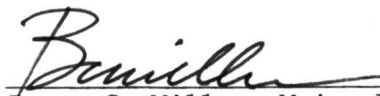


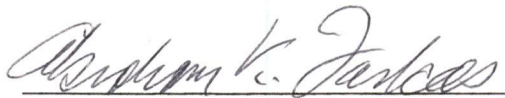
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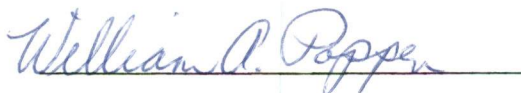
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Donna Lynn Sollie entitled "Relationships Among Sex Role Attitudes, Values of Children, and Desired Family Size." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Home Economics.


Brent C. Miller, Major Professor

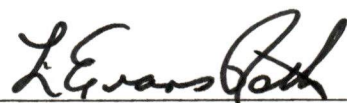

Priscilla White, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:





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Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

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RELATIONSHIPS AMONG SEX ROLE ATTITUDES, VALUES OF CHILDREN,
AND DESIRED FAMILY SIZE

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Donna Lynn Sollie

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ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this study was to determine the relationships among sex role attitudes, the value of children, and desired family size. Of primary interest was the influence of parental status on these attitudes. The sample was composed of 109 married couples who did not have a child at the time of the study.

Socio-demographic information and desired family size for each respondent was obtained, and data were collected on the attitudinal variables by using the Sex Role Attitudes Scale and the Value of Children Scale. Factor analyses were performed on the two attitudinal scales in order to obtain subscales that were used to measure attitudes about the work and familial roles of men and women, and attitudes about the values and costs of children to parents.

Results from t-tests indicated that females were more egalitarian in their sex role attitudes than males, and that nonparents were more egalitarian than parents. Pearson product-moment correlations were used to examine relationships between sex role attitudes and perceived values and costs of children. Generally, respondents with traditional sex role attitudes were more likely to perceive values of children than respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes. The relationships between sex role attitudes and perceived costs of children were more complex. Nonparent wives were more likely to perceive costs of children than nonparent husbands. For both traditional and egalitarian parents, the relationships between sex role attitudes and marital and personal costs were not significant, but the relationships between sex role attitudes and

decision costs were significant. Traditional sex role attitudes were positively related to desired family size. For nonparent wives, there was an inverse relationship between egalitarianism and desired family size.

Multiple regression analyses were performed to determine the influences of sociodemographic and attitudinal variables on sex role attitudes, the value of children, and desired family size. Overall, traditional sex role attitudes were significant predictors of Parental Imperatives, Marital and Personal Fulfillment, Duty, and Familism Value of Children Scales. Egalitarian sex roles were significant predictors of Marital and Personal Costs and Decision Costs. Sex role attitudes were also significantly related to desired family size, with more traditional respondents desiring larger families than egalitarian respondents. The respondent's age, gender, parental status, education, and income were more likely to be significant predictors of attitudinal variables than their father's and mother's education and occupation. However, the mother's attitudes about careers and motherhood did have an influence on sex role attitudes.

It was concluded that parental status and gender differentiated respondents in their reported sex role attitudes, attitudes about the value of children, and desired family size. Parental status appears to be a significant variable in looking at sex role attitudes and the value of children. Attitudes about sex roles and about the value of children are complex, and there is a need to examine both predictors of these attitudes as well as the relationships between these attitudes more fully.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Sex roles in our culture are in a state of transition. In the past, role expectations for men and women in the United States were clearly defined. During the first half of the 20th century, men were expected to be the head of the household and to provide the economic support of the family, and women were responsible for child care and homemaking. These traditional societal definitions of sex roles are changing as more options become acceptable for both sexes. Giele (1977) noted that roles of men and women are becoming more symmetrical in work and family life. About half of all married women in the United States hold paying jobs, and many husbands assist with child care and housework. However, traditional sex role definitions still have an impact; both men and women are expected to perform different kinds of tasks, in the workplace as well as in the home.

In recent years, the women's movement has focused attention on women's definitions of themselves and their roles in society. Questions have been raised about the various roles that women may assume in the future. In the past, a major aspect of women's roles was motherhood. As women's roles become more diverse, however, it cannot be assumed that women will be wives and mothers, and little else. Blake (1974) suggested that roles within the family will change and that family size will decrease as women seek more individualistic rather than familistic rewards. Instead of accepting motherhood unquestioningly, more women are expected to consider both the costs and benefits of

that role, and opt to have a smaller number of children, or, in some cases, to have no children at all (Hoffman, 1972).

Parenthood is implicit in the cultural definitions of male and female roles; generally, though, fatherhood is considered to be a less salient aspect of the male role than motherhood is of the female role. As the roles of women are changing, men's roles are also changing. A major form of change is in men's relationships with women. The trend toward egalitarian marriages, with an emphasis on shared roles, indicates that men are expected to participate more in housework and childcare, and to accept increased involvement of women in jobs or careers. It is also expected that fatherhood may be of increasing importance to men as they become more actively involved in child care and child rearing.

The effect of children on parents is an area that has received relatively little attention from social science researchers. Since parenthood is a role that most individuals assume, it is surprising that research in this area is so limited. A topic that has received both theoretical and empirical attention is the value of children or the functions that children serve for parents. One significant function that children have served has been the validation of sex role identity. This function may be decreasing in importance, as sex roles become more flexible and alternatives to full-time motherhood become more acceptable.

Statement of the Problem

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of gender and parental status on sex role attitudes and the value of children. Two major emphases of the study were to examine: (1) attitudes toward familial and work roles of men and women, and (2) the perceived value of children, including positive values, or satisfactions, and negative values, or costs. A secondary purpose was to examine desired family size of respondents. Background and contextual variables were related to sex role attitudes, attitudes about the value of children, and desired family size.

Rationale

Changes in acceptable and expected role behaviors will have an impact on the organization of roles within the family and on behaviors in extrafamilial roles. Societal change leads to changes in individuals' perceptions of their roles and in their values. This research provided information on relationships among the following variables: attitudes about sex roles, attitudes about the value of children, and desired family size. This information is important because attitudes and expectations in these areas will have an impact on family structure in the future.

In the last decade, there has been an increasing concern about population growth in our society. The decline in the birth rate since the 1950's is expected to level off at two children per family (Eshleman, 1978). However, predictions about the number of children that people will want in the future can't be made with

certainty. Many factors influence family size, and sex role attitudes and values attached to children are two factors that are expected to have a major impact on desired family size. This research provided a picture of expectations about family roles and work roles of young adults.

In recent years, the study of sex roles has become a popular topic for social science research. Hochschild (1973) called attention to the lack of knowledge in this area, noting that such a lack constituted "the single biggest blind spot in existing sociology" (p. 1023). Although the sharp increase in research on this topic has certainly enhanced our understanding of sex roles, there are still many blind spots. Most studies rely on college student samples, severely limiting the generalizability of results. Three factors that probably have an influence on sex role attitudes are age, marital status, and employment. Most of the respondents in college student samples are in their late teens or early 20's and are not married or employed, thus knowledge about sex roles is further limited. Women's roles have received more attention than men's roles, no doubt due to the influence of the women's movement. In the future, there will probably be an increased emphasis on men's roles--interest in this area is already apparent, both in books and research articles. Many studies have utilized samples of females only to examine attitudes toward the roles of females or of both sexes. There is a definite need for studies of both male and female attitudes toward the roles of both sexes.

In this study, some of the problems mentioned above were avoided. Equal numbers of male and female respondents were included,

and attitudes toward the roles of both sexes were examined. The sample was not composed of college students, although a small percentage were enrolled at The University of Tennessee in Knoxville. This study also provided information on the relationship of background variables to sex role attitudes. Sex, religion, age, and education are consistently linked with either traditional or egalitarian attitudes, but findings about other variables, such as parents' education, occupation, and income are inconsistent.

This study was conducted to investigate two areas which are deficient in social science literature. First, relationships between sex role attitudes and the value of children were examined. Research on the value of children is limited, and little has been done on the relationships between an individual's sex role attitudes and perceived values and costs of children. Second, sex role attitudes were examined in an attempt to increase understanding of these roles and to identify differences in these attitudes as a function of gender and parental status. In this study, older respondents were used and both parents and nonparents were included.

Theoretical Framework

The symbolic interaction framework provides a perspective for examining the relationships between family members. The family is viewed as "a unity of interacting personalities" (Burgess, 1926, p. 3). Each family member occupies a position that includes certain roles, and these roles consist of certain expected behaviors. Societal

norms influence attitudes about the appropriate behaviors for the roles that each family member assumes. Additionally, interaction processes within the family influence expectations about role behaviors.

The relationship between husband and wife is one focus of study in the symbolic interaction framework. An aspect of the husband-wife relationship relevant to this study is attitudes toward familial roles. A major determinant of familial roles is the sex of the individual. Sex is an ascribed status, with some behaviors for males and females prescribed by societal norms, and other behaviors proscribed by norms. Sex roles, then, include those behaviors that are considered appropriate for individuals based on their biological sex.

Norms about appropriate male and female behaviors are fairly consistent in American society. Pervasive conceptions of ideal masculine and feminine behavior and emotions influence individuals from infancy through adulthood. Sex role norms are a part of the cultural heritage which is passed down from generation to generation. Conceptions of masculinity and femininity are transmitted in the form of different expectations for males and females in the performance of their roles.

In recent years, however, traditionally prescribed roles have been undergoing change. Yorborg (1974) noted that in rapidly changing, highly industrialized societies, "identity tends to become vague, unstable, and debatable"(p. 23). Traditional ideals of masculinity and femininity become less and less appropriate as societal and individual needs change. In changing societies,

alternative lifestyles increase, making roles less rigid and identities more flexible. This flexibility of roles and identities allows individuals to develop their roles on the basis of their own preferences and abilities, rather than following societal dictates. However, this increased flexibility has costs as well as benefits. The increased number of options can lead to confusion and uncertainty in making choices among competing alternatives.

Role complementarity is a concept that has been used in describing the role organization of the family. Parsons and Bales (1955) are well known for dichotomizing family roles into expressive and instrumental categories. These roles were designated on the basis of assumptions about inherent differences between the sexes. The instrumental or task specialist was said to be occupied by males, and the expressive or socio-emotional specialist role occupied by females. According to Parsons and Bales (1955), "the husband has the primary adaptive responsibilities, relative to the outside situation . . . whereas the wife is primarily the giver of love" (p. 51). From this dichotomy, certain personality traits are associated with each gender role, and social responsibilities are assigned differently. For example, women are expected to be gentle, compassionate, caring, nurturant, and submissive. On the other hand, men are expected to be strong, aggressive, dominant, independent, and achievement oriented. On the basis of these traits, it was believed that women are best suited to the roles of wife and mother, and men are best suited to the roles of provider and head of the household.

This dichotomy of family roles has been questioned on both theoretical and empirical grounds. One of the major criticisms of this conceptualization has focused on the assumption that one person could not take both roles at the same time. Slater (1961) argued that even if the same person could not perform instrumental and expressive roles simultaneously, it did not necessarily follow that the same person could not perform both roles in different circumstances. This argument was recently supported by an examination of cross-cultural data demonstrating a wide variability of role expression by sex (Crano and Aronoff, 1978). These researchers found that although women were strongly committed to expressive activities while their children were infants, the intensity of commitment substantially decreased during the early childhood years. Although males were less involved in expressive activities than females, they still assumed a substantial part of the expressive functions of the family, and these functions continued through infancy and early childhood. Crano and Aronoff (1978) stated that "no evidence was found to support a principle of complementary expressive-instrumental specialization in the family" (P. 146).

The concept of role-making, "the creation and modification of existing roles" (Turner, 1962, p. 20), is especially relevant to the roles of men and women in present-day society. Normative prescriptions about sex roles are not always as clearcut as they formerly were. Aldous (1975) noted that married couples sometimes choose to go through a process of role-making, negotiating with each other in making decisions about role assignments and role content. The process

of role-making can reappear at various times during the relationship as the couple responds to both internal and external influences. Role-making allows greater freedom for individual and couple development, and provides an opportunity for the individual to control his or her role definition as long as the partner is in agreement.

Pleck (1977) noted that as sex roles in our society undergo change, both men and women will have two main roles, the work role and the family role. Males will increase their involvement and responsibility in the family, reducing stress on employed wives. The role of parent will not be seen as the primary responsibility of the wife; the role of provider will not be seen as the primary responsibility of the husband. Instead, there will be an increase in role-sharing.

The above discussion provides a theoretical perspective for this research. Attitudes about familial and work roles were examined, focusing specifically on attitudes about sex roles and attitudes about the value of children. It has been noted that sex role definitions are changing; with the increasing flexibility of roles, more role-making and role-sharing are becoming evident in our society. Although these definitions have changed in recent years, the traditional division of labor by sex is still the prevailing norm in our society.

Nominal Definitions

Sex Roles: The roles which are culturally defined as appropriate for males or females.

Traditional Sex Roles: Division of labor between the sexes according to traditional societal prescriptions, with the man fulfilling the provider role and the woman fulfilling the mother and homemaker roles.

Egalitarian Sex Roles: Roles that are not strictly segregated by sex, with an emphasis on flexibility, role sharing, and role-making.

Sex Role Attitudes: Attitudes about the behaviors that are considered to be appropriate for men and women within the family and in the workplace.

Value of Children: The functions that children serve or the needs they fulfill for parents, as well as costs, or negative values.

Desired Family Size: The number of children thought to be ideal for a family.

Parent: A person who has a child or children.

Nonparent: A person who does not have a child or children.

Objectives

The specific objectives of this study were:

1. To ascertain the relationship between sex role attitudes and the perceived values of children.
2. To examine the influence of gender and parental status on sex role attitudes and attitudes about the value of children.
3. To examine various socio-demographic variables in relation to sex role attitudes and attitudes about the value of children.
4. To examine the relationship between sex role attitudes and desired family size.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

An important aspect of sex roles is parenthood. As noted earlier, parenthood is implicit in traditional sex role definitions. In fact, most married couples do have or expect to have children. Children satisfy particular needs for individuals. Hoffman (1972) has pointed out that family size may be influenced by alternatives to the needs that children satisfy. The increased options available to both men and women and the trend toward more companionate marriages are factors that may lead to a questioning of the value of children to parents. Such questioning reflects increased awareness of the impact of children on individuals and on marriages.

Literature in two major areas was relevant to this study. The first of these areas is sex roles, and the literature in this area has been divided into two sections. The first section includes studies about sex role attitudes for both sexes, and it also includes one study that focused on attitudes about the male parenting role. The second section reports the literature on attitudes about the roles of women.

The second major area reviewed includes the areas of the value of children and desired family size. This area has also been divided into two sections, one on sex roles and fertility, and the other on motivations for childbearing. Although there is some overlap of areas in many studies, research findings for each area will be reviewed.

Attitudes about Sex Roles

In recent years, the study of sex roles has increased in popularity. An upsurge of interest followed the women's movement, which had a great impact during the late 1960's and 1970's. Research has focused on the roles of women in our society, and on women's attitudes toward these roles. Only a few studies have examined attitudes toward both men's and women's roles, and few studies have included males as well as females in the samples.

Urberg and Labouvie-Vief (1976) suggested that the development of sex roles and sex role attitudes is a process that continues throughout the adult years. Their sample of 240 males and females in three age groups (seventh grade, twelfth grade, and adults) indicated which traits they found desirable for ideal males or ideal females. Results from this study indicate that both males and females gave stereotypic responses when rating opposite-sex figures. However, when rating same-sex figures, respondents tended to be less stereotypic. Additionally, stereotyping increased with age, a finding not supported by other research in this area.

Minnigerode and Lee (1978) were also interested in sex role attitudes at different times in the life cycle. They examined the perceptions of sex roles at several target ages across the life span, including child, middle-age adult, and old person. These age-sex targets were rated on semantic differential scales by 100 undergraduate students. The undergraduate students rated sex roles as being most polarized during adolescence and young adulthood. Polarization decreased during the second half of the life span, suggesting a trend toward psychological androgyny.

Osmond and Martin (1975) examined the roles of both sexes in terms of four theoretical components: macrolevel social change, stereotypes of both sexes, familial roles, and extrafamilial roles. A sample of 480 undergraduate males and females completed a scale of Likert-type items. Results indicated that both males and females were more egalitarian in regard to macrolevel social change, and most traditional about familial roles. Overall, females reported less traditional attitudes than males. Extrafamilial roles was the topic of the most disagreement--this category referred to changes in women's roles in assuming supervisory, decision-making and leadership roles outside the home.

Borgan and Kutner (1976) also examined male and female attitudes toward the roles of both sexes. They devised a scale to measure normative conceptions of appropriate sex roles. They noted that females were more liberal than males, although the difference was not significant. Age was found to be a significant variable for males, but not for females, with attitudes becoming more traditional as age increased. This finding lends support to a similar finding from the research conducted by Urberg and Labouvie-Vief (1976).

