A STUDY OF STEREOTYPIC TOY CHOICES

MADE BY CHILDREN AND
THEIR PARENTS

By<br>LORA RHEA JASTRZEMBSKI<br>Bachelor of Arts<br>University of Illinois<br>Urbana-Champaign, Illinois<br>1974

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SEX-ROLE IDENTIFICATION IN PRESCHOOL CHILDREN:

A STUDY OF STEREOTYPIC TOY CHOICES
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THEIR PARENTS

Thesis Approved:


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## CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

## Sex-Typing

Sex-typing refers to the process through which a child comes to think, feel, and act in ways which the culture defines as appropriate for one's sex or is consistent with one's biological characteristics (Smart and Smart, 1972). According to Mead (1949), cultures around the world define the meaning of male and female. Sometimes the definition is based upon biological characteristics, while at other times it may be based upon the particular society's functioning cultural beliefs. A study by Barry and Bacon (1957) showed that in 110 cultures there were widespread trends in sex-role teaching. In American society, there tends to be two basic sex-role stereotypes offered to individuals (Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith, 1972). As early as infancy an individual is surrounded with sex-appropriate values, objects, and even colors! There usually is no doubt in one ${ }^{9}$ s mind as to the sex of a bald-headed baby dressed in pink and lace, clutching a soft-bodied, curly-headed doll; or an equally bald-headed baby dressed in blue corduroy overalls clutching a small plastic replica of a dump truck. Ferguson (1970) and Schell and Silber (1968) report that a child as early as three years of age has considerable knowledge as to his own sex and its corresponding appropriate behavior. Hartup and Zook (1960) conducted a study in which three- and four-year-old children made clear-cut
sex-appropriate preferences of objects and activities. Kohlberg and Zigler (1967) investigated the relationship of mental age and maturity to children's changes of sex-role attitudes and perceptions. It was found that older mental aged children (or those who matured mentally earlier than others) did in fact have changes in their attitudes and perceptions of sex-roles. In relative support of that study, Hartup and Zook's (1960) study revealed that four-year-old children show a much greater preference for objects and activities congruent with the sextyped play of their respective sex than three-year-olds.

Oetzel (1962) compiled a list of typical masculine and feminine characteristics as judged by college students and fifth graders. Some of the characteristics included were these:

Masculine .
Never afraid of anything.
Likes to show off. Likes noisy fun. Sticks up for own rights. Is bossy. Likes to tease others.

## Feminine

Always does what teacher says. Likes to act grown up. Is always polite. Likes to do for others. Is easily embarrassed. Careful not to hurt others' feelings (p. 328).

In a study by Jenkins and Russell (1958), college students rated the concepts "boy" and "girl" on 20 polar-opposite adjectives, e.g., good-bad, strong-weak, wise-foolish, etc. Boys rated higher than girls on the attributes of cruelty, strength, importance, and activity (as opposed to passivity).

Bennett and Cohen (1959) presented to a large group of adults a list of adjectives. The subjects were asked to select those attributes that they felt were most and least characteristic of themselves. Similar findings again revealed females felt less adequate, more negligent, more fearful, and less mature than did males.

Mussen, Conger, and Kagan (1963) suggest that these kinds of sextyped attitudes may be transferred from one generation to another with few changes in content. Smart and Smart (1972) state that sex-typed attitudes tend to vary in complex, fast-changing societies from one ethnic group to another, between social classes, and from family to family.

## Sex-Role Identification

Mussen, Conger, and Kagan (1963) define identification as the learning process which leads the child to think, feel, and behave as though the characteristics of another person or group of people belonged to him. Bandura and Walters (1963) state that children learn sexappropriate behavior through modeling and reinforcement.

The complex concept of identification might be more clearly illustrated by the use of common examples. The little girl who dresses up in her mother's clothes and dramatizes a shopping tour through the supermarket is identifying with her mother as the model. The little boy who imitates his father ${ }^{1}$ s car mechanic abilities by dramatizing those actions on his tricycle is identifying with his father as the model. Mussen, Conger, and Kagan (1963) believe there are two conditions that facilitate the development of an identification with a model. First, the child must want to possess some of the model's attributes. Second, he must have some basis for believing that he and the model are similar in some way. In the first condition, parental nurturance plays an impontant role. Because the mother (or father) cares for the child in a positive manner, i.e., providing gratification, the parent stands for positive reward value. By recreating this parental behavior, the
child experiences some of the positive reward value associated with the parent. Rejecting, negative behavior on the part of the parent will not motivate the child to practice this condition (Mussen, Conger, and Kagan, 1963). The second condition theorizes that the child equates similarity to the parent with the parents' or models' traits and privileges. Thus, the identification with the model is strengthened through the child's imitation and increased similarity of the parental behaviors (Mussen, Conger, and Kagan, 1963).

Goldsmith (1970) stated that the imitation and copying behavior is internalized to such an extent that the values, interests, and attributes of the model become an actual part of the individual. His identifying behavior then becomes spontaneous and automatic.

## Need for Research

The examining of personality characteristics in children is an ongoing process in the various areas of study within the social sciences. One of these personality characteristics, that of sex-role identification, has grown to become a topic of widespread study by numerous researchers. Today, during a time of renewed interest and focus on overall male and female sex-role properties and expectations, researchers need to become more aware of the ramifications of sex-role identification. By studying the acquisition of sex-role identification in children, society can possibly gain a more stable grasp on identity and its origins in its early stages.

