

A COMPARISON OF THE SEX-ROLE IDENTIFICATION  
OF PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN AND THEIR PARENTS

By

MARTHA LYNN CHURCHILL

Bachelor of Science

Oklahoma State University

Stillwater, Oklahoma

1973

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College  
of the Oklahoma State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the Degree of  
MASTER OF SCIENCE  
July, 1975

Thesis  
1975  
C562C  
COP 2



OCT 23 1975

A COMPARISON OF THE SEX-ROLE IDENTIFICATION  
OF PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN AND THEIR PARENTS

Thesis Approved:

*Frances Stromberg*  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Thesis Adviser

*Judith A. Powell*  
\_\_\_\_\_

*Rich Stinnett*  
\_\_\_\_\_

*N. N. Anderson*  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Dean of the Graduate College

923481

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to express appreciation to all who have contributed to this study, especially to the Department of Family Relations and Child Development, whose cooperation has made this study possible. The writer is gratefully indebted to Dr. Frances Stromberg, Associate Professor, Family Relations and Child Development, whose guidance, encouragement, and suggestions helped to make the completion of this study possible. To Dr. Elizabeth Starkeweather, Associate Professor, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, whose inspiration and sincere interest made this study possible, the writer expresses a special appreciation.

To my parents, Mr. and Mrs. A. E. Churchill, for their continued faith in my ability and their expressed encouragement throughout this study and my entire college career, I give a special thanks.

To Miss Velda Davis, Mrs. Marilyn Bond, and Mrs. Grayce Wynd, for their ability and willingness in helping me to meet deadlines, the writer expresses special appreciation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Purpose . . . . .	1
Problem . . . . .	1
General and Specific Purposes . . . . .	4
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . . .	7
Theories of Establishment of Masculinity-	
Femininity . . . . .	7
Social Learning Theory . . . . .	8
Identification Theory . . . . .	11
Cognitive-Developmental Theory . . . . .	15
Measurement . . . . .	16
Interview Methods . . . . .	16
Observation Methods . . . . .	19
Projective Techniques . . . . .	20
Problems in Measurement . . . . .	23
Factors Related to Masculinity-Femininity . . . . .	25
Implications of the Present Research . . . . .	28
III. METHOD AND PROCEDURE . . . . .	29
Subjects . . . . .	29
Research Instruments . . . . .	30
Starkweather M-F Test . . . . .	30
Bem Sex Role Inventory . . . . .	32
Collection of Data . . . . .	33
Analysis of Data . . . . .	34
IV. RESULTS . . . . .	37
Analysis of Data . . . . .	37
Comparison of the Degree of Androgyny of the Parents With the Stability of the Child's Sex-Role Identification . . . . .	38
Comparison of the FAM of the Parents With the Degree of Femininity or Masculinity of the Children's Scores . . . . .	39

Chapter	Page
V. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION . . . . .	43
Discussion of the Study . . . . .	44
Recommendations for Future Research . . . . .	45
A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	46

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Distribution of Children by Age and Sex . . . . .	30
II. Ages and Sex of Children Whose Parents Responded . . . . .	31

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between masculinity, femininity, and androgyny of pre-school children and the masculinity, femininity, and androgyny of the parents of the children. To accomplish this purpose, the Starkweather Masculinity-Femininity Test, designed for use with pre-school children, was administered to two selected groups of pre-school children, and the Bem Sex Role Inventory, an adjective self-rating scale, designed for use as a sex-role inventory, was administered to the parents of the children. Scores from the Starkweather test and the Bem Inventory were examined with regard to correlations between fathers and all children, fathers and sons, fathers and daughters, mothers and all children, mothers and daughters, and mothers and sons.

#### Problem

The American culture today is in the process of changing, or at least modifying, many of the stereotypes which have been associated with "appropriate" sex-role behaviors. Some researchers have hypothesized that these changes may be retarding the acquisition of appropriate sex-role behaviors in young children. This is an area of great concern in



that many personality theories stress adoption of sex-role behavior as a fundamental aspect of total personality adjustment. The necessity for healthy patterns of sex-role behavior becomes even more crucial when these behaviors are seen as influencing the young child's self-concept.

Brown (1957b) feels that there are two major reasons for a further exploration of the development of sex-role behaviors in young children.

First, he states:

. . . reviews of literature on sex differences show an almost complete absence of studies that deal specifically with the problem of sex-role development in children (p. 197).

He gives as his second reason:

Difficulties or distortions in sex-role adjustment appear to be functionally related to the occurrence of personality maladjustments and certain forms of emotional disorders. This suggests a direct link between childhood learning and development in sex-role behavior and adult personality disturbances (p. 197).

Ferguson (1941) also saw a connection between early childhood and adult maladjustment when he found that for college students "childhood learning experiences were crucial determinants of adult sex-role behavior and adjustment" (p. 585).

Another researcher, Kayton (1972), went on to state that

More studies are needed to determine how, and at what development periods, difficulties in sex-role functioning are encountered. . . . Further research concerning the sex role development and psychopathology is especially important if one considers an appropriate sex-role identity as among the earliest and most basic essentials necessary for adequate personality development (p. 210).

The necessity of appropriate sex-role identity has been shown essential in a study in which Vroegh (1968) concluded that

Most masculine pre-school boys tend to be more extroverted, competent, and socially adjusted than least masculine boys and that most feminine pre-school girls tend to be more socially adjusted, competent, and introverted than least feminine girls (p. 1253).

Mowrer (1950) sums up the importance of the study of sex-role behavior by writing

Personal normality presupposes that an individual has assimilated not only those values and ideals which are regarded as necessary and proper for all persons, but also those values and ideals which are uniquely appropriate to one's sex-role. . . . failure to establish appropriate sex-role identification is hypothesized as a predisposing factor in personal maladjustments including perversion, neurosis, and psychosis (p. 615).

The possibility that these sex-role adjustments must be made in early childhood was discussed by Lebovitz (1972). He found

Malignancy of the symptom (sexual psychopathology) appeared to be significantly associated with the age of onset. Those in the group with the earlier age of onset were far more likely to have a more serious outcome. Thus, another dimension to evaluate prognoses--onset of symptoms before age six--should be added to the criteria (p. 108).

The urgency of the need for more reliable information can be more easily seen when an examination of current social issues is undertaken. This reveals the debate concerning "women's liberation," which often leads to a contention that our society is moving away from traditional sex-role divisions to what is referred to as the uni-sex movement. Researchers have now begun to study this lifestyle, which they have labeled "androgynous." The definition of androgyny that Stimpson (1973) has given is that of

A humane and valuable mode of behavior in which a person balances--in life, art, thought, and feeling--the best of those characteristics we have labeled 'masculine' and the best of those characteristics we have labeled 'feminine.' The androgyne, whether a biological man or a biological woman, will embody the bravery, energy, and capacity for action men have been taught to exercise (p. 566).

Advantages of androgyny are listed by Osofsky and Osofsky (1972):

Both men and women are likely to benefit from androgynous changes. . . . The benefits of personal fulfillment for females are logical. The potential benefits for males have been less widely appreciated but they are still present--

an opportunity for greater individual freedom and a chance for more meaningful relationships with women (p. 146).

### Purpose

A review of the literature indicates a lack of agreement concerning the specific relationships involved in sex-role identification of children and adults. Further means of recognizing the processes in operation among children and their parents should be of value to those in professions dealing with this area.

The purpose of this investigation is to examine the relationship between parental sex-role identification and the degree and direction of the sex-role identification of the child. Three categories of sex-role identification will be considered for the parents: femininity, androgyny, and masculinity. These FAM (femininity-androgyny-masculinity) scores will be compared with masculine scores, feminine scores, and sex-role stability scores of children. The following hypotheses will be examined:

I. There is no significant difference between the scores of children whose mothers were judged "androgynous" and those children whose mothers were judged "non-androgynous" (feminine or masculine) by scores on the Bem Sex Role Inventory for

- A) All children
- B) Boys
- C) Girls

II. There is no significant differences between the sex-role stability scores of children whose fathers were judged "androgynous" and those whose fathers were judged "non-androgynous" by scores on the Bem

Sex Role Inventory for

- A) All children
- B) Boys
- C) Girls

Also, the data will be examined in order to compare the femininity, androgyny, and masculinity of the parents with the degree of femininity or masculinity of the children's scores. The following null hypotheses were examined.

III. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of the fathers with the Starkweather M-F scores of the children for:

- A) All children
- B) Boys
- C) Girls
- D) Children whose scores were "stable"
- E) Boys whose scores were "stable"
- F) Girls whose scores were "stable"

IV. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of mothers with the Starkweather M-F scores of the children for:

- A) All children
- B) Boys
- C) Girls
- D) Children whose scores were "stable"
- E) Boys whose scores were "stable"
- F) Girls whose scores were "stable"

To the extent that this study contributes to an understanding of

the acquisition of femininity, androgyny, and masculinity of young children in relation to their parents, it will help to clarify the problem of sex-role development. It will also indicate further areas capable of yielding productive research.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In considering sex-role identification, authors have used a number of research methods and have reached various findings. This chapter will include a discussion of the major theories regarding the establishment of psychological gender, and the various instruments of measurement employed in the measurement and categorization of psychological gender. This chapter will also include relevant research findings pertaining to sex-role identification.

#### Theories of Establishment of Masculinity-Femininity

Three major theories of sex-role development have been utilized in explaining the establishment of psychological gender: social learning theory, identification theory, and cognitive-developmental theory. Social learning theory is often given as a basic explanation for differences in the sexes; identification theory is used in dealing with psychological constructs, and cognitive developmental theory refers to the maturation of an individual's perceptual field. According to Rutter (1970), "At present there is insufficient evidence to decide between the various psycho-social theories of sexual development" (p. 278).

### Social Learning Theory

In 1935, Margaret Mead believed the proposition that sex-roles consist of learned behavior had been well documented. Many learning theorists hasten to add that children usually learn these roles from their parents (Brim, 1958; Fauls and Smith, 1956; Bielauskas, 1965). There is also evidence that these roles may be learned from other sources, such as the mass media and books (Weitzman, 1972).

Some theorists believe that these roles may be learned prior to a child's third year of life (Kohlberg, 1966). In this case, much of the learning would be at the child's pre-verbal state. If this sex-role learning is occurring at early stages, the theory of primacy would apply. The theory of primacy of learning states that: Given two associations of the same strength, but of different ages, the older one (a) has greater value on a new repetition, and (b) falls off less rapidly in a given length of time (Lynn, 1969). Hetherington (1965) found the theory of primacy operating in the personalities of feminine scoring boys who had come from mother-dominant homes. Hetherington concluded that the later social pressures on the boys to acquire masculine preferences do not adequately counteract the early developed more feminine preferences of boys who were initially and primarily exposed to dominant mothers.

Vener (1966) also believes early learning plays an important part in the development of sex roles. Vener feels the learning rates (for sex-linked role artifacts) follow a decelerating curve of development comparable to the learning curves delineated by Bloom. Vener found that by 30 to 40 months of age, most children demonstrated a 75% correct

awareness of sex-linked role artifacts. Kohlberg (1966) suggests that there may be a critical period prior to age 40 months during which the child is "imprinted." Failure to receive this sex-role assignment may result in impaired psychosexual identification, as in the hermaphrodites studied by Money and Hampson (1957).

One of the methods by which children are believed to develop sex differences is through observing interactions of others functioning in typical masculine and feminine roles. The child begins to make predictions regarding anticipated behaviors of others and observing the subsequent results. This type of learning is based on "role theory" (Sears, 1965; Brim, 1958). After observing actions appropriate to various roles, the child begins to practice the alternative behaviors in both play and actual situations. Reactions of peers and significant others strengthen stereotypic responses and reduce or eliminate inappropriate responses. Some role theorists believe the rate of acquisition of sex-role identification depends on the power of the identificand, which is a combination of his reward value and his punishment potential (Kokonis, 1972).

Mischel (1966) lists seven social learning principles: discrimination, generalization, observational learning, patterning of reward, nonreward, and punishment under specific contingencies, and direct conditioning. In addition to these factors, some theorists add the importance of differential treatment of children on the basis of their sex (Brown, 1956; Hall & Keith, 1964; Hartup & Zook, 1960; Lynn, 1969). These theorists believe that the greater prestige and privileges offered to boys exaggerates the differences in the sexes. This differential treatment also causes girls to feel envious and hostile. The beginning of this differential treatment is traced to prebirth desires of the



parents. When the child is born, the sex is considered of utmost importance and is emphasized by colors used in the child's clothing, and the child's name itself (Hartup & Zook, 1960, Hartup, 1962; Lewis, 1971-72, Rutter, 1970; Sears, 1953). As the child grows older, differences in the sex are continually stressed by differences in the way the child is handled. Boys are "roughhoused" and girls are "gentled" (Hartley, 1964). Differences are further stressed by the types of toys offered to children of each sex and by the praise given the child for using the toy in an appropriate manner (Hartley, 1964). Thus, this socialization by manipulation forces children into stereotyped sex molds, and according to Cramer & Bryson (1973) what we as investigators are really discovering when we apply sex-role orientation measures to children is the extent of the child's social learning. Mischel (1966), too, feels that what we are really measuring is conditioning of the first, or at least a very high, order. Although there is a lack of consensus on what really is being measured, Osofsky & Osofsky (1972) feel that this measure could be altered by altering our socialization practices. Schell & Silber (1968) agreed that sex-role orientation scores could be easily changed due to his findings that boys are required to "learn" these sex-role differences more thoroughly and accurately than girls. The hypothesis that parents exert more pressure toward the sex typing of boys was supported by the research of Schell & Silber (1968) and by Fling (1972). However, Fling (1972) felt that this alone did not support the social learning view of sex-role development.

One more theory involved in learning principles is the trait factor theory. According to Mischel (1966), "Much of the research on sex differences has been guided by such trait formulations, with a search

for the general dimensions, or traits, on which the sexes differ" (p. 59). Mischel (1966) feels this is inappropriate and believes instead that behaviors will be stable across situations only if the behavior is defined specifically and the situations are similar. The practice of describing behavior with trait units is being questioned by several researchers (Hartup, 1962; Mischel, 1966; Bem, 1972). Bem (1972) believes that sex typing can produce defensive "trait-like" consistency in behavior in order to maintain an appropriate sex-role image. Further, Bem feels that androgynous individuals will more often display the most appropriate behavioral adaptability, regardless of stereotypes, than an individual with high masculine or high feminine self ratings. Therefore, it is felt that sex-role measures based on occurrence of traits alone will have lower validity.

Lynn (1969) considers the learning of traits only one of the three aspects of sex-role development. The first aspect is that of sex-role preference. This is the desire of the child to adopt behaviors associated with one sex or another. The second aspect is sex-role adoption, which is the demonstration of publicly observable sex-related behaviors. The third aspect is listed as sex-role identification, which is the incorporation of the role of a given sex and the incorporation of unconscious responses characteristic of such a role. Although sex-role preferences are established by the age of five years in most children, Ward (1969) believes sex-role preferences are amenable to change well after the fifth year.

#### Identification Theory

There are two divergent identification theories. One of the

theories is that of imitation, and the other stresses Freudian concepts. Lynn (1969) feels there are seven principles of identification common to both of these theories. The seven principles are: a fear of punishment --the model is chosen because of the individual's fear of receiving punishment from him; a fear of withheld love--the model is chosen because of a person's fear of losing the model's love; reinforcement--the child is rewarded and/or punished; vicarious reinforcement--the child imitates the model because the model is receiving rewards which the child experiences vicariously; status envy--the model is chosen because a person envies the model as a recipient of rewards from others; power envy--the model is chosen because the model has power the learner lacks; and similarity--the model is chosen because the learner perceives that the model has characteristics similar to his own.

It is generally thought that the child's first models for imitation are the parents (Bigner, 1972). Imitative learning results when a model's behavior is associated in the child's mind with a reward the model gives the child for copying the behavior. Thus, the model will, in the mind of the child, gain secondary reinforcing properties. Eventually, the child will give himself reinforcement for copying the model's behavior. Soon, the behavior is internalized and "stamped in" (Lynn, 1969). This process is thought to be encouraged (Hartley, 1964) consciously by parents who may tell the children to be "just like mommy," or "just like daddy." Parents can strengthen the child's need to identify by giving affection and nurturance which is periodically withdrawn, forcing the child to reinforce himself (Lynn, 1969).

