tend to reinforce traditional gender roles. Therefore gender identity, the meaning a gender role holds for an individual, as well as gender role attitude of both men and women are formed right from childhood. Traditional gender role attitudes such as male provider and head of the family have been argued to play a pivotal role in constructing identities of males in particular (Green, 1999). Therefore the extent to which men enact these roles in their adult marriage life goes a long way to affect their self-esteem, mental health and marital satisfaction (Green, 1999; Grzywacz et al., 2009; Loscocco & Spitze, 2007; Rees & Pease, 2007).

Traditional gender roles are however changing to give way to more egalitarian gender roles. In recent years, Ghana like many other countries have implemented interventions aimed at improving the status of women in the areas of poverty, health, education, political participation and decision making (Advocates for Gender Equity, 2000; Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection, 2016; Akotia & Anum, 2015). These interventions in Ghana have seen varying degrees of successes and challenges (Akotia & Anum, 2015). The harsh economic realities and conditions in Ghana are also pushing more women into the job market. As the proportion of women in the job market has increased over the past decades, the traditional family structure of male provider and female homemaker and childcare provider is giving way to dual-earning couples (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Marks, 2006; Rogers & Amato,

2000). However this has caused a situation Hochschild terms "faster-changing women and slower changing men" (Hochschild, 1989, p. 214). This has touched the core values about gender identity, power and relations in the household, as values and relations are being broken, tested, contested and renegotiated in silence, pain and violence (Narayan, Koch-Schulte, Patel, Rademacher & Schafft, 2000). Silberschmidt (2001) argues that in the light of this socioeconomic change, men's roles and identities have been challenged and undermined whereas that of women has in some ways been strengthened. Consequently, married men are unable to successfully enact their socialised gender role identity and acquired attitudes towards gender roles which can be detrimental to their mental health, marital satisfaction and self-esteem (Burke & Stets, 2009; Marcussen, 2006; Thoits, 1992). Self-esteem has also been postulated to act as a buffer in the relationship between the inability to enact social roles and mental health. (Burke & Stets, 2009). Furthermore, some studies have indicated that men often react with violence when their sense of masculine gender identity is threatened (Hyndman, 2000; Pittaway & Rees, 2006) and therefore use violence as a means of regaining power (Easteal, 1996).

1.2 Spousal role discrepancy

Spousal role discrepancy results when the spousal role identity of men is in contrast to the spousal role identity of spouse (Marcussen, 2006). To have a traditional spousal role identity is to be located at a particular point on the traditionalism – egalitarianism continuum. For example, a continuum of 1 to 10 where 1 represents very high traditional spousal roles and 10 represents very high egalitarian spousal roles. A married man who is located at say point 2 on this continuum has spousal roles that define him a husband. These roles can range from not cooking in the house, to paying all of the bills in the house. However, if such a man with such spousal role identity has a wife whose spousal role identity is 6, on the traditionalism-

egalitarianism role continuum, which for her means that her husband should cook half of the time in the house and she must also work to pay half of the bills in the house. The difference of -4 will represent a discrepancy in the spousal role identity of the man. Given the continued salience of being a good provider to men's gender identity, the psychological well-being of men who are unable to provide as much as they think they should may be adversely affected, whereas for women, alternative sources of identity and fulfilment may be protective factors for them compared to men (Hertz, 1986).

Self-verification, which is seeking to confirm one's self-views mostly by looking at the views and responses of others, has been argued by identity theorist, as a determinant of well-being. Successful verification of the self leads to the experience of positive emotions, satisfaction and increased self-esteem, conversely, the lack of self-verification leads to the experience of increased negative emotions such as psychological distress, lower satisfaction and decreased self-esteem (Burke & Stets, 1999, 2009). The problem of spousal role discrepancy is, therefore, a problem of lack of verification of the self in terms of one's spousal role identity. Identity according to Identity theorists is a set of meanings that characterises who a person is as an occupant of a particular role in society that identifies him or her as a unique person. Thus, married men who experience spousal role discrepancy experience lack of self-verification, they often have spouses who have spousal role identities which contrast theirs in one way or the other.

As indicated earlier, because the traditional role identity of males has been vital in constructing male identities, inability to enact these roles could lead to increased psychological distress, reduced self-esteem, poor marital satisfaction and even aggressive behaviours (Falconier, 2013; Green, 1999; Grzywacz, Rao, Gentry, Marin, & Arcury, 2009; Hyndman, 2000; Loscocco & Spitze, 2000; Rees & Pease, 2007). Burke and Stets (2009), argue that if a person has a high self-esteem, the experience of discrepancy will not immediately affect their

self-esteem as it will act as a buffer while they try to find a solution to their identity discrepancy. However, if the discrepancy continues for a long time, self-esteem will be depleted that will lead to the experience of psychological distress.

1.3 Gender role attitude

Gender roles are the behaviours and attitudes sanctioned and assigned to males and females by the social context one finds himself or herself solely on the basis of gender. Traditional gender roles prescribes that women remain at home and take care of the house, children and family while men are expected to be the breadwinners and "heads" of the household. Traditional gender role attitudes have been argued to favour men to the detriment of women in the past (Bernard, 1982; Fowers, 1991; Sweeting, Bhaskar, Benzeval, Popham, & Hunt, 2014). Some studies showed that men benefited more from marriage than women, hence women were found to experience poorer mental health (Gove, 1973) and less marital satisfaction (Noor, 1997; Voydanoff & Donnelly, 1999) than men. However marital satisfaction as a function of gender is changing (Amato, Johnson, Booth, & Rogers, 2003; Kurdek, 2005) as traditional gender role attitude is giving way for more egalitarian gender role attitudes, especially among women. Some studies have shown women hold more egalitarian and less sexist attitude compared to men. (Akotia & Anum, 2012; Arends-Toth & van de Vijver, 2007; Baber & Tucker, 2006; Fan & Marini, 2000; Glick & Fiske, 2001; Mickelson, Claffey & Williams, 2006). However, in recent years, traditional gender role attitude has been linked to negative outcomes like psychological distress, poor self-esteem and low marital satisfaction in married men (Arends-Toth & van de Vijver, 2007; Lye & Waldron, 1997). This has mainly been attributed to egalitarian attitudes observed in women. Some studies have also shown that incongruence between a person's gender role attitude and actual gender role is

linked to psychological distress, poor self-esteem and marital dissatisfaction (Sweeting, Bhaskar, Benzeval, Popham & Hunt, 2014; Loscocco & Spitze, 2007).

1.4 Setting (rural and urban settlement)

It has been stipulated that education and Westernisation would change people's perception about traditional gender roles (Kulick, 2002). In Ghana, generally, educational attainment is higher in the urban areas as opposed to the rural areas especially secondary and tertiary education. For example, according to the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS 6), whereas 69.5% of person 15years and above are literate in the urban areas, only 41.7% of persons 15 years and above are literate in the rural areas (Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2014). From the foregoing, high levels of traditional gender role attitudes and spousal role identities are expected for people living in rural areas than for people living in urban areas for both sexes. This trend has implications for spousal role discrepancy for rural men. This is because traditional spousal role identities are expected for both men and women, hence very little spousal role discrepancy will result for married men in rural areas. Spousal role discrepancy has implications for the psychological distress, self-esteem and marital satisfaction of married men.

In contrast, there is higher educational attainment for urban areas in Ghana than there is for rural areas. Hence more egalitarian spousal role identities are expected for both males and females. However, research conducted by Akotia and Anum (2012), in urban Ghana showed that higher educational attainment increased egalitarianism among women but did not affect the traditional gender role orientation of men. This also has implications for the spousal role identities of married men in urban areas. Whereas wives are generally expected to have egalitarian gender roles due to high educational attainment in urban areas, husbands are expected to have more traditional gender roles because educational attainment does not affect

men's traditional gender roles (Akotia & Anum, 2012). Higher discrepancy scores are therefore expected for urban married men. Spousal role discrepancy as indicated earlier has implications for psychological distress, marital satisfaction and self-esteem. Higher spousal role discrepancy will predict higher psychological distress, marital satisfaction and lower self-esteem.

Comparing the gender roles of rural and urban men, therefore, the gender role attitudes and spousal role discrepancies of urban men are expected to predict more of the psychosocial outcomes (psychological distress, self-esteem, marital satisfaction and aggression) than rural men.

1.4 Problem statement

The past decades have seen an increase in advocacy for women empowerment in Africa thus much research and debate have been focused on women (Adomako Ampofo, Beoku-Betts, Njambi & Osirim, 2004; Akotia & Anum, 2015). However, little has been done on the life situation and experiences of men with regard to changing gender roles and the impact this socio-economic change in the twenty-first century is having on the mental health of men. Research has focused on women's changing roles with little focus on how uprooting the traditional provider and authority role expectations of men as the sole provider and authority figure will uniquely affect their mental health, marital satisfaction and self-esteem of husbands. (Hengstebeck, Helms & Rodriguez, 2015).

Research in Ghana has revealed that whereas high education attainment in Ghana does not affect the traditional gender roles attitudes of men, women experience more egalitarian gender roles with education (Akotia & Anum, 2012). This brings to bear the problem of incongruence between the held gender roles of men and the held gender roles of women, especially in urban Ghana. However little or no research has been done in Ghana to examine this gender role disparity particularly among married men.

Statistics for the GLSS 6 reveal that there is generally an educational gap between rural and urban Ghana. However, education and westernisation have been postulated to be the agent for change from traditional gender roles to more egalitarian gender roles (Kulick, 2002). This notwithstanding, little or no research has focused on how the gender role attitudes of rural and urban dwellers uniquely affect their psychosocial well-being.

This study will, therefore, be the first of its kind in Ghana to explore the psychosocial wellbeing of married men in Ghana in the light of the changing socioeconomic landscape in terms of gender roles.

1.5 Aims and objectives

The aim of this study was to investigate how changes in gender roles affect the psychosocial wellbeing of married men.

Specific objectives of the qualitative component were:

1. To explore the gender role attitudes of married men.
2. To qualitatively explore the experiences of married men with regards to changing gender roles.
3. To explore the level of involvement of married men in household chores.

The quantitative component of the study examined the effects of gender roles on the psychosocial wellbeing of married men. The psychosocial outcomes included psychological distress, self-esteem, marital satisfaction and aggression. The predictors included spousal role discrepancy, gender role attitudes, spousal role identity and actual household involvement.

The specific objectives of the quantitative component of the study included:

1. To examine the influence of spousal role discrepancy on psychological distress, self-esteem, marital satisfaction and aggressive behaviour of married men.

2. To examine the influence of gender role attitude on the psychological distress, marital satisfaction, self-esteem and aggression of married men.
3. To examine the moderating effect of self-esteem on spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress.
4. To examine the effect of setting (rural and urban settlement) in predicting the psychological distress, self-esteem, marital satisfaction and aggression of married men.

1.6 Research questions

Based on the above stated the objectives, the qualitative component of the study sought to answer the following research questions

1. What are the gender role attitudes of married men?
2. What are the experiences of married men with respect to changing gender roles?
3. To what extent do married men involve themselves in domestic chores?

1.7 Relevance of study

In the light of the changing socioeconomic landscape with respect to women empowerment, education and influx of women into the paid job sector with its consequence on gender roles, this study will help provide insights into how changes in the gender roles, especially among married women, is affecting the mental health/psychosocial wellbeing of married men in Ghana.

In the light of the fact that women empowerment will continue to rise, results of this study will help provide insight into how uprooting the traditional gender roles of men through socioeconomic changes is affecting the mental health/psychosocial well-being of married men. Such results will provide the basis for the design of interventions to reverse the unintended effect of increased mental health burden on married men.

Counsellors are being advised to include the discussion of gender roles in marriage counselling (Davey & Davey, 2007), however, there is very little local literature to provide the basis for this discussion as little has been done on the effects of changing gender roles on the marital satisfaction, psychological distress and well-being in general. This study will, therefore, provide literature to serve as the basis for such discussions.

This study will further provide insight into the possible causes of distress, abuse and poor marital quality in marriages so as to help clinician and counsellors tackle marital discord effectively.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of sections on theoretical frameworks, review of related studies, the rationale for the study, statement of hypotheses and operational definitions. The theoretical underpinning of this study: identity theory, is first discussed followed by a review of related studies on the various variables in this study. The justification for the current study is discussed next, then the various hypotheses to be tested and the operational definition of terms. This chapter ends with the definition of some terms as used in this study.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical underpinning for this study is the identity theory. The identity theory relates how ones' identity or identity discrepancy relates to behaviour.

2.2.1 Identity Theory

The identity theory by Burke and Stets (2009) is a theory in sociological social psychology that seeks to explain among others, how the identities of a person influence their behaviour, thoughts and emotions and more generally, how these identities link them as members of a society (Burke & Stets, 2009). For the identity theorist, identity refers to "the set of meanings that define who one is, when one is an occupant of a particular role in society, a member of a particular group, or claims particular characteristics that identify him or her as a unique person" (Burke & Stets, 2009 pg.3). People, therefore, possess multiple identities because they occupy multiple roles, claim multiple personal characteristics and also claim membership of multiple groups. These roles include but not limited to the meanings people

apply to themselves as students, workers, spouses or even members of a particular political party or religious organisation.

The identity theory has evolved from somewhat two different but mutually reinforcing strands (Stryker & Burke, 2000) with roots in a theoretical perspective called structural symbolic interactionism by Stryker (1980). The goal of structural symbolic interactionism is to explain how the structure of society influences the self and how the self affects social behaviour. This brings to bear the two mutually reinforcing strands of the identity theory; the first being, how social structure affects the structure of the self and how the structure of the self, in turn, affects a person's behaviour, whereas the second strand deals with the internal processes of the self and how it culminates in social behaviour.

The external social structure's influence on the self cannot be overemphasised. As reiterated by Stryker and Burke (2000) people live in somewhat small networks of social relationships and therefore enact roles that support their membership in these social networks. In identity theory,, social roles refer to behavioural expectations of someone occupying specific social role whiles identities are internalised role expectations (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Men, therefore, learn how to be husbands by enacting roles that show that they are husbands as accepted by their societal standards. The second strand, which deals with the internal processes of the self, argues that the tie between a person's identity and behaviour lies in their common meaning (Burke & Reitzes, 1981). Thus, for identity theory, this internal processes that result in behaviour can be conceptualised as a model having four components. "The identity standard, or the set of (culturally prescribed) meanings held by the individual which define his or her role identity in a situation; the person's perceptions of meanings within the situation, matched to the dimensions of meaning in the identity standard; the comparator or the mechanism that compares the perceived situational meanings with those held in the identity standard; and the individual's behaviour or activity which is a function of the difference between perceptions and

standard" (Stryker & Burke, 2000, p. 287). By this conceptualization, agency is given to the individual (Burke & Gray, 1999; Tsushima 1999) and also allows for the incorporation of emotions as resulting from the incongruence between the identity standard and a given situation (Burke & Stets, 1999).

These two mutually reinforcing strands come together to form identity theory as it's known today by addressing the weaknesses in each strand. The first in relative terms neglects the internal dynamics of self-processes in determining behaviour whereas the second neglect the influence of the external social structure on the internal processes. The identity theory as has come to be known today operates by four components; that is the input, an identity standard, comparator and output which serve as a control system to preserve a person's identity (Burke & Stets, 2009).

The Identity Standard

For every identity held by an individual, there are a set of meanings that define the character of that particular identity (Burke & Stets, 2009). This set of meanings is the identity standard. With respect to gender role attitude along the dimensions of traditionalism and egalitarianism, what it means to be traditional and what it means to be egalitarian differ from culture to culture and even across persons within the same culture. However, anyone who perceives himself as traditional or egalitarian may be aligned along some dimensions of meanings that distinguish traditionalism from egalitarianism. To be located at some point on the traditionalism-egalitarianism continuum is to discover what it means to a husband in one's culture. For example, a stereotypical traditional husband in our society may say that his role as a husband is to provide for the family, take major decisions for the family while disengaging himself from activities like cooking, sweeping or washing. For such a person, with respect to

his gender role identity, there is a fairly stable set of meanings that define him as a husband (Burke and Cast, 1997)

According to the identity theory, these meanings define the identity standard and serves as the point of reference for the inputs relevant to gender role identity. The set of meanings a person possesses about any identity is stored in memory and is accessible to the comparator for comparison.

The question that remains however is, how do people come to possess particular role identities or identity standards? According to the identity theory, individuals are socialised into what it means to occupy any role in society, be it a teacher, student, parent, spouse or even a child. Thus people come to learn the meaning of a role identity by their interaction with significant others. Others here act towards the person as if they possess the identity appropriate for being an occupant of the particular role (Burke, 1980). The role meanings that people possess therefore come about as a result of how people react toward the occupant of the particular role. Husbands, therefore, come to learn what it means to be a husband in our cultural context by the responses of other members of the society toward them as husbands. For example, a father upon hearing that his married son does not provide for his household may react towards him in ways that communicate to him that as a husband or man of the house, he should be able to provide for the family. Another example is when a married man in an interaction with other friends, mentions that he does the cooking in the house. This might immediately elicit a response that communicates that cooking in the house is not the role of a husband but that of a wife. This response can help shape the identity standard or role meaning of the individual.

Another means through which people come to form their identity standard according to the identity theory is the idiosyncratic dimension. This reflects a person's own understanding

of what the role means (McCall & Simmons, 1978). This meaning is uniquely held by the role holder and might not be necessarily shared by other people.

The Inputs

Perceptions help us as humans to make sense of our environment. In dealing with our identities, perceptions are inputs to the identities, they are meanings in a situation that are relevant to a particular identity (Burke & Stets, 2009). Inputs are therefore identity-relevant meanings in a specified situation that have consequences for a particular held identity by a perceiver. For a married man, inputs are situations in his environment that have something to do with his role as a husband. An example is a husband with a traditional gender role identity, who finds his wife insisting on him cooking for the family in the evenings. This situation is an input relevant to his traditional gender role identity. Inputs to the identity process can be perceptions that one has of his or her own behaviour or of the behaviour of others or of both. The inputs to the identity process get compared to other meanings already "stored" as identity standards.

The Comparator

The comparator is the third component of the identity system which compares the input perceptions to the identity standard already stored in memory about a particular identity. The comparator produces an "error signal" when there is a mismatch between the inputs perception and the held identity standard. The error signal indicates both the magnitude and direction of the difference between the input perception and one's held identity standard (Burke & Stets, 2009). Therefore, a married man who has a traditional gender role identity and keeps getting pressure from his wife to cook dinner for the family will get an error signal indicating to him that he is not living up to his identity standard. In a similar way, a married man who is not able to provide for his family equally will get an "error signal" from the comparator indicating to

him he is not living to his traditional gender role identity as a husband. The error signal produced ultimately has consequences for behaviour, both verbal and non-verbal (Burke & Stets, 2009).

The Outputs

The output is the last component of the identity system. The output behaviour, whether overt or covert is based on the error signal produced by the comparator. The output behaviour will seek to bring balance to the identity system by altering the environment (Burke & Stets, 2009). This behaviour can take many forms in the case of gender role identity including aggression. Therefore, a married man with traditional gender role identity whose wife always pressurise him to cook dinner will have to act in a way that affirms his gender role identity. This can make him resort to physical or psychological aggression to bring balance to his identity. In the example of the married man unable to provide for his family, hence having his wife take up this role, he may resort to every possible means to provide for his family in order to affirm his traditional gender role identity

This identity system functions in a cyclical loop, first a perception from the environment is fed to the comparator which compares the perception to the identity standard and then based on the outcome, the output behaviour is a response to alter the environment which then goes back into the comparator again and the cycle goes on. This unending cycle works as a control system to bring balance into one's held identity at all times.

The core function of the identity system is one of identity-verification; making the perceived meaning of self in a situation correspond with one's identity standard stored in memory (Burke & Stets, 2009). Thus, a married man with a traditional gender role identity will be seeking to verify his identity in the marriage relationship through his actions and inactions. Research by Zanna and Cooper (1976), showed that when a person's perceptions are not in

congruence with one's identity standard, a subjective feeling of distress results. This distress increases as the level of incongruence also increase. Burke (1991; 1996), presents an analysis of how non-verification results in distress based on Mandler's Interruption theory of stress. In this theory, stress is as a result of an interruption in normal action and thought processes especially those related with identity-verification. This is because when an identity is activated, the identity process works in a continuous loop to maintain congruence between the input and identity standard. This process is nearly automatic and does not require much attention. However, in the event where there is a large incongruence between the input and the identity standard, there is likely to be an interruption in the identity process, hence the experience of distress. This study, therefore, measures psychological distress as one of its outcome variables, that results from the identity verification process.

