Male Roles as Perceived by Children of Employed and Non-Employed Mothers

Mary Jane Williams Swapp

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MALE ROLES AS PERCEIVED BY CHILDREN OF EMPLOYED AND NON-EMPLOYED MOTHERS

by

Mary Jane Williams Swapp

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE
in
Family and Child Development

Approved:

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UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
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1970
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A special word of thanks is due my husband and daughter for their support throughout this study. I express my deepest gratitude to Tassha for her joyful, cooperative nature and to Dave, whose patience in all things defies description.

Mary Jane Williams Swapp
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This study was done to determine whether maternal employment affected the child's perception of male roles. The study was designed to see if the child viewed the male in a more negative or positive way or if he perceived the male as taking more instrumental or expressive roles when the child's mother was employed. The hypotheses predicted that there would be no difference in the children's perceptions of male roles between mother-employed and mother-not-employed groups, and that there would also be no difference between the sexes on children's perceptions of male roles.

The questionnaire was designed with some parts adapted from questionnaires used by Kagan and Lemkin (1960) and Aldous (1967). The questionnaire made use of drawings of family members which the children pointed to in response to questions about adult roles and sex role perceptions.

The children were from Cedar City, Utah. Twenty were children of employed mothers, and 20 were children of non-employed mothers. There
were ten girls and ten boys in the employed group and the same in the non-employed group.

The data did not permit rejection of the four null hypotheses. There was no significant difference found, with girls or with boys, on the frequency of negative and positive expression of attitudes on male role perception tests of children of employed and non-employed mothers. There was also no difference between the sexes on the frequency of instrumental and expressive responses between the employed and non-employed groups.

Each question was tested by chi square to determine if the distribution was due to chance. On only one question was the probability of a chance distribution rejected. The question dealt with who was the nicest between the mother and the father. When boys' mothers were employed, they viewed the father as the nicest, whereas girls viewed the father as being the nicest when the mother was not employed. When the results were analyzed with all the girls in one group and all of the boys in a different group without regard to maternal employment, some interesting differences were found. The boys perceived the father in a significantly more positive way than did the girls. This was a T-score test which was significant at the .01 level. The boys also viewed the father as taking many more expressive roles than the girls. This was significant at the .05 level. It was concluded that sex had a greater effect on the child's perceptions of male roles than did maternal employment.

(98 pages)
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

"Traditionally, mothers have played a very important and well-defined role in the American family. Today the role is not less important but it is not so clearly defined." (Duvall, 1955, p. 1)

Since the turn of the century, the role and activities of women have changed dramatically. Perhaps the most obvious of these changes has been the large increase in the number of women who have taken jobs outside the home. Over one-third of the work force in this country is composed of women (Nye and Hoffman, 1963). The number of women gainfully employed has steadily increased since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution and particularly since the beginning of the Second World War.

The U. S. Bureau of Labor statistics show the percentage of women who are gainfully employed goes up each year. With more and more women taking jobs outside the home, one sees a change in the roles of both men and women and also a change in family living patterns.

From 1870 to 1967, the percentage of the female population who were employed rose from 13.3 per cent in 1870 to 41.2 per cent in 1967. In that same time period, women increased their percentage in the total working population from 14.3 per cent to 35.1 per cent. In the seven years from 1960 to 1967 the percentage of female population who were gainfully employed went from 34.5 per cent to 41.2 per cent (Golenpaul, 1969). The trend shows that each decade the increase is sharper than the one preceding it. In numbers, there were 28,395,000 employed women in 1967. These statistics are effected somewhat by the fact that in the period from 1870 to 1930 the data relating to population and gainfully
employed workers deals with those age 10 and over. The data for 1966 and beyond relates only to people 16 and over.

A large percentage of these employed women have children. Although statistics have been mounting on the number of mothers who are gainfully employed, little attention has been given to the ways in which this employment affects the ways children perceive the mother role, and no attention has been given to the way they perceive the masculine roles. Studies to date on family role concept have dealt mostly with how the parents themselves regard their role or how older children and adolescents view family roles.

Since research has shown the importance of the early years on the child's cognitive and personality development, it seems most important to know more about those factors which affect his perception of parental roles. Because of this trend toward mothers spending large amounts of time outside the home, there is a need to determine the effect of such on children and whether the effect is positive or negative (Nye and Hoffman, 1963).

One aspect of the child's development which might be influenced by the mother's working is the child's perception of the parental roles in the home. Role definitions for parents are influenced by employment of the mother (Blood, 1962).

Specialists in child development maintain that how the child perceives adult roles is an essential factor in the normal patterns of growth and development of children (Biller, 1969; Hartley, 1964; Lynn, 1961; and Murstein, 1967). Perception refers to the way the child views the adult sex role and his awareness of it. "Sex role" refers to those sets of related cognitions maintained by subjects for objects designated as members of the female sex or male sex (Biddle, 1961).
Female roles are often defined as expressive roles and male roles as instrumental. Expressive roles are domestic, nurturant, and complementary to male roles. Instrumental roles are those that are powerful, competent, aggressive, and competitive. The way the child perceives the roles of adults can be affected by many things; for example, the absence of the father. Aldous (1967) compared boys of father-absent and father-present homes to see if they differ in their perceptions of the adult roles played by men and women. The following study compared the children of working and non-working mothers to see whether differences in perceptions of male roles are related to whether or not the mother is employed.

The male child learns the role that he will play in adult life in part through identification with his father. "The father is especially important for the development of the perception of boys. He provides a model for the boy's future potential as a man." (Lynn, 1961, p. 296)

To play any role successfully, the individual must have the necessary ability, motivation, and knowledge of the role (Brim and Stanton, 1966). Knowledge of the adult male role is gained by the child's observation of the father.

The female child derives many of her attitudes toward men from her perception of the way her own father fulfills his role.

For daughters, the father is representative of all men. It is largely from her father that a little girl learns her attitudes, feelings, and expectations of men that she will carry into marriage. (Lynn, 1961, p. 296)

Roles are an important factor in the marital choices and happiness in marriage. Couples have certain role expectations regarding each other and themselves. The extent to which these expectations are fulfilled has been shown to be associated with marital satisfaction. Roles are responsible to a large extent for whom a person chooses to marry and the success of the marriage.
Perception of the male role by the child will also be related to the kind of relationship the father and child are able to establish. The perception by the child of the male role is related to the boy's identification with his father, and the girl's attitudes and expectations of men, as well as to the interaction between father and child; therefore, perception is thought to be very important. Because perception is so important, there is a need to study any factor that may relate to it.

Research has been reported on the effect on the child, the husband, and the role perceptions of mother-roles in children (Nye, 1963). No studies have been reported on the relationship between the mother's employment and her children's perceptions of male roles.

It has been suggested that the working mother de-sexes her husband (Cotton, 1965). If there is a change in the husband's feelings about his role, or if the employment of his wife is related to a change in the role he plays, then it may be possible to observe differences in the way that children of working mothers perceive the male role.

If the way the male plays his role is affected by employment of the mother, both male and female children may see the masculine role in a different light. Presumably, the ability of a boy to play a masculine role would be affected, as would the ability of the girl to relate to men.

This study was initiated in spite of the author's awareness that differences in perception may be too subtle to be found with the types of measures of role perception one must use with young children. There are many studies on children's perceptions of adult roles, however, which indicate that such a conclusion is premature and that research can be done successfully (Aldous, 1967).
Statement of the Problem

There is insufficient research as to whether or not the employment of a mother is related to the male role perceptions of her children. The problem investigated by this study was whether or not the employment of the mother is related to the male role perceptions of her children.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine if children of employed mothers and non-employed mothers differ in their perceptions of masculine roles.

Objectives

The objectives of this study were:

1. To determine if there is a difference in the number of positive and negative expressions of attitudes, on tests of male role perception, of daughters of employed and non-employed mothers.

2. To determine if there is a difference in the number of positive and negative expressions of attitudes, on tests of male role perception, of sons of employed and non-employed mothers.

3. To determine if there is a difference in the number of instrumental and expressive responses, on tests of male role perception, of daughters of employed and non-employed mothers.

4. To determine if there is a difference in the number of instrumental and expressive responses, on tests of male role perception, of sons of employed and non-employed mothers.
Hypotheses

The hypotheses that were investigated included:

1. There is no significant difference in the frequency of negative and positive expressions of attitudes, on male role perception tests, of daughters of employed and non-employed mothers.

2. There is no significant difference in the frequency of negative and positive expressions of attitudes, on male role perception tests, of sons of employed and non-employed mothers.

3. There is no significant difference in the frequency of instrumental and expressive responses, on male role perception tests, of daughters of employed and non-employed mothers.

4. There is no significant difference in the frequency of instrumental and expressive responses, on male role perception tests, of sons of employed and non-employed mothers.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The Employed Mother

The sharp increase in the employment of the American mother has drawn great interest in recent years. One of the first questions to be asked was why have so many mothers taken employment outside the home. White (1962, p. 136) explained the increase as: "The overpowering currents to sweep women into the world of work were: increasing urbanization, the decline of farm population, technological change and medical progress, dropping birthrates, and rising longevity." Blood (1965) supported White’s finding on birthrate and also added that the early completion of child-rearing and the short work week were also bringing more women into the work force.

"Women enter the labor force for much the same reason as men: because they need money, wish to contribute to the welfare of their families or find employment outside the home both interesting and rewarding." (Thomas, 1964, p. 232)

As well as exploring the reasons of mothers' employment, many researchers have stated the need of finding what some of the results of employment might be.

The position of women in the economy has many moral implications, including the question of proper wages and working conditions, the effect on the home, and the impact on the manpower profile in general. (Quinn, 1962, p. 231)

Thomas (1964, p. 232) also found a need of more research:

Though we may safely assume that the current change will affect the dominal position of men as well as the structure and quality of marriage and family relationships we have
limited information concerning the full range of consequences. We need more facts and better understanding of their implications, and a serious reappraisal of the nature of significance of masculine-feminine complementarity.