Though Mussen, Conger, and Kagan (1963) have made valuable attempts to explain sex-role identification and its complex processes of internalization, Bronfenbrenner (1960) still feels a need for greater
clarification regarding the processes. He states:

Theories have grown all out of proportion to the facts. They offer elaborate and intricate explanations for phenomena presumed to be common if not universal; yet, the evidence for the prevalence or even the sheer existence of these phenomena is extremely sparse. Thus, to the writer's knowledge, there have as yet been no attempts to investigate empirically the presence of a generalized motive in the child to become like one or the other parent (Bronfenbrenner, 1960, p. 39).

The present research was undertaken in an attempt to strengthen the present knowledge of sex-role identification through the study of children's and parents' sex-stereotypic toy choices. It is believed that since a child's play is his work, and toys are the tools of his work, a child could relate easily and comfortably to familiar toys. For this reason, the author chose a toy instrument as a possible measure of sexrole identification in preschool children. It is hoped that the results will have comtributed something of value to this area of research.

## Purpose

The general purpose of this study was to investigate preschool children's and parents ${ }^{\text {' }}$ sex-stereotypic toy choices. The specific purposes of the study were to:

1. Determine whether male children choose more highly masculine toys than female children choose feminine toys.
2. Determine whether male adults choose more highly masculine toys than female adults choose feminine toys.
3. Investigate the positive relationship between a child's sex-stereotypic toy choices and the same-sexed parent's choices.
4. Investigate the negative relationship between a child's
sex-stereotypic toy choices and the opposite-sexed parent's choices.
5. Investigate the degrees of difference between sex-stereotypic toy choices made by four-year-olds and those made by five-year-olds.

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter will include discussion and relevant research findings concerning the family, i.e., father, mother, and siblings, and its relationship and affect on sex-role identification. Also included in the chapter will be a discussion on the school's role in the process of sex-role identification. Concluding the chapter is a discussion on children's preferences and sex-roles.

The Family

## The Father

A preschool age child's experiences center a great deal around those persons or that group of persons with whom the child has the most contact. For the young child, those individuals are most likely the members of his immediate family. Sears (1951) reported the assumption that since the father usually supplies the primary model for aggression in the male, the father's absence may delay the development of aggressive behavior in males.

Mussen and Distler (1959) in a study of 38 five-year-olds, supported the hypothesis that a boy will most likely identify with the father if the father is perceived as strong, powerful, and nurturant. McDavid's (1959) research contends that children of ages three to nine are more likely to imitate a man than a woman. These results
suggest that the child ascribes more competence to the male than to the female role. Supporting this contention are studies by several authors including: Emmerich (1959), Kagan (1956), and Kagan and Lemkin (1960).

Sears' (1953) research with 202 boy and 177 girl kindergarteners as subjects, suggested that warm, permissive, and rewarding fathers have sons who are most likely to sex-type appropriately. These results were obtained through the utilization of a standard set of family dolls and dollhouse. Interviews were conducted with the mothers in order to determine family conditions.

In a study by Gray (1959), data revealed that identification with the father was positively associated with adjustment in fifth- through eighth-grade age boys. Results also indicated the same aged girls who saw themselves as more like their mothers than their fathers were less favorably rated by their peers:
-
The Mother

In a study by Hetherington (1965) the power relationship between the mother and father of a family was investigated in order to determine its effect on the preschool- and school-age child's sex-role preference and identity. Findings indicated that boys from motherdominated families were less likely to have masculine preferences than were boys from father-dominated families. Differences were not significant with girls.

Biller (1969) found the feminine role preference and orientation of young girls to be related to the daughter's perceptions of the mother as salient in the family. Salience depended upon how the girl viewed her mother in terms of nurturance, limit setting, and competence,
as well as decision-making. When seeing their mothers as salient controllers of resources, girls were likely to be feminine in orientation and preference, but they also were inclined to regard their fathers both positively and as being important.

Wann, Dorn, and Liddle's (1962) extensive research with preschool children revealed that the children's concepts of fathers were much more limited than concepts of mothers. The mothers were viewed as busier, more supportive, and more punishing than fathers. Fathers were viewed as being more impersonal than mothers.

In interpreting the literature, Mussen, Conger, and Kagan (1963) offer the explanation that for boys there is possibly a stronger desire to identify with the parent of the same sex. Because there appears to be a lack of a clear-cut identification of girls with mothers, it might be assumed that girls perceive the father as more powerful than the mother. Thus, the girl is unsure about choosing the mother as a model for identification while the boy does not possess this uncertainty. In a survey of the literature on identification, Johnson (1963) concludes that girls identified with fathers are better adjusted than girls identified with their mothers.

## Siblings

Children look not only to their parents as models but to other members of the immediate family as well. A study by Schell and Silver (1968) indicated that siblings do, in fact, influence sex-typing. The study of three- and four-year-olds utilized Brown's (1957) It Test. The children made sex-typed discriminations on the test. The results showed that children with an opposite-sex sibling scored high in
sex-appropriate choices. In support of this conclusion, Sutton-Smith and Rosenberg (1965) reported that a child tends to reinforce the characteristics of his own sex in his sibling, no matter which the sex of the sibling. When the sibling doing the reinforcing is also older and consequently has power over the younger one, the reinforcement is likely to be more effective than when the dispenser is younger.

