

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Judy Rollins Dorton entitled "The Relationship Between Mothers' and Daughters' Sex-Role Attitudes and Self-Concepts in Three Types of Family Environments." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Home Economics.

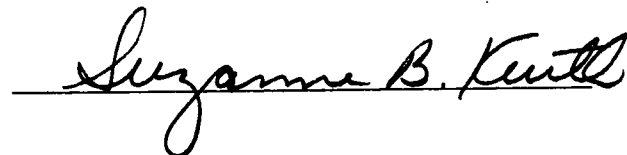


Priscilla White, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:







Accepted for the Council:



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Graduate Studies and Research

Thesis

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTHERS' AND DAUGHTERS'
SEX-ROLE ATTITUDES AND SELF-CONCEPTS IN
THREE TYPES OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENTS

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Judy Rollins Dorton

June 1979

1 200400

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many people have contributed time, talent, and support which allowed me to complete this research project and to receive a doctoral degree. It is impossible to thank all of them.

I would like to express appreciation to Mr. James Zitzman of the Oak Ridge City Schools who provided invaluable information regarding dual-career mothers, and to Ms. Margie Gulley of the Anderson County Schools who allowed me to obtain names of mothers from the school files. Certainly, the project could not have been conducted if it were not for the participation of the mothers and daughters. To them, I express my sincerest appreciation.

Next, I would like to thank my committee members who have generously given of their time and expertise so that I might grow professionally. To Dr. Imogene Ford, I express my appreciation for her encouraging words and spontaneous smile. Her immaculate appearance will serve as a model for my professional demeanor. Dr. Suzanne Kurth has generously shared her knowledge of the Symbolic-Interaction theoretical framework. Her interest in the advancement of women was one of the inspirations for this project. Dr. Brent Miller has offered his wisdom concerning research design and has been truly understanding and accepting of my "liberated" views when I'm sure they contradicted his beliefs at times. I will always

remember his dedication to his religion and to his profession, and I will miss his greeting of "Hi, Judy D." To Dr. Priscilla White, I cannot express enough gratitude for her guidance of this project. She never seemed to mind helping at any time, even on weekends! Her encouragement helped me believe I could do it. Her support and friendship have gone beyond the boundaries of the academic setting and have helped me across several personal and professional hurdles during these past three years. I will certainly miss bending her sympathetic ear next year.

Other staff members have contributed to my professional growth--Dr. JoLynn Cunningham, who never failed to be most helpful when I asked her a question, even after I told her I could never endure the mental anguish of having her on my committee; Dr. Roger Swagler, who has been very supportive of my academic and teaching efforts; and Dr. Judy Kuipers, who made me believe three years ago that I could enter a new field and succeed.

Special thanks are in order to my husband, John D., and my son, John. They have been very supportive of my efforts and proud of my accomplishments, even when dinner wasn't cooked or the laundry done. John D. encouraged me to "do my own thing"--I hope he never regrets that, even though it may have taken us in different directions. John has been my ray of sunshine with his quick wit and snappy jokes--even while he was doing the dishes. His confidence in my ability

was often far greater than mine, but it was a real joy to have him in my corner.

There are always combinations of events and people who shape our lives, and we are usually unaware of the full impact of either. I gratefully acknowledge the forces, whoever and whatever they were, which have brought me to this point in my life--it is a lifelong ambition finally realized.

ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between mothers' and daughters' sex-role attitudes regarding marriage, children, and careers, and to determine the relationship between their self-concepts. A second purpose of the study was to compare groups of mothers and groups of daughters on these four variables. The sample was composed of 25 traditional mother-daughter dyads from homes where the mother was a full-time homemaker; 25 dual-work dyads from homes where the mother was employed primarily because of economic necessity; and 25 dual-career dyads from homes where the mother had an advanced degree, was career oriented, and worked mainly because of personal fulfillment.

Data were collected concerning self-concept and the attitudinal variables of marriage, children, and careers by using the following instruments: the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, the Sex-Role Orientation Scale, and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. A Personal History Inventory was used to gather socio-demographic data regarding the family.

Pearson product-moment correlation was used to measure relationships of mothers' and daughters' attitudes and self-concepts, and multivariate analysis of variance was used to

compare both attitude and self-concept scores of groups. Attitudes toward marriage and careers were significantly related within all three groups of mothers and daughters. Attitudes toward children and self-concept scores were significantly related only between the dual-work dyads. Dual-career mothers differed significantly from traditional mothers regarding all three attitudinal variables. They differed from dual-work mothers concerning the variables of marriage and children. Dual-work mothers did not differ significantly from traditional mothers on any of the three sex-role variables. There was no difference in self-concept scores for any of the three groups of mothers or daughters. Daughters of dual-career mothers also had significantly different attitudes toward all three variables from those of daughters of traditional mothers. Daughters in dual-work families did not differ in sex-role attitudes from daughters in traditional families, nor did they differ from dual-career daughters regarding attitudes toward children. All statistical analyses were conducted at the .05 level of significance.

Major contributions of the study were the following:

1. When comparing working versus nonworking women, it is important to differentiate women who work outside the home according to the reason why they work. Outside employment alone does not necessarily indicate that women have different attitudes from those of women who are full-time homemakers.

2. Mothers' and daughters' attitudes regarding sex-roles are related. The mother does serve as a significant other to her daughter regarding attitude formation. This relationship may be bidirectional, also.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Until recently, role expectations have been definitive for the majority of American women. However, the traditional cultural definitions of appropriate sex-role behavior in America are undergoing revision. These revisions have been necessitated, in part, by the increasing number of women who have joined the work force outside the home. Goode (1963) saw the Industrial Revolution as the impetus for women to seek employment in a society where physical strength was no longer a prerequisite for employment. Coupled with this occurrence was the greater opportunity for advanced education which gave women the skills needed by employers. At the turn of the century, 19% of the total employment force was female, but of that number, only 15% were married (Nye, 1974). More recently, the feminist movement has emphasized the possibilities of a broader range of career opportunities for women.

During World War II, women entered the labor force to offset the loss of male employees who were drafted into service. After the war, the expansion of the American economy was so great that the need for female labor reached a new peak. This demand, in combination with such factors as family economic necessity, more effective birth control methods, improved child care facilities, and changing cultural norms, meant that increasing numbers of married women viewed

employment outside the home as a viable alternative to the traditional female role. In 1977, the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that 47.7% of the labor force was female and that of this number, 61.8% were married and most were mothers.

This sharp increase in the number of working wives and mothers has been a critical factor in the need to reassess what are seen as appropriate sex-role behaviors. The feminist movement, Affirmative Action policy, the International Women's Year, and the Equal Rights Amendment, are some of the activities that indicate changes occurring in our society which call for a redefinition of the roles available to men and women. However, the fact that many women remain at home and that there was strong female protest against ERA may be considered a vote by some women to retain traditional roles. The issue of appropriate role behavior is currently in a state of flux, and future trends may be decided by tomorrow's young women. The crucial question then becomes one of how socialization for sex-role behaviors occurs in young girls. There is evidence that changes have taken place in the attitudes which females have regarding themselves and their choices for future roles. The impetus for these subtle changes has only been tenuously explored. This study looked more closely at the influence which the mother has on the sex-role socialization and self-concept formation of her daughter.

Theoretical Framework

The symbolic interaction framework has its roots in the assumption that humans are born as asocial beings into an ongoing social process. This process includes the norms of the society into which the infant is born. Attitudes acquired by individuals may reflect these social norms (Hickman & Kuhn, 1956). As children are socialized, attitudes which they perceive include those directed specifically toward them and those directed toward various social roles. These attitudes are factors which help to organize how persons act and react, both toward themselves and toward external stimuli (Sullivan, 1947; Troyer, 1978).

Persons who are particularly responsible for children's internalization of societal norms are known as significant others (Sullivan, 1947). Parents are recognized as primary agents for transmitting social norms to young children (Cooley, 1954). Therefore, in most cases, mothers and fathers serve as significant others to children. They are influential in establishing the attitudes children have regarding themselves and the attitudes toward social roles which society considers appropriate for them.

Taking the role of the other toward oneself is an important process for the development of the self (Mead, 1934). Children perceive the attitudes which parents hold toward them and internalize these attitudes into their self-concepts. If children believe that parents see them as intelligent,

dependent, honest, aggressive, etc., they may perceive themselves to have these characteristics. Kuhn (1960) postulated that the self has a high degree of consistency which allows researchers to predict the individual's self-concept at various points in time. While self-conceptions can be modified, early formation of attitudes toward one's self will continue to affect behavior throughout life (Rose, 1962). Therefore early interactions with parents may be influential in children's attitudes toward themselves throughout their lives.

The manner in which persons view themselves influences the attitudes that they hold toward various roles. "Self attitudes are anchoring attitudes or the 'common frame of reference' upon which other attitudes are founded" (Hickman & Kuhn, 1956). Cavan suggested that self-concepts find expression through social roles (1962). Therefore, roles which are chosen by persons will usually be those which they feel capable of performing, based on attitudes directed toward their self-concepts.

Appropriate role behavior is defined for individuals both by normative prescriptions and through the process of interaction. Therefore, attitudes which children form regarding role behavior are determined both by societal norms and by interaction with significant others, who serve as role models (Turner, 1978).

This discussion serves to establish a theoretical

foundation for the research project which was undertaken. Mothers may serve as significant others for their children. The attitudes which female children will form regarding themselves and appropriate role behavior may be related to their mothers' attitudes. This may be especially true in the early years of girls' development. As pointed out earlier, both Kuhn and Rose suggested that early conceptions of self continue to influence attitudes toward the self and toward social stimuli, even though the self-conceptions may be periodically modified. This assumption supports the belief that daughters will continue to be influenced by their early interactions with their mothers. An extrapolation of this idea suggests that some attitudes which daughters hold toward themselves and toward female roles can be predicted by the attitudes held by their mothers.

Rationale for This Research

A distinct change in social norms may have a far reaching effect on future behavior of individuals and families. A major shift in role expectations for women can be expected to produce a concomitant change in family structure. There has been increasing interest in the research literature in regard to the impact of the working wife on the marital dyad (Axelson, 1963; Orden & Bradburn, 1969). Several studies were conducted which dealt with the attitudes of both boys and girls toward the roles of women (Douvan, 1963; Hartley, 1961;

Hoffman, 1963). In these studies, a dichotomous variable, working mothers and nonworking mothers, was used. Daughters of mothers in both categories were questioned about their attitudes toward women, marriage, children, careers; also their self-concept scores were obtained. Researchers have been primarily interested in the differences found between daughters in each group. While these differences may be related to the mothers' attitudes or their role enactments, no empirical evidence is available to support this assumption. If a strong, positive correlation exists between mother and daughter attitudes, this finding would reinforce the importance of significant others in childhood socialization and be indicative of one of the primary sources of sex-role attitude socialization.

This research was conducted in an attempt to study two areas which are deficient in the present literature. First, the study examined attitudes of both mothers and daughters regarding four areas: (a) self-concept, (b) marriage, (c) children, and (d) careers. Second, in the present study, the "working mother" category was divided into two groups: dual-work and dual-career. Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) have reported on dual-career women. Research findings indicate that women who have professional careers hold different attitudes regarding female roles than do women who work due to economic necessity in noncareer-oriented jobs (Hoffman, 1974). Therefore, instead of the usual dichotomy of working

and nonworking mothers, this study redefined "working" mothers into two groups in an attempt to strengthen the results and further delineate the areas associated with sex-role attitudes.

Statement of the Problem

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between mothers' and daughters' self-concepts and attitudes toward appropriate sex-role behavior. The four areas which were investigated included attitudes toward (a) the self, (b) marriage, (c) children, and (d) careers. Three different family environments were studied. These included (a) traditional mothers, (b) dual-work mothers, and (c) dual-career mothers. The secondary purpose of this study was to compare the three groups of mother-daughter dyads to determine if there are differences in attitudes among the three groups.

More specifically, there were two primary objectives of this study:

1. To ascertain the relationship between the self-concepts of mother-daughter dyads in traditional, dual-work, and dual-career families.

2. To ascertain the relationship of attitudes toward marriage, children, and careers between mothers and daughters in traditional, dual-work, and dual-career families.

There was one secondary objective of this study.

3. To compare the attitudes toward marriage, children,

and careers, and to compare the self-concepts among the three groups of mothers and three groups of daughters in traditional, dual-work, and dual-career families.

Nominal Definitions

Traditional Mothers: Mothers who do not work outside the home.

Dual-Work Mothers: Mothers who work outside the home in jobs which do not require college educations, have limited advancement potential, and may be pursued due to economic need.

Dual-Career Mothers: Mothers who work outside the home in a job which requires an advanced degree or professional expertise, has advancement opportunities, and/or the potential for establishment, and is pursued for personal fulfillment.

Intact Families: Families where both parents are biological parents and divorce has not occurred since the daughter's birth.

Self-Concept: A person's attitudes, feelings, and perceptions of him/herself which range from less positive to more positive when compared with others.

Sex-Roles: The roles which each sex is expected to perform throughout life.

Sex-Role Behavior: Behavior considered appropriate for the roles men and women perform.

Attitudes Toward Marriage: Attitudes about the importance of marriage for women, either as their most salient

role, or combined with a career, or the rejection of this role in order to pursue a career.

Attitudes Toward Children: Attitudes about the importance of children for a woman's personal fulfillment when the wife works or does not work.

Attitudes Toward Careers: Attitudes about the importance of women pursuing careers and also pursuing careers which have been considered as primarily for men.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The increasing number of married women entering the work force has prompted researchers to investigate the impact of working mothers on children and on the family structure. A structural functional conceptualization of the family, which characterized the orientation of many earlier studies, may no longer be adequate to explain the roles of family members. The symbolic interaction framework treated role behavior as products of societal norms and interaction processes. Using this framework, interactions between family members can be viewed as important in shaping attitudes toward appropriate role behavior.