Initially, it is believed (Brim, 1958; Brown, 1956; Emerich, 1959); Hartup, 1962; Hetherington, 1965; Lynn, 1969; Sears, 1970) that both

boys and girls imitate and would come to identify with the mother due to her function as a primary caretaker of the children in most families. This necessitates a breaking away from the mother by her son with his subsequent establishment of the father as his model. Hartup (1960) found this steady change toward masculinity in young boys during the third to the eleventh years. According to Brown (1956), the boys switching of models from mother to father makes it more difficult for boys to acquire a masculine sex role than for the girls to acquire the feminine sex role. The acquisition of a masculine sex role is not only seen in boys; Hartley (1964) found that girls in the primary grades also produce more masculine scores on sex-role inventories.

The Freudian concept of sex-role identification distinguishes between identification as object choice where the parent is what the child wants to be like and love-object choice where the parent is what the child wants to possess (Brown, 1956). For male children, identification with the father as the chosen object represents a mechanism for the resolution of the Oedipus complex. According to Lynn (1969), little boys are sexually attracted to their mothers but simultaneously perceive their fathers as threatening castration. The conflict of losing his penis or the love of his mother arises subconsciously in the male child's mind. When the boy learns that girls do not have penises, he believes they must have been castrated and, thus, the threat of castration is strengthened. This fear of castration causes the boy to repress his desire for his mother, and identification with his father occurs.

Lynn (1969) explains Freudian sex-role identification for girls in terms of an infantile fixation upon the mother. When the girl learns

she has no penis, she feels cheated and blames her mother. This causes the girl to wish to supplant her mother in her father's affections and have a child by him. Since the girl cannot do this, she will eventually drop the idea, and fearing the loss of her mother's love she will turn to her, thus internalizing the female role.

According to Rutter (1970), Freud's concepts are sometimes correct but too narrow, and definitely not universal. Kokonis (1972) found support for the psychoanalytic theory of sex-role development, along with DeLucia (1963) and Cramer & Bryson (1973), and Rabban (1950). However, Paluszny (1973) and Lefkowitz (1962) did not find support of the Freudian theory which dealt with the fear of the aggressor (castrator) as the basis of identification. Endorsement of the concept of dominance and fear of punishment in identification was found in studies by Hetherington (1965) and Brim (1958).

If the Freudian theory of identification is accepted, then the identification of girls must be considered more complex than sex-role identification of boys (Brown, 1956; Hartup & Zook, 1960; and Ward, 1969). The idea that sex-role identification is more difficult for girls is in direct opposition to social learning theory. There is some evidence (Brown, 1956) that girls do have more difficulty identifying because of their minority status. Difficulty in identification has been hypothesized (Seward, 1956) to be a function of the need to identify with the majority group or the aggressor. Identification of girls may also be more ambiguous due to the state of flux sex stereotyping is currently undergoing in our culture.

### Cognitive-Developmental Theory

Cognitive developmental theory assumes that "basic sexual attitudes are not patterned directly by either biological instincts or arbitrary cultural norms, but by the child's cognitive organization of his social world along sex-role dimensions" (Kohlberg, 1955, p. 84). This theory stresses the active nature of the child's thought and observations as opposed to the child's positive reinforcement of himself. Kohlberg believes the child learns by assimilating knowledge into what Piaget termed schematas. Cognitive developmental theory points out that children develop the ability to perform conservation tasks in sequential order, and hypothesizes that children develop a conception of themselves as having an unchangeable sexual identity at the same age and through the same processes that they develop conceptions of the invariable identity of physical objects (Kohlberg, 1966).

The belief that male and female children do have separate cognitive styles was also stressed by Lynn (1969). However, Lynn used this term in a manner that referred to differences in the learning of sex roles found in males as opposed to female children rather than using the term to denote sequential stages of development.

The stage of development considered to bring the most pressure to bear on individuals to demonstrate appropriate sex-role development is preadolescence and adolescence (Forslund & Hull, 1972). The attainment of a positive sense of ego identity and sexual identity is considered by Steele (1971) to be the major task of adolescence. Paluszny et al. (1973) feels children develop gender identity in an orderly and progressive manner from infancy through adolescence and into adulthood. This

sequential development of sex-role identity further supports the cognitive developmental theory.

### Measurement

Three methods of gathering data have been used in the measurement of masculinity, femininity, and androgyny: interviews, observations, and projective techniques. Interview methods have been used primarily with adults and older children who can readily understand and answer questions verbally; whereas, observations and projective techniques have been used more frequently with young children.

#### Interview Methods

The interview method has been used to focus on the socialization practices of the parents, the personality variables of the children, and preferences of the children for toys, clothing, and pictures.

Mussen and Rutherford (1963) utilized the parental interview to study the parents' attitudes toward their children regarding the socialization practices of the parents, the encouragement of sex appropriate games by the parents, and the children's perceptions of parental power. Sears, Rau, and Alpert (1965) also used interviews with parents to study the identification processes of children. The parents were interviewed about the child's behavior at home and the child rearing practices used.

Vroegh (1967 and 1968) used the interview method with the teachers of nursery school children. The teachers were asked to rate all of the boys and girls in their classrooms as to the degree of masculinity or femininity they exhibited. Brim (1958) also asked teachers to rate their children in their classes by amount of masculinity-femininity

demonstrated. However, Brim found strong biases in the ratings of the teachers which made the combined scores for girls total more masculine than the combined scores for all boys. Brim felt that the reason for this was that the teachers subconsciously rated the boys and girls on two separate and different scales.

Interviews with children have been used in masculinity-femininity tests, but in these tests, pictures and toys have been utilized to enable the child to respond non-verbally. Fauls and Smith (1956) and Sears (1965) and Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1964) measured the masculinity-femininity of young children by having the child indicate a preference for a specific picture.

In 1964, Rosenberg & Sutton-Smith devised a play scale composed of 180 games, pastimes, and activities to measure the masculinity and femininity of children. Lefkowitz (1962) also devised a games and activities preference list. In 1972, Biller modified the Rosenberg Sutton-Smith list and found parts of it still reliable.

Toy preference tests have also been used by experimenters in interview settings. These tests allow the child to select a toy or the picture of it while not requiring verbalization. Masculinity-femininity scores are then computed on the basis of the pictures the child selects (DeLucia, 1963; Rabban, 1950; Sears, 1965; Vener, 1966; and Ward, 1968).

In 1973, Paluszny developed the Michigan Gender Identity Test (MIGIT) for use with children from 16 to 48 months. The child is shown a polaroid picture of himself and other children, and asked to classify the pictures by the sex of the child shown. It is claimed that the advantage of this test is its lack of inherent cultural or semantic bias.



The interview method has also been employed with children by Hartley (1959). She used a combination of pictorial, factual, and verbal approaches.

Another preference test, the Starkweather Masculinity-Femininity Test, chosen for use in the present research, was developed as a part of the creativity research at Oklahoma State University. The unique quality of this test is that the scoring is based on the actual choices of the children themselves rather than being based on adult judgments.

The majority of research done with adults does involve the interview method. One of the most commonly used instruments is the Gough Femininity Scale (Gough, 1952). This test has been used by numerous researchers (Engel, 1966; Kayton, 1972; Lansky, 1964; Nichols, 1962; and Steele (1971). Revisions of this scale were used by Lunneborg (1970a) and Sears (1970). Gough and Heilbrun's adjective checklist has also been used by Kayton (1972) and Kokonis (1972).

Another instrument commonly used to measure masculinity and femininity in adults is the MMPI (Caligor, 1951; Engel, 1966; Lebovitz, 1972; Lunneborg, 1970a, and Nichols, 1962). Also used to measure adult sex role is the masculinity-femininity scale of the Strong Vocational Scale for Women (Engel, 1966; Nichols, 1962; Steele, 1971). Portions of the Terman and Miles Attitude and Emotional, Ethical and Interest Analysis have also been used as a means of measuring adult sex role (Engel, 1966; Kokonis, 1972; Nichols, 1962). Nichols (1962) and Lunneborg (1970a) have both used portions of the Guilford Martin Scale, GAMIN M, to measure masculinity and femininity in combination with the femininity scale from the California Psychological Inventory (CPI).

A lesser used measure of masculinity and femininity is the Edwards

Personality Inventory IA and IB (Lunneborg, 1970a). Also found in the literature are the Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory (Nichols, 1962) and Section VII of Krout and Tabin's Personal Preference Scale (Kokonis, 1972).