Another key component of the identity theory is self-esteem. Self-esteem can be referred to as the evaluation of the self, made by the self (Gecas 1982; Rosenberg 1979). According to William James (1890), self-esteem is the function of one's achievement and aspiration, hence self-esteem results from one's accomplishment relative to one's goals. From the foregoing, even if one chalks high success but has very high goals, self-esteem will still be low. Conversely, if our goals are very low, even low achievements will result in high self-esteem. The identity theory, therefore, answers the question of the source of self-esteem. From the identity theory perspective, self-esteem results from the identity verification process. Similar to William James (1890) conception, if our input perceptions (achievements) are closer to our identity standards (goals) then the consequence is a high self-esteem. However, if our input perceptions are far from the identity standards, low self-esteem results. Thus successful verification of our identity leads to high self-esteem and unsuccessful attempts at identity verification leads to low self-esteem. For traditional men, if their spouses verify the traditional gender role identity, it will result in high self-esteem and failure of verification will also result

in low self-esteem. Thus, this study also measured self-esteem an outcome of the identity verification process. This outcome variable was measured as a function of the discrepancy between one's own spousal role identity and perceptions of wife's spousal role identity.

Self-esteem is not just a consequence of the identity verification process but also acts as a buffer in the verification process. Self-esteem is seen as a reservoir of "energy". Success in the verification process fills this reservoir and lack of verification drains the reservoir. Because this process is a cumulative process, immediate problems in the verification have little impact on the individual, however, persistent failure in verification is likely to impact the individual (Burke & Stets, 2009). Self-esteem has been known to, therefore, protect the self from stressors like distress (Cohen 1959; Coopersmith 1967; Rosenberg 1979) and depression (Burke 1991; 1996; Mirowsky & Ross 1989). This study will also examine the buffering effects of self-esteem on the relationship between spousal role discrepancies and psychological distress.

2.3 Review of Related Studies

2.3.1 Spousal Role Discrepancy and psychosocial outcomes

A discrepancy in a husband's spousal role identity is essentially a mismatch between what a man believes is and is not his role as a husband in a marital context and what he is actually confronted to do or not do in the marriage context. This problem is a problem of lack of self-verification in the context of marriage.

A few studies have been done to examine the direct influence of identity discrepancy on psychological distress and self-esteem. In a study by Cast and Burke (2002) to examine the ways in which self-esteem influences and is influenced by the identity verification process, Cast and Burke (2002), hypothesized that identity non-verification results in psychological distress and low self-esteem, however, self-esteem was also hypothesized to be a buffer in the

relationship between discrepancy and psychological distress. Using a sample of married couples in a survey that measured spousal role identity, self-esteem and psychological distress among other constructs. The results indicated that failure to verify spousal identity resulted in lower levels of self-esteem. Similarly, failure to verify spousal identity resulted in an increase in psychological distress. On the buffering effects of self-esteem, results indicated that although the lack of verification resulted in the experience of high psychological distress, higher self-esteem buffered their symptoms of psychological distress. Results from this study indicate that the distress that results from identity non-verification have consequences for both mental health outcomes and self-esteem. This situation poses a unique problem for the mental health outcomes and self-esteem of married men in Ghana. This is because as women are becoming more egalitarian in their gender role attitudes in Ghana, men continue to remain traditional in their gender role attitudes (Akotia & Anum, 2012), hence the likelihood of high levels of identity non-verification among married men in Ghana.

In a similar study by Burke and Stets (1999), they drew from a sample of 286 first time married couples applying for a marriage license. Using survey instruments and interviews in a longitudinal study over three years, data on their spousal role identities, self-esteem, depression, distress and other variables were collected. Using cross-sectional time-series analysis procedure and regression, they hypothesised that identity verification will lead to reduced depression and distress as well as improved self-esteem among others. The results indicated that self-verification directly reduces depression and distress while increasing self-esteem. This result is consistent with the assertion that discrepancy in identity has negative consequences for mental health and well-being of people. This study was however confounded by a number of methodological and theoretical issues. The couples who partook in the study were sampled from first-time couples who were going to obtain their marriage licenses, this attribute may have caused them to differ in some ways unknown to the researchers from the

general population of married people. Again, the study assumed no theoretical difference between males and females on the impact of identity non-verification on their self-esteem, distress and depression. However, Silberschmidt (2001), argues that changing gender roles, which is the cause of identity non-verification among couples, challenges and undermines the identity of men whereas in some ways that of women has been strengthened. It is therefore problematic to lump both men and women together in predicting their distress, self-esteem and depression, as identity non-verification can impact men and women differently. The current study, therefore, included only married men as its sample. It also drew its sample from a community sample of married men.

In another study by Rosenfield (1992), to examine the effects of wives' employment on husbands' mental health, using a sample of 172 married individuals from a larger psychiatric epidemiology study, data on wives' employment, income, household labour, psychological distress, self-esteem, anxiety among others was collected. The results indicated that the less the husbands' income is relative to that of his spouse the more their symptoms of demoralisation, sadness, anxiety and hopelessness-helplessness as well as low self-esteem. This result indicated that being the chief breadwinner in the house was very salient in determining the mental health of married men. As indicated earlier on, being the provider of the house has been argued to be very salient in constructing male identities (Green, 1999) hence its effect on the mental health of married men. This study by Rosenfield (1992), however, did not consider gender role attitudes of the spouses in predicting their mental health outcomes.

In examining the implications of incongruence between sex-role attitudes and family work roles, McHale and Crouter (1992) used 153 couples with firstborn school-age children in a short-term longitudinal study in 3 waves with one-year intervals. McHale and Crouter (1992) participants included dual and single-earner families, with fathers employed in full time while excluding very poor families. Their household involvement was recorded in three to four weeks

period where respondents were asked to report their activities from the time they woke up till the evening where the call was going on. Data collection procedure also included home interviews with family members. Data collected also included their gender role attitudes, evaluation of marriage, marital satisfaction and family conflict. Results from the study indicated that men who had traditional gender role attitudes but performed egalitarian family work roles reported significantly lower marital quality and role satisfaction than those who had congruent work-family roles and gender role attitudes. This revealed that when men played family roles that are not in congruence with their gender role attitudes, they experience poor role satisfaction as well as poor marital quality. This study, however, focused on only middle class married couples hence limited in generalizability. The study also created 4 different groups from a sample of 153 with some groups having as low as 30 members. This grouping made the sample size small hence reducing the power of the statistical test used. Further, due to the choice of using the comparison of groups for analysis, statistically causality and the amount of variance accounted for by the predictors could not be accounted for. The current study will however employ the use of multiple regression and a larger sample size to overcome these limitations. The present study will also use a community sample of both urban and rural dwellers to avoid sampling only middle-class participants.

In another study, Loscocco and Spitze (2007) examined gender patterns in provider role attitudes and behaviour. The study was informed in part by the notion that the provider role is central in constructing male gender identity. Secondary data from a 1998 to 1999 study which had one of its major goals as investigating how family and work roles intersect to shape the lives of men and women was used. Using a mixed method approach (interviews and surveys) data on respondents' marital quality, life satisfaction and psychological well-being among others were collected from a sample of 236 women and 274 men.

Results from the study, using regression analysis indicated that congruent main provider men have higher levels of anxiety, similarly, men who are unable to provide as much as they want to also experience high levels of anxiety. The results also indicate that incongruence in provider role attitudes and behaviour has more consequence for men's psychological well-being than for women. Findings from this study are also consistent with the identity theories assertion that identity incongruence leads to poor mental health outcomes (Burke & Stets, 2009). It also supports the notion that incongruence in men's gender role attitudes/provider role attitudes have a greater consequence for men than for women (Silberschmidt, 2001); because provider role is essential in forming men's gender role identity (Green, 1999). This study was limited in that the study made use of secondary data, hence the researchers had little control over the study variables. As a result, some of the constructs were not measured using standardised scales. The study also involved predominantly white middle-class men and women with median ages of 46.2 and 49.8 for females and males respectively who were self-employed. These characteristics do not reflect that of the general population hence limited in generalizability.

Hengstebeck, Helms and Rodriguez (2015) investigated the associations between spouses' gender role attitudes and wives' employment status and how it impacts on the marital satisfaction of Mexican-origin husbands. The study involved a sample of 120 Mexican-origin couples living in North Carolina, information on their marital satisfaction, gender role attitudes, and wives' employment status among others were collected. Bivariate correlations revealed that more traditional gender role attitudes were associated with poor marital satisfaction. From the regression analysis, husbands experienced lower marital satisfaction when their wives were employed. Further analysis revealed that when husbands have more traditional gender roles, their marital satisfaction was lowest when their wives gender role attitude was also traditional and were unemployed than when husbands have less traditional gender role attitudes.

This result from the interaction is inconsistent with the identity theory's prediction of congruence leading to higher satisfaction (Burke & Stets, 2009). However, it is important that in interpreting the findings of this study, consideration is given to the fact that participants involved immigrants from traditional society (Mexico) residing in a less traditional society with huge financial burdens (Hengstebeck, Helms & Rodriguez, 2015). Their status as an immigrant from a traditional society means that though gender role congruence was to be desired, their need for a wife who was earning income was very vital for their satisfaction.

This study was however limited in generalizability because the study involved only Mexican immigrant couples from a traditional society living in a less traditional society. It is also important to note however that this study did not directly account for the variance that gender role attitudes account for in husbands' marital satisfaction. This study did not also consider the relationship between the predictor variables and husband's mental health outcomes. The study also did not control for the effect of demographic variables like educational status on the outcome.

2.3.2 Gender role attitude

Some studies have reported that traditional gender roles are associated with poorer mental health outcomes and marital satisfaction.

In the work of Davey and Davey (2007), they investigated the gender-related predictors of marital satisfaction and marital conflict. Data were obtained from the first two waves of the US National Survey of Families and Households. Data was first collected between 1987 and 1988 and later between 1992 and 1994. Data from a total of 1,561 first time couples were included in the analysis. Data on their marital satisfaction, marital conflicts, depression, well-being, gender role attitudes among others were collected. Results from the analysis indicated that husbands who reported having more traditional gender roles were generally less satisfied

in their marriages, husbands who reported having been married for more than 16 years were also more satisfied in their marriage.

Results from this study showed that husbands reported less marital satisfaction when they reported more traditional gender role attitudes. This could be due to the fact that traditional gender roles are argued to be more restrictive (Brown, 1994, McCreary, Wong, Wiener, Carpenter, Engle & Nelson, 1996). Husbands who have traditional gender roles may also experience more conflict with their wives hence the experience of less satisfaction. This study was however limited in the sense that the use of secondary data gave investigators less control over the measures used in the study, as a result, indirect measures were used to assess variables like gender role attitudes. The study participants were not also racially diverse hence it limits the generalizability of the study, especially to Africans. This study did not also investigate the associations between gender role attitudes and mental health outcomes of participants. The current study, therefore, investigated the association between gender role attitudes and mental health outcomes among an African population.

In a recent study by Sweeting, Bhaskar, Benzeval, Popham and Hunt (2014), they examined the association between gender role attitudes, three roles (marital status, household chore division, couple employment) and psychological distress in working-age men and women. The study made use of the British Household Survey Panel data in 1991 and 2007. They examined three age groups, twenty to sixty-four years on their gender role attitudes, age, household and employment roles and their psychological distress. The study made use of a sample of 5,302 in 1991 and 6,621 in 2007. The results indicated that traditionalism was significantly lower among women than among men in both 1991 and 2007. Among women, traditionalism was significantly lower among those who had a university education than those who had no qualifications, however, this difference was not observed for men. Traditionalism was also observed to be lower among participants in the 2007 survey than 1991 survey. Again,

in examining the associations between traditionalism, daily chores and psychological distress, higher traditionalism was found to be associated with poorer mental health, when both couples were not employed, mental health was poorer among men than among women. In examining the relationship between the conflict between gender role attitudes and actual roles, no significant interaction was observed for men.

The results bring to bear the fact that traditional gender roles are higher among men than it is among women, this might be accounted for in part by the fact that education lowered the traditional gender role of women but not for men. The results also indicated that gender roles in this modern era are less traditional than it was about a decade and a half ago. This idea is also supported by the fact that older people have higher traditional gender role attitudes than younger people. However traditional gender roles were found to be associated with poor mental health among both men and women. Despite this association, the conflict between gender role attitudes and actual roles did not predict psychological distress contrary to expectation. This could be due in part to the fact that even though significant differences were found between the gender roles of 1991 participants and 2007 participants, in drawing the associations, the data from the two years were lumped together.

In another study by Fisher (2013), to investigate domestic violence in five African refugee background communities post settlement in Perth, Australia, the study qualitatively explored the interrelationships between the experiences of domestic violence and changed and changing gender and family roles. The study participants included 54 members of the Somalian, Sierra Leonean, Ethiopian, Liberian and Sudanese communities, and focus groups with 24 professionals acting as their support staff. The data from the interview was analysed using constant comparison method. Three key themes emerged as related to domestic violence among participants, these were; a male loss of the breadwinner role and status, financial independence and mismatch between formal response and expectations. In explaining the male

loss of breadwinner role, domestic violence, which involves aggressive behaviour, was seen as a means used by the men to re-establish control as head of the family. Women were gaining financial independence because social support services were made directly to the woman and not the man who is the provider for the family, hence women assumed the position of providing for the family. From the foregoing, changing and changed gender roles had consequences on the aggressive behaviour exhibited by men.

This study, however, is very limited in the sense that the participants though Africans, were refugees in a completely different socio-cultural context. The study also made use of only a qualitative research design. The study did not also consider the mental health outcomes of men. In addition, the study studied males experience from a female's perspective instead of directly from the males, this could have affected the responses and outcome of the study.

The current study, therefore, made use of a mixed method research design with participants residing in the home country in an urban and rural sample. The current study also investigated the mental health outcomes changing gender role attitudes. This study also focused mainly on men thus it tapped from the direct experience of men.

In another study conducted in urban China, Lai (1995) investigated the relationship between work and family roles and psychological well-being. Making use of a secondary survey data, researchers collected data on 733 respondents' psychological distress, work satisfaction, family satisfaction, role stressors, quality of work and quality of family. The findings revealed that work stress had a stronger relationship with psychological distress than did family stress. However, family-related demands and conflicts were found to be associated with low level of family satisfaction, which also leads to high psychological distress. Chinese were also found to be more vulnerable to interpersonal conflict than from role demands. The finding suggests that in China, work stress is far higher than family stress and predicts greater

variance in psychological distress than family stress, though family stress also accounts for some variance in psychological distress. The family roles, however, did not predict distress in themselves but rather an interpersonal conflict that arises from the roles. Urban Chinese men and women, therefore, are prone to psychological distress through the conflicts that arise with dealing with people at work and at home. The findings from this study show that interpersonal conflicts that arise from performing one's role as a husband lead to psychological distress. This study by Lai (1995), however, did not specifically investigate the type of family roles that result in interpersonal conflict and subsequently high psychological distress. This study also involved only urban Chinese dwellers.

Mickelson, Claffey and Williams (2006), conducted a study to examine the moderating role of gender and gender role attitudes on the link between spousal support and marital quality. Secondary data from US national comorbidity survey was used for the analysis. A sample of 3500 respondents, including 1787 women and 1713 men were interviewed in a survey. Respondents responded to questions about their gender role attitudes, spousal support and marital quality among other demographic characteristics.

Multivariate analysis showed that men and women differ on all the study variables which included gender role attitudes, marital quality as measured by marital satisfaction and marital conflict, and spousal support as measured by emotional and instrumental support. Results also indicated that men's egalitarian attitude was positively related to emotional support and marital satisfaction and negatively related to marital conflict and instrumental support. Further analysis also revealed that both instrumental and emotional support were predictors for greater marital satisfaction among traditional men whereas emotional support was a significant predictor of marital satisfaction for egalitarian men. These findings reaffirm the assumption made in the current study that the gender roles of men and women will be significantly different hence can form a basis for the computation of role discrepancy between men and women. Egalitarian

attitudes were found to be positively related to marital satisfaction but negatively related to instrumental support. This shows that men with egalitarian attitudes receive less support in terms of household duties (instrumental support) albeit they are satisfied with their marriages. This could be explained by the fact that egalitarian men have less spousal role discrepancy because women are more generally egalitarian, from the identity theory less discrepancy is predictive of greater marital satisfaction. Traditional men also receive more instrumental support, indicating that traditional gender roles generally dictate that a household chore is the role of the wife.

This study was limited in that, the study made use of secondary data hence researchers had no control of study variables. This leads to poor measurement of some study variables like marital satisfaction, which made use of only a single item as well as a less comprehensive measure of instrumental spousal support. The study did not also study how these variables impact participants mental health. This study did not also assess the power of actual household involvement in predicting marital satisfaction and other mental health outcomes.

However, many of these studies were conducted in the West or among refugees and thus do not reflect the Ghanaian socioeconomic landscape. The Ghanaian society, unlike many Western societies, is till today patriarchal (Adomako Ampofo, Okyerefoh & Pervarah, 2009), hence fathers are expected to exercise complete control over the household. Another distinguishing feature of the Ghanaian society is the collective identity (Adams & Dzokoto, 2003; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). As it is characteristic of collective cultures, conformity to social order is greatly upheld hence how husbands behave in the household is greatly influenced by the expectations of other men, their community and certain social norms and practices (Adomako Ampofo, Okyerefoh & Pervarah, 2009).

A qualitative study by Rostrum (2011) in the Babati District of Tanzania found a general consensus among men that a good woman is one who works hard, is educated, cooks and takes care of her children and husbands. However, the study also revealed that empowerment of women has led to women having a more dominant role in the household compared to men. Some men also view the empowerment of women as a threat to gender relations because it undermines the role of the husband in the household. This study did not consider the mental health of the respondents and participants were all unemployed.

In a study in Africa among Africans living in their everyday context, Silberschmidt (1992) investigated the impact of changing gender roles on the well-being of married men in rural Kenya. The study made use of the mixed method involving 723 women and 200 men. Findings from the study revealed that majority of men were caught up in a paradox; men, on one hand, are acknowledged as heads of the household hence have the formal responsibility of providing for the family, however, lack of employment and insufficient income prevent men from fulfilling their expected roles. The Authority of men are therefore being generally challenged and undermined as the inability of men to provide for their households have forced women into paid labour. Men, therefore, have lost control over their wives and families because they have no financial base. This unique situation has impacted the gender identity, social value and self-esteem of men as evidenced in the reports of aggression, violence, multi-partner sex life and reports of low social worth.

In order to investigate the widespread applicability of the findings from rural Kenya, Silberschmidt (1999) conducted a similar study in urban Tanzanian to investigate changed and changing gender roles and its effect on the married men. This study involved 38 women and 53 men who participated in structured, semi-structured and open-ended interviews after which 13 focus group discussions were held to discuss the issues arising from the individual interviews better. Findings from this study were consistent with the findings from the early

studies. The social value, self-esteem and identities of men which are constructed around male gender roles are repeatedly been challenged because of their inability to live up to male gender roles. Male aggressiveness, violent behaviour and even rape were, therefore, strategies aimed at pursuing control, social value and self-esteem. Furthermore, men and women agreed that the more frustrated men are, the greater their need to display their masculinity. The results of the study show that the social values of men particularly in Africa are linked to their social roles as husbands or men. The inability to live up to the social role expectations had direct consequences for the self-esteem, aggressive behaviour and even male sexuality.

This study by Silberschmidt (1992, 1999) is among the few to be conducted by Africans on Africans living in Africa on changing gender roles of males and its impact, it was however largely qualitative and cannot be generalised to the general population. The study also considered both urban and rural populations, however, the two populations were from different countries (Kenya and Tanzania). This can lead to the introduction of confounds unknown to the researcher since the socio-cultural context of the two populations from different countries are somewhat different. Again, because of the different methodologies used in rural Kenya and Urban Tanzania, the results from the urban dwellers cannot be compared directly to the results from the rural dwellers. The study is also limited in that it was conducted among the urban poor and rural poor as evidenced in their choice of study areas, hence limited in its generalizability. The study did not also consider the mental health implications of the changes in gender roles of men. The current study, therefore, made use of mixed method design as it is a more robust method to study this ill studied field in Ghana and Africa in general. This study also investigated the mental health outcomes of the changing gender roles of men while directly comparing the rural participants to the urban participants.

