

ATTITUDES OF WORKING AND NONWORKING MOTHERS
TOWARD PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

by

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The Bureau of National Affairs has estimated that labor force participation among married women has significantly increased since World War II. It is projected that the number of working mothers 20-44 years of age with preschool children will increase to 5.3 million by 1980 (Manpower Information Service, 1976).

Eli Ginzberg has found that about two out of every five women with a child under six is working at a job outside the house. Today, traditional notions that a woman working outside the home would be detrimental to her children, are being questioned. Although women are working professionally in the outside world, they are still very much caught up in the traditional feminine role of being at home (Grambs, 1977). Thus it seems that the assumption of a professional role by the wife does not mean a dramatic change in family roles (Theodore, 1971).

Lein (1974) found in her study of Boston families that:

women constantly encounter (or believe they encounter, which amounts to the same thing) a tacit reproach. Some of the working mothers in the study were caught in a bind of cultural expectations, or 'role strain.' As these women explain it, the working mother is made to feel that she is not only

challenging her husband as the breadwinner but necessarily is neglecting her primary responsibility as homemaker and mother. The psychological pressure of these images and assumptions on the working mother should not be underestimated, particularly if they are reinforced on a daily basis by her own upbringing, her husband, relatives and the wider social environment. Small wonder, then, that so many of the mothers characterize themselves as 'nervous,' 'irritable,' 'angry' or 'short-tempered.' (p.162)

Presently there are many societal pressures on the working woman causing her to feel "guilty." A very dark picture is often painted of the children of working mothers.

Mothers are afraid of weakening a young child's emotional attachment if there is a regular separation between them for long periods during the day . . . and they fear the child will therefore become insecure and less easily socialized, less comfortable with people. Some women anticipate feelings of shame, as well as criticism from neighbors, relatives and friends, if they fail to honor this duty of parent. (Kagan, 1977, p.70)

Many women hold the belief that if their children succeed it is good luck; but if they fail it is due to the mother's incompetence. As a result of concerns like this, working women may overcompensate in their behavior toward their children by becoming more dominant and possessive. "The overanxious mother may hover so closely over her children that their survival is a miracle. Then there is the mother who swings uncertainly from doing everything for the kids to doing nothing for them" (Grambs, 1977, p.58).

It has been noted that maternal attitudes have greater

influential potential in the parent-child relationship than the child's attitude (Harrell and Ridley, 1975). Many psychologists believe that the child needs his mother at home during the first five years of life (Janeway, 1971, p.55). This belief may cause great concern among working women who have children under six years of age.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to compare maternal attitudes toward preschool children, of working and nonworking mothers. It was an attempt to determine if there was a significant difference in the attitude of a working mother toward her children compared to the attitude of a nonworking mother. More specifically, would working mothers' expressed attitudes show them to be less possessive, less dominant and less ignoring than nonworking mothers?

Definition of Terms

Preschooler - a child who was three to six years of age.

Attitude - nonverbal behavior as determined by means of a questionnaire, i.e. The University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey.

Dominant - "a tendency on the part of the parent to put the child in a subordinated role, to take him into account quite fully but always as one who should conform completely to parental wishes under penalty of severe punishment" (Shoben, 1949, p.129).

Possessive - "a tendency on the part of the parent to 'baby' the child, to value highly the child's dependence on the parent, and to restrict the child's activities to those which can be carried on in his own family group" (Shoben, 1949, p.129).

Ignoring - "a tendency on the part of the parent to disregard the child as an individual member of the family, to regard the 'good' child as one who demands the least parental time and to disclaim responsibility for the child's behavior" (Shoben, 1949, p.129).

Working mother - one who was employed for pay outside the home either full or part-time.

Nonworking mother - one who was not presently employed for pay outside the home.

Full-time work - employed for pay thirty-two hours or more outside the home.

Part-time work - employed for pay less than thirty-two hours outside the home.

CHAPTER 2

Review of Literature

Extensive research has been conducted on the effects of maternal employment upon children. Most of the studies prior to 1960 focused on the concerns generated by early maternal deprivation studies (Spitz, 1945; Bowlby, 1951).

Diminishing effects on a child's personality development were found to result from conditions of maternal absence or maternal deprivation. As a result of these findings, many researchers in the 1950's attempted to determine whether maternal deprivation was synonymous with maternal employment. The results of the studies were generally inconsistent and unclear, however they did indicate that maternal employment was not a clear case of maternal deprivation and the effect on children involved other variables. (Harrell and Ridley, 1975, p.556)

Bowlby (1952) concluded that there existed a potential danger for a three to five year old who was separated from his mother. He felt that young children have an 'absolute need' for continuous care from their mother or permanent mother substitute.

In the 1960's, Hoffman suggested,

. . . investigating various aspects of maternal employment such as subgroups of employed mothers having other identifiable characteristics. Some of the categories considered important bases for these subgroups include mother's attitude toward employment, the family's social class and the adequacy of substitute supervision of the child. (1975, p.557)

In her research, Hoffman (1968) concluded that maternal attitudes toward work were related to interactions between the child and mother rather than between working and nonworking mothers as a group. She found that when the mother has a positive attitude toward work, she was less severe in punishment and exerted fewer power techniques in discipline. The working woman who did not enjoy her work tended to be more withdrawn from the maternal role and had less overall involvement with the child (Hoffman, 1968, p.357). Hoffman theorized that the reason for this was that "mothers who like their work (more likely middle-class, skilled or professional) feel more guilt and react by being overprotective. Mothers who dislike their work (more likely lower class, unskilled) feel resentment and react with neglect" (1968, p.358). Curtis reported, though, that "the mother's working produced no effect on the children or a slightly positive effect. Children of working mothers were found to have a slightly higher I.Q. but no difference was discernible in their grade point average" (1976, p.39).

Hartley (1968) found that having a working or nonworking mother had little effect on a daughter's perception of women's roles. However, sons of working mothers showed greater acknowledgement of the value of work roles for women than boys with nonworking mothers (p.274). Hoffman observed that experiences common to all children

of working mothers was that

. . . they are exposed to a female parent who implements a social role not implemented by the female parents of other children. One implication of this point is that since the child learns sex roles from observation of his parents, maternal employment influences the child's concept of the female role. Further and more importantly, since one of the earliest statuses assigned to the child is that of sex, maternal employment presumably affects the female's child's concept of herself and of the behavior expected of her. (1965, p.200)

Hoffman's early study (1963) found that boys of working mothers became more dependent, obedient, less self-reliant and less sociable. Young girls showed opposite personality traits.

Bossard (1954) in his work with adolescents asserted that the child of an employed mother was lonely, neglected and had the following problems: "The mother is physically exhausted. The children exploit lack of maternal control. Mother is unable to render detailed services to the child. Mother neglects supervision and training of the child" (p.133).

Smuts (1966) found that "many women who work outside the home still have time and energy left for home and family. Moreover, most working mothers do not assume the burden of a full schedule paid work" (p.36).

Komarovsky (1953) saw no reason why the employment of the mother should necessarily adversely affect the children. She suggested that "children of women working short hours for high pay should suffer

little, if at all, from the employment of their mothers." She had enumerated conditions conducive to the welfare of the families of employed mothers. These included: "The father approves of mother's employment. Mother works short hours for high pay. A suitable mother substitute is available" (p.133).

Burchinal and Lovell (1959) sought to determine differences among working and nonworking mothers. The subjects were mothers of preschoolers, elementary school age children and adolescents. In the total preschool group of 42 subjects, there were 12 employed mothers and 30 non-employed mothers. To obtain their information, the researchers used the Parent Attitude Research Instrument and found no significant difference between employed and non-employed mothers. They concluded, though, from the non-significant differences that employed mothers tended to: "be less likely to foster dependency in their children and endorsed harsh punishment more frequently" (p.128).

Research done by Biller and Meredith indicated that the children of working mothers as a group were similar to children of nonworking mothers in terms of emotion, intellect, and physical development. Such children showed as much attachment to their mothers as children of mothers who were housewives. This was mainly because the mother who went to work every day was likely to realize that her child definitely needed a period of playing with her and being

with her when she got home and she allowed for this. In fact, the child may have gotten more out of the working mom than the housewife mom, who may not really feel the need to interact as positively with her child. After all, she may have felt she was always at home anyway (1975, p.57).

Siegel, Stolz, Hitchcock and Adamson (1959) conducted an exploratory investigation to identify possible differences between the children of working and nonworking mothers with respect to dependence and independence. The authors thought that

. . . existing theory and evidence concerning socialization suggests that a child's development with respect to dependency is intimately associated with his relations with his parents and especially with his mother. Development with respect to dependence and independence may be presumed to relate to the consistency of the care the child receives and frequency of his contacts with the caretaker, the number of different people who assume caretaking responsibilities for him and diversity of their child-rearing techniques and attitudes toward the child. All of these conditions may be quite different for the child of a working mother than for the child of a full-time homemaker. (p.533)

Siegel's et al. (1959) sample consisted of 917 mothers of kindergarten children. A total of 11 percent were employed 32 or more hours per week. An additional 5 percent were employed part-time, 2 percent working 16 to 31 hours per week and 3 percent working 1 to 15 hours per week. The largest single group, 84 percent of the total number of respondents were full-time home makers.

This study measured several relationships--one relationship being maternal employment and family size. Siegal et al. (1959)

found that the majority of the families surveyed had preschool-age children in the home: 566 families had at least one child younger than the kindergarten child. Working mothers were found significantly more often in families having no children of preschool age than in families including a preschooler. There was no relation, however, between age composition of family and the number of hours per week the mother worked.

Another relationship examined was maternal employment and family intactness. Of the respondents, 95 percent represented intact homes (homes with united parents), 4 percent represented homes broken by divorce or separation and 1 percent represented homes broken by death of the father. The proportion of working mothers was higher in nonintact families than in united families.

Sears, Maccoby and Levin conducted a study based on standardized interviews with 379 mothers of five year old children. They sampled two subgroups of mothers, "the middle class" and "working class" group. The family's socio-economic status was a composite of the husband's occupation and income. The middle-class group included primarily business-professional occupation, together with other white-collar occupations such as salesmen and clerical workers. The working-class group was composed primarily of blue-collar workers; they ranged from unskilled laborers to self-employed plumbers and carpenters, the largest number being relatively skilled workers who

were not self-employed. The subgroups were also divided educationally--192 mothers had gone beyond high school; 180 had not gone beyond high school (1957, p.424).

The results of the Sears, Maccoby and Levin study were numerous and several of the comparisons dealt with the variables of dependency, restrictions and demands, discipline and warmth and family adjustment. A brief summary of these areas follows:

Dependency. "The working class mother was stricter than the middle-class one. Working class mothers were more inclined to be irritated by dependency behavior and to reject it with a punishing attitude" (p.429).

Restrictions and demands. "Middle class mothers and those with higher education, seemed to impose fewer restrictions and demands upon their five-year-olds than did the working-class mothers of lesser education. The assignment of household tasks to young children was equally rare in both social class groups. The mother's education, however, did seem to have some bearing upon this aspect of child training, the better educated she was, the more likely she was to assign regular tasks to the child" (p.430).

Techniques of discipline. "Working-class mothers were more punitive toward their children with respect to toilet training, dependency, sex and aggression. The punishment used by working-class mothers was composed mainly of physical punishment and

deprivation of privileges" (p.431).

Warmth and family adjustment. "Middle class mothers were slightly more demonstrative toward their five-year-olds and seemed to have a somewhat warmer relationship with them than did mothers in the working class. Mothers in both groups seemed to accept the role of mother easily and subordinated other roles to it without discomfort" (p.432)

In 1966, Smuts found that "all types of women work--the young and old, the rich and the poor, the married and the single, the illiterate and the college educated. Only two large categories of women were not well represented in the nation's labor force--young mothers of preschool children, and women above sixty-five" (p.58).

Brazelton (1977) postulated that young parents who go to work either for financial or for emotional reasons suffer a great deal over having to share a young child. Every parent (particularly a mother) who gave up a child to a day-care situation felt deprived. If she defended herself by appearing not to care as much, that was likely to be more tragic (p.3).

Curtis (1976) saw society supporting the poor working woman. People sympathized with a mother who had five children and was working full-time in a factory. This is not the case with a woman earning \$25,000 a year, with four children, a full-time housekeeper and a husband earning \$40,000 a year. Women in factories were not made to

feel guilty about their jobs. If anything public attitudes favored full-time employment for mothers, even of small children, if the alternative was adding the mother's name to the welfare rolls (p.63). Thus the pressures of society may lead women to emphasize economic necessity as a reason for working. Lein (1974) found that half the women in her sample of fourteen families cited financial need as the leading and sometimes the only reason they went to work or returned to work soon after pregnancies (p.134).

Nye and Hoffman (1963) saw full-time employment, because of economic need, as being detrimental to the working mother's children. The mother may become neglectful, lack warmth and depend too heavily on children (p.55). There are two theories that also reinforce the negativism of a woman working. The first of the theories is the "guilt-overprotection" theory which operates for a woman who enjoys her work and thus should feel guilty about it. It was predicted that such a woman would try to compensate for her employment by showing a great deal of affection toward the child. The child correspondingly should be relatively nonhostile, nonassertive, and if this parental pattern were carried to the point of overprotection, somewhat withdrawn and passive. The second theory of negativism is the "neglect" theory which operates for the working woman who dislikes her work. As such, she was expected to show more of the withdrawal from the maternal role, showing less positive affect and less disciplining (Hoffman, 1961, p.188).

