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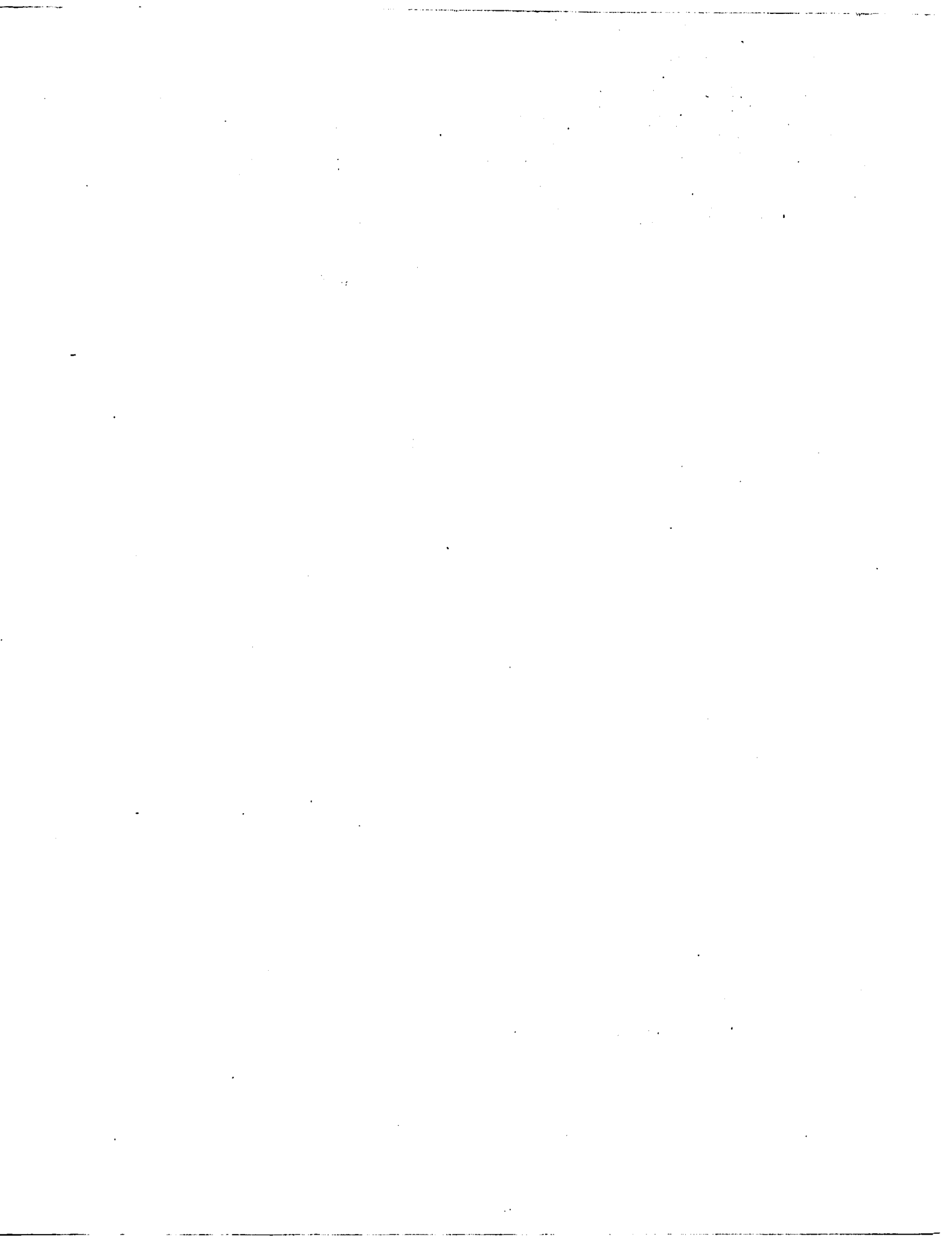
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**Gender and cohort differences in high school students' sex role
orientation: 1984-1987**

Beaver, Carolyn B., Ph.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1989

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GENDER AND COHORT DIFFERENCES
IN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' SEX
ROLE ORIENTATION: 1984-1987

by

Carolyn B. Beaver

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Greensboro

1989

Approved by


Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation

Adviser Rebecca M. Smith

Committee Members

Sarah M. Shoffner
Mildred B. Johnson
Vina R. Kiser

March 22, 1989

Date of Acceptance by Committee

March 22, 1989

Date of Final Oral Examination

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BEAVER, CAROLYN B., Ph. D. Gender and Cohort Differences in High School Students' Sex-Role Orientation: 1984-1987. (1989)
Directed by Dr. Rebecca M. Smith. 104 pp.

The purpose of this study was to examine teenage sex-role orientation by gender and cohort. A 24-item Likert-type scale was used to measure Sex-Role Orientation (SRO). This sample consisted of three high school cohort groups totaling 543 students, 355 female and 188 male, from a high school in one county in the central part of North Carolina in 1984, 1985, and 1987.

The hypothesis that males would be significantly more traditional in SRO than females was supported. Even though both males and females were found to be essentially nontraditional in orientation, an analysis of variance showed that males were significantly less nontraditional than females.

The hypothesis that high school cohorts would be more traditional across years 1984, 1985, and 1987 was rejected. An analysis of variance showed no significant differences between student cohorts. In fact, scores of both males and females tended to be in the direction of more nontraditional over time. The hypothesis that there would be an interaction of sex and time on SRO scores was rejected. No interaction was found.

An item analysis showed that there were more differences on certain items than the overall means revealed.

A factor analysis was computed separately for males and females. The hypothesis was supported that factors from these high school students' responses would differ from Scanzoni's 1975 dimensions from a representative adult sample and Tomeh's 1978

dimensions from college students. The three factors that emerged in this study were "wife-mother role," "husband-wife role," and "preparation of son and daughter for family life and work." Items that Tomeh and Scanzoni had grouped into a dimension called "problematic" ten years earlier no longer seemed to be problematic for the 1984, 1985, and 1987 high school students.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The support and help of a number of people have been essential in allowing me to complete this study. Special appreciation is offered to my major adviser, Dr. Rebecca M. Smith, Professor of Child Development and Family Relations, for generously sharing her knowledge, time, and support. Her words of encouragement and direction were gratefully appreciated. The direction of committee members Dr. Vira Kivett, Professor of Child Development and Family Relations; Dr. Sarah Shoffner, Assistant Professor of Child Development and Family Relations, and Dr. Mildred Johnson, Professor of Home Economics in Education and Business were particularly helpful and are acknowledged with gratitude. Special thanks goes to Dr. Grace Kissling, Assistant Professor of Mathematics, for statistical consultation.

In addition, I am grateful to the Davie County School System for allowing me to survey high school students. I am pleased to have had the support of Mr. Jack Ward, Superintendent of the County Schools, and Mr. John Norton, Principal of the high school.

Special words of gratitude go to Terry Hoyle,

English teacher, for his patience in the proofreading and typing of this manuscript. My appreciation also goes to Kathy Pegram, Sandy Fogg, and Barbara Allen for sharing their computer skills as well as words of encouragement.

And finally, to Tom and Tommy, my husband and son, my love and deep appreciation for their confidence in me and for their patience and willingness to assume extra family responsibilities. Without their support it would have been impossible for me to complete my doctoral program.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Gender identity appears to be a fairly routine matter for most children. However, learning role behavior may be more difficult, because role behavior norms change from time to time. Every society makes certain distinctions in the roles that are assigned to men and women. The expectations of how a person should act because she is female or he is male are called sex-related norms. Norms are the behaviors that society expects its members to carry out. A cluster of norms attached to a social position is what sociologists call a role (Maccoby, 1980).

It was the purpose of this study to add to the present base of sex-role knowledge by investigating the sex-role orientation of high school students. Sex-role orientation has been studied with college students and other adults more than with younger subjects (Brogan & Kutner, 1976; Scanzoni, 1975; Tomeh, 1978). The present study will help to fill a void that is present in literature by adding a study using adolescent subjects.

Sex roles, often called gender roles, are the behaviors that society assigns to boys and girls and

men and women. A sex role consists of the cluster of shared norms attached to the differing social positions of men and women. The norms for each sex relate to temperaments (what females and males are supposed to be like) as well as tasks (what males and females are supposed to do).

Sociologists increasingly are giving serious attention to the study of sex roles because the societal norms have changed. Individuals find themselves constantly confronted by an environment in which sex norms, expectations, and standards have to be discussed, clarified, or formed (Tomah, 1984). Much has been written in the past about how children learn their sex roles and what is expected of them at certain ages and how they are to act under various circumstances (Hartley, 1959; Kohlberg, 1966; Maccoby & Jaklin, 1973; O'Leary, 1977). A growing number of recent studies have focused on sex roles in the family structure and the part that sex role attitudes have played in affecting power within that structure (Pleck, 1976; Scanzoni & Fox, 1980; Scanzoni & Szinovacz, 1980). Scanzoni and Fox (1980) believe that sex role concepts are central to family studies as are the notions of class and race.

Sex roles can be classified as traditional or nontraditional according to division of labor.

Traditional sex roles are those roles which are based on a dichotomous conception of male versus female roles. This conception involves a continuum with differentiation and typing of sex roles on the basis of sex at one axis and lack of such a distinction at the other end of the continuum. Traditional sex roles are defined as those based on polar dichotomous conceptions of male roles versus female roles at one end of the continuum. At the other end of the continuum, nontraditional roles are undifferentiated and characterized by flexibility and role sharing (Brogan & Kutner, 1976; Chafe, 1972; Lipman-Blumen, 1973; Osmond & Martin, 1975; Rebecca et al, 1976; Tomeh, 1979). Exchange theory (Nye, 1979) would predict those who support the idea of traditional sex roles want the rewards (and are willing to accept the costs) associated with a division of labor that is regulated by gender. Exchange theory would claim that the freedom and choice in nontraditional roles would be both a reward and a cost.

According to the traditional conception, the male is the head of the family, the primary breadwinner and the one who holds most of the power in a family structure. Although the goal is a joint family effort for enhancing the husband's breadwinner role, his

occupational status is assumed to be superior to that of homemaker. He is assumed to be typically be older and more highly educated than his wife (Tomeh, 1978; Yogev, 1981). It is also assumed that the male's chief obligation is to provide economic support for the family.

The traditional wife's role is that of caretaker of the house and children. She is expected to put her husband's success goals above any personal career or occupational goals of her own. She is expected to be the nurturer and primary caretaker of the children. She is also expected to perform such household tasks as cooking meals, washing clothes, and cleaning house. The traditional family typically has been described as nuclear with two parents and children and a set of prescribed gender-differentiated roles for family members (Tomeh, 1978; Yogev, 1981). In nontraditional sex roles, those characterized by flexibility and role sharing between the sexes, ideally there is autonomy, freedom, and choice among family members (Tomeh, 1978; Yogev, 1981).

Tomeh (1978) examined male and female sex role attitudes of college students from a middle-sized university in Ohio. Results of the study showed, on the average, that college students, both male and female, had attitudes that were moderately

nontraditional. Yet, on almost all attitudinal items a significantly more modern response was elicited from women than men. The findings suggested that women favor a role-sharing model in which opportunities and responsibilities between the sexes are shared; whereas, men showed some resistance to this lifestyle.

Idealistically, the college men favored the nontraditional concept, but in reality they appeared unwilling to give up the rewards of their prestigious traditional male roles in order to take on such nontraditional roles as housekeeping and child care.

Pleck (1977) addressed this issue by stating that

men experience their jobs and themselves as worthwhile only through priding themselves on the hard work and personal sacrifice they are making to be breadwinners for their families. Accepting these hardships reaffirms their role as family providers and therefore as true men (p. 28).

Tomeh's (1978) finding may also be explained from a moral perspective stance. Kohlberg's (1981) studies conducted with male subjects emphasized that males' moral reasoning development is through an ethic of rights and rules measured against an ideal of perfection. The rules of traditional sex roles gives males the rights of authority and females the rights of being provided for. In nontraditional sex roles, the rules give each person equal rights. Females, appear to develop an ethic of care and responsibility measured

against an interconnecting web of relationships (Gilligan, 1982; Gilligan, Brown, & Rogers, 1988). Gilligan stated that decisions are made using the connection and influence on relationships as guidelines. This theory would explain that traditional sex roles should keep the connection and also should be concerned about care and responsibility in differentiated roles. Nontraditional sex roles would keep the connection through care and responsibility through equal roles. These theories may help to account for the fact that Tomeh found a difference between male and female sex role attitude responses.