Araji (1977) reported that both men and women expressed egalitarian attitudes toward family roles, but that such egalitarianism was not reflected in role behaviors. Women performed the majority of duties related to the roles of housekeeper, child care, recreation, kinship, and boys' and girls' socialization; the provider role was performed mainly by men. It was found that husbands were assuming some responsibility in the child care role, suggesting that there

are some changes in roles within the family context--an interesting finding in light of the fact that many other studies have indicated that people tend to have most traditional attitudes about familial roles.

Yorburg and Arafat (1975) examined beliefs about role-sharing, child care, housekeeping, and financial responsibility for the family. Their sample had more than 1000 respondents. A majority of both sexes favored equality, less sex typing, and more role sharing. As other studies have indicated, females are more egalitarian than males.

Balswick and Avertt (1977) noted that the sex-role literature demonstrates that expressiveness is viewed as part of the feminine stereotyped role, and that it is not part of the masculine stereotyped role. Their study of 523 college students indicated that females were more likely to express love, happiness, and sadness than males. According to the authors, as sex roles continue to change, males will probably play more expressive roles within the family.

Tomeh (1978) reported findings similar to those of other studies that have examined sex role attitudes. Her sample of 642 undergraduates indicated a slight trend toward egalitarian beliefs about sex roles. Again, females were more likely to have egalitarian beliefs than males, and were also more likely to favor role-sharing than males.

McIntire, Nass, and Bathistone (1974) focuses on female perceptions of male parenting attitudes and expectancies. Sixty-six male undergraduates reported their attitudes, beliefs, and expectations about their future parenting role. A sample of 108 female under-

graduates responded to the same questionnaire as they thought unmarried males generally would respond. There were consistent differences between males and females, with the females indicating that males would be less interested and involved in parenting than the males actually reported. Females perceived that most men would respond in a role-segregated pattern, but the males reported interest and positive expectations of parenting. The authors suggested that this discrepancy in perceptions may lead females to place themselves in a double bind by assuming that males want them to perform the traditional wife-mother role with little male involvement in parenting. Steinmann and Fox (1970) reported the same pattern of differences in perceptions, which can be inhibiting for both sexes.

Kellerman and Katz (1978) had a sample of 31 parents rate childrearing behaviors in terms of ideal maternal and paternal responsibility. Mothers were attributed primary responsibility for the majority of childrearing behaviors (47) and fathers for the smallest number (7). Thirty-four items were rated as parentally shared. Responsibility for the items reflected traditional sex-role stereotypes, with women viewed as nurturant and passive, and men as aggressive and active. Mothers were viewed as primarily responsible for physical caretaking and emotional support, and fathers were seen as primarily responsible for active-recreational activities. Educational guidance and discipline were shared responsibilities.

Results from the studies of sex role attitudes indicate that there is a trend toward egalitarian roles, especially among female respondents. Both males and females tend to be most traditional

about familial roles, although females are likely to favor role-sharing. However, results from these studies are sometimes conflicting, indicating that the study of sex roles is an area that needs more research attention. Unfortunately, college student samples prevail, making it difficult to obtain normative data on sex role attitudes. Data on social class, religious preferences, and rural-urban background would add to the understanding of sex role attitudes.

Attitudes about Women's Roles

During the last decade, there has been an increased interest in the roles of women in this society. The roles of women have been studied from both theoretical and, to a lesser extent, empirical viewpoints. Much of the sex role literature focuses specifically on women's roles; very few studies are geared specifically toward men's roles.

One of the first studies concerned with attitudes toward the roles of women was conducted by Kitay (1940). He was interested in the attitudes about the value of women to society, their attitudes, rights, and proper sphere of work. Kitay hypothesized that traditional attitudes toward women were largely determined by men. He regarded men as a high prestige group and women as a low prestige group, and predicted that women would accept the prevailing views toward women that were originated by men. Kitay concluded that the low prestige group (women) did accept the views of the high prestige group (men), even when those views were uncomplimentary to women. He found that

females were slightly more favorable than males in their attitudes toward women, but, in general, the females in the study tended to accept the prevailing traditional views of women.

A study by Etaugh and Gerson (1974) focused on background correlates of attitudes toward women. They found that females were less traditional than males in their attitudes toward women. They also noted that closeness to father and higher family income were associated with traditional attitudes. Maternal employment due to personal desire was related to less traditional attitudes about women.

A later study by Etaugh (1975) indicated that attitudes toward women remained stable over one school year. She noted a shift in the direction of more liberal, contemporary attitudes with increasing years of college experience.

Burns (1974) examined attitudes toward lifestyles for women, with females responding for self and males responding for their future wife or living partner. Significant differences were found between males' and females' attitudes, interest in women's liberation groups, and views of a potential or real living partner as dominant, equal, or submissive; females consistently reported more liberal attitudes. Additionally, Burns found that the female respondents were more career oriented than male respondents thought they should be. Joesting and Joesting (1973) also compared male and female respondents, and reported that males were more traditional in attitudes toward women than males.

In a study that focused on sex role attitudes and psychological well-being, Gump (1972) found that the majority of her sample of 162

college women believed that it is possible to assume the roles of wife and mother and also pursue extra-familial interests. Although these women did not regard the roles of wife and mother as sufficient for a woman's happiness, they did not propose radical alternatives to these roles.

Dempewolff (1974) reported several correlates of feminism. He found that Catholics and Protestants tended to oppose the women's movement, and atheists, agnostics, Unitarians, and Jews held more favorable attitudes toward the women's movement. Other researchers reported similar findings (Brogan and Kutner, 1976; Lipman-Blumen, 1972).

For male respondents in Dempewolff's sample, the level of mother's education was related to attitudes toward feminism. Those respondents whose mothers had completed high school were not as favorable toward feminism as those respondents whose mothers had some college. There was a similar, but insignificant, trend for female respondents. Female supporters of the women's movement were more likely to have mothers who were dissatisfied with their work than did female opposers of the movement. An opposite trend was apparent in male respondents, with male supporters of the movement more likely to have mothers who were satisfied with their work than male opposers.

Other researchers have examined the effects of mother's employment on sex role attitudes (Vogel, Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz, 1970). Results from their study indicated that adult children of employed mothers perceived smaller differences between male and female roles than adult children of nonworking mothers.

Further, females' perceptions of sex roles were more influenced by the mother's employment status than were males' perceptions.

Steinmann and Fox (1970) compared male and female perceptions of the female role in the United States. Two scales were used, one delineating family-oriented women; the other, self-achieving women. Female subjects responded for self, ideal woman, and man's ideal woman. Male subjects responded for their ideal woman. Most females pictured their self-perception as relatively balanced between an intrafamilial and extrafamilial orientation. Their ideal woman was very similar to their self-perception. However, most females described man's ideal woman as more intra-familial, or as a strongly family-oriented woman. Most men, though, pictured their ideal woman as relatively balanced between intrafamilial and extrafamilial orientations.

A study focusing on self-actualization and women's attitudes toward their roles found significant differences between liberal or profeminist women and conservative or traditional women. The respondents with liberal attitudes toward their roles in society scored significantly higher on the self-actualization scale than did women with conservative views. Liberal subjects were found to have higher levels of personal growth and greater sensitivity to their own needs and feelings. They were also more likely to rely on internal rather than external norms to be convinced of their worth as persons, and to accept and approve their self-concept (Hjelle and Butterfield, 1974).

Roper and Labeff (1977) compared Kirkpatrick's 1934 data on feminism and sex roles with 1974 data collected from 282 university students and their parents. They found that attitudes toward feminism were more favorable in the 1974 sample, with females being more likely to favor egalitarian and companionate relationships than males. Males were more likely to have traditional attitudes about the female sex role. For both samples, respondents were more liberal in their attitudes concerning economic and political-legal statuses of women, and less favorable toward domestic and conduct activities of women. Higher education was positively related to more liberal attitudes. These findings are consistent with Osmond and Martin's (1975) findings that attitudes about sex roles were more traditional for familial roles, and more liberal for extra-familial roles.

Parelius (1975) collected data on sex role attitudes from random samples of college females in 1969 and 1973. She found a shift toward feminism during this time period, with attitudes toward work, financial responsibilities, and division of labor in the home showing the most change. Although most of the subjects disagreed with the idea that a woman's most important role was that of wife and mother, few of the respondents were willing to sacrifice marriage or motherhood for success in the occupational world. Those respondents who were more liberal in their attitudes perceived men as more conservative on marriage and maternal role issues, and on an equal division of labor; but more liberal on helping with housework and accepting equal financial responsibility.

In summary, there appears to be a trend toward a more egalitarian view of the roles of women in our society and females are more likely

than males to endorse such a viewpoint. Attitudes tend to be more traditional about the familial roles of women for both males and females. Although ideas about some aspects of women's roles appear to be changing, marriage and motherhood are still considered to be important parts of women's lives.

Motivations for Childbearing

The majority of married couples expect to have children. A 1973 Gallup poll indicated that only one percent of the population desired no children. Most societies hold pronatalistic attitudes, prescribing the role of childbearer and rearer for women. References to childbearing are prefaced by the word "when", not "if". The influence of the strong pronatalistic attitude has seriously hindered investigation of the motivations for having children. The literature on the value of children and motivations for childbearing is limited. Very little is known about the importance of particular values, how children satisfy the values, and what actually motivates parents to have a child.

Hoffman and Hoffman (1972) defined the value of children as "the functions they serve or the needs they fulfill for parents" (p. 19). Other researchers have defined the value of children as "a hypothetical net worth of children, with positive values (satisfactions) balanced against negative values (costs)" (Arnold, Bulatao, Chung, Fawcett, Iritani, Lee, and Wu, 1975, p. 2). These researchers further noted that the value of children is linked to the "needs, attitudes, and values of parents" (p. 2). The satisfactions and

costs of children can be examined from several perspectives--among these are the economic, social, and psychological perspectives.

Pohlman (1969) reviewed the empirical and theoretical literature on motivations for childbearing and compiled a list of motives. He found that motivations for having children were complex, changing, and ambivalent. Hoffman and Hoffman (1972) also reviewed the literature in this area and derived a conceptual scheme for organizing the motivations for having children. Their scheme consists of nine basic values that are based on psychological needs. These values are also related to social structure and are subject to social change. Hoffman and Hoffman (1972) noted that existing theories about motivations for childbearing don't deal with the different kinds of values that children may provide. For example, economic theories about the value of children do not include noneconomic values. Fawcett (1972) made a similar point, but noted that a body of work was emerging that gave attention to social, psychological, and economic dimensions of the value of children. In order to fully understand the motives for having children, the interactions of these dimensions should be studied. The work of Arnold et al. (1975) is a positive step in this direction. Their empirical research on the value of children to parents was based on the theoretical work of Hoffman and Hoffman (1972). The nine categories of values of children are listed below:

1. Adult status and social identity (woman's major role)
2. Expansion of the self, tie to a larger entity, "immortality"
3. Morality, religion, altruism, good of the group
4. Primary group ties, affection
5. Stimulation, novelty, fun
6. Achievement, competence, creativity

7. Power, influence, effectance
8. Social comparison, competition
9. Economic utility

Flapan (1969) interviewed 82 women to determine motives for wanting children; the results were interpreted from a psychoanalytic point of view. He found a number of motives for having children, including motherhood as an indication of adult status, a confirmation of feminine identity, a means of providing fulfillment and a sense of accomplishment, and as a symbol of marital unity.

For many women, motherhood is viewed as their only approved role. Maxwell and Montgomery (1969) found this to be especially true in lower class women, who felt that motherhood was their only option. Stolka and Barnett (1969) reported similar results from their sample of 462 women. With religion and education controlled, the majority of respondents accepted the attitude that having children was the woman's main responsibility in life and her social duty more than they accepted the attitudes that people should have children for prestige, marital happiness, or religious beliefs. Most middle-class respondents viewed parenting as creative, satisfying, and challenging work, while lower-class respondents were more likely to see parenthood as a duty and as necessary for a happy marriage.

Lott (1973) conducted a study on attitudes toward having and rearing children. Her sample consisted of 242 undergraduates and 47 older undergraduate women enrolled in a continuing education program. She found that the most child-oriented men (those eager to have and to rear children) were more favorable towards women's liberation than men rated moderately low or traditional (those eager to have but

not to rear children). An opposite trend existed for women, with those who favored women's liberation indicating the least interest in rearing children.

There is some evidence that both education and employment status affect childbearing plans. Lozoff (1972) conducted a study on role perceptions of college students and found that 13% of 1800 respondents planned not to have children. This is a higher percentage than would be found in a non-college sample. Hoffman (1972) suggested that jobs may serve as alternatives to motherhood for women. She also indicated that fertility differences between employed and unemployed women will possibly increase, with employed women having smaller families (1974).

There does appear to be a trend toward postponing or delaying childbearing, but not toward childless marriages. There has been a decline in the birth rate in the United States since the late 1950's, and this trend is expected to level off at about two children per family. One of the factors expected to affect the birth rate is the value attached to children. The literature suggests that motherhood is an important aspect of the female role in our society. The importance of the parenting role for males is more uncertain. Most of the studies reported in this section and the previous section used only female samples. The recent literature on sex roles, as well as the emergence of the terms parenting and fathering, indicate that fatherhood may be increasing in importance to men.

Sex Roles and Fertility

A critical factor affecting the number of children that a woman wants is her acceptance or rejection of the prevalent sex role stereotype (Blake, 1969; Davis, 1967). The birth-planning literature also emphasizes that desired family size is associated with sex role norms (Fawcett, 1972; Hoffman and Wyatt, 1969; Pohlman, 1969). Identification with traditional sex role norms is positively correlated with actual and desired family size. Acceptance of alternative female roles, such as employment, could lead to a smaller desired and achieved family size.

In a study of sex roles and desired family size, it was found that working women desire and have smaller families than non-working women. Women who rejected traits of the feminine stereotype that implied low competence and immaturity had significantly fewer children than women whose self-perceptions incorporated those traits (Clarkson, Vogel, Broverman, Broverman, and Rosenkrantz, 1970).

Allgeier (1975) found that sex typing was related to desired family size for females, but not for males. She compared androgynous and feminine sex-role typed females, and reported that the androgynous females had higher educational aspirations, wanted fewer children, and placed a higher value on achieving competence at work. Farley (1970) suggested that females may find it difficult to combine a large family and professional achievement, but that males can marry, have large families, and devote time to professional achievement while their spouses take care of the children. His

suggestion offers an explanation for the finding that sex-typing was related to family size for females but not for males.

Eagly and Anderson (1974) tested the hypothesis that people who approve of equivalent sex roles desire smaller families than do people who adhere to traditional sex roles. Their sample of 386 college students completed questionnaires designed to measure attitudes toward sex roles, women's liberation, liberalism and conservatism, and birth control. The results indicated that males were more likely to want biologic children than females, and females were more likely to want adoptive children and a larger total number of children than males. Also, consistent with findings from studies reported in the section on attitudes toward female roles, the males in this sample favored less sex role equivalence than females favored, and were more opposed to women's liberation than were females. The authors reported that the following factors were related to desire for a large number of children: sex role traditionalism, unfavorable attitudes toward women's liberation, conservatism, and religiousness.

Simmons and Turner (1976) examined the relationship between mothers' sex role definitions and fertility ideals and their adolescent children's views on the same topics. The study was conducted in Toronto, including a total of 56 mother-daughter and 39 mother-son pairs, of both working-class and middle-class backgrounds. The younger generation tended to have less traditional views of sex roles than their mothers. Daughters appeared to want slightly smaller families than their mothers had, although the difference

was not significant. Daughters were also less likely to see children as providing important role satisfactions.

Scanzoni (1976) compared student samples from 1971 and 1974 studies in terms of gender role norms and birth intentions. An instrument was developed to measure three family positions, wife, mother, and husband. The two samples were comparable in terms of religion, age, parents' education and father's job status. Scanzoni found that the degree of gender role modernity increased significantly over the time period studied, especially for women. Also, he reported that women expected to work more frequently than men expect their wives to work. Finally, it was reported that the relationship between sex role norms and birth intentions was much stronger for women than for men, with women more likely to desire smaller families.

Results from these studies indicate that there is a strong correlation between sex role attitudes and desired family size. Individuals with egalitarian sex role attitudes are more likely to want smaller families than those who favor traditional sex roles. This relationship is stronger for females than for males. Even though there is a trend toward smaller families among those who favor egalitarian sex roles, few people opt for childlessness.

Summary

In summary, there are some contradictions in the literature about current sex role attitudes and about the factors that influence these attitudes. There is evidence of a trend toward more egalitarian

roles, especially evident among female and younger respondents. Men and women are most traditional in their ideas about familial roles. However, women are more likely to support role-sharing than are men.

Although attitudes about some aspects of sex roles are changing, marriage and motherhood are viewed as important aspects of women's lives. These seems to be a trend toward delaying childbearing, but not toward childless marriages. The importance and definition of fatherhood to men may be changing as a result of changes in sex role attitudes and values. However, research is still lacking on this topic.