2.3.3 Rural and Urban Settings

Despite the marked difference between urban men and rural men on key indicators such as education, Westernization, type of job and social context (Akotia & Anum, 2012; Kulick, 2002) which have been observed to impact gender role attitudes, a review of literature revealed no study, particularly in Africa that compared rural dwellers and urban dwellers on their psychosocial wellbeing as predicted by gender roles.

The current study, therefore, compared rural and urban dwellers on their psychosocial wellbeing as predicted by their gender roles.

2.4 Rationale for the study

Traditional gender roles have been argued to favour men to the detriment of women (Bernard, 1982; Fowers, 1991; Sweeting et al., 2014). In the light of this, social interventions have been implemented to make gender relations more equitable in all spheres of endeavour including education, labour force participation, politics and even family relations. Much research and academic discourse have thus focused on the life situation of women with little attention to how the changing sociocultural landscape is impacting the well-being of married men. This is a very important matter of enquiry because gender relations, attitudes and roles have been argued to be very instrumental in constructing the identities of men. This study is, therefore, the first of its kind to study this relationship in Ghana.

Education and Westernisation have been argued to change the gender role attitudes of both men and women (Kulick, 2002). However, education and westernisation are observed to be unevenly distributed between rural and urban dwellers. Urban dwellers have been observed to have higher levels of educational attainment as well as formal employment compared to rural dwellers (GLSS 6, 2014). This coupled with the observation of faster-changing women and slower changing men in terms of gender roles (Hochschild, 1989) further deepens the

differences between urban men and women as against rural men and women. Despite this phenomenon little or no research has been done in Ghana to systematically compare how gender roles predict psychosocial well-being of urban and rural men. This study, therefore, seeks to broaden insights into this unique situation in Ghana by systematically comparing urban and rural dwellers on their psychosocial wellbeing as predicted by their gender roles.

2.5 Statement of hypotheses

Based on the theoretical framework and review of related studies, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested.

H1: Predictors will account for significant variance in psychological distress.

1a. Gender role attitude will account for significant variance in psychological distress

1b. Spousal role discrepancy will account for significant variance in psychological distress

H2: Predictors will account for significant variance in self-esteem

2a. Gender role attitude will predict significant variance in self-esteem

2b. Spousal role discrepancy will predict significant variance in self-esteem.

H3: Predictors will account for significant variance in aggression.

3a. Gender role attitude will account for significant variance in aggression

3b. Spousal role discrepancy will account for significant variance in aggression

H4: Predictors will account for significant variance in marital satisfaction.

4a. Gender role attitude will account for significant variance in marital satisfaction.

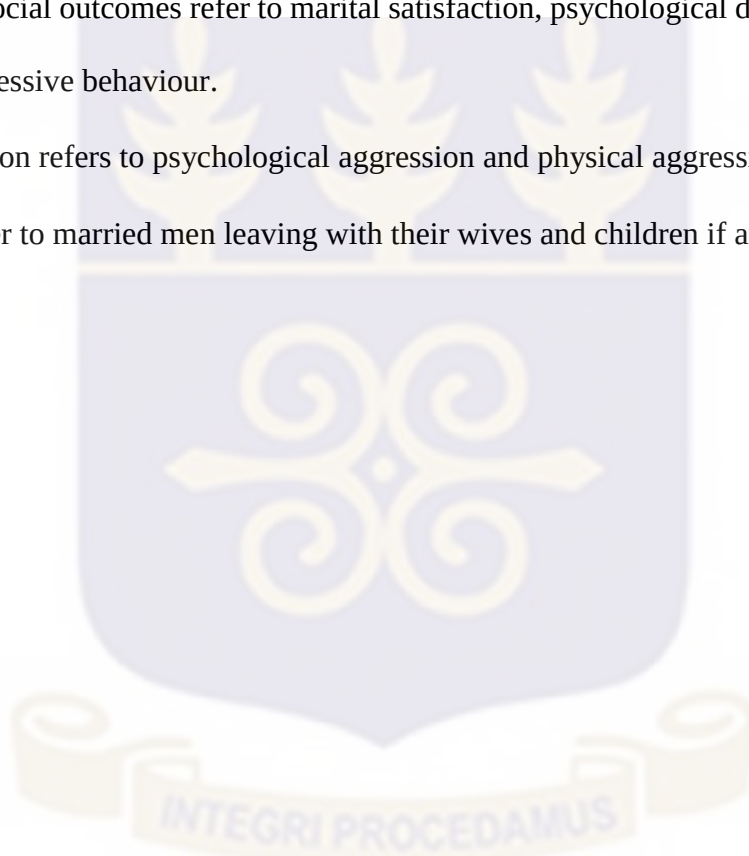
4b. Spousal role discrepancy will account for significant variance in marital satisfaction.

H5: The relationship between spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress will be moderated by self-esteem.

H6: Gender role attitude and spousal role discrepancy will predict more variance in psychological distress, marital satisfaction, self-esteem and aggression for urban men than for rural men.

2.6 Operational definition of terms.

- Psychosocial outcomes refer to marital satisfaction, psychological distress, self-esteem and aggressive behaviour.
- Aggression refers to psychological aggression and physical aggression.
- Men refer to married men leaving with their wives and children if any.



2.7 Hypothesised Model

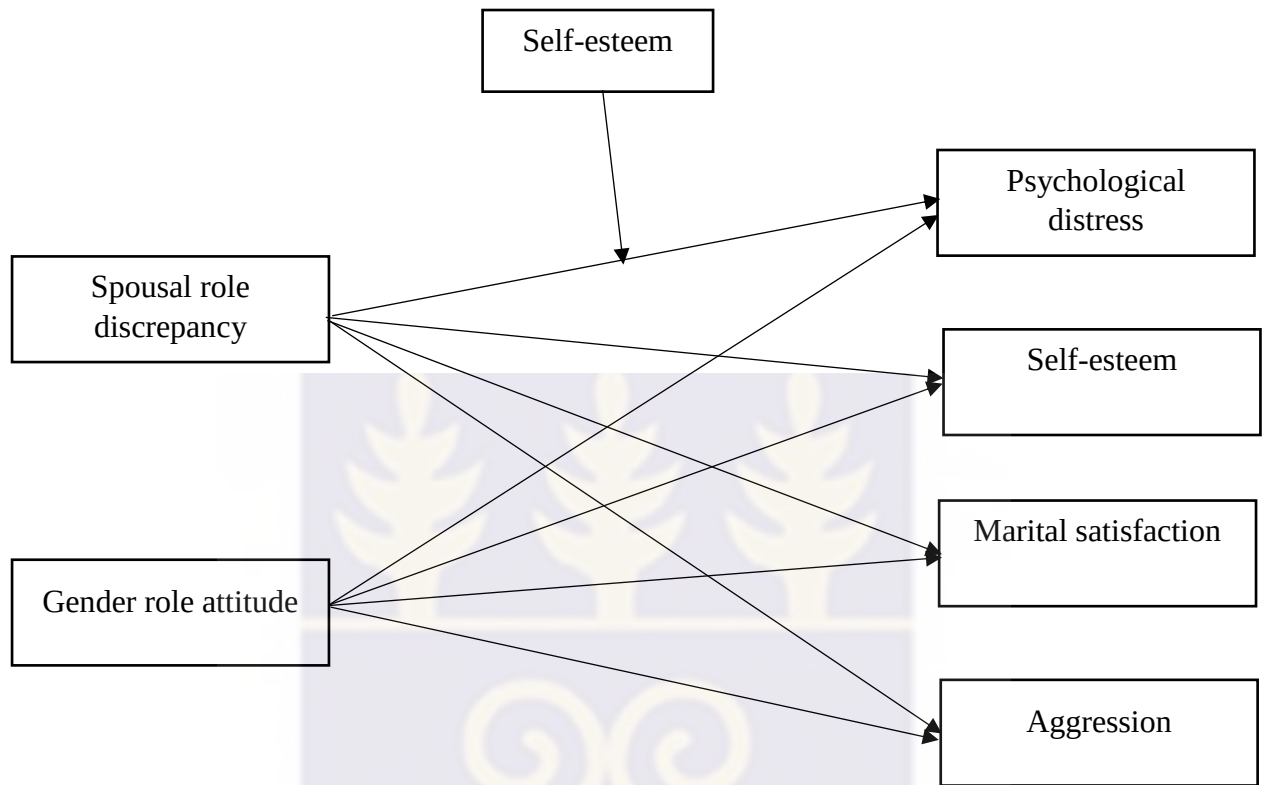


Figure 2.1 Hypothesised model

As hypothesised, spousal role discrepancy is expected to predict psychological distress, self-esteem, marital satisfaction and aggression. The relationship between spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress is also expected to be moderated by self-esteem. On the other hand, a gender role attitude is expected to predict psychological distress, marital satisfaction, self-esteem and aggression.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents detailed information on the methods that were employed to achieve the aims and objectives of the study. The chapter begins with an in-depth description of the study design. It follows with the description of the setting, population, sample and sampling technique used in the study. It further details out procedures followed for data collection, measures and instruments used as well as how the measures were scored. This chapter also outlines the procedures and activities leading to collection and preparation of the data for analysis and also ethical considerations involved in carrying out this study.

3.2 Research Design

The design of this study was a mixed method design that involved collecting both quantitative and qualitative data and integrating the two forms of data (Creswell, 2012). The mixed method design rested on the fact that all methods have shortfalls, hence the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data helps overcome the weakness in each approach by helping to triangulate data to arrive at convergence (Jick, 1979).

Mixed method is not merely a combination of quantitative and a qualitative approach but rather a third research paradigm with its own framework that offers a more complete, balanced and useful research results that make triangulation easy (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner 2007). It therefore follows that mixed method was chosen for this study because both quantitative and qualitative data provides different types of information; closed-ended data in the case of quantitative and open-ended data in the case of qualitative (Creswell, 2012). This offers more information than any single method can offer. Both quantitative and qualitative

approaches to research have inherent strengths and limitations. Therefore, by combining both quantitative and qualitative research design, it serves as a robust tool for a better understanding of nuanced complexities in understanding the impact of changing gender roles and its impact in the novel situation of Ghana.

The design of a mixed method research is influenced by factors such as the dominance of a particular method, ordering of methods in the data collection process and time orientation (Brannen, 2005). On the basis of time orientation, Brannen (2005), identifies the simultaneous mixed method design where both methods occur at the same time and sequential mixed method design where one method is preceded by the other. The current study made use of the simultaneous mixed method design. As indicated by Morse (2003), simultaneous designs are denoted by plus signs and the dominance method represented by capital letters (i.e. QUAN for dominant quantitative and QUAL for dominant qualitative) with the less dominant method represented by small letters (i.e. qual for less dominant qualitative and quan for less dominant quantitative).

The relationship between the quantitative and qualitative design can be stated as either complementary or confirmatory (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). This study followed the complementary approach to mixed method design. This study, therefore, made use of a simultaneous mixed method design, where the quantitative was the dominant component with the qualitative component complementing it. The research design of this study is therefore summarised as complementary simultaneous QUAN + qual design.

3.3 Study Setting

The study was conducted in selected rural and urban communities in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. The region was chosen because it is the economic hub of Ghana, with diverse representations of people from all ethnic and religious background all over Ghana (GLSS 6,

2014). The urban site for the study was 4 communities in the Tema metropolis. The selected communities were Community 4, Community 7, Community 8 and Community 9. The rural areas selected for the study were Pokuase Village, Katapor and Domeabra all in the Amasaman District of the Ga West Municipality.

3.4 Population of the study

The population of the study included married men currently living in Tema as the urban area and Pokuase Village, Katapor and Domeabra as the rural setting. "Married men" was defined as any man who is currently cohabiting with a woman, legally married to a woman and or customarily married to a woman. These categories of people were included in both the qualitative and quantitative part of the study.

3.5 Sample and Sampling Technique

Sampling in mixed method studies is quite complex and as it is important that sampling schemes or framework be developed for both the quantitative and qualitative components of the study (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). Developing the right sampling framework in a mixed method study ensures statistical generalisation in the quantitative component and analytical generalisation in the qualitative component. Based on this argument, Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) developed a two-dimensional mixed method sampling model which provides a typology of sampling designs based on time orientation of the qualitative and quantitative components and the relationship between the samples.

Using the two-dimensional mixed method sampling model, this study used the nested sampling design. The nested sampling design, according to Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007), is used when the study design is concurrent and the sample from one component of the study is a subset of the sample of the other component of the study. Following this, the sample for

the qualitative aspect of the study was a subset of the sample of the quantitative aspect of the study.

Using the nested sampling design, participants who partook in the qualitative component automatically met the inclusion criteria once the inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied to the quantitative component of the study.

The first inclusion criterion was that participants should be a married man living in the selected study rural and urban communities. The study participants also ought to be living with their wives and or children in order to be included in the study. This is because once a husband is living alone, he is forced to take care of all domestic chores himself. However, when living with wife, the option of doing it or not doing it is available. People who did not meet this inclusion criterion were excluded in this study.

For the qualitative component of the study, data was collected using one-on-one interview approach. This method was chosen over focus group discussions because in discussing socially ascribed traditional gender roles in a collective culture like Ghana where conformity is the norm (Adams & Dzokoto, 2003; Markus & Kitayama, 1991), focus group discussion can lead to socially desirable responses. In addition, studies on masculinity have revealed that people who are high in masculinity are less likely to be expressive of their emotions, especially in social context. 16 participants were included in the qualitative study; 7 from the urban communities and 9 from the rural communities. The 16 participants were conveniently sampled based on their willingness and availability to partake in the follow-up interview.

For the quantitative part, the purposive and the convenient sampling techniques were used to select participants for the study. Purposive sampling helps to identify specific individuals that yield the most relevant data given the topic of a study (Yin, 2011). The

purposive sampling technique was therefore used in identifying respondents who met the inclusion criteria. The convenient sampling technique was then used in recruiting respondents for the study. This sampling technique was employed to ensure that only respondents who were available and agreed to participate in the study were sampled to take part. In the urban communities, participants were purposively identified in their homes and workplaces. The same approach was used for the participants in the rural centres. Convenient sampling was thereafter used to select individuals based on their willingness and availability to participate in the study.

For the quantitative study, 208 respondents were surveyed, 108 representing 51.9% were from the urban communities and 100 respondents, representing 48.1% were from the rural settings. One hundred and thirty (130) questionnaires were distributed in the urban communities, however, 110 were fully filled. This represents a return rate of 85%. For the rural communities, 106 questionnaires were distributed but 100 were fully filled representing a response rate of 94%. Overall the study had a response rate of about 90%. This was because all questionnaires were administered by the researcher and trained research assistants. The few which were not included in the study was because participants could not finish responding to all the questions. In the final analysis, the response from 208 questionnaires was used due to some incomplete responses upon data screening.

The sample size of 208, settled for the final analysis for the quantitative component was statistically adequate given the statistical test used for the analyses. Using Tabachnik and Fidell's (1996) formula for determining the minimum sample size for multivariate analysis, they use the formula $N > 50 + 8M$ (where M = number of IVs). In this study, there were 2 predictors and so $M=2$. Therefore, the minimum sample size required for the study was;

$$N > 50 + 8(2) = 50 + 16 = 66$$

Thus, a sample size of 208 is sufficient statistically for analytical purposes.

3.6 Measurements and Instruments

The study made use of different measures and instruments in the collection of data. The qualitative part of the study made use of semi-structured interview guide, while the quantitative bit made use of standardised measures.

Individual interview guide

To facilitate the interviews for the qualitative aspect of the study, a semi-structured interview guide to direct the course of the interview was used. In developing the interview guide, a thorough literature review was done to help tease out aspects of gender roles that define the identity of men. Generally, two domains of gender roles were teased out from the review of literature; the domestic roles and involvement in it, the role of men and their wife's involvement. To help ascertain whether gender roles were changing, a third domain on changing gender roles was added.

According to the literature on spousal role discrepancy, discrepancy generally arises in two major ways; when a traditional man has an egalitarian wife and when an egalitarian husband has a traditional wife (Burke & Stets, 2009). This body of knowledge shaped the development of the interview guide.

The semi-structured interview guide had four sections, the first section helped to collect demographic characteristic to help situate the data. The second section asked questions on the prevailing gender roles and fulfilment of those gender roles. The third section asked questions about changes in the behaviour of spouses as they help the man to fulfil his roles. The last section asked questions about changing gender roles.

Section A, asked questions on age, years of marriage, employment status of both spouse and self-etc.

Section B of the interview guide had two main lines of questions probing into gender roles of spouse and self and ways in which those roles are accomplished. Sample probes included:

In your opinion what are the roles of a husband?

In your opinion what are the roles of a wife?

Section C of the interview guide asked about changes in gender roles of spouses. It had two main lines of probes. Sample questions included.

In what ways is your wife's behaviour different due to her contribution to household income?

Section D, the last section, probed into the notion of changing gender roles in Ghana. It sought to ascertain whether the notion of changing gender roles is actually so in Ghana. Sample probes included:

Comparing your marriage to that of your parents, how different are your roles as a husband from that of your father's?

Comparing the current era of marriage to your parent's era, which of the two is better in terms of spousal roles and why?

Quantitative Measures

Six different measures were used in the quantitative aspect of the study using the survey method. These include the Spousal Role Identity Scale (Stets & Burke, 2005), Gender Role Attitude Scale (Hoffman & Klosaka, 1995), Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick, 1988), Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1979), General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) (Goldberg & Williams, 1988), Conflict Tactics Survey (Straus, 1979). The questionnaire was

divided into two main sections; Section A was the demographic investigations, which asked questions on age, years of marriage, the number of children, etc. Section B was made up of the standardised measures used in this study.

Spousal Role Discrepancy

Spousal role discrepancy was measured using the Spousal Role Identity Scale (Stets & Burke, 2005). It is an 11-item measure measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0- not at all to 4- doing with 4 of the items reverse scored. It has a reported omega reliability of 0.88 (Stets & Burke, 2005). For this study, the Cronbach's Alpha was 0.72. Participants rate how much they feel they should engage in a role activity like cleaning the house, preparing and serving meals, initiating sexual activity etc. The highest possible score is 44 and the lowest possible score is 0. High scores represent high traditional spousal roles and low scores represent low or egalitarian spousal roles. Spousal role discrepancy scores were obtained by taking the absolute difference between a husband's rating of his spousal role identity and his perception of wife's spousal role identity.

Gender Role Attitude

Gender role attitude was measured using the Gender Role Attitude scale by Hoffman & Klosaka (1995). It is a six-item scale measured on a five-point Likert scale with response ranging from 1- agree to 5- strongly disagree. It has a reported alpha of .85. For this study, the alpha was 0.78. Sample items include, a man should help in the house, but housework and child care should mainly be a woman's job, men should make really important decisions in the family. The highest possible score is 30 and the least possible score is 6, high scores represent low traditional gender role attitude and low scores represent high traditional gender role attitude.

Marital Satisfaction

Marital satisfaction was assessed using the Relationship Assessment Scale developed by Hendrick (1988). It is a 7-item scale measured on a 5-point Likert scale with response ranging from 1-low satisfaction to 5-high satisfaction. It has a Cronbach of .91. For this study, the alpha was 0.87. Sample question include “how good is your marriage compared to most?” The highest possible score on the scale is 35 and least possible score is 7. High scores on the scale represent high marital satisfaction and low scores represent low marital satisfaction.

Self - Esteem

Self-esteem was measured using the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1979). It is a ten-item scale measured on a 4-point Likert scale with response ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 4 strongly agree. Five (5) items are reverse coded. The highest possible score is 40 and the least possible score is 10. High scores represent high self-esteem and low scores represent low self-esteem. It recorded an alpha of 0.68 in this study.

Psychological Distress

Psychological distress was measured using the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) developed by Goldberg and Williams (1988). It is a 12-item scale which can be scored on a 4-point Likert scale, 0-not at all to 3 – all the time. Six (6) items are reverse scored. The highest possible score is 36 and the least possible score is 0. High scores reflect high psychological distress and low scores reflect low psychological distress. Sample items include "been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day" and "been losing confidence in yourself". It has reported Cronbach Alpha ranging from 0.82 to 0.90 (Sweeting, et al, 2014; Hardy, Shapiro, Haynes & Rick, 1999). The Cronbach Alpha recorded for this study was 0.72.

Aggression

To measure aggression, the violence and psychological aggression subscale of the Form N of the Conflict Tactics Survey (Straus, 1979) was used. The violence subscale is made up of

eight items. Sample items include throwing something at the spouse and beating up the spouse. The psychological aggression subscale is made up of six items. Sample items include insulting or swearing at one's spouse and sulking or refusing to talk about an issue. Both subscales are scored on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 0 – never to 3 – more than twice over the past year. High represented high aggression and low scores represent a low aggression. It has a reported mean alpha of .78 (Frye & Karney, 2006). For this study, the alpha was 0.81.