A weakness of Tomeh's study was the use of only college students as the sample. College students are a fairly homogeneous population with respect to sex role norms (Tomeh, 1978). Tomeh acknowledged this weakness and suggested that sampling in a larger society that includes persons with heterogeneous background may reveal greater variation in degree of sex-role egalitarianism.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to add to the sex role literature by investigating the sex role attitudes of high school students, a group that has generally been neglected in empirical studies on sex roles. This research was expected to extend the findings about sex

role orientation studied by Brogan and Kutner (1977), Scanzoni (1975), and Tomeh (1978). The teenage females and males used in this research were expected to provide a more heterogeneous sample. The college sample used by Tomeh (1978) was relatively homogeneous. While Tomeh used data collected at only one point in time, this study examined an existing set of data collected by this researcher in 1984, 1985, and 1987. In order to achieve this purpose, three objectives were planned. One was to compare high school males and females on their views about sex roles. A second was to analyze differences in sex role orientation among student cohorts. The third objective was to assess the construct validity of the sex-role orientation instrument that Tomeh (1978) and Scanzoni (1975) had used by computing a factor analysis on the adolescent data.

High school students in the present study were children of parents who were teenagers during the 1960's, when social change was rapid and sex roles were being challenged by younger individuals. These students, who were born in the years 1967 through 1971, appeared to be facing progressively more conservative religious and political pressures than did their parents. With the seemingly increasing conservative social emphasis, it was expected that from 1984 to 1987

sex role scores would shift toward a more traditional pattern, with male scores. as Tomeh (1978) found, being more traditional than female scores. Era effect theories would predict that all people, regardless of their birth cohort, are affected by the strong cultural changes occurring in the current period (Cherlin, 1981; Elder, 1974).

Past studies by Ferber and Huber (1975), Hesselbart (1975), Meier (1972), Mischel (1974), Steinmann and Fox (1970), and Sterrett and Bollmann (1970) have presented evidence that males and females differ in sex role attitudes. If male and female scores differ from each other significantly, as they did in previous studies, then this study was expected to add further evidence that male and female sex role orientation is learned early, and almost certainly by adolescence.

Developmental theorists might build on this study by investigating sex role attitudes of preteens and even children to learn at which age or in which stage of development individuals acquire their sex role orientations. Not only was this research expected to provide important data on this sample, but it should provide useful data that could be used by theorists wishing to study sex role learning across the life cycle.

Assumptions of the Study

It was assumed that the teenagers in this study were typical of American teenagers from the Southeast. It was further assumed that teenagers have already formed sex role attitudes that can be measured by a sex role orientation scale (SRO).

Statement of the Hypotheses

The overall purpose of this study was to examine teenage sex role orientation. The hypotheses tested in this study are presented below.

H₁: High school-aged males will hold a significantly more traditional sex-role orientation than high school aged females.

Since Tomeh (1978) found that college males were more traditional than college females, it would seem feasible to assume that high school male and female scores would also differ, particularly since the literature suggested that sexual attitudes are learned at an early age. Social learning theory explains that boys are socialized more rigidly for male behavior than girls are for female behavior.

H₂: Each cohort of male and female high school students in the years 1984, 1985 and 1987 will tend to be more traditional in sex-role

orientation over time.

With the increasingly conservative trend in politics and religion, it is assumed that SRO scores will tend to become more traditional over time from 1984 to 1987 even though this is only a four-year period. Cultural context, according to social learning theory, is a reinforcer for behavior; therefore, cultural trends would be expected to influence sex role attitudes.

H₃: There will be an interaction of sex (2) and cohort (3) on sex role orientation, with male cohorts in the latter years becoming more traditional than female cohorts.

Males have consistently been more traditional in thought and behavior than females. Although it was hypothesized that females would tend to be more traditional over time, it was expected that they would be less so than males.

H₄: Factors in the sex-role orientation scale with high school students will differ from dimensions of a representative adult sample (Scanzoni, 1975) and a college sample (Tomeh, 1978).

Since there is a ten year time gap between the first two studies and the present study and since the samples are different, it seems reasonable to expect the factors in the present study to differ from Scanzoni's and Tomeh's dimensions. It would appear that items that were "problematic" for the 1978 groups might not be "problematic" for the high school groups.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Important changes have occurred both in family life and in the distribution of occupational roles in the United States in the last several years. Thornton and Freedman (1979) stated that while men continue to specialize primarily in occupational roles outside the home, married women have increasingly combined paid employment with traditional homemaker roles. Maret and Finlay (1984) agreed, citing evidence that indicates that working women in contemporary society still bear extensive responsibilities for care of the household and children.

Changing roles of men and women began to affect society noticeably in the 1960's and were sufficiently forceful to warrant scientific investigation by the early 1970's. Scanzoni and Fox (1980) and Yogev (1981) pointed out that there seemed to be a sparse number of articles devoted to sex roles during the 1950's and 1960's. In contrast, the 1970's witnessed a virtual torrent of sex-role studies, evidence of the growing interest in sex roles and the division of labor within the family structure. Scanzoni (1972) stated that the

issue of changing sex roles and potential impact for marital and family structure is a critical one , both theoretically and as a matter of policy.

Over the life cycle, empirical sex role orientation research has basically focused on college students and adults. To a considerable extent researchers have used female subjects exclusively (McBroom, 1984). Literature involving children and adolescents has basically focused more on the question of how boys and girls learn their sex-role preferences and behavior.

Theoretical Framework

Although explanations for sex typing have been proposed by psychoanalytic and cognitive developmental theorists, social learning is the theoretical framework for the present research (Mussen, Conger, Kagan, & Huston, 1984).

According to psychoanalytic theory, children learn sex typing through a process of identification with the same-sex parent that begins about four or five years of age. They internalize the masculine and feminine personality characteristics of that parent and adopt many of that parent's values and characteristics.

Cognitive development theorists propose that early patterns of sex-role learning are guided by general cognitive developmental changes. This view is based on

the fact that children acquire knowledge about sex stereotypes at a very young age, almost regardless of family environment. According to Kohlberg (1966), between 18 and 36 months, a child learns to categorize himself or herself as male or female. The development of gender identity is antecedent to processes of imitation that facilitate the acquisition of sex-role preferences and behaviors. According to Kohlberg, gender identity is extremely resistant to alteration.

Social learning theorists suggest that sex-role behavior is learned. They propose that boys and girls are reinforced and punished for different behaviors from early childhood and that children learn the expected roles for males and females by observing others (Mischel, 1970; O'Leary, 1977). Research has focused on the importance of parents as role models in the socialization of sex role attitudes for children (Benson, 1968; Helson, 1972; Lynn, 1962; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Tomeh, 1984; Yorburg, 1974), rather than using children and adolescents themselves as subjects.

This study was based on the social learning theory. It was assumed that adolescents have learned their sex roles through the context of family, school and culture.

Sex Role Development in Children

There is evidence that children learn about gender division of labor and about gender stratification at an early age. By age six children are able to articulate stereotypical expectations regarding appropriate and inappropriate behaviors for men and women (Crow, 1976; Scanzoni & Fox, 1980; Scheresky, 1977). At even younger ages, children manifest preferences for stereotyped sex-appropriate toys and activities in their play behaviors (Nadelman, 1974; O'Leary, 1977; Scanzoni & Fox, 1980).

Hartley (1959) suggested that during childhood, girls are allowed to exhibit a greater variability of sex-role behaviors than boys. According to Hartley, boys learn appropriate sex-role behavior through negative processes. Girls do not experience this pressure for conformity until puberty, which may account for the fact that males seem to hold more strongly to "traditional" sex-role attitudes than females.

Lamb's (1976, 1977) work emphasized the importance of the father's behavior in shaping sex-role behaviors of sons and daughters. Lamb suggested that by the time a child is two years old the father tends to withdraw from active participation with their daughters and

concentrate their attentions on the sons. Hoffman (1979) cited the impact that maternal employment has on sex-role development of children. Congruence or divergence between sex-role socialization in the home and in the childcare setting would influence sex-role orientation of children.

Sex Role Development in Adolescents

Leigh and Peterson (1986) stated that by the time they reach adolescence, children have a firmly developed sexual identity. They are quite familiar with common sex-role stereotypes that label human attributes, statuses, and behaviors as masculine or feminine, and they possess a sense of permanance of their sexual identity. Adolescents have developed the cognitive capacity to try out mentally and to make decisions about different kinds of behavioral styles. Douvan and Adelson (1966) pointed out, however, that teens actually have fewer sex-role choices than younger children. They are constrained to a far greater extent than previously in their lives to adopt a narrow range of sex-differentiated behaviors. Young men are expected to adopt behaviors and attitudes that are easily identified as masculine and to prepare themselves for a lifelong vocation (David and Brannon, 1976). Young women in adolescence are expected to

conform closely to the conventional feminine sex role, that is, to develop the interpersonal skills and personal characteristics needed for an active social life, which can lead to the main goal—courtship and marriage (Angrist, 1969).

Much of the research in the 1960's and 1970's on teen sex-role attitudes focused on their feelings and expectations about adult roles: whether to marry, whether to have children, whether to train for a career, and how to divide responsibilities within the home. However, researchers have generally neglected studying beliefs about sex roles with either adolescents or children.

Sex Role Development in Adult Males and Females

Robinson and Jedlicka (1982) studied change in sexual attitudes and behavior of college students from 1965 to 1980. They analyzed premarital sexual behavior and attitudes of students within the same university over an extended period of time, replicating studies done in 1965, 1970, and 1975. It was found that over the ten-year period there were fewer differences in attitudes and behavior between men and women in 1975 than in 1965. It was also found that the traditional double standard had been replaced by a new double standard. The new double standard was characterized by

greater restrictions imposed on the sexual behavior of others than on self. The researchers termed this phenomenon a "sexual contradiction."

Tomah (1978) examined female and male sex-role orientation with emphasis on the structural and attitudinal predictors of sex-role ideology. The data were based on a random sample of college students from one university. It was found that sex-role orientation based on nontraditional wife-mother, husband-father, and problematic husband-wife alterations roles elicited a significantly more "modern response" from females than from males. The findings suggested that women favored a role-sharing model in which opportunities and responsibilities between the sexes were shared, whereas men showed some resistance to this lifestyle. Tomah recognized that the study was from a fairly homogeneous population with respect to sex-role norms and advocated that additional research be done using both men and women at various levels in society to determine any continuing patterns in sex-role ideology.

Research has shown a female bias in sex-role orientation studies. In a review of sex-role research, Hochschild (1973) stated that there was little research on men in the family and still less on men outside it. Most traditional research has involved women, most of whom were middle-class white women who were housewives,

college students, and professional workers. Hochschild added that there was less research on lower-class women and upper-class women and almost nothing on single or black women.

Mason, Arber, and Czajka (1976) and Thornton and Freedman (1979) studied changes in women's sex-role attitudes over time. Mason et al. (1976) used data from five sample surveys taken between 1964 and 1974. The findings suggested that there was considerable movement toward more egalitarian role definitions in that decade, with such change occurring equally among higher and lower status women. Their analysis also showed that women's attitudes about their rights in the labor market were becoming more strongly related to their attitudes about their roles in the home and showed that educational attainment and employment were among the most important predictors of attitudes at a given point in time.

Thornton and Freedman (1979) also attested to this shift women made toward more egalitarian sex role attitudes in their 1962 through 1977 study. It was found that additional education, work for pay, and exposure to divorce were associated with shifts toward egalitarian attitudes, while additional births were associated with retaining traditional attitudes. When this study was continued to include data into the early

1980s. Thornton, Alwin, and Camburn (1983), found that the egalitarian sex roles for women continued with no evidence of slowing. Reports that there is a resistance to total elimination of sex role distinction was corroborated when several individual items did begin to show a traditional trend, especially in the area of division of household labor. Cherlin and Walters (1981) also reported egalitarianism did not increase as rapidly in the early 1980s as in early 1970s.

In their studies of professional women, Maret and Finlay (1984) and Yogev (1981) found that working women still bear extensive responsibilities for care of the household and children. Yogev stated that today's professional women were going through a process of role expansion. New responsibilities were being added without relinquishing old ones. Maret and Finlay found a variability and some decrease in the extent of home responsibilities among women in dual-earning families. They stated that as men and women approximate equality in the workplace, they will move toward more egalitarian sharing of domestic responsibilities.

There seems to be a high degree of agreement that men have more traditional and stereotyped sex-role views than women. Recent studies show that both males

and females take a moderate nontraditional position. Yet, within this moderation, the majority of the attitudinal items elicited a significantly more nontraditional response from females (Angrist, et al., 1977; Bayer, 1975; Parelius, 1975; Scanzoni, 1976; Tomeh, 1978). Comparisons of change among subgroups revealed that the reduction of traditionalism among women was greater than for men. As women were less traditional initially, the result was that there was an increase in the gap between males and females (McBroom, 1984).

There also seems to be agreement that there are age or period effects on sex role attitudes (Abrahams, Feldman & Nash, 1976; Mason & Bumpass, 1975; Spitze & Huber, 1980; Thornton & Freedman, 1979; Zey-Ferrell, Tolone, & Walsh, 1975). Glenn (1977) stated that an "age effect" is due to groups being at different points in the life course. This is also referred to as a developmental or maturation effect. A "period effect" is attributable to a specific social and cultural context, as in the "radical sixties", and presumably everyone is influenced to some degree. A third kind of effect, a "cohort effect", amounts to a period effect which is both intense and lasting for some cohort. In the case of sex-role orientation, most studies show

that with recency of time there is less traditionality among adults.