Much of the research which has focused on the attitudes of daughters of working mothers and nonworking mothers toward sex-roles has compared only the daughters in each group. Self-concepts of both daughters and mothers have been studied independently, with no attempt to analyze the relationships between these variables for the dyads. There appears to be a gap in reported research regarding the relationships of mothers' and daughters' self-concepts and role behavior attitudes. Tiller (1959) pointed out that children's attitudes are basically established in the context of the family. Nagley (1971) concurred with the statement, "A woman's relationship with her mother as she was growing up seems to be

related to her attitudes toward her role as an adult" (p. 339). In the sex-role literature, the areas of female self-concepts, marriage, children, and careers have received the most attention. Research findings are reviewed for each of these areas though an overlap of emphases is found in many studies.

Self-Concepts of Females

There have been limited numbers of studies which have dealt exclusively with the effect of maternal employment on daughters' self-concept or self-esteem (Hoffman & Nye, 1974). However, the results of some studies have suggested that there may be a relationship which needs further exploration. Hartley (1961) stated that maternal employment has a direct influence on the self-concept and anticipated role behavior of the female child.

Men have traditionally been viewed as independent, aggressive, and highly motivated (McKee & Sherriff, 1971). These are characteristics which are valued in our society. Generally, these characteristics are not attributed to females, which may be partially responsible for the fact that the traditional roles for women have been seen as less desirable. This phenomenon is reflected in the self-concepts of females. Women tend to have less positive self-concepts than do men (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Rosenkrantz, & Clarkson, 1972; Komarovsky, 1946; McKee & Sherriff, 1971; Sears, 1969). However, more positive and fewer negative

feelings are characteristic of the self-concepts of working women (Birnbaum, 1971; Hacker, 1971).

Kappel and Lambert (1972) studied 3,315 Canadian children, nine to sixteen. Their report indicated that daughters of nonworking mothers had higher levels of self-esteem than daughters of working mothers. However, the reverse was true when any of the following conditions were present: (a) the mother worked for self-oriented reasons, (b) the mother was satisfied with work, or (c) the mother had a professional career. These conclusions leave reason to question how self-concept is influenced for daughters whose mothers work because of financial need or who work under unsatisfactory conditions.

Other research has found no significant differences in the self-esteem levels of daughters of working and nonworking mothers (Baruch, 1972; Hoffman & Nye, 1974; Miller, 1975). However, these reports placed all working mothers in one category and did not differentiate among reasons for employment.

Women who work have a more positive image of themselves as individuals (Birnbaum, 1972; Wright, 1978). However, the concepts they have of their competencies in the role of mother are sometimes lowered. This less positive evaluation of their maternal role enactment may, in part, be attributed to the negative sanctions our society imposes on mothers who work outside the home.

Women at a Catholic college who held less stereotypic self-concepts reported that they desired fewer children than

did those women whose self-concepts were rated as more stereotypic (Vogel, Rosenkrantz, Broverman, Broverman, & Clarkson, 1975). This finding is especially interesting in light of the emphasis which the Catholic religion places on the role of motherhood. The nonstereotypic women also reported that they planned to combine a career and child rearing more frequently than did the stereotypic women. This conclusion may be indicative of the fact that religious affiliation is not as strong a determinant of how women enact their roles as self-concept may be. Brogan and Kutner (1976) reported that religious membership was unlikely to be a primary factor in establishing sex-role attitudes.

Girls' self-concepts appear to be more dependent on familial interaction than boys' self-concepts (Gecas, 1971). Findings have suggested that girls model their fathers more often than their mothers in establishing self-concept (Gecas, Calonico, & Thomas, 1974). This more frequent paternal modeling may be attributed to the element of power within the family. When girls view the father as having more power due to wage-earning ability and control of other valued resources, they may desire to emulate him. However, there is little evidence to explain the impact of the dual-career mother as a model for daughters. It is plausible that when daughters perceive parents to have equal access for controlling valued resources within the family, the mother may serve as the more salient model. If the mother's role is traditional, the

logic presented above regarding power would seem to indicate that the daughter's self-esteem might be in contrast to the mother's. Therefore, a relationship might be slight, and the daughter might be expected to seek more traditionally masculine roles as an adult. However, no empirical evidence supports this extrapolation.

Hansen and Putnam (1978) found that high school senior women who were college bound had higher self-concepts and were less other-directed than noncollege bound women. However, they postulated, along with Lewis (1965) and Steinmann (1963) that having higher self-concepts and being inner-directed has the potential to create conflicts within individual females when they try to conform to the stereotypic female role in our society.

There are contradictions in the literature regarding the influence of the mother who works in relationship to the formation of her daughter's self-concept. The one missing element in all of the studies reviewed was the failure to differentiate between mothers who work due to economic need and mothers who have chosen careers within the professional realm as a means of personal fulfillment.

Attitudes Toward Marriage

One of the primary concerns in the study of the family in this area has been the consequences of the wife working outside the home on the marital relationship. Traditionally,

the breadwinner role has been the domain of the husband and possible conflict might be expected when the wife begins to share this function. In the 1950's and early 1960's, research findings indicated that full-time employment of women contributed only slightly to more conflict and tensions and less marital happiness (Hoffman, 1974). By the late 1960's and early 1970's, she reported that this effect had apparently disappeared among the middle classes. However, there is substantial evidence in lower socio-economic status families that there is more conflict and less marital satisfaction when the wife is employed outside the home (Feldman & Feldman, 1973). There may be several explanations for these phenomena which have not been reflected in the research. It can be hypothesized that more conflict might be expected if (a) the woman works only because of economic necessity, (b) if there are several children, and/or (c) if the husband feels threatened because his position in the family has been partially usurped. There is no empirical evidence to suggest whether daughters reared in such home environments see outside employment of women as increasing marital stress, and therefore as something to be avoided. It is unlikely that these daughters will consider a career instead of marriage because the majority of college-educated women still report marriage as their primary goal.

There is evidence to support the idea that women who have high job satisfaction also have high marital satisfaction

(Safilios-Rothchild, 1970). Women who reported lower job satisfaction also reported lower marital satisfaction. In fact, their marital satisfaction scores were lower than the scores of women who did not work outside the home.

More women than ever before are participating in higher education. Birnbaum (1971) compared marital happiness of married professional women with college-educated housewives. She reported that a higher proportion of married women employed professionally were happily married than were comparably educated housewives. However, the professional women had significantly fewer children than did the housewives. There is evidence that an inverse relationship exists between having children and marital satisfaction (Rollins & Feldman, 1970). Therefore, it is difficult to ascertain whether the number of children or career satisfaction had the greater impact on marital relations.

Contradictory findings appear when researchers report on the saliency of marriage for young women. While Bernard (1975) suggested that more young women were considering alternatives to marriage, and Hammer (1975) believed that more women will marry for reasons other than social expectations, other research has indicated that the importance of marriage is not diminishing for the majority of young women (Bardwick, 1971; Rosen & Aneshensel, 1976). In a study of college women with professional career goals, the subjects indicated a willingness to delay marriage if they perceived role incompatibility (Parsons, Frieze, & Rubel, 1978).

In a study conducted in England with a sample of twelve-year-olds, a majority of both sexes had positive attitudes toward marriage (Clautour & Moore, 1969). However, girls were more inclined to believe marriage was the ultimate goal than were boys. Ninety percent of the girls indicated positive attitudes toward marriage compared with 57% of the boys.

One area which has remained largely unexplored is the area of role strain produced by combining marriage and a career. There is evidence to support the belief that men still do not share equally in household tasks (Osmond & Martin, 1975). There is no way to assess the messages which daughters receive from the mother who is trying to function both as wife-mother and as a working woman with little assistance from the husband/father. If the daughter senses a great deal of stress within her mother as a result of role overload, it is plausible that she may opt for either marriage or a career, but not both. Young women who choose both may be inclined to delineate household responsibilities with their future spouses prior to marriage. However, this remains as an unexplored area.

There is no clear evidence to indicate any change in the importance girls and women place on marriage. While our culture accepts careers for women as viable, it also advocates marriage as the primary role which women are expected to fulfill. Apparently, the great majority of young women still view this role as the most salient.

Attitudes Toward Children

Most women who expect to marry also expect to have children. According to a Gallup survey in 1973, only 1% of the population wanted no children. The evaluation of voluntary childlessness is a negative one in our culture. Women who have no children, due to choice, have been seen as selfish, cold, and unfeminine (Pohlman, 1969; Rainwater, 1960).

However, there is increasing evidence that college educated women may see childlessness as a viable option. In a study conducted in 1970-71, Lozoff (1972) found that 13% of 1800 college students from five different schools stated that they planned to have no children. Hoffman (1974) predicted that "...fertility differences between employed and unemployed women may increase" (p. 100). Her rationale was based on the belief that jobs which require higher educational levels are more likely to diminish fertility because they offer compensation for lack of motherhood. The fact that more time is spent in academic pursuit also may decrease the number of years in which conception is seen by women as a viable possibility.

In a study of faculty and students in medical colleges throughout the country, Rosen (1974) found that women students clearly rejected the idea that maternity is an essential part of the female role. Astin (1969) reported that 28% of the women doctorates in her study had no children. These

women were in their forties. However, there was no indication if the childlessness was voluntary because of career aspirations or if subfecundity prompted women to seek advanced degrees.

One critical psychological factor affecting the number of children a woman has is her acceptance or rejection of the feminine roles prevalent in our society (Blake, 1969; Davis, 1967). Young women who view themselves as competent and who have high self-esteem may see parenthood as an option. For all women, the number of children desired may be affected by self-perceptions. One study reported that women with low scores on competency items had a significantly higher number of children (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosencrantz, 1972).

Women who chose more traditional roles have reported higher satisfaction with their maternal roles than with their marital roles (Halas, 1974). Children may help define and fulfill the role of the traditional homemaker. If, indeed, as Rollins and Feldman (1970) reported, marital satisfaction does drop when children arrive, this could account for Halas' findings.

The number of children appeared to be an important consideration when considering maternal employment satisfaction. Women who have three or fewer children reported higher job satisfaction than women with more than three children (Farley, 1970; Nye, 1974).

Role strain may increase as the number of children increases. Birnbaum (1971) reported a major quantitative difference in the problem of childrearing for working and non-working mothers. More conflict was experienced by professional women because of child care and employee roles. They had less time for themselves and children's demands were intensified by time constraints. Mothers who did not work outside the home felt little strain but had a greater need to be "good" mothers. Perhaps this need arose because motherhood was their primary role and they felt compelled to excel at it. Many women leave the work force when their children are preschool age. Negative sanctions for mothers working outside the home are greatest during this period (Pohlman, 1969). However, Hoffman (1974) reported the sharpest rise in employment for any cohort of mothers was among those who had preschool children.

The negative connotations of voluntary childlessness in our society are still present. Young women with less education are especially vulnerable to this societal expectation and even more highly educated women experience subtle pressures from family and friends to bear children. The majority of all working and nonworking wives do have children, which supports the idea that motherhood is a very important role for women in our culture. Obviously, daughters of working women have a role model for motherhood. However, little research has focused on the attitudes that daughters hold toward their future maternal roles.

Attitudes Toward Careers

Girls whose mothers are employed have a different type of maternal role model from those girls whose mothers do not work outside the home. The differential impact of the two models may be expected to produce different attitudes toward future role choices for the daughters. Graham (1970) found that girls were more likely to pursue careers if their mothers were employed. However, Molm (1978) reported no relationship between mother's employment and daughter's attitudes toward women's roles.

Early sex-role socialization influences daughters' perceptions of their adult roles. Educational aspirations of 3,014 high school boys and girls of working and nonworking mothers were examined (Banducci, 1976). Children of employed mothers in the lower socio-economic levels expected to complete more schooling than did children of mothers who were full-time homemakers in the same economic level. In all three levels of socio-economic status, (defined by father's position as laborer, skilled worker, or professional), girls of working mothers believed they would combine a career and homemaking more often than daughters of nonworking mothers. Ridgeway (1978) reported no differences in career aspirations among college women from various socio-economic backgrounds.

Among kindergarten children, no differences were found between parents and their children regarding role expectations

(Thornburg & Weeks, 1975). This finding may be a result of less exposure to outside influences and also reinforces the belief that early parental influence is very important in formation of children's attitudes. Papalia and Tennent (1975) found that first grade girls tended to make fewer career choices than boys. They were more apt to change their first choice, if it was in a male dominated area, to a more traditionally feminine career.

Bacon and Lerner (1975) studied the effects of maternal employment on the development of females' vocational role perceptions with 126 elementary school girls from the second, fourth, and sixth grades. Results indicated that females whose mothers were employed outside the home saw more male dominated occupations as being available to both sexes than did females whose mothers were not employed. Similarly, at higher grade levels, girls more frequently saw women as entering male dominated vocations. However, females at all grade levels expected that they would engage in traditionally feminine vocational roles more often. This study utilized a majority of working mothers who were not professional women, which should be kept in mind when interpreting the results.

Studying older children, King McIntyre, and Axelson (1968) questionned 1055 junior high school students. Sons and daughters of college educated parents viewed maternal employment as less threatening than children of parents with

lower educational levels. Children who viewed wives' employment as the greatest threat to the marital relationship were those children whose fathers' educational level was in the 9-11 grades range and whose mothers had no more than an elementary school education. The single most outstanding finding of this study was that adolescents whose mothers were employed viewed employment as less of a threat to the marriage than did the adolescent children of nonworking mothers. The second major finding was that as the father participated in more household tasks, the adolescents were more accepting of the wife's employment. This finding was true for both sexes, but the effect was more pronounced for daughters.

Bielby (1978) reported that her evidence indicated females from lower socio-economic status origins tended to have more career salience than females from middle and higher socio-economic statuses. This has been supported by other research on adolescents (Douvan & Adelson, 1966). Perhaps this conclusion is partially a result of a desire to improve life after an earlier economic deprivation, either real or perceived.