Hoffman (1961) conducted a study which reinforced the "guilt-overprotection" theory and the "neglect" theory. She interviewed 176 working mothers and asked them "How do you feel about working?" The answers were coded as to the predominance of positive or negative attitudes toward work. The data showed that the children whose mothers liked work differed in their general lack of initiative-taking and tended to play with children younger than themselves. The children whose mothers did not like work, on the other hand, showed assertive behavior toward their mothers and toward their peers. This assertiveness toward peers included aggressiveness, use of physical force, and less impulse control in general. Hoffman proposed that both the "guilt-overprotection" theory and the "neglect" theory led to the prediction that the children of working mothers would be more disturbed in general than the children of nonworking mothers.

It has been noted that an increase in a couple's salary, was a major reason for women to work. The percentage of married women employed outside the home has been increasing annually. Womble (1968) found that:

Statistics show the proportion of employed wives to be higher as the husband's income level gets lower, for many wives, work is definitely related to their husband's earning ability. Statistically speaking, wives of husbands in lower income levels and with small children are five times more likely to work as are wives of husbands of the middle-income groups. Sometimes, wives attempt to raise the family's income level simply to raise its standard of living. If the husband's income is fixed and the family desires a higher standard of living, there are two choices possible:

the husband may take on an extra job or the wife may take a job outside the home. With the wife working, families find a way of attaining desired luxuries such as a nicer home, travel, new cars or perhaps higher education for their child. Such women are not working for basic family survival but rather for a more desirable standard. (1961, p.347)

Bernard found, that as

mothers of young children, professional women tend to emphasize the importance of independence and discipline; non-professional women the importance of protectiveness and empathy. The professional woman wants her child to be prepared to cope; the non-professional to have emotional security. Both act according to the way they see the child's best interest. (1972, p.116)

There are other variables to be considered in employment of women. One variable is geographic location. There is a higher percentage of double-increase salary families in metropolitan areas than in the rural regions. Outside employment for wives also varies with the number of years married. The majority of young wives are employed outside the home in the first year of marriage but after five years of marriage the number is greatly reduced. Socioeconomic class also affects employment patterns. For example, middle-class mothers do not usually accept outside employment when their children are in the formative years; they normally wait until their children are in school before returning to the labor market, although this condition seems to be changing (Womble, 1968, p.342).

The age of the mother is another influential factor. Seventy-six percent of all women work before marriage; and of married women living with spouses about 60 percent work before the coming of the

first child. While 13 percent between the ages of 20 and 24 with a preschool-age child continue to work, about 40 percent between the ages 30 and 40 with a school-age child work (1968, p.345).

A study conducted by Michigan State University with employed wives of students with children under five, found that on the average, 45 percent of the wife's earnings went for "job-necessitated" expenses. These expenses were costs she had to pay just because she was employed. Therefore, a woman's disposition to work outside the home becomes much greater in many cases as her children approach adolescence and require fewer hours of supervision. More importantly, she anticipated the day when her family would shrink to two members, her husband and herself (National Manpower Council, 1957, p.314). Bernard (1972) also discovered that women were more eager to work when their children were older. When he questioned women on the subject of part-time employment, he found they thought it was not worth the effort to work part-time and pay most of their salary for household help. They looked forward to the day when their children left home to lead lives of their own.

Former obstacles to women's working are being eased today; for example: fewer children, increased number of household appliances, prepared foods, ready-made clothes and less public pressure to stay in the home. Many women, though, choose to stay at home.

Much research suggests that some women who work are better mothers than before they worked. Their outside employment is such

a contrast to the constant strain of child care that, when the day's work is done, such women are able to return home refreshed by the joy of their children. Many such mothers contribute more in the short time with their children than they could in the whole day before they went to work. Sometimes working mothers actually spend more time with their children than women who are home all day but send their children outside to play without supervision (Womble, 1968, p.355).

When one looks at the period when there are preschool children, it is a frustrating time for the mother. In addition to the unrewarding work activities the mother's freedom is often considerably restricted. The loss of freedom that the preschool child brings to the mother is itself a motivation for employment. It is a time when many hold back impulses, defer gratification and remain physically at home. Thus the influences on a women's decision to work depends on many factors including young children, education, rural or urban residence, financial factors, and the number of years married (Siegel, Stolz et al., 1959, p.47). Whether a woman's employment is favorable to a child also depends on many variables including education, age of the child and mother, job satisfaction and number of hours she works.

Today there is much more concern over roles in American marriage. There is an increasing emphasis upon the democratic system

in America which represents a constant challenge to older traditions in all areas, especially because young people no longer follow traditional role expectations. Today's couples must reject, ignore or modify the traditional roles of marriage.

Each couple must look at the conflicting literature on the effects of maternal employment on children and decide what is best for their situation.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

This study examined the attitudes of working and nonworking mothers as expressed through the completion of a parental questionnaire, as related to job satisfaction, the mother's age, education and number of children. Mothers from several sources were asked to participate in this study.

Research Hypotheses

- Hypothesis 1: Working mothers will be less possessive than nonworking mothers.
- Hypothesis 2: Working mothers will be less dominant than nonworking mothers.
- Hypothesis 3: Working mothers will be less ignoring than nonworking mothers.
- Hypothesis 4: Working mothers will express more satisfaction with their occupations than will nonworking mothers of preschoolers.
- Hypothesis 5: Working mothers will cite financial needs, more often than personal needs for returning to work.
- Hypothesis 6: Working mothers between the ages of 20 and 30 will have a higher percentage in the job market than working mothers between the ages of 30 and 40.
- Hypothesis 7: Working mothers will be found more often in families having one child of preschool age than in families having more than one preschooler.

Hypothesis 8: Working mothers will work full-time more often than part-time.

Hypothesis 9: Working mothers will have obtained higher educational levels than nonworking mothers.

Subjects

The population consisted of thirty working and thirty nonworking women in Blacksburg, Virginia who have preschool children. Initially the mothers were contacted in the housing development of Oak Manor and Piedmont with the cooperation of the Homeowners Associations. The sample was biased in that the author contacted only persons listed in the directory of Oak Manor and Piedmont who had children from three to six years of age. It was reasoned that if both parents are working outside the home then the children were probably cared for at least part of the time in day care and nursery schools. Additional subjects were obtained from the VPI Laboratory School and the Blacksburg Child Care Center. The data were collected over the period of time beginning May, 1977 through September, 1977. The mothers were asked to complete a nine page questionnaire which was to be returned in an enclosed envelope. (See Appendix B) The questionnaire was responded to by a total of 60 mothers. Two groups were established from the sample of 60, each consisting of 30 mothers. One group consisted of non-working mothers of preschool children, the other consisted of working

mothers with preschool children.

Instrument

The instrument used for this study was the University of California Parent Attitude Survey developed by Shoben (1949). Data obtained from Part I (see Appendix C) included information on age of the mother and child, education of the mother, current job status, present job satisfaction, and reasons for employment. Items on the questionnaire were classified into three sub-scales which indicated the respondent's attitudes concerning preschoolers. The inventory is an eighty-five item questionnaire (see Appendix D).

The inventory provides a measure of parent attitudes in relation to behavior and/or personality problems in children. The original scale was administered to 100 white urban mothers, 50 of whom were the parents of problem children and 50 of whom were the parents of non-problem children. The definition of "problem child" rested on any one of the three criteria: the child was receiving clinical help for some personality or behavior problem; the child had come into the custody of the juvenile authorities at least twice; or the child's mother registered a complaint about the youngster clearly indicating that she would like to have clinical help with her child if it were available or if she could afford it. On the other hand, the definition of "non-problem child" rested

upon the child's never having received clinical attention, never having been taken into custody by the juvenile authorities and having the mother deny that clinical help was either necessary or desirable with her child. Four choices are available for each item ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Each question was weighted according to Guilford's formula, $W = \frac{P - P_{np}}{pq} + 4$. (See Appendix A) The resulting weights for the eighty-five items show how the respondents answered in terms of the four scoring categories of "strongly agree," "mildly agree," "mildly disagree" and "strongly disagree" (See Appendix E). Therefore, when scored, the higher the total score, the greater the tendency of the respondent to possess the trait of the subscale. Conversely, the lower the total score, the greater the tendency of the respondent not to be possessive, ignoring or dominant. The same weights were used for the present study. The total questions in each subscale were then multiplied by thirty, the total number in the working and nonworking groups.

To measure reliability, Shoben utilized a split-half method, raised by the Spearman-Brown formula. Two halves of the same test were administered to a group of 100 mothers. In the preliminary investigation, 148 items were given to a group of white urban mothers. As a result of this procedure, those items which differentiated the two groups of mothers at the five percent level of

confidence or beyond were retained. The chi-square method was used. Thus 85 of the original 148 items were then given to 40 mothers equally divided. The reliability values were all of sufficient magnitude to permit the interpretation of a high degree of consistency in the survey. Coefficients for each subscale were as follows: Dominant, .91; Possessive, .90; Ignoring, .84; Total Scale, .95. No attempt was made to check reliability by means of the test-retest method because, Shoben believed, parental attitudes may change as a function of time, and it is difficult to know whether the obtained correlations reflect inconsistency in the instrument or in the subjects measured.

The amount of shrinkage in terms of the correlation coefficients which serve as indices of the survey's validity were not excessive. The measures of validity from the second administration of the test were as follows: Ignoring, .624; Possessive, .721; Dominant, .623; and for the Total Scale, .769.

A modification of this test was used in that the eighty-five items were administered to mothers who had preschool children between the ages of 3 - 6. The present study divided the two groups of 30 mothers according to employment--whether she was employed in the home or outside the home.

Analysis

A two sample t test was used to compare the data. To test hypotheses one through nine, statistics were conducted which included comparing the mean scores, standard deviation scores, variance scores and confidence levels of the working and nonworking mothers. In addition, frequency distributions were illustrated in the form of histograms for significant responses.

CHAPTER IV .

Result and Discussion

Introduction

The first major objective of this study was to compare the attitudes of working and nonworking mothers of preschoolers between the ages of three and six. Three variables were examined in the comparison between the groups--dominance, possessiveness and ignoring. The University of California Parent Attitude Survey (U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey) was administered to 60 women. Two groups, each consisting of 30 mothers, were derived from this original data source. Group I consisted of working mothers and Group II consisted of nonworking mothers. The mean age of the working group was 30.96, with a standard deviation of 4.56. The nonworking group had a mean age of 31.23 with a standard deviation of 4.15. A comparison of the two groups using the t-test resulted in a t-value of -.23 with 58 degrees of freedom. Demographically, the two groups appeared to be quite similar (see Table 1). The age range for the working mothers was between 20 and 39. The age range for the nonworking mothers was between 23 and 39. Both groups were similar in terms of education. The mean of the working group equalled 2.96 and the

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE

Classification	Working Mothers		Nonworking Mothers	
	<u>N</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Age</u>				
20	1	3.3	0	0
23	1	3.3	1	3.3
24	2	6.7	3	10.0
26	2	6.7	3	10.0
27	0	0	1	3.3
28	2	6.7	0	0
29	2	6.7	0	0
30	1	3.3	1	3.3
31	4	13.3	6	20.0
32	1	3.3	1	3.3
33	4	13.3	6	20.0
34	0	0	3	10.0
35	6	20.0	20	6.7
36	1	3.3	0	0
37	1	3.3	1	3.3
38	1	3.3	1	3.3
39	<u>1</u>	<u>3.3</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3.3</u>
	30	100.0	30	100.0

The N for the working and nonworking mothers is 30.

TABLE 1--continued

Classification	Working Mothers		Nonworking Mothers	
	<u>N</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Job Status</u>				
employed greater than 32 hours	19	63.3		
employed less than 32 hours	11	36.6		
	<u>30</u>	<u>100.0</u>		
have worked, now out of work			25	83.3
have never worked			5	16.3
			<u>30</u>	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Job Satisfaction</u>				
very satisfied	12	40.0	8	26.7
satisfied	18	60.0	12	40.0
dissatisfied	0	0.0	0	0.0
	<u>30</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>66.7</u>
<u>Employment Reasons</u>				
financial	14	46.7	2	6.7
personal fulfillment	12	40.0	5	16.6
other	12	6.7	1	3.3
	<u>38</u>	<u>92.4</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>26.9</u>

TABLE 1 --continued

Classification	Working Mothers		Nonworking Mothers	
	<u>N</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Education</u>				
less than high school	3	10.0	1	3.3
college without degree	6	20.0	7	23.3
college with one degree	12	40.0	13	43.3
college with M.S.	7	23.3	9	30.0
college with Ph.D.	2	6.7	0	0.0
	<u>30</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Number of children from 3-6 years of age</u>				
1. one preschooler	24	80.0	23	73.3
2. two preschoolers	6	20.0	7	26.7
	<u>30</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>100.0</u>

mean of the working group equalled 3 which indicated that the educational level of the entire group was that of college with one or more degrees.

All of the working mothers indicated satisfaction in their work. Forty percent were "very satisfied" while 60 percent were "satisfied." In the nonworking mother group, 33.3 percent did not respond while 26.7 percent indicated that they were "very satisfied" with their work and 40 percent were "satisfied."

The variance for working mothers was .24 and the variance for nonworking mothers was .75 indicating that the respective means were different. The percentage in the nonworking group that did not answer accounted for this large difference in variances. The majority of women, though, in both groups indicated satisfaction with what they were presently doing.

In the working group, the reasons cited for employment were equally split between financial and personal factors. A slightly greater percentage (46.7 percent) listed financial factors as the primary reason for employment. Personal fulfillment (40 percent) was the second reason cited for employment.

No significant differences emerged between the two groups in parental attitudes. Both groups were essentially similar in terms of the dominance, possessiveness and ignoring variables.