The great number of women working has led to the creation of the Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor in September, 1954. The Bureau has tried to improve conditions and analyze the effects of women's employment.

The effects of mothers' employment on their husbands and children has drawn the attention of researchers as the participation of women in employment outside the home has increased. There have been studies to determine whether or not the power structure in families is changed by gainful employment of the mother. The following review will deal with literature in the areas of (1) the effects of maternal employment on the child, (2) the effects of maternal employment on the husband, and (3) the effects of maternal employment on the family power structure.

Maternal employment as it relates to family power structure

"The employment of mothers may be seen as part of a general trend toward a decrease in the differentiation of sex roles." (Nye and Hoffman, 1963, p. 304) It seems likely that employment would increase a woman's power in her relationship with her husband because of the socially defined importance of the monetary contribution.

Hoffman (1960) sought to determine whether the employment of the mother outside the home related to changes in family power structure. The sample included 342 intact families living in Detroit. Each family had at least one child of elementary school age. There were 89 of the families who were matched on such variables as ideological and situational factors.
The results showed that the employed mothers did fewer household tasks and engaged in fewer child care activities than non-employed mothers and that the husbands of the employed mothers participated more in child care and household tasks. Secondly, employed mothers had significantly less activity control or made fewer decisions about routine household matters than non-employed mothers, and their husbands had more control in this area.

The third hypothesis was tested by comparing power structure scores for the matched pairs of working and non-working mothers, and no difference was found. When the total sample was examined, however, it was found that working mothers did have more power. Hoffman's results, in the area of decision making, were supported in a study by Middleton and Putney (1960). They found that non-employed wives were more dominant in decision making than the working wives in all areas studied. There were only two exceptions in which there were no significant differences. They were the areas of purchasing and living standard.

In Heir's study (1958), findings were conflicting with those previously mentioned. His subjects were 138 Irish Roman Catholics in Boston. Each family had at least one child in elementary school. Thirty-three per cent of those asked to participate refused. There was a significant difference in both working class and middle class employed mothers in that they were found to have more influence in family decision making than non-employed mothers of both classes. Working class wives had more say in family decisions than middle class wives, regardless of whether either were employed.
Power is defined as the share group members have in originating group policy. In a study done to determine whether husband-dominated families become more equalitarian as a result of the wife's employment, Blood (1963) studied 160 couples who had been married from one to six years. Half of the wives were employed full-time and half were housewives. He found that employed wives changed toward equalitarian expectations over a period of time. Housewives changed toward traditional authority expectations. No statistical differences were found in the authority expectations of the two groups of husbands. There was a difference in the amount of housework done by the husbands with the employed-wife group doing significantly more.

**Summary.** These studies show that employed wives do fewer household tasks and fewer child care activities while their husbands do more. Working women make fewer decisions about routine household tasks and show more power in relation to husbands in non-household areas.

The results also suggest that women's employment does not affect family power structure directly, but only in interaction with the pre-existing ideologies and personalities of the actors. It seems that power relationships, unlike division of labor, are either too deeply intertwined with psychological needs to respond readily to an outside stimulus or the mother's employment is too weak a stimulus. (Nye and Hoffman, 1963, p. 230)

**Maternal employment as it affects husbands**

Husbands of employed mothers are affected by their wives working in that they have to do more household tasks and take care of the children more often. The following studies were done to determine other effects of maternal employment on husbands.

Marital adjustment is one area of the husband-wife relationship that has been well researched. In a study by Gover (1963), 361 wives
in Greenboro, North Carolina, were tested. They were white and married, and their families were intact. There was a significant difference between the marital adjustment scores of employed and non-employed wives. There was better marital adjustment among non-employed wives' marriages, especially in the working class marriages. There was a positive relationship between the wife's preferred employment status and what she did. There was also a positive relationship between the husband's and wife's agreement on the working status of the wife.

Similar results were found when couples were studied in three groups (Gianopulos and Howard, 1957). The first group had 32 couples with employed wives, and their husbands disapproved. In the second group, 43 of the couples had employed wives and the husbands approved. The other 59 couples had wives who did not work. The marital adjustment schedule included four main areas: (1) Domestic and Economic field, (2) Socio-Biographical factors, (3) Personal factors, and (4) Parental-Social relationship. Chi square was used in the analyses of the data, and 12 out of 14 areas were not significantly different. In the areas of recreation and personality disagreement there was a difference. In all instances of difference, it was the working wife-husband disapprove group which received greater amounts of conflict. The husband-disapprove group also showed great differences in which areas each felt that they had conflict.

Nye (1961) found that marital adjustment among employed wife couples was affected by the educational level of the couple. Conflict in marriage from employed women seems less intense in the higher educational levels. The attitude of wives and husbands toward working made no difference except that those wives who wished to work and did not were more likely to be characterized by dissatisfaction with their marriage.
Four measures were used to determine social economic status: age and number of children, duration of employment, marital status, and attitude of the wife toward employment and the husband's attitude toward his wife's employment. It was also found that the relationship between maternal employment and marital adjustment is limited to the original marriages with no relationship between the two variables in the remarried population.

Blood (1963) found that working wives with low status jobs have better marital adjustment than those employed in high status jobs. Low or high status is interpreted comparatively according to the occupational status of the two marriage partners. Dissatisfaction is created in situations where the wife is forced to work by the husband's occupational inadequacy. Also, in this study, marital adjustment was found to be higher among non-employed wives.

Axelson (1963) did a study on the attitudes of husbands as related to the marital adjustment of employed mothers. Questionnaires were sent to 122 married mates in a small western town. A six-item scale was used for assessing marital adjustment. Husbands of working wives showed strong reservations about the effects of the wife's employment on her traditional role of wife and mother. Husbands of working wives were significantly less inclined to define her employment as a threat to masculine status than were husbands of non-employed wives. Both sets of husbands viewed women working that were mothers of pre-school children as a bad thing, but husbands of working wives thought it was less of a threat. Evidence was found to support previous research indicating that poorer marital adjustment occurs in the families in which the wife is employed. The study by Thompson and Finkayson (1969) also confirmed these findings.
Maternal employment is producing a more symmetrical family structure with greater equality between husbands and wives and between sons and daughters. Short-run effects frequently differ for sons versus daughters, the masculine side of the family appearing demoralized as a result of the father's relative loss of status (Blood, 1965).

An effect on husbands that has not been noted before is the possible change in values brought about by the employment of the mother. Whitehurst (1964) studied 45 employed and 38 non-employed women in Lafayette, Indiana. He found that employed women, significantly more than non-employed women, stressed economic values, rather than children, as the important value of marriage. He also found that the standard of living was higher in the working wife group, but that companionship was stressed in the non-working group. There were no significant differences in the satisfaction of the wives with the amount of help their husbands were at home and no significant difference between the feelings of husbands toward their wife's employment. The majority of husbands in both groups disliked the idea of the wife working. The employed wife group wanted more children, and the non-employed group lived in more traditional family-oriented value patterns. Schissel's work (1967) supports the above results, as he found that employed women were more "thing" interested, whereas the non-employed women were more "people" interested.

It has been assumed that maternal employment shifts household tasks and child care to the husband. Gillette (1962) found some differences related to race and social class. He studied 663 mothers in Washington, D. C., of intact homes, in which each was the mother of at least one child of elementary school age. Half of the sample mothers were employed, and half were not employed. Over half were middle class, and about half of them were Negro and half white. Gillette found that
Gillette found that the Negro mothers viewed maternal employment as less intrusive on family life than did the white mothers. Also, the Negro fathers participated in household care more than the white fathers. There was also a significant difference in the middle and working class group in that the middle class mother did more household and child care tasks than the lower class mother, and the same was true of the middle class father. The working class mother was employed for economic gain and family goals, whereas middle class mothers were employed to gain greater independence and extra familial development and to gain personal goals. One benefit that might be gained by the husband of an employed mother is the lessening stress of meeting family expenses.

Caudle (1963) reported that half the sample of 510 were employed mothers who worked in clerical jobs, and the other half were full-time housewives. One half of the employed group worked to buy extra things or to meet family living expenses. Three-fourths of the husbands approved of the wives' employment, and two-thirds of the children of these mothers approved. The average take-home pay of these employed women was $2,734 per year. Monthly job-related expenditures ranged from 24 to 50 per cent, with the higher percentage being for mothers who paid babysitters. There was no significant difference between employed and full-time homemakers in expenditures for: laundry, dry cleaning, recreation, church and charity, support of relatives, annual vacation, and clothing. A greater percentage of full-time employed women owned every equipment item listed. It would probably be assumed from the above study that the money earned by the wife would generally go for family items, rather than to be spent on herself.
Manning (1968) studied the attitudes of men about their wives working at the University of Arizona. He questioned 187 male graduate students by dividing them into three groups: (1) unmarried, (2) married with no children, and (3) married with children. He found the following attitudes:

1. Husbands were generally in favor of their wives working if the stages of life were viewed as a group.
2. Husbands were most willing for them to work before they had children and after the children became more independent.
3. Husbands felt that economic need was an acceptable reason for a wife working.
4. More husbands wanted their wives to work for personal gain rather than for the extra money.
5. Unmarried men said they would rather their future wives work than do more leisure activities.
6. Husbands said they would rather have their wives work than watch television, listen to the radio, shop for leisure, or do more housework.

Weil (1961) found that the husband's attitude toward the wife's employment had a great deal to do with whether or not she would seek gainful employment. Wives whose husbands were willing to help with the house and approved of their wives being employed were more likely to go to work. She found that as employment varied from full-time to none at all that the number of women filling a companionate role decreased steadily.

Wise (1964) studied two generations of women to see if they defined homemaking roles in the same way. The two generations did view roles in the same way, and their concepts of a woman's roles were predominantly traditional. These perceptions of roles did not agree with the present
involvement of women in our country in a new role as a modern homemaker in a more nearly equalitarian family. Many of these women were employed, but there was the typical cultural lag in which behavior precedes changes in ideals (Ross, 1963).