Recent evidence shows that persons are changing their sex-role preferences regarding sharp division of labor (Bayer, 1975; Parelius, 1975; Scanzoni, 1976). Increasing numbers of women and men are stating that women should have greater opportunities in the work place as compared to the past and that men should have greater responsibilities in the home.

Scanzoni (1978) concluded that the majority of American marriages remain traditional in the sense that the husband is considered the "head," while the wife is merely the "complement." Support for this conclusion is found among those studies cited previously, which indicated that when women are employed, they continue to perform the majority of household tasks (i.e., the "superwoman syndrome"). Scanzoni reported evidence showing that men, at least to some extent, are increasing their domestic involvement.

Scanzoni (1975) cited evidence that sex-role preferences vary with education. The more years of schooling people have, the more likely they are to hold nontraditional sex-role preferences.

Although evidence revealed that gender preferences gradually become less traditional, it is clear that men continue to be more traditional than women, and that

less-educated persons continue to be more traditional than the better educated (Holter, 1970; Sexton, 1979; Scanzoni & Fox, 1980). Even though sex-role attitudes have become more modern, studies suggest that actual household division of labor patterns have been changing less rapidly (Scanzoni & Fox, 1980), suggesting that perhaps attitudes and preferences have changed faster than actual behavior.

With the reports that egalitarianism in sex role attitudes is continuing but at a relatively slower rate, and that changes begin in childhood and adolescence, it would seem that this study of high school students sex role attitudes would be an important addition to the literature. The hypotheses that males would be more traditional than females, that there is a slow change toward a more traditional attitude and that males would be slowing more rapidly than females are supported by the current literature. Such a study could add useful data for the studying of the patterns of sex-role ideology today.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This study was designed to analyze an existing data set about the sex role orientation of male and female students in one consolidated high school in central North Carolina during the spring semesters of 1984, 1985 and 1987. The study was based on a factorial, ex post facto design (Cook & Campbell, 1979) with sex (male/female) and cohort (1984, 1985, and 1987) as the major independent variables and sex role orientation as the dependent variable. Permission to conduct this research was granted by the county superintendent and the school principal (See Appendix A). Students were also given the option to participate.

Subject Selection

Since students in this school were randomly assigned to classes and to teachers by computer, it was assumed that there was a representative group in each class. The English classes were divided into honors, college preparatory and non-college tracks. In order to assure representation by age and by special class assignment, five classes of one junior teacher and five

classes of college preparatory students for a total of eight classes surveyed each year.

English classes were chosen since each student was required to be enrolled in English, and because the students would represent a wide variety of socioeconomic backgrounds. Many parents of students were executives in, or were owners of, firms located in a large urbanized area. Other students in the school came from moderate income families, whose members were employed by various manufacturing companies in the county. Others resided on farms or came from families who were employed in surrounding textile mills.

Most students were native residents, but there was an influx of residents from various parts of the United States. Many workers at the manufacturing companies had been moved into the area from northern states.

Although all of the 543 subjects' grade level, age and sex were recorded, only the 1987 students were asked to state parents' occupations and educational status as well as other information on a demographic data sheet (Appendix B). The results substantiated the assumption that there would be socioeconomic variability but with a higher proportion of the upper income and education level than is found in the general population (see Table 1).

Of the 1987 group, 41 percent were males and

59 percent were females. Ninety percent were white and 10 percent were black. Eighty-five percent were of Protestant religious preference, while 11 percent were Catholic, 4 percent were Jewish and 1 percent other. Of the 16-year-olds in the sample, 14 percent were males and 17 percent were females. Twenty one percent of the males were 17 years old, while 31 percent of the females were 17. Five percent of the males were 18 and 11 percent of the females were 18 years old. Father's occupation was used as an indicator of socioeconomic status (SES). Fifty-five percent came from low professional SES, with 26% coming from moderate professional SES backgrounds. Three percent were manual/unskilled, 14 percent craft/skilled and 3 percent upper professional. This group was probably similar to the 1984 and 1985 groups and was probably representative of students in the Piedmont area of North Carolina who are located near, but not in, a metropolitan area.

Methods of Data Collection

The researcher secured permission from English teachers in each of the three years, to administer the sex-role orientation instrument during the first portion of each class period during one single day. The researcher personally distributed, explained, and collected the instruments.

Table 1

Frequency Distribution by Sex, Age, Race, Religious Preference and SES of the Sample: 1987

| N = 149 | | Number of Subjects | % of Sample |
|-----------------------------|--------|--------------------|-------------|
| <u>Sex by Age</u> | | | |
| Male: | 15 | 0 | 0 % |
| | 16 | 21 | 14 % |
| | 17 | 32 | 21 % |
| | 18 | 8 | 5 % |
| Total Males | | 61 | 41 % |
| Female: | 15 | 0 | 0 % |
| | 16 | 26 | 17 % |
| | 17 | 46 | 31 % |
| | 18 | 16 | 11 % |
| Total Females | | 88 | 59 % |
| | | | 100% |
| <u>Race by Sex</u> | | | |
| White: | Male | 55 | 37 % |
| | Female | 79 | 53 % |
| Total White | | 134 | 90 % |
| Black: | Male | 6 | 4 % |
| | Female | 9 | 6 % |
| Total Black | | 15 | 10 % |
| | | | 100% |
| <u>Religious Preference</u> | | | |
| Catholic: | | 16 | 11 % |
| Jewish: | | 6 | 4 % |
| Protestant: | | 126 | 85 % |
| Other | | 1 | 1 % |
| | | | 100% |

Table 1 Continued

Frequency Distribution by Sex, Age, Race, Religious Preference and SES of the Sample: 1987

| | Number of Subjects | % of Sample |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-------------|
| <u>SES (Father only)</u> | | |
| Manual/Unskilled | | |
| Male | 1 | 1 % |
| Female | 3 | 2 % |
| Total Manual/Unskilled | 4 | 3% |
| Craft/Skilled | | |
| Male | 9 | 6 % |
| Female | 12 | 8 % |
| Total Craft/Skilled | 21 | 14% |
| Low Professional | | |
| Male | 35 | 23 % |
| Female | 47 | 32 % |
| Total Low Professional | 82 | 55% |
| Moderate Professional | | |
| Male | 16 | 11 % |
| Female | 22 | 15 % |
| Total Moderate Professional | 38 | 26% |
| Upper Professional | | |
| Male | 0 | 0 % |
| Female | 4 | 3 % |
| Total Upper Professional | 4 | 3% |
| Unemployed | | |
| Male | 0 | 0 % |
| Female | 0 | 0 % |
| Total Unemployed | 0 | 0% |
| | | 100 % |

Instrument

A 24-item Likert-type scale (Tomeh, 1978) was used to measure sex-role orientation (see Appendix C). Although these items were first used by Osmond and Winters (1975), as a sex-role attitude scale, the instruments developed by Scanzoni (1975), Brogan and Kutner (1976), and Tomeh (1978) were variations of those original items. Tomeh's instrument, called Sex-Role Orientation (SRO) scale, was essentially developed from Scanzoni's (1975) Sex-Role Preference (SRP) scale. There was no clear differentiation between attitude, orientation, or preference across the various research reports.

Tomeh (1978) used three groupings of items that were called "dimensions" and labeled them "Nontraditional Wife-Mother Role," "Nontraditional Husband-Father Role" and "Problematic Husband-Wife Alterations." The SRO items were stated in nontraditional terminology because of the assumed changes in the sex-role norms. Tomeh assumed construct validity since the SRO was based on the SRP (Scanzoni, 1975) in which the three factors emerged (Scanzoni, 1975). Tomeh put 24 of the items from Scanzoni's 28 items into three dimensions, which were similar to his.

Tomeh also studied the predictors of SRO and found results similar to that of previous researchers. A

strong belief in the women's movement (Tavris, 1973), employment of married women (Hewer & Neubeck, 1964), and equal potential of men's and women's personality role behavior (Kammeyer, 1964) predicted a "nontraditional" position. Tomeh concluded that it may be cognitive consistency that explains the possibility of change from "traditional" to "nontraditional" when the ideology and the behavioral orientation begin to relate to each other.

Tomeh (1978) defended the use of the instrument with college students by stating that, based on role-theory literature, there appeared to be considerable support for the technique of measuring roles in terms of the norms that structure them. Tomeh stated that the items represented "roles which are considered intrinsic to marital and parental structural positions of the family" (p. 342).

The internal consistency of the sex role orientation measures was tested by correlating each item to the total score of a given scale (Pearson's r). Tomeh found it significant at the .001 level with a coefficient of reproducibility equal to .84 for the scale on "nontraditional wife-mother role," .85 for the scale on "nontraditional husband-father role," and .84 for the scale on "problematic husband-wife alterations role." Such correlation coefficients are considered to

be moderately high and acceptable for a measure of good reliability.

A Cronbach's Alpha on these high school males' and females' responses to the SRO in the present study, in each of the three years produced coefficients of .73 for the 1987 females, .72 for the 1987 males, .73 for the 1985 females, .71 for the 1985 males, .73 for the 1984 females, and .69 for the 1984 males. Such correlation coefficients are considered to be moderately high and acceptable for a measure of good reliability.

Reliability over time for this SRO instrument is questionable, since the items of the instrument had been changed by Tomeh to reflect the norms for greater validity. This may cause the instrument to lose reliability over time. Scanzoni (1979), however, used the instrument for his panel research comparing groups over a short time and found it to be reliable. Instruments that measure sex-role attitudes should give different scores over a long period since sex roles are not intrinsic. They are heavily influenced by changing societal norms.

The SRO scale was chosen for use with this sample of high school students for several reasons. It measures the construct of primary interest in this study, it takes little class time to administer, and it

allows the researcher to use a large number of subjects.

Method of Data Analysis

Analysis of Variance

To test Hypothesis I, a 2 (sex) x 3 (cohort) analysis of variance was used to test the effects of gender and cohort on SRO scores. The F test was used to test for significance at the .05 level.

Dependent Variable Coding

Tomeh's (1978) 24-item SRO scale was used to measure the dependent variable sex-role orientation. Each of the items was followed by a four-point response format ranked from "0" to "3" to measure orientation from very nontraditional to very traditional: 3 = definitely so (very nontraditional); 2 = probably so (nontraditional); 1 = probably not (traditional); 0 = definitely not (very traditional). Subjects were asked to circle the number after each item that most clearly described their beliefs.

Item Analysis

An item analysis was conducted to examine the item responses for change for cohort. Only the scale scores, in which 50% or more of the responses appeared were compared.

Factor Analysis

The SRO data from the high school sample was subjected to a factor analysis to see if factors that emerged differed from the three dimensions found in 1978 by Tomeh and in 1975 by Scanzoni. Only those factors from varimax rotation with an eigenvalue greater than 1 were accepted. To be retained, items had to have a factor loading of .40 or above.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this 2 (sex) x 3 (cohort) factorial design, the analysis of variance resulted in a significant sex effect, supporting Hypothesis 1, which stated that males would be more traditional than females in Sex-Role Orientation (SRO). Hypothesis 2, which stated that cohorts in 1984, 1985 and 1987 would be more traditional over time, was not supported. The results also showed that there was no interaction effect of sex and cohort on Sex Role Orientation; therefore, Hypothesis 3 was also rejected. A factor analysis showed that factors with high school students differed from dimensions of Tomeh (1978) and Scanzoni (1975), supporting Hypothesis 4.

Since the instrument for measuring the dependent variable, Sex-Role Orientation, was used in the exact form that Tomeh (1978) used it, the factor analysis was computed to compare the constructs in the middle 1970s with those in the middle 1980s. The differences revealed some important changes in ways sex-role orientation was viewed in these two time periods.

Although over all mean scores showed that there was no significant difference among cohorts in 1984, 1985 and 1987, an observation of individual item means showed there appeared to be differences among cohorts on certain individual items. Therefore, an item analysis was conducted to trace these changes. The results presented here describe these three analyses: (a) analysis of variance of SRO for sex by cohort, (b) item analysis for change in SRO among cohorts, and (c) factor analysis of the items for the entire high school sample.

Sex-Role Orientation for Sex by Time

Male-Female Differences in SRO

High school-aged males were hypothesized to hold a significantly more traditional Sex-Role Orientation than high school-aged females. This hypothesis was supported at the .05 level, $F(1,537) = 50.57$ (see Table 2). The mean score was 53.33 for females and 51.06 for males when the scores for all years were combined (see Table 3).