Nine hypotheses were formulated and the results will be discussed

in the following way:

Hypothesis 1: Working mothers would be less possessive than nonworking mothers. There was no difference in possessiveness between working and nonworking mothers' attitudes toward preschoolers (see Tables 2 and 3). The mean for working mothers was 3.56 with a 1.08 standard deviation. Skewness equalled $-.38$ for working mothers and $.39$ for nonworking mothers. Therefore the distribution for the working mother group was negatively skewed, indicating more responses occurred at the right end of the graph. The distribution for the nonworking mother group was positively skewed, indicating more responses occurred at the left end of the graph. The mean for the nonworking mothers was 3.81 with a 1.02 standard deviation. The mean of working and nonworking mothers indicated a small amount of variability in the scores made to possessive questions. The data analysis indicated no significant results at the .05 level of significance. No conclusions can be drawn that either the working or nonworking mother valued highly the child's dependence on the parent.

These results, indicating no significant difference in parental attitudes toward possessiveness, were in contrast to Hoffman's (1968) study. She found that middle-class, professional women who like their work are more protective than middle-class working woman who dislike their work. In this sample, essentially all the women in the working and nonworking groups were middle-class, professionals who indicated

TABLE 2

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF POSSESSIVE RESPONSES

	Working Mothers	Nonworking Mothers
N	660	660
Mean	3.5606	3.8136
Variance	1.1750	1.0441
Standard Deviation	1.0841	1.0218
Data Minimum	0	0
Data Maximum	7	7
Data Range	7	7
Skewness	-.38	.39
Kurtosis	5.12	-54.13

One tailed t test, .01 level of significance, 1318 degrees of freedom, critical value of $t = 2.32$, t observed = -4.36 .

Note: N = total number of possessive responses

TABLE 3

N % REL FREQ SAMPLE HISTOGRAM OF POSSESSIVE RESPONSES

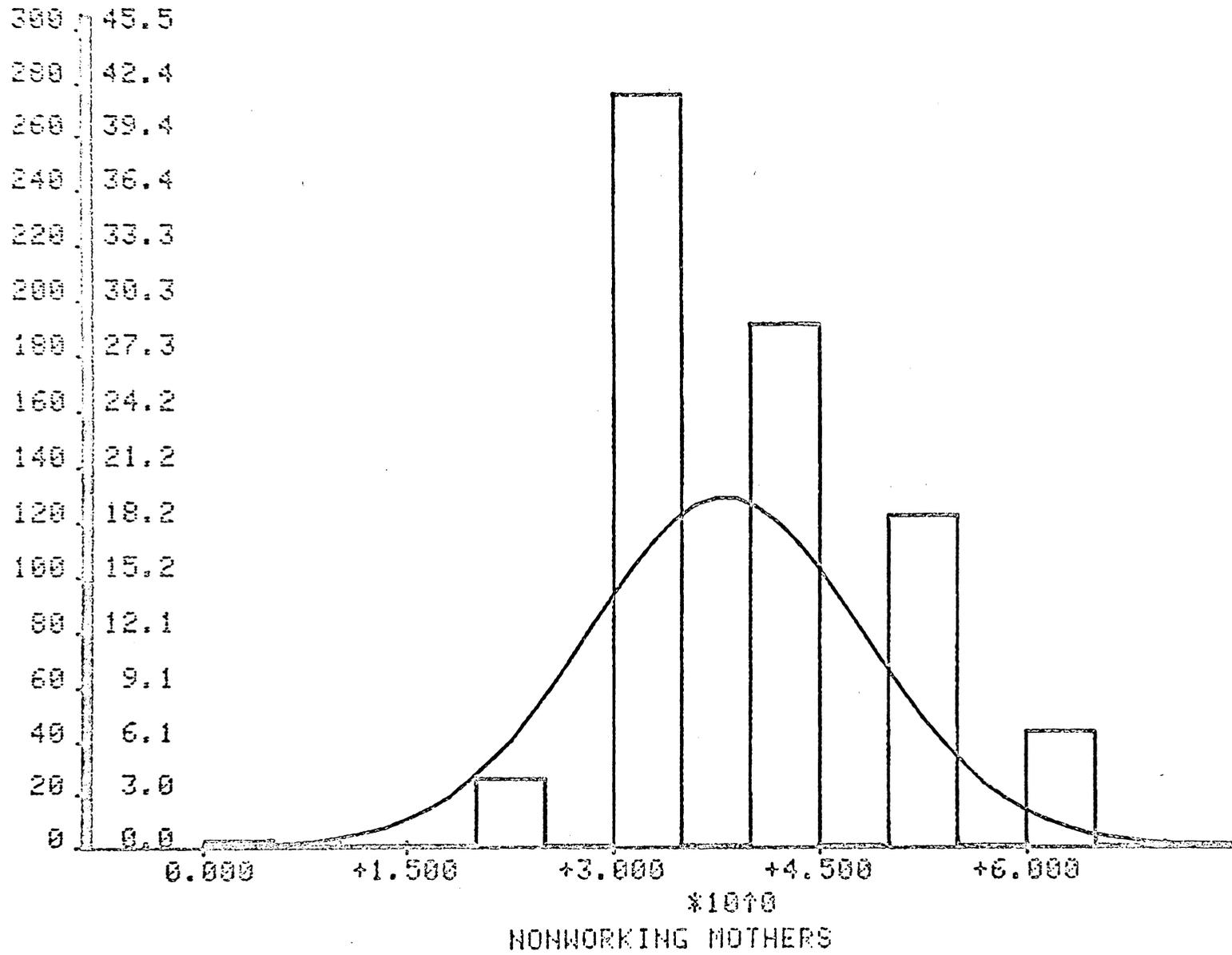
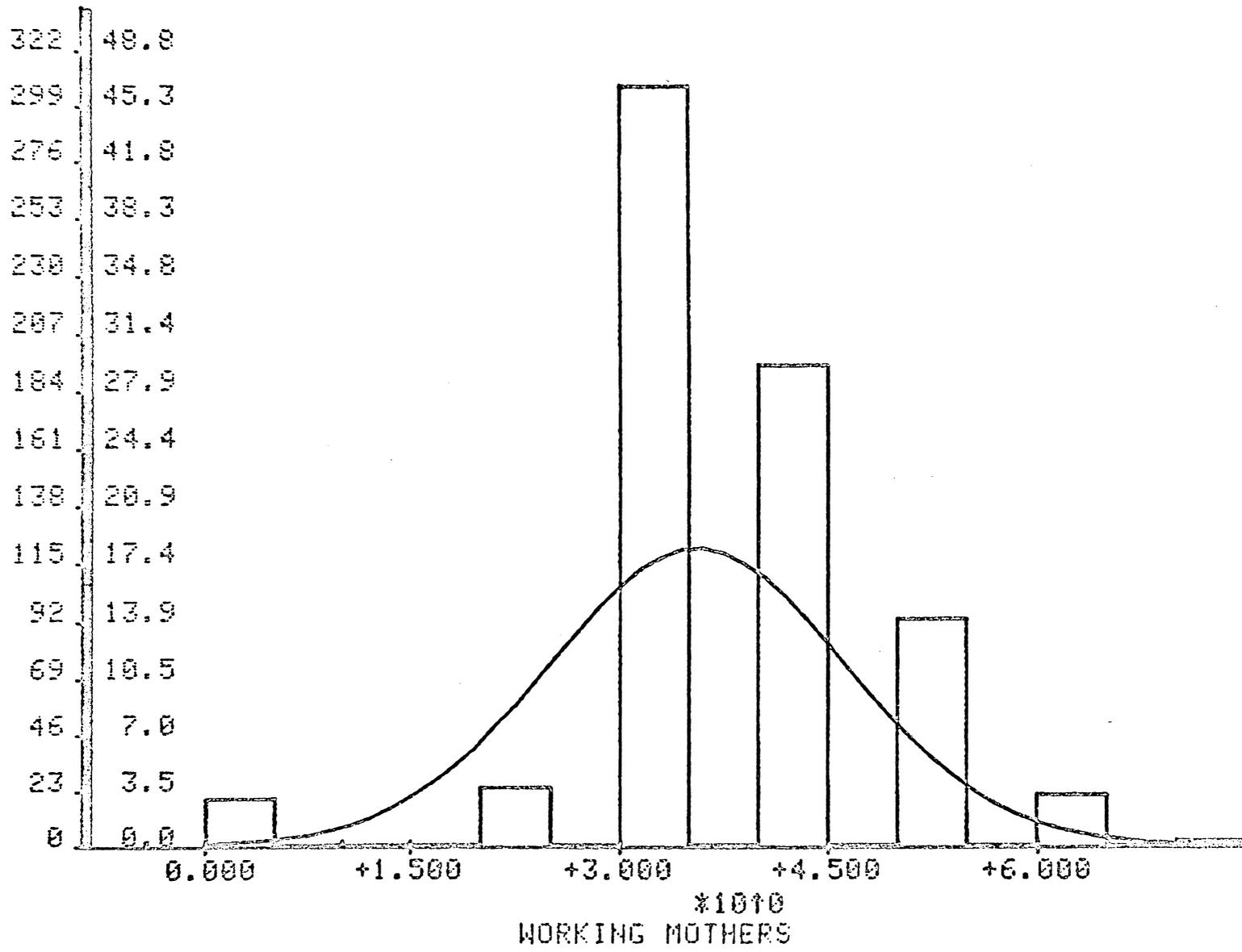


TABLE 3 --continued

N % REL FREQ X SAMPLE HISTOGRAM OF POSSESSIVE RESPONSES



satisfaction with their present occupation, whether that included working in the home or outside the home.

These results also contradict Hoffman and Nye's (1963) "guilt-overprotection theory" which states that a woman who enjoys her work would feel guilty about it. She, in turn, would become overprotective of her child.

Hypothesis 2: Working mothers would be less dominant than nonworking mothers. The mean for working mothers was 3.58 with a standard deviation of 1.18. The mean for nonworking mothers was 3.84 with a standard deviation of 1.14. Skewness for the working mother group equalled -.26 while for the nonworking group, skewness equalled .01. There were slightly higher responses of agreement in the nonworking group. The distributions are fairly similar, except for skewness. Analysis of the data indicated no significant results at the .05 level of significance. Thus, neither working nor nonworking mothers indicated a strong dominant attitude that the child should conform to parental wishes (see Tables 4 and 5).

These results supported Sears, Maccoby and Levin's study (1959) that middle-class mothers were irritated by dependency behavior in their children since both working and nonworking mothers did not indicate they strongly favored dependency in their children. The analysis also tends to favor Bernard's study (1972) when he found that professional women tend to emphasize the importance of independence.

TABLE 4

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DOMINANT RESPONSES

	Working Mothers	Nonworking Mothers
N	1170	1170
Mean	3.58	3.84
Variance	1.39	1.31
Standard Deviation	1.18	1.14
Data Minimum	0	0
Data Maximum	7	7
Data Range	7	7
Skewness	- .26	.01
Kurtosis	4.5	3.61

One tailed t test, .01 level of significance, 1169 degrees of freedom, critical value of $t = 2.32$, t observed = -11.93.

Note: N = total number of dominant responses.