Sex role attitudes are consistently found to be correlated with desired family size. Individuals who have egalitarian sex role attitudes, especially women, are more likely to want smaller families than individuals who have traditional sex role attitudes.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Hypotheses

In this study, relationships among three major classes of variables were examined: (1) attitudes about sex roles, (2) attitudes about the value of children, and (3) desired family size. Other variables included in the analyses were gender, respondent's parental status, education, income, and the occupation and education of the respondent's parents.

The specific hypotheses tested, stated in the null form, were:

- H₀ 1: There is no difference between males and females in sex role attitudes.
- H₀ 2: There is no difference between parents and nonparents in sex role attitudes.
- H₀ 3: There is no relationship between sex role attitudes and values of children.
- H₀ 4: There is no relationship between sex role attitudes and costs of children.
- H₀ 5: There is no relationship between sex role attitudes and desired family size.

Design

The present analyses were based on data from a longitudinal study of the transition to parenthood. This project has provided

an indepth approach in examining the transition to parenthood over time. Information was obtained about marital and personal qualities and changes in these qualities over time, the value of children, expected and actual experiences in taking care of a baby, and sex role attitudes. Data collection began in February, 1978, and continued through June, 1979. Data were collected three times, first when wives were six months pregnant, second when the infant was about six weeks old, and the third and final stage of the study was conducted when the baby was about eight months old. Participants in the study included young married couples who were expecting and had their first child during the course of the study, as well as young married couples who had no children during the study. Data were collected from this second group of respondents at times comparable to when data were collected from the first group.

Questionnaires were used to obtain the desired information. The questionnaires were given personally to expectant couples in the first stage of data collection. They were returned and others sent out through the mail. In the present study, only data from the third stage of data collection were analyzed. Data from the third stage makes it possible to compare parents and nonparents on the characteristics desired.

Sample

There were 163 married couples who completed the third questionnaire, making a total of 326 respondents. The sample was composed of first-time parents and a comparison group of married

couples who did not have a child during the study. There were a total of 109 parent couples and 54 nonparent couples.

One purpose of the larger research project was to investigate differences in the experiences of expectant parents in childbirth preparation classes. For this reason, pregnant couples participating in various childbirth preparation classes in Knoxville, Tennessee were asked to participate in the study. Contact with these couples was made in such classes at the University of Tennessee Hospital, Fort Sanders Hospital, and St. Mary's Hospital. LaMaze childbirth preparation classes were also contacted. The resulting sample of pregnant couples was mostly white and primarily middle class. The sample was, obviously, not representative of married couples in the United States. As indicated, however, the scope of the study necessitated the use of a purposive sample. This limitation will have some effect on the generalizability of the results of this study.

Researchers participating in this project visited the prenatal or childbirth preparation classes, explained the purpose of the study and described what would be involved in completing and returning the questionnaires. After describing the requirement that the couple had to be expecting their first child to participate in the study, the researchers asked for volunteers. Questionnaires were distributed to those who indicated a willingness to participate, and the couples were asked to return the questionnaire at the next meeting. The second and third questionnaires were mailed directly to the respondents.

The comparison couples volunteered for the study after learning about it through handbills, posters, and newspaper articles. At comparable times, questionnaires were mailed to them. All respondents were assured that their answers would be confidential, and that they would receive information on the results of the study.

Of the 126 prospective parents who initially volunteered and completed the first questionnaire, 109 (86%) completed the second and third questionnaires. Of the 61 nonparent couples who initially volunteered and completed the first questionnaire, 54 (87%) completed both of the follow-ups. Efforts were made to maintain the interest of the respondents through personal contacts. The questionnaires used were rather lengthy, and when they were not returned promptly, follow-up letters were sent to the respondents, they were telephoned, and, finally, a registered, special delivery letter was sent if they did not respond.

Sample Characteristics

As noted above, 109 of the couples were husbands and wives who were first-time parents, with their babies being about eight months old when the third questionnaires were completed. The other 54 couples were husbands and wives who were not parents at the time of the study. Most subjects were white and of the middle socioeconomic class.

Table 1 provides a summary of the sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents. The parent and nonparent groups were

Table 1. Sociodemographic Characteristics of the Sample

	Wives				Husbands			
	Parent (N=109)		Nonparent (N=54)		Parent (N=109)		Nonparent (N=54)	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Age	26.37	3.12	25.35	2.66	28.31	3.88	27.31	3.23
Years known before marriage	2.60	2.51	2.90	3.24	2.65	2.48	2.70	2.63
Years married	3.75	2.04	3.40	2.09	3.81	2.07	3.40	2.09
Education*	3.63	1.14	4.30	1.24	4.23	1.29	5.67	1.13
Income**	4.03	1.44	3.20	1.45	4.03	1.50	3.28	1.49

*3=Some college
4=College graduate
5=Some graduate study

**3=\$10,000--\$14,999
4=\$15,000--\$19,999

similar on most of these characteristics. The mean age of the parental wives was 26.37 years, with a range of 19 to 38. Nonparent wives were somewhat younger, 25.37, on the average, with a range of 21 to 32. The husbands were, on the average, a couple of years older than the wives. The mean age for parental husbands was 28.31, with a range of 19 to 42. For nonparental husbands, the mean age was 27.31, with a range of 22 to 36. The parental wives were about one year older than nonparental wives, and parental husbands were about one year older than nonparental husbands.

The parental couples had been married for an average of 3.70 years, with a range from six months to just over eight years. Nonparent couples had been married for an average of 3.4 years, with a range of just under six months to eight years. In this respect, the differences between the two samples were slight, with the parental couples having been married only a few months more than the nonparent couples.

Many of the respondents in this sample had at least some college or technical education. In order to examine educational level, some explanation of the coding scheme used for this variable is necessary. A score of 1 indicated that the respondent had some high school education, and 2 indicated that the respondent was a high school graduate. A score of 3 indicated that the respondent had some college or technical school, and 4 indicated that the respondent was a college graduate. A score of 5 indicated that the respondent had some graduate school education, and a score of 6 indicated that the respondent had received a graduate degree.

The parental wives had the fewest years of education, with an average of 3.63, indicating that many of the parental wives had some college or technical school, but that they had not received a college degree. The parental husbands had slightly more education than their wives, with an average of 4.23. Both nonparent wives and husbands had slightly higher educational levels than the parents in this study. The nonparent wives had an average of 4.30 years of education. For the nonparent husbands, the average was 4.67.

Overall, the educational level of this sample was relatively high. About 31% of the respondents had attended some college or technical school, and about 24% had graduated from college. Twenty percent had some graduate school education, and eighteen percent had received a graduate degree. The nonparent couples had a slightly higher educational level than parental couples. Within both the parental and nonparent groups, husbands had slightly higher levels of education than wives.

The categories for combined family income level were as follows: (1) less than \$6,000, (2) \$6,000 to \$9,999, (3) \$10,000 to \$14,999, (4) \$15,000 to \$19,999, (5) \$20,000 to \$24,999, and (6) \$25,000 and above. About 7% of the respondents reported a family income of less than \$6,000, and 15% had an income of \$6,000 to \$9,999. The largest percentage of the couples, 26%, had a combined income of \$10,000 to \$14,999. Sixteen percent of the couples had an income of \$15,000 to \$19,999, and 19% of the sample reported a combined family income of \$20,000 to \$24,999. Seventeen percent of the sample had a combined family income of \$25,000 or more.

Comparing parent and nonparent groups, it can be seen that the parents had a higher income level than the nonparents. The mean income for parental wives and husbands was in the \$15,000 to \$19,999 range, whereas the mean income for nonparent wives and husbands was in the \$10,000 to \$14,999 range. One possible explanation for the difference in income level is the age of the respondents. The nonparents were about a year younger and more likely to still be in school than the parents, indicating that they had not had as much time to establish themselves in their occupations. Also, the higher educational levels of the nonparent sample indicates that they would have spent fewer years in the work force than the parental sample, which would also influence the income level.

Information was obtained on the religion the respondent was brought up in as well as the respondent's current religious affiliation. Eighty-four percent of the respondents were brought up as Protestants and 67% indicated that their current religious affiliation was Protestant. Ten percent of the respondents were brought up in the Catholic faith, and seven percent were Catholics at the time of the study. Three respondents were brought up in the Jewish faith, and one respondent was Jewish at the time of the study. About four percent of the sample indicated that they were members of other religious faiths, and 18% were not affiliated with a religion. Since the sample consisted primarily of Protestants, religion was not used as a variable in the analyses.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire approach was selected because it provided an economical and practical method for obtaining the desired information. A large amount of information was obtained from the third questionnaire, but only part of this information was pertinent to the present study.

Two previously developed instruments were used in this study, the Sex Role Attitudes Scale and the Value of Children Scale. The Value of Children Scale developed by Arnold et al. (1975) was selected to measure beliefs about the functions of children and childbearing to parents. This scale was developed as part of a cross-national study on the values of children. Items were written to measure the nine categories of values of children delineated by Hoffman and Hoffman (1972). These items measure both satisfactions and costs of children in three realms--economic, social, and psychological. The scale consists of 45 items on a six-point response continuum. Respondents are instructed to first decide whether they agree or disagree with each statement, and then to decide on the strength of that feeling (strong, moderate, slight).

Arnold et al. (1975) factor analysis of the scale resulted in nine subscales. Six of these reflected benefits to parents from having children, including: (1) continuity, tradition, security; (2) parenthood satisfactions; (3) role motivations; (4) happiness and affection; (5) goals and incentives; and (6) social status. The remaining three subscales reflected some negative aspects associated

with having children. The subscale on external controls measures pressure from others for childbearing and a moralistic view against limiting births. The decision-mindedness subscale refers to consideration of the costs involved in having children. The costs of children subscale measures opportunity costs, financial costs, and emotional costs to the marital relationship (Arnold et al., 1975).

In the present study, a factor analysis of the items in the Value of Children Scale was also done to generate subscales. A total of nine subscales were formed based on the factor analysis. These subscales and the reliability coefficient for each subscale will be described as part of the results reported in Chapter IV. The subscales reflect attitudes about the values or benefits of children to parents and the costs or negative values of children to parents.

The Sex Role Attitudes Scale was developed by Scanzoni (1975) and modified by Tomeh (1978). This scale taps three dimensions of sex roles. The wife-mother dimension measures the importance of the wife's interests in relationship to the interests of the husband and children. Scores on this scale indicate whether the respondent had traditional or egalitarian beliefs about the roles of wife and mother. The husband-father dimension measures the significance of the husband's interests and authority in the family. Scores indicate whether the respondent adheres to a patriarchal traditional orientation, or an egalitarian orientation. The third dimension, problematic husband-wife alterations, measures a role structure in which the husband's interests are more significant than those of the wife,

but there is the possibility that the husband will have to make sacrifices for the sake of the wife's interests. Again, scores indicate either an egalitarian or traditional belief system. In Tomeh's (1978) study, reliability was assessed by correlating each item to the total scores of a given subscale. The coefficient of reproducibility was .84 for the wife-mother dimension, .85 for the husband-father dimension, and .84 for the problematic husband-wife alterations role.

A number of additional items were selected to supplement the Sex Role Attitudes Scale previously developed by Scanzoni (1975). The additional items measured attitudes about shared aspects of husband and wife roles, parenting roles, and attitudes about the role of father. These items were selected from scales developed by Brogan and Kutner (1976), McIntire, Nass, and Bathistone (1974), and Osmond and Martin (1975). The total number of items in the Sex Role Attitudes Scale was 54. Like the Value of Children Scale, there were six response categories, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

In the present research, a factor analysis of the Sex Role Attitudes Scale was performed, resulting in six subscales. These subscales were used in the analysis of relationships in this study. The six subscales and their reliability coefficients will be reported in Chapter IV. (See Appendices A, B, and C for copies of the questionnaire items and scales used in this study.)

Operational Definitions

Parents: Married couples whose first child was about eight months old when the third stage of data collection was begun.

Nonparents: Married couples who did not have a child or children at the time of the study.

Age: The chronological age of the respondent when the study began.

Educational Level: The respondent's score on the following scale: (1) some high school or less; (2) completed high school; (3) some college or technical school; (4) college graduate; (5) some graduate study; (6) graduate degree. Educational level was reported for each respondent and for each respondent's mother and father.

Income Level: The combined incomes of the husband and wife, using the following categories: (1) less than \$6,000; (2) \$6,000 to \$9,999; (3) \$10,000 to \$14,999; (4) \$15,000 to \$19,999; (5) \$20,000 to \$24,999; (6) \$25,000 and above.

Father's Occupation: The following categories were used to determine the father's occupation: (1) farmer; (2) homemaker, or not employed outside the home; (3) semi-skilled or unskilled workman; (4) skilled workman or foreman; (5) clerical or sales position; (6) proprietor, manager, owner of business; (7) professional, semi-professional, or technical.

Mother's Employment History: The respondent indicated the extent of the mother's employment outside the home as the respondent

was growing up, using the following categories: (1) none or very little; (2) some part-time; (3) some full-time; (4) continuous part-time; (5) continuous full-time.

Motherhood--Career Attitudes: The respondent indicated his/her mother's attitudes about the importance of motherhood and of a career, using the following categories: (1) considered motherhood to be her most rewarding job; (2) considered motherhood to be rewarding, but other activities were also important to her; (3) considered motherhood and career to be equally rewarding; (4) considered her career to be her most rewarding activity.

Desired Family Size: Respondent's report of the number of children that he or she would like to have.

Sex Role Attitudes

✓ Traditionalism: Responses to items 3, 10, 16, 20, 26, 29, 43, 45, 49, 51, and 54 on the Sex Role Attitudes Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed in the scale.

Women's Work Roles: Responses to items 5, 6, 8, 12, 13, 17, 19, 24, 28, 32, 37, 41, 42, 44, and 50 on the Sex Role Attitudes Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed in the items in the scale.

✓ Egalitarian Husband Role: Responses to items 14, 22, 23, 30, 31, 38, and 39 on the Sex Role Attitudes Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed in the items in the scale.

Father's Role: Responses to items 33, 35, 36, 47, 48, and 52 on the Sex Role Attitudes Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed in the scale.

Marital Power: Responses to items 1, 4, 27, 46, and 52 on the Sex Role Attitudes Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed in the scale.

Motherhood Role: Responses to items 15, 18, 25, and 34 on the Sex Role Attitudes Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed in the scale.

Value of Children Attitudes:

Parental Imperatives: Responses to items 8 and 28 on the Value of Children Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed.

Marital and Personal Costs: Responses to items 1, 5, 10, 19, 26, 37, and 39 on the Value of Children Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed.

Adult Status: Responses to items 16 and 45 on the Value of Children Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed.

Personal Fulfillment and Enrichment: Responses to items 4, 6, 15, 18, 20, 24, 25, 29, 30, 43, and 44 on the Value of Children Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed.

Familism: Responses to items 7, 13, 14, 22, 31, 36, 40, and 42 on the Value of Children Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed.

Community Regard: Responses to items 21 and 27 on the Value of Children Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed.

Decision Costs: Responses to items 9, 23, 32, and 41 on the Value of Children Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed.

Duty: Responses to items 2, 7, 12, 34, and 38 on the Value of Children Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed.

Responsibility: Responses to items 17 and 33 on the Value of Children Scale, scored such that a higher score indicated agreement with the ideas expressed.

Data Reduction and Transformation

Data were obtained from a total of 326 respondents. As the questionnaires were mailed back to the researchers, the information was transferred to coding sheets. From the coding sheets, cards were punched to be used in computer analyses. Data were available for each respondent from three different times. There were 589 variables per respondent, with a total of nine cards per case. The cards were verified to ensure that the data had been keypunched correctly, and then the data were quality checked against the questionnaires. The

facilities at the University of Tennessee Computer Center were utilized for the analysis of the data. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent, 1975) was used in the analysis of the data.

Plan of Analysis

The major dependent variables in this study were: (1) sex role attitudes; (2) attitudes about the value of children, and (3) desired family size. Independent variables included gender, parental status, and selected sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents. Frequency distributions were first generated for the sociodemographic variables in order to provide a descriptive picture of the parental and nonparent groups which composed the sample.

Factor analyses were performed on the Sex Role Attitudes Scale and the Value of Children Scale to generate subscales that were used in the testing of hypotheses. Also, these subscales provided descriptive data about sex role attitudes and the value of children. Reliability coefficients were computed for each subscale.

To test the hypotheses, t-tests were used to analyze the differences on sex role attitudes as a function of gender and parental status. The Pearson product-moment correlation was used to analyze the relationships between sex role attitudes and perceived values and costs of children, and to analyze the relationship between sex role attitudes and desired family size.

