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A COMPARISON OF SEX ROLE ATTITUDES OF CHILDREN FROM MARRIED,
DIVORCED, AND RECONSTITUTED FAMILY STRUCTURES

THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

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A COMPARISON OF SEX ROLE ATTITUDES
OF CHILDREN FROM MARRIED, DIVORCED,
AND RECONSTITUTED FAMILY STRUCTURES

by

Susan Elizabeth Brown

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the
SCHOOL OF HOME ECONOMICS
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE
In the Graduate College
THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

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STATEMENT BY AUTHOR

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ABSTRACT

A child's socialization is affected by his environment with his family of orientation being the most influential agent in shaping his behaviors and attitudes. This thesis attempts to determine if children from divorced single parent families exhibit less stereotypical sex role attitudes than children from two parent intact and reconstituted families on the division of household tasks and adult occupations. It also attempts to discover if male children exhibit more stereotypical attitudes than female children.

The findings indicate that male children from married and remarried families exhibit more stereotypical attitudes than male children from divorced families regarding male adult occupations. No attitudinal differences occurred on the other indices. Males demonstrated more stereotypical sex role attitudes than females on the indices of female household tasks and female adult occupations. In order to better determine if family structure affects sex role attitudes, subjects who have reached their maximum level of cognitive functioning need to be employed.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The socialization of the young child is an important task in all societies. For a child to become an accepted and productive member of his society, he must acquire behaviors, attitudes, standards, and motives that are regarded as appropriate by that particular society. The term socialization refers to the process by which this acquisition occurs. Although many agents of socialization, i.e. school, peers, mass media contribute to the socialization process, the child's family of orientation is considered to be the most important socialization agent. It is the parents who have the greatest amount of contact with the child in the formative years. These important first relationships within the home are also the most intense in the preschool child's life and they significantly shape the child's social behavior (Cox and Cox, 1979).

The major theories of sex role socialization emphasize the significance of the role of the parents in the socialization process. Sex role socialization is the process by which sex role identity and appropriate sex role behaviors are acquired. According to Freud's identification theory, parents are responsible for providing same sex and complementary role models for their children. In the cognitive-developmental theory parents provide male/female guidelines which facilitate their children's organization of cognitive schemes which determine their attitudes, values, and activities of children (Mackie, 1978). Kohlberg (1966) considers cognitive limitations the primary

source of children's rigid sex role stereotyping. He discounts the role of the immediate family in the formation of these stereotypes. The social learning theory, which is based on an environmental viewpoint, states that a child learns appropriate sex typed behaviour through rewards for appropriate behaviors and punishments for inappropriate behaviors. A child also learns sex typed behaviors by the imitation of adult models (Mackie, 1978).

The intact two parent family is no longer the only predominant structure in American society. Due to society's tolerance of single parenting and the exorbitant increase in the divorce rate, the single parent family structure is also becoming prevalent. The incident of divorce has increased over 700% in the last fifty years (Horn, 1975). Currently over 60% of all divorces include children (Cox and Cox, 1979). It is now expected that half of all children born in the 1970's will live at least part of their lives in a single parent household (Cox and Cox, 1979). According to the United States Census Bureau, as of March 1981, there were 6.6 million one parent families in the United States. Divorced single parents often utilize different socialization practices than married parents as divorced homes are often more disorganized than intact homes and symmetrical sex division of tasks no longer apply (Hetherington et al., 1978).

Recent research on children from divorced single parents contrasted with children from intact two parent families has focused on self-esteem (Lowenstein and Koopman, 1978) and self-concept (Parish and Dostal, 1980; Parish and Taylor, 1979; Young and Parish, 1977; and Raschke and Raschke, 1979). There is little research, however, on the impact of divorce on children's internalization of sex roles. Kurdek

and Siesky (1980) attempted to fill the void by examining the sex role self concepts of divorced single parents and their children compared to a matched set of counterparts who had not experienced divorce. They found that divorced custodial parents demonstrated higher levels of androgynous functioning [the integration of masculine and feminine traits within a single individual (Bem, 1974)] than their counterparts who had never experienced divorce. In addition, the children of the divorced parents, especially boys, also demonstrated more androgynous sex role self concepts than the sample of children from intact two parent families. One explanation of these results is that single parents may find themselves in situations where they may need to demonstrate behaviors that have been traditionally assigned to the absent opposite sex parent (Brown and Manela, 1978). In effect, parents' adjustment to divorce may result in a trend toward androgynous functioning (Kurdek and Siesky, 1980). The children in these single parent families may, in turn, model their parents' androgynous attitudes.

Given that children from divorced single parent families appear to have more androgynous sex role self concepts than children from intact two parent families, taking a social learning theory standpoint, one might postulate that these children would also have less traditional attitudes toward other manifestations of sex roles, in particular, the division of household tasks and adult occupations. In a divorced single parent family, tasks usually performed by the absent parent will have to be reassigned to another family member or to an external party. When family members are compelled to perform cross gender tasks, i.e. mother mowing the lawn, son preparing dinner, a child's perceptions of traditional sex assigned tasks may be blurred. In a reconstituted family

where one parent remarries and the absent parent is replaced by a similar sexed role model, the household tasks can again be delineated along traditional sex role divisions. One might postulate that children in a reconstituted family structure would exhibit similar sex role attitudes to those of children from intact two parent families.

With regard to adult occupations, the literature indicates a definite trend toward occupational stereotyping among school age children especially among boys (Payne, 1981; Gettys and Cann, 1981; Garrett, Ein, and Tremaine, 1977; and Drabman et al., 1981). For example, in a study by Drabman and associates (1981) they found that when children were asked to identify the names of characters who portrayed a female doctor and a male nurse in a videotape they had previously been shown, the majority of the children inverted the names of the characters to comply with their rigidly held stereotypes of male doctors and female nurses. While the above mentioned research compares the occupational stereotypes of different aged children, it does not delineate between children from intact two parent families and children from divorced single parent families. There is, however, a body of literature that delineates between children of working mothers and children of mothers who do not work outside the home on sex role attitudes. Theories that stress environmental factors consistently predict that children of working mothers should be less sex role stereotyped, since these mothers serve as models who are themselves less stereotyped (Seegmiller, 1980). The consensus of the literature is that children of working mothers perceive smaller differences between masculine and feminine activities and roles (Etaugh, 1974). Maternal employment is positively related to

aspirations of daughters (Petersen, 1958; Zissis, 1964; and Smith, 1969). It seems reasonable to assume that many divorced mothers may also be working mothers. In fact their divorce may have been the impetus that launched them into the work force (Michael, 1976). Therefore, one might predict that children raised in single parent homes hold less rigid stereotypes with regard to adult occupations than children from intact and reconstituted two parent homes.