TABLE 5

HISTOGRAM OF DOMINATING RESPONSES
 ----- WORKING MOTHERS -----

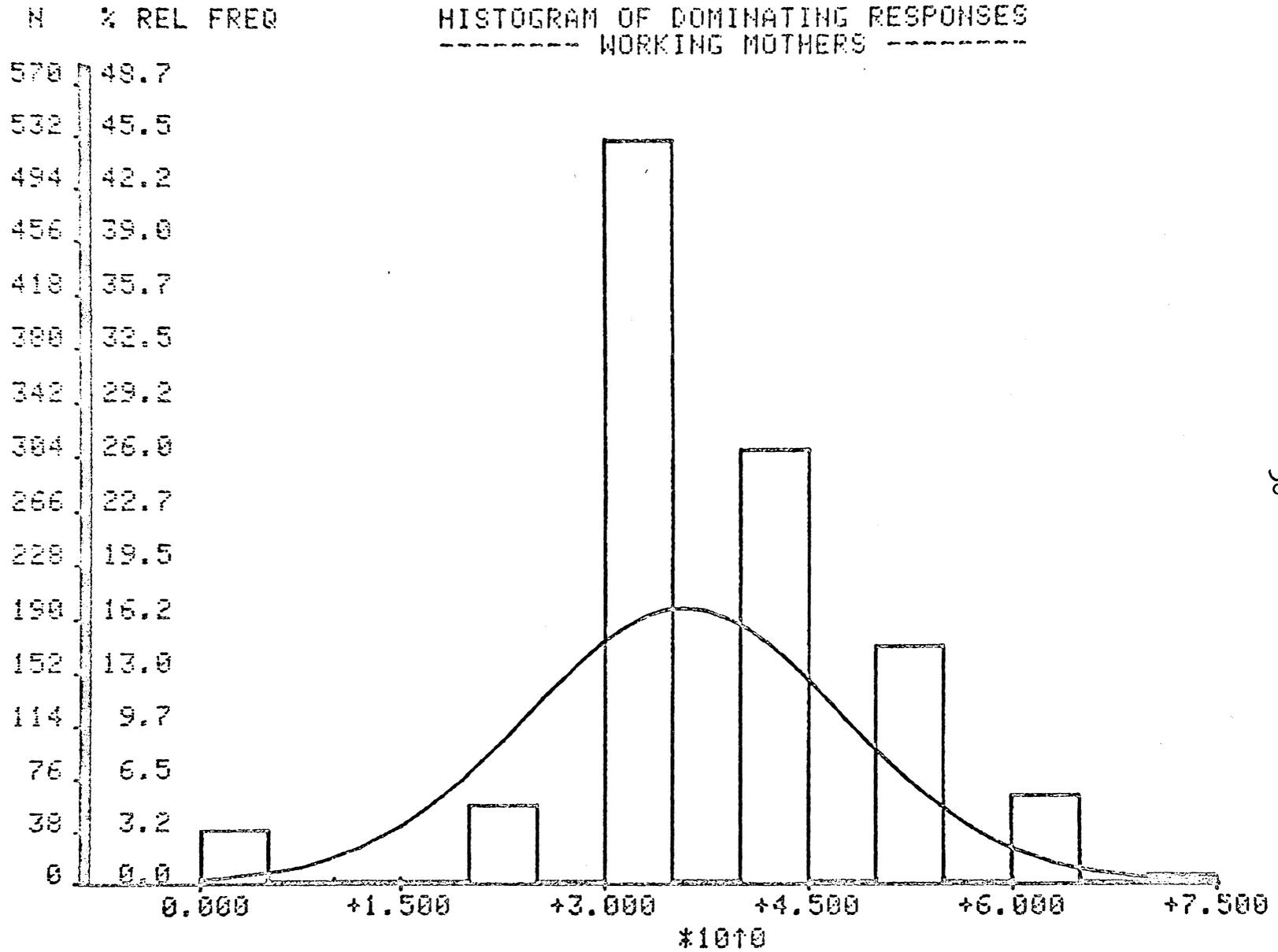
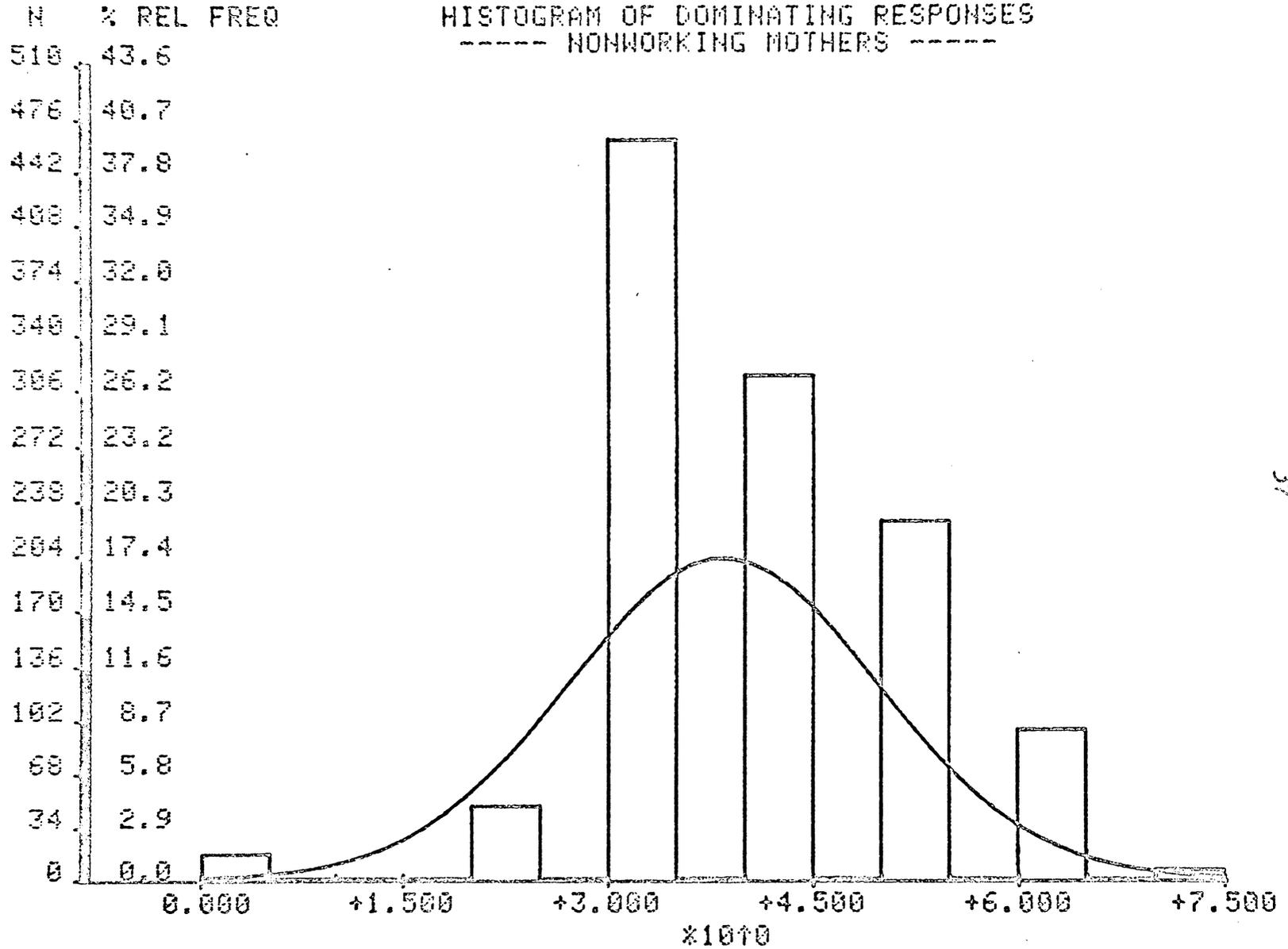


TABLE 5 --continued

HISTOGRAM OF DOMINATING RESPONSES
 ----- NONWORKING MOTHERS -----



Hypothesis 3: Working mothers would be less ignoring than nonworking mothers. The mean for working mothers was 3.80 with a 1.09 standard deviation. The mean for the nonworking mothers was 3.90 with a 1.02 standard deviation. The data analysis indicated that no significant differences between the means existed at the .05 level of significance (see Tables 6 and 7). Both distributions were negatively skewed. The larger frequencies tended to be concentrated toward the high end of the variable for both the working and nonworking group. Skewness equalled $-.49$ for working mothers and $-.23$ for nonworking mothers.

Hypothesis 4: Working mothers would express more satisfaction with their occupations than would nonworking mothers of preschoolers. Forty percent of the working mothers were very satisfied with their present occupation and 60 percent were satisfied. In the nonworking group, 26.6 percent indicated very satisfied while 40 percent were satisfied. The data analysis indicated a difference between the two groups at the .01 level of significance. The large differences in variance and standard deviation between the two groups indicated that not all of the nonworking group responded to this item (see Table 1). The mean score for the nonworking group was 1.06. The mean score for the working group was 1.6. It is highly probable that the mean score for the nonworking group was not representative (see Table 8), since 33.3 percent of this group did not respond to this item.

TABLE 6

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF IGNORING RESPONSES

	Working Mothers X = 30	Nonworking Mothers Y = 30
N	420	420
Mean	3.80	3.90
Variance	1.20	1.05
Standard Deviation	1.09	1.02
Data Minimum	0	0
Data Maximum	6	6
Data Range	6	6
Skewness	- .49	- .23
Kurtosis	5.27	-12.02

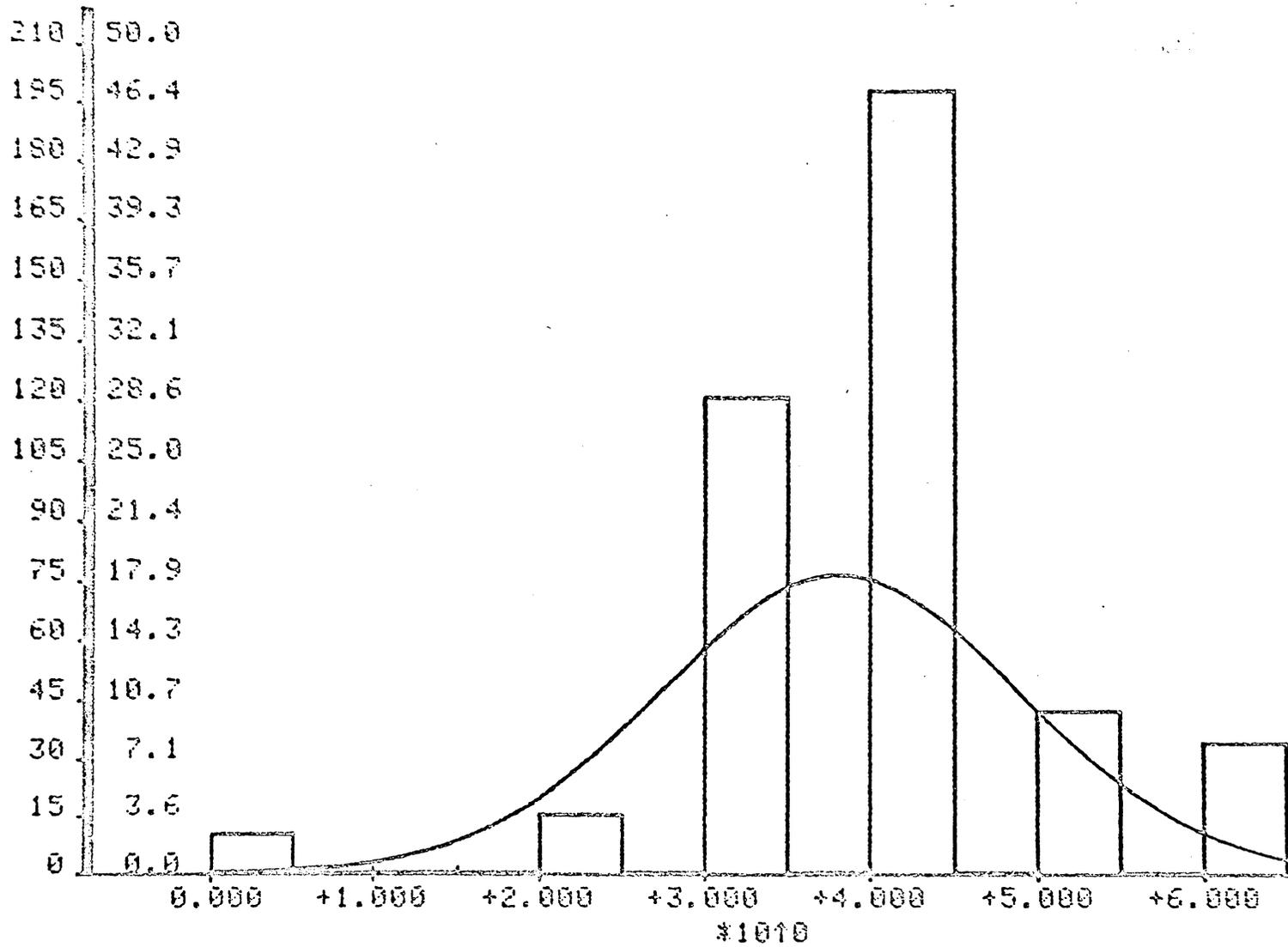
One tailed t test, .01 level of significance, 838 degrees of freedom, critical value of $t = 2.32$, t observed = -1.36.

Note: N = total number of ignoring responses.