As for the influence of the sex of the sibling and his or her effects on the child's sex-type, Koch (1956) found that girls who have older brothers tend to be somewhat "tomboyish." Other results revealed that boys with older sisters have a relatively high proportion of feminine traits, or are less aggressive than boys with older brothers.

The School

Many preschool-age children have the opportunity to broaden their world of experiences through nursery school, preschool or day-care attendance. Teachers, then, are looked to as models for children's identification. Fagot and Patterson (1969) observed reinforcement of sex-role behavior by teachers in nursery schools. All types of play behavior and the proportion of time spent by each sex in each kind of behavior was listed. It was reported that boys definitely did more block building, playing with transportation toys, riding tricycles, and playing in the sandbox. Girls did more art activities, playing in kitchen and doll house, doll play, and listening to stories. Of the sex-preferred behaviors that were reinforced (i.e., teacher made favorable comments, initiated, or joined in), 83 percent were feminine. Teachers who were feminine themselves reinforced both sexes for feminine
behavior. Despite this, boys did not become more feminine in their behavior preferences.

In a survey study by Chasen (1974), prekindergarten teachers were asked about their beliefs, their attitudes, and their actions toward the girls and the boys in their classrooms. The results showed that sex-role stereotyping exists in teachers ${ }^{\prime}$ expectations as well as teachers ${ }^{\text {' }}$ attitudes. Teachers believed that girls are more passive and boys more aggressive, that girls are better behaved, play more often in the dollhouse area and clean up more readily, while boys play with blocks more often and have greater physical strength. However, it appeared that teachers tended to encourage the very behavior they believed existed. Boys were, in fact, encouraged to be more aggressive in their activities. They were not encouraged to play with dolls. Girls wore frilly, feminine clothing more often and were encouraged most to participate in art activities such as cutting and pasting.

In a similar study, Joffe (1971) utilized observational methods for the purpose of determining the nursery school's role in the transmission of sex-role expectations. Analysis was made both of the school's policy on sex-roles and the children's perceptions of them. It was revealed that even though the particular school observed was very committed to minimizing this type of socialization, a significant degree was measured. Joffe concluded with the suggestion that by observing a wider range of preschools a better understanding of the specific role played by such institutions in sex-role socialization could be reached.

## Sex-Role Preferences

According to Brown (1956), Fauls and Smith (1956), and Hartup and Zook (1960) most children are aware of many sex-appropriate behaviors by the time they are five years old. The majority of children aged three, four, and five years, when presented with a picture preference test, say they prefer the pictures (of activities and objects illustrating congruent sex-typed play of boys and girls) that are appropriate for their sex.

Hartup and Zook (1960) also found that age is a factor in the preference for sex-typed activities. Their research revealed that older preschoolers show a much greater preference for objects and activities appropriate to their sex than do younger preschoolers. As for the sex of the child, both Brown (1958) and Biller and Borstelman (1967) showed through their studies that boys show more consistent sex-appropriate preferences than girls. Rabban (1950) supported both conclusions with the findings that by the time a boy was about four to five years of age, he possessed clear-cut preferences, while girls similarly appropriate sex-typed behavior did not manifest itself until some three to four years later.

Another sex-role preference study conducted by Brown (1957) utilized a projective test called the It Scale for Children. In this test, the child chooses between pictures of various objects commonly associated with one sex or the other (toys, clothes, household objects, games, etc.). The choices are not made for the child himself but for "It," a drawing of a sexless figure. The data have shown that: (a) distinctive sex-role preferences existed for boys and for girls at all ages studied (five and one-half to eleven and one-half years), (b)
kindergarten boys were masculine in their preferences but older boys were even more masculine in their preference scores, (c) kindergarten girls had "mixed" preferences and older girls slightly masculine preferences, and (d) at all age levels, girls' preference scores were more variable than boys' scores.

Hartup and Zook (1960) extended Brown's work with the It Scale for Children. Among other findings previously discussed, the data also revealed: (a) clear-cut sex differences in It Scale scores, (b) girls at four years scored significantly more feminine than three-year-old girls, (c) four-year-old boys were more masculine than three-year-old boys at a borderline level of significance, (d) girls responded with more feminine scores when the drawing employed in the It Scale was called "It," and (e) boys responded with more masculine scores when the figure was called by the subjects ${ }^{`}$ own name than when the figure was called "It."

In a study by Ross and Ross (1972), the purpose was to determine whether preschool boys could resist sex-inappropriate behavior advocated by an esteemed woman teacher. Each subject first chose a toy to keep and stated the toy preference for the opposite sex. The teacher then advocated a sex-inappropriate toy choice. The child was free to resist with supporting opportunities for resistance. The results confirmed that most boys would resist sex-inappropriate behavior and would exhibit more resistance techniques than girls. Both sexes would choose sex-appropriate toys for boys more often than for girls.

DeLucia (1963) employed the use of a toy preference test as a technique for measuring sex-role identification. Pairs of toys (of determined masculinity and femininity) were presented to a subject who
was asked to choose which of the two toys a pictured child of the same sex as the subject would like to play with. The subjects were children in kindergarten through fourth grade classes. Results showed an orderly increase in the number of sex-appropriate choices for both boys and girls through the third grade. Boys made more sex-appropriate choices than girls and their superiority consistently increased in the later school years.

In a study by Nadelman (1974), recall, knowledge, and preference for masculine and feminine items were tested in 240 five- and eight-year-old male and female children. Results showed that children recalled, knew, and preferred same-sex items significantly more than opposite-sex items. Girls' scores were less rigidly sex-typed than were boys'. Older children showed greater stereotypy in preference tests than did younger children.