In that children's attitudes, behavior, and perceptions of the world are strongly influenced by their socialization, it may be important to discover how divorce affects children's socialization process and ultimately their sex role attitudes. Presumably, children who have experienced the trauma and disintegration of their family unit caused by their parents' divorce and the consequential adjustment to the reorganization of their family into an alternate structure would have different socialization experiences which could influence their sex role attitudes. The length of time spent in a divorced family structure would also have an effect on children's sex role attitudes (Hetherington et al., 1978). In an attempt to learn this information, the current thesis is designed.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to determine if children from divorced single parent families have different sex role attitudes than children from intact two parent families and reconstituted families with regard to two indices of sex roles: 1) division of household tasks and 2) adult occupations.

Hypothesis 1

Children from divorced single parent families will exhibit less stereotypical sex role attitudes than children from intact two parent families and reconstituted families on the identified measures.

Hypothesis 11

Males will exhibit more stereotypical sex role attitudes than females in all family structures.

Justification

Although there is some research in the area of sex roles comparing children from divorced families, intact two parent families, and reconstituted families, there is a lack of research delineating the sex role attitudes of children from these family structures. In view of the fact that the number of single parent families is increasing dramatically (doubled since 1970), and an increasing number of children are spending at least part of their developmental years in a one parent structure, and that children's socialization is affected by their environment, it may behoove us to learn more about the differential effects of the single parent family form on children's sex role attitudes. Should the findings of this research reveal that children from single parent divorced families do not differ significantly in their sex role attitudes from children in intact families and reconstituted families, it will at least contribute concrete information in an area of sex role research that is otherwise lacking. Should the findings of this research reveal that children from single parent divorced families have less traditional sex role attitudes than children from intact two parent families and reconstituted families in the areas of division of

household tasks and adult occupations, the social learning theory premise that children's attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs are influenced by their environment will be supported. These findings would also hopefully shed some light on the effects of the single parent structure on children's sex role attitudes.

Assumptions

This study assumes that male and females receive rewards and punishments on the basis of gender and that children model their parents' attitudes and behaviors through observational learning.

Operational Definitions

A child's attitude of division of household tasks is operationally defined as his numerical scores on the Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test (Eagly and Anderson, 1974).

A child's attitude of adult occupations is operationally defined as his numerical scores on an adaptation by Garrett, Ein, and Tremaine (1977) of the Science Research Associates Occupation Kit (Science Research Associates, 1964).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature is divided into three sections. Section 1 will describe the major theoretical frameworks which have been employed by researchers in interpreting sex role development. Emphasis will be placed on the modeling aspects of these theories. An alternative approach to sex role socialization will also be discussed. Section 2 will outline the families' influence over children as their major socialization agents and how different family structures affect the children's socialization process. Section 3 will cite the prevalence of adult occupational stereotyping by children.

Theories of Sex Role Development

Three theories have been used to explain the acquisition of appropriate sex role behavior. They include: 1) social learning theory 2) cognitive-developmental theory and 3) identification theory. The modeling aspect of these theories will be emphasized.

Social learning theory emphasizes the importance of the environment on a child's sex role development. The two major components pertaining to how a child acquires appropriate sex role behavior are through: 1) rewards and punishments and 2) the imitation of adult models. The second component of social learning theory, the vastly powerful influence of imitation of models, holds that most human

behavior is learned observationally through modeling (Bandura, 1977). The people with whom one regularly associates will determine the types of behavior that will be repeatedly observed and hence learned most thoroughly. Children by observing their parents, may acquire responses (including sex typed responses) that were not presently in their behavioral repertoire.

Behaviors can be acquired long before there is a need to perform them, i.e. children can learn many behaviors that they will not have the opportunity to perform until they are adults. This process is known as delayed modeling. As children develop skill in symbolizing experiences and translating them into motor modalities, their capacity for the delayed modeling of intricate patterns of behavior increases (Bandura, 1977).

According to Bandura, Ross, and Ross (1961) when boys and girls are exposed to male and female adults whose control over the resources vary drastically, they will imitate the behaviors of the more powerful adult. If a male adult has greater control over the resources than the female, both boys and girls will imitate his behavior to a greater extent. If a female adult has greater power over the rewards than the male, her behavior will be imitated by both males and females more frequently. A divorced single parent family is an example of where this cross sex imitation could occur as the custodial parent would have more hands on control over the resources and the rewards of the child.

Lynn (1969) expanded on the social learning theory. He hypothesized that since the father is frequently absent from the home and masculine sex typed activities are not always directly observable by the

child, boys have a more difficult time than girls establishing their gender identity. Boys are forced to develop a more abstract identification with their male role models. Girls can establish a concrete identification with their mothers because their activities are usually more directly observable. This factor may account for sex differences in cognitive styles and in males, a greater attachment to a culturally defined masculine role.

Several researchers have taken a life cycle approach with regard to the social learning theory. Abrahams et al. (1978) hypothesized that adult men and women modify their sex role self concepts and sex role attitudes as a function of the life situations in which they are involved. The four life situations included in their study were:

- 1) cohabitation
- 2) marriage
- 3) the anticipation of the first child and
- 4) parenthood.

Their sample included one hundred and twenty white, middle class men and women. The researchers found that the females' femininity scores on the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) increased linearly across the four life situations. The males' femininity scores increased until parenthood and then decreased because of a decline in self ascribed feminine characteristics. The masculinity scores decreased for both sexes from the cohabiting to the marriage situation, increased with the anticipation of the first child, and continued to increase for men in the parent situation while the scores decreased for women in the parent situation.