TABLE 7

HISTOGRAM OF IGNORING RESPONSES

N % REL FREQ



NONWORKING MOTHERS

10

TABLE 7 --continued

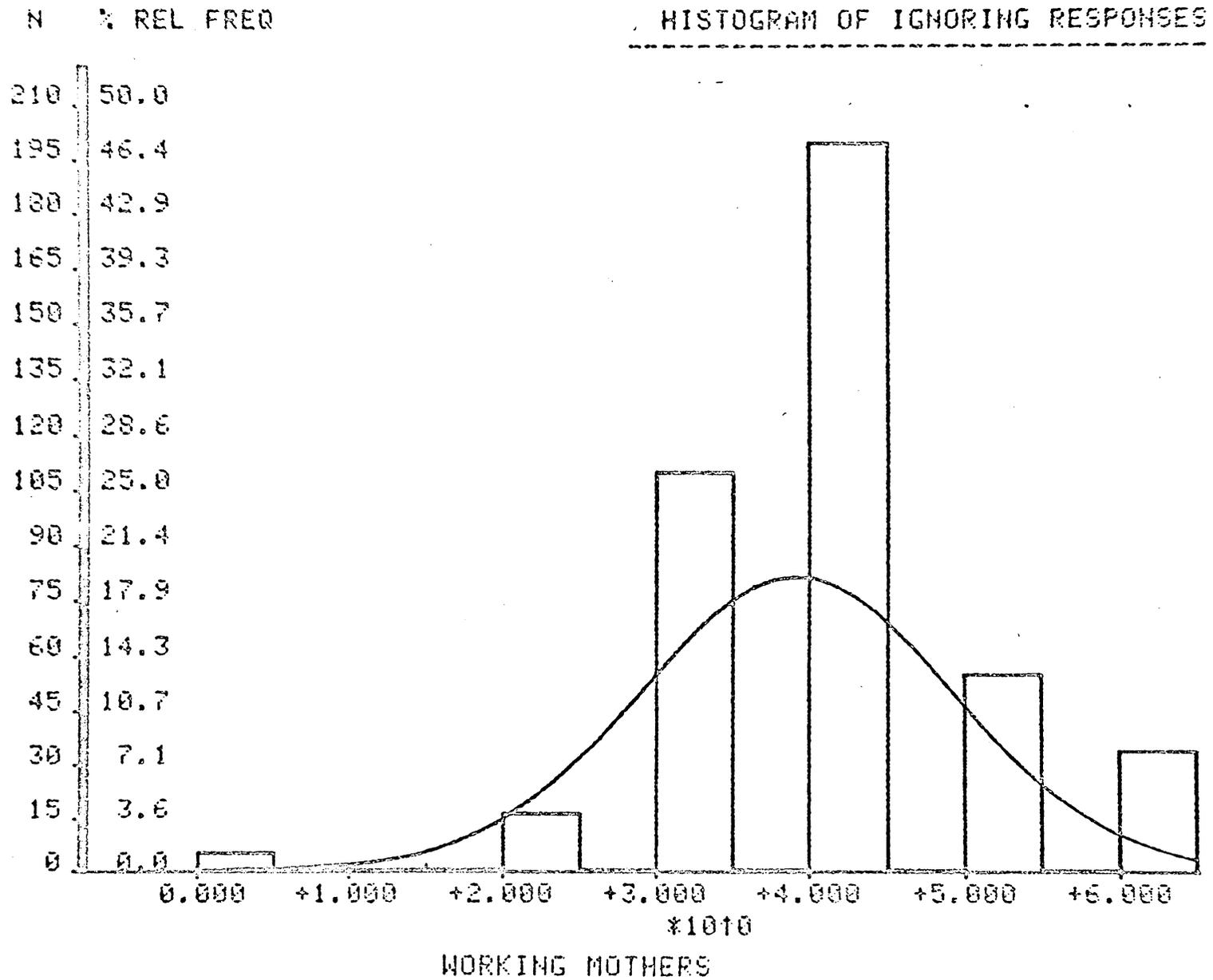
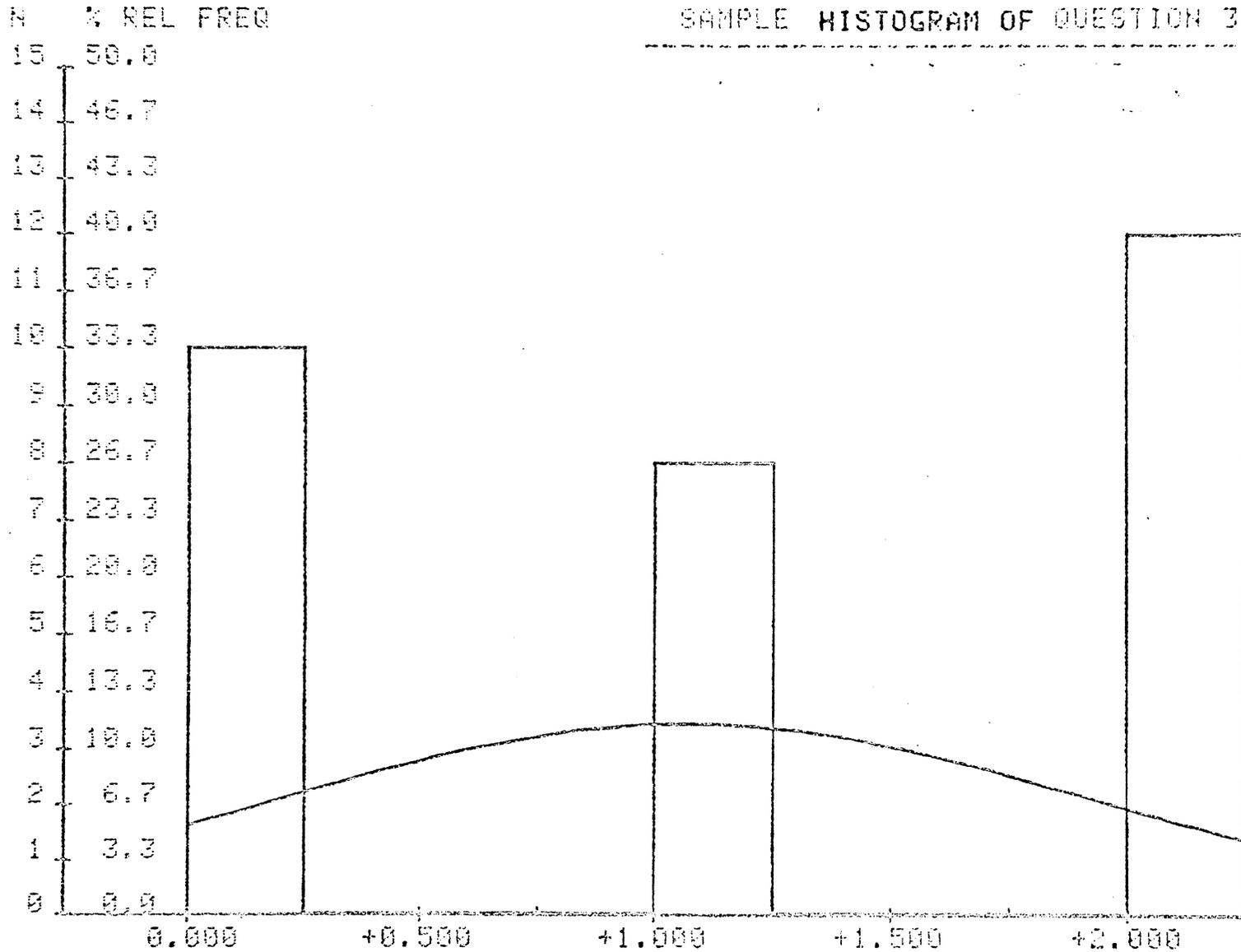


TABLE 8

SAMPLE HISTOGRAM OF QUESTION 3



#1079

NONWORKING MOTHERS

The analysis of data did show that the working mothers' group enjoyed or were satisfied with their work. Since the mean was 1.6 for this group, more mothers were satisfied than very satisfied. Forty percent were very satisfied while 60 percent were satisfied (see Table 9). It would follow from Hoffman's (1968) study that when the mother has a positive attitude toward work, she exerted fewer power techniques in discipline. Although in the analysis of hypothesis 1 and 2, there was no difference in maternal attitude between working and nonworking mothers regarding possessiveness and dominance.

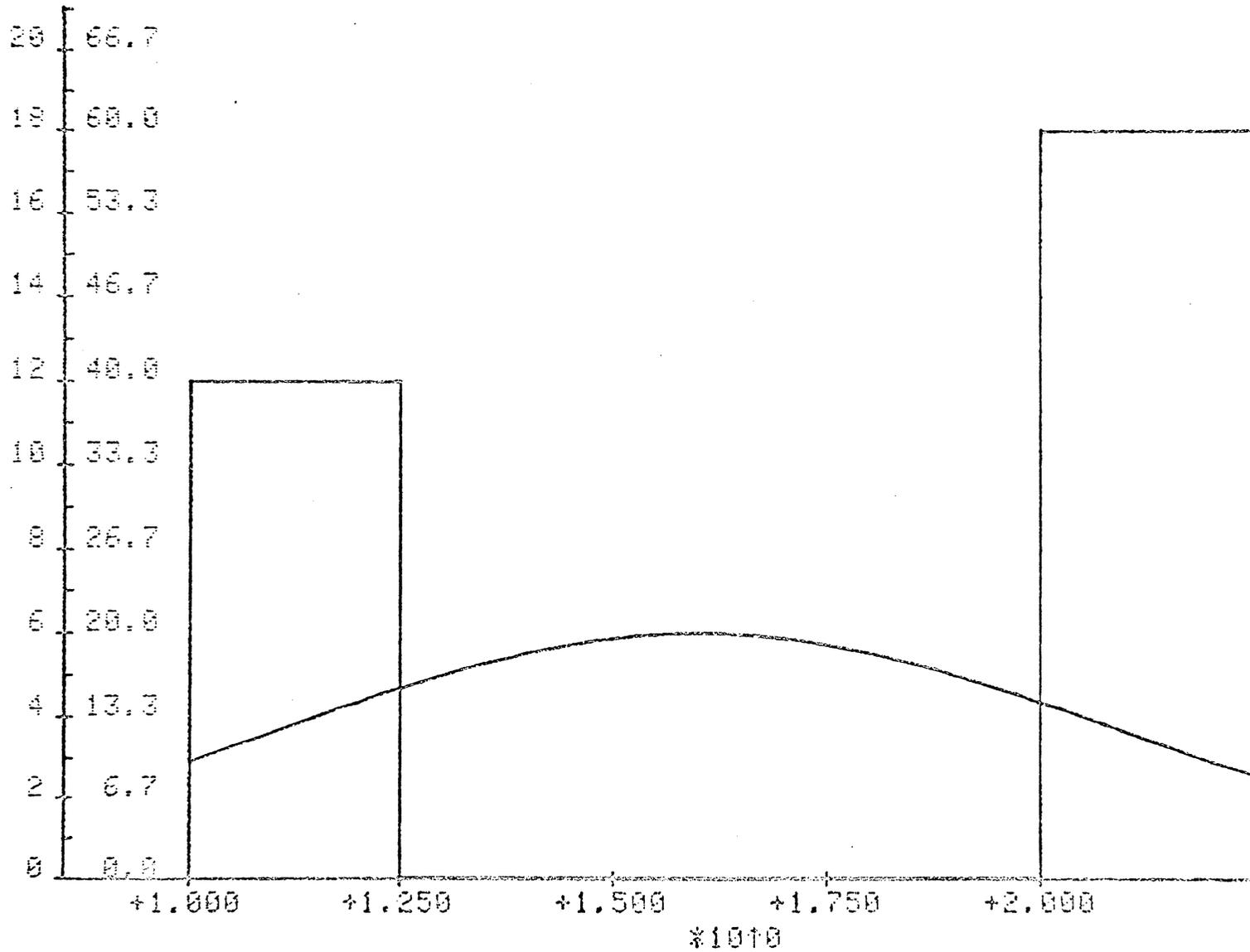
Hypothesis 5: Working mothers would cite financial needs more often than personal needs for returning to work. The percentage of working mothers that listed financial reasons as the first choice in order of importance was 46.7 percent (see Table 7). Personal fulfillment was listed as first choice by 40 percent of working mothers. The data analysis indicated no significant differences at the .01 level of significance. The two percentages were fairly close, though, no definite conclusion can be drawn that working mothers returned to work mainly for financial reasons (see Table 10).

Personal satisfaction also was significant in a woman's decision to work outside the home. These results were in contrast to Lein's (1974) study. Half the women in her sample cited financial

TABLE 9.