Multiple regression equations were computed to analyze the effects of sociodemographic and attitudinal variables on sex role attitudes, the value of children, and desired family size. The multiple regression analyses provided a further test of the hypotheses in the study and provided information on the influence of socio-demographic variables on attitudes.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

In order to examine the relationships suggested by the hypotheses it was first necessary to construct scales to measure the major attitudinal variables. Standard psychometric scaling and item analysis procedures were followed. The Sex Role Attitudes Scale and the Value of Children Scale were first subjected to separate factor analyses, resulting in six and nine subscales, respectively. Each of the subscales were then analyzed to determine their reliability.

The subprogram RELIABILITY from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie et al., 1975) was used to compute the reliability of the subscales generated from the factor analyses of the Sex Role Attitudes Scale and the Value of Children Scale. Alpha reliability coefficients, which are probably the most widely used, were computed for each subscale. Item-total statistics were also obtained, which provided a means for checking the contribution of each item to the total scale mean, the scale variance, and the correlation of that item with the other items in the scale.

Factor Analysis: Sex Role Attitudes

The Sex Role Attitudes Scale was used to measure one of the major dependent variables in this study. There were 54 items to

which the respondents indicated the strength of their agreement or disagreement. A principal components factor analysis (PA2 in SPSS) with a varimax rotation was used to identify a set of factors or components of the Sex Role Attitudes Scale. The varimax rotation maximizes each item's loading on one factor. It is the most widely used factor analysis in the social sciences (Nie et al., 1975).

The factor analysis resulted in six subscales on the Sex Role Attitudes Scale. The items in each subscale are correlated with each other, but are not highly correlated with the remaining items in the other subscales. The first factor that emerged is the best linear combination of variables, and will account for more variance in the data than any other linear combination. The second component is the second best linear combination of variables, and so on (Nie et al., 1975).

The first factor that emerged from the analysis reflected traditional attitudes about sex roles (see Table 2). In this factor, the Parsonian ideas about instrumental and expressive roles for men and women were clearly delineated. The items emphasized the husband's responsibility for supporting the family and assuming the position of head of the household, and the wife's responsibility for running the household and taking care of her husband and children. There were eleven items in the Traditionalism Scale. Respondents were asked to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with these items, and the alternatives ranged from strong disagreement (coded 1) to strong agreement (coded 6). The responses to all 11 items were summed, and the range of scores on this subscale was 12 to 63.

Table 2. Traditionalism Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Item	Factor Loading	Alpha if item deleted
1. A married woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her husband and children.	.53	.86
2. It is possible for women to satisfy their needs for achievement through their husbands.	.39	.87
3. Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should have the responsibility for running the household.	.50	.86
4. A man who helps around the kitchen is helping his wife with her responsibilities.	.23	.86
5. Except in special cases, the wife should do the cooking and house-cleaning, and the husband should provide the family with money.	.41	.86
6. The husband should be the head of the family.	.63	.85
7. It is not a good idea for a husband to stay home and care for the children while his wife is employed full-time outside the home.	.50	.86
8. Being a mother is a special calling from God.	.74	.86
9. A wife should give up her job if it inconveniences her husband and children.	.52	.86
10. A woman should realize that her greatest reward and satisfaction comes through her children.	.70	.85
11. The institution of marriage and family was established by God.	.62	.87
Total Scale Alpha		.87

A higher score reflected agreement with the ideas expressed in the items composing this scale; that is, a higher score indicates more traditional ideas about husband and wife roles. The alpha reliability coefficient for this scale was .87.

The second sex role attitudes factor that emerged reflected egalitarian beliefs about work roles of women (see Table 3). Included was the idea that the wife's work interests are just as important as the interests and needs of the husband and children. Emphasis was placed on individuals making choices about careers and household duties based on personal preferences and capabilities, rather than on the traditionally prescribed roles for men and women. An important aspect of the second factor centered on a working woman's responsibilities to her children. There was support for the ideas that working women can establish secure relationships with their children and that children benefit when their mothers have outside interests. In contrast to the ideas expressed in the Traditionalism Scale, a woman's greatest satisfactions were viewed as being derived from a combination of family life and work. The range of scores on this 15 item scale was 26 to 87, and the mean score for the total sample was 36.50. A higher score indicated that the respondent had more egalitarian beliefs about women working and supported the idea that the husband and wife are equal partners. The alpha reliability coefficient for the Women's Work Role Scale was .89.

The third factor reflected egalitarian beliefs about the husband's role in the family (see Table 4). The core idea in this scale was that men should share equally in the responsibility for child care

Table 3. Women's Work Role Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Item	Factor Loading	Alpha	
		if item	Deleted
1. Marriage is a partnership in which the wife and husband should share the economic responsibility of supporting the family.	.40	.88	
2. A working woman may want to postpone having children in order to increase her opportunities in life.	.41	.88	
3. Unless it is an economic necessity married women who have pre-school children should not work outside the home.	-0.57	.88	
4. Having a job herself should be just as important to a woman as encouraging her husband in his job.	.38	.88	
5. A man and his wife ought to have the same opportunities for part-time employment while the children are small.	.40	.88	
6. A working mother can establish just as warm and secure relationships with her children as a mother who does not work.	.63	.88	
7. A married man should be willing to have a smaller family, so that his wife can work if she wants to.	.40	.88	
8. The relative amounts of time and energy to be devoted to household duties and to a career should be determined by personal interests rather than sex.	.45	.88	
9. One of the most important things that parents can do for a daughter is to prepare her for a working life outside the home.	.39	.88	
10. There should be more day-care centers and nursery schools so that more young mothers could work.	.63	.87	
11. If a woman works, she should try to get ahead the same way a man should.	.23	.88	
12. Children's lives are enhanced when their mothers have interests outside the home and family, including jobs.	.58	.87	
13. A mother of young children should work if it makes her personally happy.	.67	.87	
14. A married woman's greatest satisfaction comes through a combination of family life and work outside the home.	.63	.88	
15. Raising a child provides many rewards, but as a full-time job it cannot keep most women satisfied.	.45	.88	
Total Scale Alpha		.88	

Table 4. Egalitarian Husband Role Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Item	Factor Loading	Alpha if item Deleted
1. A married man should accept that his wife's career may interfere with his career.	.28	.77
2. A wife should be able to take a job which requires her to be away from home overnight while her husband takes care of the children.	.35	.77
3. Men should take the same amount of responsibility as women in caring for home and children.	.50	.77
4. As a matter of principle, a man and a woman who share a home should share equally in the housework.	.41	.76
5. If the wife makes more money than her husband, it should not upset the balance of power in their relationship.	.34	.79
6. If his wife works, the husband should share equally in the responsibilities of child care.	.54	.77
7. If a child gets sick and both parents work, the husband should be just as willing to stay home and take care of the child as the wife.	.72	.74
Total Scale Alpha		.79

and housework. An important aspect of this scale was the husband's support for the wife's job involvement. Seven items were used to form the Egalitarian Husband Role Scale. The range of scores was 13 to 42, and the mean score for the total sample was 32.34. A higher score reflected agreement with the egalitarian husband role. The alpha reliability coefficient for this scale was .79.

The fourth factor reflected the belief that fathers should be actively involved in raising their children, and that the father's role as parent is important (see Table 5). The ideas expressed in this scale were that children's lives are enhanced when their fathers take a more active role in childcare and child rearing, and that fathers should be as involved as mothers in interacting with their children. This factor consisted of six items, with a range of scores from 12 to 35, and a mean score for the total sample of 28.78. The alpha reliability coefficient for this scale was .67.

The fifth factor reflected a traditional belief in the authority of the husband (see Table 6). From an examination of the items in this scale, it could be seen that the husband is supposed to be responsible for the major decisions made in the family. It was clear that the husband's authority was greater than the wife's. This factor was composed of five items, with a range of scores of 12 to 29, and a mean score of 18.02. A higher score indicated that the respondent agreed with the ideas expressed in the Marital Power Scale. The reliability coefficient for this scale was .72.

The sixth and final factor that emerged from the analysis centered on the importance of the role of the mother (see Table 7).

Table 5. Father's Role Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Item	Factor Loading	Alpha if item Deleted
1. One of the most important things that parents can do for a son is to prepare him for family life.	.40	.67
2. If a man is working to support the family, his wife has no right to expect him to work when he is home.	.46	.59
3. Parents should equally encourage both daughters and sons to be independent.	.43	.59
4. The father and mother should participate equally in recreational and leisure activities with the child.	.57	.57
5. Men should feel free to do such things as cook and care for children if they so desire.	.56	.57
6. Children's lives are enhanced when their fathers take an active role in child care and child rearing.	.63	.54
Total Scale Alpha		.63

Table 6. Marital Power Scale Items and Factor Loading

Item	Factor Loading	Alpha	
		if item Deleted	
1. In marriage, the wife and husband should share making major decisions.	-0.46	.71	
2. The husband should take primary responsibility for major family decisions, such as the purchase of a home or car.	.54	.60	
3. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in bringing up of children.	.43	.64	
4. A wife should not have equal authority with her husband in making decisions.	.48	.67	
5. The husband and wife should be equal partners in planning the budget.	-0.48	.69	
Total Scale Alpha		.72	

Table 7. Motherhood Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Items	Factor Loading	Alpha	
		if item Deleted	
1. The role of being a father is not as important as the role of being a mother.	.41	.69	
2. Men are just as able to provide the parenting behaviors that children need as women are.	-0.37	.61	
3. Although a child needs emotional support from both parents, it is the responsibility of the mother to provide most of the emotional support to the child.	.59	.56	
4. Rearing children is more of a mother's job than a father's.	.60	.51	
Total Scale Alpha		.67	

This factor reflected a traditional orientation toward motherhood. The role of father was not viewed as important as the role of the mother, and mothers were believed to be better parents than fathers. Rearing children was viewed as the mother's job, and it was the responsibility of the mother to provide emotional support to the children. The motherhood factor consisted of four items, with a range of scores of 5 to 19, and a mean of 11.75. A higher score reflected agreement with the ideas expressed in the Motherhood scale. The alpha reliability coefficient for this scale was .67.

Factor Analysis: Value of Children

The Value of Children Scale was used to measure one of the dependent variables in this study. This scale consisted of 45 items to which the respondents indicated the strength of their agreement or disagreement. The scale was subjected to a factor analysis in order to identify a set of components of the scale. Nine subscales emerged from the factor analysis.

The first factor that emerged reflected the basic idea that parenthood is imperative (see Table 8). Becoming a parent is seen as a natural part of the roles of both men and women. As noted earlier, parenthood is implicit in the traditional definition of sex roles in our society. The fact that this factor was the first to emerge indicates the strength of the belief that parenthood is an expected and natural part of life. Two items formed the Parental Imperatives Scale. The range of scores was 2 to 12, and the mean

Table 8. Parental Imperatives Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Item	Factor Loading	Alpha if item Deleted
1. It is only natural that a man should want to be a father.	.85	.99
2. It is only natural that a woman should want to be a mother.	.71	.99
Total Scale Alpha		.84

score for the total sample was 6.48. A higher score reflected agreement with the ideas expressed in this scale. The alpha reliability coefficient for the scale was .84.

The second factor to emerge reflected some of the costs associated with having children (see Table 9). These costs were not primarily economic, but rather were costs to the individual and the marriage relationship. A couple of the items indicated that caring for children is a tedious job, and that having children around can be a mental strain. Limitations created by having children were also part of this scale. The negative values associated with children included unhappiness, marital disagreements, financial troubles, and the necessity of sacrificing some things that the parents might otherwise enjoy. Seven items formed the Marital and Personal Costs Scale. The mean score for the total sample on this subscale was 22.89, with a range of 7 to 42. The higher the score, the more a respondent was in agreement with the ideas expressed in the scale. The alpha reliability coefficient for this scale was .64.

The third factor to emerge reflected positive values associated with children (see Table 10). Some of the ideas expressed were that children provide an opportunity to freely express love and affection, that having children is an important function of marriage, and that life would be dull without children. Being a parent was regarded as one of the highest purposes in life, and being a good parent was highly regarded as a means of accomplishment. The third factor was composed of 10 items, with a range of scores of 10 to 50, and

Table 9. Marital and Personal Costs Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Items	Factor Loadings	Alpha	
		if item Deleted	
1. I think that caring for children is a tedious job.	.39		.78
2. I think that we would be happier if we did not have children.	.35		.78
3. Always having children around is a great mental strain.	.65		.73
4. Children will limit me in what I want to do and where I want to go.	.64		.75
5. Having children will probably cause many disagreements between us.	.64		.75
6. Raising children will be a heavy financial burden for us.	.64		.75
7. When we have children, we give up a lot of other things we enjoy.	.62		.74
Total Scale Alpha			.78

Table 10. Fulfillment Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Items	Factor Loadings	Alpha	
		if item Deleted	
1. Only with a child do I feel completely free to express my love and affection.	.32		.84
2. Having children will give me a special incentive to succeed in life.	.35		.82
3. Having children is the most important function of our marriage.	.45		.81
4. One of the highest purposes in my life is to have children.	.46		.81
5. Life for me would be pretty dull without children.	.73		.81
6. For me, it is inevitable to have children.	.39		.83
7. One of the best things about having children is the true loyalty they'll show me.	.38		.82
8. Just the feeling of being needed will be enough to make having children worthwhile for me.	.39		.82
9. If I can be a good parent I can feel completely satisfied with my achievements in life.	.39		.82
10. I think that those who have no children can never really be happy.	.40		.83
Total Scale Alpha			.84

a mean score of 26.81. The higher the score, the more the respondent was in agreement with the ideas expressed in the Fulfillment Scale. The alpha reliability coefficient for this scale was .84.

The fourth scale to emerge reflected the belief that with parenthood comes adult status (see Table 11). Two items composed this scale, each expressing the same basic idea. That idea is that a girl becomes a woman and a boy becomes a man only after having children. The range of scores for this subscale was 2 to 12, and the mean score for the total sample was 3.37. The alpha reliability coefficient was .86 for the Adult Status Scale.

The fifth factor to emerge reflected familistic ideals (see Table 12). Children were thought to be important because they offer continuity with the future. It was believed that children increased the strength of the bond between husband and wife, and that children were a sign of blessing on a marriage. The family with children was thought to be the basis for all that is good in society. Children were also valued for their loyalty and for the learning opportunities provided to the parents through childrearing. There were eight items in this factor, with a range of scores of 8 to 46, and a mean score for the total sample of 28.50. The alpha reliability coefficient for the Familism Scale was .73.

The sixth factor to emerge reflected the social status that children can bring (see Table 13). Two items were included in the Community Regard Scale. The main ideas expressed in this scale are that after having children, a couple is better accepted in the

Table 11. Adult Status Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Items	Factor Loading	Alpha	
		if item Deleted	
1. I think that a girl becomes a woman only after she is a mother.	.76	.99	
2. I think that a boy becomes a man only after he is a father.	.82	.99	
	Total Scale Alpha	.86	

Table 12. Familism Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Items	Factor Loading	Alpha	
		if item Deleted	
1. It is important to have children so that our family traditions will live on.	.31	.74	
2. All the efforts I make for my children will be worthwhile in the long run.	.37	.74	
3. Having children makes a stronger bond between husband and wife.	.28	.75	
4. After becoming a parent, I am less likely to behave immorally.	.11	.71	
5. I think that the family with children is the basis for all that is good in our society.	.29	.73	
6. One of the best things about having children is that I will never be lonely.	.26	.73	
7. Some really important things in life can be learned only from the experience of raising children.	.57	.74	
8. Having children is a sign of blessing on a marriage.	.26	.71	
Total Scale Alpha		.76	

Table 13. Community Regard Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Items	Alpha	
	Factor Loadings	if item Deleted
1. We will be better accepted in the community after we have children.	.81	.99
2. After we have children we will be more looked up to in the community than those without children.	.79	.99
Total Scale Alpha		.87

community, and couples with children are more looked up to than those without children. The range of scores on the subscale was 2 to 12, and the mean score for the sample was 5.25. A higher score indicates agreement with the ideas expressed. The alpha reliability coefficient was .80 for this scale.

The seventh factor expressed negative values associated with having children (see Table 14). The items forming this subscale had one idea in common--that before having children, individuals should consider some of the possible problems associated with children. The costs associated with this scale were essentially decision costs. Some of the costs mentioned were inconveniences, financial costs, and interference with the wife's work. Four items formed the Decision Costs Scale, with a range of scores of 4 to 24, and the mean score for the total sample being 16.54. The alpha reliability coefficient was .70 for this scale.

The eighth factor to emerge reflected the belief that having children is a duty or responsibility that individuals have toward society and to their family line (see Table 15). Items suggested that individuals should not interfere with nature by limiting their family size, that children are important for continuing the family name and traditions, and that children are able to help older parents. This factor contained five items, with a range of scores of 6 to 30, and a mean score of 12.60. The alpha reliability coefficient for the Duty Scale was .72.