Kurdek and Siesky (1980) have extended this theory to include the life situation of divorce. In their study examining the sex role self concepts of divorced and single parents and their children and a

matched set of counterparts who had not experienced divorce, they found that children from divorced single parent families demonstrated significantly higher androgynous sex role self concepts than children whose parents were not divorced. This trend was also exhibited by their parents.

The cognitive-developmental theory proposed by Kohlberg (1966) is based on Piaget's work. Kohlberg argues that the way a child learns his sex role is a function of his level of understanding of the world. Because the child's sex role self concept becomes the major organizer and determinant of his activities, values, and attitudes, boys model themselves after males because they already have masculine interests and values. Once the modeling process begins, the child imitates individually admired acts demonstrated by his model. The child realizes to be like his model in general, he must establish a continuing relationship with him to attain his goal (Kohlberg, 1966).

The boy's general competence motivation leads him to prefer and imitate the masculine role because he is a male and because the boy awards superior prestige, power, and competence to this role. These tendencies lead him to develop preferential imitation and approval from his father, but only after a delay period because cognitive growth is required. During this period of growth, the boy's identification with his father tends to be assimilated to more general stereotypes of the masculine role which have little to do with the father's individual role and personality (Kohlberg, 1966).

Because the cognitive-developmental theory holds that sex role development is a function of cognitive sophistication and not

environmental factors, a child's family structure does not significantly affect his sex role attitudes. It maintains that a young child's sex role stereotypes are not a direct reflection of parental behavior. Although identification with the same sex person, and the formation of the general sex role values may be facilitated and consolidated by appropriate parental behavior, this process seems to take place without the presence of the same sex parent and under a variety of child rearing conditions (Kohlberg, 1966).

Another theory of sex role development originates from the framework of psychoanalytic theory. Freud defined the concept of identification as the process which "endeavours to mold a person's own ego after the fashion of one that has been taken as a model" (Freud, 1921, p. 62). Identification is a particular kind of imitation where a spontaneous duplication of a model's complex integration of behavior occurs without specific training or reward. This imitation is based on an intimate relationship between the identifier and the model (Kagan, 1958). The outcome of this process is assumed to be stable and highly resistant to change.

The concept of identification has a wide appeal to many theorists because of its explanatory nature. Learning theorists conceptualize identification as "learned drive" or a motive to be like a model, i.e. parents. The child's identification with his parents is seen by his attempts to duplicate or emulate their ways of behaving, thinking, and feeling and to adopt their ideals, attitudes, and opinions (Mussen, 1969).

Summary

The three theories of sex role development which have been cited are social learning, cognitive-developmental, and identification. In the social learning theory, which takes an environmental standpoint, the child may acquire responses, including sex typed responses, that were not previously present in his behavioral repertoire, by observing a model's behavior. Through observational learning, a child can learn behaviors that he will not have the opportunity to perform until adulthood. This process is known as delayed modeling. The life cycle approach to social learning theory contends that sex role self concepts and attitudes are a function of the person's specific life situation. The identification theory states that identification is a particular kind of imitation where a spontaneous duplication of a model's behavior occurs without specific training or reward. The mechanism of modeling in the cognitive-developmental theory is different from that of the identification and social learning theories. Sex typing is not conceived as a product of identification, but identification is conceived as a consequence of sex typing. The way a child learns his sex role development is a function of his level of understanding of the world. The child's sex role self concept becomes the major organizer and determinant of his activities, values, and attitudes. According to the cognitive-developmental theory, environmental factors are not significant in a child's sex role development.

The Family as a Socialization Agent

Although the family structure is more heterogeneous than in the past, it is still the most influential socialization agent of children,

especially during the preschool years. This section concentrates on the family's socialization process and how the family influences their children's future attitudes and behaviors.

Sex role socialization begins at birth by the early labeling of children as "boy" and "girl" immediately after they are born. In a study by Rubin et al. (1974) male and female infants were perceived as being different from each other because of their sex. Thirty pairs of parents were interviewed twenty-four hours after the birth of their first child. Infant girls were perceived as "softer", "finer", and "littler" and infant boys were perceived as "stronger", "firmer", and "more alert". Hospital records showed that these infants did not differ on any physical or health measure.

Tauber (1979) believes that pressure is applied to children to conform to society's norms through parental socialization techniques. Parents have their own beliefs about how boys and girls should and do behave, and employ subtle and obvious methods to ensure that their children behave within the constraints of their preconceptions. Examples of special controls parents apply to their children are: 1) restricting girls to play in areas in their homes or friend's homes while allowing boys to roam freely across long distances 2) dressing girls in restrictive play clothing and 3) providing sex coded toys for their children to play with (Hoffman, 1977).

Lewis and Weinraub (1979) found that during free play, children were more likely to look up at the same sexed than opposite sexed parent. Similar relationships between parent and child were found by Lamb (1975).

Between the ages three to five, data indicates that children are more likely to imitate the behavior of the same sexed parent (DuHamel and Biller, 1969; and Hetherington and Frankie, 1967). This finding may be explained by Maccoby and Jacklin's (1974) finding that punishment for inappropriate sex typed behavior is more widespread than reinforcement for appropriate sex typed behavior.

With regard to division of household tasks, children are still being socialized along sex divided lines, but this practice is slowly changing. A study in the Detroit area, in 1971, repeated questions on the division of household tasks that had been originally asked in 1953 (Duncan, Schuman, and Duncan, 1973). The 1971 data demonstrated a shift in sex specific assignments. For example, in 1953, 65% of the mothers interviewed said that only boys should be asked to shovel sidewalks and wash cars. In 1971, 50% said that only boys should shovel sidewalks, and 31% said that only boys should wash cars. In 1953, 66% of the mothers said that only girls should dust and 52% said that only girls should make beds. In 1971, these figures dropped to 62% and 29%, respectively.

Social scientists have noted a lessening of sex typed expectations on the part of parents concerning the interests, abilities, and personality characteristics of their children. Minuchin (1965) studied fourth grade children of comparable backgrounds except for the modeling which was conveyed by their homes and schools. Half the sample was from traditional backgrounds and the other half from modern backgrounds. Findings of this study were: 1) both home and school influenced the children's attitudes 2) there was a group trend toward stated preference

for one's own sex and conventional role imagery especially among children from traditional backgrounds 3) more open attitudes were associated with children from modern backgrounds and 4) an open stance toward sex role preferences was characteristic of girls from modern orientations and from families of higher socioeconomic status.