Lynn and Cross (1974) studied 150 preschool children aged two through four. In individual sessions the subjects were asked to choose which parent (in the next room) they wanted to participate with them in each of seven play activities. The purpose of the study was to investigate hypotheses about parent preference in a theory of sex-role and parental identification. Results showed that boys displayed a strong father preference. Girls showed no parent preference when age groups were combined, whereas when divided the girls ${ }^{\wedge}$ age groups showed inconsistent preferences.

Summary of Findings

Research has indicated that older preschoolers show a much greater preference for objects and activities appropriate to their sex than do
younger preschoolers (Hartup and Zook, 1960). Brown (1958), Biller and Borstelman (1967), Rabban (1950), and Ross and Ross (1972) showed through their studies that boys show more consistent sex-appropriate preferences than girls. Lynn and Cross's (1974) results showed that boys displayed a strong father preference, while girls showed somewhat inconsistent preferences. The results of these studies support the present research.

## CHAPTER III

## METHOD AND PROCEDURE

The purpose of this study was to investigate preschool children's sex-stereotypic toy choices and their relationship to parents' sexstereotypic toy choices. Age and sex differences in relation to toy preferences were also studied. This chapter includes descriptions of the subjects who participated in this study, descriptions of procedures for developing the instrument, descriptions for administering the instrument, and descriptions of procedures for analysis of the data.

## Scaling the Toys

## Subjects

The subjects who participated in the toy scaling portion of this study were 83 young adults enrolled in one or the other of two sections of a marriage class at Oklahoma State University. There were 13 males and 70 females all in diversified major fields of study. The subjects ranged in age from 18 years of age to 25 years of age. The author's rationale in employing the cooperation of marriage class students was the assumption that those individuals were prospective parents.

## Procedure for Developing the Instrument

Colored slides, as well as 3 x 5 inch black and white glossy prints were photographed of 48 common nursery school or preschool toys.

The toys photographed for use in this study were obtained (with permission) from Oklahoma State University's Laboratory Nursery School IV, located on the campus. (The completed instrument contained 44 pictures. Four pictures were discarded due to the size and/or the detail of the toy, or similarities in toys.)

The 48 slides, placed in random order, were flashed on a screen for approximately 15 seconds each. In those 15 seconds, the marriage class subjects were asked to rate each toy individually on a nine-point continuum scale (with one representing most masculine, and nine representing most feminine). Each subject recorded his or her response on a score sheet provided by the experimenter. Two sample toy scaling score sheets are presented in Appendix A.

The mean score for each toy was then computed and assigned to the respective toy. After placing each toy in rank order according to its assigned masculine-feminine score, the 44 ranked toy scores were divided evenly into two groups. Toys in the upper 50 percent were numbered 1 to 22 and toys in the lower 50 percent were numbered 1 to 22 . The toys were then paired by matching the like numbers: one to one, two to two, three to three, etc. The difference between the scores was not more than 4.04 and not less than 1.25. The paired toys, their scores and the pair differences are presented in Table I.

## The Instrument

The paired 3 x 5 inch black and white pictures of the toys were mounted side by side on $7 \times 11$ inch sheets of heavy white cardboard. In order to control for color, black and white prints were used. The pictures were arranged in such a way that on every other sheet of

TABLE I
COMMON NURSERY SCHOOL TOYS: PAIRS, SCORES, AND
PAIR DIFFERENCES

| Pair | Toy | Score | Toy | Score | Pair <br> Differences |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Balls | 4.71 | Woodworking | 2.02 | 1.69 |
| 2 | Roadgrader | 2.08 | Tricycle | 4.72 | 2.64 |
| 3 | Dominoes | 4.80 | Cowboy Clothes | 2.38 | 2.42 |
| 4 | Pushcart | 4.86 | Dumptruck | 2.46 | 2.40 |
| 5 | Easel | 4.98 | Planes | 3.01 | 1.97 |
| 6 | Train | 3.36 | Lotto | 5.00 | 2.64 |
| 7 | Puzzle | 5.06 | Leggo | 3.49 | 1.57 |
| 8 | Barn and Animals | 3.53 | Crayons and Paper | 5.08 | 1.45 |
| 9 | Books | 5.12 | Large Garden Tools | 3.56 | 1.56 |
| 10 | Wheelbarrow | 3.57 | Puppets | 5.21 | 1.94 |
| 11 | Wooden String Beads | 5.24 | Boats | 3.69 | 1.55 |
| 12 | Lincoln Logs | 4.06 | Telephones | 5.31 | 1.25 |
| 13 | Stuffed Dog | 5.62 | Large Building Blocks | 4.15 | 1.47 |
| 14 | Small Building Blocks | 4.26 | Playdough and Cookie Cutters | $6.32$ | 2.06 |
| 15 | Brooms and Mops | $7 \cdot 31$ | Large Wooden Riding Bus | 4.36 | 2.95 |
| 16 | Tinker Toys | 4.48 | Dishes | $7 \cdot 39$ | 2.91 |
| 17 | Dollhouse | 7.46 | Ukulele | 4.49 | 2.96 |
| 18 | Doctor Kit | 4.50 | Ironing Board | 8.01 | 3.51 |
| 19 | Dollbed | 8.02 | Wooden Jungle Gym | 4.57 | 3.45 |
| 20 | Wooden Riding Car | 4.61 | Dolls | 8.09 | 3.48 |
| 21 | Stove | 8.59 | Rhythm Instruments | 4.65 | 3.94 |
| 22 | Sand Pails and Tools | 4.71 | Dress-up Clothes (i.e., skirt, hat, gloves, purse, etc | $8.75$ <br> .) | 4.04 |

cardboard, a more masculine toy (determined by its masculine-feminine score) would appear on the left side of the page, and vice versa. Each sheet of cardboard (with the paired pictures mounted upon it) was then laminated with clear thin plastic. All the sheets of cardboard were "bound" together with three large metal rings, so that the final instrument resembled a book. In this way, the subject could manipulate the instrument by turning the "pages" himself. The instrument had 22 pages and pairs of pictures, and was entitled, The Toy Preference Test.