Changes in social practice begin slowly and are expressed by actions and participation long before they are acknowledged verbally. As soon as the majority affirms a practice, then the ideal loses its value. (Wise, 1964, p. 67)

There was no difference among Mormons and non-Mormons in any of the areas of response. There was a relationship between the husband's attitude toward women working and the wife's work orientation for both generations of women. These women valued the traditional role of wife and mother. The most important single influence on their definition of the ideal role for women was the attitude of the husband.

Luke (1968) found that fathers feel more responsible for such dimensions of parenthood as discipline, teaching moral values, homework, and bedtime activities; they are less concerned with routine care and babysitter arrangements. All of the fathers in this study wanted their wives to be at home while they have children in the home. When the wife was employed, the situation in the home was affected. The husband is more likely to do more of the daily care tasks, both child care and household, in this situation.

The amount of help with household tasks seems to have a great bearing on whether or not women will accept employment outside the home. Mark (1964) found that the extra time gained in performing specific household tasks by improved forms of technology has been associated to the rising labor force participation by women.

Summary. The relationship of employment status to marital adjustment has been subjected to the test variables of socio-economic status, age and number of children in the family, duration of employment, the contingent
conditions of marital status, and attitude of both wife and husband toward her employment.

The data suggest that the effect of employment on marital adjustment is less in the higher socio-economic families than in the lower. The differences between employed and non-employed almost disappears in the higher occupational and educational categories.

The impact of the wife's employment on marriage seems well-established: (a) the wife decreases her housekeeping activities while the husband increases his by performing masculine tasks more unilaterally and by helping with feminine tasks, (b) in many families the pressure for revising the division of labor results in conflict between husband and wife over marriage roles, and (c) the power shifts in the direction of the wife having a greater voice in major economic decisions and a lesser voice in routine household decisions.

Husband and wife joint activities change toward more interaction in leisure time. There is a reduction in the amount of leisure time available when housework must be confined to off-work hours. Work interferes with the more time-consuming uses of leisure.

**The effects of maternal employment on children**

The relationship of maternal employment to the well being and normal development of the child has been of great concern to research and especially to mothers. The satisfaction of the child's physical needs, safety, and emotional needs has traditionally been almost completely the role of the mother. Investigations of children reared in institutions showed that these children were inferior in intellectual, emotional, and physical development. Whether the child of the employed
mother suffers some type of "maternal deprivation" has been the focus of empirical studies for some time.

There has been so much concern about the children of employed mothers that the Children's Bureau has made up guides for communities and helped plan and demonstrate projects to help children of employed mothers. Maternal and child health care focusing on disease protection and preventative medicine has been one of the major projects. One of the most popular and productive tools employed in the education program are publications for parents (Oettinger, 1953).

The Children's Bureau in a report entitled "Working Mothers and the Development of Children" indicated that they believed that the children of working mothers are not necessarily harmed by their mother's absence provided adequate substitutes are provided. However, they did urge that studies were needed in this area. Their studies dealing with substitutes found that suitable provisions were difficult to find for a child under the age of six and just about impossible for children under three.

Even though it is difficult to find proper care of children, nearly half of the women who are employed are mothers. As a consequence of the shortage of female workers from age 18 to 34, employers have reduced their discrimination against older women and married women. Employers have been forced to actively seek such labor. In response to this rise in job opportunities, older women and especially married women have entered the labor force in great numbers (Oppenheimer, 1968).

White (1962) found that most of the nation's working mothers seem to have no strong internal commitment to work. They value their family role far above their role in the labor force.
Duvall (1955) sought to determine whether or not children's perceptions of mother roles were affected by the employment of their mothers. Two matched groups consisting of 60 kindergarten and first grade children served as subjects of the study. Half of them were children of employed mothers, and half were children of housewives. The groups were matched on such factors as sex, age, presence or absence of other children in the family, occupation of the father, religion, and sibling position. The sample represented an occupational cross section of Tallahassee, Florida.

The purpose of this study was: (1) to determine whether there are significant differences between the ways in which children of working mothers and children of mothers not gainfully employed perceive the mother role, and (2) to determine whether differences occurring in the responses regarding the mother role are evoked by photographs and by simple line drawings of the same situation.

Roles depicted in the pictures included mother assisting child at bath time, bedtime, and meal time; mother as religious teacher, companion, source of affection, disciplinarian, teacher; and mother as person caring for child during illness, as economic provider, as protector, as housekeeper or cook, and as contributor to the species.

The subjects were requested to, "Tell me a story about this picture," "Who helps you?" and "Who would you like to help you?"

The results were as follows: (1) statistically significant differences were found between identification of the mother in the role of preparing food and caring for the child during illness, (2) selecting the mother as the person who usually carried these same roles as the child preferred them to was more often the case among non-employed mothers' children, and (3) preference for the mother working was found more with the child of employed mothers than with non-employment. There was a difference in the
two instruments, the line drawings and the photographs, in only three areas.

Finkelman (1967) reported: (a) There is more overall sharing of task and decisions between mothers and fathers when the mother is employed. (b) Non-employed mothers make more decisions and do more tasks than employed mothers. (c) When the wife is employed the husband does more tasks and makes more decisions. (d) The sex of the child makes no difference in decisions or duties. (e) No differences were found in the personalities of mothers based on employment status, social class, or sex of the child seen in the study. (f) There is no significant difference in the children's perception of his parents as nurturing or authority figures based on social class membership, employment status, or sex of the child. In general, the perception of the parental role appeared to be confused.

Hartley (1965) feels that the effect of maternal employment on boys' role identification process is very unclear. There may be role problems caused by dual or multiple-model identification because of being tended.

McCord, McCord, and Thurber (1965) found that maternal employment decreased the status of the father in both stable and unstable homes. He studied 45 boys of employed mothers and 95 boys of non-employed mothers over a five-year period. In stable homes it was also found that maternal employment decreased sibling rivalry and increased sexual anxiety. In the unstable home, maternal employment also decreased rivalry, but it increased dependency and criminality. It was concluded that maternal employment has a different meaning in stable and unstable homes. In the former it tends to equalize status between the sexes making sex role adjustment more difficult and in the latter may be interpreted by the child as rejection.

Several studies have been done to determine whether maternal employment affects child rearing practices. Fifty employed and 50 non-employed
mothers' families were studied by Yarrow et al. (1962). The families consisted of one to four children between the ages of four and seven in Washington, D. C. Twenty dependent variables were studied, such as independence training, emotional relationship, showing warmth and confidence, and reasonable consistency.

The greatest problems with good mothering was shown by women who wished to work but did not. Employed mothers, whether they wished to or not, did not show a difference. Education of the mother made a difference in that high school educated ones exerted firmer control and assigned greater responsibilities and delegated a stricter disciplinary role to the father. College educated mothers tend to compensate for time away with more planned activities (Yarrow, Scott, De Leeuw, and Heining, 1962).

Sharp concluded that whether or not good mothering takes place in homes were the mother was employed probably had to do with the reason that she had sought work in the first place.

Perhaps women work for two types of reasons. It would seem that if working permits both personal expression of interests and skills and economic contribution to the family life then employment of the mother may promote family cohesion. If they work in order to express neurotic pressures from within their own personalities, then employment of the mother may lead to a breakdown in the quality of family interaction. In noting mothers' employment, therefore, sociologists may be citing a very complex phenomenon which has only a contingent effect upon family life. (Sharp, 1960, p. 715)

It appears that maternal employment is not as great a factor in the development of children in the area of personality adjustment as one might assume. Burchinal and Rossman (1961) studied 1,172 subjects in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, who ranged in age from seventh to eleventh grade. Personality characteristics of children were measured, such as: obsessional feelings, oversensitivity to others excessive introspection, upper respiratory complaints, fatigue, anxiety fright, etc. Social relationships dealt with such things as intelligence scores, school activity, grades and
absence from school, etc. He found: (1) no relationship between maternal employment indices and selected personality characteristics of children, and (2) no relationship between maternal employment indices and social relationship patterns of children.

These results were supported in a study by Hand (1957). He studied 102 children and classified them as either well or maladjusted. It was found that no significant difference exists between children of employed and non-employed mothers on the variable of adjustment.

Scott (1966) found children of employed mothers were significantly better adjusted than non-employed mothers' children. Causation is not established, and the author states that these mothers may find these children easy to cope with so they are able to seek employment. One area in which children of employed mothers score consistently higher is the area of motivation and achievement (Podell, 1962; Epps, Katz, and Axelson, 1964).

Summary. It seems that the most important factor to be considered in determining the effect of maternal employment on the children is the attitude of the mother. "Maternal employment has a different effect on the mother-child relationship and on the child's behavior depending on whether or not the mother enjoys working." (Nye and Hoffman, 1963, p. 361)

There is also evidence that women who are full-time housewives but would rather be working are the worst mothers, as a group.

Higher education and income seems to lessen adverse effects because of the mother's compensation. Studies show no effect on adjustment of children when the mother is employed. There does appear to be greater motivation and achievement among children of employed mothers. If proper substitutes are provided, the effects are, of course, lessened in all areas.

Research findings do seem to indicate that maternal employment per se is not the overwhelmingly influential factor in children's lives that some have thought it to be.
Person Perception in Children

Perception deals with the way in which other persons are experienced by the perceivers. It is the dimension in which the other person is experienced and how uniquely and complexly he is comprehended.

Authors do not believe that the child's perception of the parent is solely a function of each parent's behavior toward the child. The mass media, peer communications, and the content of children's books depict the adult male as competent, aggressive, and powerful. These sources of communication describe the mother as loving, weak, and subordinate (Bennett and Cohen, 1956; and Child, Potter, and Levine, 1946). Answers to questions are, therefore, influenced by these stereotyped conceptions. Perceptions is affected by cultural expectations. Extrafamilial communication also influences the child's perception of his parents.

The child's conceptualizations of the significant roles and people in his life are apt to be the result of an interaction between his direct experiences with these social entities and the stereotyped labels he acquires through contact with symbolic representations of these roles.