Fathers more frequently appear to treat sons and daughters more differently than mothers treat them (Lamb, 1977), and fathers are more concerned about their children's propensity to behave in a conventional sex appropriate manner (Bronfenbrenner, 1961; and Heilbrun, 1965). As a result, absent or inaccessible fathers are likely to have a maximally disruptive effect during early childhood, and considerably less impact as the children grow older and other agents of socialization become prominent influences on their sex role development. These studies are in agreement with Hetherington's (1966) study of paternal absence on Negro and white males ages nine to fourteen. She found that if by age six adequate masculine identity had occurred, it could be maintained during the event of father absence. If the father leaves in the first four years of a male child's life, before sufficient identification has been established, long lasting disruptions in sex typed behavior may result.

Females are also affected by father absence. Girls learn to behave in a manner deemed appropriately feminine not only by imitating their mothers and other female role models, but by also learning to adopt behaviors complementary to those displayed by their fathers. In a study by Hetherington (1972) when fathers' absence was precipitated by divorce, adolescent girls appeared to be unusually assertive and aggressive in their actions with males.

In a two year longitudinal study, Cox and Cox (1979) studied a group of divorced mothers and their preschool aged children and a group of intact parents and their preschool aged children; it was found that divorced parents often utilized less effective socialization practices than intact parents. These practices may be a result of greater negative behavior that divorced parents encounter in their children.

Hetherington et al. (1978) reported that divorced homes were more disorganized than intact homes. Meals in divorced homes were taken at more irregular times and divorced mothers were less likely to have dinner with their children. Bedtimes were varied, and children of divorce were less likely to have bedtime stories read to them by their mothers. These children were also more likely to be late for school.

After a divorce the parents may be so concerned with their own anxieties, anger, and hurt they may not be able to effectively deal with those of their children. One might speculate that during this period, the divorced parent would find it difficult to be as an effective agent of socialization as a parent from an intact home (Cox and Cox, 1979).

In terms of specific socialization practices, Hetherington et al. (1978) found that divorced parents tended to be less warm and affectionate with their children and showed a lack of control when compared to parents in intact families. They also communicated less with their children and were more inconsistent with discipline. In general, interactions of divorced mothers were more conflicted with their sons, and sons seemed to have a more difficult time adjusting than daughters.

Hetherington et al. (1978) found no evidence that divorce was associated with disruptions in traditional sex role typing in girls. In

boys, although differences were not apparent at two months or one year after the divorce, by two years, differences emerged. Boys in divorced families scored lower on male preferences and higher on female preferences than boys from intact homes. By two years after the divorce, these boys were spending more time playing with female and younger peers and were more often involved in feminine activities. By one year after the divorce, the father had less impact on his children's sex role development and by two years after the divorce, the only pattern variable related to sex typing in boys and girls was the availability of their fathers. Divorced mothers were found to be overprotective, inconsistently restrictive, and infantilizing. They seemed apprehensive when their children showed adventurous or boisterous behavior.

Summary

Sex role socialization begins as soon as infants are born, and parents are the most influential socialization agents. During the preschool years, children most often model their same sexed parents' behavior. It appears as though the trend toward specific sexed household tasks is loosening. Both males and females are affected by father absence. Divorce often has deleterious effects on children's activities, self concepts, and attitudes; these effects are especially true with regard to males.

Adult Occupations

Sex role patterns are influenced by environmental factors. By studying children's views of adult occupations some insight concerning the present state of their family's influence in maintaining or changing traditional sex role expectations may be provided (Payne, 1981).

In general, there appears to be a definite pattern of occupational stereotyping among school age children. Children from lower class families tend to stereotype occupations more than children from middle class families (Schlossberg and Goodman, 1972). Younger children tend to clearly divide their world into distinct male and female occupational roles (Gettys and Cann, 1981 and Garrett, Ein, and Tremaine, 1977). As children progress through school, they become systematically less sexist with females being less sexist than males (Payne, 1981; Umstot, 1980; Cummings and Taebel, 1980; and Shepard and Hess, 1975). These studies lend support to Lynn's (1969) theory that states males have a greater attachment to their culturally defined role.

Children of working mothers are exposed to a different socialization process than children of nonworking mothers. Maternal employment affects both boys and girls concept of a woman's role. They perceive smaller differences in masculine and feminine roles than do children of nonworking mothers and under certain circumstances, tend to favor a more egalitarian sex role ideology (Etaugh, 1974). Working mothers serve as less stereotypical role models, encourage more independence in their children, and are more likely to have households in which the male members participate in traditionally defined female tasks such as child rearing (Hoffman, 1974 and Seegmiller, 1980).

While sons of middle class employed mothers tend to be less stereotyped in their conceptions of sex roles, and to be better socially adjusted than their counterparts of nonworking mothers (Hoffman, 1974), daughters are more profoundly affected by the employment of their mothers. A consistent finding in the literature is that working women's

daughters have higher career aspirations than do daughters of mothers who do not work outside the home (Petersen, 1958; Smith, 1969; and Zissis, 1964). Females who choose traditionally male careers are more likely to have mothers who work (Almquist and Angrist, 1970 and Tangri, 1972).