The ninth factor to emerge reflected parental responsibility toward children (see Table 16). Two items formed this factor. The

Table 14. Decision Costs Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Items	Factor Loadings	Alpha if item Deleted
1. A couple ought to think seriously about the inconvenience caused by children before they have any.	.47	.67
2. The first thing we should think about when deciding to have children is whether or not we can afford it.	.47	.69
3. Before having a child, we should consider whether we would rather use our money for something else.	.68	.58
4. Before having a child, we should consider whether it would interfere with the wife's work or not.	.58	.61
Total Scale Alpha		.70

Table 15. Duty Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Items	Factor Loadings	Alpha	
		if item Deleted	
1. A good reason for having children is that they could help me when I'm too old to work.	.26		.70
2. It is important to have children so that our family traditions will live on.	.26		.69
3. It is my duty to society to have children.	.31		.67
4. I think men have a duty to have children to continue their family name.	.28		.65
5. It isn't right for us to interfere with nature by deciding to limit the number of children we have.	.29		.69
Total Scale Alpha			.72

Table 16. Responsibility Scale Items and Factor Loadings

Items	Factor Loadings	Alpha	
		if item Deleted	
1. It is the parents' fault if their children are not successful in life.	.67	.99	
2. One of the best things about being a parent is the chance to teach children what they should do and what they should not do.	.33	.99	
Total Scale Alpha		.47	

basic ideas in this factor were that parents have the opportunity to teach children what they should and should not do, and that parents must take the responsibility for their child's success in life. The range of scores on this scale was 2 to 12, and the mean score for the total sample was 5.87. The alpha reliability coefficient for the Responsibility Scale was .47.

t-test

In order to test for differences in sex role attitudes as a function of gender and parental status, one-tailed t-tests were performed. Grouped t-tests were used, with males and females as the two groups in the tests for gender differences, and parents and nonparents as the two groups in the tests for parental status differences. Three of the Sex Role Attitudes Scales--Traditionalism, Women's Work Roles, and Egalitarian Husband Role--were selected for the t-tests. These scales were selected because they provided a means of examining attitudes about the familial and work roles of both men and women, and because they were the first three factors to emerge, accounting for the most variance in sex role attitudes.

The null hypothesis regarding gender differences stated that there would be no differences between the sex role attitudes of men and women. In keeping with previous findings, it was actually expected that females would be more likely than males to have egalitarian sex role attitudes. The results for the t-test on gender differences are shown in Table 17. The value of t on the Traditionalism Scale was 0.41, which was not significant. For

Table 17. Gender Comparisons on Selected Sex Role Attitude Scales

Subscale and Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value	df	Probability
Traditionalism							
Male	163	37.77	11.85	.93	0.41	161	.324
Female	163	36.24	11.57	.91			
Women's Work Roles							
Male	163	63.34	10.58	.83	-1.97	161	.037
Female	163	65.47	10.97	.86			
Egalitarian Husband Role							
Male	163	31.56	5.53	.43	-1.31	161	.045
Female	163	32.42	6.25	.49			

the Women's Work Roles Scale, the t value was -1.79 , which was significant at the $.04$ level. On the Egalitarian Husband Role Scale, the value of t was -1.31 , which was also significant at the $.04$ level.

The t -test results indicated that the null hypothesis could not be rejected when looking at attitudes about the Traditional roles of men and women. The mean scores for males and females were very similar. However, on the Women's Work Role and the Egalitarian Husband Role Scales, there were significant differences between men and women, with the women showing more egalitarian attitudes than the men. These differences between men and women lend additional support to findings from earlier studies about sex differences in sex role attitudes. Mason, Czajka, and Arber (1976) found that women's sex role attitudes were changing toward more egalitarian role definitions. Attitudes were examined over the decade of 1964--1974, and support was found for husbands sharing housework with their wives, for the right of women to keep their jobs and have children, and the feasibility of a life that does not include marriage or motherhood. However, Mason et al. (1976) noted that while there was a tendency for females to support more egalitarian roles, there was also predominant support for a basic division of labor by sex. Brogan and Kutner (1975) also reported that females were more likely than males to support egalitarian sex roles, but that both males and females were quite traditional in their ideas about familial roles.

In this sample, then, both men and women had similar ideas about the basic division of labor in the household. On the Traditionalism Scale of the Sex Role Attitudes Scale, there were no significant differences between men and women. On the Women's Work Role and the Egalitarian Husband Role Scales, however, gender differences were evident, with females more likely than males to agree with these attitudes. The higher mean score on the Women's Work Role Scale indicates a belief that the work role is an essential aspect of a woman's life and that women should receive support from both society (i.e., more day care centers, more part-time jobs for both men and women) and from their husbands when they are participants in the work force. The higher mean score on the Egalitarian Husband Role Scale taps beliefs about the role of the husband, particularly when the wife works. The basic idea of this scale is that husbands should share the responsibilities of children and housework with their wives; not surprisingly, women felt more strongly this way than men!

Sex role attitudes are marked by conflicting ideas, and such conflicts may exist for individuals. That is, some individuals may have difficulty in reconciling the traditional beliefs they learned when they were younger with more egalitarian beliefs learned later in life as a result of experience. As noted by Mason et al. (1976), there have been changes toward support of more egalitarian sex roles, yet there is also support for the traditional conceptualization of sex roles. These traditional definitions are both well known and pervasive. As previously noted, an individual's sex role attitudes

are influenced by that person's gender and stage in the life cycle. Other studies of sex role attitudes have reported that women appear to be more egalitarian than males and that there is more support for traditional sex role attitudes in the familial realm.

The sex role attitudes of parents and nonparents have rarely been compared; this comparison is considered to be an important contribution of the present study. The statistical null hypothesis regarding parental status stated that there would be no differences between parents and nonparents in sex role attitudes. Actually, the expectation was that nonparents would be more likely than parents to have egalitarian sex role attitudes. One-tailed t-tests were performed to test for differences in sex role attitudes between parents and nonparents. The Traditionalism, Women's Work Roles, and Egalitarian Husband Role Scales were used as measures of sex role attitudes. The results for the t-test on parental status differences are shown in Table 18. The value of t on the Traditionalism, Women's Work Roles, and Egalitarian Husband Role Scales were all significant. There were significant differences between parents and nonparents on sex role attitudes, with parents having more traditional, less egalitarian attitudes.

On the Traditionalism Scale the results indicated that parents were more likely to support the traditional division of labor by sex than nonparents. According to this traditional dichotomy, the woman's expressive role centers around caring for the needs of her children and husband, whereas the man's instrumental role includes being the provider and head of the household. Parent and nonparent ideas about

Table 18. Parent--Nonparent Comparisons on Selected Sex Role Attitudes Scales

Subscale and Group	N	Mean	Deviation	Standard Error	t Value	df	Probability
Traditionalism							
Parents	218	38.52	11.83	.80	4.77	216	.000
Nonparents	109	32.42	10.33	.99			
Women's Work Roles							
Parents	218	63.21	11.26	.76	-3.04	216	.003
Nonparents	109	66.81	9.44	.91			
Egalitarian Husband Role							
Parents	218	31.47	6.11	.41	-2.37	216	.019
Nonparents	109	33.04	5.33	.51			

traditional husband and wife roles were different. In families without children, both spouses would be more likely to work and share the household tasks. Without children, it is perhaps easier to practice egalitarian roles, and perhaps more desirable, since such a practice can lead to a higher income when both spouses work, and more leisure time together when household tasks are shared.

When the transition to parenthood is made, there is a need to reorganize statuses, roles, and relationships. The typical pattern is for the wife to assume responsibility for most of the caretaking tasks related to the baby, and for the husband to be not as involved with the baby as the wife is, and perhaps to become more involved with his work. The time that the husband and wife previously spent together is more likely to be spent in child-related activities. With the assumption of child-care responsibilities, the wife is also more likely to assume responsibility for the household tasks. The above described division of labor agrees exactly with the items contained in the Traditionalism Scale. The difference in mean scores on this scale indicated that parents were more likely to support this division of labor than nonparents. A logical extension of this difference in attitudes is the difference in actual behavior. Although information on behavior was not included in this part of the study, it is likely that parents are more traditional in both their attitudes and their behaviors regarding sex roles.

On the Women's Work Role Scale and the Egalitarian Husband Role Scale, nonparents were more egalitarian in their sex role attitudes

than parents. Nonparents were more likely to support the idea that women's work is important and that having a job is just as important for a woman as it is for a man. On the Women's Work Role Scale, emphasis was placed on women working when they have children. Several of the items in this scale indicated that it is acceptable for women with preschoolers to work, that children's lives are enhanced when their mothers are involved in activities outside the home, and that working mothers can establish secure relationships with their children. The parents didn't support these beliefs about working women to the same extent as nonparents. One crucial factor may be the age of the child or children when a mother decided to return to or join the work force. The parental couples in the sample had a child about eight months old. The attitudes of these parents toward women's work roles might become more egalitarian as their child grows older. On the Egalitarian Husband Role Scale, nonparents also had higher mean scores than parents, indicating that nonparents were more likely to believe that husbands should share equally in housework and childcare with their wives.

The higher mean scores of the nonparents on the egalitarian scales, and the higher mean scores of the parents on the traditional scale indicated that there are significant differences in sex role attitudes as a function of parental status. As reported earlier, there are also differences in sex role attitudes as a function of gender. In answer to hypotheses one and two, then, females and nonparents have more egalitarian sex role attitudes than males and parents.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to examine the relationships between sex role attitudes and the values and costs of children. A major purpose of this study was to determine the relationships between sex role attitudes, the perceived values and costs of children, and desired family size. Hoffman (1972) postulated that a woman's employment status may affect the perceived alternatives to motherhood, thus leading to a decrease in the values associated with children. Similarly, Scanzoni (1975) hypothesized that sex role norms have an influence on desired family size.

The sex role analyses in this section focus on the Traditionalism, Women's Work Roles, and Egalitarian Husband Role Scales. Perceived values of children were measured by the Parental Imperatives, Fulfillment, Familism, and Duty scales from the Value of Children factor analyses. Perceived costs of children were measured by the Marital and Personal Costs Scale and the Decision Costs Scale. (The characteristics of these scales were described in the previous section on factor analysis). The other variable used in the correlational analyses was desired family size. Respondents indicated whether they wanted no children, one child, two, three, four, or five or more children.

As reported in the previous section, females and nonparents were more likely to have egalitarian sex role attitudes. Consequently, in examining the relationships between sex role attitudes, perceived values and costs of children, and desired family size, four groups

of respondents were compared. These groups were mothers, fathers, nonparent wives, and nonparent husbands.

Hypothesis number three, in the null form, stated that there would be no relationship between sex role attitudes and perceived values of children. It was expected that respondents with traditional sex role attitudes would be more likely to perceive values of children than respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes. Table 19 contains the results of the Pearson product-moment correlations for female respondents.

Looking at the first row of coefficients in Table 19, it can be seen that there are significant positive relationships between traditional sex roles and the perceived values of children for both mothers and nonmothers. The size of the correlation coefficients range from moderate to moderately strong. On both the Women's Work Roles Scale and the Egalitarian Husband Role Scale, there were significant negative relationships with values of children for mothers, but not for women without children. Only on the Egalitarian Husband Role scale was there a slight inverse relationship with ideas about familism.

The relationships for parental husbands were quite similar to those for parental wives (see Table 20). Traditional sex role attitudes were positively related to perceived values of children, and egalitarian attitudes were negatively related to perceived values of children.

For nonparental husbands, the relationship between traditionalism and the perceived values of children is strong. Also,

Table 19. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Women's Sex Role Attitudes and Perceived Values of Children

Sex Role Attitudes	Values of Children					
	Parent Wives (N=109)			Nonparent Wives (N=54)		
	Parental Imperatives	Fulfillment	Familism	Parental Imperative	Fulfillment	Familism
Traditionalism	.52***	.46***	.51***	.41***	.34**	.41***
						.36**
						.44***
Women's Work Roles	-0.35***	-0.41***	-0.36***	-0.36***	-0.06	-0.14
						-0.05
Egalitarian Husband Role	-0.42***	-0.38***	-0.31***	-0.38***	-0.21	-0.11
						-0.27*
						-0.21

*Significant at .05.
 **Significant at .01.
 ***Significant at .001.

Table 20. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Men's Sex Role Attitudes and Perceived Values of Children

Sex Role Attitudes	Values of Children					
	Parent Husbands (N=109)			Nonparent Husbands (N=54)		
	Parental Imperatives	Fulfill- Ment	Familism Duty	Parental Imperatives	Fulfill- Ment	Familism Duty
Traditionalism	.52***	.50***	.58***	.48***	.45***	.60***
					.59***	.41***
Women's Work Roles	-0.44***	-0.19*	-0.25**	-0.27**	-0.30**	-0.29*
					-0.47***	-0.28*
Egalitarian Husband Role	-0.27**	-0.20*	-0.17*	-0.16*	-0.19	-0.44***
					-0.45***	-0.25*

*Significant at .05.

**Significant at .01.

***Significant at .001.

relationships between egalitarian sex roles and perceived values were inverse, and these relationships reached significance. There was one exception, which was the relationship between the egalitarian husband role and parental imperatives.

Basically, then, respondents with traditional attitudes about sex roles were more likely to place a higher value on children than respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes. For both men and women, scores on the Parental Imperatives Scale were strongly related to traditional sex role attitudes. As noted by Blake (1974), parenthood is implicit in the traditional sex role definitions. In fact, motherhood may be viewed as the only approved role by many women. Although the number of women in the work force has increased steadily throughout this century (Frieze, 1978), motherhood still retains the prominent position in the expected and accepted female roles.

Another value of children related to traditional sex role attitudes reflects marital and personal fulfillments that are believed to be a part of parenthood. Parenthood was defined in this scale as one of the highest purposes of life and as an expected part of life. In some respects, the needs of the child were viewed as more important and crucial than the needs of the parents. In fact, husband and wife may become primarily father and mother, both to the child and in each other's eyes. According to a more traditional viewpoint, the importance of the parental roles may exceed that of husband and wife roles or work roles.

The higher value placed on children also reflected ideas about societal duty and responsibility toward the family unit. Scores on the Duty and Familism scales indicated the extent to which respondents viewed children as a bond between the parents, a way to complete the family unit, and a way to continue both family traditions and societal expectations. It is understandable that individuals with traditional sex role attitudes would also maintain the traditional emphasis on familism and societal duty.

The negative relationship between egalitarianism and values of children was complementary to the positive relationship between traditionalism and values of children. Respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes might have perceived more alternatives to parenthood than their more traditional counterparts. These respondents might place higher values on work roles and the husband-wife relationship than on values associated with children. Educational level and employment status might have been factors that differentiated egalitarian respondents from traditional respondents. These factors were related to future childbearing plans in Lozoff's (1972) study.

One rather intriguing finding emerged from these analyses. For nonparent wives, there were no significant relationships between egalitarianism and perceived values of children. Perhaps those women regard family life and work as compatible and see few problems in combining them.

Generally, respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes would not be predicted to be as pronatalist as those with traditional attitudes. These respondents might have perceived costs related to children which influenced their perceptions of the value of children.

Overall, the relationships between sex role attitudes and values of children fell into the predicted patterns. Higher scores on traditionalism were positively related to perceived values of children for the respondents in all four groups. In most cases, the size of the correlation coefficient indicated a moderately strong relationship. Scores on the two scales measuring egalitarian attitudes, the Women's Work Roles and the Egalitarian Husband Role Scales, were negatively related to perceived values of children for parental husbands and wives, and for nonparental husbands. However, for nonparental wives, significant relationships between egalitarianism and perceived values of children did not emerge.

In the null form, hypothesis four stated that there would be no relationships between sex role attitudes and perceived costs of children. The theoretical expectation was that respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes would be more likely to perceive costs of children than respondents with traditional sex role attitudes.

There was a significant inverse relationship between traditionalism and decision costs related to having children for parental wives (see Table 21). There was no significant relationship between traditionalism and marital and personal costs for parental wives, however.

Scores on the Women's Work Roles Scale for parental wives were positively related to the perception of both marital and personal costs and decision costs. The relationship was stronger for decision costs than for marital and personal costs. Scores on the Egalitarian Husband Role Scale were also positively related to decision costs, but there was no significant relationship for marital and personal costs.

Table 21. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Women's Sex Role Attitudes, Perceived Costs of Children, and Desired Family Size

Costs of Children and Desired Family Size						
	Parent Wives (N=109)			Nonparent Wives (N=54)		
Sex Role Attitudes	Marital & Personal Costs	Decision Costs	Desired Family Size	Marital & Personal Costs	Decision Costs	Desired Family Size
Traditionalism	-0.02	-0.33***	.27***	-0.41***	-0.31**	.46***
Women's Work Roles	.20**	.42***	-0.40***	.40***	.35**	-0.14
Egalitarian Husband Role	.06	.29***	-0.27**	.30**	.38**	-0.30*

*Significant at .05.
 **Significant at .01.
 ***Significant at .001.