Campbell and Yarrow (1963) see a great need for more research in the area of person perception. They emphasize the importance of the studies being carefully administered. Often the studies that have been done are difficult to interpret because the experimenters have not been careful in describing them.

In a study done on children's perceptions of persons in a new social situation, it was discovered that older, active, friendly children gave more complex person perceptions, whereas less active, backward children's perceptions were brief and simple in nature (Campbell and Yarrow, 1963). This study shows that the situation
will have an effect on the perception of a person and also that the personality of the person affects his perception. These findings were supported by a study done by Baker and Block (1957). Their research dealt with favorableness of self-description as related to a person's perception. Subjects who were high in favorableness tended to score high on perception of other persons. Subjects scoring middle and low on favorableness of self-description tests also scored low on a person perception test though the difference between the middle and low groups was not significant.

Perception is related to sex and age. This was found in a study by Fiedler and Kohn (1961) at the University of Illinois. They found that older subjects perceived more differences in personality traits than the younger subjects. Also, they noted the females tend to describe themselves and others more favorably than do males.

Emmerich (1959) also found the sex and age of the perceiver to be important variables. He studied children of intact, middle class families. The results were as follows: (1) as a child gets older he discriminates parent roles as having more power and children as having less power, (2) children perceive their lack of parental power but less clearly conceive of the child role as complementary and subordinate to the parent role, (3) facilitating behavior is allocated more to the mother's role and interfering behavior more to the father's sex role, and (4) girls see the mother as more powerful than the father but see themselves as less powerful than the boy.

In a study done to analyze children's attitudes toward their fathers, 388 children of ages 10 to 12 years were studied. Forty-seven per cent of the children were male, and 53 per cent were females, and they were all from families with three or less children. Thirty
criticisms that were negative were used, and a list of 15 positive acts that a child might wish his father to do was used. For the group, the average negative criticism was 5.8. The average of positive criticisms was 3.7. On the negative list boys were more critical or more frank than girls, and both sexes disliked the same things in the father; namely, punishment, general irritability, poor adjustment with the mother, and absence from home. The children list as the most desirable things they would like from their fathers: an allowance, more money, more freedom to play and go to shows, and more conversation with the father. Fathers were found to spend more recreational time with their daughters. The findings were as follows: (1) the large difference between boys and girls suggesting the existence of definite relatively dichotomous sex-role pattern in young children, (2) mixed preference pattern in some children, indicating acceptance of components of both the male and the female roles (this tendency was about twice as frequent in girls as in boys), (3) evidence for the assumption of greater prestige and value in the male compared to the female role in young children was found, and (4) boys show significantly greater preference for the masculine role than girls show for the feminine role (Gardner, 1947).

Finch (1955) studied how children perceive their parents by studying 20 families with professional fathers in the city of Tallahassee, Florida. The families had at least two children ages three to seven. All the mothers were full-time housewives. The children were asked such questions as, "What is a mother?" In 50 per cent of the times, the children would answer with something to do with household tasks. In 25 per cent of the cases the children answered that she was something to do with child care. When the children were asked, "What is a daddy?" 75 per cent of the responses said an economic provider.
Kagan and Lemkin (1960) found that young children label the father as more punitive, more competent, and as a source of power and fear. The mother was viewed as more nurturant. Girls viewed the father with more ambivalence than the boys. Girls perceived fathers as more hostile and more affectionate. It is suggested that the six-year-old boy has begun to identify with his father and is forced to repress some of the father's fear arousing and undesirable traits.

All methods of questioning elicited like results on questioning dealing with fear, competency, punitiveness, niceness, and gift giving. The direct questions elicited significantly more evasive answers than the indirect questions.

In another study by Kagan (1956) he studied 217 children aged six to ten. The majority of these children saw the mother as friendliest, less punitive, less dominant, and less threatening than the father (p > 0.01).

There was, however, a consistent tendency for the older children to be more likely than the younger children to view the parent of the same sex as more dominant and punitive. Kagan found similar results when studying children ages 10 to 13.

The child's conceptualization of the parental roles and the specific characteristics he attributes to each parent are relevant to several theoretical issues. In describing the course of the child's identifications during the early school years, it has been suggested that the choice of parental models for identification is determined by the child's perception of parental differences in power, competence, and nurturance (Kagan, 1958; Maccoby, 1959). Moreover, Parsons and Bales (1955) have suggested that the mother's role is primarily concerned with maintaining warm, integrated, interpersonal relations. The paternal role prescription
calls for instrumental skills and the ability to adapt to the environment. Thus, information on the child's perception of his parents may clarify problems associated with the identification process and test the validity of Parson's dichotomy of parental roles.

Semantics is a second area which draws its theoretical statements from the individual's perception of the environment. Young adults often use the conceptual dimensions in their categorization of a wide variety of objects; i.e., evaluation (good vs. bad), potency (strong vs. passive). It is possible that these ingrained modes of conceptualization of "maleness" and "femaleness" are colored by these earlier perceptions (Kagan and Lemkin, 1960).

Traditional conceptions of parenthood are changing because urban conditions are forcing the father to turn over to the public and social agencies many of the functions that formerly constituted his role.

Another reason for the change in perception of father roles is the increased frequency of the mother's working which is further robbing the father of, or changing his role as, the sole supporter and provider for the family. The father may tend to withdraw from active interaction in the family, but so far his function is still authoritarian. (Cavan, 1953, p. 516)

Summary

The studies cited show that there are many different factors which may affect the perception of a person. Factors such as age, sex, personality, attitudes about self, cultural expectations, mass media, all appear to have some effect on a person's perception. According to Duvall (1954) and Cavan (1953), maternal employment may be a factor affecting the perception of parent roles by children.
Sex Role Identification in Children

Sex role refers to those sets of related cognitions about people maintained by subjects for objects designated as members of the female or male sex. The cognitions may be first order (i.e., perceptions of what females do) or second order attributed expectations (such as what females like to do) (Biddle, 1961).

Sex role learning begins early and is an on-going part of socialization. It is important for children to learn sex roles because a role gives the child a pattern of consistent behavior which guides his actions in specific social settings (Turner, 1962).

Power structure is important in the home because it sets the pattern for children to learn roles. How men and women play their roles has a great deal to do with the power structure in the family. Men who tend to play their roles in a strong, instrumental fashion usually create patriarchal homes. Women who tend to be forceful and instrumental in nature are associated with matriarchal families. In families where the power is divided evenly between husband and wife, the pattern is egalitarian. Bronfenbrenner (1968) reported greater sex-role differentiation among children from homes in which the parental roles were differentiated. He also said we can look forward to an ever increasing number of equalitarian families who in turn will produce successive generations of ever more adaptable, but unaggressive, organization men. "The democratic family tends to produce young people who do not take initiative, look to others for direction and decisions and cannot be counted on to fulfill obligations." (Bronfenbrenner, 1968, p. 101)

Matriarchy is the best situation for development of the motivation to excel (Strodtbeck, 1955; Rosen and D'Andrade, 1959). High achievement is motivated by an atmosphere of "cold democracy" under female
administration. Another reason that power structure is important in this study is that the employed mother may change the power structure (Cotton, 1965; Nye and Hoffman, 1963).

In studies by Bronfenbrenner (1958) and Biller (1968), low masculinity was found in boys who came from homes where fathers played traditionally feminine roles, which would indicate that low masculinity in boys was related to the maternal employment because of their father doing household tasks and child care duties.

Many studies on children have been carried out to determine when children start to take on sex roles. Sex roles are learned to a large degree by identification taking place after perception. The following studies show that perception of sex roles starts at an early age.

One study found that children two years of age showed sexual differences in their choice of toys (Benjamin, 1932). Sex roles showed up in play preferences in children of three and four years (Hartrup and Zook, 1960; Rabban, 1950).

Pressure from parents also has an important effect on children taking sex roles. "By at least the age of four or five most boys and girls are aware that their parents expect them to prefer sex-type activities." (Faub and Smith, 1956, p. 108). From these studies we see that the sex roles are learned to a large degree by identification with parents and observation of parents.

Identification is a process whereby the behavior of an individual which serves to confirm to him his perceived similarity to another person becomes intrinsically rewarding. Consequences of identification include the development of conscience, adult-role behavior, and sex typing. (Rau, 1962, p. 260)

The parent has two functions in the identification process: as a model and as a determining influence on motivation. Characteristics which will determine the parental effectiveness as a model include clarity
and explicitness of goals and sanctions communicated to the child, and the consistency and agreement between the parents. As a determinant of motivation, the parent functions to provide gratification or frustration of dependency and mastery. Variables influencing dependency as a motive for identification include: maternal warmth, empathy, permissiveness and reward of dependency, rejection, separation, and control through withdrawal of love. It is also suggested that the development of sex-typed behavior may be related to an additional set of variables defining the father's role in the family and attitudes regarding sex appropriate behavior (Rau, 1962).

Biller (1968) found the following multi-aspect conception of masculine development to be the important variables: (1) the degree to which the father is available as masculine, nurturant, and a setter of limits; and (2) the degree to which the mother encourages masculine behavior. Biller's findings were supported by Johnson (1963) when he said that the father shows differentiation between sons and daughters, and in this way they get appropriate sex role learning. The major proposition was that it is identification with the father, in a sense of internalizing a reciprocal role relationship with him, which is crucial for producing appropriate sex and role orientations in both males and females.

The hypothesis rests on the theory that initially boys and girls identify with the mother, but that this identification is not sex typed. However, the next stage of identification with the father, which comes after the infantile dependency on the mother, is crucial for appropriate sex role behavior. The father makes a differentiation between his sons and his daughters. Toward his son he primarily acts instrumentally, while toward his daughter he primarily acts expressively.
Although biological differentiation of the sexes is an innate process, the behavior patterns, including overt actions, interest, values, and preferences, associated with such dichotomous biological differentiation appears to be governed in large measure by social learning conditions. Thus, Seward (1935) observed that the individual is trained to his sex role from the moment of birth when girls are placed in pink bassinets and boys in blue bassinets. Ferguson (1941), in a study of masculinity-femininity patterns in college students, found that childhood learning experiences were crucial determinants of adult sex-role behavior and adjustment.