Summary

Children tend to stereotype adult occupations. As they grow older they tend to become less sexist in their attitudes, especially females. Working mothers have an effect on their children's socialization. Children of working mothers tend to differentiate less between sex roles than children of nonworking mothers. Females with working mothers, tend to aspire to male dominated careers with more frequency than females with mothers who do not work outside the home.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The participants in this study were drawn from members of the Sahuaro Girl Scout Council and the Boy Scouts of America Catalina Council in Tucson, Arizona. The sample consisted of 106 subjects, 64 girls ranging from ages 8 to 11 years and 42 boys ranging from ages 8 to 15 years. The mean age for the girls was 9.9 years and the boys mean age was 10.6 years. 60 subjects (22 males and 38 females) were from married family structures, 31 subjects (14 males and 17 females) were from divorced single parent family structures, and 15 subjects (6 males and 9 females) were from divorced reconstituted family structures. The occupations of the subjects' fathers ranged from professional status, i.e. doctor, architect, engineer to unskilled labor, i.e. construction worker, janitor. The majority of the fathers' occupations can be classified as skilled labor, i.e. mechanic, plumber, carpenter. The second largest modal category of fathers' occupations was sales and management, i.e. real estate, insurance, and automobile salesman, management level positions at IBM, Mountain Bell, banks. The occupations of the subjects' mothers ranged from professional status, i.e. psychologist, lawyer, architect to unskilled labor, i.e. waitress, cashier, housekeeper. The occupations held by the majority of the mothers in the sample were housewife, secretarial/clerical, and teacher, respectively. The data was collected in the Fall semester of 1982.

Instruments

The two aspects of sex role attitudes which were measured were: 1) division of household tasks and 2) adult occupations. These instruments reflect the social norms with which the subjects have been raised.

The Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test (Eagly-Anderson, 1974) was used to measure the subjects' attitudes towards the division of household tasks. This is a multiple choice instrument which consists of a list of twenty activities typically performed in a household. For each activity the respondent was asked to indicate whether the activity should be performed by: 1) only females 2) mostly females 3) both females and males 4) mostly males or 5) only males. The wording on this instrument was simplified in order to accommodate younger subjects. Two questions were altered because they were not in keeping with activities that are performed in the geographic region of the Southwest, i.e. shoveling snow and putting up storm windows.

The reliability of this instrument was established when the scale was developed. The responses from 386 college students yielded an alpha coefficient of .90 (Eagly and Anderson, 1974).

The validity of this instrument was tested by comparing 386 college students' scores on the Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test with their scores on a measure of attitudes toward the feminist movement, a measure of conservatism, and a measure of liberalism. The correlations between the Sex Role Equivalence Test and each of the measures were all significant ($p < .01$) and in the predicted direction (Eagly and Anderson, 1974.)

A derivation of the S.R.A. Occupation Kit (Science Research Associates, 1964) was used to measure the subjects' perceptions of gender stereotyping of adult occupations. The twenty-one occupations listed in this instrument represent three levels of educational requirements (high school diploma, post high school training, and college training) to avoid educational or socioeconomic status bias. The subjects indicated whether the twenty-one listed occupations should be performed by: 1) only women 2) mostly women 3) both women and men 4) mostly men or 5) only men.

With regard to reliability of the derivation of the S.R.A. instrument, coefficient alphas computed from various applications of this instrument are consistently over .90 (Schau and Kahn, 1978). This instrument was given to 120 first graders, 110 third graders, and 125 fifth graders. Their responses were scored from one to five with one indicating a reversal of the stereotypic response and five indicating maximum stereotyping. The coefficient alpha was .85 (Garrett, Ein, and Tremaine, 1977).

The validity was measured by comparing the responses of 120 first graders, 110 third graders, and 125 fifth graders with "reality" as reported by the United States Census Bureau. The correlation was .85 (Garrett, Ein, and Tremaine, 1977).

Scoring

The Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test was scored by ranking the responses from one to five, with one indicating a reversal of

the sex stereotypic response and five indicating the maximum stereotypic response. After all the responses had been scored, they were broken down into two summary scores: 1) Male Household Tasks and 2) Female Household Tasks. These two scores were calculated by summing the scores of the tasks deemed as predominantly male and summing the scores of the tasks deemed as predominantly female. The scores for male household tasks and female household tasks can range between 10 (reversal of stereotypic response) and 50 (maximum stereotypical response).

The derivation of the S.R.A. Occupation Kit was scored using the same five point scale as the Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test. After all the responses had been scored, they were broken down into three summary scores: 1) Male Occupations 2) Female Occupations and 3) Occupations Appropriate for Both Sexes. The scores for the male and female occupations categories range between 7 (reversal of stereotypic response) and 35 (maximum stereotypic response). The scores for the occupations appropriate for both sexes category range between 7 (tendency toward male stereotyping) and 35 (tendency toward female stereotyping).

Procedure

The two measures were stapled together into one packet and administered by the researcher in the following order: 1) Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test and 2) the derivation of the S.R.A. Occupation Kit. The researcher first explained the instructions for the instruments to the subjects. When the researcher was sure that the subjects understood the instructions, the subjects began the test with the questions being read aloud to them by the researcher. The subjects were encouraged to ask about any aspect of the packet that they did not

understand. The last page of the packet was a personal data sheet consisting of the following information: name, age, sex, parent's marital status, length of time parents have been divorced, who respondent primarily resides with, parents' occupations, stepparents' occupations, family size, family composition, and position in birth order. The packet took about twenty minutes to complete.

Statistical Analysis

Two-way analyses of variance was used to analyze the effect of the independent variables (family structure and sex) on the dependent variables (summary scores for male and female household tasks and summary scores for male, female and appropriate for both sexes occupations).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was: 1) to determine if children from divorced family structures exhibited less stereotypical sex role attitudes towards the division of household tasks and adult occupations than children from married and remarried family structures and 2) to determine if male children have more stereotypical attitudes than female children with regard to the division of household tasks and adult occupations.

The 106 participants in the study, 64 Girl Scouts and 42 Boy Scouts, were administered two instruments that were designed to measure their sex role attitudes. The Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test was used to measure the subjects' attitudes towards the division of household tasks and a derivation of the S.R.A. Occupation Kit was employed to measure the subjects' sex role attitudes towards adult occupations.

Each respondent's scores on the Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test were condensed into two summary scores: 1) Male Household Tasks scores and 2) Female Household Tasks scores. A subject's Male Household Tasks score represented his/her attitudes toward the male household tasks included in the Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test. A subject's Female Household Tasks score represented his/her attitude

toward the female household tasks included in the Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test. Mean scores and standard deviations for male and female household tasks are presented in Tables 1 and 3.