## Validity of the Instrument

Face validity for The Toy Preference Test was established on the basis of:

1. The experimenter's three semesters' experience as a graduate teaching assistant in the nursery school laboratory from which the toys were borrowed for the purpose of photographing• The experimenter chose those toys which were observed to be most popular with the children in attendance at the school.
2. Recommendations by other staff members at the nursery school laboratory from which the toys were borrowed. These staff members included two professionals with master's degrees and two graduate teaching assistants.
3. Inclusion of those toys used by DeLucia (1963) which were similar in nature (or in six cases were identical). It should be noted, also, that as in DeLucia's (1963) study, the increase in the number of sex-appropriate toy choices with increasing age gave some measure of validity to the instrument used in the present study.

## Administering the Instrument

## Subjects

The subjects who participated in this portion of the study were 36 male and 48 female children enrolled in three private nursery schools in Stillwater, Oklahoma. The children in the sample were from families representing a wide range of socioeconomic levels. The children ranged in age from four years, no months to five years, eleven months. There were 48 four-year-olds and 36 five-year-olds.

## Procedure

Each child was tested individually by the experimenter at the nursery school he or she attended. The testing took place in a quiet, unoccupied room at the school with only the subject and experimenter present. The experimenter presented The Toy Preference Test to the child and asked him or her to choose the one toy on each page he or she would most like to play with. A response (or choice) by the subject was either verbalized or gestured (child pointed to preferred toy). After each response, the experimenter recorded the subject's preference on a score sheet by printing an "L" or an "R" (depending upon the subject's choice) by the number on the score sheet of the corresponding page of paired pictures. The "L" indicated the left-hand picture and the "R" indicated the right-hand picture. This procedure was duplicated for each of the 22 pairs of pictured toys and the subject then returned to his or her activities at the nursery school. Two sample toy preference score sheets are presented in Appendix B.

## The Parents

The subjects for this portion of the study were 15 fathers and 21 mothers of the 84 children participating in the experiment. The parents ${ }^{\circ}$ cooperation in the study was secured by the experimenter telephoning the parent, briefly explaining the study, securing cooperation, and setting up an appointment to meet for the purpose of testing the parents with The Toy Preference Test. The parents who were selected for contact were those from intact families (both parents living in the home). Parents from one-parent families were not included because a score for both parents was desired. The remaining parents not included in the study chose not to participate for various reasons such as: moving out of town, too busy to fit in an appointment, not able to set up an appointment when both parents were at home, etc. Parents of nine male children and 12 female children participated in the study.

## Procedure

The parents were visited in their homes by the experimenter who administered The Toy Preference Test to both parents individually. Appointments were made with both parents, but in six cases, the father was not present.

The experimenter asked the parent to pick the one toy on each page that he or she preferred, which appealed to him or her the most, or which toy was most attractive to him or her. The choices made by the parents were based upon his or her personal preferences. The parents were reminded periodically throughout the administration of The Toy Preference Test that this was a choice. for himself or herself rather than a choice for their child. The experimenter provided a score sheet
for each parent where the parent recorded his own preference by printing an "L" or an " R " (depending upon the subject's choice) by the number on the score sheet of the corresponding page of paired pictures. The "L" indicated the left-hand picture and the " R " indicated the right-hand picture. The subject also verbalized his "left" or "right" picture preference which gave the experimenter the cue to turn the page of the instrument. This procedure was duplicated for each of the 22 pairs of pictured toys. At the end of the testing session, the parent was debriefed as to the purpose of the study, and was thanked for his generous donation of time in helping to have made this study possible. Four sample toy preference score sheets for parents are presented in Appendix B.

## Reliability of the Instrument

To determine the reliability of the instrument, 50 children were retested in a time period of not less than five days and not more than 10 days following the initial administration of The Toy Preference Test. The children who were retested were selected at random from the 84 children participating in the study. Of those children retested, 20 were males and 30 were females, while 27 were four-year-olds and 23 were five-year-olds.

A Pearson $r$ correlation was calculated on the 50 subjects to determine the overall reliability of the instrument. The Pearson correlation, $r=.45(p$. OO2) indicated the instrument could be accepted as reliable. A Pearson $r$ was calculated to determine the reliability of the instrument by sex and age. Results indicated that males ( $\mathrm{r}=.59$, p .O1) made more reliable toy choices on The Toy Preference Test, than

# did females ( $\mathrm{r}=.40$, $\mathrm{p}<.03$ ). As for age differences, results indicated that five-year-olds ( $\mathrm{r}=.78, \mathrm{p}<.0001$ ) made significantly more reliable toy choices than did four-year-olds ( $r=.18$, n.s.). Reliability data is presented in Tables II, III, and IV. 