3.7 Procedures

The study began by seeking ethical approval from the Ethics Committee for Humanities (ECH), University of Ghana, Legon. Once the study was approved by the committee, the data collection instruments for both the qualitative and quantitative were first piloted. The pilot study was necessary because the scales used for this study were developed outside Ghana, hence it was necessary to assess its suitability for the local context and adapt it where necessary.

3.7.1 The pilot study

The instruments for both qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study were piloted. The semi-structured interview guide was piloted in order to assess whether the probes will make sense to the study participants and also how well it is able to elicit the information it was designed to assess from the study participants.

Following approval from the ECH, a back to back translation of the interview guide from the English language to Asante Twi was done with the help of a basic school Asante Twi teacher and English teacher. The agreement rate for the back to back translation was 90%. For the items that were incorrectly translated the researcher held a discussion with the translators and an agreement was reached.

The pilot study of the qualitative study was conducted in Tema, community 4 with both English and Twi respondents. The interview began by explaining the purpose of the study to participants who met the inclusion criteria, permission was also sought to audiotape the interview. The interview length ranged from 14 minutes to 22 minutes. Four participants, two in English language and two in Asante Twi were interviewed overall for the pilot study. The interview was conducted by the researcher.

The pilot data were transcribed verbatim into the English language for thematic content analysis. Some of the probe questions were modified and a few other questions added to the main study.

The measures for the quantitative data was also piloted in Tema, community 4, using 27 participants, 10 in Asante Twi and 17 in English. Following ECH approval a back to back translation of all the measures from the English language to Asante Twi was done with the help of a basic school Asante Twi teacher and English teacher. The agreement rate for the back to back translation was 85%. For the items that were incorrectly translated the researcher held a discussion with the translators and an agreement was reached.

The scales were also adapted by changing some expressions in the English that is not part of everyday usage in Ghana. Phrases like “grocery shopping” were modified to buying foodstuff. The pilot study was conducted to assess the participants understanding of the questions and the internal consistency of the adapted scales within the study context. Some scholars state that a sample size of between 10-20% of the sample size for the actual study is adequate for piloting a study (Julius, 2005). The 27 respondents for the pilot study constituted 13% of the 208 respondents for the main study. The sample of 27 for the pilot study was therefore adequate for piloting the instruments.

In administering the questionnaires, consent was first sought from people who met the inclusion criteria for the study. The researcher and two trained research assistants then administered the questionnaires in an interview format.

The internal consistency for the adapted scales for the pilot study as summarised in Table 3.1 was within acceptable ranges.

Table 3.1 Internal Consistency of Adapted Scales for the Pilot Study (N = 27)

Scales	No. of items	Total Cronbach alpha
Spousal Role Identity Scale	11	.696
Gender Role Attitude Scale	6	.625
Relationship Assessment Scale	7	.879
Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale	10	.722
General health Questionnaire	12	.780
Aggression Scale	14	.830

Several authors have stated the acceptable range for Cronbach alpha, alphas of 0.6 to 0.9 has been generally cited as acceptable (Hair, Anderson & Black, 2006; Hinton, Brownlow, McMurray & Cozens, 2004; Moss et al., 1998). As shown in table Table 3.4, the least alpha is .625 and the highest is .879, hence all the Cronbach alphas are within acceptable range.

3.7.2 The Main Study

After successful completion of the pilot study and necessary changes made in the research instruments, the main study began. Participants in the pilot study were not included in the main study. The survey data was collected by the researcher and two trained research assistants, the interviews were conducted by the researcher only. Data collection at the urban

communities was done first before the data collection in the rural communities. Both survey data and interviews were done concurrently. Participants who took part in the interviews were a subset of the participants in the larger survey study. Data collection at the urban communities took approximately 8 days while data collection in the rural communities took approximately 10 days.

After the data collection for both components of the study was completed, the researcher inputted both the rural and urban survey data into SPSS version 21 to prepare for data analysis. With the help of one of the trained research assistants, the researcher transcribed all the interviews verbatim into the English Language.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Research involving human participants has very high ethical considerations as such ethical approval was duly sought from the ECH, University of Ghana. The nature and purpose of the study were explained to prospective participants and those who agreed to be part of the study were selected to take part in the main study.

Informed consent for the qualitative study was sought verbally from those who took part in the interviews. After explaining the nature of the study, consent was also sought to audiotape the interviews for the purpose of transcription and analysis. Those who agreed to this were interviewed. Informed consent for the quantitative component was also sought through verbal and written consent. For participants in the urban communities, most of them signed, however for the participants in the rural communities consent was given verbally for most of them.

Participants and respondents were made aware of the voluntary nature of their participation and their right to withdraw from the study at any point without any penalty. Participants and respondents were also assured of confidentiality and privacy of their

information and participation. After, the data had been collected the researchers addressed every question and or concerns of the research participants.

3.9 Analysis of Data

Different analytical techniques were used to analyse the qualitative and qualitative components of the study. The qualitative analysis was done first followed by the quantitative analysis.

3.9.1 Analysis of Qualitative Data

The inductive approach to qualitative analysis that involves analysing data with little or no predetermined structure or framework was used (Burnard, Stewart, Treasure & Chadwick, 2008). This approach to data analysis is suited for subject areas where little is known about the phenomena. Gender roles attitudes though have been researched extensively in the West, very little research on gender role attitudes have been done in Africa among Africans and much less has been done on the unique situation of men. Because gender roles is also a cultural construct, it is experienced uniquely in every society. These reasons make the use of the inductive approach to data analysis where data "speaks for itself" appropriate for this study.

Thematic content analysis (TCA) was used to analyse the data. TCA, as outlined by Braun & Clarke (2006), involves transcribing of audio tapes, familiarising with data through reading and re-reading of all transcripts, followed by initial coding, grouping of initial codes into minor themes, review of themes and then defining and naming themes into major themes. The qualitative analysis, therefore, followed through six phases.

Stage one involved verbatim transcription of audio tapes into English language and reading and re-reading of all the 15 transcripts to familiarise with the narratives while searching

for patterns and meanings. At this phase, some notes and ideas for formal coding were noted down.

During the second phase, formal coding of the data was done, here semantic features of the data were noted all through the transcript and codes were written against the data extracts that demonstrates that code. This was done for all 15 transcripts. The extracts of data were copied onto different word files. All the codes were then collated into a long list of codes.

Phase three involved searching for themes from the long list of codes, the different codes generated at the previous stage were sorted into potential themes. The different code extracts were also sorted within the identified themes and then the similarities between the various themes were drawn out. This phase was concluded by bringing out "candidate themes" and their sub-themes and the data extracts that relate to them.

The next phase had to do with reviewing the various "candidate" themes and refining them. Some "candidates" themes were collapsed into others. At this stage also data extracts were read again to see if they fit into the themes. The ones which did not fit were either deleted or placed under other themes. The entire data set was read again to see if the themes generally fit the data and also to code any data within themes that was missed during the initial coding.

The fifth phase involved defining and refining the themes. This was done by reading the collated data extracts for each theme and organising them in a logical flow. The themes derived from the data were then organised to tell the story. Sub-themes were also organised in a coherent manner.

The final stage, which was writing out the report was done by relating the themes to the research question and existing literature on gender roles and changing gender roles.

3.9.2 Analysis of Quantitative Data

Using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 23 with process v2.15 extension, all hypothesis were tested. Tests for normality of data and as well as descriptive statistics of all variables were also computed. Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 were analysed using hierarchical multiple regression. This was because of the effects of demographic variables such as income and years of marriage on the various outcomes needed to be controlled while examining the effects of gender role attitude and spousal role discrepancy independently on the various dependent variables. To test for the moderation effect of self-esteem on the relationship between spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress as stated in hypothesis 5, the process extension to SPSS was used in the regression model.

Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure that all assumptions under multiple regressions were met before proceeding to test the models. The preliminary analyses that were done included reliability of the measures. The reliability of the scales was ascertained by measuring the internal consistency of each of the scales using Cronbach's alpha.

Hypotheses were tested using hierarchical multiple regression. The results are presented in the next chapter



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

The study explored changing gender roles and how it affects the well-being of married men in general. This was done using a mixed method approach by means of quantitative and qualitative methods. This chapter presents the results of both the qualitative and quantitative components of this study. The quantitative results will be presented first followed by the qualitative findings.

4.2 Quantitative analysis

In this subsection, the results from the analyses of the quantitative data are presented.

4.2.1 Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive analysis was computed to check for normality in the distribution of the data and also check for the presence of outliers. Summary of results is presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Summary of Descriptive Analysis for Variables (N = 208)

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min.	Max.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Alpha
GRA	6.84	4.82	.00	28.00	0.69	1.10	0.78
HSRI	33.14	6.14	17.00	44.00	-0.62	0.04	0.72
SELFEST	20.57	3.67	8.00	28.00	-0.34	0.03	0.68
PSYCDIST	9.78	4.41	.00	26.00	0.34	0.43	0.72
RAS	26.01	5.29	11.00	35.00	-0.92	0.88	0.87
AGRESS	7.48	6.52	.00	33.00	1.04	1.21	0.81

Note: *GRA* = Gender Role Attitude, *HSRI* = Spousal Role Identity, *SELFEST* = Self – Esteem, *PSYCDIST* = Psychological Distress, *RAS* = Relationship Satisfaction, *AGRESS* = Aggression

Several authors have stated the acceptable range for Cronbach alpha, alphas of 0.6 to 0.9 has been generally cited as acceptable (Hair, Anderson & Black, 2006; Hinton, Brownlow, McMurray & Cozens, 2004; Moss et al., 1998). As shown in table Table 4.1, the least alpha is 0.677 and the highest is .866, hence all the Cronbach alphas are within acceptable range. A skewness and kurtosis range of ± 2 has also been generally accepted by researchers to be an indication that the data is normally distributed (Field, 2009; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2014; Trochim & Donnelly, 2006). From the Table 4.1 above, the variables were normally distributed because they fall within the range of ± 2 .

Demographic Data

Table 4.2 Summary of Demographic Characteristics

Variable	Categories	Frequency (%)	Percentage
Settlement	Urban	108	51.9%
	Rural	100	48.10%
Education level	No education	4	1.9%
	Basic education	68	32.7%
	Secondary education	70	33.7%
	Tertiary	66	31.7%
Occupation	Unemployed	5	2.4%
	Informal	140	67.3%
	Formal	63	30.3%
Ethnic Group	Akan	92	44.2%
	Ga	45	21.6%
	Ewe	54	26.0%
	Northerner	17	8.2%
Religion	Christianity	182	87.5%
	Islam	25	12.0%
	ATR	1	0.5%
Average Monthly Income	0 – 99	3	1.4%
	100 – 599	84	40.4%
	600 – 999	73	35.1%
	1000 – 2999	36	17.3%
	3000+	12	5.8%
Age	Mean = 43.00; SD = 11.24 Min. = 20 Max. = 76		
Years of marriage	Mean = 12.46; SD = 10.06 Min. = 1 Max. = 45		
Number of children	Mean = 2.62; SD = 1.44 Min. = 0 Max. = 8		
% Hse husband	Mean = 78.53; SD = 18.30 Min. = 20 Max. = 100		
% Hse wife	Mean = 21.46; SD = 18.30 Min. = 0 Max. = 80		

Note: % Hse husband = percentage of household income provided by husband, % Hse wife = percentage of household income provided by wife.

Table 4.2 above gives a summary of the demographic details of study participants. Out of the 208 participants, 108(51.9%) were from the urban settings and 100(48.1%) were from the rural settings. 4(1.9%) participants had no education, 68 (32.7%) had basic education, 70(33.7%) had secondary education and 66(31.7%) had tertiary education. 5(2.4%) were unemployed, 140(67.3%) were employed in the informal sector and 63(30.3%) were employed in the formal sector. In terms of their ethnicity, 92(44.2%) of the participants were Akans, 45(21.6%) were Gas, 54(26.0%) were Ewes and 17(8.2%) were Northerners. With regards to their religious affiliation, 182(87.5) were Christians, 25(12.0%) were Muslims and 1(0.5%) person practised African Traditional Religion. The average age of the 208 participants was 43.00 (SD = 11.24) with a minimum age of 20 years and the maximum of 76 years. The average duration of marriage was 12.46 (SD = 10.6), the highest duration of marriage was 45 years and the least was 1 year. The average number of children reported was 2.62 (SD = 1.44) The number of children ranged from 0 to 8. The average percentage contribution reported to be made by the husband was 78.53 (SD = 18.30). The percentage contribution made by husbands to household income ranged from 20% to 100%. The average percentage contribution reported to be made by wives to household income was 21.46 (SD = 18.30). These percentages ranged from 0 to 80.

Urban Participants

The minimum age out of the 108 urban respondents was 27 years and the maximum was 72 years. The shortest marriage was 2 years and the longest was 45 years. Out of the 108 respondents, 16 (14.8%) had basic education, 32 (29.6%) had secondary education and 60 (55.6%) had tertiary education. 4 (3.7%) out of the 108 were unemployed, 60 (55.6%) representing the majority wherein the informal sector and 44 (40.7%) were employed in the formal sector. 52 (48.1%) representing the majority were Akans, 28 (25.9%) were Gas, 24

(22.2%) were Ewes and 4 (3.7%) were Northerners. In terms of religion 100 (92.6%) representing the majority were Christians, 8 (7.4%). In terms of average monthly income 24(22.2%) made 100-599 GHS, 44 (40.7%) made 600-999 GHS, 28 (25.9%) made 1000 -2999 GHS and 12(11.1%) made 3000 GHS and above.

Rural Participants

The minimum age out of the 100 rural respondents was 20 years and the maximum was 76 years. The minimum age out of the 100 rural respondents was 20 years and the maximum was 76 years. The shortest marriage was 1 year and the longest was 38 years. Out of the 100 respondents 4 (4.0%) had no education, 52 (52.0%) had basic education, 38 (38.0%) had secondary education and 6 (6.0%) had tertiary education. 1 (1.0%) out of the 100 were unemployed, 80 (80.0%) representing the majority were in the informal sector and 19 (19.0%) were employed in the formal sector. 40(40.0%) representing the majority were Akans, 17 (17.7%) were Gas, 30 (30.0%) were Ewes and 13 (13.0%) were Northerners. In terms of religion, 82 (82.0%) representing the majority were Christians, 17 (17.0%) were Muslims and 1 (1.0%) was a person who practised African Traditional Religion. In terms of average monthly income 3 (3%) made 0-99 GHS, 60(60.0%) made 100-599 GHS, 29 (29.0%) made 600-999 GHS, 8 (8.0%) made 1000 -2999 GHS. Table 4.4 gives a summary of the distribution of demographic characteristics among study participants.

Correlation Matrix

In Table 4.2 below, Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to examine the relationship among study variables to give an estimate of the degree and direction of the relationship among the variables.

Table 4.3 Correlation Matrix of the Variables (N = 208)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Aggression	-					
2 Psychological distress	.186*	-				
3 Self-esteem	-.036	-.598**	-			
4 Marital satisfaction	-.400**	-.525**	.475**	-		
5 Spousal role discrepancy	.104	.210*	-.182*	-.095	-	
6 Gender role attitude	-.275**	-.055	-.038	-.114	-.125	-

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2 – tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 – tailed)

Table 4.3 shows there is a significant positive relationship between psychological distress and aggression ($r = .186$, $p < 0.01$), marital satisfaction and self-esteem ($r = .475$, $p < 0.001$) and spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress ($r = .210$, $p < 0.01$). However significant negative relationships exist between self-esteem and psychological distress ($r = -.598$, $p < 0.001$), marital satisfaction and aggression ($r = -.400$, $p < 0.001$), marital satisfaction and psychological distress ($r = -.525$, $p < 0.001$), spousal role discrepancy and self-esteem ($r = -.182$, $p < 0.01$) as well as gender role attitude and aggression ($r = -.275$, $p < 0.001$).

Group differences in study outcomes

An independent t-test was computed to test for the differences between rural and urban dwellers on study variables. The summary of results is presented in Table 4.4.

The results from Table 4.5 show that rural men scored significantly higher on self-esteem than urban men [$t_{(206)} = -4.494$, $p < 0.001$] indicating rural men have higher self-esteem than urban men. Rural men also scored significantly higher than urban men on aggression [$t_{(206)} = -2.019$, $p < 0.05$]. This indicates that rural men are more aggressive towards their wives than urban men.

Table 4.4 Summary of independent t-test Results on outcomes between Urban and Rural Dwellers

Variable	Group						t	df
	Urban			Rural				
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
SELFEST	108	19.41	3.37	100	21.81	3.56	-4.494**	206
PSYCDIST	108	10.52	3.97	100	8.99	4.73	2.529*	206
RAS	108	25.67	5.57	100	26.39	4.95	-.986	206
GRA	108	8.52	3.38	100	5.03	5.46	5.483**	206
DISC	108	14.92	12.92	100	12.22	10.95	1.621	206
AGRESS	108	6.61	6.53	100	8.42	6.41	-2.019*	206
HSRI	108	30.11	5.93	100	36.42	4.48	-8.698**	206

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.001$, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, N = Number of participant. GRA = Gender Role Attitude, SELFEST = Self – Esteem, PSYCDIST = Psychological Distress, RAS= Relationship Satisfaction, DISC = spousal role discrepancy, AGRESS = Aggression HSRI= Spousal Role Identity.

Rural men scored significantly higher on spousal role identity than urban men [$t_{(206)} = -8.698$, $p < 0.001$] indicating that rural men are more traditional in their role identities than urban men.

Urban men score significantly higher on psychological distress than rural men [$t_{(206)} = 2.529$, $p < 0.05$] indicating that urban men suffer more psychological distress than rural men. Urban

men scored significantly higher on gender role attitude than rural men [$t_{(206)} = 5.483$, $p < 0.001$] indicating that urban men are more egalitarian in their gender role attitudes than rural men.

There are no statistical differences between urban and rural dwellers on marital satisfaction and spousal role discrepancy.

4.2.2 Hypotheses Testing

Regression analyses were conducted to test the general model that the independent variables under study accounted for variance in the dependent variables. Also, the hierarchical regression tested for the moderation effects of some variables between the independent variables and dependent variable.

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis stated that gender role attitude and spousal role discrepancy will significantly predict psychological distress. This hypothesis was tested using hierarchical regression analyses with the ENTER method after the demographic characteristics and other variables were controlled at 0.05 alpha level. The summary of the results is presented in Table 4.5.

The overall model was found to be significant [$F_{(8, 199)} = 2.719, p = 0.007$], accounting for 9.9% variance in psychological distress ($R^2 = 0.099$). In step one of the hierarchical regression, the control variables; ethnicity, average monthly income, years of marriage, the percentage of household income provided by husband, number of children and age were entered first. These controlled variables accounted for 6.1% variance in psychological distress ($R^2 = 0.061$) and it was statistically significant [$F_{(6, 201)} = 2.178, p = 0.007$].

In step 2, gender role attitude was entered, the results indicated the gender role attitude explained 0 % of the variance ($R^2 = 0.061, \Delta R^2 = 0.000, \Delta F = 0.013, p = .909$). The model was not statistically significant [$F_{(7, 200)} = 1.860, p = 0.078$]. Gender role attitude did not significantly contribute to psychological distress independently ($\beta = -0.009, t = -0.114, p = 0.909$). Hypothesis 1a was therefore not supported.

In step 3, spousal role discrepancy was entered into the model. Spousal role discrepancy made a unique contribution to psychological distress ($\beta = 0.203, t = 2.874, p = 0.004$). A significant

model emerged, [$R^2 = 0.099$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.037$, $F_{(8, 199)} = 2.719$, $p < 0.001$]. Spousal role discrepancy accounted for 3.7 % variance in psychological distress. Hypothesis 1b was therefore supported.