Separate 3 x 2 analyses of variance were performed on the children's attitudes toward male and female household tasks to determine the effect of family structure (married, divorced, remarried) and sex. The analysis of variance tables for household tasks are in Appendix D, Tables 5 and 6. For male household tasks results indicated that there were no significant effects for family structure $F(2,100) = 1.03$, $p = .36$, or for sex, $F(1,100) = .03$, $p = .86$. There were also no significant interaction effects between family structure and sex, $F(2,100) = .35$, $p = .71$. For female household tasks results indicated that there was a main effect for sex, $F(1,100) = 6.25$, $p = .02$ indicating that males have more stereotypical attitudes than females concerning female household tasks. There were no significant effects for family structure, $F(2,100) = 1.44$, $p = .29$ or interaction between family structure and sex, $F(2,100) = 1.76$, $p = .18$.

For the derivation of the S.R.A. Occupation Kit each of the respondent's scores were condensed into three summary scores: 1) Male Adult Occupations scores 2) Female Adult Occupations scores and 3) Appropriate for Both Sexes Adult Occupations scores. A subject's Male Adult Occupations score represented his/her attitude towards the male adult occupations included in the S.R.A. Occupation Kit. A subject's Female Adult Occupations score represented his/her attitude toward female occupations included in the S.R.A. Occupation Kit. A subject's Both Sexes Adult Occupations score represented his/her attitude towards

adult occupations that are appropriate for both sexes included in the S.R.A. Occupation Kit. Mean scores and standard deviations for male, female, and both sexes adult occupations are presented in Tables 2 and 4.

Separate 3 X 2 analyses of variance were performed on the children's attitudes toward male, female, and both sexes adult occupations to determine the effects of family structure and sex. The analysis of variance tables for adult occupations are in Appendix D, Tables 7, 8, and 9. Results for male adult occupations indicated that a main effect was present for family structure, $F(2,100) = 4.26$, $p = .02$. In order to determine which family structures produced subjects with different sex role attitudes regarding adult male occupations, a posteriori comparison was performed. Results of a Duncan's Multiple Range test revealed that there was a significant difference in attitudes between subjects in the divorced family structure and the remarried family structure indicating that children from remarried family structures demonstrated more stereotypical attitudes toward male adult occupations than children from divorced family structures. There were no significant differences between the attitudes of: 1) subjects in the married and remarried family structure and 2) subjects in the married and divorced family structures. This result was further stratified when another Duncan's Multiple Range test was performed on only the male subjects' scores for male adult occupations in each family structure. Results indicated that a significant difference in attitudes between subjects in the divorced family structure and subjects in the married and remarried family structures existed. Male children in the divorced

family structure demonstrated less stereotypical attitudes toward male occupations than children from married and remarried family structures. There was no significant difference between the attitudes of subjects in married and remarried family structures. Remaining results for the analyses of variance reveal that there was no significant effect for sex, $F(1,100) = .15$, $p = .70$ and no significant interaction effect, $F(2,100) = 1.24$, $p = .30$.

Results for female adult occupations indicated that there was a significant main effect for sex, $F(1,100) = 6.03$, $p = .02$, showing that males' attitudes towards female adult occupations are more stereotyped than females' attitudes. There was no significant effect for family structure, $F(2,100) = .11$, $p = .90$ and there was no significant interaction effect, $F(2,100) = .80$, $p = .45$.

Results for adult occupations appropriate for both sexes indicated that there were no significant effects for family structure, $F(2,100) = 2.12$, $p = .13$, or sex $F(1,100) = 3.32$, $p = .07$. There was also no interaction effect, $F(2,100) = 1.52$, $p = .23$.

TABLE 1. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on the Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test by Family Structure and Sex

Structure	N	Male Household Tasks	Female Household Tasks
Married	60		
		Mean	35.85
		S.D.	4.41
			35.30
			3.95
Males	22		
		Mean	35.23
		S.D.	4.80
			35.86
			4.14
Females	38		
		Mean	36.21
		S.D.	4.18
			34.97
			3.86
Divorced	31		
		Mean	34.55
		S.D.	4.46
			36.58
			5.04
Males	14		
		Mean	34.14
		S.D.	5.83
			39.00
			5.94
Females	17		
		Mean	34.88
		S.D.	3.08
			34.59
			3.10
Remarried	15		
		Mean	36.13
		S.D.	4.01
			34.67
			4.15
Males	6		
		Mean	36.83
		S.D.	5.11
			35.83
			4.62
Females	9		
		Mean	35.67
		S.D.	3.35
			33.89
			3.89

TABLE 2. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on the derivation of the S.R.A. Occupation Kit by Family Structure and Sex

Structure	N	Male Adult Occupations	Female Adult Occupations	Both Sexes Adult Occupations
Married	60			
	Mean	26.90	26.10	20.73
	S.D.	3.34	3.13	1.95
Males	22			
	Mean	27.50	26.54	21.04
	S.D.	3.10	3.62	2.44
Females	38			
	Mean	26.55	25.84	20.55
	S.D.	3.46	2.82	1.60
Divorced	31			
	Mean	25.42	26.42	21.48
	S.D.	3.95	3.52	2.96
Males	14			
	Mean	24.64	27.64	22.64
	S.D.	5.05	4.34	3.71
Female	17			
	Mean	26.06	25.41	20.53
	S.D.	2.75	2.35	1.77
Remarried	15			
	Mean	28.47	26.13	20.20
	S.D.	4.24	3.40	1.93
Males	6			
	Mean	29.33	27.67	20.33
	S.D.	4.18	2.94	1.03
Females	9			
	Mean	27.89	25.11	20.11
	S.D.	4.43	3.44	2.42

TABLE 3. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on the Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test by Sex

Sex	N	Male Household Tasks	Female Household Tasks
Males	42		
		Mean	36.90
		S.D.	4.98
Females	64		
		Mean	34.72
		S.D.	3.64

TABLE 4. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on the derivation of the S.R.A. Occupation Kit by Sex

Sex	N	Male Adult Occupations	Female Adult Occupations	Both Sexes Adult Occupations
Males	42			
		Mean	27.10	21.48
		S.D.	3.75	2.88
Females	64			
		Mean	25.62	20.48
		S.D.	2.77	1.75

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The present study tested two hypotheses pertaining to children's sex role attitudes. Hypothesis 1 postulated that children from divorced family structures will demonstrate less stereotypical sex role attitudes pertaining to the division of household tasks and adult occupations than children from married and remarried family structures. Hypothesis 2 postulated that male children will have more stereotypical attitudes on the identified measures than female children.