Constitutional predispositions can be modified a great deal through experience. This was found in clinical cases of children reared as if they were of opposite sex (Seward, 1935). Studies by Hampson (1965), Hathaway (1934), and Money (1965) determined that individuals with sex-role incongruencies had in a general way taken on whichever gender role was ascribed to them in infancy.

Another variable which may affect sex role behavior is the dominance of one parent over the other. In a study by Biller (1969), the relationship among 186 kindergarten boys' perceptions of their fathers' dominance, their fathers' dominance in father-mother interaction, and different aspects of the boys' sex-role development was explored. Three aspects of sex role were considered: orientation (self-perception of maleness and/or femaleness), preference (the individual's preferential set toward socially defined representations of sex role), and adoption (the individual's masculinity and/or femininity as viewed by members of his society). The results suggested the father dominance influences different aspects of sex role to varying degrees (orientation the most, adoption the least), and that the boy's perception of his father's
relative dominance is more related to the boy's masculine development than the degree of his father's dominance in father-mother interaction. A high level of maternal encouragement for masculine behavior seemed to facilitate preference development. A high mental age and a masculine physique were related to adoption development (Biller, 1969).

Another investigation regarding effects of sex of the dominant parent on sex role preferences, parent-child similarity, and the child imitation of the parent was conducted on three different age groups of children. Paternal dominance was found to facilitate imitation in both boys and girls. Maternal dominance was related to disruption in the formation of male sex role preferences in boys and in low father-son similarity. Paternal dominance had little effect on sex role preferences in girls or on mother-daughter similarity, but paternal dominance was related to increased father-daughter similarity (Hetherington, 1965).

Strodtbeck and Creelan (1968) found that family size and birth intervals may have an effect on sex role identity. It is predicted that masculinity will be maximal in intermediate sibling sets and that opportunities for overmothering, leading to unconscious feminity, are likely in families where there are large age gaps. Complex parent-child and sibling relations may with birth intervals account for sex role identity.

Hartley (1962) found that maternal employment may have some effect on sex role identification. The 57 subjects aged 5 to 11 were equally divided between those whose mothers worked and those who did not. Play, pictoral, and purely verbal techniques were employed. Results showed little change in the traditional picture of women's roles. In relation to the assignment of work-role activities to women, the work status of the mother had a significant effect in that more sons of working mothers than sons of non-working mothers assigned work role activities to women.
More lower middle class and working class boys mentioned non-traditional domestic activities for men than did boys from upper middle class homes.

Sixty-four per cent of the children saw women as uncomfortable about going to work and leaving their children at home. Thirty-six per cent said that women felt good about going to work.

Significantly more daughters of non-working mothers gave "housewife" as primary choice for future role than did daughters of working mothers. It would seem that the forms of sex role activities have changed, but that the function has not.

Vroegh (1968) did a study on kindergarten children and found that sex role adoption was important even at that age and that girls who were highly feminine and boys who were highly masculine were more socially adjusted than children with less strong sex role adoption.

The most masculine and least masculine boys and the most feminine and least feminine girls were selected from teachers' pair comparisons and rated by teachers on 60 personality variables. The sample consisted of 291 boys and 269 girls. Regression weights from the earlier study were used to calculate discriminant scores for each child. A two-way analysis of variance between discriminant scores for the most masculine and least masculine boys rated by two groups of teachers was computed. The same analysis was computed for girls' scores. The findings of the earlier study were found to be valid, indicating that most masculine preschool boys tend to be more extroverted, competent, and socially adjusted than the least masculine boys; and the most feminine preschool girls tend to be more socially adjusted, competent, and introverted than the least feminine girls.

Ward (1969) also studied kindergarten children to measure sex role preference. Analysis of variance suggested the following generalizations: (1) sex-role preferences are established for both sexes by the age of
five, (2) identification occurs earlier for girls than for boys, (3) preference precedes adoption for both sexes, and (4) adoption and identification occur at the same time among girls but in sequence among boys.

Summary

From the studies cited it is apparent that family power structure affects sex role adoption in children. This may be especially important in view of the fact that the employment of the mother sometimes changes the family power structure. Sex role identification, preference, and adoption take place at a very early age, at least by the age of five.

Another important factor in sex role identification is the modeling and motivation given by parents. The fathers' differential behavior toward boys and girls and the encouragement of the mother of masculine behavior in boys and feminine behavior in girls is demonstrated.

Sex role behavior is primarily a product of experience from birth and the sex role ascribed to the child by other people. Parental dominance also seems to affect sex role with the most healthy results being in homes where the father is dominant. In homes where the mother is dominant, the male sex role formation is disrupted. Children who have strongly adopted sex roles have better social adjustment than other children.

The effects of maternal employment on sex role behavior is unclear. The only results that showed significant differences between employed and non-employed mother children were in the area of work-role activities for mothers. Boys of employed mothers assigned employment activities to mothers more often than did non-employed mothers' sons. Daughters of employed mothers also predicted themselves as being employed after they are married more often than did daughters of non-employed mothers.
"The interactional framework is a system for viewing the personal relationship between husband and wife and parents and children." (Schvaneveldt, 1966, p. 97) In this framework the family is studied as relationships of personalities. Each member of the family has a position and a number of roles assigned to him.

The interactional framework is one in which the child observes the roles played by family members and incorporates these roles or "me's" into his own personality structure.

"Usually, symbolic interaction refers to processes in socialization. Symbolic interaction is characterized by a social-psychological emphasis." This is also called action theory, role theory, and role process approach. "Symbolic interaction, cradled in social-psychological theory, concerns itself with the processes of socialization of the child and development of personality." (Stryker, 1959, p. 113) The concept of roles is the core of the framework.

Symbolic environment is the environment as it is mediated through significant symbols. It is based on learning means and values. The person must define the situation before he can act, that is, as he represents it to himself in symbolic terms. Only man has a symbolic environment. (Stryker, 1959, p. 114)

The study of children's perception can utilize the symbolic interactional, theoretical framework. The child perceiving the role is, initially, in his way defining that role. He must do this before he can act on it. He represents the role to himself in symbolic terms, and he is then ready to act. This defining or perceiving must be done before the child is able to act. This research studied employment of the mother as it may be a factor in the way the child perceives one of these roles--the role being that of the adult male.
The author found a need to study if maternal employment affects the way children perceive male roles. The study filled a gap by seeing if children of employed and non-employed mothers differ in negative and positive expressions of attitudes toward male roles and if they differ in responses of expressive and instrumental male role taking.
CHAPTER III
METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Setting

This study was carried out in Cedar City, Utah. The population is 8,000, not including Southern Utah State College, which has an enrollment of nearly 2,000. The community is racially and religiously homogeneous, with about 97 per cent of the population Caucasian, and an estimated 95 per cent of the residents are members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormon).

Occupationally, the majority of the people in Cedar City are employed in agriculture with an emphasis on livestock. Additional employment opportunities are available in mining or education.

The Southern Utah State College influence is felt in the cultural and educational level of the members of the community. In general, Cedar City is a typical college town.

Sample

Population

The subjects were taken from two of the three elementary schools in Cedar City. The schools were chosen to obtain the most representative population. The North Elementary School is located in an area where people own their own homes, rent, or live in trailer courts. This area has both people who are stable and who are transient.

The South Elementary School has a greater population of permanent people and a greater percentage of people who are professional. In a
general sense the author felt that the North Elementary School would represent lower middle and middle class families and that the South Elementary School would represent middle and upper middle class families. This is in reference to the general situation in each area, but it should be pointed out that there would probably be some upper middle class families who live in the northern part of Cedar City and some lower middle class families who live in the southern part of town. There is no one area that is completely slums nor an area with all new, expensive homes.

The sample was selected by first locating the population of employed mothers. Only those that had been employed for one year just prior to the study and worked at least 35 hours per week were included in the study. There were about 55 women in this group. The names of the children of these women, who were in kindergarten or first grade at the time of the study, were written on slips of paper and divided with the boys in one group and the girls in another. Then the names of ten girls and ten boys were drawn.

After the random sample of ten boys and ten girls of employed mothers was drawn, they were matched to 20 children of non-employed mothers. The matching was done on the basis of sex, age, and geographic residence. Each employed mother's child in the study was matched by a child of the same sex who was within the age range of this study and who lived nearest to him in geographic residence. The total sample consisted of 40 children, 20 boys and 20 girls. Group one consisted of ten boys and ten girls of employed mothers. The second group consisted of ten boys and ten girls of non-employed mothers.

The 40 families selected for this study represented occupationally a fair cross section of the community of Cedar City. Occupations
ranged from unskilled labor to the professions. The fathers of the families represented followed such occupations as cook (1), farmer (2), mechanic (2), heavy equipment operator (2), professor (3), pharmacist (1), carpenter (1), policeman (1), businessman (3), clerk (3), salesman (2), repairman (1), civil service representative (3), telephone company worker (2), public school teacher (2), school administrator (1), oil agent (1), department of highways worker (2), manager of trucking lines (3), truck driver (1), garage supervisor (1), technician (1), and logging contractor (1).

The occupations of the 10 mothers who were gainfully employed ranged from factory worker to a teacher. Although the largest single occupation was that of office workers (5), the sample also included such jobs as cashier (2), beautician (3), clerk (3), nurse (2), teacher (1), factory worker (1), bank teller (1), telephone operator (1), and librarian (1).

**Instruments**

The test used is an adaptation of an instrument designed by Jerome Kagan and Judith Lemkin (1960) to study children's perception of parental attributes. In their study the children were asked questions, and in some cases were shown just pictures of a man and a woman that they could choose from and in other cases the children were shown action pictures, for example, a picture of someone spanking a child. The study also used two methods of questioning. Some of the questions were direct, such as: "Who gives you the most presents, your mommy or your daddy?" In the indirect method, the child would be asked, "Who tells the (boy) (girl) what to do all the time?"