In a study of 47 male and 33 female undergraduates, subjects were asked to rate themselves on perceived parental identification and their parents on a masculinity-femininity scale (Heilburn, 1969). They then were given the Strong Vocational Interest Blank instrument to determine positive and negative vocational interest patterning. The most

outstanding feature of the pattern score interaction for females was the low scores for feminine-mother-identified girls. A feminine-mother-identification was found to be associated with the incidence of vocational-educational problems for female college students. No strong career goals were evident.

In another study of college students, Cross (1971) reported data from a college which asked incoming freshmen every year since 1964 what they would like to be doing in 15 years. In 1964, 65% replied housewife and mother; 1967, 53% gave that response, and in 1970, only 31%. The percentage wanting to be married career women doubled, going from 20% in 1964 to 40% in 1970. Rosen (1974), studying medical students, found that combining maternal and career roles, rather than making a choice between them, was preferred.

Parsons, Freize, and Ruble (1978) found that college-age daughters had higher career aspirations when their mothers had careers or when their mothers were dissatisfied with their lives. Daughters whose mothers were satisfied with traditional homemaking roles had lower career aspirations.

The career attitudes of older women have also been studied. Nagley (1971) looked at a small sample of college-educated working mothers and categorized them into two groups: Traditionals, who pursued traditional female occupations, and Pioneers, who had careers in male dominated occupations. All of the women had at least one child at home and all were currently married. She found that women who had careers in

fields historically dominated by men seemed to be more career-committed than women in traditional feminine occupations. They were less likely to give up their careers if requested to by their husbands. However, the subjects who reported a close relationship with their mothers tended to see their careers as secondary to homemaking. No information was available to indicate if the mothers had been primarily homemakers. She concluded by saying, "A woman's relationship with her mother as she was growing up seems to be related to her attitudes toward her role as an adult" (p. 339).

While women are seeking more career opportunities in addition to their more traditional roles, they are still influenced by the attitudes of men toward these careers. An important source of support or opposition for a woman's participation in professional work appears to be her husband (Bailyn, 1964; Kaley, 1971).

Ridgeway (1978) recently conducted a study of 492 college women to ascertain what factors are associated with career aspirations. She reported that mothers' support of daughters' graduate work had extremely high significance while the fathers' support was not significant. However, fathers' opinions were most influential, not for academic achievement, but when they showed a high disdain for women in the traditional homemaker roles. College women who perceived that their fathers held low regard for the housewife role were highly influenced to seek a career. She also reported that

the support given to the maternal work role by mothers and fathers has greater impact on daughters' desires to achieve high career goals than does the factor of mothers being employed.

In a longitudinal study, Nelson and Goldberg (1969) investigated the attitudes of males and females on the employment of women. The results revealed that over a six-year period, both males and females had become more accepting of married women's employment. In the males' responses to personal data items, however, there was a complete rejection of the dual role for their own wives.

Summary

In summarizing the existing data, there appear to be contradictions regarding the saliency of factors which influence females' sex-role attitudes. It is important to keep in mind that sometimes small sample sizes and methodological procedures may account for some of the discrepancies. However, there are findings which appear to be supported by most research studies.

Females have less positive self-concepts than do males, in general. However, women who have careers which are personally satisfying report more positive self-concepts than do women who work due to necessity. There is limited evidence to suggest that career women also have higher self-concepts than do homemakers. However, their self-esteem

regarding child rearing may be lower than homemakers' self-esteem for the same area.

There does appear to be some evidence that daughters' self-concepts are related to mothers' self-concepts, which in turn may be related to mothers' roles. Again, daughters of mothers who indicate high career satisfaction may have more positive self-images. There is also evidence that daughters' self-concepts are influenced by fathers. While some researchers point to the mother as the most significant other regarding daughter's perception of herself and her future role enactments, others posit that the father may be a more influential role model. The missing link appears to be the lack of research which has been conducted with mothers and daughters wherein the mothers enact different roles and, therefore, present different role models for daughters.

Marriage and motherhood continue to be seen as very important roles for women. Only the most highly educated young women see careers as alternatives to these traditional roles and even within this group, the number who choose only careers appears to be limited. While daughters may perceive maternal role strain and role overload when mothers work, it does not seem to diminish their desire to marry and to have children even when they report they want to pursue a career, also.

The majority of research findings indicate a relationship between maternal employment and daughters' projected role choices. Most daughters of working mothers report that

they plan to combine a career and homemaking. Daughters of nonprofessional working mothers may choose "feminine" occupations more often than daughters of professional women.

Socio-economic status does not appear to have an impact on the daughters' desires for careers. Females from lower socio-economic levels report career choices which are considered high status careers almost as often as females from higher levels.

Once a woman has chosen a career which has typically been viewed as appropriate for males, she seems to be more committed to that career and less likely to relinquish it for any reason. If more and more daughters enter male dominated fields, there may be fewer interruptions in career pursuits to have children, to stay home until children enter school, to move when husbands are transferred, etc. This might alter the current societal expectations for career-oriented women.

The review of literature suggested that there is a deficiency in the amount of research which has looked at mothers and daughters as dyads for purposes of comparing their attitudes toward self, marriage, children, and careers. There is also a lack of research which has looked at working mothers in two categories--those who work due to necessity and those who work due to the desire for personal fulfillment--instead of lumped into one. These two areas may provide information which will enhance researchers' understanding of relationships between mothers' and daughters' sex-role attitudes.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

There were 75 mother-daughter dyads in this study. There were three groups which consisted of 25 mother-daughter dyads from families where the mother was not employed outside the home; 25 dyads from families where the mother was employed in dual-work jobs; and 25 dyads from families where the mother was in a dual-career profession. The daughters ranged in ages from 10 to 14. Older adolescent girls were excluded because their attitudes may be less a product of mothers' attitudes and more a product of peers or the influence of the media.

All girls were members of intact families where both parents were biological parents. Daughters in single-parent homes may live primarily with the mother, which may influence both her relationship with her mother and her attitudes toward marriage and careers in a manner which differs from the relationship between mothers and daughters in two-parent families. Only white families were used in this sample. There is some evidence that black families may have a different structure with regard to role enactments than do white families. A primary reason for excluding this group from the study was the small number of middle-class black

families who live in the area where the research was conducted.

Factors such as birth order, religious affiliation, and family size have been studied in relation to sex-role attitudes and self-concepts. However, these factors were not considered as criteria for defining the sample in this study.

Traditional mothers included only those who had never worked full-time since the birth of the daughter. Both dual-work and dual-career mothers had worked for five consecutive years prior to the study.

Procedures

The subjects were drawn from two adjacent counties in East Tennessee. An attempt was made to minimize the use of the academic community in an effort to maximize the generalizability of the findings. Permission was sought from elementary and junior high schools to look at parent employment cards of girls in the designated age range. This examination did not involve seeing the private school records of students because employment cards are kept in a file to be used in the event that the school needs emergency telephone numbers. However, only Anderson county had the information regarding mothers' employment in the card files. Therefore, most subjects were selected from Anderson county. Guidance counselors in the Oak Ridge City Schools supplied names of mothers who had professional careers. A few subjects were drawn from Knox county.

Letters of the alphabet were randomly selected and potential subjects for the traditional and dual-work groups were chosen from each letter category. Ten letters were selected by drawing them from a container. A purposive sample of 100 dyads was selected in the traditional and dual-work groups. There was difficulty in selecting such a large number in the dual-career families due to the limited number of professional women with daughters in the specified age range. An attempt was made to secure the largest number of dyads possible for this group; however, there were only 33 potential subjects, and their names were obtained by various methods. Counselors in the Oak Ridge City Schools supplied the names of 14 dual-career mothers of students within the designated age range. Other names were obtained by using the city directory which helped produce a chaining effect, whereby a mother would provide the name of someone she knew who lived in a dual-career family. Also, friends provided names of women they knew who would fit the criteria for the sample. The time involved in securing the sample for this group was considerably longer than the time spent in collecting the names for the other two groups. It appeared that studying dual-career families may be hampered somewhat by the difficulties involved with sampling.

A letter explaining the study was mailed to each mother selected, with a postcard included so she could indicate if she and her daughter wished to participate (see Appendices

A and B). Those who agreed to participate were mailed packets of questionnaires. These packets included selected items from the short version of the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (Spence, Helmrick, & Stapp, 1973); selected items from the Sex-Role Orientation Scale (Brogan & Kutner, 1976); a short questionnaire for the daughter concerning her future role choices; the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965); and a modified version of a Personal History Inventory (Hopkins, 1977). A letter explaining the procedures for filling out the questionnaires was included, and mothers and daughters were asked to respond without consulting with each other to the questionnaires (see Appendix C). Only mothers completed the Personal History Inventory, which was placed last in the mothers' questionnaire packets because of the mildly personal nature of some items. The questionnaires were presented to the respondents in the same order as they are listed above. These questionnaires were returned in stamped, self-addressed envelopes. In order to use third class postal rates, return addresses had to be included on the envelopes. A note was attached to the letters which accompanied the packets of questionnaires to explain this fact and to suggest that if respondents objected, they could remove the return address label and the researcher would pay the additional postage. Two respondents did remove the labels, but they added the extra postage. Also, included with the questionnaires were Informed Consent Forms for both mothers and daughters to

signed (see Appendices D and E). All were signed and returned. All questionnaires were completed so that none were deleted from the study.

A pilot study was conducted prior to the investigation to detect any problems with the instruments or the procedures. Five mother-daughter dyads pretested the instruments and provided feedback. Their suggestions were incorporated into the final instruments. The questionnaires and instruments were then mailed to the participants. After ten days, nonrespondents were mailed a postcard to remind them to complete and return the questionnaires (see Appendix F). Enough responses to fill each category were received before further contact was necessary. The researcher decided to use 25 dyads in each category a priori. The first 25 responses in each group were used in the study. Responses were coded as they were received. A few responses in each group were received after the initial 25, but some arrived several weeks after they were mailed to the potential participants. A total of 29 questionnaires were received from the traditional group, 28 from the dual-work group, and 26 from the dual-career group.

All respondents will be sent brief copies of the results of this study. More detailed information will be available if the participants request it.

Instrumentation

The short-form version of the Attitudes Toward Women Scale was selected to measure attitudes which mothers and

daughters hold regarding sex roles and appropriate role behaviors. This scale was modified to include only those items which measured attitudes toward marriage, children, and careers. The researcher chose the items which best corresponded to each variable, and the scores for each item pertaining to a particular variable were summed to obtain the respondents' attitudinal scores. Two items were added by the researcher to measure attitudes toward children. There was a total of sixteen items (see Appendix G). The reliability coefficients for this instrument in this study were .83 for mothers and .82 for daughters.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was developed by William Fitts (1964). It was used to test the self-concepts of both mothers and daughters. The TSCS has been widely used and information on its reliability and validity were reported in the instruction manual. On a test-retest study, reliability scores ranged from .61 to .92. In this study, the reliability coefficients were .59 for mothers and .71 for daughters. Four measures of validity were reported. Professional judges were used to analyze content validity. Only items upon which there was unanimous agreement were included in the scale. The TSCS has been tested to discriminate between groups and reached significance ($p < .001$). Scores on the TSCS have also been found to vary predictively with other life events.

The Sex-Role Orientation Scale was developed by Brogan and Kutner (1976). The scale consists of 36 items. It was

modified by the researcher to include only ten items pertinent to the research study (see Appendix H). Again, the researcher chose the items which best corresponded to each variable, and these items were included with those scores of the items from the Attitudes Toward Women Scale for respondents' total scores which defined their attitudes toward marriage, children, and careers. Reliability was established by the split-half method. Alternative items were used to construct two halves, each consisting of 10 items phrased in a nontraditional way. The split-half reliability coefficient was reported by the authors of the scale to be .95. The reliability coefficients for this particular study were found to be .87 for mothers and .79 for daughters. Internal validity was established by using two items in the scale to check consistency of the subject's responses. Construct validity was also checked and predicted relationships were found between SRO scores and demographic variables, such as sex, educational attainment, age, and religious affiliation.

All of these instruments were chosen because they could be used for both age groups of mothers and daughters. The forms sent to the daughters were modified slightly for easier reading and comprehension. The pre-tests indicated that daughters had no difficulty understanding them.

A short questionnaire consisting of three items was constructed by the researcher to gather information about the daughters' projected role choices (see Appendix I). This

information was not provided by any of the other questionnaires. It also asked which parent was the more influential in the daughter's role choice decisions.

The Personal History Inventory was developed by Hopkins (1977) to be used in a study of dual-career and single-career families. This questionnaire was designed to collect socio-demographic and familial information. Independent judges reviewed the questionnaires to insure clarity of the items. This researcher used fewer items from this Inventory for the traditional group. Items were chosen because of their relevance to the subjects' lifestyles. Therefore, there were two forms--one for homemakers and one for those women who worked outside of the home (see Appendix J).

Operational Definitions

Traditional Mothers: Mothers who are full-time homemakers and who have not worked outside the home since the birth of the daughter.

Dual-Work Mothers: Mothers who have been employed for at least five consecutive years prior to the study in a job which requires no college education, has limited advancement potential, and may be one she chooses due to economic need. The primary criterion for including mothers in this category will be the fact that the job requires a high school and/or technical school diploma, or less.

Dual-Career Mothers: Mothers who have been employed for

at least five consecutive years prior to the study in a job which requires an advanced degree or professional expertise, has advancement and/or establishment potential, and offers the mother a sense of personal fulfillment.

Daughters: Daughters who are between the ages of 10 and 14.

Self-Concept: The total positive numerical score of items 1-100 on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

Attitudes Toward Marriage: The total number of the A, B, C, or D answers to the following items on the Attitude Toward Women Scale: Items 2, 3, 4, and 6; and the following items on the Sex-Role Orientation Scale: Items 9 and 10. (Items are designated in Appendices G and H.)

Attitudes Toward Children: The total number of A, B, C, or D answers to the following items on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale: Items 7, 12, 15, and 16; and the following items on the Sex-Role Orientation Scale: Items 4 and 6. (Items are designated in Appendices G and H.)