For nonparent wives, scores on Traditionalism were negatively correlated to perceived costs of children. There were strong positive correlations between scores on the Women's Work Role and Egalitarian Husband Role scales and perceived costs of children. The strength and direction of these correlations suggests that nonparent wives who support more egalitarian sex roles are aware of the changes that the transition to parenthood can bring, both in the marriage relationship and in the wife's career.

For parental husbands, there was a significant inverse relationship between Traditionalism and decision costs related to having children, but no significant relationship for marital and personal costs (see Table 22). Scores on the Women's Work Role and Egalitarian Husband Role scales were positively related to the perceptions of both marital and personal costs and decision costs. Again, the relationship was stronger for decision costs than for marital and personal costs.

For nonparental husbands, scores on Traditionalism were inversely related to perceived costs of children. The only significant relationship between egalitarianism and perceived costs of children was between ideas about Women's Work Roles and decision costs involved in having children, which reflects an awareness of the possible changes in the family structure after the transition to parenthood.

In part, responses about costs of children may have been influenced by socially desirable responses. LeMasters (1970) stated that the myths surrounding parenthood are greater than those about marriage. The parenthood mystique has served to distort the realities

Table 22. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Men's Sex Role Attitudes, Perceived Costs of Children, and Desired Family Size

Sex Role Attitudes	Costs of Children and Desired Family Size					
	Parent Husbands (N=109)			Nonparent Husbands (N=54)		
	Marital & Personal Costs	Decision Costs	Desired Family Size	Marital & Personal Costs	Decision Costs	Desired Family Size
Traditionalism	-0.05	-0.30***	.33***	-0.32**	-0.35**	.39**
Women's Work Roles	.19*	.47***	-0.38***	.17	.38**	-0.14
Egalitarian Husband Role	.17*	.37***	-0.18*	.11	.18	-0.15

*Significant at .05.
 **Significant at .01.
 ***Significant at .001.

of parenthood. More recently, these realities have been expounded, both in the popular media and in scientific reports. Both the advantages and disadvantages of parenthood are discussed more realistically. Even so, parenthood is still viewed at least somewhat romantically. For some people, there may be few or no costs associated with parenthood.

Generally, respondents with traditional sex role attitudes were less likely to perceive costs of children than respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes. For these respondents, the value of children might have far outweighed any perceived or anticipated costs associated with children. An interesting finding for parents was that no significant relationship appeared between Traditionalism and marital and personal costs. The expected inverse relationship did not emerge.

For parents, the relationship between Traditionalism and decision costs is readily understandable. Those respondents who supported traditional sex role attitudes would not be very likely to perceive negative values associated with children. Decisions about having children or concern about the possible effects of children on the wife's career or husband-wife relationship probably would not be of as much concern as such decisions would be to egalitarian respondents.

The relationships between egalitarianism and costs were stronger than those between traditionalism and costs. These relationships were probably a function of actual experiences of the parents.

It seems apparent that egalitarian nonparent wives were more aware--and perhaps more wary--of the costs associated with having children than egalitarian nonparent husbands. These differences may reflect a possible future reality; that is, wives may be more likely to experience the costs related to becoming a parent than husbands. Wives are more likely than husbands to experience job-related costs. Also, wives usually assume the major responsibility for the care of the child.

For nonparents, scores on traditionalism were negatively correlated to perceived costs of children. Nonparents with high scores on Traditionalism were less likely to perceive marital and personal costs than parents were.

For the nonparent wives, there were strong positive correlations between scores on the Women's Work Role and the Egalitarian Husband Role Scales and perceived costs of children. The strength and direction of these correlations indicates that nonparent wives who support more egalitarian sex roles are aware of the changes that the transition to parenthood can bring, both in the marriage relationship and in the wife's career. For nonparent husbands, the only significant relationship between egalitarianism and perceived costs of children was between ideas about women's work roles and decision costs involved in having children, which also reflects an awareness of the possible changes in the family structure after the transition to parenthood.

The fourth hypothesis did receive some support from the findings of this study. Parental respondents with higher scores on the

Traditionalism Scale had lower scores on decision costs. Nonparental respondents with higher scores on traditionalism had lower scores on both marital and personal costs and decision costs. Parents with higher scores on egalitarianism were likely to have high scores on perceived costs of children, especially decision costs. For nonparents, the relationship between egalitarianism and perceived costs of children was much stronger for the female respondents. The only significant relationship between egalitarianism and perceived values of children for husbands emerged for the relationship between women's work roles and decision costs.

The fifth hypothesis in the null form stated that there would be no relationship between sex role attitudes and desired family size. It was expected that respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes would be more likely to have a smaller desired family size than respondents with traditional sex role attitudes. Table 21, on page 84, and Table 22, on page 86, contain the results of the Pearson product-moment correlations for female and male respondents, respectively.

For respondents in all four groups, higher scores on Traditionalism were positively related to desired family size. In other words, those with the most traditional sex role attitudes also wanted larger families. For the parents, higher scores on the Women's Work Roles Scale are negatively correlated to desired family size. Negative correlations between this scale and desired family size were also apparent for nonparents, but these correlations were not significant. On the

Egalitarian Husband Role Scale, higher scores were negatively correlated with desired family size for all groups, with the exception of nonparent husbands.

Blake (1969) noted that acceptance or rejection of the prevalent sex role stereotypes was a crucial factor in desired family size. Other studies (Fawcett, 1972; Hoffman and Wyatt, 1960; Pohlman, 1969) also indicated that sex role norms are related to desired family size, with traditional attitudes being positively related to larger family size.

The predicted relationship between egalitarianism and desired family size did not appear for nonparent males. Allgeier (1975) reported similar results. Farley's (1970) explanation of these reports is interesting. He noted that fathers usually don't have as much actual caretaking responsibility for children as mothers, thus family size does not have as great an impact on men as it does on women. Scanzoni (1976) also reported that women are more likely to desire smaller families than men. Generally, the findings about desired family size in this study were consistent with those from previous studies.

The fifth hypothesis did receive partial support. Respondents with higher scores on the Traditionalism Scale indicated that they wanted larger families; respondents with higher scores on egalitarianism wanted smaller families. However, the relationship between egalitarianism and desired family size was not as marked for nonparents as it was for parents.

To summarize, Pearson product-moment correlations were used to examine the relationships between sex role attitudes and perceived values of children, perceived costs of children, and desired family size. Findings were reported for four groups of respondents, namely, fathers, mothers, nonparent husbands, and nonparent wives.

In all four groups, respondents who had more traditional sex role attitudes were more likely to perceive positive values of children than respondents with more egalitarian sex role attitudes. For nonparents, the predicted relationships between egalitarianism and perceived values of children were not evident. Hypothesis three was supported by the data, then, with one notable exception.

For parents, sex role traditionalism was negatively correlated to perceived decision costs of children. For nonparents, scores on traditionalism were negatively correlated with scores on both marital and personal costs and decision costs. Both parent husbands and wives and nonparent wives who had higher scores on egalitarianism were more likely to have higher scores on perceived costs of children. For nonparent husbands, the predicted relationship between egalitarianism and perceived costs of children emerged only between scores on the Women's Work Roles Scale and decision costs related to having children. Hypothesis four received some support, but again there was one exception.

For all four groups of respondents, higher scores on traditionalism were positively related to desired family size. For parents, higher

scores on egalitarianism were negatively related to desired family size. The only significant relationship for nonparents on egalitarianism appeared between scores on the Egalitarian Husband Role Scale and desired family size. Again, there was partial support for hypothesis five, with one exception.

Most of the analyses supported the research hypotheses, but there were some interesting exceptions, indicating that the relationships between these variables depend somewhat on gender and parenthood status. Generally, then, the relationships between sex role attitudes, the perceived values of children, the perceived costs of children, and desired family size fell into the predicted patterns.

Multiple Regression Analyses

The independent variables used in the regression analyses can be conceptually grouped in two categories, attitudinal and sociodemographic. The sociodemographic variables included gender, parental status, age, education, income, father's occupation, father's education, mother's education, mother's employment history, and mother's attitudes about motherhood versus career. The attitudinal variables were the several Sex Role Attitude Scales, the Value of Children Scales, and the respondent's desired family size. The attitudinal scales and desired family size were used as both independent and dependent variables for the purpose of obtaining information about the relationships between them.

The independent variables were entered into each equation using a step-wise procedure. The number of variables that could enter any equation was limited to ten, an F ratio of .01 was selected, and a tolerance level of .001 was used. The tolerance level refers to the correlation of a variable with other variables already in the equation.

The results of the regression equations used to predict the six Sex Role Attitudes Scales and the nine Value of Children scales are presented in tabular form in this chapter. In each table, the independent variables that met the statistical criteria are reported with the regression coefficients, standardized regression coefficients, the F values, and R^2 . The regression coefficients indicated the influence of each independent variable on the dependent variable, with adjustments made for other independent variables. R^2 indicated the proportion of the variance explained by each variable, and it is reported in a cumulative fashion. Thus, the final R^2 in each table indicates the total variance that can be explained in the dependent variable as a function of all the independent variables cumulatively.

Attitudinal Variables

Although the hypotheses in this study have been tested by t -tests and Pearson product-moment correlation analyses, regression equations provide an additional means of testing them. Respondents with traditional sex role attitudes were expected to be more likely to perceive values of children than respondents with egalitarian sex

role attitudes. Four subscales were used to measure values of children--Parental Imperatives, Marital and Personal Fulfillment, Duty, and Familism. In the regression equations for each of these four Value of Children Scales, the Traditionalism Scale was a significant predictor variable (see Tables 23, 24, 25, and 26). These findings provide additional support for rejecting the null hypothesis of no relationship between sex role attitudes and the value of children.

Interestingly, scores on the Women's Work Roles Scale were also positively related to scores on the Duty and Familism Scales. Mason et al. (1976) found that there was support for women keeping their jobs and having children, as well as support for a basic division of labor by sex. Brogan and Kutner (1975) reported that both males and females in their sample were most traditional about familial roles, and supported change in extrafamilial roles. The fact that scores on both Traditionalism and Women's Work Roles were significant predictors of values of children lends additional support to the findings from the studies noted above.

The fourth null hypothesis stated that there would be no relationship between sex role attitudes and perceived costs of children. The actual expectation was that respondents with egalitarian attitudes would be more likely to perceive costs of children than respondents with traditional sex role attitudes. The two scales used to measure costs were Marital and Personal Costs and Decision Costs. The scales used to measure sex role attitudes were Traditionalism, Women's Work Roles, and Egalitarian Husband Role. In the regression

Table 23. Significant* Predictors of Parental Imperatives

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R2**
Traditionalism	.84	.34	24.89	.26
Power	.20	.22	12.70	.30
Desired Family Size	.29	.10	3.69	.32
Gender	-0.49	-0.08	2.53	.32

*All independent variables in this table were related to Parental Imperatives beyond the .01 level of significance.
 **R2 equals the amount of variance in Parental Imperatives explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 24. Significant* Predictors of Marital and Personal Fulfillment

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ^{2**}
Traditionalism	.29	.38	45.98	.23
Age	-0.52	-0.21	14.37	.28
Desired Family Size	1.17	.13	6.66	.30
Father's Role Scale	.35	.11	4.54	.32
Motherhood Scale	.42	.12	5.83	.33
Parental Status	-1.78	-0.09	3.30	.34

*All independent variabls in this table were related to Marital and Personal Fulfillment beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in Marital and Personal Fulfillment explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 25. Significant* Predictors of Duty

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ^{2**}
Traditionalism	.13	.33	20.59	.19
Income	-0.64	-0.21	18.75	.24
Desired Family Size	.96	.22	18.36	.28
Education	.62	.17	10.64	.31
Marital Power	.22	.16	6.77	.34
Motherhood Scale	.20	.11	5.26	.35
Father's Occupation	-0.29	-0.11	4.42	.35
Women's Work Roles	.39	.09	2.40	.35

*All independent variables in this table were related to Duty beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in Duty explained by the independent variables cumulatively;

all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 26. Significant* Predictors of Familism

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R2**
Traditionalism	.24	.44	42.51	.29
Desired Family Size	1.13	.18	12.26	.34
Parental Status	-2.63	-0.19	14.89	.37
Father's Role Scale	.13	.05	1.22	.38
Age	-0.20	-0.10	4.54	.39
Marital Power Scale	.31	.15	6.97	.40
Women's Work Roles	.72	.12	3.76	.40
Gender	1.29	.10	3.95	.41
Education	.44	.08	2.80	.42

*All independent variables in this table were related to Familism beyond the .01 level of significance.
 **R2 equals the amount of variance in Familism explained by the independent variables cumulatively;
 all other columns apply to single variables only.

equations for Marital and Personal Costs, Women's Work Roles was a significant predictor variable (see Table 27). In the regression equation for Decision Costs, both Women's Work Roles and Traditionalism were significant predictors, in the expected directions (see Table 28). The fourth hypothesis was supported by these regression results.

The fifth null hypothesis stated that there would be no relationship between desired family size and sex role attitudes. The actual expectation was that respondents with traditional sex role attitudes would have a larger desired family size than respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes. Looking at Table 29, it can be seen that scores on Traditionalism were positively related to desired family size, and scores on Women's Work Roles were negatively related to desired family size. Based on these findings, the null hypothesis of no relationship was rejected.

Socio-Demographic Variables

In most studies of sex role attitudes, findings about the influence of various socio-demographic variables on such attitudes are reported. Some variables, such as gender, religion, age and education are consistently linked with either traditional or egalitarian sex role attitudes. Findings about other variables, such as parents' education and occupation, are inconsistent. Studies on the value of children are relatively limited, and there is a lack of information on the influence of socio-demographic variables on these attitudes. The regression analyses that were

Table 27. Significant* Predictors of Marital and Personal Costs

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ^{2**}
Women's Work Roles	.12	.22	12.67	.06
Parental Status	1.21	.09	2.46	.09
Motherhood Scale	.42	.17	10.73	.13
Desired Family Size	-1.08	-0.19	10.06	.14
Income	-0.68	-0.17	8.59	.16
Education	.57	.11	3.87	.17
Marital Power Scale	.20	.10	2.93	.18

*All independent variables in this table were related to Marital and Personal Costs beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in Marital and Personal Costs explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 28. Significant* Predictors of Decision Costs

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ^{2**}
Women's Work Roles	.12	.33	21.79	.20
Desired Family Size	-0.54	-0.14	6.11	.21
Father's Education	.22	.08	2.88	.22
Income	-0.20	-0.07	2.13	.23
Father's Role Scale	.14	.09	2.94	.24
Motherhood Scale	.13	.08	2.63	.24
Traditionalism	-0.53	-0.16	4.05	.25

*All independent variables in this table were related to Decision Costs beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in Decision Costs explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 29. Significant* Predictors of Desired Family Size

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ² **
Traditionalism	.19	.21	10.23	.13
Age	-0.66	-0.21	11.84	.18
Parental Status	-0.37	-0.16	9.33	.20
Father's Role Scale	.63	.16	8.37	.22
Women's Work Roles	-0.18	-0.19	7.37	.24
Family Income	-0.64	-0.09	2.33	.25
Father's Occupation	-0.70	-0.11	3.79	.25
Mother's Education	-0.86	.10	3.46	.25

*All independent variables in this table were related to Desired Family Size beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in Desired Family Size explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

performed as part of this study provided information about the influence of socio-demographic variables on sex role attitudes, attitudes about the value of children, and desired family size.

The age of the respondent was a significant predictor of several dependent variables. Age was positively related to scores on the Father's Role Scale and the Motherhood Scale, indicating that older respondents were more likely than younger respondents to support the ideas that involvement of both parents with children is important for the emotional growth of the child (see Tables 30 and 31). Respondent's age was negatively related to desired family size, indicating that older respondents wanted smaller families than younger respondents. This may seem surprising, but it must be remembered that the sample consisted of relatively young couples having their first child; respondents who were older and just having their first child desired smaller families. Older respondents were also more likely to have lower scores on the Marital and Personal Fulfillment Scale than younger respondents. Additionally, older respondents had lower scores on the Familism Scale and the Responsibility Scale (see Table 32).