Joan Aldous (1967) also used this instrument, although she added some questions to it and used both direct and indirect questioning.
However, Aldous did not use any action pictures. Instead, she used just figures of a family, both white and Negro, because she had both white and Negro children in her sample.

The test that was used in the study reported here was an adaptation of Kagan and Lenkin (1960) and Aldous (1967), using questions from both of them as well as some new questions. There were eight figures used and no action pictures. There were some direct questions used, but the majority were indirect.

The purpose of the questionnaire in this study was (1) to reveal negative or positive perceptions of masculine roles, and (2) to determine which parent the child perceived as taking expressive or instrumental roles (see Appendixes).

After the questionnaire was made up it was reviewed by eight graduate students in the Department of Family and Child Development at Utah State University. They marked each question as to which category of perception it would test: negative or positive perception of masculine roles, or the expressive or instrumental dichotomy. Most of their answers were consistent with the intended purpose (see Appendix A).

The percentage of agreement was very high (from 75 per cent to 100 per cent) on all questions except 2 and 3 in Section A. The question, "Who does the father love?" was sometimes placed in the area of instrumental, and the question, "Who does the mother love?" was placed in the expressive area. These two questions were scored as positive if the children answered that the parent loved the little child in the drawing of the same age and sex as the child being tested. These two questions were left in the questionnaire because the author thought that the poor percentage of agreement was caused by the students who were previewing the questionnaire not understanding those two questions. The percentage of agreement on these two questions was 50 per cent.
The instrument makes use of a series of drawings to which the child points in response to a series of questions. It is therefore appropriate for use by young children. The eight drawings in the test include a man of age 30-45; a boy, 15-18; a boy, 5-8; a woman, 30-40; a girl 15-18; a girl, 5-8; a baby; and an abstract drawing of a person without a face. The faceless figure is included to give the child the option of choosing a person who is not representative of any of the others included among the drawings (Aldous, 1967) (see Appendix D).

**Pilot Study**

The test was administered to six children in the Child Development Laboratory at Utah State University to see if the children would respond to the questions and to gain experience in the manner of presentation.

Several small details were resolved in this trial testing period. For example, the figures were on the table, but many of the children would pick the figures up rather than just point to the appropriate one as the questions were asked. At first the experimenter ignored this, thinking that the child would become tired of picking them up and not persist. However, this was not the case, and the children who were not reminded to just point to the pictures were playing with them by the end of the testing. The experimenter then reminded the child if he picked the figures up that he could just point to the one he thought, and the testing went much more smoothly after that.

With the first children used in the trial testing, the experimenter would explain the question if the child did not respond. The experimenter decided that this might lead the child to a response, so if the child did not respond the question was just repeated. Most questions were answered in this way. In the trial testing there were no questions which seemed
to confuse the children, so the order and the statements were not changed because of the trial tests.

**Personal Background Information**

A background information sheet was included for the purpose of acquiring information needed in interpreting the data. Also, some of the information was used in matching the children of the employed mothers with the children of the non-employed mothers. This information sheet included the following data: residential address, age, sex, mother employed or mother non-employed group, religion, mother's and father's occupations, how long the mother had worked, mother's attitude about working, family size, age of children, ordinal position of the subject, people living in the household who were not family members, hours the mother works, hours she works when the subject was home, and who tended the subject when the mother worked (see Appendix B).

**Collection of Data**

Appointments for interviews were made by telephone. The parents were assured that the information would be kept confidential and that the children would not be reported individually in the analyses of data. The interviews, or tests, were done at the home of each subject. They were done in the evenings, after the dinner hour. It turned out that all of the interviews were done at the kitchen table because this was a place where, after dinner, the interview could be accomplished without interruption from family members. The families were very cooperative, and some had arranged to have dinner early so that the interview could be conducted. Most of the parents seemed very happy that their child had been chosen for the test, and many expressed interest in being mailed the results.
Each child participated in two testing sections in which the items were counterbalanced to control for order of presentation effects. Both sections of the test were done at the same time so that each child was visited just once.

Section A. Perception of Adult Family Roles

The experimenter told the child, "We are going to play house." The experimenter showed the child eight drawings which were placed on the table. The drawings were randomly placed to control for placement effect. The experimenter said, "Choose the pictures of the family who will live in our house." The experimenter gave the child two minutes to choose the drawings. If the child asked how many pictures he should choose, the E said he could select as many as he liked. If the child did not select an adult figure, E asked, "Is there anyone else we need to be in the family?" When the selection part was completed, if the child had not chosen a father, mother, or child of his age and sex, the experimenter said, "I will choose this picture for the mommy (daddy, child) who will be in our family." The experimenter told the child that he did a good job in the selection of the family and that she liked the way he did it so quickly.

The experimenter then placed the drawings of the family members selected on the table, removing the other drawings. The experimenter said to the child, "Now we have the family, we are going to tell about them." The experimenter then asked for each drawing, beginning with the oldest person the child had selected, "Who is this?" After the child had told about the drawings, E said, "I am going to ask you some more questions about this family. You point to the pictures you think." The experimenter then started with the pretest questions:

Who is the biggest?
Who likes candy?

Who is the smallest?

The experimenter praised the child and thanked him for responding so rapidly. The experimenter then started with the test questions, restating that the child should point to the one he thinks of as the questions are asked (see Appendix C).

Analyses of Data

The T test was used to analyze the group data, and sex was analyzed separately. The two sexes were analyzed together, also, just as scores of employed and non-employed mothers' children.

Race was controlled since no minority groups were represented in the sample population. The influence of the parents' occupation, education, and religion were noted and analyzed to the extent the distribution made possible.

The .05 level was used as the critical level of probability for determining significance for all of the hypotheses tested.

Chi square was used to analyze each question. The 2 x 2 design was used to determine if there was any significant difference between boys and girls or between employed and non-employed groups.

A rank order sheet was filled out as each child chose the figures that he wanted to use in the playing house. This was employed by having the person whom the child chose first get one positive point for having been chosen first. This information was also taken on Section B when the child pointed to just the man or the woman as the questions were used. At the first of this section the child was told that just the two figures would be used now and that he was to tell about these two. The experimenter recorded which person the child talked about first.
However, this information was not applied to the analyses of data. The experimenter decided that it was not valid because the responses were governed by which figure was placed nearest the child on the table. The child would tell about the figure that was easiest to reach.
CHAPTER IV
FINDINGS

Presentation of Findings

Four hypotheses were tested. All were stated in the null form, and none of them were rejected.

Hypothesis I

The first hypothesis was: there is no significant difference between the frequency of negative and positive expressions of attitudes, on male role perception tests, of daughters of employed and non-employed mothers. This hypothesis was not rejected. There was very little difference in the frequency of negative expressions of attitudes toward the father between the mother-employed and the mother-not-employed groups. However, on positive expressions of attitudes there was a greater difference with daughters of employed mothers. Although there was a difference, it was not great enough to be significant at the .05 level of probability. The T-scores for the first hypothesis were 0.32 on the negative expressions of attitudes and 1.40 on the positive expressions of attitudes (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis II

The data did not permit rejection of the second hypothesis. The hypothesis stated that there is no significant difference between the frequency of negative and positive expressions of attitudes on male role perception tests of sons of employed and non-employed mothers. The difference was not statistically significant. These two scores
Figure 1. Expressions of attitudes on the male role perception test by girls of employed and non-employed mothers.
showed about the same range of difference between the employed and the non-employed groups as with the two expressions of attitudes by girls. However, there is one interesting difference. The girls' scores showed the daughters of non-employed mothers giving both more negative and positive expressions of attitudes to the father than sons of non-employed mothers. As in the first hypothesis, the difference between employed and non-employed groups in the negative expressions of attitude was very slight. The difference between positive expressions of attitudes of the two groups was greater but not statistically significant. The T-scores for the second hypothesis were 0.41 on the negative expressions of attitudes and 1.47 on the positive expressions of attitudes (see Figure 2).

**Item analyses**

Chi square was used to analyze the results of each question. There was a significant difference on only one question. It was Question 8 in Section C, which asked, "Who is the nicest?" This section deals with adult role perception, so the children had just a man and a woman from which to choose. It was found that there was a sexual difference on this question. When boys' mothers are employed, they perceive their father as being the nicest; but it is the non-employed mothers group whose daughters perceived the father as being the nicest. The results were significant at the .05 level. The chi square score was 5.3 (see Figure 3). It may be that larger groups would have shown greater differences on the item analyses. The 40 children were divided by sex as well as maternal employment in this analysis. There were just ten in each group.
Figure 2. Expressions of attitudes on the male role perception test by boys of employed and non-employed mothers.
Boys of non-employed mother group
Boys of employed mother group
Girls of employed mother group
Girls of non-employed mother group

\[ \chi^2 = 5.3 \]

Significance at 0.05
Degrees of freedom = 1

Figure 3. Distribution of attitudes toward the father in response to Question C-8, "Who is the nicest?"
Hypothesis III

The third hypothesis indicated no significant difference between the frequency in instrumental and expressive responses, on male role perception tests, of daughters of employed and non-employed mothers. This hypothesis was not rejected. Although the difference was not statistically significant, the range between responses on the instrumental role-taking of the father as perceived by girls was the greatest of all factors tested in the hypotheses. The daughters of non-employed mothers perceived the father as taking more expressive roles than did daughters of non-employed mothers. The instrumental score was $T = 1.64$, and the expressive score was $T = 0.24$. Neither score was statistically significant (see Figure 4).