Attitudes Toward Careers: The total number of A, B, C, or D responses to the following items on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale: Items 1, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, and 14; and the following items on the Sex-Role Inventory Scale: Items 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, and 8. (Items are designated in Appendices G and H.)

Null Hypotheses for This Study

H₀ 1: There is no relationship between self-concepts of mothers and daughters in the three family environments.

- H₀ 2: There is no relationship between the attitudes toward marriage, children, and careers between mothers and daughters in the family environments.
- H₀ 3: There is no significant difference between the self-concepts and sex-role attitudes of both mothers and daughters who live in homes where mothers (a) are full-time homemakers, (b) have dual-work employment, or (c) have dual-career professions.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The dependent variables in this study were (a) attitudes toward marriage, (b) attitudes toward children, (c) attitudes toward careers, and (d) self-concept. The independent variable was the career choice of the mothers, which were either traditional, dual-work, or dual-career. Two separate statistical analyses were used to analyze the collected data. The Pearson product-moment correlation was used to analyze the relationship of mothers' sex-role attitudes with daughters' sex-role attitudes, and the relationship between mothers' and daughters' self-concepts. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to compare the three groups of mothers' sex-role attitudes and self-concepts and the three groups of daughters' sex-role attitudes and self-concepts. Where a significant main effect was found, a Tukey HSD multiple comparison test was used to determine pair-wise significance between groups. The probability level of .05 was used as the criterion for rejecting the null hypotheses.

Sample Characteristics

As described earlier, there were three groups of mother-daughter dyads in the sample. One group was composed of

mothers who were full-time homemakers and their daughters. A second group was composed of mothers whose occupations were described as dual-work, and their daughters; and the third group was composed of mothers whose occupations were described as dual-career, and their daughters. All subjects were white females who were members of intact families. Both parents of the daughter were biological parents. No controls were placed on number of children in the family, birth order, religion, or socio-economic levels.

Subjects participated by answering mailed questionnaires. The response rate for completed questionnaires was 87% for the homemaker group, 82% for the dual-work group, and 75% for the dual-career group. It appeared that women who have more time at home were more responsive to filling out questionnaires. It is interesting to note that all the dual-career women, who had had some exposure to research due to their academic backgrounds, were the least responsive group. Perhaps this was a function of the demands on their time rather than a negative attitude toward research.

Table 1 provides a summary of the present ages of mothers, daughters, and fathers for each group. For the homemaker group, the mean for the present age of mothers was 39.0 years, with a range from 29 to 52 years. The mean for the present age of daughters was 12.32 years, with a range between 10 and 14 years. Fathers had a mean age of 41.9 years for the present age with a range between 30 and 57 years.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges of Present Ages of Mothers, Daughters, and Fathers

Mothers' Roles	Mothers' Ages			Daughters' Ages			Fathers' Ages		
	Mean	S.D.	Range	Mean	S.D.	Range	Mean	S.D.	Range
Traditional	39.0	5.84	29-52	12.32	1.18	10-14	41.92	6.22	30-57
Dual-Work	36.48	3.91	31-46	12.56	1.15	10-14	39.80	4.58	32-47
Dual-Career	40.92	4.17	32-47	12.40	1.35	10-14	43.08	4.32	32-50

In the dual-work group, the mean for the present age of mothers was 36.5 years with a range from 31 to 46 years. Daughters had a mean age of 12.56 years with a range from 10 to 14. Fathers' mean age at present was 39.8 years, ranging from 32 to 47. In the dual-career group, the mean for the present age of mothers was 40.9 years with a range from 32 to 47. The mean for the present age of daughters was 12.4 years, ranging from 10 to 14 years. Fathers had a mean of 43.0 years for present age, ranging from 32 to 50 years. The overall mean for present age of mothers was 38.8 years; for daughters, 12.42 years; and for fathers, 41.5 years. While there is no precise data as to mean ages of parents of 10 to 14-year-old daughters, these ages would appear to be representative of the general population of parents with daughters in that age range.

Religious affiliation has been examined as a variable in sex-role attitudes, and research findings indicate there is a relationship between the two factors (Molm, 1978). The following is data on religious preferences for the traditional mothers, dual-work mothers, and dual-career mothers. Among the mothers who were in traditional roles as full-time homemakers, 18 were Protestants, 3 were Catholic, and 4 were classified as other. There were 24 Protestants and 1 other in the dual-work group of mothers. Fourteen dual-career mothers indicated they were Protestants, 4 were Catholic, 1 was Jewish, and 6 were other. Those responses which were

entered into the category of other were Unitarian, no religious affiliation, or "a deep belief in God." There were five Unitarian respondents in the dual-career group. It appears unlikely that 20% of the population of dual-career families are Unitarians which may indicate that the sample is questionable as to its representativeness regarding religion. No census data were available to indicate what percentage of the population was affiliated with various religions in Anderson and Knox counties. Table 2 presents this data.

Table 2. Religious Affiliation of Mothers

Mother's Roles	Protestant	Catholic	Jewish	Other
Traditional	18	3		4
Dual-Work	24			1
Dual-Career	14	4	1	6

Mothers who are full-time homemakers perhaps do not feel the need from an economic standpoint to work outside the home. However, there are other factors which may enter into her decision to remain at home, such as the number of children and their ages, husband's attitudes toward her working outside the home, her values regarding appropriate role enactment, etc. In this sample, the husbands' incomes were only slightly higher

within the traditional group than were the husbands' salaries within the dual-work group. Forty percent of the husbands of traditional mothers earned between fifteen and twenty thousand dollars annually, while 40% in that group earned over twenty thousand yearly. The remaining 20% earned between five and fifteen thousand dollars.

Dual-work mothers were defined as those mothers who perhaps worked because of economic need. It could be posited that the husbands' salaries would be lower than the husbands' salaries of the other two groups who were studied. However, there was no substantial difference between this group and the husbands' salaries of the traditional group. Twenty-eight percent earned between five and fifteen thousand dollars, 40% earned between fifteen and twenty thousand dollars, and 32% earned over twenty thousand dollars.

Included in the definition for dual-career mothers was the criterion that they would probably have at least one college degree. As a generality, women in our society tend to marry men who have equivalent or higher educations. Men with higher educations generally earn higher incomes. Therefore, the researcher expected that the income levels for husbands of dual-career mothers would be higher than the levels of the other two groups. This was an accurate assumption. No husband earned less than ten thousand dollars yearly and only 4% earned between ten and fifteen thousand dollars. Twelve percent earned between fifteen and twenty thousand

dollars while 84% earned over twenty thousand dollars annually. This would substantiate the belief that most dual-career mothers were not working because of economic need.

Using the same suppositions for the salaries of dual-career women as was presented above for the husbands' salaries of dual-career women, it was expected that this group would have higher income levels than would the dual-work group. Again, this assumption was found to be correct. While 12% of dual-career mothers earned between five and ten thousand dollars yearly, 52% earned between ten and fifteen thousand dollars yearly; and 28% reported salaries ranging between fifteen and twenty thousand dollars annually. Two respondents (8%) earned over twenty thousand dollars. The salaries reported by dual-work mothers were considerably lower. Twenty percent earned below five thousand dollars, 48% earned between five and ten thousand dollars, and the remaining 32% earned between ten and fifteen thousand dollars yearly (see Table 3).

One criterion for selecting the dual-career sample was the advanced educational level. All respondents in this group had college degrees; 18 had master's degrees, 2 had Ph.D. degrees, and 1 had an Ed.D. degree. The dual-work group had the second highest educational level. Three participants had attended high school, 12 were high school graduates, 3 had attended college, while 2 were college graduates. Three had attended technical school and 2 were graduates of technical schools. There was only a slightly lower level of academic

Table 3. Percentages of Mothers and/or Fathers in Various Income Levels

		Annual Income Category				
Mothers' Roles	Below \$5,000	\$5,000-9,999	\$10,000-14,999	\$15,000-20,000	Above \$20,000	
Traditional						
Fathers		8%	12%	40%	40%	
Dual-Work						
Mothers	20%	48%	32%			
Fathers		8%	20%	40%	32%	
Dual-Career						
Mothers	8%	4%	52%	28%	8%	
Fathers			4%	12%	84%	

achievement for the homemakers. Two respondents had only attended grade school, 6 respondents had attended high school while 7 subjects had graduated from high school. Two participants attended college while 3 had received bachelors' degrees; 2 had attended technical school and 1 had graduated from technical school. Two were classified as other which included one participant who had been trained as a stewardess and one who had attended modeling school. Table 4 presents the different educational levels for the respondents in each group.

The 1970 census reported that the total number of women, whose families were intact, in the work force in Tennessee was 49.5% in areas where the population exceeded 10,000 and 47.2% in rural areas (U. S. Department of Commerce, 1973). Fifty-six percent of the traditional women had worked prior to having children for an average of 5.15 years. The data regarding dual-work mothers indicated that 76% had worked before having children with a mean of 2.94 years. Due to the nature of the research sample, 100% had worked after children were born with a mean of 9.16 years for working full-time and 3.90 years for working part-time. Eighty-four percent of the dual-career mothers worked before children were born for an average of four years. Again, all mothers had worked following the births of children. Seven years was the average length of employment reported by this group for full-time jobs while 32% had also worked part-time for an average of 5.44 years (see Table 5).

Table 4. A Comparison of Highest Educational Levels Attained by Traditional, Dual-Work, and Dual-Career Mothers

Educational Levels	Mothers		
	Traditional	Dual-Work	Dual-Career
Attended Grade School	2		
Attended High School	6	3	
High School Graduate	7	12	
Attended College	2	3	
College Graduate	3	2	4
Attended Technical School	2	3	
Technical School Graduate	1	2	
Attended Graduate School			
Graduate Degree			21 (18 M.S.) (2 Ph.D.) (1 Ed.D.)
Other	2		

Table 5. Percentage of Mothers Who Worked Both Full-Time and Part-Time Before and After Children were Born and Mean Number of Years Worked

Mothers' Roles	<u>Worked Before Children</u>		<u>Worked After Children</u>	
	Full-Time	Part-Time	Full-Time	Part-Time
Traditional				
Percentage of Mothers	52%	16%	---	---
Number of Years	5.15 yrs.	2 yrs.	---	---
Dual-Work				
Percentage of Mothers	76%	12%	100%	40%
Number of Years	2.94 yrs.	2 yrs.	9.16 yrs.	3.90 yrs.
Dual-Career				
Percentage of Mothers	80%	20%	100%	68%
Number of Years	4 yrs.	4 yrs.	7 yrs.	5.44 yrs.

The data for the number of children in each family is presented in Table 6. The children are classified with regard to sex and as to whether they are younger or older than twelve. The daughters in the study are not included in the following data. The traditional mothers had the highest number of children with a total of 58. Twenty-seven children were 12 years old or younger. Sixteen of these were males and 11 were females. Twenty-seven children were over 12 with 18 being males and 9 being females. The dual-work mothers had the fewest number of children with a total of 35. Twenty children were 12 or under and these included 11 males and 9 females. Eight males and 7 females comprised the 15 children who were over 12. The dual-career mothers, who were older on the average than the dual-work mothers, had 37 children. Only 13 were younger than 12 years old. Eight were males and 5 were females. Twenty-four children were over 12, a noticeable difference from the children of the dual-work mothers. Of this number, 10 were males and 14 were females. From the entire sample, 5 daughters were only children and 24 were oldest children.

Included with the packet of questionnaires was a form for daughters on which they indicated their future role preferences and which parent had had the greater influence on these role decisions. Nineteen of the daughters of the traditional mothers indicated they planned to be wives and mothers and have careers. Five plan to be wives and mothers

Table 6. Comparison of Number of Male and Female Children Twelve and Under and the Number of Male and Female Children Over Twelve in Traditional, Dual-Work, and Dual-Career Families

Variable	Traditional Families	Dual-Work Families	Dual-Career Families
Children			
Twelve and Under	<u>27</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>13</u>
Males	16	11	8
Females	11	9	5
Over Twelve	<u>27</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>24</u>
Males	18	15	10
Females	9	7	14

exclusively, while one indicated that she would choose a career only. Eighteen daughters of the dual-work mothers responded that they would choose the roles of wife, mother, and career, while three selected the response of wife-mother. Two daughters indicated they would elect to be wives and have careers, but not children, while two participants chose the category of career only. In the dual-career families, it might be expected that daughters would be likely to select careers as one of their primary roles more often than daughters in the other two groups. However, this was not indicated by their responses. Only one selected the career only choice, while eighteen selected the wife, mother, and career choice. Six chose the response which indicated that they would like to be wives and have careers, but not be mothers. This number represents 24% of the sample and is a higher number than would be expected (see Table 7).

These choices are more interesting when juxtaposed with the findings of a recent Roper survey (1977) which asked women of all ages what their role choices would be. Fifty-two percent of all women interviewed indicated they preferred the choice which combined the roles of wife, mother, and career. This is noticeably lower than the 72% of daughters who chose that same option in this research. Thirty-eight percent of the sample indicated they would prefer the wife-mother roles. This is contrasted with a total of 12% of all the daughters in this research who selected the option

Table 7. Daughters' Future Role Preferences

Variable	Traditional Daughters	Dual-Work Daughters	Dual-Career Daughters
Role Choices			
Wife Only	---	---	---
Wife & Mother	5	3	---
Wife, Mother, & Career	19	18	18
Wife & Career		2	6*
Career Only	1	2	1

*This number includes 24% of the sample.

of wife and mother. While 4% of the respondents in Roper's survey indicated they would prefer to be wives and have careers, but not be mothers, 10% of the daughters in the present research selected that response.