Sex-Role Orientation was measured on a continuum of traditionality with a range of scores from 0 - 72 for 24 items. For better interpretation of the results, this range was divided into four categories of traditionality: (a) very traditional, 0 - 17, (b) traditional, 18 - 35, (c) nontraditional, 36 - 53, (d)

Table 2

Analysis of Variance of SRO for Sex by Cohort: Total Group

| Source | SS | df | MS | F | p-Value |
|---------------------|----------|-----|---------|-------|---------|
| Main effects | | | | | |
| Sex (A) | 2411.63 | 1 | 2411.63 | 50.57 | .0001 |
| Time (B) | 190.00 | 2 | 95.00 | 1.99 | .1374 |
| Interactions | | | | | |
| A x B | 72.76 | 2 | 36.38 | .76 | .4669 |
| Residual | 25610.17 | 537 | 47.69 | | |
| Total | 28164.21 | 542 | 51.96 | | |

*p < .05

Table 3

Means of Responses to Sex Role Orientation Items for
Sex and by Year

| | 1984 | 1985 | 1987 | Total |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Males | 50.30* | 51.34* | 51.34* | 51.06* |
| | n = 50 | n = 77 | n = 61 | n = 188 |
| Females | 54.67 | 54.98 | 56.85 | 55.33 |
| | n = 129 | n = 138 | n = 88 | n = 355 |
| Total | 53.45 | 53.67 | 54.60 | |
| | N = 179 | N = 215 | N = 149 | N = 543 |

* $p < .05$

very nontraditional, 54 - 72. The mean scores for both males and females were in the nontraditional category. The appropriate description of the results of the analysis of variance then, was that the males were significantly less nontraditional than females on SRO. Not only were the males significantly less nontraditional than females when all years were combined, this finding held true for each of the three cohorts tested: 1984, 1985, and 1987.

Differences in SRO for Cohorts, 1984, 1985, and 1987

Male and female high school students combined were hypothesized to become more traditional in Sex-Role Orientation for the cohorts, 1984, 1985, and 1987. When the analysis of variance was computed, the obtained value of $F(2,537) = 1.99$ did not exceed the critical value of $F(2,537) = 3.01$ (refer to Table 2). Therefore, the hypothesis was not accepted. There was no significant change toward a more traditional Sex-Role Orientation between cohorts of 1984 to 1987. The mean scores for each year were similar and the variance was small. Two-thirds of the sample scored in the nontraditional half of the traditionality continuum in each of the three years (refer to Table 3).

Interaction of Sex by Cohort on SRO

The sex by cohort analysis of variance showed no interaction effects (refer to Table 2). Although it

was hypothesized that male cohorts would show more traditionality across the years, this was not accepted. The obtained value of $F(1,537) = 0.76$ did not exceed the critical value of $F(1,537) = 3.86$. Although the males were significantly more traditional than females in each year, there was no one year in which males were more traditional.

Since an analysis of variance uses only mean scores of all 24 items per subject, there was a possibility that variation among the items was not truly represented by the mean scores. Therefore, certain item means and the percentage of responses in each of the response scale scores were examined to see if there was a trend that did not show up in the mean scores. An item analysis was computed and the results are presented in the next section.

Change in Traditionality in SRO Across Sex and Cohort: Item Analysis

An item analysis was conducted in order to trace where the differences in Sex-Role Orientation occurred for the cohorts between 1984 and 1985, and between 1985 and 1987. Although total mean scores for all 24 items showed no significant differences in SRO among these cohorts, mean scores for individual items appeared to be different (see Table 4). The mean scale scores and standard deviations for each item are shown in Table 4

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations of Responses to SRO Items: Cohort by Sex

| Items | Total Mean (SD) | | 1984 | | 1985 | | 1987 | |
|-------|------------------|----------------|------------------|--|------------------|--|-----------------|--|
| | Females N=355 | Males N=188 | Females N=129 | Males N=50 | Females N=138 | Males N=77 | Females N=88 | Males N=61 |
| 1 | 3.0(.181) | 2.9(.326) | 3.0(.211) | 2.9(.303) | 3.0(.146) | 2.9(.375) | 3.0(.183) | 2.9(.277) |
| 2 | 2.0(.731) | 2.0(.693) | 1.9(.645) | 2.0(.533) | 2.0(.783) | 2.1(.739) | 2.1(.751) | 2.0(.752) |
| 3 | 2.4(.724) | 2.3(.718) | 2.3(.762) | 2.3(.745) | 2.5(.675) | 2.4(.693) | 2.5(.726) | 2.3(.733) |
| 4 | 1.9(1.064) | 1.3(1.02) | 1.7(1.137) | 1.3(.970) | 1.8(.988) | 1.4(.997) | 2.1(1.026) | 1.3(1.101) |
| 5 | 2.2(.904) | 2.1(.987) | 2.2(.914) | 2.2(.857) | 2.2(.905) | 1.9(1.038) | 2.2(.897) | 2.2(1.019) |
| 6 | 2.2(.734) | 2.2(.733) | 2.2(.678) | 2.2(.584) | 2.1(.759) | 2.2(.830) | 2.2(.775) | 2.0(.706) |
| 7 | 2.4(.685) | 1.9(.841) | 2.3(.707) | 1.8(.808) | 2.4(.664) | 1.9(.858) | 2.5(.678) | 2.0(.846) |
| 8 | 1.7(.992) | 1.7(.931) | 1.7(.971) | 1.7(.917) | 1.7(1.013) | 1.7(.904) | 1.8(.997) | 1.7(.989) |
| 9 | 2.8(.461) | 2.8(.395) | 2.8(.474) | 2.8(.438) | 2.8(.456) | 2.9(.375) | 2.9(.451) | 2.8(.388) |
| 10 | 2.3(.629) | 2.1(.758) | 2.3(.554) | 2.1(.652) | 2.2(.668) | 2.1(.713) | 2.4(.664) | 2.0(.894) |
| 11 | 2.4(.671) | 2.4(.656) | 2.5(.613) | 2.4(.530) | 2.3(.715) | 2.4(.733) | 2.5(.661) | 2.5(.648) |
| 12 | 2.5(.559) | 2.4(.630) | 2.5(.586) | 2.3(.513) | 2.5(.530) | 2.4(.644) | 2.6(.550) | 2.5(.697) |
| 13 | 2.6(.725) | 2.4(.830) | 2.5(.762) | 2.4(.749) | 2.6(.682) | 2.5(.719) | 2.6(.738) | 2.3(1.006) |
| 14 | 2.9(.416) | 2.6(.664) | 2.8(.470) | 2.5(.505) | 2.9(.376) | 2.6(.715) | 2.9(.391) | 2.6(.718) |
| 15 | 1.9(.966) | 1.9(.919) | 1.9(.911) | 1.8(.889) | 1.8(1.008) | 1.8(.961) | 2.0(.982) | 1.9(.903) |
| 16 | 2.2(1.015) | 1.9(1.070) | 2.2(1.021) | 1.8(.932) | 2.1(1.007) | 1.8(1.169) | 2.2(1.022) | 2.2(1.008) |
| 17 | 2.0(.743) | 2.0(.723) | 2.0(.780) | 1.9(.707) | 2.1(.720) | 2.0(.698) | 2.1(.721) | 1.9(.772) |
| 18 | 2.5(.741) | 2.0(.953) | 2.3(.853) | 2.0(.948) | 2.5(.697) | 2.1(.908) | 2.7(.554) | 2.0(1.023) |
| 19 | 1.7(.873) | 1.7(.961) | 1.8(.873) | 1.8(.873) | 1.6(.873) | 1.7(.961) | 1.6(.853) | 1.5(1.026) |
| 20 | 2.0(.808) | 1.9(.886) | 2.0(.824) | 1.8(.782) | 2.1(.765) | 2.0(.880) | 2.0(.857) | 1.9(.974) |
| 21 | 2.3(.703) | 2.1(.688) | 2.4(.671) | 2.1(.712) | 2.3(.718) | 2.2(.750) | 2.3(.730) | 2.2(.583) |
| 22 | 2.2(1.149) | 1.9(1.092) | 2.2(1.097) | 1.6(1.025) | 2.0(1.202) | 2.0(1.124) | 2.3(1.126) | 2.0(1.088) |
| 23 | 2.6(.653) | 2.2(.887) | 2.6(.660) | 2.1(.735) | 2.6(.637) | 2.2(.922) | 2.6(.673) | 2.1(.963) |
| 24 | 2.7(.567) | 2.5(.727) | 2.6(.606) | 2.5(.503) | 2.7(.592) | 2.3(.865) | 2.8(.441) | 2.6(.662) |
| | | | | 1984 Total Mean(SD) 53.45(6.94) | | 1985 Total Mean(SD) 53.67(7.20) | | 1987 Total Mean(SD) 54.60(7.53) |

* Scale Score: 0 = Very Traditional; 1 = Traditional; 2 = Nontraditional; 3 = Very Nontraditional

for sex by cohort. The response scale was this: 0 = very traditional, 1 = traditional, 2 = nontraditional, and 3 = very nontraditional.

The mean scale score for the majority of the items for males and females in all three years was in the nontraditional (2) or very nontraditional (3) category. Even so, the mean scale score for certain items was in the traditional category, particularly for males. In fact, 8 of the 24 items (4, 7, 8, 15, 16, 19, 20, and 22) had a mean scale score in the traditional category for males; whereas, only 4 of the 24 items (4, 8, 15, and 19) had a traditional mean scale score for females. This difference between males and females held true for each year.

Another way to analyze the item responses for change over time was to inspect the percentage of responses which were given for each of the scale scores. The decision was made to compare only the scale scores in which 50% or more of the responses appeared. Since only in scale scores of 2 (nontraditional) and 3 (very nontraditional) were there 50% or more of the responses, only these two scale scores are shown in the tables. Table 5 includes the female responses and Table 6 shows the male responses. (See Appendix C for all item descriptions. Also see

Table 5

Item Percentages of Nontraditional and Very Nontraditional
SRO Responses by Year: Females

| | | 1984 | | 1985 | | 1987 | |
|--------------|----|-------------|------------|-------------|------------|-------------|------------|
| Responses | | Prob. So | Def. So | Prob. So | Def. So | Prob. So | Def. So |
| Values | | 2* | 3** | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| <u>Items</u> | 1 | 4.7 % | 95.3 % | 2.2 % | 97.8 % | 3.4 % | 96.6 % |
| | 2 | 65.1 % | 14.7 % | 50.0 % | 27.5 % | 45.5 % | 35.2 % |
| | 3 | 36.4 % | 48.8 % | 31.9 % | 59.4 % | 28.4 % | 64.8 % |
| | 4 | 24.8 % | 32.6 % | 26.8 % | 33.3 % | 28.4 % | 47.7 % |
| | 5 | 27.9 % | 50.4 % | 36.2 % | 45.7 % | 31.8 % | 48.9 % |
| | 6 | 53.5 % | 32.6 % | 47.8 % | 33.3 % | 43.2 % | 39.8 % |
| | 7 | 47.3 % | 43.4 % | 46.4 % | 46.4 % | 34.1 % | 58.0 % |
| | 8 | 32.6 % | 24.8 % | 30.4 % | 28.3 % | 26.1 % | 33.0 % |
| | 9 | 16.3 % | 82.2 % | 10.9 % | 67.0 % | 14.8 % | 83.0 % |
| | 10 | 59.7 % | 38.0 % | 56.5 % | 34.8 % | 50.0 % | 44.3 % |
| | 11 | 37.2 % | 58.1 % | 43.5 % | 44.9 % | 36.4 % | 56.8 % |
| | 12 | 48.1 % | 48.8 % | 44.9 % | 53.6 % | 33.0 % | 65.9 % |
| | 13 | 25.6 % | 62.8 % | 23.2 % | 67.4 % | 15.9 % | 71.6 % |
| | 14 | 9.3 % | 86.8 % | 6.5 % | 91.3 % | 5.7 % | 93.2 % |
| | 15 | 43.4 % | 25.6 % | 37.0 % | 29.0 % | 28.4 % | 37.5 % |
| | 16 | 23.3 % | 52.7 % | 31.2 % | 44.2 % | 26.1 % | 53.4 % |
| | 17 | 53.5 % | 24.0 % | 56.5 % | 27.5 % | 54.5 % | 28.4 % |
| | 18 | 30.2 % | 51.9 % | 29.7 % | 61.6 % | 21.6 % | 73.9 % |
| | 19 | 47.3 % | 22.5 % | 42.8 % | 15.2 % | 42.0 % | 13.6 % |
| | 20 | 44.2 % | 31.0 % | 50.0 % | 30.4 % | 37.5 % | 34.1 % |
| | 21 | 47.3 % | 45.0 % | 46.4 % | 44.9 % | 45.5 % | 43.2 % |
| | 22 | 13.2 % | 60.5 % | 17.4 % | 52.2 % | 6.8 % | 68.2 % |
| | 23 | 27.9 % | 64.3 % | 28.3 % | 65.2 % | 25.0 % | 67.0 % |
| | 24 | 30.2 % | 65.1 % | 23.2 % | 73.2 % | 19.3 % | 79.5 % |