SAMPLE HISTOGRAM OF QUESTION 3

N % REL FREQ



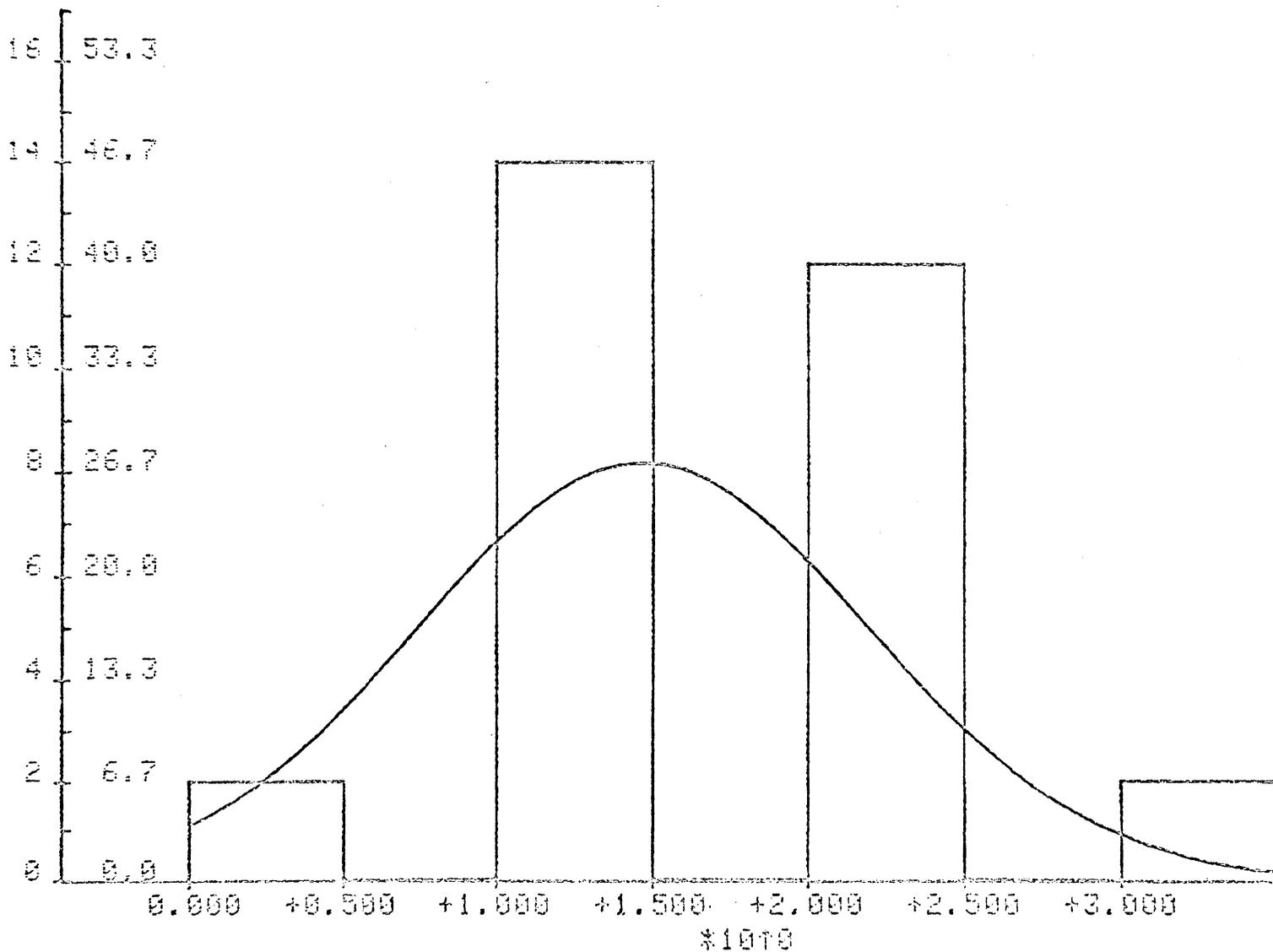
NONWORKING MOTHERS

47

TABLE 18

SAMPLE HISTOGRAM OF QUESTION 5

N % REL FREQ



WORKING MOTHERS

45

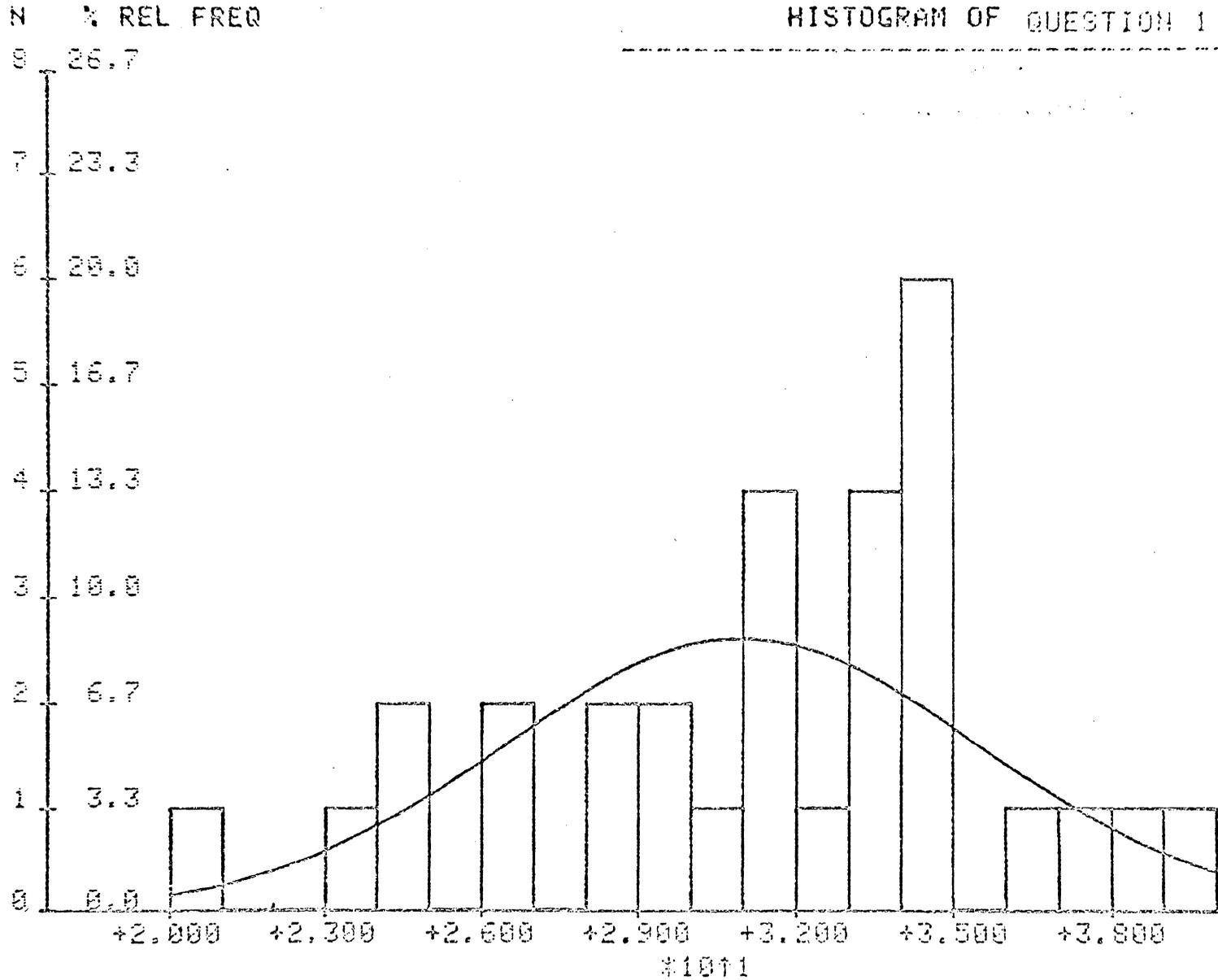
need as the leading and sometimes only reason they went to work. Womble (1968) noted that wives of husbands in lower income levels and with small children were five times more likely to work as were wives of husbands of the middle-income group.

The analysis of data in this study dealt with middle income families which was perhaps why financial need was not the leading factor for a woman's employment. The high percentage of women that indicated personal satisfaction as a leading factor could be indicative of having preschool children. Siegel, Stolz et al. (1959) recognized that young children at home were extremely influential in a woman's returning to work.

Hypothesis 6: Working mothers between the ages of 20 and 30 will have a higher percentage in the job market than working mothers between the ages of 30 and 40. In the 20-30 age group, 36.6 percent were working. In the 30-40 age group 63.3 percent were working (see Table 11). The data analysis indicated significant differences in the two age groups at the .01 level of significance. The data analysis revealed that, in this sample, there were more mothers who were working between the ages of 30 - 40. This analysis also may be an indication that women are having children later in life. Womble (1968) discovered that 13 percent of women between the ages of 20 and 24 that have preschoolers continued to work while 40 percent between the ages of 30 and 40 with school-age children worked. This study revealed that in this sample

TABLE 11

HISTOGRAM OF QUESTION 1



WORKING MOTHERS

47

63.3 percent of the women between 30 - 40 years of age with preschoolers continued to work.

Hypothesis 7: Working mothers will be found more often in families having one child of preschool age than in families having more than one preschoolers. In the working group, 80 percent of the mothers had one preschooler whereas only 20 percent had two preschoolers at home. The data analysis indicated significant differences between having one or two preschoolers in the home (see Table 12).

Hypothesis 8: Working mothers will work full-time more often than part-time. More mothers indicated they worked more than 32 hours (63 percent) than indicated they worked less than 32 hours (11 percent). Significant differences were found in the number of hours the woman worked (see Table 13). This data negated Smuts (1966) findings which stated most working mothers do not assume the burden of a full work schedule when they were employed outside the home. Siegel et al. (1959) study discovered that, in his sample, only 21 percent of the women were employed. In that group, though, 11 percent were employed 32 or more hours per week. The analysis of data supported Bossard's (1972) study when he found women do not think it worth the effort to work part-time and pay most of the salary for household help.

Hypothesis 9: Working mothers will have achieved a higher educational level than nonworking mothers. No significant

TABLE 12

SAMPLE HISTOGRAM OF QUESTION 7

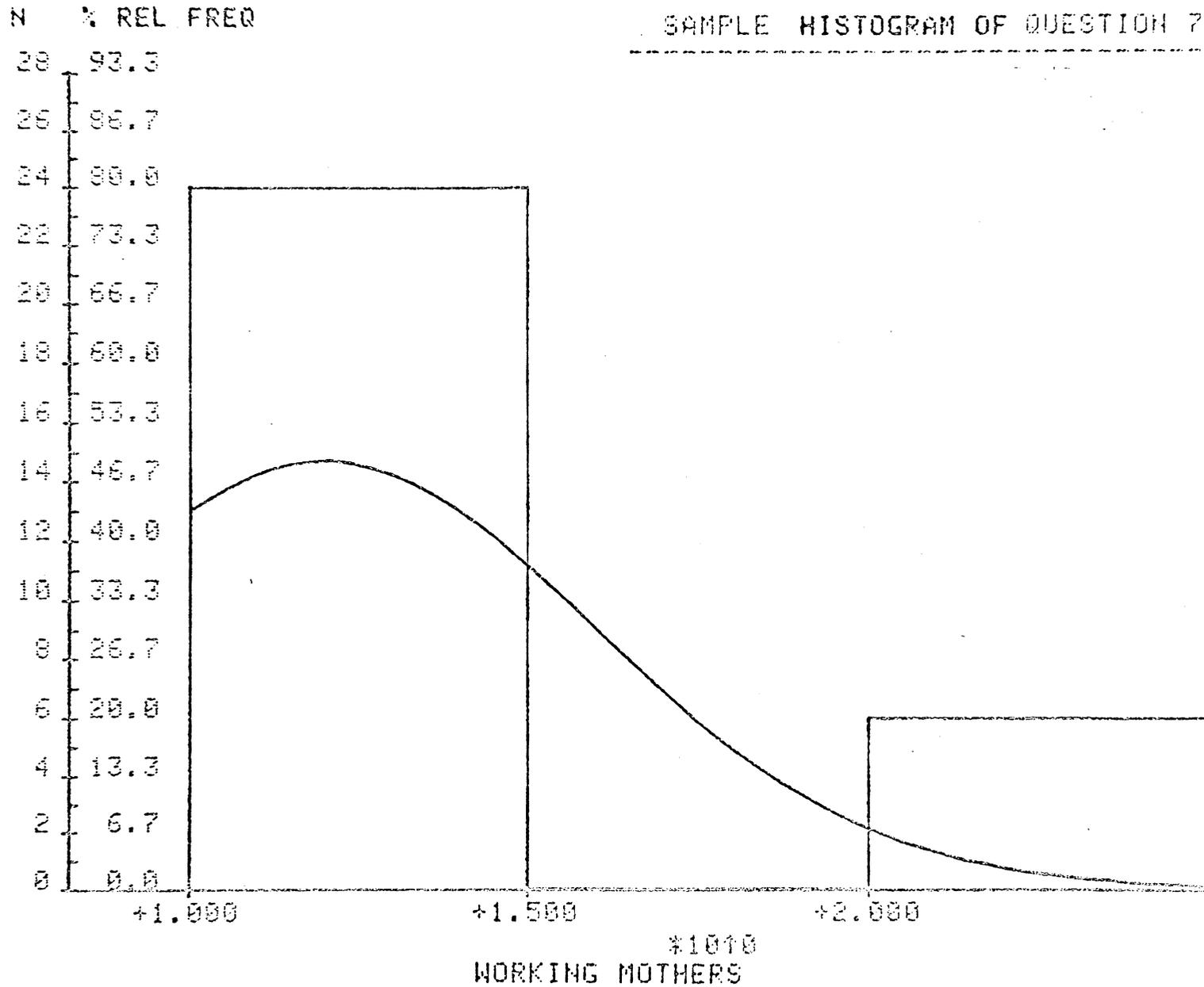
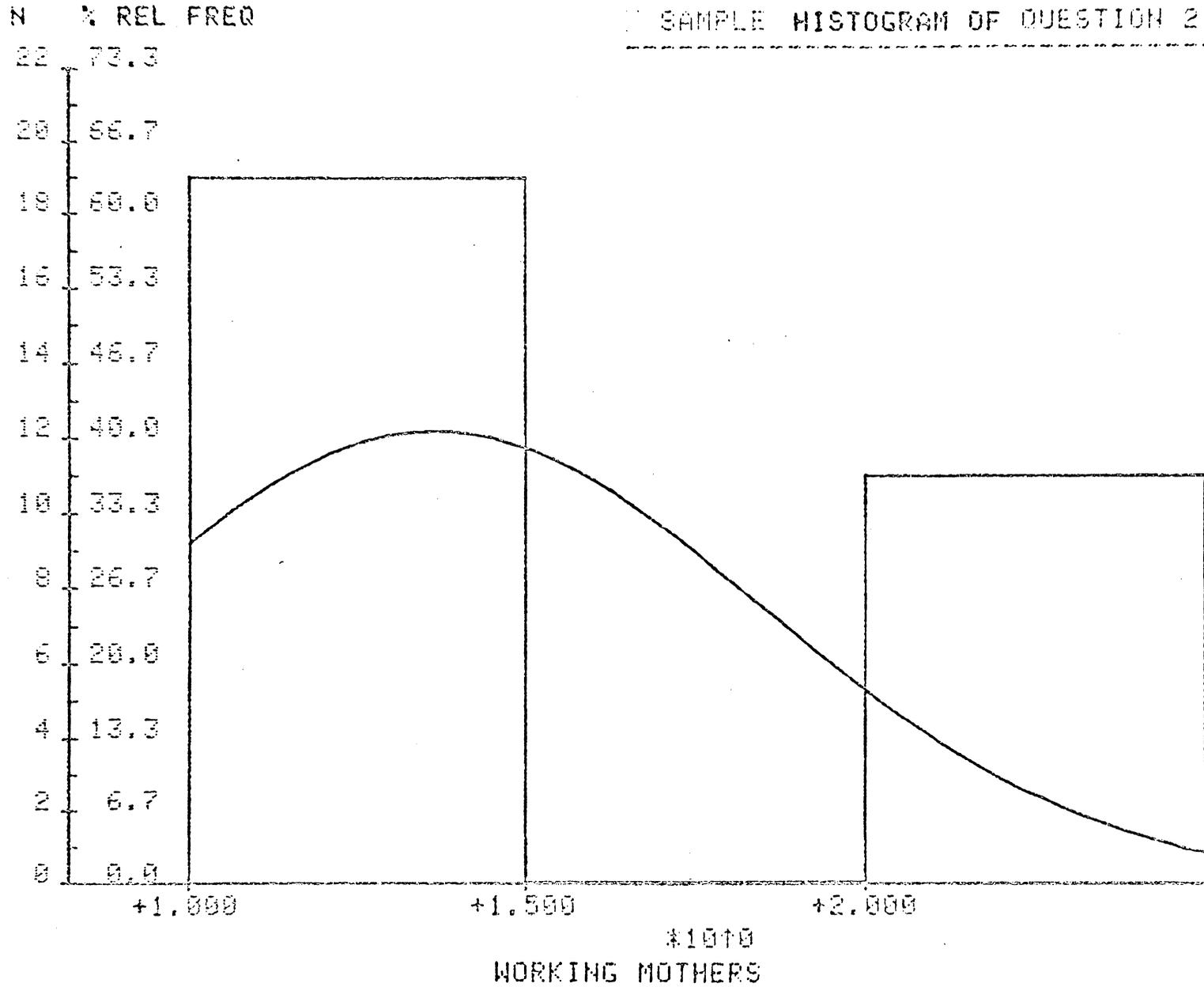


TABLE 13

SAMPLE HISTOGRAM OF QUESTION 2



50

differences were found between the two groups regarding education (see Table 14). Skewness equalled $-.10$ for the working group and $-.36$ for the nonworking group. Therefore the distribution for the two groups was negatively skewed indicating more responses fell toward the right side of the curve. The data analysis indicated a small amount of variance between the two groups. In the working group, 7 percent had obtained a Master's degree. In the nonworking group, 9 percent had a Master's degree. There was also 2 percent holding a doctorate in the working group. Eighteen percent in the working group had a college education while 20 percent in the nonworking group had a college education (see Table 15). Therefore no conclusion can be drawn that women in either group were more educated than the other.