Only one test of masculinity and femininity has thus far been devised that specifically measures androgyny. This is the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974). This inventory does not regard masculinity and femininity as representing opposite ends of a bipolar continuum. The BSRI does, as suggested by Bieliauskas (1965) see masculinity and femininity as complementary personality traits which are not exclusive, and can overlap in the same person with no personality distortion. The need for a masculinity-femininity model which is capable of allowing masculinity and femininity to be understood as non-exclusive and situationally flexible has been documented by Lansky (1963), Lefkowitz (1962), Sears (1965), and Vroegh (1967).

#### Observation Methods

Observations in structured and unstructured situations have been used in the study of masculinity-femininity. When the situation is unstructured, as in the observation of free play at a nursery school, heavy reliance is placed on the skill of the observer to report what he actually sees rather than his subjective interpretation of the situation. On the other hand, when the situation is structured, as in an arranged situation unfamiliar to the child, a true response is highly dependent upon acclimatization of the child to his environment so that a fear or stress response is avoided.

Sears, Rau, and Alpert (1965) observed children in free play and

rated them on a five-point scale of masculinity-femininity. The children were also rated on the basis of the playground areas in which they chose to play, certain areas being designated as highly masculine and others as highly feminine. In addition, the children were observed in a structured situation in which masculinity or femininity was determined by the child's reactions to sex-appropriate and sex-inappropriate toys.

Hartley (1959) also observed children during free play in order to classify repertorial types of behavior for males and females. Brim (1958) has also observed children and rated them on two separate instruments, the Fels Child Behavior Scales, and the California Behavior Inventory for Nursery School Children.

In order to measure masculinity and femininity in adults, Bem (1974) devised one experiment to rate masculinity (equated with nonconformity) and a separate experiment to rate femininity (equated with fondling and cuddling a kitten). The subjects were unaware of the true purpose of both trial situations and were rated by an unseen observer.

### Projective Techniques

Projective techniques for children consist of providing a non-identifiable object or person and expecting the child to respond in a way that reveals something about himself. Currently, the most widely used masculinity-femininity test of this type is the It Scale by Brown (1957b). It has been referred to extensively in the literature (Endsley, 1967; Fling, 1972; Hall, 1964; Hartup, 1960; Hetherington, 1965; Inselberg, 1973; Reed, 1968; Schell, 1968; Sears, 1965).

The It Scale consists of a neutral stick figure for which the child is asked to select toys and clothing. The child's masculine or

feminine score is determined by the choices he makes. Originally, the test was intended for use with preschool children, but it is now also used with elementary school aged children. Several researchers have found that the It figure is not ambiguous but appears to be more masculine (Brown, 1962; Fling, 1972; Reed & Asborjensen, 1968; Thompson and McCandless, 1970). However, the findings of other researchers supported the sexual ambiguity of It (Endsley, 1967; Lansky and McKay, 1963; Reed and Asborjensen (1968). Schell (1968) felt that the standard It results should be "more appropriately used as a measure of sex-role knowledge than of sex-role preferences" (p. 382).

Hogan (1957) attempted to devise a more ambiguous figure which he termed the "Somebody" Figure, but Reed and Asborjensen (1968) found this figure to have masculine bias also, which would support the idea that these figures would be more accurate measures of sex-role knowledge than of sex-role preferences.

Another projective technique often used is observation of the child in structured and unstructured doll play sessions. Emmerich (1960) used the doll play situation to study children's expectations of parental attitudes and their identification with each parent. Sears (1965) used observers' ratings of structured doll play session in combination with a parent questionnaire to ascertain the child's perceptions of initiators of aggression in the family.

Landreth (1963) used a projective test to study the sex appropriateness of parental care and companionship activities. She used line drawings of situations in which a child demanded parental care or companionship. The subject was shown two pictures of a like-sexed child, one with the mother and one with the father. The subject was asked "Who

helps (or plays with) the little boy (girl)?" and "Who helps (or plays with) you?" The assumption is that the child will identify with the child in the picture; however, this assumption has not always been supported.

Another projective technique that has been used extensively is the Draw-A-Person Test. It is assumed that most individuals will draw a person of their own sex first, if their sex-role identification is non-deviant (Lebovitz, 1972; Lefkowitz, 1962; Brown, 1957a). This assumption has not always been upheld for girls and for women (Darke, 1948; Frank, 1955). In Brown's opinion (1957a), "It is rather unfortunate that the relationship between homosexuality and the tendency to draw the opposite sex first has become so widely accepted" (p. 210).

Variations of the DAP test have been used also, such as the Franck Drawing Completion Test (Engel, 1966; Lansky, 1964). Swensen's Sexual Differentiation Scale (Kokonis, 1972) and Caligor's Eight Card Redrawing Technique and the Retest of the Eight Card Redrawing Test (Caligor, 1951). Also used to measure masculinity and femininity have been the responses of subjects to cards from the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) (Caligor, 1951) and adaptations of the TAT cards (Steele, 1971). May (1971) found that when adult subjects are asked to respond to a picture with a story, males will usually tell a story that begins with a positive emotion or experience and moves to a negative emotion or experience. May further found that this difference in fantasy patterns was found in boys and girls of elementary school age. However, Cramer (1973) found that in early childhood, these differences are non-existent. In the preschool years, both sexes of children tell stories with the enhancement to deprivation pattern. It is only in the grades that girls begin

to change their fantasy patterns to the deprivation followed by the enhancement pattern.

May (1971) feels the advantage of this type of testing is that these patterns are "not a part of conscious stereotypes about men and women and, thus, defensiveness or response to social expectation need not be such a problem" (p. 486).

#### Problems in Measurement

Three major problems are evident in the methods of measurement described above:

1) The evaluation of what is masculine and what is feminine for children is based on adult judgments, thereby injecting adult bias into research.

2) The stability of the child's masculinity or femininity is not considered, and only when this quality is stable and shows consistency can there be an assumption of sex-role identity.

3) Theoretical formulations place masculinity and femininity on opposite ends of a bipolar continuum with no allowance for individuals who are capable of including stereotypically masculine and feminine traits in their behavioral repertoires.

Examples of adult bias can be found in each type of data gathering. Mussen and Rutherford (1963) used data gathered in parental interviews as the basis for the child's sex-typing. Sears, Rau, and Alpert (1965) utilized adult judgments of sex-appropriate games and playground areas as the basis for categorizing children as masculine or feminine. Brown (1957b) developed the It Scale, a projective test, in which the child chooses clothes and toys for a neutral stick figure. It is assumed to

reveal his own masculinity or femininity; however, the sex-appropriateness of the toys and clothes is determined by adult judgments rather than by the child's actual preferences. In a study of the actual preferences between the child's sex role and the sex of the dominant parent, a full one-third of the families were discarded because neither parent was found to dominate the other; the equalitarian parents --perhaps the healthiest and most interesting--were deliberately and systematically ignored (Hetherington, 1965).

The Starkweather Masculinity-Femininity Test is designed so that the problem of adult bias is eliminated. The test measures the masculine and feminine preferences of young children and the evaluation of what is masculine and what is feminine is based on the actual choices of the child being tested. The assumption underlying this design is that the behavior of little boys is boy-behavior (masculine), and the behavior of little girls is girl-behavior (feminine) regardless of the demands and expectation of the adults in the culture. In any culture, the adults are the ones who label specific behaviors as masculine or feminine and, where the socialization of children is concerned, the behaviors so labeled become the expectations which the adults have for the children. Probably it is for this reason that in most studies of children's masculinity and femininity, adult judgments have been used to "score" the child's behavior. The originator of the Starkweather M-F test, Dr. E. K. Starkweather, disagrees with this approach and maintains that the attributes and behaviors of the young children themselves, rather than the judgments of adults, should provide the criterion for masculinity and femininity (Skinner, 1972).

### Factors Related to Masculinity-Femininity

Several researchers have noted differences in the sex-role identification of children from various family constellations. Fauls and Smith (1956) found that "only" children chose sex-appropriate activities more often than children with older like-sex siblings. Brim (1958) found that cross-sex siblings tended to assimilate characteristics of the opposite sex. This effect was more pronounced in the younger of two siblings and particularly in the case of the male with an older sister of two years age-spacing. Schell (1968) hypothesized that the influence of the opposite sex sibling serves as not only a model for instructing the younger sibling, but also for instructing the children in opposite sex discriminations. The older sibling simultaneously provides a contrast to the child, whereby his learning of same-sex discriminations is also facilitated. However, Hartup (1960) found no significant differences between It Scale scores of first born and later born children. Thus, Hartup found no relation between birth order and the early acquisition of sex role preferences.