The daughters were also asked to state the occupation they would choose when they grew up if they planned to have a career. These responses were placed in categories of traditional careers and nontraditional careers by the researcher. Fifty-two percent selected careers which have traditionally been selected by females, while 48% selected nontraditional careers. Doctors and lawyers were the most frequently chosen nontraditional careers, with scientists and engineers also high on the list. These last two choices may be accounted for by virtue of the fact that a large proportion of the sample lived in Oak Ridge, Tennessee, a city with nuclear energy plants. Of the traditional career choices, teachers, secretaries, and nurses were those mentioned most often.

Daughters were asked which parent had been most influential concerning their career choices. Daughters in all groups responded most frequently that mothers had been most influential, with 57% reporting this parent. However, it should be noted that 27% reported that fathers had been most influential and 17% selected both parents as being equally influential. One respondent reported that neither parent had influenced her choice.

Mothers in the dual-work and dual-career groups also

responded to a similar question regarding parental influence on their career choices. Only 38% reported that their mothers were most influential. However, mothers' fathers were also chosen less frequently than fathers of daughters, with 18% reporting that fathers were most influential. Thirty-eight percent chose both parents, while 6% reported that neither parent had been influential. It should be noted that participants had to write in the "neither" response.

Relationships of Mothers' and Daughters'

Sex-Role Attitudes

Ranges and Means of Responses

Selected items from the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and the Sex-Role Orientation Scale were used to measure mothers' and daughters' attitudes toward marriage, children, and careers. The numerical range for attitudes toward marriage was from 6 to 24, with 6 being the most nontraditional response possible and 24 being the most traditional. The mean scores for sex-role attitudes of mothers and daughters in the traditional group were 12.44 and 12.20, respectively, with a range of 6 to 21. Mothers and daughters in the dual-work group had mean scores of 14.52 and 14.60, respectively, ranging from 8 to 21 for mothers and 9 to 22 for daughters. Dual-career mothers' mean score was 9.80 while their daughters' mean score was 8.92. The range of the scores for these mothers was 6 to 16, and for daughters, the range was 6 to 17.

The possible range of scores regarding attitudes toward children was also 6 to 24, with 6 indicating the most nontraditional responses and 24 the most traditional responses. Traditional mothers' scores ranged from 8 to 16 with a mean of 12.76, while their daughters' scores ranged from 8 to 21 with a mean score of 13.60. In the dual-work group, mothers' scores ranged from 9 to 23 with a mean of 13.58. Daughters in this group had scores ranging from 9 to 22 and a mean score of 12.72. Dual-career mothers' scores ranged from 8 to 14 with a mean of 10.92, and their daughters' scores were within the range of 7 to 16 with a mean of 10.16.

The scores for attitudes toward careers had a higher range with 14 being the most nontraditional response score and 64 the most traditional response score. Traditional mothers had scores which ranged from 14 to 52 and a mean score of 27.16. Daughters of traditional mothers had a range of scores between 15 and 47 with a mean of 26.48. The scores of dual-work mothers' responses fell between 15 and 43 with a mean of 26.92; their daughters' scores ranged from 16 to 52 with a mean score of 26.80. The dual-career mothers had a range of scores from 14 to 40. It might be expected that the mean score would be lower than the mean scores of the other two groups. This assumption was accurate as evidenced by their mean score of 21.36. However, daughters of these mothers had an even lower mean score of 18.36 with the lowest and smallest range of scores--14 to 29.

It is noteworthy that mean scores for both mothers and daughters in each group for all three variables fell closer to the nontraditional end of the scale than to the traditional end. This would indicate a change in attitudes toward sex-roles even in groups who have chosen the more traditional career choices. The data for means and ranges is presented in Table 8.

Correlation of Mothers' and Daughters' Responses

To determine the correlation between the attitudes of mothers and daughters regarding sex roles, items from the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and the Sex-Role Orientation Scale were scored and analyzed by using a Pearson product-moment correlation. The hypothesis being tested was that there was no significant relationship between attitudes concerning sex roles for mothers and daughters living in three different family environments--traditional, dual-work, and dual-career.

Results of the Pearson product-moment correlation indicated that there were some significant relationships between the attitudes regarding sex roles for mothers and daughters (see Table 9). The scores for correlation were obtained by summing the items from each questionnaire which were previously determined to pertain to the three variables being studied--marriage, children, and careers.

There were significant relationships regarding attitudes

Table 8. Mean Scores and Ranges for Mothers' and Daughters' Responses Regarding Sex-Role Attitudes.*

Days	Marriage		Children		Careers	
	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
Traditional						
Mother	12.44	6-21	12.76	8-16	27.16	14-52
Daughter	12.20	6-21	13.60	8-21	26.48	15-47
Dual-Work						
Mother	14.52	8-21	13.58	9-23	26.92	15-43
Daughter	14.60	9-22	12.72	9-22	26.80	16-52
Dual-Career						
Mother	9.80	6-16	10.92	8-14	21.36	14-40
Daughter	8.92	6-17	10.16	7-16	18.36	14-29

*Range for the variable, marriage = 6 (nontraditional) to 24 (traditional)

Range for the variable, children = 6 (nontraditional) to 24 (traditional)

Range for the variable, careers = 14 (nontraditional) to 64 (traditional)

Table 9. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients for Mothers' and Daughters' Sex-Role Attitudes.

Groups	Sex-Role Attitudes		
	Marriage	Children	Careers
Traditional Dyads	$r = .6440^*$ ($p < .001$)	$r = .3272$ ($p < .005$)	$r = .5655^*$ ($p < .002$)
Dual-Work Dyads	$r = .5145^*$ ($p < .004$)	$r = .7262$ ($p < .0001$)	$r = .7148^*$ ($p < .0001$)
Dual-Career Dyads	$r = .4893^*$ ($p < .007$)	$r = .2328$ ($p < .131$)	$r = .3346^*$ ($p < .051$)

toward two variables for mothers and daughters in the traditional group. Attitudes toward marriage indicated a relationship of .6440 ($p < .0001$), and the relationship for attitudes toward careers was .5655 ($p < .002$). Mothers' and daughters' attitudes toward children approached a significant relationship ($r = .3272$; $p < .055$).

The attitudes regarding sex-roles of mothers and daughters in the dual-work families were significantly related for all three variables. Attitudes toward children were strongly correlated at .7262 ($p < .0001$) while attitudes toward careers almost reached the same level of relationship by showing a correlation of .7148 ($p < .0001$). Attitudes toward marriage were related at .5145 ($p < .004$).

Mothers and daughters from dual-career families had attitudes which were significantly related for two variables, marriage and careers. The analysis of attitudes toward marriage indicated there was a correlation of .4893 ($p < .007$), and the analysis of attitudes toward careers showed a correlation of .3346 ($p < .051$). Attitudes toward children were not significantly related at .2328 ($p < .131$).

Overall, the attitudes concerning sex-roles between mothers and daughters in dual-work families indicated a stronger relationship than those same attitudes in the other two groups. Mothers and daughters in traditional homes share more similar attitudes than do those dyads in the dual-career families regarding sex roles. In both the traditional and dual-career

families, mothers' and daughters' attitudes concerning children were not significantly related.

Relationships of Mothers' and Daughters'

Self-Concepts

Ranges and Means of Self-Concept Scores

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was used to measure self-concept. The mean score as reported in the TSC Manual is 345.57 for the total positive score. The total positive scores were the only scores analyzed for all three groups. Traditional mothers had scores which ranged from 275 to 331, while their daughters' scores ranged from 274 to 365. The mean score for those mothers was 298.28 and 319.98 for daughters. Self-concept scores ranged from 281 to 331 for dual-work mothers with a mean score of 303.12. Daughters in this group had scores ranging from 283 to 364 with a mean score of 316.64. Based on earlier research reports, it was anticipated that self-concept scores would be higher for dual-career mothers and daughters. However, this did not appear to be supported. Mothers' scores ranged from 271 to 328, with a mean score of 301.84 while their daughters' scores ranged from 292 to 356 with a mean score of 315.68. These data are presented in Table 10.

Correlations of Self-Concept Scores

A Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was used to indicate the relationship between the self-concepts of mothers

Table 10. Means**, Ranges, and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients for Mothers' and Daughters' Self-Concept Scores.

Self-Concept Scores	Traditional		Dual-Work		Dual-Career	
	Mothers	Daughters	Mothers	Daughters	Mothers	Daughters
Means	29.28	319.98	303.12	316.64	301.84	315.68
Ranges	275-331	274-365	281-331	283-364	271-328	292-356
Pearson Product-Moment						
Correlation Coefficient	$r = .1877$ ($p < .185$)		$r = .3350^*$ ($p < .051$)		$r = .1582$ ($p < .225$)	

**The Tennessee Self-Concept Manual reports a mean score of 345.57.

and daughters (see Table 10). The hypothesis being tested was that there was no significant relationship between the self-concepts of mothers and daughters. The relationship of self-concept scores was .1877 ($p < .185$) for the traditional group. The relationship of self-concept scores for mothers and daughters in dual-work families reached significance at .3350 ($p < .051$). The analysis of dual-career mothers' and daughters' self-concept scores indicated a relationship of .1582 ($p < .225$).

Group Comparisons of Sex-Role Attitudes and Self-Concepts

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to compare the differences among the three groups of mothers and the three groups of daughters concerning their attitudes toward marriage, children, and careers, and their self-concept scores. The Wilks Lambda Criterion was used to determine if the F ratio was significant. Mothers' attitudes toward marriage were found to be significantly different ($F = 8.79$, $d.f. = 2/72$, $p < .0004$). A Tukey HSD post hoc test was then used to determine which groups differed significantly because the Tukey test holds the experiment-wise error rate at the chosen alpha level for all possible comparisons. There was no difference between traditional and dual-work mothers regarding attitudes toward marriage. Dual-career mothers' attitudes differed significantly from both traditional mothers'

and dual-work mothers' attitudes at the .05 level. It might have been anticipated that dual-work and dual-career mothers would not differ significantly from each other, but this was not the case.

There was a significant difference between mothers' attitudes toward children ($F = 3.98$, $d.f. = 2/72$, $p < .02$). Again, A Tukey post hoc analysis indicated there was no significant difference between the traditional mothers' attitudes and the dual-work mothers' attitudes, but both groups differed significantly from the group of dual-career mothers on this variable at the .05 alpha level.

Among the three groups, there was a significant difference regarding attitudes toward careers ($F = 3.978$, $d.f. = 2/72$, $p < .02$). The post hoc comparison test revealed that the significance was between the group of traditional mothers and the group of dual-career mothers. There was no significant differences between traditional mothers' attitudes regarding careers and the attitudes of dual-work mothers. Neither did dual-work mothers differ significantly from dual-career mothers in career attitudes.

There was no significant main effect mean for self-concept scores among the three groups. Therefore, no further analysis was conducted. The above data for mothers are presented in Tables 11 and 12.

The MANOVA concerning differences for daughters' attitudes indicated a significant difference regarding attitudes toward

Table 11. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Three Groups of Mothers Regarding Sex-Role Attitudes and Self-Concepts

F Approximation for Multivariant Test of Differences

d.f. = 2 and 72

p less than .05

Variable	d.f.	Mean Square	F Value	p<
Marriage	2,72	101.640	8.79	.0004*
Children	2,72	46.973	6.79	.002*
Careers	2,72	269.213	3.98	.023*
Self-Concept	2,72	157.240	.81	.447

Table 12. Tukey HSD Multiple Comparisons Test for Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Significant Differences Among Groups of Mothers Regarding Sex-Role Variables, Reported by the Underlining Method

Variable	Group Means			p<
	Traditional	Dual-Work	Dual-Career	
Marriage	<u>12.44</u>	<u>14.52</u>	<u>9.80</u>	.05*
Children	<u>12.76</u>	<u>13.58</u>	<u>10.92</u>	.05*
Careers	<u>27.16</u>	<u>26.92</u>	21.36	.05*

marriage ($F = 7.933$, $d.f. = 2/72$, $p < .0008$). Again, as with groups of mothers, the significance was between attitudes of daughters of dual-career mothers and daughters' attitudes from the dual-work group, and between the daughters in the dual-career group and the daughters in the traditional group. There was no significant difference in marriage attitudes between daughters in the traditional homes and those in dual-work homes. These comparisons were tested at the .05 alpha level.

Daughters' attitudes concerning children across all groups were significantly different ($F = 4.532$, $d.f. = 2/72$, $p < .01$). The difference was found to be only between daughters in traditional homes and daughters in dual-career homes. Daughters in dual-work homes had attitudes which were not significantly different from daughters' attitudes in either of the other two groups.

There were significant differences in attitudes about careers for daughters, also ($F = 6.559$, $d.f. = 2/72$, $p < .002$). In the post hoc comparisons, the significant differences of attitudes were found to be between daughters of dual-career mothers and daughters of traditional mothers, and between daughters from the dual-career group and daughters from the dual-work group. Differences were not significant between dual-work daughters' attitudes and traditional daughters' attitudes.

As in the case of mothers' self-concept scores, the

daughters' scores did not differ. Again, no further tests were conducted. The data presented above are graphically illustrated in Table 13 and 14.

It was concluded that groups of mothers differed significantly in their attitudes toward marriage, children, and careers. Regarding the variables of attitudes toward marriage and children, dual-career mothers were differentiated from dual-work mothers and from traditional mothers. When analyzing the data for mothers' attitudes toward careers, only the dual-career mothers' attitudes could be differentiated from the attitudes of traditional mothers. Apparently, dual-work mothers have attitudes toward careers which are somewhat similar to both traditional mothers' and dual-career mothers' attitudes.

Groups of daughters could also be differentiated by their attitudes toward the three sex-role variables. As with mothers, daughters of dual-career families were different in their attitudes toward marriage from the daughters in the other two groups. However, regarding attitudes toward children, daughters from dual-career families were differentiated from daughters of both of the other groups via their attitudes toward careers. Daughters of dual-work mothers held similar attitudes toward careers with those of daughters of traditional mothers but not with those same attitudes of daughters reared in dual-career families.