Hypothesis IV

The fourth hypothesis stated that there is no significant difference between the frequency of instrumental and expressive responses, on male role perception tests, of sons of employed and non-employed mothers. The data did not permit rejection of the fourth hypothesis. Again, the boys perceived male roles differently than the girls. On the perception of instrumental role-taking, the mother-employed group perceived the father as taking more instrumental roles than did the non-employed mother group. The T-score for the boys was 1.09 in the instrumental area. Although the results were the opposite between boys and girls, range of difference between the two groups of boys was not as great as between the girls' groups. The boys agreed with the girls on the second part of this hypothesis in that the employed-mother group perceived the father as taking more expressive roles when the mother was employed. One interesting difference between the boys' and the girls' responses was that the girls perceived their fathers as filling more
Figure 4. Instrumental and expressive responses on the male role perception test by girls of employed and non-employed mothers.
expressive roles when the mother was employed, but they did not perceive the difference as strongly as the two groups of boys. The T-score for the girls was 0.24, which was the least difference of all scores between employed-mother and non-employed-mother groups. The T-score for the boys on the expressive role-taking perception was 0.89, showing a much greater range between the two groups of boys than girls. The differences were not statistically significant (see Figure 5).

Employed vs. non-employed mother groups
regardless of sex

The scores of the total group of non-employed mothers' children were tested against the total group of employed mothers' children regardless of the sex of the children. It was interesting to note that not only were these scores not significantly different from one another, but that the differences were smaller here than in the comparison of employed-mother and non-employed-mother groups when the sexes were analyzed separately, with only one exception. There was less difference in the frequency of responses between children of employed and non-employed mothers when the boys' scores and girls' scores were considered separately except in the case of daughters' perceptions of the expressive area, and this score was lower.

On the first area of negative expressions of attitudes on male role perception tests, the raw scores for employed and non-employed mothers groups were exactly the same, so of course the T-test showed no difference between groups. The second area of positive expressions of attitudes also showed very little difference between the employed group and the non-employed group with a T-score of only 0.13. Although the difference was very slight, the non-employed group had the highest frequency of expression of attitudes that were positive toward male roles (see
Figure 5. Instrumental and expressive responses on the male role perception test by boys of employed and non-employed mothers.
Figure 6). The third area of instrumental roles found the non-employed group as perceiving the father as taking more instrumental roles than the employed group. This score showed greater difference than the positive area score but was still far below significances. The differences between all children of non-employed mothers and children of employed mothers was greatest in the area of expressive role taking than in any other area. This score was the only one that showed greater differences between groups with the two sexes together than the two sexes analyzed apart. The employed-mother group perceived the father as taking more expressive roles than did the non-employed-mother group. There seemed to be some difference in the answers of the boys and the girls when the scores were viewed in a girls' group and a boys' group. However, when the sexes were lumped together in children of employed and children of non-employed mothers, this difference diminished, making it appear that the differences that did come out in the hypotheses were differences between the sexes. The T-scores were 0.56 on the children's perceptions of instrumental roles and 0.75 on the perceptions of expressive roles (see Figure 7).

Girls' vs. boys' groups regardless of maternal employment

When the scores were computed with the girls' scores separated from the boys' scores, there appeared to be more difference between the two sexes than between employed and non-employed mothers' children. This supposition was confirmed when the girls' scores were compared to the boys' without dividing them into an employed-mother group and a non-employed-mother group. Lumping all the girls' scores together and all of the boys' scores together made the differences great enough to be significant in some areas.
Figure 6. Expressions of attitudes on the male role perception test by both boys and girls and employed and non-employed mothers.
Figure 7. Frequency of instrumental and expressive responses of both girls and boys by employed and non-employed status of mothers.
The first area of negative expressions of attitudes showed a fairly large gap between boys' and girls' responses although the gap was not large enough to be significant. The boys saw more negative things in the father than the girls did. The boys also expressed more negative attitudes and more positive attitudes than the girls did. This supports the theory that children view the parent of the same sex as being the most dominant (Kagan and Lemkin, 1960). The T-score was 1.68 on negative expressions. In the area of positive perception there was a greater difference between the scores of the boys and the girls with the boys having more positive perceptions of masculine roles. The scores were statistically significant at the 0.01 level. This supports the finding by Kagan and Lemkin that boys at age 5 or 6 start to identify with their fathers and consequently repress negative perceptions and replace them with positive perceptions. The T-score was 6.64 (see Figure 8). Boys also viewed the father as taking more instrumental roles than the girls, but the margin was narrow. The T-score was 0.96.

In the final area of expressive role-taking the boys perceived the father as taking more expressive roles than was true of the girls. This finding was statistically significant at the .05 level. The T-score was 2.38 (see Figure 9).
Figure 8. Expressions of attitudes on the male role perception test by girls vs. boys without regard to maternal employment.
Figure 9. Instrumental and expressive responses on the male role perception test by girls vs. boys without regard to maternal employment.
CHAPTER V
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Discussion of the Findings

The majority of the results of the hypotheses tested in this thesis have rather neutral findings. However, some of the results, though not statistically significant, show interesting trends. For example, the first and second hypotheses tested girls' and boys' frequency of negative and positive responses on male role perception.

The girls' tests were analyzed separately from the boys', and each sex had two groups of children, one group of children of employed mothers and one group of children of non-employed mothers.

In the two groups of girls, the daughters of non-employed mothers perceived the father with a greater frequency of both positive and negative perceptions. This might suggest that these fathers are more dominant, as perceived by their daughters, than the fathers of girls whose mothers are employed. Also, this seems to imply that the daughters of non-employed mothers have more ambivalent feelings toward their fathers, perceiving them as both very positive and very negative. The daughters of employed mothers perceived the father positively frequently.

The opposite was found to be true in the case of the boys. Sons of non-employed mothers perceived the father as being less negative and positive than the sons of employed mothers. Conversely, we might then assume that the sons of employed mothers view the father as a more dominant figure than did the sons of non-employed mothers. The frequency of responses in both groups of employed and non-employed
mothers' sons in both negative and positive areas were consistently higher for boys than for girls. It appears, therefore, that regardless of maternal employment, boys perceived the father as a more dominant figure than did the girls. Boys also perceived him in a much more positive way regardless of maternal employment. These differences were not statistically significant. For the girl, employment of the mother results in the father being viewed less positively than is true when the mother is not employed.

Hypotheses III and IV focused on frequency of instrumental and expressive responses on children's perception of male roles. In the area of instrumental role-taking, there was an interesting difference between the sexes. Boys perceived the father as taking more instrumental roles when their mother was employed. The girls perceived the father as taking more instrumental roles when their mother was non-employed. Maternal employment seems to have opposite effects on boys and girls in the instrumental area.

When the children were tested in an employed-mother and a non-employed-mother group without regard to sex, the differences between groups became noticeably smaller. None of these differences were statistically significant.

It seems that most of the differences between groups found in the four hypotheses were affected more by sex than by maternal employment. The only exception to this was found in the item analyses. In this case the employment of the mother affected the boys' perceptions of "Who is the nicest?" in a positive direction toward the father. The girls viewed the father as the nicest when the mother was not employed. This assumption that differences were created more by sex than maternal employment supported by the fact that when the children were divided
into a boys' group and a girls' group without regard to maternal employment the differences became much more dramatic. Two of the four areas tested showed significant differences. In spite of this fact, all hypotheses were not rejected.

There are several factors which might have had some effect on the results. First of all, because the population of this study was very homogeneous, and a high percentage of them being Mormon, this may have affected the findings. The author felt that because of religious and cultural factors brought about by the religion, the Mormon families are less likely to change structure because of maternal employment than families who do not have the same religious views. The L.D.S. Church stresses the father's being the leader in the home, and most families are strongly influenced by this. In the author's opinion, the influence is so strong that maternal employment has less effect on the family members than it ordinarily would.

This study did not control for the amount of hours the mother worked outside the home during the time the child was out of school, or whether the employment was during waking or sleeping hours of the child. Consequently, some of the mothers worked only when the child was in school, some just during the night, and others were gone as many as 30 hours a week when the child was at home. The presence or absence of the mother is a very important variable, and this may have had some effect on the results.

Another thing that was not controlled was the mothers' motivations toward employment. Although the majority of the sample stated that they needed the money, this information was merely collected and was not part of the criterion for selecting the sample. Because the mothers'
attitude about employment is so important, this should be one of the variables controlled in the selection of the sample.

Two more factors that may have some relation to the findings are the flexibility of the employment toward the mother's being needed at home and the adequacy of substitute care for the child. If the above factors were controlled, the results of studies of maternal employment might be different, and they would certainly be more clear as to whether effects should be attributed to the employment or to other factors.

It seems that not enough importance has been placed on the personality of the mother. It has been assumed that the employment of women causes traits and changes that affect family life and child rearing. It seems just as likely, although less well discussed, that these traits are possessed by some women in the first place and that they are motivated to seek employment because of this personality.

The findings may have been different, and perhaps nearer the real feelings of the subjects, if younger children had been questioned. The experimenter found the children in the pilot tests who were four years old were much more spontaneous than the older children used in the main tests. Some of the kindergarten and first grade children were evasive on some of the questions. Even more of a problem was the fact that some of the children were rather protective of their parents. Questions that showed negative perceptions were answered by some children after a long pause or, in some cases, not at all. In some cases the experimenter would say something like, "In this family that we have a picture of, which person do you think would usually spank this little girl?" as the experimenter pointed to the figure of the little girl. This was done if the child refused to answer the question stated normally. None
of the questions in the negative area were asked in the direct method. Perhaps if all of the questions had been indirectly asked, the children would have been less reluctant to respond to the questions that were negative.

One thing about the questionnaire that should have been changed was the order of the sections. The first section, Section A, included questions like "Who does the mother love?" and "Who gets mad at the boy (girl)?" This seemed to get some of the children on edge because they were having to choose between parents and say things that were negative about family members. It would have been better if the last section, C, had been first because the questions had more to do with what people do than how the subject felt about them; for example, "Who goes to work?" and "Who cleans the house?" If these questions had been first, the children would have been more at ease and probably would have answered the questions about attitudes more easily.

**Summary**

The purpose of this study was to determine if children of employed mothers and of non-employed mothers differed in their perception of masculine roles. These perceptions were discovered by testing in the areas of adult family roles and adult sex roles. Four hypotheses were used to guide the study:

1. There is no significant difference between the frequency of negative and positive expressions of attitudes, on male role perception tests, of daughters of employed and non-employed mothers.