Rabban (1950) found support for the hypothesis that class, as subculture, can shape the social expression of a biological trait. He found that scores for lower class children were more sex-typed than scores for middle class children. Hall & Keith (1964) found that boys of lower socioeconomic status demonstrated more clearly a masculine sex-role preference than boys of the upper class. Hartley (1964) found that upper-middle class girls rejected the role of homemaker and preferred a narrower range of activities than the lower economic groups. Hartley (1964) felt that this attitude difference was due to the differential



implementation of the domestic role in the lower and middle classes. Further, she found dissatisfaction with domestic roles more characteristic of young college trained females than of working-class wives.

Other researchers have concentrated on determining the variables involved in child rearing practices which are related to sex-role identification. Lefkowitz (1962) found that in boys, sex role is learned with greater facility in a nurturant environment in which the parents manifest interest in the child's development and are attentive to his needs. Lebowitz (1972) found that in adult males with gender disturbances, the father was perceived as not available for use as a masculine model by the son--even though he was present physically. Farina (1960) found that psychologically disturbed patients from other-dominated families tended to be single, social isolates, to have made marginal social-sexual adjustment prior to psychosis, and to be pallidly asexual. Hartup (1962) found that authoritarian maternal attitudes were associated with like-sex parental imitation to children of both sexes. In addition, conflicts about family life and low esteem for the husband were associated with imitation of the mother by girls.

In an extensive study of child rearing practices associated with gender role disturbance, Sears (1965) found that the father's sex anxiety contributes to feminizing children of both sexes. Other practices related to the feminization of children of both sexes were: high physical punishment and ridicule, the mother's punitiveness and non-permissiveness with respect to aggression, and high demands for table manners, severe weaning, and severe toilet training.

Bieliauskas (1965) found that sex-role identification depends on the predominance of masculine or feminine children in the family. He

felt that sex role identification was not something that children learn from parents, but that parents, too, are affected in their sex-role identification by their children. In this sense, sexual identification is a continuous process. Lansky (1964) also felt the mechanisms of sex-role identification were related to the effects of siblings upon parents, and that the parents' sex-role identification may change through time, also.

Current cultural changes have also been studied for their relevance to the process of sex-role identification. Tolor and Tolor (1974) found that the more positive contemporary values assigned to the female role were reflected in a greater percentage of girls now drawing their own sex first as compared to previous years. Hall & Keith (1964) felt that girls were being permitted more flexibility in the female role than boys were allowed in the masculine role. However, Lansky (1963) found that children reported their parents sanctioned sex-role variability in choice for boys as much as they did for girls.

Some researchers feel that intelligence plays a role in the early acquisition of appropriate sex roles. Lefkowitz (1962) found masculinity and femininity scores to be positively correlated ( $p < .01$ ) with intelligence quotient scores for boys. Bigner (1972) found that "bright" children were found to be more advanced in age trends of sex-role development. However, Maccoby (1966) found that cross-sex typing was associated with greater intellectual development. Boys and girls who were less sex-typed were found to have higher overall intelligence, higher spatial ability, and higher creativity. Bem (1975) found that adults who were highly sex-typed displayed behavioral deficits with the feminine females showing perhaps the greatest deficit of all. Bem (1972) also

found that high femininity in both sexes was associated with high anxiety and low social acceptance. In contrast, Vroegh (1967) found more masculine and more feminine children tended to be better adjusted than less masculine and less feminine children.

In work with five year-old children, Sears (1970) found that femininity, in both sexes, was associated with a poor self-concept as well as with anxiety, high self-aggression, high prosocial and low anti-social aggression.

#### Implications for the Present Research

Research findings indicate that sex-role identification has been studied by a variety of methods, including interviews, observations, and projective techniques. Some of the findings that research has produced are that sex-role development is influenced by differences in cultural expectations, differences in parental models, and by differences in child-rearing practices. Research has also indicated that the sex-role of parents is open to the influence of children (Bieliauskas, 1965; Lansky, 1964).

This research is concerned with sex-role identification and is specifically focused on the relationship between the FAM of preschool children and their correlation with the FAM of the child's parents. A test of masculinity-femininity is used to determine the extent to which the children present a clear sex-role in their behavior. A test of femininity, androgyny, and masculinity is used to determine the extent to which the parents present a clear sex-role in their behavior.

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD AND PROCEDURE

The purpose of this study was to identify the correlation of FAM scores, as measured by the Starkweather M-F Test and the Bem Sex Role Inventory for preschool children and their parents. This chapter includes a description of the subjects who participated in the research; a description of the instruments, including the method of their administration; and information regarding the analysis of the data.

#### Subjects

The children who participated in this study were from two groups: (1) children in Stillwater, Oklahoma who were enrolled in a private preschool day care center and (2) children in Tulsa, Oklahoma whose mothers were active in the National Organization for Women (NOW).

The focus of this study was to compare the children to the parents in individual families. For this reason the writer felt it advisable to utilize all available data. The addition of the Tulsa sample (collected by B. Luce, an O. S. U. graduate student) provided a variety of point of view while simultaneously broadening the sample base. There were 44 children in all--22 boys and 22 girls. Their age range was from three years, 0 months to five years, nine months. The distribution of the children by age and sex is presented in Table I.

TABLE I  
 DISTRIBUTION OF CHILDREN BY AGE AND SEX  
 (N = 44)

	Boys	Girls	Total
Three-year-olds (3:0 - 3:11)	10	08	18
Four-year-olds (4:0 - 4:11)	09	09	18
Five-year-olds (5:0 - 5:11)	03	05	08
Total	22	22	44

The parents of the children were asked to participate in the study by completing the Bem Sex Role Inventory. For 31 of the children, both parents responded to the inventory, and for the remaining 13 children, only the mother responded. The distribution of the ages and sex of children whose parents responded is presented in Table II.

#### Research Instruments

##### Starkweather M-F Test

The Starkweather M-F Test, developed as a part of the creativity research program at Oklahoma State University, was selected for use in the investigation. A summary of the description of the test is presented here (Skinner, 1972).

The Starkweather M-F Test was designed to measure the masculine and feminine preferences of preschool children with the evaluation of what is masculine and what is feminine based upon actual choices of

children tested. The assumption underlying this design is that the behavior of boys is boy-behavior (masculine), and the behavior of girls is girl-behavior (feminine).

TABLE II  
AGES AND SEX OF CHILDREN WHOSE PARENTS RESPONDED  
(N = 44)

	Both Parents Responded	Mother Only Responded
Three-year-olds	14	04
Four-year-olds	13	05
Five-year-olds	04	04
Boys	17	05
Girls	<u>14</u>	<u>08</u>
Total	31	13

The M-F test consists of two picture booklets with twenty sets of three pictures in each booklet. On each page there are three different gummed seal pictures which have been arbitrarily chosen and arranged so that a masculine, a feminine, and a neutral picture appear on each page. As the child is shown the booklet, page by page, he chooses the picture on each page that he prefers and wants to take home. The child is given a picture identical to the one he selects.

Each child's M-F score is based on the masculine or feminine value of each picture he chooses. The value of each picture has been

determined by the specific choices of other children previously studied. For example, a picture chosen by a majority of the boys and few of the girls is weighted heavily as masculine. This method of scoring provides a measure of masculinity-femininity which is based on the actual choices of the children themselves rather than being based on the judgements of adults.

### Bem Sex Role Inventory

The Bem Sex Role Inventory was developed by Sandra Bem, a psychologist at Stanford University. Bem felt a need for a test which could not only identify the stereotypic aspects of masculinity and femininity but which could also detect those individuals possessing characteristics common to both sexes. The Bem sex role inventory was chosen for use in the current research due to its unique ability to identify the androgynous individual--that person possessing typical masculine and feminine characteristics. The use of this test made possible the comparison of Ch of androgynous and non-androgynous parents. A description of the instrument given by Bem (1975) follows:

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) contains both a masculinity scale and a femininity scale, each of which contains twenty personality characteristics selected on the basis of sex-typed social desirability. That is, a characteristic qualified as masculine if it was judged by two independent samples of undergraduates to be more desirable in American society for a man than for a woman (e.g., ambitious, dominant, self-reliant), and is qualified as feminine if it was judged to be more desirable in American society for a woman than for a man (e.g., affectionate, gentle, understanding).