Table 4.5 Summary of Multiple Regression of Predictors on Psychological Distress

Model	Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF
1	(Constant)	9.793	2.636		3.715	.000			
	AGE	.045	.049	.114	.914	.362			
	YRSOFMAR	-.126	.058	-.289	-2.182	.030			
	CHILDREN	.487	.259	.160	1.876	.062	0.061	0.061	2.178*
	PERCHUSB	.005	.017	.019	.264	.792			
	INCOME	-.477	.340	-.100	-1.403	.162			
	ETHNICITY	-.559	.306	-.129	-1.826	.069			
2	(Constant)	9.838	2.672		3.682	.000			
	AGE	.045	.049	.115	.918	.360			
	YRSOFMAR	-.126	.059	-.287	-2.146	.033			
	CHILDREN	.477	.272	.157	1.753	.081	0.061	0.000	0.013
	PERCHUSB	.005	.017	.019	.261	.794			
	INCOME	-.467	.353	-.098	-1.324	.187			
	ETHNICITY	-.564	.310	-.130	-1.817	.071			
	GRA	-.008	.070	-.009	-.114	.909			
3	(Constant)	9.064	2.639		3.435	.001			
	AGE	.031	.049	.080	.645	.520			
	YRSOFMAR	-.097	.058	-.221	-1.659	.099			
	CHILDREN	.503	.268	.165	1.880	.062	0.099	0.037	8.262*
	PERCHUSB	.004	.017	.017	.240	.811			
	INCOME	-.605	.350	-.126	-1.729	.085			
	ETHNICITY	-.529	.305	-.122	-1.734	.085			
	GRA	.023	.069	.025	.325	.746			
	DISC_HW	.323	.113	.203	2.874	.004			

Note: Dependent variable = Psychological Distress, * = significant at 0.05 alpha level **GRA** = Gender Role Attitude, **DISC H_W** = Spousal Role Discrepancy,

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis stated that gender role attitude and spousal role discrepancy will account for significant variance in the self-esteem of married men. This hypothesis was also tested using hierarchical multiple regression after ethnicity, average monthly income, years of marriage, the percentage of household income provided by husband, number of children and age were controlled for. The summary of results is as shown in Table 4.6. The overall model that emerged was significant, [$F_{(8, 199)} = 2.674, p = 0.008$]. The overall model accounted for 9.7% variance in self-esteem ($R^2 = 0.097$). In the first step, the control variables were entered. These variables did not account for any significant variance in the self-esteem of married men, [$F_{(6, 201)} = 1.798, R^2 = 0.051, p = 0.101$]

In step 2, gender role attitude was entered into the model. The results indicated that gender role attitude explained 1.3 % of the variance ($R^2 = 0.064, \Delta R^2 = 0.013, \Delta F = 2.692, p = .102$). The model was not statistically significant [$F = (7, 200) = 1.938, p = 0.065$]. Gender role attitude did not significantly contribute independently to self - esteem ($\beta = -0.125, t = -1.641, p = 0.102$). Hypothesis 2a was therefore not supported.

In the final step, spousal role discrepancy was entered. Spousal role discrepancy accounted for 3.4% variance in the self-esteem of married men ($R^2 = 0.034$), the emerged model was statistically significant [$F_{(8, 199)} = 2.674, p = 0.008$]. The variable spousal role discrepancy made a contribution of ($\beta = -.192, t = -2.719, p = 0.007$). Hypothesis 2b was therefore supported.

Table 4.6 Summary of Multiple Regression of predictors on Self – esteem

Model		B	SE	β	t	p	R ²	ΔR^2	ΔF
1	(Constant)	21.990	2.200		9.996	.000			
	AGE	-.019	.041	-.060	-.476	.635			
	YRSOFMAR	.078	.048	.214	1.610	.109			
	CHILDREN	-.142	.216	-.056	-.657	.512	0.051	0.051	1.798
	PERCHUSB	-.023	.015	-.113	-1.559	.120			
	INCOME	.384	.284	.097	1.354	.177			
	ETHNICITY	-.064	.255	-.018	-.250	.803			
2	(Constant)	22.529	2.215		10.170	.000			
	AGE	-.014	.041	-.044	-.354	.724			
	YRSOFMAR	.088	.049	.241	1.807	.072			
	CHILDREN	-.253	.226	-.100	-1.118	.265			
	PERCHUSB	-.023	.014	-.116	-1.602	.111	0.064	0.013	2.692
	INCOME	.508	.293	.128	1.736	.084			
	ETHNICITY	-.129	.257	-.036	-.499	.618			
	GRA	-.095	.058	-.125	-1.641	.102			
3	(Constant)	23.138	2.192		10.555	.000			
	AGE	-.004	.040	-.011	-.088	.930			
	YRSOFMAR	.065	.048	.179	1.342	.181			
	CHILDREN	-.273	.222	-.108	-1.227	.221			
	PERCHUSB	-.023	.014	-.114	-1.603	.111	0.097	0.034	7.392*
	INCOME	.616	.291	.155	2.120	.035			
	ETHNICITY	-.156	.254	-.043	-.615	.539			
	GRA	-.119	.058	-.156	-2.063	.040			
	DISC_HW	-.254	.093	-.192	-2.719	.007			

Note: Dependent Variable = Self - esteem, * = significant at 0.05 alpha level, **GRA** = Gender Role Attitude, **DISC H_W** = Spousal Role Discrepancy

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis 3, stated that gender role attitude and spousal role discrepancy will account for significant variance in aggression. Again, hierarchical multiple regression was employed to test this hypothesis after controlling for the effects of ethnicity, average monthly income, years of marriage, the percentage of household income provided by husband, number of children and age on aggression. As shown in Table 4.7, the model that emerged was accounted for 19.6% variance in aggression ($R^2 = 0.196$) and this was statistically significant [$F_{(8, 199)} = 6.081, p = 0.001$].

In the first step, the control variables were entered. The control variables alone accounted for a variance of 15.6% and this was significant [$F_{(6, 201)} = 6.204, p = 0.001$].

In step 2, gender role attitude was entered and it was significant ($\beta = 0.216, t = -3.062, p = 0.002$). A significant model emerged [$R^2 = 0.194, \Delta R^2 = 0.038, F_{(7, 200)} = 6.879, p < 0.001$].

Gender role attitude predicted 3.8% variance in aggression of married men. Hypothesis 3a was therefore supported.

In the final step spousal role discrepancy was entered into the model. Spousal role discrepancy did not make any significant contribution to the model ($\beta = 0.051, t = 0.768, p = 0.444$). The variance explained by spousal role discrepancy in aggression was 0.2% ($R^2 = .196, \Delta R^2 = 0.002$). However, the model that emerged was significant [$F_{(8, 199)} = 6.081, p = 0.000$]. Hypothesis 3b was therefore not supported.

Table 4.7 Summary of Multiple Regression of predictors on Aggression

Model		B	SE	β	t	P	R ²	ΔR^2	ΔF
1	(Constant)	9.202	3.693		2.492	.014			
	AGE	-.143	.069	-.247	-2.085	.038			
	YRSOFMAR	-.067	.081	-.104	-.827	.409			
	CHILDREN	.867	.363	.192	2.385	.018	0.156	0.156	6.204*
	PERCHUSB	.071	.024	.199	2.911	.004			
	INCOME	-.589	.477	-.083	-1.237	.218			
	ETHNICITY	-.741	.429	-.116	-1.729	.085			
2	(Constant)	10.865	3.659		2.969	.003			
	AGE	-.128	.067	-.220	-1.894	.060			
	YRSOFMAR	-.037	.080	-.057	-.459	.647			
	CHILDREN	.527	.373	.117	1.412	.159	0.194	0.038	9.378*
	PERCHUSB	.069	.024	.194	2.903	.004			
	INCOME	-.209	.483	-.029	-.432	.667			
	ETHNICITY	-.941	.425	-.147	-2.214	.028			
	GRA	-.292	.095	-.216	-3.062	.002			
3	(Constant)	10.576	3.682		2.872	.005			
	AGE	-.133	.068	-.229	-1.958	.052			
	YRSOFMAR	-.026	.081	-.040	-.320	.749			
	CHILDREN	.536	.374	.119	1.436	.153			
	PERCHUSB	.069	.024	.194	2.893	.004	0.196	0.002	0.589
	INCOME	-.260	.488	-.037	-.532	.595			
	ETHNICITY	-.928	.426	-.145	-2.179	.030			
	GRA	-.281	.097	-.208	-2.906	.004			
	DISC_HW	.121	.157	.051	.768	.444			

Note: Dependent Variable = Aggression, * = significant at 0.05 alpha level, **GRA** = Gender Role Attitude, **DISC H_W** = Spousal Role Discrepancy

Hypothesis Four

The fourth hypothesis also stated that gender role attitude and spousal role discrepancy will account for significant variance in marital satisfaction. This was also tested using hierarchical regression. The effects of ethnicity, average monthly income, years of marriage, the percentage of household income provided by husband, number of children and age on marital satisfaction was controlled for. The summary of results is shown in Table 4.8. An overall statistically significant model [$F_{(8, 199)} = 7.300, p = 0.000$] which accounted for 22.7% variance ($R^2 = 0.227$) in marital satisfaction of men emerged.

In the first step, controlled variables accounted for 22.2% of marital satisfaction ($R^2 = 0.222$), and this was significant [$F_{(6, 201)} = 9.563, p = 0.000$].

At step 2, gender role attitude was entered, the results of the regression analysis indicated that the gender role attitude explained a non-significant variance ($R^2 = 0.226, \Delta R^2 = 0.004, \Delta F = 1.067, p = .303$). The model was statistically significant ($F_{(7, 200)} = 8.352, p = 0.000$). Gender role attitude did not significantly contribute independently to marital satisfaction ($\beta = 0.071, t = 1.033, p = 0.303$). Hypothesis 4a was therefore not significant.

At the final step, spousal role discrepancy was entered into the model. Spousal role discrepancy accounted for an insignificant variance of 1% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.001$). The model that emerged was significant [$F_{(8, 199)} = 7.300, p = 0.000$], however the independent contribution made by spousal role discrepancy towards marital satisfaction ($\beta = -.420, t = .675, p = .909$) was not statistically significant. Hypothesis 4b was therefore not supported.

Table 4.8 Summary of Multiple Regression of Predictors on Marital Satisfaction

Model		B	SE	β	t	p	R ²	ΔR^2	ΔF
1	(Constant)	31.074	2.876		10.806	.000			
	AGE	-.185	.053	-.393	-3.458	.001			
	YRSOFMAR	.303	.063	.576	4.787	.000			
	CHILDREN	-.017	.283	-.005	-.061	.952	0.222	0.222	9.563*
	PERCHUSB	-.050	.019	-.174	-2.653	.009			
	INCOME	1.141	.371	.199	3.073	.002			
	ETHNICITY	.501	.334	.096	1.501	.135			
2	(Constant)	30.628	2.907		10.535	.000			
	AGE	-.189	.054	-.402	-3.526	.001			
	YRSOFMAR	.295	.064	.561	4.624	.000			
	CHILDREN	.074	.296	.020	.250	.803	0.226	0.004	1.067
	PERCHUSB	-.050	.019	-.173	-2.630	.009			
	INCOME	1.039	.384	.181	2.705	.007			
	ETHNICITY	.554	.338	.107	1.642	.102			
	GRA	.078	.076	.071	1.033	.303			
3	(Constant)	30.754	2.929		10.501	.000			
	AGE	-.187	.054	-.397	-3.459	.001			
	YRSOFMAR	.290	.065	.552	4.474	.000			
	CHILDREN	.070	.297	.019	.235	.815	0.227	0.001	0.176
	PERCHUSB	-.050	.019	-.172	-2.621	.009			
	INCOME	1.061	.388	.185	2.731	.007			
	ETHNICITY	.549	.339	.106	1.620	.107			
	GRA	.073	.077	.067	.954	.341			
	DISC_HW	-.052	.125	-.027	-.420	.675			

Note: Dependent Variable = Marital Satisfaction, * = significant at 0.05 alpha level, **GRA** = Gender Role Attitude, DISC H_W = Spousal Role Discrepancy

Hypothesis Five.

To test the hypothesis that self – esteem moderates the relationship between spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress, a multiple regression analysis was conducted using Process v2.15. The overall model as shown in Table 4.10 was significant, $R^2 = .3696$, $F_{(3, 204)} = 39.8731$, $p < .001$.

The output showed that self – esteem significantly predicted psychological distress ($t = -6.5936$, $p = 0.00$). The main effect of spousal role discrepancy on psychological distress was not significant ($t = 1.0551$, $p = 0.2926$). The interaction effects of the spousal role discrepancy and self – esteem could not statistically predict psychological distress ($t = -0.7213$, $p = 0.4715$).

The interaction term between spousal role discrepancy and self – esteem accounted for 0.16% of variance in psychological distress ($\Delta R^2 = 0.0016$, $F_{(1,204)} = 0.5203$, $p = 0.4715$), hence, the current model was inconsistent with the hypothesis that self – esteem moderates the relationship between spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress.

Table 4.9 Summary of Moderation analysis of self – esteem between spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress

Variable	B	SE	β	t	P	F	df 1	df 2
Constant	22.5913	2.0722		10.9021	0.0000			
Self – esteem	-0.6464	0.0980	-0.5790	- 6.5936	0.0000			
Spousal role discrepancy	0.5081	0.4816	0.0960	1.0551	0.2926			
Self – esteem X spousal role discrepancy	-0.0173	0.0239	-0.0397	-0.7213	0.4715	0.5203	1	204

Note: $R = 0.6080$, $R^2 = 0.3696$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.0016$

Hypothesis Six

The hypothesis stated that gender role attitude and spousal role discrepancy will predict more variance in psychosocial outcomes (marital satisfaction, self-esteem, aggression and psychological distress) for urban men than for rural men. This was tested using hierarchical regression analyses with the split file option (different models for rural and urban) and ENTER method after controlling for the effects of ethnicity, average monthly income, years of marriage, percentage of household income provided by husband, number of children and age on the various dependent variables. Summary of results is presented in Table 4.10

Table 4.10 Gender role attitude and Spousal role discrepancy predicting outcomes by settlement.

Dependent Variable	(Model) Variable	URBAN				RURAL			
		B	SE B	β	ΔR^2	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Aggression	(1)Control	$R^2 = .324^{***}$				$R^2 = .065$			
	(2) GRA	-.811	.182	-.421***	.111***	-.138	.120	-.118	.016
	(3) DISC	-.140	.203	-.058	.003	.260	.237	.115	.012
Psychological distress	(1)Control	$R^2 = .280^{***}$				$R^2 = .022$			
	(2) GRA	.202	.121	.172	.009	-.092	.089	-.107	.015
	(3)DISC	.328	.135	.225*	.040*	.342	.176	.204	.038
Marital Satisfaction	(1)Control	$R^2 = .553^{***}$				$R^2 = .073$			
	(2) GRA	.448	.127	.272**	.032**	.029	.092	.032	.002
	(3) DISC	.438	.142	.214**	.036**	-.338	.181	-.193	.034
Self-esteem	(1)Control	$R^2 = .495^{***}$				$R^2 = .018$			
	(2) GRA	-.008	.086	-.008	.000	-0.34	.069	-.052	.003
	(3) DISC	-.162	.098	-.131	.014	-.284	.134	-.225	.046*

Note: Control = control variables entered in the first model (age, years of marriage, children, percentage of husband's contribution to household income, husband's income and ethnicity), GRA = Gender role attitude, DISC = Spousal role discrepancy. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

- a) The hypothesis that Gender role attitudes will predict more variance in aggression for urban men than for rural men were tested at step two after the control variables in step 1. The results from the change statistics indicated that Gender role attitude significantly predicted 11.1% aggression for urban man [$\Delta R^2 = 0.111$, $\Delta F_{(1,100)} = 19.669$, $p = 0.000$] whereas gender role attitude made no significant prediction for rural men [$\Delta R^2 = 0.016$, $\Delta F_{(1,92)} = 1.588$, $p = 0.211$], hence the hypothesis is supported.
- b) The hypothesis that Spousal role discrepancy will predict more variance in aggression for urban men than for rural men were tested at step 3. The results from the change statistics indicated that Spousal role discrepancy did not significantly predict aggression for both urban [$\Delta R^2 = 0.003$, $\Delta F_{(1,99)} = 0.472$, $p = 0.493$] and rural [$\Delta R^2 = 0.012$, $\Delta F_{(1,91)} = 1.207$, $p = 0.493$], hence the hypothesis was not supported.
- c) The hypothesis that Gender role attitudes will predict more variance in psychological distress for urban men than for rural men was tested at step 2 of the psychological distress model after the control variables in step one. The results from the change statistics indicated that Gender role attitude did not significantly predict psychological distress for both urban men [$\Delta R^2 = 0.009$, $\Delta F_{(1,100)} = 1.234$, $p = 0.269$] and rural [$\Delta R^2 = 0.015$, $\Delta F_{(1,92)} = 1.467$, $p = 0.229$], hence the hypothesis was not supported.
- d) The hypothesis that Spousal role discrepancy will predict more variance in psychological distress for urban men than for rural men was tested at step 3. The results from the change statistics indicated that Spousal role discrepancy accounted for 4.0% variance in psychological distress for urban men [$\Delta R^2 = 0.040$, $\Delta F_{(1,99)} = 5.898$, $p = 0.017$] while no significant prediction was found for rural men [$\Delta R^2 = 0.038$, $\Delta F_{(1,91)} = 3.763$, $p = 0.055$]. The hypothesis was therefore supported.
- e) The hypothesis that Gender role attitudes will predict more variance in marital satisfaction for urban men was tested in the marital satisfaction model at step 2 after

the control variables in step 1. The results from the change statistics indicated that Gender role attitude significantly predicted 3.2% of variance in marital satisfaction for urban men [$\Delta R^2 = 0.032$, $\Delta F_{(1,100)} = 7.652$, $p = 0.007$] but no significant prediction for rural men [$\Delta R^2 = 0.002$, $\Delta F_{(1,92)} = 0.244$, $p = 0.623$], hence the hypothesis was supported.

- f) The hypothesis that Spousal role discrepancy will predict more variance in relationship satisfaction for urban men than for rural men was tested at step 3 in the marital satisfaction model. The results from the change statistics indicated that Spousal role discrepancy predicted 3.6% of urban men's marital satisfaction [$\Delta R^2 = 0.036$, $\Delta F_{(1,99)} = 9.464$, $p = 0.003$], but not significant prediction was realized for rural men [$\Delta R^2 = 0.034$, $\Delta F_{(1,91)} = 3.473$, $p = 0.066$]. The hypothesis was therefore supported.
- g) The hypothesis that Gender role attitude will predict more variance in self-esteem for rural men than for urban men was tested in the second step of the self-esteem model after the control variables in step 1. The results indicated that the gender role attitude of both urban [$\Delta R^2 = 0.000$, $\Delta F_{(1,100)} = 0.008$, $p = 0.930$] and rural [$\Delta R^2 = 0.003$, $\Delta F_{(1,92)} = 0.242$, $p = 0.624$] men did not significantly predict their self-esteem. The hypothesis was therefore not supported.
- h) The hypothesis that Spousal role discrepancy will predict more variance in self - esteem for urban men than for rural men was tested at step 3 of the marital satisfaction model. The results from the change statistics indicated that Spousal role discrepancy did not predict any significant variance in urban men's self-esteem [$\Delta R^2 = 0.014$, $\Delta F_{(1,99)} = 2.745$, $p = 0.101$] but rather predicted 4.6% variance in rural men's self-esteem [$\Delta R^2 = 0.046$, $\Delta F_{(1,91)} = 4.520$, $p = 0.036$]. The hypothesis was therefore not supported.

4.3 Qualitative findings

This component of the study sought to answer the following questions

- What are the gender role attitudes of married men?
- What are the experiences of married men with respect to changing gender roles?
- To what extent do married men involve themselves in domestic chores?

Respondents described their perceptions and experiences in their marriages with respect to gender roles. Thematic content analysis (TCA) was used to analyse the data. TCA, as outlined by Braun & Clarke (2006), involves transcribing of audio tapes, familiarising with data through reading and re-reading of all transcripts, followed by initial coding, a grouping of initial codes into minor themes, review of themes and then defining and naming themes into major themes.

The main themes that emerged from the analysis include husband's roles, wife's roles and perceptions of changing gender roles.

Husbands' Roles

Respondents reported the roles of husbands under three main themes; provider, problem-solving and domestic roles.

Provider role: Almost all participants reported that the role of a man is to provide for the family. They viewed providing for the family as a core responsibility of the husband. Amongst the needs to be provided by husbands are shelter, "chop money", clothing, children's fees, payment of bills and the likes. They use words and phrases like "welfare", "take care of my family" to illustrate this point as shown in these sample quotes:

"It is the duty of the husband to pay for a house light bills and provide money for upkeep of the house"- (Rural participant 4)

“His role is to make sure the family is fine, as in what the children will eat, wear or eat and pay school fees things like that” – Rural participant 6

“Basically, making sure that, what do you call it? You pay bills, school fees, what not, electricity, everything {emmm}, generally making sure that everything is okay”. – Urban participant 2

“oo for me is to provide for the family , financial support. For me that’s my major role” – Urban participant 4

Problem Solving: Participants also reported problem solving as the responsibility of men. When problems arise, it is the responsibility of men to solve it and make sure there is peace in the house. The following quotes illustrate this theme:

“ . . . make sure there is peace and togetherness in the house” – Urban participant 6

“A husband’s duty is to cater for the house and solve all the problems at home” – Rural participant 1 ”

“ . . . a husband’s duty is to cater for the house and solve all the problems at home ” – Rural participant 1

Domestic roles: When it comes to husbands’ involvement in domestic roles two sub-themes emerged from the data.