Gender was a significant predictor variable in several of the regression equations. Females had higher scores than males on four scales, Women's Work Roles (Table 33), Adult Status (Table 34), Familism, and Father's Role. Males had higher scores on Parental Imperatives and Marital Power (Table 35). These findings are similar to other studies, indicating that females are more likely than males to favor egalitarian sex role attitudes (Brogan and

Table 30. Significant Predictors* of Father's Role

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ² **
Gender	1.46	.27	22.53	.06
Decision Costs	.12	.17	9.48	.09
Education	.25	.11	3.58	.11
Parental Status	-0.56	-0.09	2.82	.13
Father's Occupation	.21	.13	5.52	.14
Community Regard	.13	.12	4.33	.15
Age	.10	.13	4.30	.16
Desired Family Size	-0.42	-0.07	5.25	.17

*All independent variables in this table were related to the Father's Role Scale beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in the Father's Role Scale explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 31. Significant* Predictors of Motherhood

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ^{2**}
Duty	.10	.18	5.52	.05
Marital and Personal Costs	.65	.15	6.88	.07
Marital and Personal Fulfillment	.74	.25	8.99	.09
Mother's Education	-0.27	-0.13	3.87	.10
Age	.93	.12	4.47	.11
Familism	-0.57	-0.14	2.83	.12

*All independent variables in this table were related to the Motherhood Scale beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in the Motherhood Scale explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 32. Significant* Predictors of Responsibility

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ² **
Marital Power Scale	.14	.20	8.96	.12
Traditionalism	.41	.22	9.62	.15
Father's Role Scale	.12	.14	6.82	.17
Education	.25	.14	5.63	.18
Age	-0.11	-0.18	9.72	.20
Mother's Motherhood vs. Career Attitudes	-0.32	-0.09	3.29	.21

*All independent variables in this table were related to Responsibility beyond the .01 level of significance.
**R² equals the amount of variance in Responsibility explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 33. Significant* Predictors of Women's Work Roles

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ² **
Decision Costs	.90	.33	35.16	.20
Parental Imperatives	-0.55	-0.15	7.39	.26
Responsibility	-0.70	-0.14	7.38	.29
Education	1.39	.15	9.65	.31
Mother's Motherhood vs. Career Attitudes	2.07	.12	6.64	.32
Desired Family Size	-1.33	-0.13	5.80	.34
Gender	2.22	.10	4.15	.35

*All independent variables in this table were related to Women's Work Roles beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in Women's Work Roles explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 34. Significant* Predictors of Adult Status

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ²
Traditionalism	.20	.11	2.40	.12
Marital Power	.14	.22	10.23	.14
Desired Family Size	.26	.13	4.59	.16
Gender	.42	.10	3.44	.17
Motherhood Scale	.72	.08	2.45	.17

*All independent variables in this table were related to Adult Status beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in Adult Status explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 35. Significant* Predictors of Marital Power

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ² **
Parental Imperatives	.30	.27	20.77	.22
Responsibility	.24	.17	10.18	.26
Adult Status	.25	.16	8.69	.29
Education	-0.42	-0.16	10.47	.31
Gender	-1.05	-0.16	10.55	.33
Father's Education	.86	.17	5.70	.35
Marital and Personal Fulfillment	-0.47	-0.13	3.08	.36

*All independent variables in this table were related to the Marital Power Scale beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in the Marital Power Scale explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Kutner, 1976; Osmond and Martin, 1975; Yorborg and Arafat, 1975).

The higher scores for males on Marital Power indicates greater support of the traditional division of labor in the home, with the male assuming greater authority than the female. Females were more likely to support women's work roles and a more egalitarian father role. However, females did not totally support egalitarian attitudes. They had higher scores on two Value of Children Scales, the one meaning that a girl becomes a woman only after she has a child, and the scale that indicated support for the institution of the family (Adult Status and Familism, respectively). Egalitarianism, then, is shown for the extrafamilial roles of women, but not for the familial roles.

Another significant predictor variable was parental status. Parents were more likely to have higher scores on Marital and Personal Costs and on Community Regard (see Table 36) than nonparents. These scores are probably based on the actual experiences of the parents. Nonparents had lower scores on the Father's Role Scale, Marital and Personal Fulfillment Scale, and Familism Scale. Again, experience would undoubtedly have an impact on parent and nonparent scores on these scales. Nonparents also reported a smaller desired family size than parents.

Education and income were also significant predictors of several dependent variables. Higher education was generally positively related to egalitarian attitudes about sex roles. The opposite relationship was found for income, that is, the higher the income, the more traditional sex role attitudes were (see Table 37). Respondents with

Table 36. Significant* Predictors of Community Regard

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ^{2**}
Education	.38	.19	10.30	.05
Income	-0.20	-0.12	4.47	.08
Marital Power	.12	.16	7.97	.11
Motherhood Scale	.15	.15	7.70	.12
Mother's Education	.38	.19	10.02	.14
Father's Role Scale	.13	.15	7.25	.16
Mother's Employment History	-0.15	-0.08	2.43	.17
Parental Status	.53	.10	2.97	.18

*All independent variables in this table were related to Community Regard beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in Community Regard explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

Table 37. Significant* Predictors of Traditionalism

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ^{2**}
Familism	.37	.21	10.82	.29
Parental Imperatives	.82	.20	13.91	.36
Decision Costs	-0.54	-0.18	16.14	.40
Education	-2.19	-0.22	25.73	.43
Responsibility	.73	.14	8.21	.45
Income	1.21	.16	12.36	.47
Desired Family Size	1.13	.10	4.23	.47

*All independent variables in this table were related to Traditionalism beyond the .01 level of significance.

**R² equals the amount of variance in Traditionalism explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

higher education were more likely to support women's work roles, an egalitarian husband role, and an egalitarian father role. The most educated respondents were also more likely to perceive marital and personal costs than respondents with less education. Education was positively related to the Familism, Responsibility, Duty, and Community Regard Value of Children Scales. Thus, more educated respondents tended to have greater feelings of responsibility to society and to the continuation of the family as an institution than respondents with lower levels of education. Respondents with higher income levels were more likely to perceive marital and personal costs and decision costs than respondents with lower income levels. Higher income was also inversely related to desired family size, community regard, duty, and the egalitarian husband role.

Since an individual's parents are expected to have an influence on sex role attitudes and attitudes about the value of children, parental background information was also obtained. Father's occupation was positively related to scores on the Father's Role Scale, and negatively related to desired family size and scores on the Duty Scale. These results indicated that the higher the level of the father's occupation, the more likely the respondent was to have egalitarian attitudes about the role of the father in rearing children. Also, the higher the father's occupational level, the less likely the respondent was to feel that he/she had a duty to society to have a family. The higher the father's education, the more likely the respondent was to perceive decision costs related to having children, and the less likely the respondent was to support the ideas

expressed in the Marital Power Scale, namely that the father should have more authority in the family than the mother.

Mother's education was positively related to Community Regard, and negatively related to scores on the Motherhood Scale and to desired family size. Mother's employment was negatively related to Community Regard. One of the variables used was related to the respondent's perceptions of his/her mother's attitudes about the importance of motherhood in comparison to the importance of a career. Motherhood could be rated as more important than a career, the two variables could be viewed as equally important, or a career could be rated as more important than motherhood. A higher score indicated agreement with the greater importance of a career. The mother's attitudes about the importance of a career were positively related to egalitarian sex role ideas (see Table 38), and negatively related to scores on the Responsibility Scale. For this sample, however, the mother's education and employment history were not related to sex role attitudes. Other studies (Brogan and Kutner, 1976; Dempewolff, 1974; Mason and Bumpass, 1975; Meier, 1972) have reported positive relationships between mother's education and offspring's egalitarian sex role attitudes. However, in this sample, the mother's education did not seem to be as important as some other factors, such as the respondent's education, perceived decision costs related to having children, and attitudes about the value of children. One variable was significantly related to egalitarian sex role attitudes, the mother's attitudes about motherhood versus a career. Mothers who perceived both motherhood and a career to be important appeared

Table 38. Significant* Predictors of Egalitarian Husband Role

Independent Variables	B	Betas	F	R ^{2**}
Parental Imperatives	-0.34	-0.16	6.36	.11
Decision Costs	.36	.25	20.30	.18
Education	.91	.18	11.24	.19
Responsibility	-0.23	-0.08	2.19	.21
Income	-0.46	-0.12	4.63	.21
Mother's Motherhood Vs. Career Attitudes	.87	.10	3.29	.22
Duty	-0.15	-0.11	2.79	.23

*All independent variables in this table were related to Egalitarian Husband Role beyond the .01 level of significance.
 **R² equals the amount of variance in Egalitarian Husband Role explained by the independent variables cumulatively; all other columns apply to single variables only.

to have conveyed these attitudes to their children, who were then more likely to support egalitarian sex role attitudes than respondents whose mothers felt that motherhood was more important than a career.

Sociodemographic variables do have an influence on sex role attitudes, the value of children, and desired family size. The respondent's age, gender, parental status, education, and income were more likely to be significant predictors than variables such as the father's and mother's education and occupation. However, the mother's attitudes about careers and motherhood did have an influence on sex role attitudes.

To summarize, the multiple regression analyses provided additional support for the research hypotheses being tested in this study. Respondents with more traditional attitudes about sex roles were more likely to perceive values of children than respondents with more egalitarian sex role attitudes. Those respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes were more likely to perceive costs of children than respondents with traditional sex role attitudes. The more traditional respondents were more likely to desire larger families than the more egalitarian respondents. Certain sociodemographic characteristics of the respondent, such as age, gender, parental status, and educational and income levels, were related to sex role attitudes and attitudes about the value of children to parents, as well as to desired family size.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary of Results

Three major variables of interest in this study were sex role attitudes, values of children, and desired family size. Factor analyses were performed to obtain scales for the purpose of measuring sex role attitudes and attitudes about the value of children. The resulting scales were used in t-tests, Pearson product-moment correlations, and multiple regression analyses for hypothesis testing.

In most studies of sex role attitudes, the gender of the respondent is used as a predictor variable. Gender differences in sex role attitudes are fairly well established, with females consistently showing more egalitarian attitudes than males. In this study, females also had more egalitarian attitudes than males. However, both males and females had very similar scores on the Traditionalism Scale, which reflected traditional familial roles. In examining sex role attitudes, then, it is important to delineate particular aspects of these attitudes. In reference to familial roles, there was a tendency toward traditionalism for both sexes. For extrafamilial roles, egalitarian ideas were found, more so among women than men.

One of the major contributions of this study was the comparison of parents' and nonparents' sex role attitudes. It was found that parents had significantly higher scores on traditional sex roles than

nonparents. Nonparents had higher scores on egalitarianism than parents. Although longitudinal data on sex role attitudes were not collected in this study, one interpretation is that changes may occur in sex role attitudes following the transition to parenthood.

Relationships between sex role attitudes and the perceived values and costs of children were examined. It was predicted that respondents with traditional sex role attitudes would be more likely to have higher values of children than respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes. Scores on Women's Work Role and Egalitarian Husband Role were also significant predictors of the value of children for parental wives and husbands, and nonparent husbands, with an inverse relationship indicating that more egalitarian respondents had lower scores on the value of children scales. For parental wives, there was no relationship between egalitarian attitudes and perceived values of children.

It was predicted that respondents with egalitarian attitudes would be more likely to perceive costs of children than respondents with traditional attitudes. Scores on Egalitarian Husband Role were positively related to decision costs for parental wives and husbands. This prediction was also supported by scores on the Traditionalism Scale, which were negatively related to decision costs for the four groups of respondents. There were no significant relationships between Traditionalism and marital and personal costs for the two parent groups. Scores on the Women's Work Roles Scale were positively related to marital and personal costs and decision costs for fathers

and mothers. For nonparents, scores on Traditionalism were negatively related to marital and personal costs.

Sex role attitudes did influence the respondent's perceived values and costs of children. Generally, the more traditional respondents placed a higher value on children and perceived fewer costs than egalitarian respondents. The relationships between sex role attitudes and perceived costs of children were more complex than the relationships between sex role attitudes and perceived values of children. This complexity is partially due to differences found between male and female respondents. Nonparent wives were more likely than nonparent husbands to perceive costs of children, probably because the transition to parenthood would necessitate more changes in their lives than in their husband's life. Another aspect of the complexity of the relationship centers on marital and personal costs. For more traditional parents, there was no relationship between sex role attitudes and marital and personal costs. More egalitarian parents did perceive marital and personal costs, although the correlation coefficients indicated that this relationship was weak. It would appear that both traditional and egalitarian parents experienced marital and personal costs, but these costs were not as significant as decision costs.

Sex role attitudes also had an influence on desired family size, with more traditional respondents indicating a larger desired family size than egalitarian respondents. There was no significant relationship between egalitarianism and desired family size for nonparent

husbands, but an inverse relationship appeared for nonparent wives. These differences between nonparent husbands and wives may reflect the fact that the wife's lifestyle would probably be changed more as a result of the size of the family than the husband's lifestyle would be.

Overall, traditional sex role attitudes were significant predictors of Parental Imperatives, Marital and Personal Fulfillment, Duty, and Familism. Egalitarian sex role attitudes were significant predictors of Marital and Personal Costs and of Decision Costs. Sex role attitudes were also significantly related to desired family size, with more traditional respondents reporting a larger desired family size than egalitarian respondents.

Sociodemographic variables were significantly related to sex role attitudes, the value of children, and desired family size. The respondent's age, gender, parental status, education, and income were more likely to be significant predictors than variables such as the father's and mother's education and occupation. However, the mother's attitudes about careers and motherhood did have an influence on sex role attitudes.

Conclusions

Changing attitudes regarding sex roles are a barometer of other societal changes. In recent years, much attention has been focused on the roles of men and women in our society. Emerging definitions of sex roles place less emphasis on rigidly prescribed expectations, and more emphasis on flexibility and adaptability. Some

evidence of variations from traditional sex roles are the increased participation of women in the work force, increased sharing of household responsibilities by husbands and wives, and increased sharing of child care responsibilities. An important aspect of sex role change relates to decisions about desired family size and wife-mother employment. Although relatively little research has been done on the value of children to parents, such values would seem to have a major impact on both sex role attitudes and desired family size.

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among sex role attitudes, the value of children, and desired family size. The results indicate that there are significant relationships among these variables, and that these relationships are influenced by other variables. In a sense, the value of children and desired family size are components of sex role attitudes. As sex role attitudes change, changes in these components would also be expected. However, causal relationships cannot be established on the basis of the present research. The interrelationships among these three variables are complex, and change in any one would have some impact on the others. If a causal relationship were being tested, it would seem most likely that an individual's sex role attitudes would influence that person's perceived values and costs of children and desired family size.

This research provided descriptive information about sex role attitudes and the value of children, as well as information about the relationships between these variables. Several dimensions of sex role attitudes and the value of children were identified. The dimensions of sex role attitudes can be dichotomized into egalitarian

and traditional ideas about the work and familial roles of both men and women. The traditional ideas reflected the belief that men should be the providers for the family and women should be the caretakers of the family. Egalitarian ideas were also apparent, which basically reflected beliefs about sharing of roles and the importance of being able to make choices about those roles. Although this study did not provide longitudinal data about sex role attitudes and trends cannot be identified, the findings did indicate that egalitarian ideas are an important part of the fabric of sex role attitudes.

The value of children dimensions can also be viewed in a dichotomized fashion, since benefits and costs were identified. Children serve several positive functions for parents--they provide love and companionship, strengthen the marriage bond, add fulfillment to the individual parent and to the marriage, fill familistic values, and enable parents to fulfill their societal responsibility. Children can also have some negative effects on parents--they can add strain to the individual and to the marriage, cause financial hardships, or prevent the parent from pursuing other interests. For many parents, both the benefits and costs are a reality.

In the present study, gender was a key variable in predicting sex role attitudes and desired family size. Women were more likely to have egalitarian sex role attitudes than men, and more likely to desire smaller families. Parental status was also a key variable in predicting sex role attitudes, with nonparents being more egalitarian than parents.

Gender, parental status, and sex role attitudes were related to perceived values and costs of children. Respondents with traditional sex role attitudes were more likely to place a higher value on children and perceive fewer costs of children than respondents with egalitarian sex role attitudes.

Limitations

The following limitations of this study should be kept in mind when interpreting the findings:

1. The sampling technique was non-random. The data were collected in a southeastern city and the respondents were white and mostly middle-class. Because of the nature of the sample the findings are generalizable to an unknown extent.

2. Information about sex role attitudes and about the value of children were obtained for one time period. Factors such as age and stage in both individual and family life cycles would have an influence on these attitudes.

Implications

Research on sex role attitudes in the past has largely been limited to a single population--young unmarried college students. The resulting information has limited application to more heterogeneous populations. Such factors as marital status, parental status, age, and work force participation can have a substantial impact on sex role attitudes.

Knowledge about sex role attitudes tends to be couched in generalities, which discourages a finer discrimination of the various influences that may impinge on sex role attitudes. Additionally, these generalities prevent a more thorough understanding of the complex nature of sex roles in our society.

Attitudes about the value of children and desired family size are important in terms of knowledge about family structure, decision making, and social policy. There are few studies of the value of children because this has only recently become an area of serious scholarship.

This research has added pertinent information to the literature about relationships between sex role attitudes, attitudes about perceived values and costs of children, and desired family size. The use of respondents who were older, married, and in the work force provided a more diverse sample than the typical college student sample. A major contribution of this study was the comparison of parents and nonparents in attitudes about sex roles and the value of children.