N = 355

* 2 = Nontraditional response category

* * 3 = Very nontraditional response category

Table 6

Item Percentages of Nontraditional and Very Nontraditional
SRO Responses by Year: Males

| Responses | 1984 | | 1985 | | 1987 | | |
|--------------|-------------|------------|-------------|------------|-------------|------------|--------|
| | Prob. So | Def So. | Prob. So | Def. So | Prob. So | Def. So | |
| Values | 2* | 3** | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | |
| <u>Items</u> | 1 | 10.0 % | 90.0 % | 10.4 % | 88.3 % | 8.2 % | 91.8 % |
| | 2 | 72.0 % | 16.0 % | 57.1 % | 27.3 % | 27.3 % | 21.3 % |
| | 3 | 34.0 % | 50.0 % | 36.4 % | 51.9 % | 39.3 % | 44.3 % |
| | 4 | 34.0 % | 10.0 % | 29.9 % | 14.3 % | 19.7 % | 19.7 % |
| | 5 | 36.0 % | 44.0 % | 28.6 % | 40.3 % | 29.5 % | 49.2 % |
| | 6 | 64.0 % | 26.0 % | 37.7 % | 45.5 % | 60.7 % | 23.0 % |
| | 7 | 44.0 % | 20.0 % | 41.6 % | 26.0 % | 49.2 % | 29.5 % |
| | 8 | 30.0 % | 22.0 % | 29.9 % | 23.4 % | 29.9 % | 26.2 % |
| | 9 | 14.0 % | 84.0 % | 10.4 % | 88.3 % | 18.0 % | 82.0 % |
| | 10 | 64.0 % | 22.0 % | 61.0 % | 24.7 % | 45.9 % | 32.8 % |
| | 11 | 58.0 % | 40.0 % | 32.5 % | 55.8 % | 36.1 % | 59.0 % |
| | 12 | 64.0 % | 34.0 % | 54.5 % | 41.6 % | 31.1 % | 57.4 % |
| | 13 | 38.0 % | 50.0 % | 28.6 % | 61.0 % | 21.3 % | 59.0 % |
| | 14 | 50.0 % | 50.0 % | 28.6 % | 66.2 % | 26.2 % | 67.2 % |
| | 15 | 56.0 % | 20.0 % | 37.7 % | 28.6 % | 42.6 % | 26.2 % |
| | 16 | 40.0 % | 24.0 % | 22.1 % | 37.7 % | 31.1 % | 49.2 % |
| | 17 | 62.0 % | 16.0 % | 59.7 % | 22.1 % | 55.7 % | 21.3 % |
| | 18 | 36.0 % | 36.0 % | 33.8 % | 39.0 % | 26.2 % | 39.3 % |
| | 19 | 40.0 % | 24.0 % | 31.2 % | 24.7 % | 44.3 % | 16.4 % |
| | 20 | 54.0 % | 16.0 % | 46.8 % | 28.6 % | 49.2 % | 26.2 % |
| | 21 | 62.0 % | 24.0 % | 53.2 % | 33.8 % | 73.8 % | 23.0 % |
| | 22 | 32.0 % | 24.0 % | 22.1 % | 46.6 % | 27.9 % | 42.6 % |
| | 23 | 52.0 % | 30.0 % | 31.2 % | 48.1 % | 36.1 % | 44.3 % |
| | 24 | 46.0 % | 54.0 % | 31.2 % | 53.2 % | 23.0 % | 70.5 % |

N = 188

* 2 = Nontraditional response category

** 3 = Very nontraditional response category

Appendix Tables D-1, D-2, D-3, D-4, D-5, and D-6 for all four of the scale score percentages.)

The outcome of the item analysis is presented first by showing all the items in which the largest percentage of responses changed across time from nontraditional (2) to very nontraditional (3). The second presentation shows all the items in which the largest percentages changed across time in the opposite direction, from very nontraditional (3) back to nontraditional (2). Some items changed in both directions across cohorts. These switches are also shown by sex.

More Nontraditional in SRQ for Cohort

Females in 1987 were more nontraditional than females were in 1984 or 1985 on 12 items (1, 3, 7, 9, 12, 13, 14, 16, 18, 22, 23, and 24). The percentage of responses in the no. 3 (very nontraditional) response category on these items in 1987 ranged from 53.4% to 96.6% (see Table 5). The content of these items concerned issues about getting ahead in a job, working if the family needed the money or if it made her happy, and both husband and wife caring for ill children.

Males in 1987 were more nontraditional than males were in 1984 on six items (1, 11, 12, 14, 21, and 24). The percentage of responses in the no. 3 category on these items in 1987 ranged from 57.4 percent to 91.8

percent (refer to Table 6). The content of these items concerned preparation of children for family and work and dealing with women getting ahead in their job.

On only four of these items (1, 12, 14, and 24) did males and females both move into the very nontraditional response category in 1987. Three of these items dealt with work. The highest percentage of responses for both men and women was for item no. 1, which stated that men and women should share in decisions about major items.

Less Nontraditional in SRO for Cohort

Females in 1987 were less nontraditional (more traditional) than females in 1984 or 1985 on seven items (2, 5, 6, 10, 11, 17, and 20) (refer to Table 5). The content of these items concerned children. The highest percentages had occurred in 1985 for items 17 and 20, which meant that there were fluctuations in how the females responded on these items.

Males in 1987 were less nontraditional than males in 1984 or 1985 on items (2, 3, 6, 9, 10, 13, 15, 17, 20, and 23) (refer to Table 6). Seven of the items dealt with children. The highest percentages had occurred in 1984 for items 2, 6, 10, 15, 17, 20, and 23. The highest percentages had occurred in 1985 for items 3, 9, 13, and 15, which meant that the responses fluctuated among cohort.

Males and females alike were more traditional in 1987 than their counterparts in 1984 on five items (2, 6, 10, 17, and 20). All five of them dealt with children.

Factor Structure for Sex-Role Orientation

It was predicted that there would be a difference between the composition of factors in the Sex-Role Orientation scale with high school students and the factors found with a representative adult sample (Scanzoni, 1975) and the dimensions used with a college sample (Tomeh, 1978). The objective was to factor analyze the scores on Sex-Role Orientation for a high school sample and to examine the factors extracted from both males and females to see how they compared with the adult sample and the college sample. Scanzoni (1975) planned three dimensions: Dimension I, "Wives' Role"; Dimension II, "Husbands' Role," and Dimension III, "Mothers' Role." There was a total of 28 items (see Appendix table E-1). Each dimension was factor analyzed. Two factors emerged in Dimension I: "Traditional Wife Role" (TW) and "Wife Self-Actualization" (SA). Three factors emerged in Dimension II: "Problematic Husband Alterations" (PHA), "Institutionalized Equality" (IE), and "Traditional Husband Role" (TH). Two factors emerged for Dimension

III: "Religious Legitimation of Mother Role"(RLM) and "Traditional Mother Role"(TM).

Tomeh (1978) grouped most of Scanzoni's items into these three dimensions: Dimension I, "Nontraditional Wife-Mother Role"(NWM); Dimension II, Nontraditional Husband-Father Role"(NHF) and Dimension III, "Problematic Husband-Wife Alterations"(PHWA) (see Appendix table E-2). Tomeh used only 24 of Scanzoni's items and restated all in the nontraditional form.

The purpose of factor analysis is to gain a measure of construct validity. That is, if an instrument measures what it claims, then grouped items should be measuring the same construct. Since three dimensions were used in Scanzoni's (1975) and Tomeh's (1978) study, three factors were specified for these 24 items in this factor analysis.

The type of factor analysis utilized in this study was principal factoring with rotations using the orthogonal varimax technique (Nie et al., 1970). The factor matrix was rotated twice through varimax rotation with freedom for factors to emerge as long as the eigenvalues exceeded 1. Only the items with a factor loading of .40 or above were retained and used to identify the factors.

Initially, six factor analyses were performed, one for each sex by year. The resulting structures,

however, were meaningless and not interpretable since there was no consistency across cohorts. This lack of consistency was probably due to the small sample size for each sex by cohort combination. When the factor analysis was run for all males and then for all females separately, 15 items grouped into three common factor clusters for females and 21 items grouped in the three factors for males. The fact that females did not respond similarly on nine items indicates the extent to which females vary in their responses. Males, on the other hand, had only three items which failed to meet the minimum loading coefficient of .40. The fact that 21 items loaded on at least one of the three factors indicates they were more similar in their sex-role views.

Factor analysis results indicated that the structure of Sex-Role Orientation for high school males and females was similar. The first common factor was a cluster of items dealing with the role of the wife and mother. This cluster was identified as "Nontraditional Wife-Mother Role," since subjects tended to respond in a nontraditional manner on these items. The second factor reflected the importance a parent places on the preparation of a son or daughter for both family life and work and was labeled "Preparation of Son/Daughter for Family Life and Work." The third factor identified

a set of items that referred to the role of the husband and wife in a family and was named "Nontraditional Husband-Wife Role" since subjects again tended to respond in a nontraditional manner.

Factor I: Nontraditional Wife-Mother Role

Eleven items (4, 7, 10, 12, 14, 17, 18, 20, 21, 23, 24) loaded unambiguously for males on the first factor "Nontraditional Wife-Mother Role." Six had coefficients in excess of .50, and five had loadings between .40 and .49. Only one item (no. 1) failed to meet the loading criterion (see Table 7). All items that loaded on this factor for females were included in the factor for males. The three additional items (10, 20, 21), which loaded for males, but not for females, dealt more with the males' view about children of a working mother.

For females, eight items (4, 7, 12, 14, 17, 18, 23, 24) loaded unambiguously on this same factor (see Table 7). Five had loadings in excess of .50, and three had loadings between .40 and .49. Five other items (1, 3, 13, 15, 20) loaded on Factor I but failed to meet the loading criterion (.40) (see Appendix Table E-3). All 8 items in Factor I for females were the same as 8 of the 11 items for males.

Of the variance (30.5%) explained by all three factors for females, 15.5% was explained by Factor I.

Table 7

Factor I: Nontraditional Wife-Mother Role: Males and Females

| Orig. No. | Item | Item Loadings | | Communi- nality | | Mean | |
|-------------------|---|-------------------------|-----|--------------------|-----|------|-----|
| | | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| 7 | A mother of young children may want to work if it makes her personality happy. | .65 | .60 | .46 | .57 | 1.9 | 2.4 |
| 21 | A married woman's greatest satisfaction comes through a combination of family and work. | .58 | | .41 | | 2.1 | |
| 20 | A married man should be willing to have a smaller family so that his wife can work if she wants to. | .55 | | .42 | | 1.9 | |
| 18 | A working mother can establish just as warm and secure relationship with her children as a mother who does not work. | .53 | .49 | .37 | .24 | 2.0 | 2.5 |
| 10 | A working mother may want to postpone having children in order to increase her opportunities in life. | .51 | | .38 | | 2.1 | |
| 14 | Qualified women who seek positions of authority should be given such positions as equally qualified men. | .50 | .43 | .28 | .22 | 2.6 | 2.9 |
| 24 | If a woman works, she should try to get ahead the same way a man should. | .46 | .50 | .24 | .27 | 2.5 | 2.7 |
| 12 | A mother of young children may want to work if the family needs the money. | .45 | .52 | .25 | .29 | 2.4 | 2.5 |
| 23 | As a matter of principle, a man and a woman living together should share equally in housework. | .45 | .46 | .26 | .28 | 2.2 | 2.6 |
| 4 | A wife should be able to take a job which requires her to be away from home overnight while the husband takes care of the children. | .43 | .63 | .32 | .42 | 1.3 | 1.9 |
| 17 | A wife may want to work even if it sometimes inconveniences her husband and children temporarily. | .42 | .62 | .24 | .40 | 2.0 | 2.0 |
| <u>Eigenvalue</u> | | <u>Pct. of Variance</u> | | <u>Cum. Pct.</u> | | | |
| M F | | M F | | M F | | | |
| 3.40 3.72 | | 14.2 15.5 | | 14.2 15.5 | | | |

About the same amount of total variance (30.7%) was explained for the males with 14.2% explained by Factor I. When items which loaded on this factor for females were compared to males, the female mean score was higher (more nontraditional) for each item.

Factor II: Preparation of Son/Daughter for Family Life and Work

Males had four unambiguous items (2, 6, 11, 15) on Factor II, "Preparation of Son/Daughter for Family Life and Work," three with coefficients above .50 and one between .40 and .49 (see Table 8). Item 5 was the only item failing to meet the loading criterion. All items in this factor for females were also in the factor for males. There appears to be no explanation for the fourth item (no. 15) for males.

Factor II explained 9.4% of the variance for males and 9.1% of the variance for females. On the three similar items for males and females the mean scores were the same.