Selective participation: Respondents generally viewed domestic roles as not their responsibilities but they do help out when they have the time. They are also selective of what role they choose to be involved in, whereas some men choose to wash occasionally, others cook particular meals. The following quotes illustrate this theme:

“O no I don’t clean. But maybe when there is water somewhere I can clean. It is not my responsibility but if the need be, I can clean.” – Rural participant 3

“As for washing at times I do, but not always. When I am free at times I do but the cooking is all my wife” – Rural participant 5

“Yes I do that. Like sweeping and weeding. You know when we sweep we sweep only the surface, so once in a while you remove all the things and do them, that one is tedious, it is not for the woman so for household chores once in a while, a man should engage himself.” – Rural participant 8

“Oh Cooking once in a while, maybe just re-heating soup or stew but not cooking as in ... If I cook the soup what will she do? She should just be there and the man will cook the soup and call her honey food is ready come and eat. No” – Urban participant 1

“Yeah, eerm, eerm, eeh, am a home person so I do most of the cleaning and I mean taking care of the whole house myself, apart from washing, apart from washing and cooking, but there are times that I do breakfast.” – Urban participant 4

Instrumental reason: The selective participation of men in domestic chores was for self-serving interest. Their involvement in house chores was found to be for reasons such as exercises, marital security, preparation for her absence and fair exchange. The following quotes from the data illustrate this point:

“O for sweeping, at times I can take sweep around, it is an exercise. When I do it, it is to keep my body strong. There are some people who will eat and expect their wives or children to pick after them. But I do it myself as a form of exercise.” –Rural participant 4

“For cooking, ah so when you are hungry and there is food in the kitchen will you ask the women to go for it, even if she is around you have to learn to do some things so that when she travels you don't suffer so the man has to learn to do some of these things” – Rural participant 8

“If somebody enters my room today and it is dirty, it is not only my wife who takes the disgrace I’m also part of it. We are one people so why not if she is up to doing one thing and I realize the room is dirty, why will I wait for her to come? I have to move in while I’m free to make sure I do the clean up” – Urban participant 6

Wives’ roles

Participants reported the gender roles of their wives under three themes: house management, child care and providing role.

House management: All participants reported house chores as the role of the wife. They pointed this role as mainly being the responsibility of the woman, husbands can step in when she is not available for some reasons. They used words and phrases like washing my things, cook, taking care of the home to make this point. The following quotes illustrate the theme:

“her duty is to make sure I am neat. She has to wash my things. She has to make sure I eat . . .” – Rural participant 2

“The wife has to wash, clean the room, clean the tables, but as the husband, if the wife is not too well, you could help out with the cleaning” – Rural participant 4

“Normally she makes sure that the home is managed by her wife” – Urban participant 6

Child care: child care was seen as the role of the wife, making sure the children have eaten, bathing the children and helping out with their homework were all seen as the responsibility of the wife. They are to perform this responsibility even if both the man and the woman are actively working.

“O okay hers is to take care of the children at home. Even if we both work, she will have the time to take care of them at home” – Rural participant 6

“yh that is why I don’t allow her to be fully working. She has to attend to when the children come from school. What they will eat, do their homework, making sure that we are really attended to. That is what I do to” – Urban participant 5

“Hers is to take care of the children at home and other little little things at home” – Rural participant 1

Providing role: Providing role is another theme that emerged while talking about the roles of the wife with two sub-themes. Occasional helps and repayment.

Occasional helps: Providing for the family was seen as the domain of the husband, however, the wife can step in to help when necessary. The money the wife adds to the family income is seen as a volitional help and as such not mandatory. Help or support from the wife becomes necessary when the man is cash trapped, does not leave enough money at home or experiencing financial crisis. The following quotes reflect this notion:

“Normally the woman could also work and support the husband so that when he doesn’t have money, she can support” – Rural participant 7

“Okay so the upkeep money I give, I know it’s not enough. The children go to school with about 7 cedis and they eat in the morning. If I leave 20 cedis at home, I know it will not be enough but by the time I get home, food will be ready and what I give will not be enough for all that. So my wife really helps me” – Rural participant 4

“Oo, the roles, you know I always prefer that eh, I want to be recognized as the man so I try to take everything upon myself, especially when it comes to provision, ehee, providing for the family, so I don’t bother, even though she tries to get involved, I ..., unless of course am cash trapped, or ehee I find myself in a difficulty, that’s when I depend . . .” – Urban participant 3.

“You know as a man, when I don’t have, I feel a little sad, but she tells me not to worry. She will say she can take care of me for some two to three weeks” – Rural participant

2

Repayment: When wives add their money to the family income, some husbands report that they have to repay back the money when they get the money. This, however, is not accompanied by behavioural or attitudinal change. This is because it is not the responsibility of the woman. The following quotes illustrate it:

“So if I don’t have and I am going out I tell her there is no money by the time you come she would have prepared food. When I get back and there is money, I can give it to her to keep sometimes she doesn’t even take it. So it is good that she helps and I also help” – Rural participant 8

o no, her attitude doesn’t change but she will take the money back. She will say o “I gave you money the other day, can I have it back?” if I have I give it back, if not I let her know” – Rural participant 9

Changing Gender Roles

Discussions on changing gender roles yielded four main themes: Gender socialization, disrespect, lack of commitment, preference for the past era marriages.

Gender socialization: participants reported that it is what they saw their fathers do that they are also practising in their marriages. For those whose fathers provided for the family, that is what they also do, while others learnt from their fathers providing for the family and helping out in the house when they can. The following quotes illustrate this:

“My marriage is the same as my father’s, because from an Islamic background, a Muslim, the man is not supposed to be washing or cooking it is the responsibility of the wife” – Rural participant 3

“I think we learn from our parents, what they taught us is what we are also doing” – Rural participant 5

“O me, it is the same. I lived with my parents for a long time. What I used to do is the same thing my father did for my mother. Like cooking and washing and I learnt it from him that is why I also help my wife” – Rural participant 6

Disrespect: Participants reported that one of the main things that have changed from that of the past gender role ideologies is respect. They reported that in the past, women respected their husbands, but now women do not generally respect their husbands anymore. When they say one word, the wife will respond back in ten words. The following quotes illustrate this point.

“... because of where we were raised and the respect. A woman will not dare talk back when the husband speaks but today it is common. A man will say one word and the woman, before he turns, the woman would have said ten words...” – Rural participant 3

“There were a lot of things there than now. The women were very respectful. Now things have changed so we can’t compare our marriages to theirs” – Rural participant 4

“... only that the respect is not there today. These days everyone takes care of their children but those days they gave birth plenty and would not take care of them. But they were respectful. But today, the least thing, woman will talk back and say something silly, you understand” – Rural participant 7

Lack of commitment: Husbands also generally reported lack of commitment to gender roles on the part of the women. Though husbands are committed to traditional gender roles, wives do not follow the patterns of traditional gender roles.

“... if you see a guy who is a fisherman or a fish folk, you see the wife carrying what, foodstuffs, she will walk a mile to the coastal, to the coast and go and give food to the husband and then walk back to the house with the child at the back of .. you see but nowadays you will not see... look look immediately she just wakes up from bed, pray eh okay we will meet in the evening eh, away, she comes back and if you are not lucky you will be eating food that are kept in the fridge for like two weeks...”, Urban participant 1

“You see, now because of modernization, there are a lot of things that in those days men don't do. But today because they say equality or whatever, there are things that men do maybe washing, sweeping the house and yes. But in those days it wasn't common to see a man cooking, maybe going to fetch water but today, there are a lot of men who carry sauce pans like this and carry water on their head. It didn't use to be very common” – Rural participant 3

“we all human beings but then in as much as you expect me to take care of the house provide this, provide that, there must be some level of ++ everybody looks up to somebody you understand so then the thing is who does the woman look up to if then she is not looking up to her husband okay, then doing that means you have to be a bit humble and respectful, so you cant have it both ways” – Urban participant 2

Preference for the past era marriages. Participants reported generally their preference for gender roles and marriages of the past as opposed to modern-day marriages. Their preference

was based on differences in gender roles and how marriages come about. The following quotes reflect this point:

“... because now you realize that the man and the woman are not home. That is what is causing the problems that we are facing today. Because when you look at in times past, parent, mummies work but they do not engage themselves too much. But now mummy is gone, daddy is gone and children with house helps and nannies and that is where the problem is. You can't give what you don't have. Maybe a house help hasn't gone through anything and is coming to help you raise your children up so it's a problem. Me, I feel that in marriage, a woman shouldn't engage herself so much in providing for the home financially, no, it is wrong so that the woman can take care of the home very well” – Urban participant 5

“I will say my parents because those days, your parents marry for you. Also, the lady wouldn't know any man before you get married so it's the husband who breaks her virginity. But now the women break their virginity before they get married and it brings marital problems. You see before, there weren't really hardships but now we are really suffering. We have to pay for everything”. – Rural participant 2

“... you see, if if you say that, I think then my father's, I will say that my fathers marriage is the best, because they the kind of women that they were married to, they were women who have, like, well groomed and trained, you see they have that kind of traditional trained culture but now the women now are this kinda, “aye woffre ni dan” aa [snapped fingers twice], Legon, KNUST, that English ideology, they come and they want to let you know that, look this is what I do, you know what I mean, so it's different, this is our era so we are in it” – Urban participant 1.

4.4.1 Summary of Quantitative Findings

Spousal role discrepancy and psychosocial outcomes

Spousal role discrepancy significantly predicted psychological distress and self-esteem. The higher the discrepancy the higher the distress and the higher spousal role discrepancy the lower self-esteem. Spousal role discrepancy however did not predict aggression or marital satisfaction.

In comparing rural and urban men, spousal role discrepancy predicted psychological distress and marital satisfaction for urban men but not for rural men. Spousal role discrepancy, however, predicted self-esteem for rural men but not for urban men.

Gender role attitude and psychosocial outcomes

Gender role attitude significantly predicted aggression. As gender role increases to become more egalitarian, aggression also decreases. Gender role attitude, however, did not significantly predict psychological distress, marital satisfaction and self-esteem.

In comparing rural and urban men, gender role attitude significantly predicted aggression and marital satisfaction. As gender role attitude increases to become more egalitarian marital satisfaction increases. Gender role attitude however did not significantly predict psychological distress and self-esteem for both urban men and rural men.

4.4.2 Observed Model

As shown in Figure 4.1 above, spousal role discrepancy predicted psychological distress and self-esteem and marital satisfaction. The hypothesized prediction of aggression and marital satisfaction by spousal role discrepancy was not supported. The discrepancy experienced by urban dwellers predicts their psychological distress and self-esteem but not marital satisfaction and aggression. The discrepancy of experienced by rural dwellers predicted

their self-esteem. The relationship between spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress was also not moderated by self-esteem.

Gender role attitude, on the other hand, predicts aggression but not marital satisfaction and self-esteem. For urban men, their gender role attitude predicts their aggression and marital satisfaction.

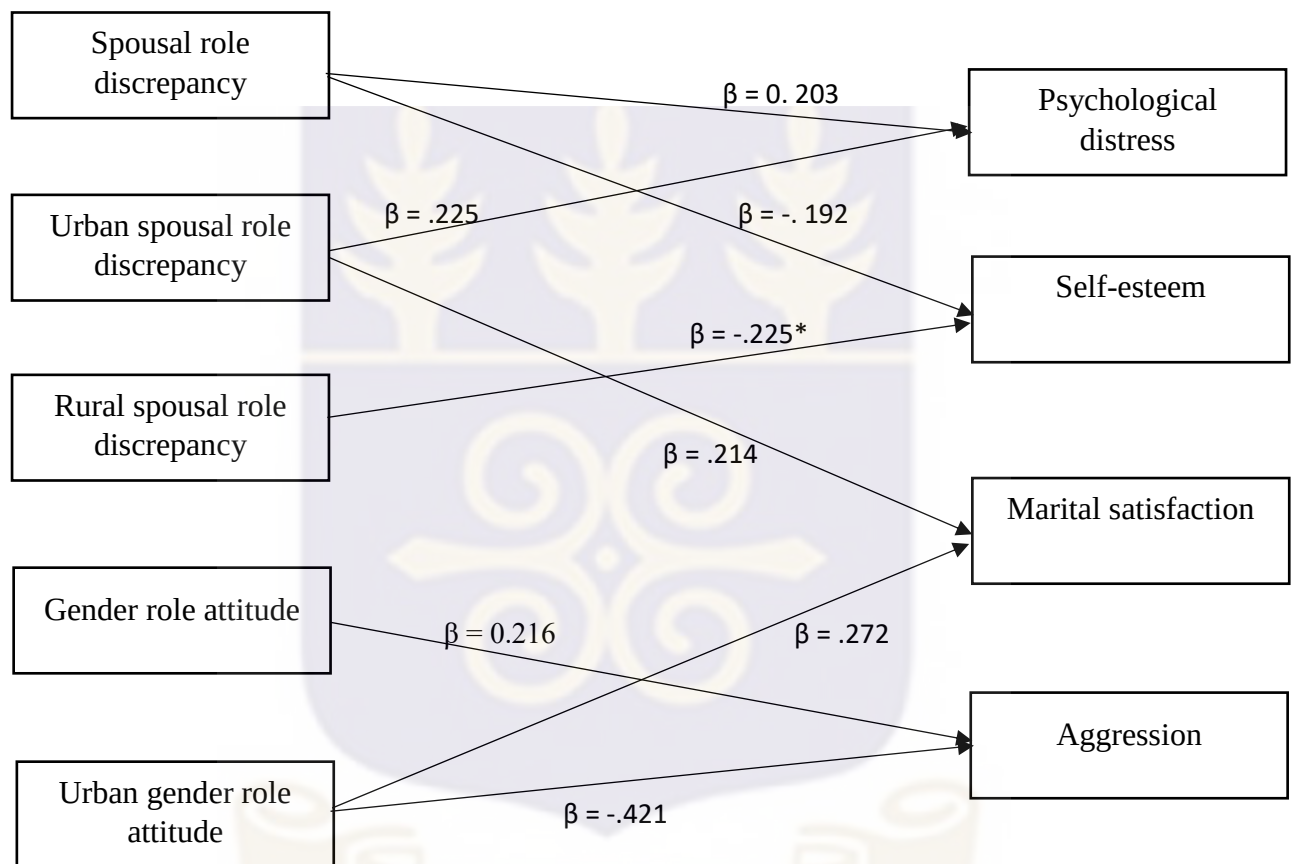


Figure 4.1 Observed model for quantitative findings.

4.4.3 Summary of Qualitative Findings

The analyses of data from the qualitative component of the study revealed the following findings:

Spousal roles

Spousal role responsibilities identified by the men to be for husbands includes providing for the needs of the family including feeding, shelter, bills as well as clothing.

Second spousal role responsibility was the maintenance of order in the family, this role includes solving problems that arise as well as child training.

However, when it comes to domestic house chores, married men selectively engage in some roles they are comfortable with because it is not their core responsibility. They, however, engage in these activities for self-serving reasons like staying healthy, marital security, preparing for the absence of the wife and conscience serving fair exchange.

Spousal roles identified by married men to be the responsibility of wives' include house management. This role includes responsibilities cooking, washing, and cleaning.

Child care was also identified as the role of wives even if both spouses work. This role includes responsibilities such as feeding them, bathing them, getting them ready for school as well as helping out with their homework.

With the responsibility of providing, wives were identified as occasional helpers, they step in to help provide only if the husband does not have enough for the home for some time. Repayment of the money they contributed in helping to provide for the household by the husband is often necessary when the man gets money.

Changes in gender roles

Married men identified that their gender socialization is a major contribution to the spousal roles they play in their marriage. If they saw their parents helping out in the house, they were also more likely to help out in domestic chores, likewise, their fathers were the providers at home so they also have the responsibility of providing.

However, in terms of their relationship with their wives, there was the general consensus that wives in this era as compared to the previous era are disrespectful of their husbands. They show disrespect by talking back at them when they speak.

They also identified lack of commitment on the part of the women to traditional gender role as another major change in marital roles in this era. Women in this era were seen not to be very committed to their housekeeping roles like cooking for the man and taking care of the needs of the man.

Men generally reported a preference for marriages in the past then for modern-day marriages when considering roles.



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This study examined changing gender roles and its impact on the psychosocial wellbeing of married men. A mixed method approach was used to examine the aims of the study. Drawing from the identity theory and previous studies, various hypotheses were formulated and tested. Some participants were also interviewed on various gender roles and the data analysed.

Preliminary analysis revealed that rural dwellers had higher self-esteem than urban dwellers. Rural men were also found to be more aggressive than urban men were. Again, rural men had more traditional gender role attitude and spousal role identity than urban men. However, urban men reported higher levels of psychological distress than rural men did. No differences were found between rural men and urban men on marital satisfaction and spousal role discrepancy.

The main results indicated that spousal role discrepancy of married men generally predicts psychological distress and self-esteem. It also emerged that spousal role discrepancy particularly predicts the psychological distress and marital satisfaction of married men in the urban settings but not for the rural settings. Gender role attitudes, on the other hand, predicted aggression but not psychological distress and marital satisfaction. In comparing rural and urban dwellers, gender role attitude predicted aggression and marital satisfaction of urban dwellers only but not for rural dwellers. Gender role attitude could however not predict the psychological distress for both urban and rural married men.

The qualitative findings revealed that traditional gender role attitudes persist among men and their spouses. Women are however changing in relational terms and in their commitment to serving their husbands, but traditional role expectation of home keeping and

child care for the woman and the man as the head and provider remains intact. Though men engage selectively in household chores, they do not do it as a responsibility but rather as lending help for self-serving purposes.

5.2 Urban and rural differences on study variables

Rural and urban dwellers differ markedly in various ways. These differences lie in some socioeconomic factors like education, westernization, cost of leaving, income level just to mention a few. It was therefore expected that rural men and urban men will differ on study variables like self-esteem, psychological distress, aggression, gender role attitude, spousal role identity and spousal role discrepancy. The differences between the two groups on these variables were therefore examined.

Gender role attitude

Rural men were found to have more traditional gender role attitudes than urban men, this was expected because urban men were observed to have higher educational attainment than rural men (GLS 6, 2014). Educational attainment has been found to be a mechanism of change in transforming people's gender roles from traditional to egalitarian (Akotia & Anum, 2012; Kulick, 2002). Rural men, therefore, believe more in the ideology that the place of the woman is the home where they take care of the house and care for children whereas, for men, they assume the position of breadwinners and headship in the family. Urban men, on the other hand, are a bit more liberal with the idea that, the place of the woman is just home and childcare responsibilities. This position affects the way of life of urban dwellers and rural dwellers in many ways. For example, in rural areas fathers are more likely to pay attention to their son's schooling than they would to their daughters because of prevailing traditional gender role attitudes. Whereas in urban areas, fathers may give equal attention to the schooling of both sons and daughters.

Self-esteem

Rural dwellers were observed to have higher self-esteem than urban dwellers; this was an interesting but not surprising finding. According to the identity theory's formulation on self-esteem, when people suffer continued discrepancy in their identity, their reservoir of self-esteem may get depleted leading to a decrease in self-esteem. However, where there is reinforcement or verification in one's held identity, self-esteem increases (Burke & Stets, 2009). Rural men were found to be more traditional than urban men, rural women were also reported to be more traditional than urban women. Both rural men and rural women have more traditional role identities, such marriages are mutually reinforcing and therefore leads to verification and consequently, high self-esteem. In other words, the verification of the gender role identity of rural men leads to the experience of higher self-esteem while at the same time there is little threat to the identity of rural men so the self-esteem remains intact. For urban men on the other hand, though both they and their wives appear to be more egalitarian than rural couples, drawing from the findings of Akotia and Anum (2012) urban women are much more egalitarian than their husbands, hence urban men do not have their gender role identities being verified by their wives and from identity theories formulation on self-esteem, non-verification leads to low self-esteem. Further damage may be done to the self-esteem of urban men because they continually suffer a threat to their identity due to the non-verifying circumstances of their marriage.