The data support Hypothesis 1 in that family structure did have an impact on children's attitudes towards male adult occupations. Specifically, male children from married and remarried family structures exhibited more stereotypical attitudes than male children from divorced family structures. Kurdek and Siesky (1980) also found that boys from divorced family structures demonstrated increased levels of androgynous functioning when compared to children from intact family structures. An explanation for this result is that people modify their behaviors and attitudes in response to situational changes (Abrahams et al., 1978). Going from a married family structure to a divorced family structure is a transition from one life situation to another. It involves the performance of distinct tasks and also requires a redefinition of behaviors and attitudes. Because in a divorced single parent family structure tasks usually performed by the absent parent will have to be divided

among remaining family members or reassigned to an external party, a child's attitude toward traditional sex assigned tasks may become more relaxed. Going from a divorced family structure to a remarried family structure, a transition from one life situation to another, also involves the performance of distinct tasks and a redefinition of behaviors and attitudes. Because a remarried family structure may be a new type of life situation for all members involved, they may not know how they are expected to behave. The members of a new reconstituted family may resort to stereotypical male/female behaviors as a common ground so that each member will be able to more easily establish a niche in this new structure.

While there was a definite family structure effect for attitudes regarding male adult occupations, there were no significant family structure differences for children's attitudes toward male household tasks, female household tasks, female adult occupations, and occupations deemed appropriate for both sexes. This finding may be explained because while the present study was intended to demonstrate the social learning theory process of observational learning, it appears that in actuality, it supported the cognitive-developmental theory. A premise of the cognitive-developmental theory is that sex role development is a function of cognitive sophistication and not environmental factors; therefore, a child's family structure would not significantly affect his sex role attitudes. Because the subjects who were surveyed were of middle school age, they had not yet reached their potential level of cognitive functioning. Therefore, the subjects were not able to completely comprehend the complex world around them at their present level of cognitive development.

Although the present study did not effectively demonstrate the social learning theory process of observational learning, it is reasonable to believe that a mode of observational learning may be present in the study. Because the subjects' parents' sex role attitudes were not measured, from this study it is impossible to know if, in fact, the children were modeling the attitudes of their parents. Perhaps it was erroneous to assume that parents in different family structures exhibit distinct, noticeable different sex role attitudes. In order to discover if family structure has an effect on a person's sex role attitudes, it may be beneficial to survey subjects who have reached their maximum level of cognitive functioning. Because subjects' family structures may not fully impact their attitudes until their potential levels of cognitive functioning have been reached, this type of study would determine if subjects' sex role attitudes are a function of their family structures by determining if the process of delayed modeling had occurred.

Hypothesis 2 which states that males will have more stereotypical attitudes than females on the identified measures was confirmed on two accounts. For female household tasks and female adult occupations males demonstrated more stereotypical attitudes than females. These results are well supported by previous studies which have found that males have a tendency to have more sexist attitudes towards adult occupations than females (Payne, 1981; Umstot, 1980; Cummings and Taebel, 1980; and Shepard and Hess, 1975). Lynn's (1969) theory that males have a greater attachment to their culturally defined role is also supported. By stereotyping female household tasks and female adult occupations, males can ensure themselves against having to actively participate in

"women's work". It also serves as a way of reminding women of their place in society.

For male household tasks and male adult occupations, there were no significant differences between male and female attitudes. These findings may be attributed to the subjects' observations that women are now crossing gender lines and participating in activities that were once labelled "male only" at a faster rate than men are participating in activities categorized as "female only". This trend may be explained by the fact that traditional female occupations, i.e. nurse, have a lower status attached to them than traditional male occupations, i.e. doctor. Therefore, when women aspire to occupations that are regarded as traditionally male, they increase their status, but if men aspire to occupations that are considered as traditionally female, they experience a loss in status (Hesselbart, 1977). This trend of behavior may be fundamental in establishing subjects' attitudes toward male adult occupations and male household activities.

No significant attitudinal difference between sexes was found regarding occupations deemed appropriate for both sexes. This finding may be attributed to the fact that all children know from their own experiences that in society, some occupations are performed equally by men and women, i.e. teachers.

The results from this study must be interpreted cautiously as further research in specified directions is needed to provide more knowledge of the effect of family structure on children's sex role attitudes. While family structure seemed to have an effect on children's attitudes toward male adult occupations, it is important to consider the

level of cognitive functioning of the subjects when assessing sex role attitudes.

Limitations

There were several limitations in this study that require attention. The sample itself posed a limitation because only children who were members of Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts were selected. Therefore, the results of this study can not be generalized to all children, but only to those who belong to a type of scouting organization. Due to the small sample size of subjects representing the divorced and remarried family structures, it was not feasible to implement a three-way analysis of variance to include the length of time spent in divorced and remarried family structures. Research has indicated that the length of time spent in a divorced family structure affects children's sex role attitudes, especially boys' attitudes (Hetherington et al. 1978). A larger number of male subjects in the sample would also have been more desirable. Another limitation was that the amount of time the children from divorced and remarried family structures spent with their noncustodial parent was not controlled for. The noncustodial parents could be major socialization agents in their children's lives and therefore influence their sex role attitudes. In order to receive more accurate background information about the subjects when the subjects are children, their parents must also be surveyed. Asking children what their parents do for a living is not a very reliable method of obtaining this information. In order to determine if different family structures have an influence on children's sex role attitudes, it is necessary to

also investigate the sex role attitudes of their parents. By including the sex role attitudes of the parents, the researcher can better determine if parents' sex role attitudes change according to their life situations and if children's sex role attitudes are a function of their parents' attitudes. A further limitation, and perhaps the most pertinent, was the researcher's lack of emphasis on the subjects' levels of cognitive functioning.