Summary of Results

In summary, no differences were found in parental attitudes toward possessiveness, dominance or in ignoring a child between working and nonworking mothers. In addition, working mothers cited personal as well as financial reasons for employment, fairly often. The analysis also revealed an overall occupational satisfaction in both groups, whether one was employed in the home or outside. The sample was identified as an educated, middle-class group. Many women had children from three to six years of age who were in the age range 30-40, perhaps indicative of the fact that couples are getting married later and having children when they are in their

TABLE 14

SAMPLE HISTOGRAM OF QUESTION 6

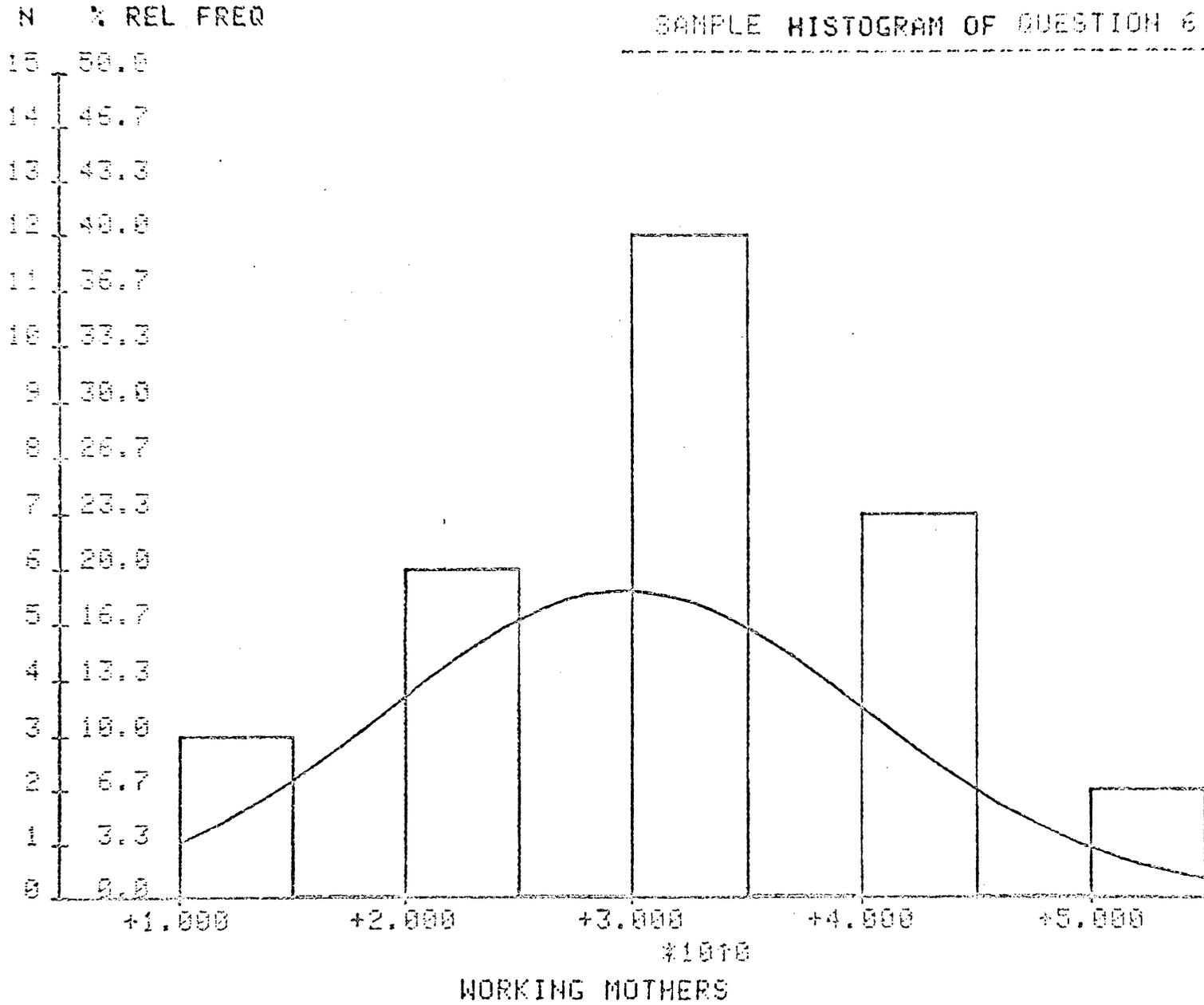
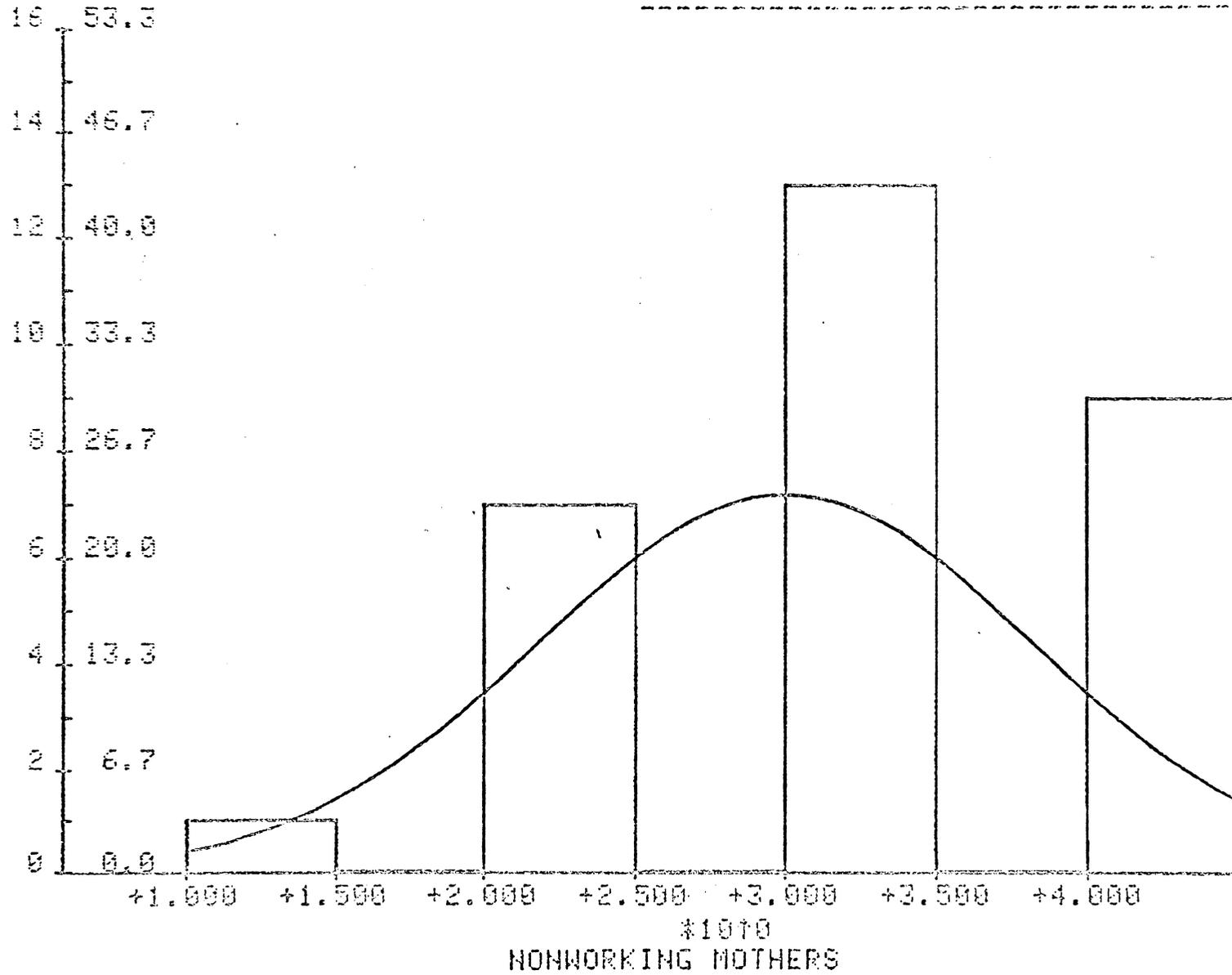


TABLE 14--continued

N % REL FREQ

SAMPLE HISTOGRAM OF QUESTION 6



late 20's and early 30's. Additionally, it was discovered in the analysis that if a woman chooses to work when her children are young, she will probably work at least 32 hours a week.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Limitations and Recommendations

Summary

The present study was conducted to compare maternal attitudes, toward preschool children, of working and nonworking mothers. Maternal attitudes were determined by the University of Southern California Parent Attitude Survey (U.S.C. Parent Attitude Survey). The questionnaire consisted of Part I and Part II. Part I was composed of seven questions related to demographic data. Part II consisted of 84 questions measuring three maternal attitudes: dominance, possessiveness and ignoring. A two sample t-test was used to analyze the data.

In the analysis of data, no significant differences were found in maternal attitudes between working and nonworking mothers. However, both working and nonworking mothers indicated satisfaction with their present occupations.

Limitations

The results of this study indicated no significant differences in parental attitudes between working and nonworking mothers. The sample size was small, consisting of only thirty mothers in each group.

The Likert scale also may not reflect real differences since the categories it uses are ambiguous.

Many questions in the questionnaire were stated negatively which may have influenced the parent to disagree. The respondents stated that many terms were ambiguous. There are different definitions for such terms as "trouble," "mature," and "severe," which were used in the questionnaire.

Recommendations

For further research, the use of open-ended questions or taped interviews could be employed. If presenting a questionnaire, the forms could be filled out immediately to give a more spontaneous response. A team of researchers could be employed to study such problems as: communication in the family, involvement in community and social structures, how the children are raised, and the involvement of the male in the family. Comparisons of working women from different socio-economic classes may reveal significant results. Geographic location could also be used as a variable. The sex of the child is an important variable to identify differences in attitudes toward males and females. Comparisons could be done between working mothers in intact families and nonintact families.

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APPENDIX A
GUILFORD'S FORMULA

FORMULA USED IN WEIGHTING OF MEANS

$$W = \frac{Pp - Pnp}{Pq} + 4$$

Where,

Pp = proportion of Group A responding in a specified way;

Pnp = proportion of Group B responding in the same way;

p = proportion of the two groups combined according to the formula

$$p = \frac{Pp + Pnp}{2}$$

$$q = 1 - p$$

Note: The resulting weights for each of the 85 retained items are given in Appendix E.

APPENDIX B
LETTER TO PARENTS

March 15, 1977

Dear Parent,

I am a graduate student currently working on my thesis and I need a sample of women for my study.

Only those women, who currently have children between the ages of three and six are needed to fill out the following questionnaire.

Your help in providing this information will be greatly appreciated in aiding my research. All responses are strictly confidential.

Sincerely,

Linda Capone

APPENDIX C
PART I, QUESTIONNAIRE

PART I GENERAL INFORMATION

Please answer each item.

1. Your present age (to nearest year) _____.
2. Your current job status (circle one)
 - a. employed full time (32 hours or more per week)
 - b. hold part-time job (list number of hours) _____
 - c. have worked but now out of work
(laid off, returned to school, etc.)
 - d. have not yet entered work force (except for summer work,
temporary jobs, etc.)
3. Do you like your work? (circle one)
 - a. very satisfied
 - b. satisfied
 - c. dissatisfied
4. If starting your career over again, would you choose your
present occupation?
 Yes _____ No _____
5. If you work outside the home, why? (rank in order of importance,
1=most important)
 - a. financial factors
 - b. personal fulfillment
 - c. other (please explain) _____

6. Indicate highest level attained in school (circle one)
 - a. high school or less
 - b. college with no degree
 - c. college with one or more degrees
 List degrees: _____
7. Number of children from three to six years of age in family _____
 Give birthdate of each child: _____

APPENDIX D
PART II, QUESTIONNAIRE

PART II PARENTAL ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements. (Check one response for each statement.)