For females, the second factor had three items (2, 6, 11), which loaded unambiguously, all with coefficients above .50 (see Table 8). These items all specified preparation for family life and work for sons by mother, daughter by mother, and daughter by father. Since there was no item specifying preparation for sons by father for work and family, it is not known where

Table 8

Factor II: Preparation of Son/Daughter for Family Life
and Work: Males and Females

| Orig. No. | | Item Loadings | | Communi- nality | | Mean | |
|--------------|--|-------------------|------|-------------------------|-----|------------------|------|
| | | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| 6 | One of the most important things a mother can do for her son is to prepare him for both family and work. | .75 | .89 | .62 | .80 | 2.2 | 2.2 |
| 11 | One of the most important things a mother can do for her daughter is to prepare her for both family life and work. | .73 | .81 | .54 | .66 | 2.4 | 2.4 |
| 2 | One of the most important things a father can do for his daughter is to prepare her for a working life and for a family. | .72 | .82 | .56 | .68 | 2.0 | 2.0 |
| 15 | A married man should realize that his wife's career may interfere with his career. | .40 | | .20 | | 1.9 | |
| | | <u>Eigenvalue</u> | | <u>Pct. of Variance</u> | | <u>Cum. Pct.</u> | |
| | | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| | | 2.25 | 2.19 | 9.4 | 9.1 | 23.6 | 24.6 |

such an item would have loaded. Only one item (no. 21) failed to meet the loading criterion. These three items were like three of the four items included in Factor II for males.

Factor III: Nontraditional Husband/Wife Role

Examination of the last factor shows that males had five items (8, 9, 16, 19, 22) that loaded unambiguously on the "Nontraditional Husband-Wife Role" factor, with two items (3, 13) failing to meet the loading criterion (see Table 9). Of the items retained, two had loading coefficients above .50 and three between .40 and .49 (see Table 9). The additional item (9) which loaded for males dealt with the responsibility of the husband to his wife and children being more than economic. Females had four items (8, 16, 19, 22) that loaded unambiguously on the "Nontraditional Husband-Wife Role" factor, three with coefficients above .50 and only one between .40 and .49 (see Table 9). Three items (10, 5, 9) did not meet the loading criteria. These four items were the same as four of the five which loaded on Factor III for males.

Factor III explained 7.9% of the variance for males for a total variance explained for all three factors of 30.7%. This factor explained only 5.9% of the variance for females, however the total for all

Table 9

Factor III: Nontraditional Husband-Wife Role: Males

| Orig. No. | Item | Item Loadings | | Communi- nality | | Mean | |
|--------------|---|-------------------|------|-------------------------|-----|------------------|------|
| | | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| 22 | The husband alone should not be head of the family. | .53 | .67 | .29 | .47 | 1.9 | 2.2 |
| 16 | In marriage, the major responsibility of the wife is not limited to keeping her husband and children happy. | .52 | .52 | .29 | .33 | 1.9 | 1.7 |
| 8 | If the wife makes more money than her husband, it would not upset the balance of power. | .47 | .40 | .22 | .17 | 1.7 | 1.7 |
| 19 | A man should not expect his family to adjust to the demands of his profession. | .46 | | .24 | | 1.7 | |
| 9 | In marriage, the major responsibility of the husband to his wife and children is more than economic. | .44 | | .20 | | 2.8 | |
| | | <u>Eigenvalue</u> | | <u>Pct. of Variance</u> | | <u>Cum. Pct.</u> | |
| | | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| | | 1.71 | 1.41 | 7.1 | 5.9 | 30.7 | 30.5 |

three factors was 30.5%. Mean scores were more nontraditional for females, except for item 16.

Comparison With Original Factors

The items in the SRO used in this study were the same ones which made up the three dimensions in Scanzoni's (1975) national sample (see Appendix Table E-1) and the three dimensions in Tomeh's (1978) study of college students (see Appendix Table E-2). In order to compare how high school students differed from adults in the other two studies, the three factors that emerged in the present study (see Appendix Table E-3) were compared to Tomeh's and Scanzoni's. Tomeh grouped items somewhat differently from the way Scanzoni did. Scanzoni's three dimensions were named "Wives' Roles", "Husbands' Roles", and "Mothers' Roles" (see Appendix Table E-1). Tomeh rearranged the items into three dimensions and called them "Nontraditional Wife-Mother Role", "Nontraditional Husband-Father Role", and "Problematic Husband-Wife Alterations Role" (see Appendix Table E-2). Tomeh's dimensions resembled Scanzoni's dimensions more than the current factors resemble Tomeh's and Scanzoni's. In fact, they were completely different. Items that loaded together ten years ago were spread throughout the three factors for both males and females.

Of Tomeh's original "Problematic" items (items that subjects were not sure about) only item 13 was still problematic for both sexes in this study, because it did not load on any factor. This item states that "when a child of working parents is ill, the husband and wife should be willing to stay home and care for the child". Apparently, high school students today are just as much in conflict over this situation as were the adults of the middle 1970s. Item 20 was still problematic for high school females also, but not for males. This item stated that "a married man should be willing to have a smaller family so that his wife can work if she wants to." Young teenage females today are apparently still finding this issue problematic, as did the adults in the 1970's.

The other problematic items (4, 8, 23, and 14) in Scanzoni's and Tomeh's studies did not appear to be problematic with this high school sample. These items dealt with the wife's being away overnight, the balance of power if the woman makes more money, sharing household work equally, and qualified women in positions of authority. It seems that high school students have come to terms with these issues that were problematic for the 1975 adult sample and the 1978 college sample.

Discussion

Results of this study showed that high school-aged males and females differ significantly in sex-role orientation. This finding agrees with past studies using college students (Tomeh, 1985; Tomeh, 1984; and Tomeh, 1979) and other adults (Ferber & Huber, 1975; Hesselbart, 1975; McBroom, 1984; Meier, 1972; Mischel, 1974; Steinmann & Fox, 1970; & Sterrett & Bollmann, 1970). Responses of both sexes, however, were nontraditional on a majority of items, with males being less nontraditional than the females at all points in time. Even though mean scores suggested no change in orientation over the years 1984, 1985, and 1987, an item analysis showed that males and females differed on individual items across time. A factor analysis revealed that the factors for these high school students differed from those found with college students (Tomeh, 1978) and a representative sample of adults (Scanzoni, 1975).

When Tomeh and Gallant (1983) gave a similar questionnaire to a French college sample, a different factor structure was found from her own United States sample in 1978. Cultural differences were cited as an explanation for these differences.

Sex Differences in Traditionality

Males were significantly more nontraditional than females as a group, and in each of the years. This is not surprising given past research about males' views on male family roles. Pleck's (1985) research on husbands' attitudes and behaviors when wives worked showed that, although husbands did begin to do more housework, the wives did not see the small change as equitable.

Males tended to be more nontraditional in 1987 than males in 1984 on items dealing with preparation of children for family life and work and items dealing with women getting ahead in their jobs. However, they were more traditional in 1978 on items dealing with children, sharing housework, and a woman's job inconveniencing the husband and children. This finding suggests that men say they want women to get ahead in their jobs, but the fact is that they want them to get ahead as long as it does not interfere with their jobs or inconvenience them or the children. They still expect the wife to do the housework and care for the children while she is "getting ahead" in her job.

Females in 1987 were also more traditional than those in 1984 on issues dealing with preparation of children for family life and work. However, they were more nontraditional on issues about getting ahead on a

job, working if the family needed money or if it made her happy, and both husband and wife caring for an ill child.

Both males and females favored a woman working and getting ahead, but not at the expense of postponing children or having a smaller family. They differed when work was perceived as interfering with a man's job or inconveniencing a husband and children. Females favored working if it made them happy and believed they could work and still maintain a secure relationship with the children.

Men and women differed in their attitudes about sharing housework equally. Men apparently want women to work but do not want to help with the housework. Therefore, this study supports those studies that show women trying to be "superwoman," working and still performing the majority of household tasks (Maret & Finlay, 1984; Pleck, 1985; Yoge, 1981).

Item Differences in Traditionality

An item analysis showed a difference in responses to items at the three points in time, even though overall mean scores suggested that there was no difference. On some items males and females were more nontraditional in 1987, while on others they were more traditional than the 1984 group. On other items there were sex differences in change in traditionality.

It should be noted that the 1985 group seemed to differ from the 1984 and 1987 groups in their responses. They sometimes scored higher or lower than both of the other groups. Such an example is item no. 1. The female percentage scores were 95.3% in 1984, 97.8% in 1985 and 96.6% in 1987 on this item dealing with shared decision-making. The males percentage scores for the same item were 90% in 1984, 88.3% in 1985, and 91.8% in 1987. Most responses (over 50%) of both sexes were in the no. 3 (very nontraditional) scale score in 1987. Another example is item no. 11 for females. The percentage scores are 58.1% in 1984, 44.9% in 1985, and 56.8% in 1987 on this item dealing with preparation of daughter for family and work. The only apparent difference in the groups was the size. The 1984 group was the largest with 77 males and 138 females for a total of 215 subjects. The total in 1984 was 179 and 149 in 1987.

More nontraditional viewpoints. The item analysis showed that both males and females scored more nontraditionally in 1987 than the same sex subjects of 1984 on items 1, 12, 13, 14, and 24. These items deal with sharing in decision making, caring for an ill child, and a woman's working. The items about working women stated that a mother should work if the family needs money and women should try to get ahead in a job

and should be given positions of authority if they are qualified. Both of these items show that women are pushing for more equality as reported by Pleck (1985).

Women added eight more items (3, 7, 9, 16, 17, 18, 22, 23) to this list in which the responses were more nontraditional in 1987. They felt a mom should work if it makes her happy, even if it inconveniences her husband and children. The 1987 women were also more nontraditional in feeling that a working mother can provide a secure relationship with her child. They also held some nontraditional ideas about the husband's role. They believed that the husband alone should not be the head of the family, the husband's responsibility is more than economic, and that the husband should share in housework. They were also more nontraditional in 1987 on the item stating that a parent gets as much satisfaction when a daughter gets ahead as when a son does. This continuing egalitarian stance of females has been reported in several research projects in social change (Cherlin & Walters, 1981; Thornton, Alwin, & Camburn, 1983). The fact that more women are working now than ever before and that they are role models for adolescent females may explain their continuing egalitarian trend.

Men in 1987 were more nontraditional on three items (2, 11, 21). Items 2 and 11 dealt with a father

and mother preparing the daughter for family life and work. Item 21 concerned a woman's satisfaction coming from a combination of family and work.

It appears that females in 1987 were more in favor of working at all costs if they chose to do so than they were in 1984. Males were more cautious in their view, feeling more strongly in 1987 about the wife working when the family needed money. Females in 1987 were more nontraditional in their view of the role and responsibility that the husband should bear, which supports Tomeh's (1978) findings with college students that women favor a role-sharing model. Males did not tend to be more nontraditional in 1987 on these issues. It appears that women are coming to terms with their being a significant part of the work force. They apparently saw themselves as working and intended to make the most of their career opportunities in addition to balancing a family. This supports literature of Maret & Finlay (1984), Thornton, Alwin, & Camburn (1983), Thornton & Freedman (1979), and Yogeve (1981), who stated that married women have increasingly combined paid employment with traditional homemaker responsibilities of caring for the household and children.

Both sexes were united nontraditionally on the issue of a husband and wife sharing in making major

decisions. As has been noted previously, however, males and females do not always agree, and males seem to be trailing the females in their degree of nontraditionality, which should produce conflict in decision making. Change between sexes to increase consensus is a possible consequence for smooth decision making. McBroom (1984) stated that perhaps men will "catch-up" with females at some future date, narrowing the gap between the two sexes. Pleck (1985) claimed that people may say they want equal sharing, but, in fact, there is not equal sharing, which suggests that individuals may hold to a nontraditional orientation but actually behave in a more traditional manner.

Less nontraditional viewpoint. The item analysis showed that both males and females scored more traditionally (from scale score 3 back to 2) in 1987 than the same sex subjects in 1984 on items 6, 10, and 20. These items deal with a mother preparing her son for both family life and work, a working mother postponing children in order to increase her opportunities, and a man being willing to have a smaller family so the wife can work if she wants to. Cherlin and Walters (1981) and Thornton, Alwin and Camburn (1983) noted a similar slowing of the movement toward nontraditionalism over the past two decades. They found that there was a small but not significant

change toward traditionalism. Apparently both sexes were nontraditional about a wife being able to work and get ahead but not at the expense of postponing children or having a smaller family. Again this goes back to the idea of a woman working in addition to taking care of the home and children.

It was noted that both sexes tended to be more traditional when it came to a mother preparing a son for family life and work; however, as mentioned earlier, males were more nontraditional when it came to a father and mother preparing the daughter for family life and work. To make sense out of this, perhaps there should have been an item with the husband preparing the son for family life and work. At this point, it appears that no one is to prepare the son for both work and family.

Females were more traditional in 1987 about a father and mother preparing a daughter for family life and work. Perhaps this means that women feel there are more important things than just preparing a daughter for family life and work. On no item did the women seem to feel strongly about the preparation of a son or daughter by either husband or wife. Perhaps they felt this was a natural product of family life.

Women were also more traditional in 1987 on an item stating that a man's chief responsibility should

be equally divided between his job and family. The implications of this statement are not clear. It does not tell us whether women feel more time should be spent at work or with the family. The typical traditional sentiment would be that the man's chief responsibility would be to his job. This item, as it is stated, does not make that distinction.