Aggression

Rural men were also observed to be more aggressive than urban men. This is also not surprising because traditional gender role attitude has generally been linked to aggression (Crossman, Stith & Bender, 1990; Bookwala, Frieze, Smith & Ryan 1992; Finn, 1985). Higher levels of traditional gender role attitude were reported among rural men than urban men, this

could, therefore, account for their higher levels of aggression. Traditional gender roles give men superordinate position over women, this coupled with patriarchal structures in Ghana (Adomako Ampofo, Okyerefoh & Pervarah, 2009) seems to legitimise violence against women. It, therefore, follows that rural wives suffer more aggression at the hands of their husbands than urban wives do.

Psychological distress

Urban men experienced higher psychological distress than rural men did. As postulated by the identity theory (Burke & Stets, 2009), discrepancy in held identity leads to the experience of psychological distress. Though there were no differences between rural men and urban men on spousal role discrepancy, the Ghanaian society is till today traditional in spite of increasing education and westernization (Akotia & Anum, 2012; Nukunya, 2000) and urban men were observed to be traditional but had more egalitarian wives thus they are more likely to experience higher discrepancy than rural men do, which can lead to psychological distress. Other variables that can account for higher psychological distress among urban men may include average monthly income and number of children. Higher cost of living and economic difficulties has been found to have consequence on mental health outcomes like psychological distress (Mental Health Commission Canada, 2011). Urban dwellers generally experience high cost of living than rural men. This could also account for the reason why urban men suffer more mental health issues than rural men.

5.3 Spousal role discrepancy and psychosocial outcomes

As part of the objectives of this study, the influence of spousal role discrepancy on psychological distress, self-esteem, marital satisfaction and aggression were examined. When there is spousal role discrepancy, then the spousal role identity of spouses are at odds with each other. For identity theory (Burke & Stets, 2012), when there is a discrepancy, the environmental

inputs do not much the identity standards stored in memory. This unique situation of non-verification has negative consequence on the people's self-esteem and psychological distress. It also moves the individual to change his behaviour to restore balance to the identity system, this behaviour can be in the form of aggression. Some studies have shown that when the gender role identity of men is challenged, they resort to violence to restore their identity (Narayan, et al., 2000). This non-verifying also leads to dissatisfaction with the relationship.

Overall, spousal role discrepancy was observed to predict psychological distress and self-esteem. This finding is consistent with the formulation of the identity theory that when one's held identity is not confirmed by environmental inputs, the discrepancy that results can lead to distress and lower self-esteem (Burke & Stets, 2009). Married men who have spousal role identities that are different from their spouses are therefore likely to suffer psychological distress and lower self-esteem. In other words, when a traditional man marries an egalitarian woman, the traditional man is likely to suffer psychological distress and low self-esteem because of the difference in their identities. When a man identifies with the notion that responsibilities such as cleaning the house, preparing and serving meals, washing and shopping for foodstuff should be done by the wife but the wife identifies with the notion that those responsibilities should be shared or be done by the husband or vice versa, the husband is likely to suffer from psychological distress. Similarly if a wife identifies with the idea that paying of bills, providing income, yard work and initiating sexual activity should be done by the husband but the husband thinks that it should be a shared responsibility or should be done by the wife alone, or vice versa, the man is likely to suffer psychological distress and low self-esteem. This result is consistent with findings from Cast and Burke (2002) as well as Burke and Stets (1999).

Length of marriage was also found to affect the psychological distress of married men. The longer one has been married the less distress he is likely to experience. This could be due to the tendency for couples to sort out their differences with time.

However, spousal role discrepancy did not predict aggression and marital satisfaction. This is inconsistent with findings from McHale and Crouter (1992), Hengstebeck, Helms and Rodriguez (2015) and Fisher (2013). For married men in Ghana, therefore, a man with a traditional spousal role identity married to a woman with an egalitarian spousal role identity is not predictive of the husband's marital satisfaction and aggression. This may be because the discrepancy only exists at an ideological level and not a practical level. Results from the qualitative aspect of this study show that though there might be ideological differences when it comes to the discrepancy, at the practical level, gender roles are still traditional with the men taking on the providing role and the woman taking on house management and childcare regardless of ideological differences. It can, therefore, be assumed that discrepancy at an ideological level does not have serious consequences for the identities of men.

Demographic characteristics such as age, years of marriage, number of children and income were also observed to influence strongly, the marital satisfaction of urban men. As men age their marital satisfaction decreases, this can be attributed to the fact that humans generally grow weak with age and therefore activities that used to be enjoyed in the past is no longer actively engaged in. However, as the number of years in a marriage increases marital satisfaction also increases. This is consistent with findings from Davey and Davey (2007). This finding could be because, as people live together longer, they learn each other's likes and dislikes affording the opportunity for peaceful and harmonious co-existence. Husbands who make a very high relative contribution to household income experience less marital satisfaction. Being the main provider of the home increases the financial stress of the provider; especially in urban communities where the standard of living is high and economic conditions are harsh, which can lead to less satisfaction marriages. Research evidence shows that egalitarian men who share the provisioning role with their wives, experience high marital satisfaction (Amato & Booth, 1995). Men who have high average monthly income experience higher marital

satisfaction than those who have low monthly income, this finding are consistent with research findings on income and marital satisfaction (Vijayanthimala, 1991). This comes as no surprise at all because money is vital to running the everyday needs of the family.

Rural and urban differences

In comparing rural and urban participants, discrepancy was found to be predictive of urban married men's psychological distress and marital satisfaction only and rural married men's self-esteem only. As has been already indicated, education leads to changes in gender role attitude (Brewster & Padavic, 2000; Kulick, 2002). That notwithstanding, studies in Ghana have shown that education differentially impacts males and females gender role attitude, education has no effect on males' gender role attitudes but it has for women (Akotia & Anum, 2102). Educational attainment is known to be higher in the urban areas than the rural area areas (GLSS 6, 2014). It, therefore, follows that urban men are likely to have more egalitarian wives, hence the experience of more discrepancy at the practical level. In urban communities most married women are also involved in paid labour, this coupled with their more egalitarian gender roles can lead to urban wives insisting on equal division of labour in the household. This could account for why urban men experience more distress than rural men do because they experience higher discrepancy at a practical level. Contrary to expectation, however, the relationship between spousal role discrepancy and marital satisfaction was positive instead of the expected negative relationship. As spousal role discrepancy increases, marital satisfaction also increases. As earlier noted, this relationship could be because spousal role discrepancy is only at an ideological level and not on a practical level for many men. Again, discrepancy was predictive of rural married men's self-esteem but not urban men. When a rural man identifies with the notion that responsibilities such as cleaning the house, preparing and serving meals, washing and shopping for foodstuff should be done by the wife but the wife identifies with the notion that those responsibilities should be shared or be done by the husband or vice versa, it is more

predictive of rural married men's self-esteem than it is for urban men. This could be as a result of the predominant patriarchal and collective nature of rural areas that stresses male headship and conformity, hence having a woman who doesn't conform to these social roles could be very damaging to the man's self-esteem. In other words, rural men suffer very little threat to their identity so the least threat they face can be very damaging to their self-esteem.

Self-esteem, on the other hand, did not moderate the relationship between spousal role discrepancy and psychological distress. Self-esteem significantly predicted psychological distress but the effect of spousal role discrepancy on psychological distress was not significant. According to the identity theory by Burke and Stets (2009), self-esteem is conceptualized as a reservoir. When there are discrepancies, self-esteem initially draws from its reservoir to reduce the impact of the spousal role discrepancy on psychological distress. However, if the discrepancy continues for a long time the reservoir of self-esteem will be depleted hence self-esteem will not moderate the relationship between discrepancy and psychological distress. It has also been observed in this study that discrepancy accounted for a very small variance in psychological distress, as stated earlier this could be attributed to the fact that discrepancy exists between husbands and their wives sampled in this study at an ideological level and not practical level, this is to say that though men report that their wives would want them to partake in household jobs like cooking or cleaning, their wives do not insist on it and they also do not indulge in it as a responsibility hence the very low effect of spousal role discrepancy on psychological distress.

5.4 Gender role attitude and psychosocial outcomes

Gender role attitudes exist on a continuum that ranges from traditional gender role attitude to egalitarian gender role. Traditional gender role attitude is very restrictive and dictates the roles that men are to be involved in as well as that of women (Sefa-Dedeh &

Canetto, 1992). Traditional gender role attitude puts men in a place of superiority over women and as such it encourages the discipline of wives by their husbands. This can lead to men resorting to aggression as a form of discipline. Traditional gender roles also privilege husbands when it comes to the performance of household chores, wives, therefore, take on the tedious task of domestic chores alone, which affects their satisfaction in marriage, which also invariably affects the marital satisfaction of their husbands. Egalitarian gender roles, on the other hand, stress equality between spouses (Mickelson, Claffey & Williams, 2006), hence is less restrictive.

Overall, gender role attitude was found to predict aggression and not psychological distress, self-esteem and marital satisfaction of married men. The relationship between gender role attitude and aggression is a negative one. As gender role attitude becomes more egalitarian/less traditional, aggression decreases. Similarly, as gender role attitude become more traditional/less egalitarian aggression also increases. When married men agree with the ideology that, the husband's job is more important than a wife's job, housework is mainly a woman's job, men should make important decisions in the house and the likes, they are more likely to be aggressive towards their wives. This is consistent with findings that generally show that there is a link between traditional gender roles and aggressive behaviour (Hyndman, 2000; Falconier, 2013; Fisher, 2013). Traditional gender roles and patriarchal structures give the man the place of authority and superiority over the woman (Sefa-Dedeh & Canetto, 1992), this structure in some ways legitimises violence against women and with such authority and power some men abuse their wives. But modern gender roles stress equality in all domains for both men and women (Mickelson, Claffey & Williams, 2006), this arrangement does not leave power in the hands of one person, as such the possibility of violence against the other is reduced.

Demographic characteristics such as age, number of children and percentage of household income provided by husband were also observed to have consequences for the aggression of married men. Older men were found to be low on aggression. This could be because older men might not have the strength for aggressive acts or even perhaps that their general life experiences have helped them manage their aggressive tendencies better. Increase in a number of children lead to increase in the aggression of married men, this could be due to increase in stressors as the number of children increases. As husbands percentage contribution to the household income increase the more aggressive they are, men who provide a high percentage of household income are likely to be traditional in their gender role attitudes; traditional gender role attitudes are generally linked to aggression (Hyndman, 2000; Falconier, 2013; Fisher, 2013).

Gender role attitude was not predictive of married men's psychological distress, self-esteem, and marital satisfaction. This is inconsistent with findings that suggest that traditional gender role attitude predicts poor marital satisfaction among married men (Davey & Davey, 2007) poor mental health outcomes (Sweeting et al., 2014) as well as low self-esteem (Lennon, Rud, Sloan & Kim, 1999). For married men in Ghana, therefore, agreement with traditional statements such as childcare being the main job for women and the idea that men must take important decisions for the home is not predictive of the marital satisfaction, self-esteem and psychological distress of married men.

Rural and urban differences

In comparing the gender role attitudes of urban and rural dwellers in predicting aggression, marital satisfaction and psychological distress, gender role attitude was found to predict the aggression and marital satisfaction of urban but it did not predict for rural men. The relationship between gender role attitude and aggression of urban men was negative, as the

gender role attitude becomes increases to become less traditional, their aggression also decreased. As already indicated less traditional gender roles have been linked to lower levels of aggression (Hyndman, 2000; Falconier, 2013; Fisher, 2013). As has already been mentioned, egalitarian gender roles promote equality hence discourages aggression whereas traditional gender roles promote men over women hence in some ways promotes aggression against women. This prediction was however not so for rural men, this could be due to the fact that urban men scored significantly higher on gender role attitudes than rural men, this means gender role attitude of urban men is less traditional compared to rural men. Whether or not a rural married man has more traditional gender role attitude or less traditional gender role attitude does not predict his aggression towards his wife.

Gender role attitude was also found to predict marital satisfaction of urban men but not for rural men. The relationship was a positive one, as urban men scored higher on gender role attitude scale to become less traditional their marital satisfaction also increases. This is consistent with findings that as men become more egalitarian the marital satisfaction increases (Davey & Davey, 2007). Egalitarian married men are more likely to have their spouses contributing to the household income, hence their financial burden is lessened. A lower contribution to household income has been found to predict marital satisfaction. This prediction was however not found for married men in rural settings. For married men in rural settings whether or not they endorse traditional gender role attitudes was not predictive of their marital satisfaction.

5.5 Changes in Gender roles among couples

Gender role attitudes have been observed to be changing globally (Inglehart & Norris, 2003), traditional gender roles are giving way to more egalitarian gender roles. However, findings from the qualitative component of the study revealed that traditional gender roles

persist among both rural and urban men as indicated by their endorsement of traditional spousal roles. The Ghanaian society is still very much traditional despite increasing levels of education and westernization (Akotia & Anum, 2012; Nukunya, 2000), which have been known to change the perception of people from traditional to egalitarian. (Akotia & Anum, 2012; Kulick, 2002). Traditional spousal roles dictate that cleaning, cooking and serving meals, washing, buying foodstuff and childcare is the role of a woman whereas home repair, paying bills, providing income and initiating sexual activity is the role of the man. However, in comparing men and women, men reported more traditional gender roles for themselves than they did for their wives. Men reported very little or no changes in their own gender roles in terms of the roles expected of them as dictated by traditional gender roles. Men viewed providing for the family as their main responsibility coupled with maintaining order in the house. This is regardless of the fact that urban men differ markedly from rural men on both education and westernization. However, they reported some changes in the gender role of women in terms of their service/commitment to their husbands and in relational terms as indicated by their report of lack of respect for their husbands contrary to the expectations of traditional gender roles. Traditional gender role attitudes dictate that women are submissive to their husbands at all times without questioning the authority of the man, however men are beginning to notice that their wives challenge their opinions and as such their authority, in the past when the man speaks women silently listen and obey but in modern times women do not blindly follow the instructions of their husbands but also voice out their contrary opinions to the dislike of their husbands. This is consistent with the faster-changing women and slower changing men phenomena by Hochschild (1989). This is also consistent with findings that, men have more traditional gender role attitudes compared to women in Ghana. (Akotia & Anum, 2012). Whereas men report deviations from the gender role attitudes of their spouses, men continue to cling to traditional gender role attitudes. Men generally responded to items that pointed to

traditional gender roles in very traditional ways. Most men were observed to respond “all of it” to items like providing income for the family, paying bills and home repair. This is because saying otherwise will lead to men losing power. Another reason why men continue to cling to traditional gender roles could be because, the responsibilities assigned to men by traditional gender roles have been argued to be very instrumental in constructing male identities (Green, 1999), giving up these roles will mean giving up what makes one a man. Because of these changes observed in gender roles of women, men prefer marriages of the past to modern-day marriages.

Another interesting finding to note is that, even though women appear to be more egalitarian than men are, men generally reported that their wives would have them assume responsibility for some domestic activities, nonetheless, their wives still expect them to assume full responsibility for traditionally ascribed male roles like providing income for the family. This is interesting because one will expect that as women get more egalitarian and demand for help in household chores like cooking, they will take part of the responsibility of providing for the family. This is not surprising though; the Ghanaian society is still largely traditional and modern gender roles are only beginning to gain grounds in the Ghanaian society. Therefore, though spousal role identity of women is changing it is changing mainly at an ideological level and not at a practical level. This is so because, wives in practical terms expect their husbands to be the providers of the home while they themselves also undertake traditional household chores.

5.6 Implications of the Study

The practical and theoretical implications of these findings are discussed below.

5.6.1 Practical Implications of the Study

The mental health burden of Ghana is currently overwhelming to the nation's resources. About 650,000 people are known to be suffering from severe mental disorders and an additional 2,166,000 are also known to be suffering from moderate to mild mental disorders. The treatment gap estimated for mental disorders stands at 98% (WHO, 2007). It is therefore important that additional mental health burden is not created. Women empowerment and other interventions aimed at improving the life situations of women in Ghana is ongoing and will continue to grow in the coming years (Advocates for Gender Equity, 2000; Akotia & Anum, 2015; Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection, 2016). Accordingly, it has become important to begin to give attention to increased mental health burden in the male population because of changes in gender roles that come with the aforementioned social change. Gender role attitudes and spousal role discrepancy affect the psychological distress of urban men than it does for rural men. However, spousal role discrepancy has more implications for the self-esteem of rural married men than it has for urban men. It is important that public health approach to mental health of urban men and rural men devote attention to the impact of gender roles on their psychological distress and self-esteem.

5.6.2 Theoretical Implications of the Study

According to the identity theory, discrepancy between environmental inputs to the identity and the identity standard results in psychological distress, reduced self-esteem, decrease in marital satisfaction and even aggression. In this study however, discrepancy only marginally predicted psychological distress and discrepancy and could not predict aggression and marital satisfaction. This is because discrepancies in spousal role identities were observed at an ideological level but not the practical level. It is therefore important that the identity theory

distinguish between ideological level discrepancy and practical level discrepancy and their possible impacts on these outcomes.

5.7 Limitations of the Study

For this study, men rated the spousal role identity of their wives without any correspondence from their wives. This represents a subjective view of their wives' spousal role identity and not really their wives' spousal role identity. Again, the qualitative study also focused on only men hence they reported their subjective opinions of their wives' roles and changes in terms of gender role attitudes.

Analysis comparing rural and urban participants on how they predict the psychosocial outcomes were computed using different models. The differences observed are therefore not based on statistical differences but rather face value differences. Interpretation of this results should, therefore, be guided by these limitations.

5.8 Recommendations

For marriage counsellors and clinicians working with prospective couples and distressed couples, it is important that discussions on gender roles be incorporated into the counselling or therapy because of the effects of spousal role discrepancy on both marital satisfaction, psychological distress and self-esteem. Prospective couples must know the gender role attitudes of each other so that incongruence in gender roles is discussed and compromise reached before marriage. This can help reduce divorce rates in Ghana because it is dissatisfied couples who usually end up getting divorced.

Domestic violence is a social menace to Ghana and as such, there is a need to eradicate it from our society. Based on the findings that gender role attitude is predictor of intimate partner violence, and that gender role attitude has greater consequence for aggression of urban

men than it has for rural men, it is recommended that interventions aimed at reducing domestic violence begin to systematically implement social change programmes aimed at making men less traditional in their gender role attitudes.

It is also recommended that future research in this area investigates factors that account for the change from more traditional gender role attitude to egalitarian gender roles especially among men since education does not seem to make a significant impact on the gender roles of men in Ghana (Akotia & Anum, 2012). It is further recommended that future research should include both spouses in both qualitative and quantitative components so as to reduce the bias of males' subjective view of their spouses. Additionally, future research should consider sampling participants from across different regions of Ghana to make the sample more representative of married men in Ghana.

5.9 Conclusion

In the light of changing the socioeconomic landscape and its' impact on gender roles in Ghana, this study explored the impact of changing gender role on the psychosocial well-being of married men in rural and urban communities. Drawing from the identity theory, the effects of spousal role discrepancy and more generally gender role attitudes were examined using a concurrent missed method design.

The study revealed that spousal role discrepancy of married men has implications for the psychological distress and self-esteem of married men. Spousal role discrepancy was observed to have no consequence for aggression and marital satisfaction of married men. For men in the urban communities, spousal role discrepancy has a consequence for their psychological distress and marital satisfaction but not self-esteem and aggression. For rural men who experience spousal role discrepancy, their self-esteem might be affected but not their marital satisfaction, psychological well-being or aggressive behaviour.

Women who marry men who have traditional gender role attitudes are also likely to suffer abuse at the hands of their husbands because men with traditional gender role attitudes are more likely to be aggressive. For men in urban areas who have egalitarian gender role attitudes, they are less likely to abuse their wives and more likely to have satisfaction in their marriages.

Qualitative findings also revealed that traditional gender roles continue to persist among both men and women even though there were a few exceptions to women. Men continue to hold on to the idea that, the man is the head and provider of the family and as such exempts themselves from the responsibility of domestic chores. Women also endorse the ideology that man is the head and provider for the family; however, the kind of service and respect that comes with occupying such positions as ascribed by traditional gender roles is not accorded men by women. Married men in this present age, therefore, wish that their marriages are as they were in the past when considering gender roles.

These findings have implication for social intervention on mental health and domestic violence, as well as the pre-marital counselling and couples therapy.