Self-concept scores were not significantly different for

Table 13. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Three Groups of Daughters Regarding Sex-Role Attitudes and Self-Concepts

F Approximation for Multivariate Test of Differences				
<u>d.f.</u> = 2 and 72		p less than .05		
Variable	d.f.	Mean Square	F Value	p<
Marriage	2,72	84.280	7.93	.0008*
Children	2,72	38.173	4.53	.014*
Careers	2,72	331.893	6.56	.002*
Self-Concept	2,72	61.173	.15	.862

Table 14. Tukey HSD Multiple Comparisons Test for Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Significant Differences Among Groups of Mothers Regarding Sex-Role Variables, Reported by the Underlining Method

Variable	Traditional	Dual-Work	Dual-Career	p<
Marriage	<u>12.20</u>	<u>14.60</u>	<u>8.92</u>	.05*
Children	<u>13.60</u>	<u>12.72</u>	10.16	.05*
Careers	<u>26.48</u>	<u>26.80</u>	<u>18.36</u>	.05*

any groups of mothers or daughters. This is a surprising finding in view of some other research reports.

The researcher acknowledges the use of the University of Tennessee Computer Center in analyzing the data. Both the Statistical Analysis System program and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program were used.

Summary

The major purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between three groups of mothers' and daughters' sex-role attitudes and between their self-concepts. The groups included 25 dyads of traditional mothers and daughters, 25 dyads of dual-work mothers and daughters, and 25 dyads of dual-career mothers and daughters. The secondary purpose was to determine if there were differences among the groups of mothers and the groups of daughters regarding their sex-role attitudes and their self-concepts. The null hypothesis that there was no significant relationship between the sex-role attitudes of mothers and daughters was rejected in all cases except for attitudes toward children in the traditional group and in the dual-career group. The null hypothesis that there was no relationship between mothers' and daughters' self-concepts was rejected for the dual-work dyads, but failed to be rejected for the traditional dyads and the dual-career dyads. The null hypothesis of no significant differences among groups of mothers and groups of daughters

regarding sex-role attitudes was rejected for the three sex-role variables. However, there were no significant differences in self-concept scores across groups of mothers or groups of daughters. Thus, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected for the variable of self-concept for both mothers and daughters.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

Conclusions

Changing attitudes regarding appropriate roles for women have prompted researchers from several disciplines to look at this phenomenon from a variety of perspectives. Much attention has been focused on the dichotomy of working and nonworking women, and these two role choices have been used as independent variables in an effort to predict a wide range of dependent variables. Categorizing all women who are employed into one group has caused one apparent problem in such studies. Women who work outside the home may have different reasons for doing so, and therefore, would have different feelings about the desirability of employment as a role choice.

Research literature has included findings concerning daughters of mothers who work outside the home and daughters of mothers who do not work outside the home. The comparisons have generally been between the two groups of daughters. The current research was designed to tap into two overlooked dimensions in the sex-role literature: (a) the dichotomy of working mothers--those mothers who work mainly because of economic necessity and those mothers who have professional careers which perhaps offer more personal rewards than the

first group receives, and (b) the relationship between mothers' and daughters' attitudes toward sex-roles and toward themselves. The independent variable was the career role choice of the mother--traditional, dual-work, and dual-career. The dependent variables were the sex-role attitudes toward marriage, children, and careers, and the self-concept scores of mothers and daughters.

The data which were collected from the 75 mother-daughter dyads provided support for the following conclusions:

1. Mothers and daughters do share similar attitudes regarding sex-roles.
2. Mothers' and daughters' attitudes regarding marriage were significantly related in all three groups.
3. Only mothers and daughters in the dual-work groups have similar attitudes regarding children.
4. Mothers' and daughters' attitudes were significantly related in all three groups with regard to careers.
5. Mothers and daughters in the dual-career group had more nontraditional views regarding all three variables than did the other two groups, and daughters of dual-career mothers had the least traditional attitudes of all groups.
6. Traditional mothers and their daughters and dual-work mothers and their daughters hold very similar attitudes concerning marriage, children, and careers, with dual-work dyads being slightly more traditional in attitudes toward marriage than the other two groups.

7. Mothers' and daughters' self-concept scores in the dual-work group indicated that there was a significant relationship between the dyads. Mothers and daughters in the other two groups were not significantly related with regard to these same scores.

8. The mean self-concept scores for all groups were lower than the reported mean scores of all of those who have taken the TSCS.

9. Daughters in all groups had slightly higher self-concept mean scores than their mothers did.

10. Dual-career mothers' attitudes toward marriage and children were significantly different from those attitudes held by dual-work and traditional mothers, whose attitudes regarding those two variables were similar.

11. Only dual-career mothers and traditional mothers differed on their attitudes about careers. Dual-work mothers did not differ from either of the other two groups.

12. Daughters of traditional mothers and daughters of dual-work mothers differed in their attitudes about marriage from those of daughters of dual-career mothers.

13. Daughters in dual-career homes had different attitudes about children from those attitudes held by daughters of traditional mothers.

14. In contrast to groups of mothers, daughters of dual-career mothers had different attitudes regarding careers from daughters of traditional mothers and daughters of dual-work

mothers. The latter two groups did not differ on career attitudes.

15. There was no significant difference in self-concept scores for any group of mothers or daughters.

Discussion

It is worthwhile to study the attitudes of young girls toward their future roles because there is evidence to support the idea that early attitudes do affect subsequent role decisions. Spitz and Spaeth (1976) presented longitudinal data which suggested that sex-role attitudes of women in 1964 strongly related to employment choices in 1968. Marini (1978) found that attitudes of high school students moderately predicted adult behavior, and that career choices in adolescence definitely played a directional role in later occupational attainment. Because no longitudinal studies have been done with girls as young as those in this study, the foregoing evidence may be extrapolated to include this age cohort.

Some attitudinal data exists which shows a relationship between parents and children. In a recent study, Acock and Bengston (1978) reported high predictability from parent to child regarding political and religious attitudes. Of particular interest in light of the current research was the finding that mothers were consistently more influential in the formation of children's attitudes. They suggest that more attention

should be paid to the mother's role in intergenerational socialization of attitudes. The conclusions of this study offer support for their findings.

The process by which young girls decide to become wives and mothers exclusively, or employed mothers and wives, or career women, has been mostly ignored by researchers. It seems plausible that the family environment in which a girl is reared has some impact on her future role decisions. While both parents in intact homes have significant influence on children with regard to socializing them concerning cultural norms and expected role behaviors, it has been unclear as to the extent of mothers' influence on daughters' attitudes regarding the saliency of future role choices. Vanfossen (1977) reported that daughters of mothers who are employed full-time outside the home are considerably more likely to have contemporary sex-role views. This finding could also be interpreted to conclude that daughters of mothers who do not work outside the home may have more traditional sex-role views. There is no empirical evidence for predicting what part mothers play in the development of sex-role attitudes. Just the fact that mothers work outside the home would not seem as crucial to the development of sex-role views as how the mother feels about working outside the home. Until this project, no research had been reported which would help determine how these women view sex-roles and the relation of their views to their daughters' views.

The conclusions offered by this study that mothers and daughters do share similar views on certain sex-role variables helps to confirm that the mother is a significant other in her daughter's life. However, the study also illustrated that mothers' attitudes do not account for all the variance in daughters' attitudes, regardless of the mother's career role choices. This does not negate the importance of mothers' influence on daughters nor does it really imply the direction of influence--daughters are also significant others in mothers' lives.

Mothers and daughters in all three groups had similar attitudes toward marriage. This could be interpreted as supporting the evidence that marriage is still a prominent choice for most women even when they plan to pursue careers. However, across the groups, both mothers and daughters in the dual-career families had different attitudes regarding marriage than did mothers and daughters in the other two groups. The difference was in the direction of nontraditional attitudes. When reviewing the items which were included in the operational definition of marriage for this study, it could be seen that respondents who have more non-traditional attitudes are not rejecting marriage, but they are viewing it in a more egalitarian perspective. For instance, they do not believe women should have full responsibility for household tasks in the marriage relationship. There was no greater number of daughters who wanted to have

only a career in the dual-career group, thereby indicating that marriage is, indeed, still a highly salient role choice for young girls. The problematic aspect of young women's nontraditional views regarding distribution of household tasks within marriage is the evidence which indicates that males do not respond in such a nontraditional manner (Bayer, 1975; Parelius, 1975; Scanzoni, 1976; Tomeh, 1978). These divergent attitudes may account for some potential marital strain in dual-career families.

Only mothers and daughters in the dual-work group shared similar attitudes about children. The family composition indicated there were only slightly fewer children in this group than in the dual-career group. In general, the composition of ages revealed that children were younger in this group than in the other two groups. This fact might be anticipated because the mean age of mothers was younger. Also, the range of scores indicated the most traditional views toward children were within the dual-work group. The possible reason for these views seems unclear; however, plausible explanations may be that this group of mothers experiences more guilt about motherhood because of employment and compensates for the guilt by expressing the belief that children are essential for a woman's fulfillment, or perhaps these mothers receive fewer job satisfactions and find more personal fulfillment in motherhood. Daughters in this group chose the response of "wife, mother, and career" as often as daughters in the other two groups.

Dual-career mothers' and daughters' attitudes toward children were more nontraditional than those attitudes of the other two groups. While dual-career mothers had as many children as dual-work mothers, their children tended to be older. Also, they had not worked full-time for as many years after children were born, indicating that perhaps they had delayed careers until children were even in school. Therefore, even though they expressed nontraditional views, they may, in fact, have behaved in rather traditional manners. Their exposure to broader opinions on the importance of children to women's fulfillment via more education may account for the greater choices of nontraditional responses rather than personal commitments to these views. While some researchers have reported that more college women are seeing motherhood as an option than ever before (Astin, 1969; Rosen, 1974), this group seemed to espouse the idea that children were optional, but family size seems to indicate that they were just as traditional in childbearing as other working mothers. The most interesting finding concerning this variable was the higher number of dual-career daughters who reported they would choose marriage and careers only, perhaps foregoing children. Twenty-four percent selected this option. This group chose nontraditional careers more often than the other two groups. also. This choice seems indicative of change in young girls' perspectives of viable roles when they live in families where mothers have higher educational and career

levels. Whereas mothers may agree intellectually with the choice of childlessness, some daughters may have internalized this belief.

All three groups had similar attitudes about careers within the mother-daughter relationships. However, the dual-career mothers differed in their attitudes from those held by the traditional mothers. This conclusion might be expected in light of other research findings which indicate that career-oriented women have less stereotypic views of appropriate feminine roles and role behaviors than do homemakers (Nagley, 1971). Although the current study supported this finding, it also indicated that attitudes regarding careers held by dual-work women lie somewhere on a continuum between those attitudes of homemakers and attitudes of dual-career women but did not differ significantly from either group. Therefore, studies which have compared working versus nonworking women may have failed to maximize the systematic variance between the groups by using a large portion of women who are working due to economic necessity. This may account for some of the contradictions in the literature regarding attitudes toward careers and role model preferences of daughters.

Career attitudes of daughters did not show the same differences as attitudes of mothers. The fact that dual-career daughters' attitudes differed from attitudes of both groups seems to indicate more substantial rejection of traditional views while the daughters of dual-work mothers and

traditional mothers held similar attitudes in the direction of more traditional attitudes. Numerous research reports have indicated that daughters of working mothers plan to have careers more often than daughters of homemakers do (Almquist & Angrist, 1961; Banducci, 1967; Hartley, 1966; Marini, 1978). However, this research does not support these findings. Daughters of traditional mothers chose the option of wife, mother, and career as frequently as daughters in the other two groups. The difference apparently lies in the strength of nontraditional responses, the dual-career dyads reporting consistently stronger nontraditional attitudes than the other two groups who held milder views on the saliency of careers for women.

Contrary to Molm (1978), who reported there was near zero relationship between daughters' attitudes toward women's roles and mothers' employment, this research indicates that daughters of dual-career women have the least traditional views of any group regarding marriage, children, and careers. Their attitudes differed on all variables from attitudes of daughters of traditional mothers and on the variables of marriage and careers from daughters of dual-work mothers. Keeping in mind the ages of the daughters and the fact that they are just exiting from the stage of playing with dolls, it seems unusual that there would have been any differences in the groups regarding children. This study indicates that the culturally romanticized view of motherhood may not be as

acceptable to daughters who have mothers in highly professional careers. If these young girls see themselves as capable of entering professional occupations, the desirability for children may be lessened, as reported by Broverman, et al. (1972).

This relates to the current discussion concerning role strain among dual-career mothers (Bebbington, 1973; Poloma, 1972). Johnson and Johnson (1977) stated that wives reported major concerns over the conflict between their careers and their children, and that the source of strain was more directly related to childrearing than to marriage relationships. This may have an impact on daughters' attitudes toward motherhood if they perceive that mothers find parenting stressful. Some factor(s) must account for the higher number of dual-career daughters who selected the choice of marriage and career, and it is possible that perceived maternal role strain contributed to this choice. On the other hand, daughters and mothers in dual-work families had the strongest relationship regarding attitudes toward children of any of the variables studied. Mothers in this group reported job positions which fit the descriptions of "pink-collar" jobs (Howe, 1977). It is plausible that these jobs did not offer personal satisfaction to mothers, while the role of motherhood seemed to offer more fulfillment. Also, the socio-economic level was somewhat lower for this group which would imply that there were more rigid norms regarding women's roles in the dual-work families. Perhaps daughters are socialized to accept these role

priorities without an opportunity to view alternatives. Research has not explored the amount of role strain experienced by dual-work and dual-career women to determine if there are differences. However, it may be posited that the greater the investment the mother has in her career, the greater the strain.