When taking the BSRI, a person is asked to indicate on a seven point scale how well each of these masculine and feminine personality characteristics describes himself. The scale ranges from one ('never or almost never true') to seven ('always or almost always true') and is labeled at each point. On the basis of his responses, each person receives an 'Androgyny Score,' defined as the Student's t-ratio for the

difference between a person's endorsement of masculine and feminine personality characteristics. That is, the Androgyny Score is the difference between a person's endorsement of masculinity and femininity standardized with respect to the standard deviation of his or her masculinity and femininity scores. The use of a  $t$ -ratio as the index of androgyny--one important conceptual advantage: namely, it allows us to ask whether a person's endorsement of masculine attributes differs significantly from his or her endorsement of feminine attributes, if it does ( $t/-2.025$ ,  $p < .05$ , 38 df), to classify the person as significantly sex-typed or sex-reversed.

In general, then, the greater the absolute value of the Androgyny Score, the more the person is sex-typed or sex-reversed, with high positive scores indicating masculinity. A 'masculine' sex role thus represents not only the endorsement of masculine attributes, but the simultaneous rejection of feminine attributes, just as 'feminine' sex roles represents not only the endorsement of feminine attributes, but the simultaneous rejection of masculine attributes. In contrast, the smaller the absolute value of the Androgyny Score, the more the person is androgynous. An 'androgynous sex role thus represents the equal endorsement of both masculine and feminine attributes' (p. 4, 5).

#### Collection of Data

The testing program was conducted in January, 1975. Each of the 59 children enrolled in the school in Stillwater was tested and re-tested individually within a period of seven to fourteen days.

All 59 parents were sent a letter requesting their participation. They were asked to indicate their willingness to participate in the research by filling out the Bem Sex Role Inventory, preferably at school--although most of the mothers took a form home for their husbands. In this way, the children and parents were tested during the same time interval.

A second letter was sent to those 39 sets of parents who had not participated in the research the first time. Two Bem forms were included with the letter. The parents were asked to return these within one week.



Out of 59 potential sets of parents, 30 sets finally responded. Of these sets, 20 responded after the first letter was sent. Of these 20 parents, 15 sets filled out the form in the privacy of their own homes, and of the remaining five couples, the wives filled out the form at school and took another form home for the husbands. After the second letter was sent to the 39 remaining parental sets, ten more couples responded. In the three single parent responses, all of the mothers participated after the first letter was sent out. This writer believes a greater response could have been achieved if one particular mother had not felt extremely threatened by the subject matter and had not alarmed the other parents.

In this manner responses for at least one parent and scores for their children were obtained for 34 children and parents from Stillwater. An additional ten children were tested in Tulsa. Responses were obtained from their mothers only.

#### Analysis of Data

The data obtained in this study were analyzed to relate the degree of androgyny of the parents with the stability of the child's sex role identification. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to examine the following hypotheses:

I. There is no significant difference between the Starkweather M-F scores of children whose mothers were judged "androgynous" and those children whose mothers were judged "non-androgynous" (feminine or masculine) by scores on the Bem Sex Role Inventory for:

(A) All children

(B) Boys

(C) Girls

II. There is no significant difference between the Starkweather M-F scores of children whose fathers were judged "androgynous" and those whose fathers were judged "non-androgynous" by scores on the Bem Sex Role Inventory for:

(A) All children

(B) Boys

(C) Girls

Also, the data were examined in order to compare the FAM of the parents with the degree of femininity or masculinity of the children's scores. In calculating the rank order correlations Form A of the Starkweather M-F Test was used. Form B of the Starkweather M-F Test was used in this research only to determine the sex role stability of individual children. Spearman rank order correlations were calculated to test the following hypotheses:

III. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of the fathers with the Starkweather M-F scores of the children for:

(A) All children

(B) Boys

(C) Girls

(D) All children whose scores were "stable"

(E) Boys whose scores were "stable"

(F) Girls whose scores were "stable"

IV. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of mothers with the Starkweather M-F scores of the children for:

- (A) All children
- (B) Boys
- (C) Girls
- (D) All children whose scores were "stable"
- (E) Boys whose scores were "stable"
- (F) Girls whose scores were "stable"

To the extent that this study contributes to an understanding of the acquisition of femininity, androgyny, and masculinity of young children in relation to their parents, it will help to clarify the problem of sex role development. It is hoped this information will be of future value to researchers interested in the acquisition of sex roles of young children.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of masculinity and femininity in pre-school children to femininity, androgyny, and masculinity in the parents of the children. In order to achieve this purpose, the pre-school children were administered the Starkweather M-F Test and their parents were administered the Bem Sex Role Inventory.

This chapter will include the results of the analyses of data. The results of both the Mann-Whitney U tests and the Spearman rank correlations will be presented.

#### Analysis of Data

To compare the children of androgynous parents with the children of non-androgynous parents in terms of the stability of the child's sex-role identification score, six different combinations of data were tested. The judgement of the child's stability of sex-role identification was based upon the difference in his percentile rank on Form A and Form B of the Starkweather M-F test. If the difference was ten or less, the child was judged stable in his sex-role identification (Starkweather, 1975). The following six relationships between parents and children were examined:

Comparison of the Degree of Androgyny of the  
Parents With the Stability of the Child's  
Sex-Role Identification

Hypothesis IA. There is no significant difference between the sex-  
role identification stability scores of the children whose mothers were  
judged androgynous and those whose mothers were judged non-androgynous.

In this study, no statistically significant difference was found. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Androgyny or non-androgyny of the mothers appeared unrelated to stability of the child's sex-role identification scores.

Hypothesis IB. There is no significant difference between the  
sex-role identification stability scores of boys whose mothers were  
judged androgynous and boys whose mothers were judged non-androgynous.

There was no statistically significant difference found in the examination of these data. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected. No significant difference was found between boys of androgynous and non-androgynous mothers.

Hypothesis IC. There is no significant difference between the  
sex-role identification stability scores of girls whose mothers were  
judged androgynous and those girls whose mothers were judged non-  
androgynous.

Upon examination of the data, no significant difference was found. There can be no rejection of this hypothesis based upon this study. Androgyny or non-androgyny of the mother appeared unrelated to stability of the girl's sex-role identification score.

Hypothesis IIA. There is no significant difference between the sex-role identification stability scores of children whose fathers were judged androgynous and children whose fathers were judged non-androgynous. No significant difference was found to exist; there can be no rejection of this hypothesis. Androgyny or non-androgyny of the father appeared unrelated to the stability of sex-role identification of the child.

Hypothesis IIB. There is no significant difference between the sex-role identification stability scores of boys whose fathers were judged androgynous and the boys whose fathers were judged non-androgynous. No significant difference was found to exist when this hypothesis was examined. The hypothesis cannot be rejected. It appears there is no relationship between the androgyny or non-androgyny of the father and the stability of the sex-role identification of the boys.

Hypothesis IIC. There is no significant difference between the sex-role identification stability scores of girls whose fathers were judged androgynous and the girls whose fathers were judged non-androgynous. No significant difference was found to exist when this hypothesis was examined. This hypothesis must be held tenable also. Androgyny or non-androgyny of the father did not appear related to the stability of the sex-role identification of the girls.