Treatment of the Data

Scoring

A score for each child and each parent was determined by totaling the number of sex-stereotypic choices made from the 22 pairs of pictures on The Toy Preference Test. That is, a male child or parent was given a score of one each time he selected the more masculine of a pair of pictures. Similarly, a female child or parent was given a score of one each time she selected the more feminine of a pair of pictures. Samples of the scoring technique are illustrated on the toy preference score sheets presented in Appendix B.

The range of scores for the children for the initial testing on The Toy Preference Test was 8 to 21 for the female children and 8 to 21 for the male children. For the parents, the range of scores was 3 to 19 for the females and 15 to 21 for the males.

## Analyses

A Mann-Whitney U test (Conover, 1971) was used to determine whether male children chose more masculine toys than female children chose feminine toys. This same statistical analysis was used to determine whether adult male parents chose more masculine toys than adult female parents chose more feminine toys.

The phi coefficient, a special case of the Pearson product moment

TABLE II

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT REFLECTING RELIABILITY OF INSTRUMENT BY SEX AND AGE ( $\mathrm{N}=50$ )

| Age Group: expressed <br> in years and months | Males | Females |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $4: 0$ to $4: 11$ | $r=.56$ | $r=.03$ |
|  | N.S. | N.S. |
|  | $(\mathrm{N}=10)$ | $(\mathrm{N}=17)$ |
| $5: 0$ to $5: 11$ | $\mathrm{r}=.74$ | $\mathrm{r}=.90$ |
|  | $\mathrm{p}<.02$ | $\mathrm{p}<.0001$ |
|  | $(\mathrm{~N}=10)$ | $(\mathrm{N}=13)$ |

TABLE III
PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT REFLECTING RELIABILITY OF INSTRUMENT BY SEX
( $\mathrm{N}=50$ )

| Sex | $r$ | Level of Significance |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Males <br> $(\mathbb{N}=20)$ | .59 | $\mathrm{p}<.01$ |
| Fenales <br> $(\mathrm{N}=30)$ | .40 | $\mathrm{p}<.03$ |

## TABLE IV

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT REFLECTING RELIABILITY OF INSTRUMENT BY AGE
( $\mathrm{N}=50$ )

| Age Group | $r$ | Level of Significance |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Four-year-olds <br> $(N=27)$ | .18 | N.S. |
| Five-year-olds <br> $(N=23)$ | .78 | $\mathrm{p}<.0001$ |

correlation coefficient (Conover, 1971), was the statistic used to determine whether a child's choice of toys and the same-sexed parent's choice of toys were significantly positively correlated. This same statistic was also used to determine whether there was a significant negative correlation between a child's toy choices and the oppositesexed parent's choices. Finally, a Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine whether five-year-old children tended to make more sexstereotypic toy choices than did four-year-olds.

## CHAPTER IV

## RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate preschool children's sex-stereotypic toy choices and their relationship to parents' sexstereotypic toy choices. Age and sex differences in relation to toy preferences were also studied. Included in this chapter are data analyses for sex differences in toy preferences, parental sex differences in toy preferences, relationships between same-sexed child and parent toy preferences, opposite-sexed child and parent toy preferences, and child age differences and toy preferences. Also included is an instrument reliability analysis.

## Data Analyses

To determine whether male children chose more masculine toys than female children chose feminine toys, a Mann-Whitney U test (Conover, 1971) was calculated for scores of 36 male children and 48 female children. A score was the total number of sex-appropriate choices made from the 22 pair of pictures. That is, a male child was given a score of one each time he selected the more masculine of a pair of pictures. Similarly, a female child was given a score of one each time she selected the more feminine of a pair of pictures. The Mann-Whitney $U$ test indicated that male children did choose more masculine toys $(U=666$, $\mathrm{p}<.04$ ) significantly more often than female children chose feminine toys.

To determine whether adult male parents chose more masculine toys than adult female parents chose more feminine toys, a Mann-Whitney $U$ test was calculated on the scores of 15 fathers and 21 mothers. A score was determined for adults in the same way that it was for children. Results indicated that fathers did choose more masculine toys $(U=296.5, p<.001)$ significantly more often than mothers chose feminine toys.

To examine whether a child's choice of toys and the same-sexed parent's choice of toys were significantly, positively correlated, scores from male children and their fathers and female children and their mothers were pooled together. There were six boy-father pairs and 12 girl-mother pairs. The phi coefficient, a special case of the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (Conover, 1971), was the statistic used. Results indicated a strong, positive relationship ( $T=14.60, p<.0001$ ) between a child's choice and the same sexed parent's choice.

In a similar manner, the phi coefficient was calculated to determine whether there was a significant negative correlation between a child's choice and the opposite sexed parent's choice of toys. Data were collected from nine boy-mother pairs and nine girl-father pairs. A value of $T=-11.56, p<.0001$, indicated a strong negative relationship between a child's choice and the opposite-sexed parent's choice.

The scores for all children were separated on the basis of age. There were 48 children who were classified as four-year-olds (4 years, no months to 4 years 11 months) and 36 five-year-olds (5 years, no months to 5 years, 11 months). A Mann-Whitney $U$ test was calculated to determine whether five-year-old children tended to make more
sex-stereotypic choices than did four-year-olds. The Mann-Whitney U test indicated that there was a difference and that it was significant, $\mathrm{U}=682, \mathrm{p}<.05$.