Conclusions and Implications for Further Research

The findings in this study have helped to shape the direction for further study in the area of the influence of family structure on children's sex role attitudes. This study has found that family structure alone does not have an astounding influence on children's sex role attitudes. Further study is needed using subjects who have reached their maximum cognitive potential in order to better understand the effects of family structure on sex role attitudes. Future studies need to control for the length of time that subjects spend in different types of family structures. They also need to study children and their parents simultaneously in order to determine if, in fact, parents in varied family structures are providing differentiated socialization practices. By including parents in the study, the researcher will also be able to obtain a more accurate picture of the families' socioeconomic background. This information would also provide pertinent variables to include in future research. Both custodial mothers and custodial fathers need to be included in future research in order to learn if they employ different socialization methods.

Further study in these new directions should provide needed knowledge about the extent to which family structure influences children's sex role attitudes. It should also provide a better understanding of the extent to which parents from different family structures utilize different socialization practices.

APPENDIX A

EAGLY-ANDERSON SEX ROLE EQUIVALENCE TEST

APPENDIX A

Household Tasks

Instructions: Here is a list of jobs that every family does in their house. For each question circle the answer which you think is most true. In this list FEMALES means girls and women and MALES means boys and men.

1.) Who should clean the house?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

2.) Who should mend the clothes?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

3.) Who should be in charge of the family's money?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

4.) Who should fix things when they get broken?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

5.) Who should mow the lawn?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

6.) Who should look after the children when they are sick?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

7.) Who should do the yard work?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

8.) Who should set the table?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

9.) Who should read to the children?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

10.) Who should take out the garbage?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

11.) Who should wash the car?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

12.) Who should wash and iron the clothes?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

13.) Who should make the beds?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

14.) Who should take the children to the doctor for check-ups?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

15.) Who should earn the money that supports the family?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

16.) Who should paint the house?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

17.) Who should do the family's food shopping?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

18.) Who should take the car to the garage to get repaired?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

19.) Who should teach the children how to play sports?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

20.) Who should cook the meals?

Only females/Mostly females/Both females and males/Mostly males/Only males

APPENDIX B

DERIVATION OF S.R.A. OCCUPATION KIT

APPENDIX B

Adult Occupations

Instructions: Listen to the description of each job then circle the answer which you think is most true.

1. Who should be sewing machine operators?

Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

2. Who should be fire fighters?

Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

3. Who should be airplane pilots?

Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

4. Who should be grade school teachers?

Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

5. Who should be nurses?

Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

6. Who should be store salespeople?

Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

7. Who should be train engineers?

Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

8. Who should be elevator operators?

Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

9. Who should be mail carriers?

Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

10. Who should be ballet dancers?

Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

11. Who should be writers?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men
12. Who should be carpenters?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men
13. Who should be librarians?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men
14. Who should be house cleaners?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men
15. Who should be secretaries?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men
16. Who should be plumbers?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men
17. Who should be football coaches?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men
18. Who should be restaurant cooks?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men
19. Who should be bus drivers?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men
20. Who should be ship captains?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men
21. Who should be airplane attendants?
Only women/Mostly women/Both women and men/Mostly men/Only men

APPENDIX C

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

APPENDIX C

Individual Data Sheet

- 1.) My parents are: (a) married (Circle the correct answer)
(b) separated
(c) divorced
(d) other
- 2.) My parents have been separated or divorced for:
(a) less than one year (d) more than four years
(b) one to two years (e) none of the above
(c) two to four years
- 3.) I live with:
(a) both my parents (d) my mother and my stepfather
(b) my mother only (e) my father and my stepmother
(c) my father only (f) someone else _____
- 4.) My father works as a _____
- 5.) My mother works as a _____
- 6.) My stepfather works as a _____
- 7.) My stepmother works as a _____
- 8.) There are _____ children in my family. _____ girls and _____ boys
- 9.) I am: (a) the oldest in my family (c) the youngest in my family
(b) in the middle

APPENDIX D

ANOVA TABLES

TABLE 5. Two-way Analysis of Variance of Family Structure and Sex on the Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test - Male Household Tasks

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	p
Main Effects	41.75	3	13.92	.72	.55
Family Structure	40.18	2	20.09	1.03	.36
Sex	.64	1	.64	.03	.86
Family Structure x Sex	13.43	2	6.72	.35	.71
Explained	64.00	5	12.80	.66	.66
Error	1946.49	100	19.47		
Total	2010.49	105	19.15		

TABLE 6. Two-way Analysis of Variance of Family Structure by Sex on the Eagly-Anderson Sex Role Equivalence Test - Female Household Tasks

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	p
Main Effects	172.11	3	57.37	3.28	.02
Family Structure	50.97	2	25.49	1.44	.29
Sex	109.44	1	109.44	6.25	.02
Family Structure x Sex	61.51	2	30.76	1.76	.18
Explained	222.33	5	44.47	2.54	.03
Error	1751.40	100	17.51		
Total	1973.74	105	18.80		

TABLE 7. Two-way Analysis of Variance of Family Structure and Sex on the derivation of the S.R.A. Occupation Kit - Male Adult Occupations

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	p
Main Effects	114.60	3	38.17	2.85	.04
Family Structure	114.25	2	57.12	4.26	.02
Sex	1.99	1	1.99	.15	.70
Family Structure x Sex	33.16	2	16.58	1.24	.30
Explained	135.45	5	27.10	2.02	.08
Error	1341.27	100	13.41		
Total	1476.73	105	14.06		

TABLE 8. Two-way Analysis of Variance of Family Structure and Sex on the derivation of the S.R.A. Occupation Kit - Female Adult Occupations

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	p
Main Effects	65.81	3	21.94	2.11	.10
Family Structure	2.28	2	1.14	.11	.90
Sex	62.82	1	62.82	6.03	.02
Family Structure x Sex	16.85	2	8.42	.80	.45
Explained	70.78	5	14.16	1.36	.25
Error	1042.06	100	10.42		
Total	1112.84	105	10.60		

TABLE 9. Two-way Analysis of Variance of Family Structure and Sex on the derivation of the S.R.A. Occupation Kit - Both Sexes Adult Occupations

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	p
Main Effects	41.35	3	13.78	2.75	.05
Family Structure	21.32	2	10.66	2.12	.13
Sex	16.67	1	16.67	3.32	.07
Family Structure x Sex	15.21	2	7.61	1.52	.23
Explained	57.39	5	11.48	2.29	.05
Error	502.02	100	5.02		
Total	559.41	105	5.33		

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