Comparison of the FAM of the Parents With the Degree of Femininity or Masculinity of the Children's Scores

Hypothesis IIIA. There is no significant relationship between the

Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of the fathers with the Starkweather M-F scores of the children. Upon examination of the data, a significant relationship was found to exist ( $\rho = .83$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The null hypothesis must be rejected. A high positive correlation was found between FAM scores of the father and the M-F scores of the children. X

Hypothesis IIIB. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of the fathers with the Starkweather M-F scores of the boys. Upon examination of the data, a significant relationship was found to exist ( $\rho = .80$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The null hypothesis must therefore be rejected. A high positive correlation was found to exist between FAM scores of fathers and M-F scores of the boys. Y

Hypothesis IIIC. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of the fathers with the Starkweather M-F scores of the girls. An examination of the data revealed a significant relationship did exist ( $\rho = .84$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The null hypothesis must be rejected. The relationship between FAM scores of the fathers correlated positively with M-F scores of the girls. X

Hypothesis IIID. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of the fathers with the Starkweather M-F scores of all children whose scores were stable. Examination of the data indicated this to be a statistically significant relationship ( $\rho = .82$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The null hypothesis must be rejected. A high positive correlation was found to exist between the FAM scores of the fathers and the M-F scores of all the children. ^

Hypothesis III E. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of the fathers with the Starkweather M-F scores of all boys whose scores were stable. Examination of the data revealed this relationship to be significant ( $\rho = .80, p < .01$ ). The null hypothesis must be rejected. A positive correlation was found to exist between FAM scores of fathers and M-F scores of boys.

Hypothesis III F. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of the fathers with the Starkweather M-F scores of all girls whose scores were stable. Data analysis revealed this hypothesis to be tenable ( $\rho = .77, p = .10$ ). The hypothesis is therefore held tenable. The low correlation may be attributed to the small number of subjects in this particular group.

Hypothesis IV A. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of mothers with the Starkweather M-F scores of the children. Examination of the data revealed a significant relationship ( $\rho = .89, p < .001$ ). The null hypothesis must be rejected. The correlation between FAM scores of mothers and M-F scores of children was found to be a high positive correlation.

Hypothesis IV B. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of mothers with the Starkweather M-F scores of the boys. Analysis of the data indicated a statistically significant relationship ( $\rho = .84, p < .001$ ). The null hypothesis is rejected. A high positive correlation was found between the FAM scores of mothers and the M-F scores of the boys.



Hypothesis IVC. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of mothers with the Starkweather M-F scores of the girls. Analysis of the data revealed a statistically significant relationship ( $\rho = .86, p < .001$ ). The null hypothesis is rejected. A high positive correlation was found between the FAM scores of mothers and the M-F scores of girls.

Hypothesis IVD. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of mothers and the Starkweather M-F scores of all children whose scores were "stable." Examination of the data reveals a significant relationship ( $\rho = .81, p < .001$ ). The null hypothesis must be rejected. A high positive correlation was found between the FAM scores of mothers and the M-F scores of the children whose scores were stable.

Hypothesis IVE. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of mothers and the Starkweather M-F scores of all boys whose scores were "stable." Analysis of the data indicates a significant relationship ( $\rho = .80, p < .01$ ). The null hypothesis must be rejected. A positive correlation was found between the FAM of the mothers and those boys with "stable" scores.

Hypothesis IVF. There is no significant relationship between the Bem Sex Role Inventory scores of FAM of mothers with the Starkweather M-F scores of girls whose scores were "stable." An analysis of the data revealed a significant relationship existed ( $\rho = .80, p < .001$ ). The null hypothesis is rejected. The correlation was high and positive between the FAM of the mothers and the M-F scores of girls whose scores were "stable."

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the femininity and masculinity of young children and the femininity, masculinity, and androgyny of their parents. To achieve this purpose, masculinity and femininity scores were obtained for the children by administering the Starkweather Masculinity-Femininity Test. These scores were then related to the scores obtained from parents of the children on the Bem Sex Role Inventory.

The subjects who participated in this study were 44 pre-school children, 22 boys and 22 girls, and the parents of these children. For 31 of these children, both the mother and father participated in the research. For the remaining 13 children, only the mothers participated.

For each of the children who was administered the Starkweather Masculinity-Femininity Test, the following data were available for analysis: the percentile rank on Form A, the percentile rank on Form B, and a stability score. For the parents, a Bem Sex Role Inventory Score was available, which could be categorized into one of three categories: feminine, androgynous, or masculine. To study the relationships between these various scores, two statistical procedures were utilized--the Mann-Whitney U Test and the Spearman Rank Correlations.

The following results were obtained: The scores of the fathers on the BSRI were positively and significantly correlated with the M-F

scores for all children ( $p = .001$ ), for boys ( $p = .001$ ), for girls ( $p = .001$ ), for children whose M-F scores were stable ( $p = .001$ ), and for boys whose M-F scores were stable ( $p = .01$ ). The scores for the mothers on the BSRI were positively and significantly correlated with the M-F scores for all children ( $p = .001$ ), for boys ( $p = .001$ ), for girls ( $p = .001$ ), for children whose M-F scores were stable ( $p = .001$ ), for boys whose M-F scores were stable ( $p = .01$ ), and for girls whose M-F scores were stable ( $p = .001$ ). No statistically significant relationship was found to exist between the fathers and the girls whose M-F scores were stable ( $p = .10$ ).

#### Discussion of the Study

The results of this study indicate that, as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory, the androgyny or non-androgyny of individual parents has no statistically significant relationship to the stability of the child's sex role identification, as measured by the Starkweather Masculinity-Femininity Test.

There are several possible explanations for this lack of a significant relationship. One explanation could be that the size of this sample was not large enough to yield significant results. It is also possible that one or both of the instruments used lacks validity or that the two instruments are not measuring the same dimensions of personality in the area of classification of individuals by sex-role typing. It could also be that the scores of the BSRI were distorted due to the hesitancy on the part of some parents to reveal what they considered private information.

The results of the correlations of FAM scores of parents and

sex-role identification scores of the children are also in agreement with much of the literature, which indicates the importance of parental sex role identification on sex role identification of children. The results also indicated the compatibility of the Starkweather M-F Test and the Bem Sex Role Inventory. When the two tests were used to obtain scores for correlation, the instruments seemed to be capable of discriminating between the same aspects of the personality which our culture has labeled masculine and feminine. Further research might be capable of producing more correlations of equally high significance.

#### Recommendations for Future Research

In view of the findings of the present research, the following recommendations are made:

- (1) Future studies would benefit by enlarging the sample size and securing the participation of both the parents.
- (2) In further studies, the Starkweather M-F Test and the BSRI can be used in studying the influences of parent-child relations on the development of sex role preferences.
- (3) There is a need for a longitudinal study to explore in depth the relationships between the sex-role identifications of the parents and the children over an extended period of time. The importance of learning to recognize children with sex-role identification problems early is a further justification for such a study.

#### A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Bem, S. L. Psychology looks at sex roles: Where have all the androgynous people gone? Paper presented at UCLA Symposium on Women, May, 1972.
- Bem, S. L. The measurement of psychological androgyny. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1974, 42, 155-162.
- Bem, S. L. Sex-role adaptability: One consequence of psychological androgyny. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 12 (in press).
- Bieliauskas, V. J. Recent advances in the psychology of masculinity and femininity. The Journal of Psychology, 1965, 60, 255-263.
- Bigner, J. J. Sibling influence on sex-role preference of young children. The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1972, 121, 271-282.
- Biller, H. B., & Zung, B. Perceived maternal control, anxiety, and opposite sex role preference among elementary school girls. The Journal of Psychology, 1972, 81, 85-88.
- Brim, O. G. Family structure and sex role learning by children: A further analysis of Helen Koch's Data. Sociometry, 1958, 21, 1-15.
- Brown, D. G. Sex-role preference in young children. Psychological Monographs: General and Applied, 1956, 70, 1-19.
- Brown, D. G. (a) Human figure drawings as indicators of sexual identification and inversion. Perceptual and Motor Skills 1957, 7, 199-211.
- Brown, D. G. (b) Masculinity-femininity development in children. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1957, 21, 192-202.
- Brown, D. G. Sex-role preference in children: methodological problems. Psychological Reports, 1962, 11, 447-478.
- Caligor, L. The determination of the individual's unconscious conception of his own masculinity-femininity identification. Journal of Projective Techniques and Personality Assessment, 1951, 15, 494-509.
- Cramer, P., & Bryson, J. The development of sex-related fantasy patterns. Development Psychology, 1973, 8, 131-134.