Theoretical and Research Implications

Two major conclusions from this study have implications for further research and theory development. The first conclusion was that parental status has an important influence on sex role attitudes. The next logical step would be to assess sex role attitudes before and after the transition to parenthood. Few studies have examined changes in sex role attitudes or behaviors following the transition

to parenthood. This transition marks a major change in the lives of individuals and couples. Roles and relationships must be redefined and reorganized. Patterns of behavior that were satisfactory may not suffice any longer. It is generally thought that women undergo more changes than men after the transition to parenthood, because they usually assume the major responsibility for the care of the child, perhaps leaving a job or career to become a full-time mother. The transition to parenthood affects both personal and marital qualities. A crucial aspect of these effects may center around the mother's self-concept, feelings of isolation, responsibility, or resentment. A typical pattern for young married women is to work after marriage until the birth of the first child. In such situations, the new mother is faced with several major changes simultaneously. It is important to examine the effects of these changes on the husband and wife, their marital relationship, and their relationship with their child.

The second conclusion is that there is a relationship between sex role attitudes and the value of children. There is a need for a more in-depth analysis of the process of decision-making about role choices as these choices relate to having children or pursuing a career. It was found that sex role attitudes were related to perceived values and costs of children. Certain relationships were identified in this study, but some of the inter-relationships of these variables remain unclear. There is a need for a continued and thorough examination of both sex role attitudes and attitudes about the value of children. There is also a need to identify more

clearly the differences in attitudes as a function of such variables as parental status, employment, and stage in the individual and family life cycle. Additionally, there is a need for information on actual behavior in comparison to sex role attitudes.

A further area for study in sex role attitudes is the relationship of these attitudes to the concepts of privacy and territoriality within the household. An individual's sex role attitudes could have an impact on that individual's perceptions and usage of physical space. Also, it would be interesting to compare parents and nonparents on privacy and territoriality, and to identify any factors that were related to differences between parents and nonparents, as well as differences based on gender and on sex role attitudes.

Practical Implications

Sex roles have a tangible impact on the daily lives of individuals. This study indicated that individuals with more egalitarian sex role attitudes are more likely to perceive both decision costs and marital and personal costs related to having children. In the past, having children was an expected part of marriage. More recently, couples are making a conscious decision whether or not to have children, how many to have, and when to have them. The number of dual-career couples is increasing, which also has an impact on family size and timing of children.

Decision-making counseling is being offered on a limited scale to those couples who are trying to balance marriage, careers, and a family. Such counseling can be very beneficial. Information about actual parental experiences in terms of the costs and benefits of

parenthood can help individuals understand the possible impacts of parenthood on the individual, the marriage relationship, and the work role. Additional research on the factors that were important in making decisions about having children, or in going through the processes involved in role-sharing or role-making between husband and wife could be helpful both for theory and research as well as in a more practical sense--that is, making such information available to individuals who are trying to make important decisions in their lives.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

BACKGROUND ITEMS

Some of the questions below are the same and some are different from what we've asked you before. It may seem funny to be asked the same questions again, but it is very important that you answer all of them. It's impossible to find out how things have changed without asking similar questions over a period of time. So please, respond to every item.

1. How long were you and your spouse engaged?

☐ number of months
☐ were not engaged

2. What is your current employment status?

☐ unemployed, or full-time homemaker
☐ employed part-time
☐ employed full-time

3. Check how you feel about the adequacy of your family income now?

☐ very inadequate
☐ somewhat inadequate
☐ enough but just barely
☐ fairly adequate
☐ more than adequate

4. Which category best fits your father's occupational history?

☐ farmer
☐ homemaker, or not employed outside the home
☐ semi-skilled or unskilled workman
☐ skilled workman or foreman
☐ clerical or sales position
☐ proprietor, manager, owner of business
☐ professional, semi-professional, or technical

5. What was your father's level of education?

☐ some high school or less
☐ completed high school
☐ some college (1-3) years
☐ college graduate
☐ some graduate study
☐ graduate degree

6. What was your father's work-vs-family orientation as you were growing up?

- ☐ mostly work-oriented
- ☐ work and family equally
- ☐ mostly family-oriented

7. How satisfied do you think your father is (was) with his job or line of work?

- ☐ very dissatisfied; wanted different career
- ☐ very dissatisfied; wanted to spend more time with family
- ☐ somewhat dissatisfied
- ☐ somewhat satisfied
- ☐ very satisfied

8. What did your father do around the house while you were growing up?

- ☐ only repairs and odd jobs; anything else was "woman's work"
- ☐ helped out occasionally
- ☐ shared equally in household tasks
- ☐ did most or all of household tasks

9. As you were growing up, how much did your father participate in child care?

- ☐ did not participate in child care
- ☐ participated occasionally in child care
- ☐ participated considerably in child care

10. What was your mother's level of education?

- ☐ some high school or less
- ☐ completed high school
- ☐ some college (1-3 years)
- ☐ college graduate
- ☐ some graduate study
- ☐ graduate degree

11. What was the extent of your mother's employment outside the home as you were growing up?

- ☐ none or very little
- ☐ some part-time
- ☐ some full-time
- ☐ continuous part-time
- ☐ continuous full-time

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

- ☐ not employed outside the home
- ☐ semi-skilled or unskilled worker

- ☐ skilled worker
- ☐ clerical, sales, service
- ☐ semi-professional (teacher, nurse, technician)
- ☐ proprietor, manager, owner of own business
- ☐ professionals (doctor, lawyer, professor)

13. If your mother did work, as far as you know what was the major reason that she worked?

- ☐ she simply wanted work
- ☐ your father wanted her to work
- ☐ to supplement the family income
- ☐ necessary for family economic survival
- ☐ other (please specify)

14. What was your mother's attitude toward domestic activities as you were growing up?

- ☐ disliked housework and avoided it
- ☐ considered housework a necessary responsibility
- ☐ considered housework satisfying

15. What was your mother's attitude toward child care as you were growing up?

- ☐ disliked child care and avoided it
- ☐ considered child care a necessary responsibility
- ☐ considered child care satisfying
- ☐ considered child care very rewarding and felt that it was one of her most important responsibilities

16. Which of the following best describes your mother's attitudes as you were growing up?

- ☐ considered motherhood to be her most rewarding job
- ☐ considered motherhood to be rewarding, but other activities were also important to her
- ☐ considered motherhood and her career to be equally rewarding
- ☐ considered her career to be her most rewarding activity

17. How satisfied do you think your mother is (was) with her line of work?

- ☐ very satisfied
- ☐ somewhat satisfied
- ☐ somewhat dissatisfied
- ☐ very dissatisfied; wanted to spend more time with family
- ☐ very dissatisfied; wanted greater or different career involvement

18. Thinking back to your childhood and up through your high school years, which of your parents seems to have been most influential, on the whole, in shaping your attitudes and your general outlook on life? Decide between your mother and father, even if the difference was slight.

☐ mother
☐ father

19. Do you think that your mother would now approve of a woman with children working outside her home if working were a source of fulfillment to the woman?

☐ yes
☐ no

20. Do you think that your father would approve of a woman with children working outside her home if working were a source of fulfillment to the woman?

☐ yes
☐ no

21. 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. Rank only your first two choices below.

☐ your career or occupation
☐ family relationships
☐ friendships
☐ running a home
☐ leisure-time recreational activities
☐ religious beliefs or activities
☐ participation in community or political activities
☐ other (please specify: _____)

22. Which do you think gives your spouse the most satisfaction? And which do you think gives your spouse the next greatest satisfaction? Indicate as you did the previous item, ranking only 2 of the items.

☐ career or occupation
☐ family relationships
☐ friendships
☐ running a home
☐ leisure-time recreational activities
☐ religious beliefs or activities
☐ participation in community or political activities
☐ other (please specify: _____)

23. What religion were you brought up in, and what is your current religious affiliation? Check once in each column.

Religion Brought up In	Current Religious Affiliation	
_____	_____	Protestant (specify denomination)
_____	_____	Catholic
_____	_____	Jewish
_____	_____	Other (specify)
_____	_____	None

24. How often do you attend church?

☐ I don't attend
☐ several times a year
☐ once or twice a month
☐ regularly--every Sunday possible
☐ regularly, plus involved in church activities

25. Who should be the primary caretaker of a child?

☐ mother
☐ mother mainly, with father occasionally helping
☐ both parents equally
☐ father mainly, with mother occasionally helping
☐ father

WIVES ONLY ANSWER THE FOLLOWING FOUR QUESTIONS. HUSBANDS SKIP TO QUESTION 30.

26. What is your husband's attitude toward your pursuing a career in which there is a long-term commitment on your part?

☐ against
☐ neutral or mixed
☐ in favor

27. What is your husband's attitude toward your remaining at home all the time?

☐ against
☐ neutral or mixed
☐ in favor

28. How important is it to you to have a paid job outside the home?

☐ not important at all
☐ somewhat important
☐ very important

29. If you stopped working in order to stay at home and care for your child, which of the following statements best describes your feelings about going back to work?

☐ My career was enjoyable, and because of this I plan to return to work.
☐ My career was not especially enjoyable, but for economic reasons I plan to return to work.
☐ I plan to return to work both for economic reasons and because I enjoyed my career.
☐ I do not plan to return to work.
☐ Not applicable.

HUSBANDS ONLY ANSWER THE FOLLOWING TWO QUESTIONS.

30. What is your attitude toward your wife's pursuing a career in which there is a long-term occupational commitment on her part?

☐ against
☐ neutral or mixed
☐ in favor

31. What is your attitude toward your wife's remaining at home all the time?

☐ against
☐ neutral or mixed
☐ in favor

APPENDIX B

PARENTAL VALUES

For each of the following statements about children first decide if you agree or disagree. Then, check whether you hold that opinion strongly, moderately, or slightly. There are no "right" or correct answers. Simply mark the answer that comes closest to your general feeling about each statement.

(The following coding scheme was used for the answers given by the respondents: Strongly disagree--1, moderately disagree--2, slightly disagree--3; slightly agree--4, moderately agree--5, strongly agree--6.)

1. I think that caring for children is a tedious job.
2. A good reason for having children is that they could help me when I am too old to work.
3. I think that raising children is an act of virtue.
4. Only with a child do I feel completely free to express my love and affection.
5. I think that we would be happier if we did not have any children.
6. Having children will give me a special incentive to succeed in life.
7. It is important to have children so that our family traditions will live on.
8. It is only natural that a man should want to be a father.
9. A couple ought to think seriously about the inconvenience caused by children before they have any.
10. Always having children around is a great mental strain.
11. Considering the pressures from family and friends, I really don't have much choice about whether or not to have children.
12. It is my duty to society to have children.
13. All the efforts I make for my children will be worthwhile in the long run.
14. Having children makes a stronger bond between husband and wife.

15. One of the highest purposes of my life is to have children.
16. I think that a girl becomes a woman only after she is a mother.
17. It is the parents' fault if their children are not successful in life.
18. Having children is the most important function of our marriage.
19. Children will limit me in what I want to do and where I want to go.
20. Life for me would be pretty dull without children.
21. We will be better accepted in the community after we have children.
22. After becoming a parent, I am less likely to behave immorally.
23. The first thing we should think about when deciding to have children is whether or not we can afford it.
24. For me, it is inevitable to have children.
25. One of the best things about having children is the true loyalty they will show to me.
26. Having children will probably cause many disagreements and problems between us.
27. After we have children we will be more looked up to in the community than those without children.
28. It is only natural that a woman should want to be a mother.
29. Just the feeling of being needed will be enough to make having children worthwhile for me.
30. If I can be a good parent I can feel completely satisfied with my achievements in life.
31. I think that the family with children is the basis for all that is good in our society.
32. Before having a child, we should consider whether we would rather use our money for something else.
33. One of the best things about being a parent is the chance to teach children what they should do and what they should not do.
34. I think men have a duty to have children to continue their family name.

35. I feel that part of me will live on after death through my children.
36. One of the best things about having children is that I will never be lonely.
37. Raising children will be a heavy financial burden for us.
38. It isn't right for us to interfere with nature by deciding to limit the number of children we will have.
39. When we have children, we give up a lot of other things that we enjoy.
40. Some really important things in life can be learned only from the experience of raising children.
41. Before having a child, we should consider whether it would interfere with the wife's work or not.
42. Having children is a sign of blessing on a marriage.
43. I think that those who have no children can never really be happy.

APPENDIX C

SEX ROLE ATTITUDES

For each of the following statements about the roles of men and women, first decide if you agree or disagree. Then, check whether you hold that opinion strongly, moderately, or slightly. There are no "right" or correct answers. Simply mark the answer which comes closest to your general feeling about each statement.

(The following scheme was used for the answers given by the respondents: strongly disagree--1, moderately disagree--2, slightly disagree--3, slightly agree--4, moderately agree--5, strongly agree--6.)

1. In marriage, the wife and husband should share making major decisions.
2. A married man's chief responsibility should be equally divided between his job and his family.
3. A married woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her husband and children.
4. The husband should take primary responsibility for major family decisions, such as the purchase of a home or car.
5. Marriage is a partnership in which the wife and husband should share the economic responsibility of supporting the family.
6. A working woman may want to postpone having children in order to increase her opportunities in life.
7. Responsibility for the discipline of children should be equally divided between husband and wife.
8. Unless it is an economic necessity, married women who have pre-school age children should not work outside the home.
9. A married man's primary responsibility should be his job, since it provides the economic support for the family.
10. It is possible for women to satisfy their needs for achievement through their husbands.
11. A parent gets equal satisfaction when a daughter gets ahead in her occupation as when a son gets ahead in his occupation.

12. Having a job herself should be just as important to a woman as encouraging her husband in his job.
13. A man and his wife ought to have the same opportunities for part-time employment while the children are small.
14. A married man should accept that his wife's career may interfere with his career.
15. The role of being a father is not as important as the role of being a mother.
16. Even though a wife works outside the home, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should have the responsibility for running the household.
17. A working mother can establish just as warm and secure relationships with her children as a mother who does not work.
18. Men are just as able as women to provide the parenting behaviors that children need.
19. A married man should be willing to have a smaller family, so that his wife can work if she wants to.
20. A man who helps around the kitchen is helping his wife with her responsibilities.
21. A man's family should not have to adjust to the demands of his job.
22. A wife should be able to take a job which requires her to be away from home overnight while her husband takes care of the children.
23. Men should take the same amount of responsibility as women in caring for home and children.
24. The relative amounts of time and energy to be devoted to household duties and to a career should be determined by personal interests rather than sex.
25. Although a child needs emotional support from both parents, it is the responsibility of the mother to provide most of the emotional support to the child.
26. Except in special cases, the wife should do the cooking and house-cleaning, and the husband should provide the family with money.

27. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in bringing up of children.
28. One of the most important things that parents can do for a daughter is to prepare her for a working life outside the home.
29. The husband should be the head of the family.
30. As a matter of principle, a man and a woman who share a home should share equally in housework.
31. If the wife makes more money than her husband, it should not upset the balance of power in their relationship.
32. There should be more day-care centers and nursery schools so that more young mothers could work.
33. One of the most important things that parents can do for a son is to prepare him for family life.
34. Rearing children is more of a mother's job than a father's.
35. If a man is working to support the family, his wife has no right to expect him to work when he is home.
36. Parents should equally encourage both daughters and sons to be independent.
37. If a woman works, she should try to get ahead the same way a man should.
38. If his wife works, the husband should share equally in the responsibilities of child care.
39. If a child gets sick and both parents work, the husband should be just as willing to stay home and take care of the child as the wife.
40. Most males don't think about their eventual role as a father until their first child is born.
41. Children's lives are enhanced when their mothers have interests outside the home and family, including jobs.
42. A mother of young children should work if it makes her personally happy.
43. It is not a good idea for a husband to stay home and care for the children while his wife is employed full-time outside the home.

44. A married woman's greatest satisfaction comes through a combination of family life and work outside the home.
45. Being a mother is a special calling from God.
46. A wife should not have equal authority with her husband in making decisions.
47. The father and mother should participate equally in recreational and leisure activities with the child.
48. Men should feel free to do such things as cook and care for children if they so desire.
49. A wife should give up her job if it inconveniences her husband and children.
50. Raising a child provides many rewards, but as a full-time job it cannot keep most women satisfied.
51. A woman should realize that her greatest reward and satisfaction comes through her children.
52. Children's lives are enhanced when their fathers take an active role in child care and child rearing.
53. The husband and wife should be equal partners in planning the budget.
54. The institution of marriage and family was established by God.

VITA

Donna Lynn Sollie was born in Meridian, Mississippi, on November 3, 1951. She graduated from Starkville High School in 1969. She received her Bachelor of Arts degree in 1973 from Mississippi State University, with a major in sociology.

In August, 1973, she began graduate work in the Department of Sociology at the University of Kentucky. She received the Master of Arts degree in August, 1976.

In September, 1976, she entered Graduate School at the University of Tennessee in the Department of Child and Family Studies. During her graduate program, she held both teaching and research assistantships. Her major area for the doctoral degree was family studies. While pursuing the degree, she also received training as a counselor through the American Association of Marriage and Family Therapists.

She is married to Carl A. Hill, III, and she is the daughter of Dr. and Mrs. Carlton Raymond Sollie.