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
1. A child should be seen and not heard	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Parents should sacrifice everything for their children.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Children should be allowed to do as they please	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. A child should not plan to enter any occupation his parents don't approve of	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Children need some of the natural meanness taken out of them	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. A child should have strict discipline in order to develop a fine, strong character . . .	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. The mother rather than the father should be responsible for discipline	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Children should be "babied" until they are several years old	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Children have the right to play with whomever they like .	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Independent and mature children are less lovable than those children who openly and obviously want and need their parents	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Mildly Agree</u>	<u>Mildly Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
11. Children should be forbidden to play with youngsters whom their parents do not approve of	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. A good way to discipline a child is to tell him his parents won't love him any more if he is bad	_____	_____	_____	_____
13. Severe discipline is essential in the training of children	_____	_____	_____	_____
14. Parents cannot help it if their children are naughty. .	_____	_____	_____	_____
15. Jealousy among brothers and sisters is a very unhealthy thing	_____	_____	_____	_____
16. Children should be allowed to go to any Sunday School their friends go to	_____	_____	_____	_____
17. No child should ever set his will against that of his parents	_____	_____	_____	_____
18. The Biblical command that children must obey their parents should be completely adhered to.	_____	_____	_____	_____
19. It is wicked for children to disobey their parents. . .	_____	_____	_____	_____
20. A child should feel a deep sense of obligation always to act in accord with the wishes of his parents.	_____	_____	_____	_____
21. Children should not be punished for disobedience . .	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
22. Children who are gentlemanly or ladylike are preferable to those who are tomboys or "regular guys"	_____	_____	_____	_____
23. Strict discipline weakens a child's personality.	_____	_____	_____	_____
24. Children should always be loyal to their parents above anyone else	_____	_____	_____	_____
25. Children should be steered away from the temptation of religious beliefs other than those accepted by the family. .	_____	_____	_____	_____
26. The weaning of a child from the emotional ties to its parents begins at birth	_____	_____	_____	_____
27. Parents are not entitled to the love of their children unless they earn it	_____	_____	_____	_____
28. Parents should never try to break a child's will	_____	_____	_____	_____
29. Children should not be required to take orders from parents	_____	_____	_____	_____
30. Children should be allowed to choose their own religious beliefs	_____	_____	_____	_____
31. Children should not interrupt adult conversation.	_____	_____	_____	_____
32. The most important consideration in planning the activities of the home should be the needs and interests of children.	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
33. Quiet children are much nicer than little chatter-boxes	_____	_____	_____	_____
34. It is sometimes necessary for the parents to break the child's will	_____	_____	_____	_____
35. Children usually know ahead of time whether or not parents will punish them for their actions	_____	_____	_____	_____
36. Children resent discipline.	_____	_____	_____	_____
37. Children should not be permitted to play with youngsters from the "wrong side of the tracks"	_____	_____	_____	_____
38. When parents speak children should obey.	_____	_____	_____	_____
39. Mild discipline is best. .	_____	_____	_____	_____
40. The best child is one who shows lots of affection for his mother	_____	_____	_____	_____
41. A child should be taught that his parents always know what is best	_____	_____	_____	_____
42. It is better for children to play at home than to visit other children	_____	_____	_____	_____
43. A child should do what he is told to do without stopping to argue about it	_____	_____	_____	_____
44. Children should fear their parents to some degree.	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
45. A child should always love his parents above everything else	_____	_____	_____	_____
46. Children who indulge in sex play become adult sex criminals.	_____	_____	_____	_____
47. Children should be allowed to make only minor decisions for themselves.	_____	_____	_____	_____
48. A child should always accept the decision of his parents . .	_____	_____	_____	_____
49. Children who readily accept authority are much nicer than those who try to be dominant themselves.	_____	_____	_____	_____
50. Parents should always have complete control over the actions of their children.	_____	_____	_____	_____
51. When they can't have their own way, children usually try to bargain or reason with parents	_____	_____	_____	_____
52. The shy child is worse off than the one who masturbates . .	_____	_____	_____	_____
53. Children should accept the religion of their parents without question.	_____	_____	_____	_____
54. The child should not question the command of his parents.	_____	_____	_____	_____
55. Children who fight with their brothers and sisters are generally a source of great irritation and annoyance to their parents.	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
56. Children should not be punished for doing anything they have seen their parents do . . .	_____	_____	_____	_____
57. Jealousy is just a sign of selfishness	_____	_____	_____	_____
58. Children should be taught the value of money early . . .	_____	_____	_____	_____
59. A child should be punished for contradicting his parents.	_____	_____	_____	_____
60. Children should have lots of parental supervision. . . .	_____	_____	_____	_____
61. A parent should see to it that his child plays only with the right kind of children . .	_____	_____	_____	_____
62. Babies are more fun for parents than older children are.	_____	_____	_____	_____
63. Parents should supervise a child's selection of play-mates very carefully	_____	_____	_____	_____
64. No one should expect a child to respect parents who nag and scold	_____	_____	_____	_____
65. A child should believe what his parents tell him	_____	_____	_____	_____
66. Children should be allowed to have their own way	_____	_____	_____	_____
67. A good way to discipline a child is to cut down his allowance	_____	_____	_____	_____
68. Children should not be coaxed or petted into obedience	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
69. A child should be shamed into obedience if he won't listen to reason	_____	_____	_____	_____
70. In the long run it is better, after all, for a child to be kept fairly close to his mother's apron strings . . .	_____	_____	_____	_____
71. A good whipping now and then never hurt any child. .	_____	_____	_____	_____
72. Masturbation is the worst bad habit that a child can form.	_____	_____	_____	_____
73. A child should never keep a secret from his parents	_____	_____	_____	_____
74. Parents are generally too busy to answer all a child's questions	_____	_____	_____	_____
75. The children who make the best adults are those who obey all the time	_____	_____	_____	_____
76. It is important for children to have some kind of religious upbringing.	_____	_____	_____	_____
77. Children should be allowed to manage their affairs with little supervision from adults.	_____	_____	_____	_____
78. Parents should never enter a child's room without permission.	_____	_____	_____	_____
79. It is best to give children the impression that parents have no faults.	_____	_____	_____	_____
80. Children should not annoy their parents with their unimportant problems	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Agree</u>	<u>Mildly</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>
81. Children should give their parents unquestioning obedience.	_____	_____	_____	_____
82. Sex is one of the greatest problems to be contended with in children.	_____	_____	_____	_____
83. Children should have as much freedom as their parents allow themselves.	_____	_____	_____	_____
84. Children should do nothing without the consent of their parents.	_____	_____	_____	_____
85. Most children should have more discipline than they get .	_____	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX E
VARIABLE AND WEIGHTS ON QUESTIONNAIRE

VARIABLES AND WEIGHTS FOR ITEMS ON U.S.C. PARENT ATTITUDE SURVEY

Item	Variable	S.A.	M.A.	M.D.	S.D.
1. A child should be seen and not heard.	Ignoring	6	5	4	3
2. Parents should sacrifice everything for their children.	Possessive	6	5	3	4
3. Children should be allowed to do as they please.	Possessive	5	5	2	5
4. A child should not plan to enter any occupation his parents don't approve of.	Dominating	6	6	4	5
5. Children need some of the natural meanness taken out of them.	Dominating	6	5	3	3
6. A child should have strict discipline in order to develop a fine, strong character.	Dominating	6	4	3	4
7. The mother rather than the father should be responsible for discipline.	Ignoring	6	4	3	4
8. Children should be "babied" until they are several years old.	Possessive	6	5	3	4
9. Children have the right to play with whomever they like.	Dominating	4	3	5	5
10. Independent and mature children are less lovable than those children who openly and obviously want and need their parents.	Possessive	6	5	4	3
11. Children should be forbidden to play with youngsters whom their parents do not approve of.	Possessive	5	5	3	2
12. A good way to discipline a child is to tell him his parents won't love him any more if he is bad.	Ignoring	6	3	4	4
13. Severe discipline is essential in the training of children.	Dominating	6	6	5	3
14. Parents cannot help it if their children are naughty.	Ignoring	6	5	4	3
15. Jealousy among brothers and sisters is a very unhealthy thing.	Unclassified	4	5	2	6
16. Children should be allowed to go to any Sunday School their friends go to.	Dominating	5	2	4	5

Item	Variable	S.A.	M.A.	M.D.	S.D.
17. No child should ever set his will against that of his parents.	Dominating	6	6	2	4
18. The Biblical command that children must obey their parents should be completely adhered to.	Dominating	6	4	4	3
19. It is wicked for children to disobey their parents.	Dominating	6	4	4	3
20. A child should feel a deep sense of obligation always to act in accord with the wishes of his parents.	Possessive	6	5	3	3
21. Children should not be punished for disobedience.	Possessive	5	6	3	4
22. Children who are gentlemanly or ladylike are preferable to those who are tomboys or "regular guys."	Possessive	5	5	3	3
23. Strict discipline weakens a child's personality.	Dominating	4	3	4	5
24. Children should always be loyal to their parents above anyone else.	Possessive	6	3	4	3
25. Children should be steered away from the temptations of religious beliefs other than those accepted by the family.	Dominating	6	6	3	3
26. The weaning of a child from the emotional ties to its parents begins at birth.	Possessive	5	3	4	5
27. Parents are not entitled to the love of their children unless they earn it.	Possessive	4	3	5	6
28. Parents should never try to break a child's will.	Dominating	4	2	5	5
29. Children should not be required to take orders from parents.	Dominating	2	5	4	5
30. Children should be allowed to choose their own religious beliefs.	Dominating	4	3	4	6
31. Children should not interrupt adult conversation.	Ignoring	5	4	2	6
32. The most important consideration in planning the activities of the home should be the needs and interests of the children.	Ignoring	4	2	5	6

Item	Variables	S.A.	M.A.	N.D.	S.D.
33. Quiet Children are much nicer than little chatter-boxes.	Ignoring	6	4	3	4
34. It is sometimes necessary for the parent to break the child's will.	Dominating	6	5	4	3
35. Children usually know ahead of time whether or not parents will punish them for their actions.	Unclassified	5	3	3	4
36. Children resent discipline.	Dominating	5	4	3	5
37. Children should not be permitted to play with youngsters from the "wrong side of the tracks."	Possessive	6	5	3	4
38. When the parent speaks, the child should obey	Dominating	5	5	3	2
39. Mild discipline is best.	Dominating	4	3	5	6
40. The best child is one who shows lots of affection for his mother.	Possessive	6	5	3	4
41. A child should be taught that his parents always knows what is best.	Dominating	5	5	3	3
42. It is better for children to play at home than to visit other children.	Possessive	6	4	4	3
43. A child should do what he is told to do, without stopping to argue about it.	Dominating	6	4	3	4
44. Children should fear their parents to some degree.	Dominating	6	5	4	3
45. A child should always love his parents above everyone else.	Possessive	6	4	3	4
46. Children who indulge in sex play become adult sex criminals.	Unclassified	5	6	4	3
47. Children should be allowed to make only minor decisions for themselves.	Dominating	5	5	3	3
48. A child should always accept the decision of his parents.	Dominating	5	5	3	3

Item	Variables	S.A.	M.A.	M.D.	S.D.
49. Children who readily accept authority are much nicer than those who try to bargain or reason with parents.	Possessive	6	4	3	3
50. Parents should always have complete control over the actions of their children.	Dominating	5	4	4	3
51. When they can't have their own way, children usually try to bargain or reason with parents.	Ignoring	5	3	4	6
52. The shy child is worse off than the one who masturbates.	Unclassified	4	3	5	5
53. Children should accept the religion of their parents without question.	Dominating	5	6	4	3
54. The child should not question the commands of his parents.	Dominating	6	4	3	3
55. Children who fight with their brothers and sisters are generally a source of great irritation and annoyance to their parents.	Ignoring	6	3	4	6
56. Children should not be punished for doing anything they have seen their parents do.	Dominating	4	4	3	6
57. Jealousy is just a sign of selfishness.	Ignoring	6	3	4	4
58. Children should be taught the value of money early.	Unclassified	5	3	3	6
59. A child should be punished for contradicting his parents.	Dominating	6	5	3	3
60. Children should have lots of parental supervision.	Dominating	5	3	3	4
61. A parent should see to it that his child plays only with the right kind of children.	Possessive	6	4	3	3
62. Babies are more fun for parents than older children are.	Possessive	6	4	3	3
63. Parents should supervise a child's selection of playmates carefully.	Possessive	6	4	2	4
64. No one should expect a child to respect parents who nag and scold.	Unclassified				

Item	Variables	S.A.	M.A.	M.D.	S.D.
65. A child should always believe what his parents tell him.	Dominating	6	4	3	4
66. Children should usually be allowed to have their own way.	Dominating	6	3	3	6
67. A good way to discipline a child is to cut down his allowance.	Unclassified	5	4	3	4
68. Children should not be coaxed or petted into obedience.	Dominating	4	3	6	5
69. A child should be shamed into obedience if he won't listen to reason.	Dominating	6	3	4	4
70. In the long run it is better, after all, for a child to be kept fairly close to his mother's apron strings.	Possessive	6	6	3	3
71. A good whipping now and then never hurt any child.	Dominating	6	4	3	2
72. Masturbation is the worst bad habit that a child can form.	Unclassified	6	5	4	3
73. A child should never keep a secret from his parents.	Possessive	7	4	3	4
74. Parents are generally too busy to answer all of child's questions.	Ignoring	6	4	3	3
75. The children who make the best adults are those who obey all the time.	Dominating	6	5	3	4
76. It is important for children to have some kind of religious upbringing.	Unclassified	6	3	2	2
77. Children should be allowed to manage their affairs with little supervision from adults.	Ignoring	5	3	4	5
78. Parents should never enter a child's room without permission.	Dominating	3	3	3	7
79. It is best to give children the impression that parents have no faults.	Dominating	6	5	4	3

	Items	Variables	S.A.	M.A.	M.D.	S.D.
80.	Children should not annoy their parents with their unimportant problems.	Ignoring	6	5	3	4
81.	Children should give their parents unquestioning obedience.	Dominating	6	4	4	2
82.	Sex is one of the greatest problems to be contended with in children.	Unclassified	6	4	3	4
83.	Children should have as much freedom as their parents allow themselves.	Ignoring	6	4	3	6
84.	Children should do nothing without the consent of their parents.	Dominating	6	5	3	3

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ATTITUDES OF WORKING AND NONWORKING MOTHERS
TOWARD PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

by

Linda Joy Capone

(ABSTRACT)

Maternal attitudes of working and nonworking mothers were investigated. Demographically, the 60 mothers were highly educated, middle class parents who had preschoolers from three to six years of age. Two groups, consisting of 30 working mothers, the other consisting of 30 nonworking mothers, were administered an 85 item questionnaire. The questionnaire measured three attitudes; dominance, possessiveness and ignoring. A two sample t-test was used to analyze the data.

No differences were found in maternal attitudes between working and nonworking mothers concerning possessiveness, dominance or ignoring.