- Darke, R. A., & Geil, G. A. Homosexual activity: relation of degree and role to the Goodenough Test and to the Cornell Selectee Index. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disorders, 1948, 108, 217-240.
- DeLucia, L. A. The toy preference test: a measure of sex-role identification. Child Development, 1963, 34, 107-117.
- Emmerich, W. Parental identification in young children. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1959, 60, 289-295.
- Endsley, R. C. Effects of concealing 'it' on sex role preferences of preschool children. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 1967, 24, 998.
- Engel, I. M. A factor-analytic study of items from five masculinity-femininity tests. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1966, 30, 565.
- Farina, A. Patterns of role dominance and conflict in parents of schizophrenic patients. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1950, 61, 31-38.
- Fauls, L. B., and Smith, W. D. Sex-role learning of five-year olds. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1956, 89, 105-117.
- Ferguson, L. W. The cultural genesis of masculinity-femininity. Psychological Bulletins, 1941, 38.
- Fling, S., & Manosevitz, M. Sex typing in nursery school children's play interests. Developmental Psychology, 1972, 7, 145-151.
- Forslund, M. A., & Hull, E. Sex-role identification in preadolescence. Psychology in the Schools, 1972, 9, 413-417.
- Frank, G. H. A Test of the use of a figure drawing test as an indicator of sexual inversion. Psychological Reports, 1955, 1, 137-138.
- Gough, H. G. Identifying psychological femininity. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1952, 12, 427-437.
- Hall, M., & Keith, R. A. Sex-role preference among children of upper and lower social class. Journal of Social Psychology, 1964, 62, 101-110.
- Hartley, R. E. Children's concepts of male and female roles. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1959, 5, 83-91.
- Hartley, R. E. A developmental view of female sex-role definition and identification. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1964, 10, 3-16.
- Hartup, W. W., & Zook, E. A. Sex-role preferences in three- and four-year-old children. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1960, 24, 420-426.
- Hartup, W. W. Some correlates of parental imitation in young children. Child Development, 1962, 33, 85-96.

- Hetherington, M. E. A developmental study of the effects of sex of the dominant parent on sex-role preference, identification, and imitation in young children. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1965, 2, 188-194.
- Hogan, R. A. Children's sex role preference with the it-figure. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Denver, 1957.
- Inselberg, R. M., & Burke, L. Social and Psychological Correlates of masculinity in young boys. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1973, 19, 41-47.
- Kayton, R., & Biller, H. B. Sex-role development and psychopathology in adult males. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1972, 38, 208-210.
- Kohlberg, L. S. A cognitive-developmental analysis of children's sex-role concepts and attitudes. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.), The Development of Sex Differences, Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1966.
- Kokonis, N. D. Sex-role identification in Neurosis: psychoanalytic-developmental and role theory predictions compared. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 1972, 80, 52-57.
- Landreth, C. Four-year-olds' notions about sex appropriateness of parental care and companionship activities. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1963, 9, 175-182.
- Lansky, L. M., & McKay, G. Sex role preferences of Kindergarten boys and girls: some contradictory results. Psychological Reports, 1963, 13, 415-421.
- Lansky, L. M. The family structure also affects the model: sex-role identification in parents of preschool children. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1964, 10, 39-50.
- Lebovitz, P. S. Feminine behavior in boys: aspects of its outcome. American Journal of Psychiatry, 1972, 128, 1283-1288.
- Lefkowitz, M. M. Some relationships between sex role preference of children and other parent and child variables. Psychological Reports, 1962, 10, 43-53.
- Lewis, M. Parents and children: sex-role development. School Review, 1971-1972, 80, 229-239.
- Lunneborg, P. W., & Lunneborg, C. E. Factor structure of MF scales and items. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1970, 26, 360-366.
- Lunneborg, P. W. Stereotypic aspect in masculinity-femininity measurement. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1970, 34, 119-123.

- Lynn, D. B. Parental and sex-role identification, a theoretical formulation. Berkley: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1969.
- Maccoby, E. E. Sex differences in intellectual functioning. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.) The Development of Sex Differences. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1966, 25-55.
- May, R. Deprivation-enhancement fantasy patterns in men and women. Journal of Projective Techniques and Personality Assessment, 1959, 33, 464-469.
- May, R. A method for studying the development of gender identity. Developmental Psychology, 1971, 5, 484-487.
- Mead, M. Sex and temperament in three primitive societies. New York: New American Library, 1935.
- Mischel, W. A social-learning view of sex differences in behavior. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.) The Development of Sex Differences. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1966.
- Money, J., & Hampson, J. Imprinting and establishment of gender role. Archives of Neurology and Psychiatry, 1957, 77, 333-336.
- Mowrer, O. H. Learning Theory and Personality Dynamics. New York: Ronald Press, 1950.
- Mussen, P., & Rutherford, E. Parent-child relations and parental personality in relation to young children's sex-role preference. Child Development, 1963, 34, 589-607.
- Nichols, R. C. Subtle, obvious and stereotype measures of masculinity-femininity. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1962, 22, 449-461.
- Osofsky, J. D., & Osofsky, H. J. Androgyny as a life style. The Family Coordinator, 1972, 2, 411-418.
- Paluszny, M., et al. Gender identity and its measurement in children. Comprehensive Psychiatry, 1973, 14, 281-290.
- Rabban, M. Sex-role identification in young children. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1950, 42, 139-158.
- Reed, M. R., & Asbjornsen, W. Experimental alteration of the it scale in the study of sex-role preference. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 1968, 36, 15-24.
- Rosenberg, B. G., & Sutton-Smith, B. The measurement of masculinity and femininity in children: an extension and revalidation. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1964, 104, 259-264.
- Rutter, M. Normal psychosexual development. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 1970, 11, 272-283.



- Schell, R. E., & Silber, J. W. Sex-role discrimination among young children. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 1968, 27, 379-389.
- Sears, R. R. Preliminary report on a study of identification. The American Psychologist, 1953, 8, 431.
- Sears, R. R. Development of gender role. In Beach, F. A. (Ed.), Sex and Behavior. New York: Krieger, 1965.
- Sears, R. R. Relation of early socialization experiences to self-concepts and gender role in middle childhood. Child Development, 1970, 41, 267-289.
- Sears, R. R., Rau, L., & Alpert, R. Identification and child rearing. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1965.
- Seward, G. H. Personal communication to D. G. Brown, in Sex-role preference in young children. Psychological Monographs, 1956, 70, 1019.
- Skinner, L. E. Sex-Role Identification: The Measurement of Masculinity-Femininity in Early Childhood. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Oklahoma State University, 1972.
- Starkweather, E. K., personal communication, June 4, 1975.
- Steele, C. I. Sexual identity problems among adolescent girls in institutional placement. Adolescence, 1971, 6, 509-521.
- Stimpson, C. Beyond 'either/or'--beyond 'both.' The Nation, 1973, 26, 566-569.
- Thompson, N. L., & McCandless, B. It score variations by instructional style. Child Development, 1970, 41, 425-436.
- Tolor, A., & Tolor, B. Children's figure drawings and changing attitudes toward sex roles. Psychological Reports, 1974, 34, 343-349.
- Vener, A. M., & Snyder, C. A. The preschool child's awareness and anticipation of adult sex-roles. Sociometry, 1966, 24, 159-168.
- Vroegh, K., et al. Discriminant analyses of preschool masculinity and femininity. Multivariate Behavioral Research, 1967, 2, 299-313.
- Vroegh, K. Masculinity and femininity in the preschool years. Child Development, 1968, 34, 1253-1257.
- Ward, W. D. Process of sex-role development. Developmental Psychology, 1969, 1, 163-168.

Ward, W. D. Variance of sex-role preference among boys and girls.  
Psychological Reports, 1968, 23, 467-470.

Weitzman, L. J. Sex role socialization in picture books for preschool  
children. American Journal of Sociology, 1972, 77, 1125-1149.

VITA

Martha Lynn Churchill

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: A COMPARISON OF THE SEX-ROLE IDENTIFICATION OF PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN AND THEIR PARENTS

Major Field: Family Relations and Child Development

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Chickasha, Oklahoma, May 4, 1952, the daughter of Aaron Edward and Minniebelle Churchill.

Education: Attended grade school and junior high school in Chickasha, Oklahoma; graduated from Chickasha High School in May, 1970; received the Bachelor of Science degree in Elementary Education from Oklahoma State University in December, 1973; completed requirements for the Master of Science degree in July, 1975.

Professional Experience: Head teacher of four year olds, Miss Carolyn's Pre-school, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1974-1975; substitute teacher, public elementary schools, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1974; teacher, Collins Kiddie College, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1973; volunteer "Big Sis" for Headstart Project, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1972-1973.

Professional Organizations: Student Chapter of Oklahoma Education Association; Kappa Delta Pi.