2. There is no significant difference between the frequency of negative and positive expressions of attitudes, on male role perception tests, of sons of employed and non-employed mothers.
3. There is no significant difference between the frequency of instrumental and expressive responses, on male role perception tests, of daughters of employed and non-employed mothers.

4. There is no significant difference between the frequency of instrumental and expressive responses, on male role perception tests, of sons of employed and non-employed mothers.

The sample consisted of ten boys and ten girls of employed mothers, and these children were matched to 20 children of non-employed mothers on the basis of sex, age, and geographic residence. The 40 children were in kindergarten and first grade. The children were all residents of Cedar City, Utah, and all attended the North or South Elementary Schools in that community.

The questionnaire employed made use of line drawings of family members. The questionnaire was designed to test the following categories: (1) negative perceptions of male roles, (2) positive perceptions of male roles, and (3) the expressive and instrumental dichotomy. The questionnaire was reviewed by a graduate seminar in child development at Utah State University before the final form was determined.

The interviews with the children were done at the home of each child. The children responded to the questions by pointing to one of the figures of family members in the first two sections, and of a mother or a father in the last section.

The findings were as follows:

1. Maternal employment does not have a statistically significant effect on children’s perceptions of male roles.

2. Maternal employment does not have a statistically significant effect on negative or positive expressions of attitudes toward masculine roles.
3. Maternal employment does not have a statistically significant effect on children's perceptions of instrumental and expressive role-taking of adult males.

4. The sex of the child seems to have more effect on the child's perception of male roles than whether or not his mother is employed.

Conclusions

1. Maternal employment does not appear to have a significant effect on children's perceptions of father roles.

2. The sex of the child has more effect on children's perceptions of father roles than does maternal employment.

3. Employment of mothers influences boys and girls differently in their perceptions of their relationships with their parents in the area of whom the child views as the nicest.

Recommendations for Future Studies

Suggestions for future studies are:

1. A study of maternal employment with very strict controls of such variables as hours the mother works, who cares for children when the mother is gone, and how much compensation there is on the part of the mother for being gone.

2. A further study of the mothers' personalities in regard to their employment and the children's perception of roles.

3. A similar study of children's perceptions of father roles with older children to see if age made the differences between employed and non-employed groups greater.

4. A replication of this study using the same instrument but with younger children which might indicate if the children in this study were responding in ways intended not to hurt anyone's feelings.
5. A similar study in a less homogeneous population to see if the high Mormon population influences the findings.

6. A further study to see why in the item analyses the boys viewed the father as being the "nicest" when the mother was employed, whereas the girls viewed the father as the "nicest" when the mother was not employed.
LITERATURE CITED


Manning, Doris Elnova. 1968. Viewpoints of male graduate students with respect to their wives' working at different stages of the family life cycle. Dissertation Abstracts 28:50993.


Appendix A

Preview of the Instruments

Section A. Positive

1. Who does the boy (girl) have a good time with?  100
2. Who does the mother love?  50
3. Who does the father love?  50
4. Who reads to the boy (girl)?  75
* 5. Who is the smartest?  100
6. Who plays with the boy (girl)?  100
** 7. Who helps the boy (girl)?  87.50
** 8. Who does things right?  100
** 9. Who has nice clothes?  87.50
**10. Who does the boy (girl) like best?  100
**11. Who would you want to be in this family when you grow up?  100
**12. Who has a good time?  87.50
**13. Who would you want to be in this family?  100
**14. Who makes the boy (girl) happy?  100
**15. Who is the nicest to the boy (girl)?  100
**16. Who gives nice things to the boy (girl)?  100
**17. Who is the best looking?  87.50
18. Who can do whatever a person wants to?  87.50

Section A. Negative

* 1. Who is the boy (girl) scared of?  100
* 2. Who gets mad at the boy (girl)?  100
** 3. Who spanks the boy (girl)?
   100
4. Who yells at the boy (girl)?
   100
5. Who whips the boy (girl) the most?
   100
6. Who does the boy (girl) have unhappy times with?
   100

Section B. Expressive

** 1. Who buys the groceries?
   100
2. Who cleans the house?
   100
3. Who hugs and kisses the boy (girl) the most?
   87.50
4. Who takes care of the boy (girl) when he (she) is ill?
   100
5. Who teaches the boy (girl) things?
   87.50
6. Who cooks the breakfast, lunch, and dinner?
   100
7. Who takes care of the family?
   75
8. Who does the ironing?
   100
9. Who does the washing?
   100
10. Who is nice to the boy (girl) when he (she) feels bad?
    87.50
11. Who puts the boy (girl) to bed?
    100
12. Who tells the boy (girl) stories?
    75
13. Who is with the boy (girl) the most?
    100

Section B. Instrumental

** 1. Who goes to work?
   100
** 2. Who has the money?
   100
** 3. Who is the boss at home?
   100
* 4. Who is the strongest?
5. Who is the leader? 100
6. Who washes the car? 100
7. Who takes the garbage to the street? 100
8. Who gives the other one money? 100
9. Who protects the boy (girl)? 100

The questions with one asterisk were taken from the study by Kagan and Lemkin (1960). Those with two asterisks were taken from Aldous (1967).
Appendix B

Information Sheet

Name __________________________________________

Number ________

Residence ___________________________________________

Place Interviewed ___________________________________________

Age: ______ years ______ months Sex: Male _____ Female ___

Group __________________________ Religion ________________________

Father's Occupation ___________________________________________

Mother's Occupation ___________________________________________

How long has the mother worked? Years_________ Months_________

Mother's attitude about working __________________________

Father's Education ____________________________________ Age ______

Mother's Education ____________________________________ Age ______

Family Size: Total ______ Number of Children ______________

Ordinal position __________ Approx. Age Approx. Age

Siblings: Brothers Younger_______ Older_________

Sisters Younger_______ Older_________

Members of household other than parents and children:

Grandparents:

Maternal Paternal

Grandmother ________ ________

Grandfather ________ ________

Other relations and friends living in household: ____________________
Hours the mother works

Hours of the week the mother is out of the home while the child is out of school

Who tends the child when the mother is working?

Father Other Children
Relative Other
Appendix C

Questionnaire

Test Questions:

Who is the biggest?
Who likes candy?
Who is the smallest?

Section A. Part I. Perception of Adult Family Roles

1. Who does the boy (girl) have a good time with?
2. Who does the mother love?
3. Who is the boy (girl) scared of?
4. Who does the father love?
5. Who reads to the boy (girl)?
6. Who is the smartest?
7. Who gets mad at the boy (girl)?
8. Who plays with the boy (girl)?
9. Who helps the boy (girl)?
10. Who spanks the boy (girl)?
11. Who has nice clothes?
12. Who does the boy (girl) like best?
13. Who would you want to be in this family when you grow up?
14. Who has a good time?

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15. Who yells at the boy (girl)?
16. Who would you want to be in this family?
17. Who makes the boy (girl) happy?
18. Who whips the boy (girl) the most?
19. Who does the boy (girl) have unhappy times with?
20. Who is the nicest to the boy (girl)?
21. Who gives nice things to the boy (girl)?
22. Who is the best looking?

Questions 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 20, 21, and 22 are to tap positive perceptions. Questions 3, 7, 10, 15, 18, and 19 are to tap negative perceptions.

Section A. Part II

1. Who buys the groceries?
2. Who cleans the house?
3. Who goes to work?
4. Who hugs and kisses the boy (girl) the most?
5. Who has the money?
6. Who is the boss at home?
7. Who takes care of the boy (girl) when he (she) is ill?
8. Who teaches the boy (girl) things?
9. Who is the strongest?
10. Who cooks the dinner, lunch, and breakfast?

11. Who is the leader?

12. Who takes care of the family?

13. Who does the ironing?

14. Who washes the car?

15. Who takes the garbage to the street?

16. Who does the washing?

17. Who is nice to the boy (girl) when he (she) feels bad?

18. Who gives the other one money?

19. Who puts the boy (girl) to bed?

20. Who protects the boy (girl)?

21. Who tells the boy (girl) stories?

22. Who is with the boy (girl) the most?

Questions 3, 5, 6, 9, 11, 14, 15, 18, and 20 are to tap the instrumental area. Questions tapping the expressive area are 1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 16, 17, 19, 21, and 22.

Section B. Perception of Adult Sex Roles

1. Who is the strongest?

2. Who is the smartest?

3. Who goes to work?

4. Who has a good time?

5. Who buys the groceries?
6. Who has money?
7. Who can do whatever the person wants to?
8. Who is the nicest?
9. Who is the boss at home?
10. Who does things right?
11. Who yells at people?
12. Who takes care of you when you are ill?
13. Who would you want to be when you grow up?
14. Who cleans the house?
15. Who hugs children the most?
16. Who scares people?
17. Who makes people happy?
18. Who gets mad at people?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank Order</th>
<th>Man</th>
<th>Woman</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Man</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Woman</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Mother</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Father</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Little girl</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Little boy</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Little sister</td>
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<td>8. Little brother</td>
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<td>12. Other</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Other</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Other</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix D

Figures
VITA
Mary Jane Williams Swapp
Candidate for the Degree of
Master of Science

Thesis: Male Roles as Perceived by Children of Employed and Non-Employed Mothers

Major Field: Family and Child Development

Biographical Information:

Personal Data: Born at Cedar City, Utah, September 24, 1945; Daughter of Alex B. and Edith W. Williams; married David Royal Swapp December 18, 1965; one child—Tassha.

Education: Attended elementary school in Cedar City, Utah; graduated from Cedar City High School in 1963; received the Bachelor of Science degree from Southern Utah State College (formerly College of Southern Utah), with a major in Elementary Education and minors in Child Development and the Fine Arts, in 1969; completed requirements for the Master of Science degree, in the field of Family and Child Development, at Utah State University in 1970.