One finding of this study, which is inconsistent with part of the research on self-concept, was that there were no differences between the self-concept scores of the three groups of mothers and daughters. Some research has indicated that the self-concepts of women who work outside the home are higher than those who are full-time homemakers (Birnbaum, 1971; Hacker, 1971; Wright, 1978). However, Kappel and Lambert (1972) reported findings in the opposite direction, with nonworking women having higher self-concepts. The present research would suggest that there are no differences in self-concepts across groups. The researcher would have predicted a higher self-concept mean score for dual-career women. Failure to find this may have been a function of the self-concept measurement instrument (TSCS) which used many items designed to perceive one's self as related to the family. There is evidence to suggest that career women have high self-concepts with regard to professional competency, but lower self-esteem when related to mothering (Broverman, et al., 1972; Hacker, 1971). A different instrument for measuring self-concept might tap into other aspects of one's self-esteem. Also, Bernard (1972) cited evidence that suggests married women have less positive

self-concepts than do single women. If this finding is generally true, it could possibly account for the less positive self-concept mean scores for the mothers in all three groups. This research supported other findings that self-concepts of daughters of working and nonworking mothers are not significantly different (Baruch, 1972; Hoffman & Nye, 1974; Miller, 1975). Only the self-concept scores of dual-work mothers and daughters achieved a significant relationship, and these scores were correlated at .33 which is not a strong relationship. It can be assumed that mothers' self-concepts have little relation to daughters' self-concepts.

The data indicated two trends worth noting here. First, the self-concept mean scores in all groups were lower than the overall mean score reported in the TSCS Manual. This can be interpreted as an indicator that females do have lower self-concepts than males do. Second, the self-concept mean scores for each group of daughters was higher than the mean scores for the respective group of mothers. This fact is possibly related to the Feminist Movement in which women are seen as equal to men with concomitant abilities and potentials. The impact of this sense of equality as disseminated via the media and the schools may be having subtle influences on young girls' self-perceptions which is not apparent in their mothers. It is difficult to assess the impact that various women's movements are having on young girls regarding their opinions of their future roles. Only time will reveal the results of these changes.

Implications

Sex-role research has primarily been concerned with differentiating working women from nonworking women by using such factors as marriage, children, self-concept, families of orientation, educational attainment, and changing norms. Even though contradictions exist, the overall review of sex-role literature does reflect changes in the norms and attitudes associated with women's roles. One major flaw in the generalizability of most research has been the frequent selection of college students as subjects. These samples have interjected bias just by the nature of educational aspirations as well as age.

There are still gaps in the research which prevent a holistic view of the major factors which impinge on women's beliefs regarding salient role choices. This research has attempted to add pertinent information about the relationship of mothers' and daughters' attitudes, and also to redefine "working" mothers into two groups to study differences in women who choose to work for personal fulfillment and those who work because they feel it is necessary for economic maintenance of the family. Also, subjects were selected from a larger population than the college arena offers.

Theoretical and Research Implications

There are two major conclusions from this study that have implications for further research and theory development.

1. Women who work outside the home cannot be treated as a single group and compared with women who are full-time homemakers. The factor of employment alone does not differentiate women with regard to their attitudes toward sex-roles. The majority of designs for past research have failed to do more than dichotomize the groups. Most research articles then failed to report the nature of employment for women which did not offer the reader sufficient information to decide about the validity of the findings. This study indicates that only women who have professional careers differ markedly from women who are homemakers when studying changing sex-role attitudes and behaviors. Women who work mainly to supplement the family income appear to have attitudes about careers which lie somewhere on a continuum between the first two groups. However, their attitudes toward marriage and children cannot be differentiated from those attitudes of full-time homemakers. Further research is necessary to find demarcations between dual-work mothers' sex-role attitudes and those attitudes of traditional and dual-career mothers.

2. A second important conclusion that has research implications is the evidence that there is a relationship between mothers' and daughters' attitudes. While parents are generally seen as significant others in children's socialization, the extent to which each parent contributes to this socialization has been debated. Many researchers have suggested that the father is more influential due to the economic

and power structure of the family wherein the father controls more valued resources. Those theorists who advance the social learning theory offer the premise that the father is the more salient role model even for daughters.

The current research utilized the symbolic interaction theoretical framework and tested the premise that mothers' attitudes regarding appropriate role choices were related to daughters' attitudes. There was strong evidence to support this assumption. However, this research did not presume the direction of influence to be entirely from mother to daughter. Daughters are also significant others in mothers' lives and the influence may be bidirectional. Further research may attempt to determine the direction of influence. Also, further research should look at the relationship of fathers' and daughters' attitudes and fathers' and mothers' attitudes. This study indicated that daughters select fathers, or both parents, as being most influential in career choices almost as often as they select mothers. This finding bears further investigation.

Practical Implications

The impetus for this research related to the question of what changes could be brought about to help women see the scope of role choices available to them at this point in time. The logical beginning seemed to hinge on learning the sources which influenced young girls' attitudes toward future roles. To this extent, this study is exploratory since research has

not looked at direct relationships of girls' attitudes to others' attitudes regarding sex-role attitudes.

While much of the literature implies that fathers' attitudes are the most influential with regard to daughters' attitudes, no relationship has been established. This researcher felt that mothers' influence might be the most prominent and research efforts could be conducted to obtain empirical evidence as to the nature of this relationship. The results do indicate that there is an overall relationship of mothers' and daughters' attitudes regarding sex-roles. This would indicate that one of the most significant others in sex-role socialization is the mother. If attitudes which promote the equality of men and women are to be fostered, one of the primary targets for change may be mothers.

This research further indicates that women who have professional careers have more nontraditional attitudes toward women's roles. Because this group had the highest educational level, it appears likely that institutions of higher education facilitate more liberal views of women's roles. This supposition indicates there is an increased need to make secondary and elementary schools more aware of the sex biases and solicit their help in eradicating this bias. However, mothers' attitudes were not perfectly correlated with daughters' attitudes. Further research must be conducted to gather data which will hopefully point to the other sources which influence sex-role attitude formation and maintenance.

These findings provide support for the belief in maternal importance in sex-role socialization. Organizations which are interested in fostering more egalitarian attitudes toward males and females should focus more attention on mothers.

Limitations

There were certain limitations of this study which should be kept in mind when interpreting the findings.

✓ 1. The sampling technique was mainly purposive sampling in its initial stage and respondents were self-selected in the final stage. This reduces the generalizability of the results.

2. The instruments used to measure the sex-role attitudes were limited in scope. A greater number and variety of reliable and valid items would be beneficial to researchers who attempt to tap into sex-role attitudes.

3. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was designed for school children. It was used for both groups in this study to assure comparable results for comparison purposes. However, it may not have been as appropriate for adult women. There may be compartments of the total self-concept which are composed of a woman's concept of her various role competencies. If so, a scale which measured her self-concept as a wife and/or mother might not be adequate to measure her self-concept as a career woman since social attitudes toward the career role for wives and mothers have been ambiguous.

4. The small sample size in each group limits generalizability of the results, also. In smaller urban areas, it might be difficult to secure a large sample of career women with daughters in a specific age cohort and where both parents were present in the home. The most desirable research design for studying sex-role attitudes would include different geographic locations.

5. Self-report questionnaires have certain limitations as research techniques when compared with other methods of data collection. Also, the researcher was not present during the time questionnaires were answered.

6. A holistic view of parental influence would have included the attitudes of fathers, and possibly sons. This is a suggestion for further research.

Summary

One reason cited for studying changing roles for women is the impact that such changes may have on the family structure. This research offers support for the beliefs that few young women are planning to forego the traditional roles of wife and mother. However, it also strongly suggests that these same respondents plan to combine employment with these roles. This finding suggests the possibility that family structures may change. Husbands may become more active participants in household tasks and childrearing responsibilities. More services may be used by the family, such as

child care, maids, and home maintenance. The most crucial of these services to family change would appear to be child care because socialization of the child would be influenced by primary caregivers, in addition to parents, to a greater degree than in homes where mothers are not employed outside.

It should be noteworthy that 24% of the dual-career daughters indicated they would forego motherhood. This is a much larger percentage than would be expected. For young women who see nontraditional careers as viable alternatives, they may also see children as optional. This choice would necessitate a change in the family composition.

Mothers who work due to economic necessity hold very similar sex-role attitudes to those of full-time homemakers. However, all groups' mean scores were within the range of the nontraditional half of the continuum. This result indicates that all groups of women in the study may have been influenced by the Feminist Movement and related women's activities. Employment alone does not appear to be sufficient in categorizing women into a group. The nature of employment must be ascertained before researchers can compare groups of women on sex-role attitudes or behaviors. Reliability and validity of findings are questionable when researchers fail to differentiate types of working women.

The premise that mothers are significant others in daughters' lives is supported once again by the extent and degree of the relationship between mothers' and daughters'

sex-role attitudes. However, mothers do not appear to be as influential in the formation of daughters' self-concepts. Generally, daughters had higher self-concepts than mothers did. Hopefully, this is indicative of a more positive view of women which may be emerging via the media and educational institutions.

This study should encourage other researchers to explore the idea of using three groups of women instead of two when comparing working and nonworking women. Also, the study should encourage more research designed to look at a variety of sources which influence both young girls' and young boys' sex-role attitude formation.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INITIAL LETTER EXPLAINING PROJECT TO POTENTIAL PARTICIPANTS

Dear _____,

As you have probably noticed from television programs and magazine articles today, there is a lot of discussion about changing roles for women. Many women choose to be full-time homemakers while others choose to work outside the home, either due to the increasing need for two salaries and/or due to a sense of personal fulfillment.

I am a doctoral student at the University of Tennessee. Before I began working on a graduate degree, I combined a teaching career with the roles of wife and mother. This increased my interest in the attitudes which mothers have regarding marriage, children, and careers, and what relationship there is between their attitudes and the attitudes of their daughters. I would like to study mothers and daughters in homes where mothers are full-time homemakers and in homes where mothers are employed outside the home.

Your name was selected from a list of names of women who have daughters, ages 10 to 14. I would greatly appreciate your help in this study, which will add important information to what we know about mothers and daughters and how they feel about their places in our world today.

In addition to having daughters, ages 10 to 14, I want to include women in the study who have the following qualifications: full-time homemakers who have not worked outside the home since their daughter's birth, except for very limited part-time work which didn't last more than six weeks during any one year; women who are employed outside the home must have been employed for the last five years with no more than a six-month period of unemployment during this time; mothers must not have been widowed or divorced since their daughter was born. I have enclosed a post card so that you may provide this information. If you are eligible and would like to participate, I will be in contact with you again soon.

Very little of your time will be required. I will mail questionnaires to you in the near future which both you and your daughter will answer. These are designed to gather information about your attitudes concerning yourself, marriage, children, and careers. The same information will

be collected from your daughter. All the questions concerning marriage, children, and careers are general ones and are not related to your specific family life. No personal questions regarding your marriage or your children will be asked. I would like for both you and your daughter to fill out these questionnaires separately and please do not discuss answers until they have been mailed back to me. This will help to make the study more accurate.

I would like to assure you in advance that all information you provide will be totally confidential. The questionnaires you and your daughter fill out will be identified only by a number. Your name will not appear on them. The results of the study will be reported as group information and no individual responses will be recognizable.

Please discuss this letter with your daughter, _____. Ask her if she would like to participate in the study, too. If both of you are willing to be part of this project, would you please return the postcard to me within one week. I will then mail you the questionnaires which both of you will fill out and send back to me.

I look forward to hearing from you. I hope you and your daughter will agree to be part of this research project because I know you can contribute greatly to its success.

Thank you for your cooperation. I truly appreciate your help and time.

Sincerely,

Judy Rollins Dorton
Ph. D. Candidate

Priscilla N. White, Ed.D.
Associate Professor

APPENDIX B

POSTCARD SENT TO MOTHERS

Dear Ms. Dorton:

My daughter is between the ages of 10 and 14.

Yes _____ No _____

I have been a full-time homemaker almost all of the time since my daughter was born.

Yes _____ No _____

I have been employed for the past five years (a six-month unemployment period may be included in this time.)

Yes _____ No _____

I have _____ have not _____ been widowed or divorced since my daughter was born.

My daughter and I would like to be part of your study.

Yes _____ No _____

Name _____

APPENDIX C

LETTER INCLUDED WITH QUESTIONNAIRES

Dear _____,

Recently, you agreed to participate in the research I am doing regarding mothers' and daughters' attitudes concerning careers or jobs, marriage, and children. I can not tell you how pleased I am that you and your daughter will be part of this study. Your opinions, attitudes, and beliefs will be very important to the success of the project.

There are no right or wrong answers to the questionnaires. Everyone will have different opinions and everyone's opinions are valuable. It is very important that you and your daughter fill in every item on the questionnaires. You may use either a pen or a pencil.

The instructions for completing the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale are inside the white booklet. You do not need to fill in your name or any other information except your age. That will help me keep mothers' responses separate from daughters' responses. The answer sheet is a bit hard to use, I think. If you slide the answer sheet under page 1 in the white booklet until only the column of item numbers closest to the space where you put your age can be seen, you will notice that items number 1,3,5,19, etc. line up together for both the white booklet and the answer sheet. After you fill out page 1 with the responses listed at the bottom of the page, slide the answer sheet under page 2 and line up the same column you worked with, with the gray items--items 2,4,6,20,etc.--and answer those with the responses at the bottom of that page. Move the answer sheet over one column and you can line up the items on page 3. Continue until all items have responses. Please be sure the response you give to an item has the same number on the answer sheet as it does in the white booklet. There are two answer sheets and one white booklet enclosed. You and your daughter can take turns using the booklet. You may need to explain to her how to use the booklet and answer sheet. However, please do not help her decide on her responses.

It is very important that you and your daughter do not discuss the answers you give on any of these questionnaires until after you have put them back in the mail. It is certainly all right if you and your daughter have very different opinions on the items, but it is important

that each of you express your own views.

There is an Informed Consent Form for both you and your daughter to read and sign. These forms satisfy the requirements of the University that I have taken the proper steps to make sure your responses are confidential and that you have willingly agreed to participate. Please return them with the questionnaires.

There is no need to put your name on any of the questionnaires. They have a code number which I will use only to identify who I need to call if anyone forgets to return the questionnaires.