Summary of Findings

1. Male children chose masculine toys significantly more often than female children chose feminine toys.
2. Adult males (fathers) chose masculine toys significantly more often than adult females (mothers) chose feminine toys.
3. A significant, positive relationship existed between a child's toy choices and the same-sexed parent's choices.
4. A significant, negative relationship existed between a child's toy choices and the opposite-sexed parent's choices.
5. Five-year-old children tended to make significantly more sexstereotypic choices than did four-year-olds.

## CHAPTER V

## SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS


#### Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate preschool children's sex-stereotypic toy choices and their relationship to parents' sexstereotypic toy choices. Age and sex differences in relation to toy preferences were also studied. Included in this chapter are a brief summary of the methods and procedures used, results, discussion of results, limitations of the study and recommendations for further study.


## Summary

To achieve the purpose of this study, The Toy Preference Test was developed, whereby 83 young adults ( 13 males and 70 females) enrolled in a marriage class scaled 48 common nursery school toys as masculine or feminine on a 9-point scale. The mean scale score for each toy was then computed and assigned to the respective toy. After placing each toy in rank order according to its assigned masculine-feminine score, the 44 ranked toy scores were divided evenly into two groups, and both groups were numbered one to 22. The toys were then paired by matching the like numbered scores. The final instrument contained 22 pairs of toys. The Toy Preference Test was administered to 36 male and 48 female children ranging in age from four years, no months to five years, 11 months. The instrument then was administered to 15 fathers and 21 mothers of 21 of the 84 children who had participated in the experiment. The parents
participating in the study were selected from the: intact families. The remaining parents not included in the study chose not to cooperate for various personal reasons.

To determine whether male children chose masculine toys significantly more often than female children chose feminine toys, a MannWhitney $U$ test indicated that male children did, in fact, choose more masculine toys than female children chose feminine toys. A Mann-Whitney $U$ test indicated, too, that adult males (fathers) chose more masculine toys than adult females (mothers) chose feminine toys. A phi coefficient test indicated that a strong positive relationship existed between a child's toy choices and the same-sexed parent's choices. A phi coefficient also indicated a strong negative relationship between a child's toy choices and the opposite-sexed parent's choices. A Mann-Whitney U test indicated that five-year-old children tended to make more sexstereotypic choices than did four-year-olds.

## Discussion of Results

Results of this study supported findings of previous studies (Hartup and Zook, 1960; Brown, 1958; Biller and Borstelman, 1967). There appears to be a tendency for children of preschool age to identify with the same sexed parent (Gray and Klaus, 1956). Male children's preference scores tended to be more consistently masculine than female children's scores were feminine (male children chose more masculine toys than female children chose feminine toys). These findings are consistent with those of Brown (1957) and Rabban (1950). The same was true for the adult preference scores. Male adult scores tended to be more consistently masculine than female adults' scores were feminine (male adults


#### Abstract

chose more masculine toys than female adults chose feminine toys). These results may indicate a tendency for American culture to be more accepting of "tomboyishness" in females than of "sissiness" in males. In other words, American society today defines the role of male and female, thereby setting up a behavioral framework of appropriate behaviors, responses, and characteristics for the sexes. There appears to be more societal tolerance for the female who displays some overt "masculine" behaviors (or preferences) than for the male whose preferences or overt behavior tend to be more feminine in nature.

With regard to differences in children's ages according to preference scores, the results of the present study are consistent with those of Hartup and Zook (1960). The older preschool children made significantly more sex-stereotypic toy choices than did younger preschool children.

Previous studies (Fagot and Patterson, 1969; Joffe, 1971) have concentrated on the teacher's role in reinforcing sex-stereotypic behavior in preschool children. Results of this study, excluding teacher behavior as a variable, indicate the strong influences of the parents in sex-stereotypic behavior. The child may have already internalized sex-stereotypic behavior before ever entering preschool.


## Limitations of the Study

Limitations of the present study were:

1. The investigator had difficulty in securing the cooperation of both parents of children tested on The Toy Preference Test. When appointments were made, some parents, notably fathers, failed to keep
the appointment. This problem resulted in a smaller parent sample than desired.
2. Some of the adult females were self-conscious about choosing feminine toys. They would verbally defend their choices and indicate that they really had been "able to keep up with their big brothers" as children, or "as a child, I really did like to rough and tumble, too." These women may be feeling a need to justify their feminine choices because of the current emphasis on women's equality and liberation movements. If this is true, an unpredicted bias may have been operating in this study.
3. In the initial scaling of toys by marriage students, females outnumbered males by about five and one-half to one.

## Recommendations for Future Research

## In view of the findings of this study, the following recommendar

 tions are made:1. Further validation of the instrument would be desirable.
2. Future studies would benefit by enlarging the size of the sample, specifically the parent sample.
3. A different technique for securing parent cooperation may be more effective than interviewing parents in their homes. A technique such as a school parent meeting where all parents could be tested simultaneously might prove effective. In this way, parents could record their own responses, thereby assuring anonymity.
4. Results of this study would be more meaningful if the study were repeated with the present sample of children when they are eight or nine years of age, since previous research has indicated that
sex-stereotypic behavior seems to be firmly established by eight to nine years of age and shows resistance to change thereafter (DeLucia, 1963). Such a study would help to determine the stability or instability of preschool children's sex-stereotypic toy choices over time.
5. Researchers should be cautious in interpreting data and making assumptions and predictions on the basis of choices and preferences made by four-year-olds due to the unreliability of their responses.