Males were more traditional in 1987 on five more items (3, 9, 15, 17, 23). These items deal with a parent getting equal satisfaction when a daughter gets ahead as when a son does, a husband's responsibility to the family being more than economic, a wife's career interfering with a husband's and the wife working if it inconveniences the husband and the children temporarily, and the sharing of housework. This suggests that males still see themselves as the breadwinners whose chief responsibility to the family is primarily economic. They, therefore, get more satisfaction from seeing a son get ahead than a daughter. They apparently feel that the man's job is more important than the wife's, and hers should not interfere with his job nor should it inconvenience him.

Men were also much more traditional in their views about sharing housework in 1987. They checked the no. 2 response at 52% in 1984, 31.2% in 1985, and 36.1% in 1987. Pleck (1985) reported that men were still not

doing an equal share of housework when their wives worked.

These findings seem to support the notion, as the literature suggests (Tomeh, 1979), that men continue to perceive women primarily in terms of family and children. They tend to see women's work as being secondary to that of the man's. These conservative trends were also reported by Cherlin and Walters (1981) and Thornton, Alwin, and Camburn (1983), but they cautioned against there being a trend backward. They suggested it was only a stemming of the very fast increases in egalitarianism.

Factor Structure Compared to Tomeh's and Scanzoni's Dimensions

A factor analysis showed that high school students differed considerably in SRO from the three dimensions of Tomeh (1978), developed from Scanzoni's (1975) college sample. Tomeh found that these did have an adequate relationship to each other. She called them "Traditional Wife/Mother Role," "Nontraditional Husband/Father Role," and "Problematic Husband/Wife Alterations Role." By "problematic" Tomeh stated that the emphasis was on the tentative and problematic nature of the situation that the husband has to consider in the connection with the wife's interests.

Factors that emerged with this high school sample were named "Nontraditional Wife/Mother Role," "Preparation of Son/Daughter for Family Life and Work," and "Nontraditional Husband/Wife Role." The only factor that was similar to Tomeh's dimensions was the "Nontraditional Wife/Mother Role." For the most part, items from Tomeh's dimensions were scattered throughout the high school sample's factors. The "Husband/Father" and "Problematic" dimensions did not appear with the high school sample. Perhaps this was true because there were so many more females in the sample than males. A new factor, however, appeared with this group. "Preparation of Son/Daughter" did not surface as a dimension with the college students.

The major difference between these two groups is that the items that were "problematic" for the 1978 sample were no longer problematic. Apparently the high school students in this study had resolved most of the conflicts the college students had had ten years earlier. Apparently, both samples agreed more on the wife/mother role than any of the other issues. This seemingly lack of a problematic factor may be accounted for by the era or period effect that Cherlin (1981) and Elder (1974) indicated. Such an effect predicts that all people in any one period are affected by the social changes in that time. Currently there continues to be

greater egalitarianism of men and women but not at the rate nor in as many areas as in the 1970s.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine the Sex-Role Orientation (SRO) of cohorts of high school students for the years 1984, 1985, and 1987. Hypothesis 1 stated that males would be more traditional than females in sex-role orientation. The analysis of data revealed that there was a significant difference in SRO between males and females, with both sexes tending to be more nontraditional in their responses on most items. Hypothesis 2 stated that cohorts in 1984, 1985 and 1987 would differ in SRO. This hypothesis was not supported. Even though there was no significant overall difference by cohort, an item analysis revealed differences on certain individual items. Hypothesis 3 stated that there would be an interaction effect of sex by cohort on sex-role orientation. This was not supported.

A factor analysis showed that factors with high school students differed from dimensions of Tomeh (1978) and Scanzoni (1975), supporting Hypothesis 4, which stated that they would differ. The factor analysis showed that SRO was made up of three factors:

"Wife/mother role," "Preparation of son and daughter for family and work," and "Husband/wife role." In this chapter the study is summarized and problems with instrumentation and design are discussed in terms of their possible impact upon the results.

Recommendations for further research are made.

Summary

This study examined the Sex-Role Orientation of cohorts of high school students in the years 1984, 1985, and 1987 to see if there was a male/female difference in orientation, to see if there was any difference in orientation among cohort, and to see if there was an interaction of sex and cohort on SRO.

Participants consisted of 543 high school students from a county in a Southeastern state over years 1984, 1985, and 1987. In all three years, the subjects' age, grade level, and sex were recorded. The sample contained 355 females had 188 males. It was impossible to obtain a breakdown of the school population by sex over these years, but school officials accounted for this sexual imbalance by stating that there tended to be more females than males enrolled in the school each year.

A 24-item Likert-type scale (Scanzoni, 1975; Tomeh, 1978) was used to measure SRO of these students. An analysis of variance on the responses to the SRO

items was computed for sex and for the total group in order to examine the male-female difference in SRO, differences across time and the interaction effect. An item analysis was also used in order to look at actual change on individual items over time. Finally, a factor analysis was computed in order to examine the factors extracted from males and females separately to see how they compared with a representative adult college sample (Tomah, 1978).

Males were found to hold a significantly more traditional Sex-Role Orientation than females; however, both males and females tended to score nontraditionally on most items. Cohorts of males and females did not tend to become more traditional from 1984 to 1987; however, an item analysis showed that there was a trend toward a less nontraditional view on individual items. In some instances cohorts of males and females became even more nontraditional in their thinking, while on other items they became more traditional or crossed over from one degree of traditionality to another. This individual item change possibly contributed to the fact that there was no significant difference in mean scores over time. No interaction of sex and cohort was found, but both cohorts of males and females tended to become slightly more nontraditional, with females continuing to be more nontraditional than males.

A factor analysis revealed that composition of factors in the sex-role orientation scale with high school students differed from Tomeh's (1978) dimensions which had originally come from a representative adult sample (Scanzoni, 1975). Furthermore, items that were problematic in 1975 and 1978 for the young adult sample, such as a wife being away overnight, sharing housework, and the balance of power being upset if the wife makes more money than the husband, were no longer problematic for this 1984, 1985, and 1987 sample of high school students. Such items merged with general sex-role expectation items. One explanation for this is that women now expect to work and both husbands and wives expect to share child care and housework. No longer is a man condemned if he does not "make enough to keep his wife at home."

Conclusions

Males and females do differ in sex-role orientation; however, both sexes tend to hold to nontraditional beliefs in most instances. For the most part, it is more a difference in the degree of nontraditionality rather than a difference between traditional and nontraditional orientation.

The factor analysis revealed that males were more united in their responses to items. Females, on the other hand, seemed to be less in concensus than the

males on several items. Perhaps their disagreement on issues means that females deal with their beliefs and question them more than males, or perhaps high school females are less rigid than males and are much more willing to change or to differ in their beliefs from their peers.

Time seemed to make little difference in the way males and females responded. Even though there was change on individual items across time, overall, it did not seem to make a difference. Perhaps four years is too short a time span for much difference in thinking and attitude to occur. Since attitudes take longer to change than behavior, it would be of interest to find out if student behavior changed over the years, even though attitude did not seem to change significantly.

On only one item did both males and females strongly agree nontraditionally. They agreed that in marriage the husband and wife should share making major decisions. Females also strongly agreed that qualified women who seek positions of authority should be given such positions as equally qualified men and the groups were even more nontraditional over time.

It was noted that males and females responded almost identically as moderately nontraditional to the item dealing with men's responsibility to the family's being more than just economic. On most of the other

items, male and female scores tended to differ more, with males consistently scoring less nontraditionally than females.

The factor analysis revealed that high school students' constructs differed from those in Tomeh's (1978) college sample. Several variables could have contributed to this difference. One might be the fact that there is a difference in the thinking and reasoning of these two age groups. The composition of the two groups is also different. College students are a rather homogeneous academic group; whereas, the high school sample was made up of below average, average, and above average students in academic standing. Socioeconomic Status would probably differ also between these two groups. Lastly, history cannot be discounted. Ten years of historical change cannot be ruled out as having an effect on the high school group.

Even though the factor structure with high school students differs from Tomeh's (1978) and Scanzoni's dimensions, this study adds to their work by examining sex-role orientation of a younger sample. It also uses a factor analysis of all items whereas, Tomeh and Scanzoni only designated dimensions. Scanzoni factor analyzed his dimensions, but Tomeh (1978) did not factor analyze hers. However, she did use a

multiple-classification analysis to show that the dimensions were probably unified.

This study seems to add more evidence to the notion that social learning theory is in operation in the acquisition of sex role orientation. Social learning theory explains that boys are socialized more rigidly for male behavior than girls are for female behavior from a very early age, which seems to account for the fact that males hold more strongly to the traditional male sex-role orientation. Cultural context is also a reinforcer for behavior; therefore, cultural trends would be expected to influence sex-role attitudes, thus also accounting for the differences between this group and Tomeh's and Scanzoni's groups in sex-role orientation.

If children start learning sex-role orientation early, two to three years of age, as theorists seem to think, then the implications would be that sex-role orientation can be determined through the context of family, school, and culture. This could have a significant impact on parenting and child development programs, as well as preschool education programs. It would mean that sex-role orientation could be influenced by reinforcement and modeling of desired sex-role behavior. This would cause society to rethink

the notions about what is and is not sex appropriate behavior.

Recommendations

Since these high school males and females did differ in their sex-role orientation, just as Tomeh's (1978) college males and females, the recommendation is to continue to track sex differences. Although there was no overall change in sex-role orientation by cohorts, it is recommended that the analysis be replicated with high school students in order to compare the item analyses rather than just mean scores. It seems more feasible to see which items elicit change over time rather than to just look at total means for each group. It was quite evident that there was change on individual items in this study across time, but these changes apparently balanced out in the end through the mean scores.

It is further recommended that college students and high school students be surveyed at the same point in time using comparable samples to see if there is a difference between these two age groups in sex-role orientation. The Tomeh (1978) sample and the high school sample were too different in composition to make any scientific conclusions about these two groups. Not only did these groups differ in their academic levels, but they also differed in backgrounds and geographic

locations. Tomeh's (1978) group was from a Midwestern college campus. The high school group was from a Southeastern high school. There seems to be too many extraneous influences to draw any specific conclusions about these two groups.

Another recommendation is to make some changes in the wording of negatively stated items on the instrument before any further testing is done using this instrument. Items 8, 16, and 22 are the only items out of the 24 stated in a negative way. Subjects could have become confused when answering these items. A rewording of these items would avoid that confusion.

The only definite conclusion to be made from this present study is that males and females do differ significantly in sex-role orientation. Even though both sexes tend to hold to a nontraditional orientation, females are more nontraditional than males. This study can provide valuable information on the sex-role orientation of high school students at this point in time, but it needs to be replicated in other parts of the country and over time.

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APPENDIX A
PERMISSION LETTER



DAVIE COUNTY SCHOOLS

February 24, 1984

Dear Mrs. Strider,

As you know, I am finishing my Ph D at UNC-Greensboro in Child Development and Marriage and Family Relations. I am currently gathering data for my Dissertation, which will deal with sex-role orientation of high school students.

I would like to request permission to administer a Sex-Role Orientation (SRO) scale to selected junior and senior English classes at Davie High School. This scale is simple to administer and would take very little time - probably no more than 5 to 10 minutes. I have attached a copy of the scale for your review.