Please return the questionnaires at your earliest convenience. I know that time is often in short supply for many of us, but it will be so helpful if you can complete these as soon as possible and return them to me. After the study is completed, I will send you a copy of the results.

Again, thank you so much for your cooperation and participation. You will be making a very valuable contribution to the knowledge we have concerning the future trends for women's roles.

If you have any further questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at 690-3226 (night) or 974-5316 (day) in Knoxville.

Sincerely,

Judy Rollins Dorton

APPENDIX D

INFORMED CONSENT - MOTHERS

The purpose of this study is to find out what relation exists between the attitudes mothers and daughters have about themselves, marriage, children, and careers. The questionnaires which are to be answered will help the researcher to explore this relationship. Also, this study will compare attitudes of mothers and daughters when the mother is a full-time homemaker and when she works outside the home. Very little personal information is required and it is asked only to get a general idea of your lifestyle. No names will ever be used and your questionnaires are identified only by a number. You will be sent a brief summary of the results of the study, and you will have access to the full study, if you wish to see it.

By agreeing to participate in this study, you understand:

1. The questionnaires will take less than an hour of your time.
2. There are no specific risks or benefits associated with answering the questionnaires, but the group results may provide useful information to you.
3. Your confidentiality as a participant and that of your daughter will be maintained by using code numbers instead of names.
4. No information regarding your answers or your daughter's answers will be released to anyone else.
5. You may choose not to participate in the study once you have looked at the questionnaires, but if you do participate, please answer all questions.

Date: _____ SIGNATURE: _____

APPENDIX E

INFORMED CONSENT - DAUGHTERS

As a young girl today, you have more opportunities to choose from in your plans for the future than girls in the past have had. You will be asked to complete four questionnaires which ask you about your feelings toward the future roles you may choose--being a wife, a mother, a career woman, or maybe all three. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer them just as you feel now. Do not discuss your answers with your mother until after they have been mailed back. If you do not understand a word, you may ask her to define it for you, however.

By agreeing to participate in this study, you understand:

1. The questionnaires will take less than one hour to complete.
2. There are no right or wrong answers.
3. Any information you give will remain private because the questionnaires will have a number and not a name.
4. No information about your specific answers will be given to anyone else.
5. You can change your mind if you decide you do not want to answer the questions, but please answer all the questions if you wish to be part of the study.

Date: _____ SIGNATURE: _____

APPENDIX F

POSTCARD TO NONRESPONDENTS

JUST A REMINDER THAT I HAVE NOT RECEIVED YOUR QUESTIONNAIRES REGARDING THE STUDY ON MOTHERS AND DAUGHTERS. IT WOULD BE VERY HELPFUL IF I COULD HAVE THEM AS SOON AS POSSIBLE. IF YOU DID NOT RECEIVE YOURS OR HAVE MISPLACED THEM, PLEASE CALL ME COLLECT AT 690-3226 AFTER 6 P.M.

THANK YOU SO MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION AND PARTICIPATION.

SINCERELY,

JUDY DORTON

APPENDIX G

THE ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN SCALE - SHORT FORM* (Modified)

The statements listed below describe attitudes toward the role of women in society which different people have. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. You are asked to express your feelings about each statement by indicating whether you (A) Agree Strongly, (B) Agree Mildly, (C) Disagree Mildly, or (D) Disagree Strongly. Please indicate your opinion by marking next to each item number the alternative which best describes your personal attitude. Please respond to every item.

(A) Agree Strongly

(C) Disagree Mildly

(B) Agree Mildly

(D) Disagree Strongly

- | | |
|-----------|---|
| <u>CA</u> | 1. Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day. |
| <u>M</u> | 2. Both husbands and wives should be allowed the same grounds for divorce. |
| <u>M</u> | 3. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry. |
| <u>M</u> | 4. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage service. |
| <u>CA</u> | 5. There should be a strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex. |
| <u>M</u> | 6. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage. |
| <u>CH</u> | 7. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers. |
| <u>CA</u> | 8. Women should assume their rightful place in business and all professions along with men. |
| <u>CA</u> | 9. A woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or have the same freedom as men. |

- CA 10. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.
- CA 11. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive or a man to darn socks.
- CH 12. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in bringing up children.
- CA 13. Women should be concerned with their duties of childrearing and housework, rather than with desires for professional and business careers.
- CA 14. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.

Added Items:

- CH 15. Women should not have children if they want to have a career.
- CH 16. Women can not be truly happy unless they get married and have children.

* Items are designated with regard to the sex-role variable which they measured. The code is as follows: M=marriage; CH=children; and CA=career.

APPENDIX H

SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION SCALE ITEMS* (Modified)

The statements listed below describe attitudes about sex roles. You are asked to give your opinion on the statements. There are no right or wrong answers, only your opinions. Please indicate whether you (A) Agree Strongly, (B) Agree Mildly, (C) Disagree Mildly, or (D) Disagree Strongly. Please indicate your opinion by marking next to each item the response which best describes your personal attitude.

(A) Agree Strongly

(C) Disagree Mildly

(B) Agree Mildly

(D) Disagree Strongly

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| <u>CA</u> | 1. It is more important for a wife to help her husband's career than to have a career herself. |
| <u>CA</u> | 2. The relative amounts of time and energy devoted to a career and to home and family on the other hand should be determined by one's personal desires and interests rather than by one's sex. |
| <u>CA</u> | 3. The old saying that "a woman's place is in the home" is still basically true and should remain true. |
| <u>CH</u> | 4. Unless it is economically necessary, married women who have preschool or schoolage children should not work outside the home. |
| <u>CA</u> | 5. A woman should not accept a career promotion if it would require her family to move and her husband to find another job. |
| <u>CH</u> | 6. A married woman who chooses not to have children because she prefers to pursue her career should not feel guilty. |
| <u>CA</u> | 7. Girls should primarily be counseled to enter "feminine" vocations such as nursing, public school teaching, library science, etc. |
| <u>CA</u> | 8. Parents should encourage just as much independence in their daughters as in their sons. |
| <u>M</u> | 9. It is okay for a woman to retain her maiden name after she marries if she wants to. |

- M 10. Even when the wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should have the responsibility for running the household.

* Items are designated with regard to the sex-role variable which they measured. The code is as follows: M=marriage; CH=children; and CA=career.

APPENDIX I

CAREER OR JOB CHOICES - DAUGHTER'S FORM

Please check the answer which best tells what your feelings are now.

1. When I grow up, I would like to:

- _____ 1. be a wife
- _____ 2. be a wife and a mother
- _____ 3. be a wife and have a job or career
- _____ 4. be a wife, a mother, and have a career or job
- _____ 5. have a career or job only

2. When you grow up, if you have a job or career, what kind of job to do think now that it will be?

3. Of the two, who has had the most influence on your decision about your plans when you grow up?

- _____ 1. mother
- _____ 2. father
- _____ 3. both parents equally

APPENDIX J

PERSONAL HISTORY INVENTORY*

The questionnaire is designed to collect information about you and your family. Recognizing the personal nature of the items, we wish to emphasize our commitment to preserving your confidentiality in this study. Your responses will be used with absolutely no reference to you, personally.

1. What is your age? _____
2. What is your daughter's age? _____
3. What is your husband's age? _____
4. What is your religious affiliation? _____
5. How many children are residing in your home at this time?
Please list sex and age for each child:
_____, _____, _____, _____, _____, _____
6. Do you have children that are not presently in your home?
If yes, please list sex and age for each child:
_____, _____, _____, _____, _____, _____
- *7. Which of the following best describes your occupation?

_____	1. professional (including teachers and nurses)
_____	2. management, proprietor, official
_____	3. sales worker
_____	4. office worker
_____	5. skilled worker
_____	6. semi-skilled worker
_____	7. unskilled worker
- *8. Indicate your position and/or title.

- *9. How long have you worked in this job or one similar? _____
10. Did you work outside the home before your children were born? _____. If "yes", please indicate how many years were worked full-time, and how many were worked part-time.
Full-time _____ (years) Part-time _____ (years)

- *11. Have you worked outside the home since your children were born? _____. If "yes", please indicate how many years were worked full-time and how many years were worked part-time.

Full-time _____ (years) Part-time _____ (years)

12. How much formal education have you had?

- _____ 1. attended grade school
- _____ 2. attended high school
- _____ 3. graduated from high school
- _____ 4. attended college
- _____ 5. graduated from college
- _____ 6. attended technical school
- _____ 7. graduated from technical school
- _____ 8. attended graduate school
- _____ 9. graduated from graduate school; Degree? _____

- *13. Which of the following best describes your husband's occupation?

- _____ 1. professional
- _____ 2. management, proprietor, official
- _____ 3. sales worker
- _____ 4. office worker
- _____ 5. skilled worker
- _____ 6. semi-skilled worker
- _____ 7. unskilled worker

- *14. Indicate his position and/or title.

15. In general, how do you feel about your present work situation?

- _____ 1. very dissatisfied
- _____ 2. not very satisfied
- _____ 3. acceptable
- _____ 4. satisfied
- _____ 5. very satisfied

- *16. Since you work outside the home, what is your husband's attitude toward the amount of housework that you do?

- _____ 1. you do not do enough housework
- _____ 2. you do just the right amount of housework
- _____ 3. you overdo the housework

17. What is your husband's attitude toward your pursuing a career?

- ☐ 1. against it
- ☐ 2. neutral or mixed feelings
- ☐ 3. in favor of it

* 18. In what range does your salary fall?

- ☐ 1. Below \$5,000
- ☐ 2. \$5,000 to \$10,000
- ☐ 3. \$10,000 to \$15,000
- ☐ 4. \$15,000 to \$20,000
- ☐ 5. Above \$20,000

19. In what range does your husband's salary fall?

- ☐ 1. Below \$5,000
- ☐ 2. \$5,000 to \$10,000
- ☐ 3. \$10,000 to \$15,000
- ☐ 4. \$15,000 to \$20,000
- ☐ 5. Above \$20,000

20. Which of the following gives you the most satisfaction in your life? And which gives you the next greatest satisfaction? Indicate by responding with a 1 for the most satisfying and a 2 for the next most satisfying.

- ☐ 1. your career or occupation
- ☐ 2. family relationships
- ☐ 3. running a home
- ☐ 4. leisure-time, recreational activities
- ☐ 5. religious beliefs or activities
- ☐ 6. participation in activities related to your community or country
- ☐ 7. other (please specify) _____

21. What was the extent of your mother's employment outside the home?

- ☐ 1. none or very little
- ☐ 2. some part-time
- ☐ 3. some full-time
- ☐ 4. continuous part-time
- ☐ 5. continuous full-time

22. Which category best fits her major occupation, if she worked?

- ☐ 1. professional worker
- ☐ 2. skilled worker
- ☐ 3. unskilled worker

23. If your mother worked, as far as you know, what was the major reason that she worked?
- ☐ 1. she simply wanted to work
 - ☐ 2. your father wanted her to work
 - ☐ 3. to supplement the family income
 - ☐ 4. necessary for family economic survival
 - ☐ 5. other (please specify) _____
24. How much satisfaction do you think that your mother found in her occupation?
- ☐ 1. dissatisfied
 - ☐ 2. not too satisfied
 - ☐ 3. somewhat satisfied
 - ☐ 4. satisfied
 - ☐ 5. very satisfied
25. What was your mother's attitude toward household work?
- ☐ 1. found housework unpleasant and avoided it whenever possible
 - ☐ 2. found housework a chore and did only limited amounts of it
 - ☐ 3. found housework a necessary responsibility
 - ☐ 4. found housework somewhat satisfying
 - ☐ 5. found housework to be of great satisfaction
26. What was your mother's attitude about child care?
- ☐ 1. did not like child care at all
 - ☐ 2. found child care a chore and did only limited amounts of it
 - ☐ 3. found child care a necessary responsibility
 - ☐ 4. found child care rather satisfying
 - ☐ 5. found child care to be of great satisfaction
27. Overall, which parent has had the greater influence on your career choices?
- ☐ 1. mother
 - ☐ 2. father
 - ☐ 3. mother and father equally
28. Overall, which parent has had the greater influence on your views of your role as a homemaker?
- ☐ 1. mother
 - ☐ 2. father
 - ☐ 3. mother and father equally

* Starred items were omitted on homemakers' forms.

VITA

Judy Rollins Dorton was born in Rye Cove, Virginia on June 3, 1938. She attended Rye Cove Elementary School and graduated from Rye Cove Memorial High School in 1955. She attended Virginia Intermont College in Bristol, Virginia, for one year and then transferred to the University of Kentucky where she received a Bachelor of Science degree in vocational home economics in 1959.

After graduation, she joined Appalachian Power Company in Gate City, Virginia, as a Home Service Representative. She was employed there until 1961. In 1962, she became the Women's Editor for the Kingsport Times-News in Kingsport, Tennessee. From 1963 until 1966, she taught home economics at Gate City High School. She resigned to accept the position of Project Director of the Homemaker's Project, an Office of Economic Opportunity pilot program in Wise County, Virginia. She returned to high school teaching in 1968, being employed by the Kingsport City School System in Kingsport, Tennessee, and later in 1970, by Fayette County Schools, Lexington, Kentucky. In 1973, she taught in Lafayette, Indiana. Also, in 1973, she entered Purdue University in West Lafayette. In 1975, she received a Master of Science degree in Clothing and Textiles. After moving to Bowling Green, Kentucky, she taught part-time at Western Kentucky University in the Clothing and Textile Department.

In 1977, she entered Graduate School at the University of Tennessee, and while pursuing the doctoral degree in Interdisciplinary Home Economics, she worked one year as an assistant to the Commission for Women at UTK and one year as a graduate teaching assistant. Her major area for the doctoral degree was family studies in the Child and Family Studies Department.

She is married to John D. Dorton, and they have one son, John Rollins Dorton, who is seventeen. She is the daughter of Mary Elizabeth Delp Rollins and the late Rufus R. Rollins.