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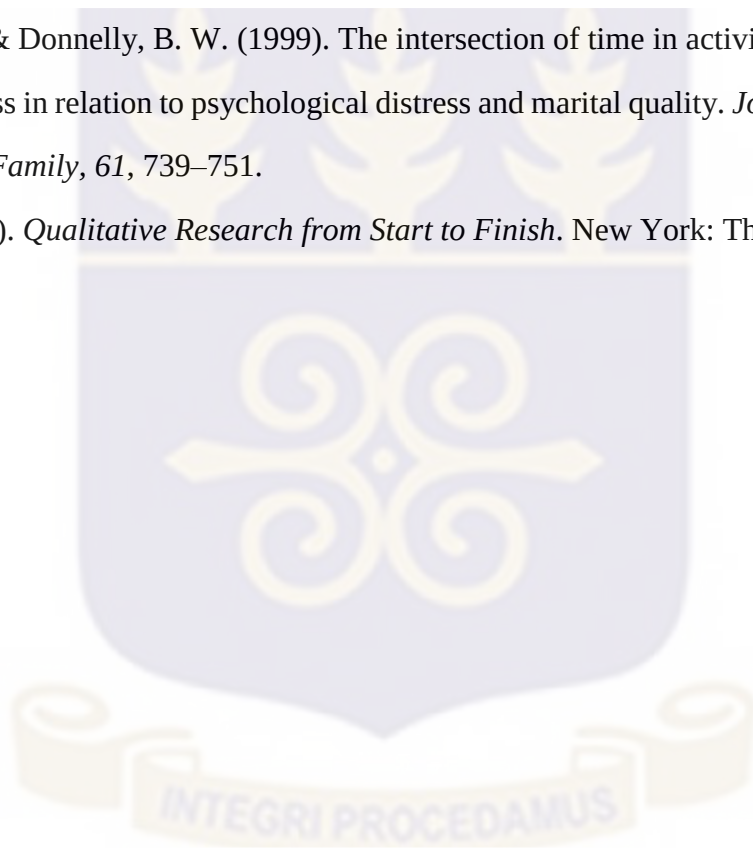
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR THE HUMANITIES (ECH)

P. O. Box LG 74, Legon, Accra, Ghana

My Ref. No.....

25th November, 2016

Mr. Kofi Edu-Ansah
Department of Psychology
University of Ghana
Legon

Dear Mr. Edu-Ansah,

ECH 041/16-17: CHANGING GENDER ROLES AND ITS EFFECT ON THE PSYCHOSOCIAL WELLBEING OF MARRIED MEN: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF RURAL AND URBAN DWELLERS

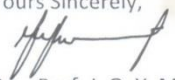
This is to advise you that the above reference study has been presented to the Ethics Committee for the Humanities for a full board review and the following actions taken subject to the conditions and explanation provided below:

Expiry Date:	22/05/17
On Agenda for:	Initial Submission
Date of Submission:	17/10/16
ECH Action:	Approved
Reporting:	Quarterly



Please accept my congratulations.

Yours Sincerely,


Rev. Prof. J. O. Y. Mante
ECH Chair

CC: Dr. Maxwell Asumeng, Department of Psychology

APPENDIX II: QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE IN ENGLISH

This research is being conducted by

Edu-Ansah Kofi Asoandze, an MPhil. student at the University of Ghana, Legon, Department of Psychology. The questionnaire in which you are asked to participate is designed to examine the effects of changing gender roles of the psychosocial wellbeing of married men. The questionnaire is comprised of two sections and will not take longer than 30 minutes.

There are no known risks involved in being in this study, beyond those of everyday life.

The information you provide during the study is completely anonymous; at no time will your name be associated with the responses you give.

For questions about the research itself or in case of any harm as a result of participation, you may contact the principal investigator: Edu-Ansah Kofi at kaeduansah@gmail.com or 0271509700. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant in this study you may contact the Administrator of the Ethics Committee for Humanities, ISSER, University of Ghana at ech@isser.edu.gh / ech@ug.edu.gh or 0233- 303-933-866.

Participation in this study is voluntary. Refusing to participate or ceasing to participate at any time will involve no penalty.

I have read or have had someone read all of the above, asked questions, received answers regarding participation in this study, and am willing to give consent for me, to participate in this study. I will not have waived any of my rights by signing this consent form.

Signature or mark of volunteer

Date

SECTION A**DEMOGRAPHICS**

Age: _____ Number of years of marriage: _____

Number of children: _____ Highest level of education: _____

Occupation: _____ Religion: _____ Ethnic group _____

Percentage of household income provided by you: _____

Percentage of household income provided by spouse: _____

Average monthly income: (a) GHC 0 – 99 (a) GHC100 - 599 (b) GHC600–999 (c) GHC1000–2999
(d) GHC3000 and above**SECTION B**

Please read and provide your subjective responses to the following statements. There are no right or wrong answers, just your experiences and thought are been sought.

How much do you feel that you should engage in the following role activities in the household? Response range from 0 - not doing that activity in the household to 4- doing all of the activity in the household.

		Not at all (0)	Occasionally (1)	Half of the time (2)	Very often (3)	All of it (4)
1	cleaning the house					
2	preparing and serving the meals					
3	Washing and mending the clothes					
4	home repair					
5	yard work					
6	taking care of bills and accounts					
7	shopping for food stuffs					
8	maintaining contact with in-laws or other members of the family					
9	initiating sexual activity					
10	providing income for the family before children are born					
11	providing income for the family after children are born					

Below are ten statements you may or may not agree with. Using the scale below, indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each item by ticking the response for each statement.

		Strongly agree (3)	Agree (2)	Disagree (1)	Strongly disagree (0)
1	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.				
2	At times, I think I am no good at all.				
3	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.				
4	I am able to do things as well as most other people.				
5	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.				
6	I certainly feel useless at times.				
7	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others				
8	I wish I could have more respect for myself.				
9	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.				
10	I take a positive attitude toward myself.				

Please choose the response that best describes your experience over the past four weeks

		Never (0)	Occasionally (1)	Often (2)	Always (3)
1	Able to concentrate				
2	Loss of sleep over worry				
3	Playing a useful part				
4	Capable of making decisions				
5	Felt constantly under strain				
6	Couldn't overcome difficulties				
7	Able to enjoy day-to-day activities				
8	Able to face problems				
9	Feeling unhappy and depressed				
10	Losing confidence				
11	Thinking of self as worthless				
12	Feeling reasonably happy				

To what extent do you think your wife wants you to engage in the following role activities? Response range from not doing that activity in the household to doing all of the activity in the household.

		Not at all (0)	Occasionally (1)	Half of the time (2)	Very often (3)	All of it (4)
1	cleaning the house					
2	preparing and serving the meals					
3	Washing and mending the clothes					
4	home repair					
5	yard work					
6	taking care of bills and accounts					
7	shopping for food stuffs					
8	maintaining contact with in-laws or other members of the family					
9	initiating sexual activity					
10	providing income for the family before children are born					
11	providing income for the family after children are born					

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements about your marriage.

	1	2	3	4	5
1	How well does your wife meet your needs?				
	Poorly	slightly	Average	Quite well	Extremely well
2	In general, how satisfied are you with your marriage?				
	Unsatisfied	Slightly satisfied	Average	Quite satisfied	Extremely satisfied
3	How good is your marriage compared to most?				
	Poor	Slightly good	Average	Quite good	Excellent
4	How often do you wish you hadn't gotten in this marriage?				
	Never	occasionally	Average	Quite often	Very often
5	To what extent has your marriage met your original expectations				
	Hardly at all	Slightly	Average	Quite	Completely
6	How much do you love your wife?				
	Not much	Slightly	Average	Quite	Very much
7	How many problems are there in your marriage?				
	Very few	Slightly	Averagely	Quite a number	Very many

Below are statements about various household roles, indicate your level of agreement or disagreement by checking the appropriate box.

		Strongly agree (0)	Agree (1)	Neutral (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (5)
1	A man should help in the house, but housework and childcare should mainly be a woman's job.					
2	It isn't always possible, but ideally the wife should do the cooking and housekeeping and the husband should provide the family with money.					
3	Men should make really important decisions in the family.					
4	Some equality in marriage is OK, but by and large, the man should have the main say-so.					
5	For a woman taking care of the children is the main thing but for a man his job is.					
6	A husband's job is more important than a wife's.					

Please rate how often you have engaged in the following activity over the past year.

		Never (0)	Once (1)	Twice (2)	More than twice (3)
1	Throwing something at your wife				
2	Pushing, grabbing, or shoving your wife				
3	Slapping your wife				
4	kicking, biting, or hitting with a fist				
5	Hitting or trying to hit your wife with something				
6	beating up your wife				
7	Threatening your wife with a knife or gun				
8	Using a knife or gun				
9	Insulting or swearing at your wife				
10	Sulking or refusing to talk about an issue				
11	Stomping out of the room, house, or yard				
12	Doing or saying something to spite the other				
13	Threatening to hit or throw something				
14	Throwing, smashing, hitting, or kicking something				

APPENDIX III: QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE IN TWI**SECTION A****DEMOGRAPHICS**

Age: _____ Number of years of marriage: _____

Number of children: _____ Highest level of education: _____

Occupation: _____ Religion: _____ Ethnic group _____

Percentage of household income provided by you: _____

Percentage of household income provided by spouse: _____

Average monthly income: (a) GHC 0 – 99 (a) GHC100 - 599 (b) GHC600–999 (c) GHC1000–2999
(d) GHC3000 and above**SECTION B**

Please read and provide your subjective responses to the following statements. There are no right or wrong answers, just your experiences and thought are been sought.

Emmere dodoɔ sɛn na wo susu sɛ, ɛsɛ sɛ wode wo ho hyɛ saa efie asedee nnwumadie yi mu? Wo mmuaee no gyina hyee(0) – sɛ wo nye saa dwumadie no koraa wɔ efie ho kosi enan (4) – sɛ wo yɛ saa dwumadie no nyinaa wɔ efie ho.

		koraa (0)	ɛdeda mu (1)	emu fa (2)	emmere dodoɔ no (3)	Nyinaa (4)
1	Efie no mu nseinsei					
2	Aduanenoa ne ɛponotoɔ					
3	Neemasie, ne toɔ ne ntaadeɛ pempam					
4	Nyoma a asie wo fie nseinsei					
5	Efie no abɔnten so adumayo					
6	Sɛ wotua nkanea ne atoɔ ahodoɔ					
7	Edwadie					
8	Awofoɔ, nsewnom ne abusuafoɔ ahodoɔ nkitahodie					
9	Sɛ wodi kan ahyɛ mpaso agrɔdie ase					
10	Sɛ wobɔ abusua no akɔnhoma ansa na awoɔ ɛbeba mu					
11	Akɔnhomabɔ wɔ awoɔ akyi					

Below are ten statements you may or may not agree with. Using the scale below, indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each item by ticking the response for each statement.

		Megye tum paa (3)	Megye tum (2)	Mengye ntum (1)	Mengye ntum koraa (0)
1	Mi kika biribiara bo mu aa, makoma to mekem wo mabrabo mu				
2	Adu mbiribia, mi dwene se me di mu koraa				
3	Mi wo atinka bise, mi wo nwoma bebre wo mi mu				
4	Mi tumi ye nyomma yie ti se afrofro bebre				
5	Mi wo atinka bise, mi ni nyomma bebre mi de be hoahoa mi ho.				
6	Eto mbiribia, mi nya atinka se, mi ho ni mfasoa				
7	Mi wo atinka se, mi ye obia mi ho wo mfasoa se afrofro				
8	I wish I could have more respect for myself.				
9	Mi kika biribiara bo mu a, medwene se, me di ntwo				
10	Mi si gyinaa papa a wo ma brabo mu.				

Please choose the response that best describes your experience over the past four weeks

		Kora- kora (0)	Ewom a (1)	Etaa si (2)	Abre nyinaa (3)
1	Se wotumi de w'adwene si biribi so				
2	Se biribi haw a, wontumi nna				
3	Se wodi akotene wo adee bi a eho hia mu				
4	Se wotumi si gyinae				
5	Se wote bre abre nyinaa				
6	Se wontumi nni ohaw so				
7	Se w'ani tumi gye wo dabiaa dwumadie mu				
8	Se wotumi gyina ohaw ano				
9	Se w'ani ngye na wo teetee				
10	Se wogyae w'awrehyemu mu				
11	Se wodwene se woho nni mfasoo				
12	Se w'ani gye				

Emere dodoɔ sɛn na wogyidi sɛ wo yere pɛ sɛ wode woho hye saa asɛdɛɛ nnwumadie yi mu? Wo mmuaɛɛ no gyina hyee(0) – sɛ wo nye saa dwumadie no wɔ efie hɔ kosi ɛnan (4) – sɛ wo yɛ saa dwumadie no nyinaa wɔ efie hɔ.

		kora (0)	ɛdeda mu (1)	emu fa (2)	ɛmmere dodoɔ no (3)	Nyinaa (4)
1	Efie no mu nseinsei					
2	Aduanenoa ne ɛponotoɔ					
3	Neemasie, ne toɔ ne ntaadeɛ pempam					
4	Nyoma a asie wo fie nseinsei					
5	Efie no abɔnten so adumayɔ					
6	Sɛ wotua nkanea ne atɔɔ ahodoɔ					
7	Edwadie					
8	Awofoɔ, nsewnom ne abusuafoɔ ahodoɔ nkitahodie					
9	Sɛ wodi kan ahyɛ mpaso agrɔdie ase					
10	Sɛ wobɔ abusua no akɔnhoma ansa na awɔɔ ɛbeba mu					
11	Akɔnhomabɔ wɔ awɔɔ akyi					

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements about your marriage.

	1	2	3	4	5
1	Emmere dodoɔ sɛn na wo yere tumi yɛ woapɛdɛɛ ma wo?				
	Koraa	Kakraa bi	Ɛhɔ ne hɔ	Ɛyɛ ara	Ɔyɛ papaapa
2	Ɛwɔ adeɛ nyinaa mu no, sɛn na w'akoma tɔ woyɛm wɔ w'awareɛ mu?				
	M'ani ngye koraa	Ɛyɛ kakraa bi	Mefa no saa	Ɛyɛ ara	M'ani gye papaapa
3	Sɛ wode wo awareɛ toto dodoɔ no deɛ hoa, wo deɛ no te sɛn?				
	Ɛnye koraa	Ɛyɛ kakraa	Ɛyɛ ɛhɔ ne hɔ	Ɛyɛ	Ɛyɛ papaapa
4	Emmere dodoɔ sɛn na ɛba wotirim sɛ, anka wonyaa a anka woamfa wo tiri anko hye saa awareɛ yi mu?				
	Ensii da	Sɛ ɛtɔ mmere bia	Ɛyɛ hɔ ne hɔ	Ɛtae ba kakra	Aberɛ biara
5	Emmere dodoɔ sɛn na w'awareɛ tumi gyina yiye wɔ wo anidasɔɔ kwan ankasa so?				
	Ensi koraa	Kakraa bi	Ɛdeda mu	Ɛyɛ ara	Emmere nyinaa
6	Sɛn na wodɔ wo yere si fa?				
	Ɛnye papa bia	Kakraa bi	Ɛyɛ hɔ ne hɔ	Ɛyɛ ara	Papaapa

7	Ɔhaw dodoɔ sɛn na ɛwɔ w'awareɛ mu?				
	Kakraa bi koraa	Kakraa bi	Ɛho ne ho	Bebree	Bebree paa

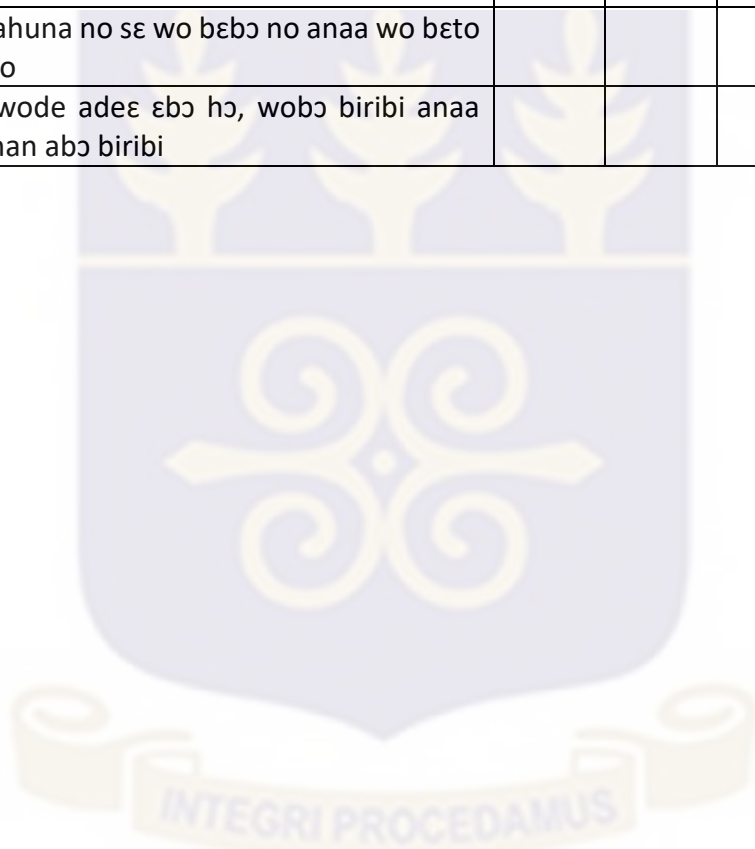
Below are statements about various household roles, indicate your level of agreement or disagreement by checking the appropriate box.

		Megye tum paa (0)	Megye tum (1)	Mfinfin (2)	Mengye ntum (3)	Mengye ntum koraa (5)
1	Ɛsɛ sɛ ɔberima boa fie nanso efie adeye ne nkwadaahwe ankasa dee, eye ɔbaa adwuma					
2	Ɛnye abre nyinaa dee nanso ne kwan so no, ɛsɛ ɔyere sɛ ɔnoa aduane na ɔhwe efie na okunu no nso yi sika bo abusua no ho bra					
3	Mmerima ankasa na ɛsɛ sɛ wofa abusua no ho adwene titiri biara					
4	Ɛwom sɛ nyiyim nye wo awareɛ mu mmom, nanso eye den a, ɔberima no na n'asɛm di mu					
5	Ɔbaa dee mmofra no hwe ne adeɛ a ɛho hia na ɔberima dee nso ne n'adwumaye					
6	Ɔberima adwuma dee, ɛho hia sen ɔbaa dee.					

Mesɛ wo, susu mmere dodoɔ a wode wo ho ahyɛ saa suban yi mu wo beyɛ sɛ afe ntɛm nie.

		Daabi da (0)	Baako pe (1)	Mienu (2)	Ɛboro mienu (3)
1	Sɛ woto adeɛ abɔ wohokafoɔ				
2	Sɛ wopia wohokafoɔ, woyere no anaa wowɔ no nkonsa				
3	Sɛ wobɔ wohokafoɔ asom				
4	Sɛ wotu wo nan, woka anaa woyere kutruku abɔ no				

5	Se wode adee ebo wohokafoɔ anaa anka wode ebo no				
6	Se wobo wohokafoɔ				
7	Se wode sekan anaa etuo ehunahuna wohokafoɔ				
8	Se wokura sekan anaa etuo				
9	Se woyeye wohokafoɔ anaa woka ntam wo n'anim				
10	Se womuna anaa wompe se wo ne no bedi nkɔmɔ afa adee bi ho				
11	Se wotwi afa ne so apie afiri edeem, efie anaa aboboano				
12	Se woye adee bi anaa aka asem bi ahye wohokafoɔ abufuo				
13	Se wohunahuna no se wo bebo no anaa wo beto biibi abo no				
14	Se woto, wode adee ebo ho, wobo biribi anaa wotu wo nan abo biribi				



APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW GUIDE

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Demographics:

Age:

Number of years of marriage:

Number of children:

Occupation:

Occupation of spouse:

Spouses' relative contribution to household income:

1. What are your roles as a husband?
2. What are the roles of your wife?
3. To what extent do you fulfil your roles as husband?
4. What roles do you share with your wife?
5. Do you partake in any domestic duties like sweeping, washing, cooking, cleaning and why?
6. Do you feel any less of a man because of your involvement domestic chores and why?
7. How do you feel about your wife adding to the family income?
8. In what ways is your wife's attitude different due to the fact that she contributes to the family income?
9. How does that make you feel as a husband?
10. How do you deal with the fact that your wife behaviour/attitude is different due to her contribution to the household income?
11. How satisfied are you in your marriage? Why?
12. How different is your parents' marriage from your current marriage by way of roles and which era?