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APPENDIX A

SCALING OF THE TOYS: TWO EXAMPLES OF MARRIAGE CLASS RESPONSES

19. $⺊ \mathrm{~T}, 1$ (1) $1,1,1$
20. $\longmapsto 1,1$ (1) $1,1,1$

22. $\vdash, 1$ (D) $1,1,1$

25. $1,1,1,1$ (1) 1

33. $\vdash \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{T}$ (1) 111

39. $\vdash, 1$, 1


2. 1 (1) $1,1,1$
3. 1,1 , 1 1
4. 1,1 (1) 1 1 1
5. $1,1,1$ (1) 1
6. 1 (1) $1,1,1$
7. 1 (1) 1 , 1
8. $\vdash, 1$ (1) $1,1,1$

9: 1 (1) 1 1 1,1
10. $1 \mathrm{~W} \mid \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{T}$
11. 1,1 (1) 1,1
12. 1,1 (1) 1 , 1
13. 1 , 1 (T) 1

16. $\vdash, 1$, 1 , 1
17. $1,1,1,1$
18.


19．$⺊, 1$ ， 1 ， 1
20． 1,1 （1） $1,1,1$
21．$\vdash, 1$（1） $1,1,1$
22．$⺊$（1） $1,1,1,1,1$
23．$\vdash$ ， 1 （1） 1,1


28．$\downarrow, 1$（1） $1,1,1,1$


35．$\vdash, 1$（1） $1,1,1$


38．$\vdash, 1$ ，（1） 1 ， 1
39. $1 \mathrm{~T}, 1$ (1) 1,1

41. $\vdash|\mathrm{T}| \mathrm{T}$, (1) 1
42. $\vdash, 1,11,1,1$
43. $\vdash$ (1) $1,1,1111$
44. $\vdash 1$, 1 1 , 1)

## APPENDIX B

RESPONSE SHEETS FROM THE TOY PREFERENCE TEST FOR PARENTS AND CHILDREN

| M _ PL | Date |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Name Child 1 | Age $4: 8$ Birthate |  |
| Parent | Telephone |  |
| 1. | balls | 1 |
| 2. $R$ | trike | 1 |
| 3. L | deminos | 1 |
| 4. $R$ | truck | 0 |
| 5. | easel | 1 |
| 6. L | train | 0 |
| 7. L | puzzles | 1 |
| 8. $R$ | Crayons | 1 |
| 9. L | books | 1 |
| 10. $R$ | puppets | 1 |
| 11. L | beads | 1 |
| 12. | lincoln logs | 0 |
| 13. | stuffed deg | 1 |
| 14. $R$ | play-do | 1 |
| 15. $\quad \mathrm{R}$ | bus | 0 |
| 16. L | tinkertoys | 0 |
| 17. $R$ | Ukeledes | 0 |
| 18. L | doctorkit | 0 |
| 19. L | dollbed | 1 |
| 20. $R$ | dolls | 1 |
| 22. L | stove, | 1 |
| 22. $\quad$ R | dress-up clothes | 1 |








Date $\qquad$

Name Age 29 Birthdate $\qquad$ Parent Mother of Child 2, Telephone $\qquad$

| 1. $\qquad$ | balls | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. | roadgrader | 0 |
| 3. R | Ccuiboy clothes | 0 |
| 4. L | pushoart | 1 |
| 5. | eased | 1 |
| 6. | train | 0 |
| 7. L | $p u z z l e<$ | 1 |
| 8. $R$ | crayons |  |
| 9. L | books | 1 |
| 10. $R$ | puppets |  |
| 11. $R$ | boats | 0 |
| 12. P | telephones | 1 |
| 13. R | large blacks | $\bigcirc$ |
| 14. $R$ | play-do | 1 |
| 15. L | brooms \& mops | 1 |
| 16. R | dishes | 1 |
| 17. L | dollhouses | 1 |
| 18. R | ironwa boarl | 1 |
| 19. | dollbed | 1 |
| 20. R | dalls | 1 |
| 21. L | Stove, | 1 |
| 22. $R$ | dress-up clathes: | 1 |



$$
\text { VITA } \gamma
$$

Lora Rhea Jastrzembski
Candidate for the Degree of
Master of Science

# Thesis: SEX-ROLE IDENTIFICATION IN PRESCHOOL CHILDREN: A STUDY OF STEREOTYPIC TOY CHOICES MADE BY CHILDREN AND THEIR PARENTS <br> Major Field: Family Relations and Child Development 

Biographical:
Personal Data: Born in Moline, Illinois, July 18, 1951, the daughter of Gerald C. and Helen M. Rhea. Married James Edward Jastrzembski, July 29, 1972.

Education: Attended grade school in Moline, Illinois; graduated from Moline Senior High School, Moline, Illinois, in 1969. Received a Bachelor of Arts degree in Sociology from the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, Illinois, in 1974. Completed requirements for the Master of Science degree in July, 1975.

Professional Experience: Graduate Research Assistant, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, 1973; Graduate Teaching Assistant, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, 1974-1975; Creative Movement Instructor for Stillwater Parks and Recreation Summer Arts and Crafts Program, Summer, 1973; Supervisor for Stillwater Parks and Recreation Summer Arts and Crafts Program, Summer, 1974 and 1975; Hired for Kindergarten teaching position, 1975-1976, Tryon, Oklahoma.

Professional Organizations: American Home Economics Association, Southern Association on Children Under Six, Friends of Day Care.


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