If permission is granted, please let me know as soon as possible. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Carolyn Beaver

Permission granted

Permission not granted

Date 2/25/84 Signature Clair Strider

CB:fd

cc: John Norton, Principal

APPENDIX B
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FORM

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

Research # _____

YOURSELF

1. Age: _____
2. Class
 - Fr ()
 - So ()
 - Jr ()
 - Sr ()
 - Special ()
3. Gender:
 - Male ()
 - Female ()
4. Race:
 - Black ()
 - White ()
 - Other ()
5. Marital Status:
 - Never-married ()
 - Married ()
 - Divorced ()
 - Remarried ()
6. Religious Preference:
 - Catholic ()
 - Jew ()
 - Protestant ()
 - Other ()
7. Number of Siblings: _____
8. Your birth order: _____

YOUR PARENTS

1. Family Type:
 - Nuclear ()
 - Extended ()
2. Father's Occupation: _____
3. Mother's Occupation: _____
4. Father's Education:
 - Elementary School ()
 - Some High School ()
 - High School Grad. ()
 - Some College ()
 - College Degree ()
 - Some Grad. School ()
 - Graduate Degree ()
5. Mother's Education:
 - Elementary School ()
 - Some High School ()
 - High School Grad. ()
 - Some College ()
 - College Degree ()
 - Some Grad. School ()
 - Graduate Degree ()

APPENDIX C
INSTRUMENT
SEX ROLE ORIENTATION SCALE

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APPENDIX D
PERCENTAGE TABLES

Table D-1

Item Percentages of SRQ Responses All Scale Scores: 1984 Females

| Responses | Def. Not | Prob. Not | Prob. So | Def. So |
|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| Values | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| <u>Items</u> | | | | |
| 1 | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 4.7 % | 95.3 % |
| 2 | 2.3 % | 17.8 % | 65.1 % | 14.7 % |
| 3 | 1.6 % | 13.2 % | 36.4 % | 48.8 % |
| 4 | 20.9 % | 21.7 % | 24.8 % | 32.6 % |
| 5 | 5.4 % | 16.3 % | 27.9 % | 50.4 % |
| 6 | 0.8 % | 13.2 % | 53.5 % | 32.6 % |
| 7 | 2.3 % | 7.0 % | 47.3 % | 43.4 % |
| 8 | 11.6 % | 31.0 % | 32.6 % | 24.8 % |
| 9 | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 16.3 % | 82.2 % |
| 10 | 0.8 % | 1.6 % | 59.7 % | 38.0 % |
| 11 | 0.8 % | 3.9 % | 37.2 % | 58.1 % |
| 12 | 0.8 % | 2.3 % | 48.1 % | 48.8 % |
| 13 | 2.3 % | 9.3 % | 25.6 % | 62.8 % |
| 14 | 0.0 % | 3.9 % | 9.3 % | 86.8 % |
| 15 | 9.3 % | 21.7 % | 43.4 % | 25.6 % |
| 16 | 10.1 % | 14.0 % | 23.3 % | 52.7 % |
| 17 | 4.7 % | 17.8 % | 53.5 % | 24.0 % |
| 18 | 3.9 % | 14.0 % | 30.2 % | 51.9 % |
| 19 | 8.5 % | 21.7 % | 47.3 % | 22.5 % |
| 20 | 3.9 % | 20.9 % | 44.2 % | 31.0 % |
| 21 | 1.6 % | 6.2 % | 47.3 % | 45.0 % |
| 22 | 12.4 % | 14.0 % | 13.2 % | 60.5 % |
| 23 | 0.8 % | 7.0 % | 27.9 % | 64.3 % |
| 24 | 0.8 % | 3.9 % | 30.2 % | 65.1 % |

N = 129

Table D-2

Item Percentages of SRO Responses: 1984 Males

| Responses | | Def. Not | Prob. Not | Prob. So | Def. So |
|--------------|----|-------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| Values | | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| <u>Items</u> | 1 | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 10.0 % | 90.0 % |
| | 2 | 0.0 % | 12.0 % | 72.0 % | 16.0 % |
| | 3 | 0.0 % | 16.0 % | 34.0 % | 50.0 % |
| | 4 | 26.0 % | 30.0 % | 34.0 % | 10.0 % |
| | 5 | 4.0 % | 16.0 % | 36.0 % | 44.0 % |
| | 6 | 0.0 % | 10.0 % | 64.0 % | 26.0 % |
| | 7 | 4.0 % | 32.0 % | 44.0 % | 20.0 % |
| | 8 | 8.0 % | 40.0 % | 30.0 % | 22.0 % |
| | 9 | 0.0 % | 2.0 % | 14.0 % | 84.0 % |
| | 10 | 2.0 % | 12.0 % | 64.0 % | 22.0 % |
| | 11 | 0.0 % | 2.0 % | 58.0 % | 40.0 % |
| | 12 | 0.0 % | 2.0 % | 64.0 % | 34.0 % |
| | 13 | 2.0 % | 10.0 % | 38.0 % | 50.0 % |
| | 14 | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 50.0 % | 50.0 % |
| | 15 | 12.0 % | 12.0 % | 56.0 % | 20.0 % |
| | 16 | 10.0 % | 26.0 % | 40.0 % | 24.0 % |
| | 17 | 4.0 % | 18.0 % | 62.0 % | 16.0 % |
| | 18 | 8.0 % | 20.0 % | 36.0 % | 36.0 % |
| | 19 | 6.0 % | 30.0 % | 40.0 % | 24.0 % |
| | 20 | 6.0 % | 24.0 % | 54.0 % | 16.0 % |
| | 21 | 4.0 % | 10.0 % | 62.0 % | 24.0 % |
| | 22 | 16.0 % | 28.0 % | 32.0 % | 24.0 % |
| | 23 | 2.0 % | 16.0 % | 52.0 % | 30.0 % |
| | 24 | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 46.0 % | 54.0 % |

N = 50

Table D-3

Item Percentages of SRO Responses: 1985 Females

| Responses | | Def. Not | Prob. Not | Prob. So | Def. So |
|--------------|----|-------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| Values | | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| <u>Items</u> | 1 | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 2.2 % | 97.8 % |
| | 2 | 3.6 % | 18.8 % | 50.0 % | 27.5 % |
| | 3 | 0.7 % | 8.0 % | 31.9 % | 59.4 % |
| | 4 | 8.7 % | 31.2 % | 26.8 % | 33.3 % |
| | 5 | 7.2 % | 10.9 % | 36.2 % | 45.7 % |
| | 6 | 2.2 % | 16.7 % | 47.8 % | 33.3 % |
| | 7 | 1.4 % | 5.8 % | 46.4 % | 46.4 % |
| | 8 | 13.0 % | 28.3 % | 30.4 % | 28.3 % |
| | 9 | 0.7 % | 1.4 % | 10.9 % | 87.0 % |
| | 10 | 2.2 % | 6.5 % | 56.5 % | 34.8 % |
| | 11 | 1.4 % | 10.1 % | 43.5 % | 44.9 % |
| | 12 | 0.0 % | 1.4 % | 44.9 % | 53.6 % |
| | 13 | 0.7 % | 8.7 % | 23.2 % | 67.4 % |
| | 14 | 0.0 % | 2.2 % | 6.5 % | 91.3 % |
| | 15 | 13.8 % | 20.3 % | 37.0 % | 29.0 % |
| | 16 | 10.9 % | 13.8 % | 31.2 % | 44.2 % |
| | 17 | 2.9 % | 13.0 % | 56.5 % | 27.5 % |
| | 18 | 1.4 % | 7.2 % | 29.7 % | 61.6 % |
| | 19 | 10.9 % | 31.2 % | 42.8 % | 15.2 % |
| | 20 | 2.9 % | 16.7 % | 50.0 % | 30.4 % |
| | 21 | 2.9 % | 5.8 % | 46.4 % | 44.9 % |
| | 22 | 20.3 % | 10.1 % | 17.4 % | 52.2 % |
| | 23 | 0.7 % | 5.8 % | 28.3 % | 65.2 % |
| | 24 | 1.4 % | 2.2 % | 23.2 % | 73.2 % |

N = 138

Table D-4

Item Percentages of SRO Responses: 1985 Males

| Responses | Def. Not | Prob. Not | Prob. So | Def. So |
|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| Values | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| <u>Items</u> | | | | |
| 1 | 0.0 % | 1.3 % | 10.4 % | 88.3 % |
| 2 | 3.9 % | 11.7 % | 57.1 % | 27.3 % |
| 3 | 0.0 % | 11.7 % | 36.4 % | 51.9 % |
| 4 | 23.4 % | 32.5 % | 29.9 % | 14.3 % |
| 5 | 11.7 % | 19.5 % | 28.6 % | 40.3 % |
| 6 | 3.9 % | 13.0 % | 37.7 % | 45.5 % |
| 7 | 5.2 % | 27.3 % | 41.6 % | 26.0 % |
| 8 | 6.5 % | 40.3 % | 29.9 % | 23.4 % |
| 9 | 0.0 % | 1.3 % | 10.4 % | 88.3 % |
| 10 | 3.9 % | 10.4 % | 61.0 % | 24.7 % |
| 11 | 1.3 % | 10.4 % | 32.5 % | 55.8 % |
| 12 | 2.6 % | 1.3 % | 54.5 % | 41.6 % |
| 13 | 1.3 % | 9.1 % | 28.6 % | 61.0 % |
| 14 | 3.9 % | 1.3 % | 28.6 % | 66.2 % |
| 15 | 10.4 % | 23.4 % | 37.7 % | 28.6 % |
| 16 | 20.8 % | 19.5 % | 22.1 % | 37.7 % |
| 17 | 2.6 % | 15.6 % | 59.7 % | 22.1 % |
| 18 | 5.2 % | 22.1 % | 33.8 % | 39.0 % |
| 19 | 10.4 % | 33.8 % | 31.2 % | 24.7 % |
| 20 | 7.8 % | 16.9 % | 46.8 % | 28.6 % |
| 21 | 3.9 % | 9.1 % | 53.2 % | 33.8 % |
| 22 | 15.6 % | 15.6 % | 22.1 % | 46.8 % |
| 23 | 6.5 % | 14.3 % | 31.2 % | 48.1 % |
| 24 | 5.2 % | 10.4 % | 31.2 % | 53.2 % |

N = 77

Table D-5

Item Percentages of SRO Responses: 1987 Females

| Responses | | Def. Not | Prob. Not | Prob. So | Def. So |
|--------------|----|-------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| Values | | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| <u>Items</u> | 1 | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 3.4 % | 96.6 % |
| | 2 | 1.1 % | 18.2 % | 45.5 % | 35.2 % |
| | 3 | 3.4 % | 3.4 % | 28.4 % | 64.8 % |
| | 4 | 11.4 % | 12.5 % | 28.4 % | 47.7 % |
| | 5 | 5.7 % | 13.6 % | 31.8 % | 48.9 % |
| | 6 | 2.3 % | 14.8 % | 43.2 % | 39.8 % |
| | 7 | 1.1 % | 6.8 % | 34.1 % | 58.0 % |
| | 8 | 9.1 % | 31.8 % | 26.1 % | 33.0 % |
| | 9 | 0.0 % | 2.3 % | 14.8 % | 83.0 % |
| | 10 | 2.3 % | 3.4 % | 50.0 % | 44.3 % |
| | 11 | 1.1 % | 5.7 % | 36.4 % | 56.8 % |
| | 12 | 1.1 % | 0.0 % | 33.0 % | 65.9 % |
| | 13 | 1.1 % | 11.4 % | 15.9 % | 71.6 % |
| | 14 | 1.1 % | 0.0 % | 5.7 % | 93.2 % |
| | 15 | 8.0 % | 26.1 % | 28.4 % | 37.5 % |
| | 16 | 11.4 % | 9.1 % | 26.1 % | 53.4 % |
| | 17 | 2.3 % | 14.8 % | 54.5 % | 28.4 % |
| | 18 | 0.0 % | 4.5 % | 21.6 % | 73.9 % |
| | 19 | 10.2 % | 34.1 % | 42.0 % | 13.6 % |
| | 20 | 3.4 % | 25.0 % | 37.5 % | 34.1 % |
| | 21 | 2.3 % | 9.1 % | 45.5 % | 43.2 % |
| | 22 | 13.6 % | 11.4 % | 6.8 % | 68.2 % |
| | 23 | 1.1 % | 6.8 % | 25.0 % | 67.0 % |
| | 24 | 0.0 % | 1.1 % | 19.3 % | 79.5 % |

N = 88

Table D-6

Item Percentages of SRO Responses: 1987 Males

| Responses | Def. Not | Prob. Not | Prob. So | Def. So |
|----------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|------------|
| Values | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| <u>Items</u> 1 | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 8.2 % | 91.8 % |
| 2 | 4.9 % | 14.8 % | 59.0 % | 21.3 % |
| 3 | 0.0 % | 16.4 % | 39.3 % | 44.3 % |
| 4 | 29.5 % | 31.1 % | 19.7 % | 19.7 % |
| 5 | 11.5 % | 9.8 % | 29.5 % | 49.2 % |
| 6 | 3.3 % | 13.1 % | 60.7 % | 23.0 % |
| 7 | 6.6 % | 14.8 % | 49.2 % | 29.5 % |
| 8 | 11.5 % | 32.8 % | 29.5 % | 26.2 % |
| 9 | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 18.0 % | 82.0 % |
| 10 | 8.2 % | 13.1 % | 45.9 % | 32.8 % |
| 11 | 1.6 % | 3.3 % | 36.1 % | 59.0 % |
| 12 | 0.0 % | 11.5 % | 31.1 % | 57.4 % |
| 13 | 9.8 % | 9.8 % | 21.3 % | 59.0 % |
| 14 | 3.3 % | 3.3 % | 26.2 % | 67.2 % |
| 15 | 8.2 % | 23.0 % | 42.6 % | 26.2 % |
| 16 | 11.5 % | 8.2 % | 31.1 % | 49.2 % |
| 17 | 4.9 % | 18.0 % | 55.7 % | 21.3 % |
| 18 | 9.8 % | 24.6 % | 26.2 % | 39.3 % |
| 19 | 23.0 % | 16.4 % | 44.3 % | 16.4 % |
| 20 | 14.8 % | 9.8 % | 49.2 % | 26.2 % |
| 21 | 3.3 % | 0.0 % | 73.8 % | 23.0 % |
| 22 | 14.8 % | 14.8 % | 27.9 % | 42.6 % |
| 23 | 9.8 % | 9.8 % | 36.1 % | 44.3 % |
| 24 | 1.6 % | 4.9 % | 23.0 % | 70.5 % |

N = 61

APPENDIX E**Scanzoni's 1975 Dimensions****Tomeh's 1978 Dimensions****Beaver's 1989 Factors**

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