

CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S MASCULINITY-FEMININITY
AND THEIR CONFORMITY TO THEIR MOTHERS

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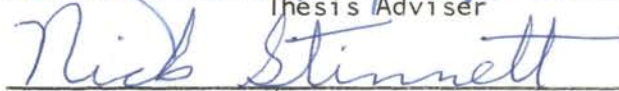
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose

The purpose of this research was to study cross-cultural differences in young children's conformity to their mothers and to study the relationship between this conformity and the children's masculinity-femininity. Children for the study were selected from middle and lower socioeconomic homes. Conformity to mothers was measured by a simple task in which each child had an opportunity to choose objects identical to or different from those given to his mother; and the degree of each child's masculinity-femininity was determined by a simple preference task. This study is seen as a possible contribution to the understanding of the process of sex-role identification in young children.

Sex-Role Identification

Identification is the process by which a child acquires attitudes, characteristics, and values similar to those of his parents. He acquires these through imitation, modeling, and introjection. Identification, as defined here, refers to the total personality, rather than merely to the sex-role; and the child is seen as responding to the behavior of both parents (Slater, 1961; Lynn, 1962; Purcell, 1962; Hetherington, 1965; Baldwin, 1967).

Sex-role identification, more specifically, refers to the process

of learning to behave and feel like a member of one sex or the other. This process involves practicing appropriate sex-role behavior until it becomes internalized and occurs without deliberate effort (Lynn, 1959; Mischel, 1966; McCandless, 1967).

Three main theories of sex-role identification have been offered. Classical Freudian theory holds that a boy identifies with the aggressor in an attempt to escape punishment. He fears his father and internalizes in self defense the father's behavior (McCandless, 1967). Social learning theory maintains that children identify with their parents because they love them, have been rewarded by them, and want to be like them. Thus, the parents represent pleasure and reward, and imitation of the parents' behavior acquires reward value for the child (Mussen, Conger, and Kagan, 1963; Sears, Rau, and Alpert, 1965; Baldwin, 1967). Sociological theory combines Freudian and learning theories; and proposes that children, regardless of sex, tend to identify with powerful parents who can both reward and punish them. Identification with parents is fostered by the children's desire to have their parents' power (Mussen, Conger, and Kagan, 1963; McCandless, 1967; Smart and Smart, 1967).

Problem

Sex-role identification is important for a child's future psychological adjustment and for his future social adjustment. A child is born with the physical aspects of his particular sex, but early in life from his parents and significant others, he learns the psychological and social aspects of his masculinity or femininity. Psychological adjustment involves the development of the child's self-image as a member

of one sex or the other and the acceptance of his own physical masculinity or femininity. Social adjustment involves learning the roles and behavior patterns appropriate to the child's own sex as society has defined them. Parents, as representatives of that society, are teachers of these patterns and expectations.

Inadequate sex-role identification is a common finding in adult personality disturbances. In some cases, sex-role identification is inadequate or faulty as a result of poor or distorted parental models which fail to supply the child with appropriate behavior to imitate. In other cases, regardless of the adequacy of the parental models, the child may have a negative attitude toward or perception of his same sex parent and reject that parent's role. Inadequate sex-role identification is known to be a factor in unhappy marriages, and it has been associated with the more severe disturbances such as schizophrenia and homosexuality (Brown, 1957; Kagan, 1964).

Theories explaining the process of sex-role identification and the influence of parents in this process are numerous; but research studies supporting these theories are few, and the majority of these are focused on the adult's point of view rather than the child's. Questionnaires and interviews have been used to determine parents' views of their own behavior and their child's adjustment, but little attention has been given to the child's perception of parental behavior. The parents' view of their own behavior is not necessarily identical to the child's perception of their behavior; and logically, the child's sex-role identification is influenced by the way in which he perceives his parents and their behavior.

Inasmuch as sex-role identification is important to psychological

and social adjustment, there is a need for greater understanding of the factors which influence the development of identification. Parental behavior, as one of these factors, needs to be studied from the viewpoint of the child. The present research is focused on the child's point of view, and to the extent that it is a study of children's conformity to their mothers and the relationship of this conformity to masculinity-femininity, it is seen as a contribution to our understanding of the development of sex-role identification.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature offers us many theories to explain sex-role identification, but few research studies to support them. The studies that do exist have involved two main approaches. The degree of masculinity-femininity of a child as an indication of his sex-role identification has been measured by various methods. Also, the parent-child relationship has been recognized as a major influence in a child's sex-role identification and this influence and the factors affecting it have been studied.

This chapter will include a review of the methods used in measuring masculinity-femininity and in measuring parent-child relationships. Relevant findings from these studies and their implications for the present study will be discussed.

Measures of Masculinity-Femininity

The degree to which a child is masculine or feminine is indicative of the extent to which he has internalized the characteristics, roles, and attitudes of his own sex; and therefore a child's masculinity-femininity is an indication of his sex-role identification. The research techniques which have been used to measure masculinity and femininity include observations, projective techniques, and preference tests.

Observations

In observation studies, children have usually been watched in free play and then judged as masculine or feminine. These judgments have been based on criteria established by adults.

Koch (1944) assumed that a child who frequently preferred like-sexed playmates was achieving his appropriate sex-role identification. She studied sex-role identification by observing the interaction of children in a nursery school free play situation and noting the frequency and the sex of their social contacts.

Sears, Rau, and Alpert (1965) designated nursery school play areas as sex-typed when sixty-five percent or more of the children using those areas were of one sex. They then observed children in free play and scored each child as masculine or feminine according to the relative amount of time he spent in sex-typed play areas appropriate to his own sex, in areas appropriate to the opposite sex, and in areas appropriate to either sex.

Projective Techniques

Projective techniques used in the study of sex-role identification have been designed to free the child from reality and allow him to express his actual sex-role preference. These techniques have included doll play, the drawing of human figures, and the It Scale, which is a projective type of preference test.

In doll play, the child is given an opportunity to play with dolls which represent family members. Sears (1951, 1953) observed children playing freely in a doll play situation; whereas Emmerich (1959a) and Sears, Rau, and Alpert (1965) structured the doll play situation so that the child was required to act out the endings to make-believe

stories or situations.

Weidner and Noller (1950, 1953) studied children's drawings in order to learn about children's awareness of sex characteristics. Children drew pictures of a man and a woman (i.e., a person and the other kind of person) and were interviewed about their drawings. The sex of the first figure drawn, the size and placement of both drawings, and the number and detail of sex characteristics drawn were compared for boys and girls. Weidner and Noller's assumption was that awareness of sex characteristics is important to sex adjustment of the individual.

Brown (1956) developed the It Scale, a projective type of preference test. The test consists of a neutral stick figure which the child holds and for which he selects toys, clothes, and activities. The items which the child chooses are assumed to be sex-linked and the child receives a masculine or feminine score according to the number of appropriate choices he makes. Originally, Brown used the It Scale to study the sex-role identification of preschool children, but in a later study, Brown (1957) used this test to study the development of masculinity-femininity in children from five to seven years of age.

Other authors have varied the It Scale slightly in order to explore its effectiveness. Hartup and Zook (1960) changed the instructions of the It Scale by calling the neutral figure a little boy or a little girl and also by calling the figure by the subject's own name rather than by It. Both of these changes resulted in more feminine scores for girls and more masculine scores for boys.

Lansky and McKay (1963) concealed the It figure in an envelope and found fewer sex differences than other studies using the It Scale. Boys, especially, were more willing to choose feminine items and guess

that It was a girl when It was hidden.

Preference Tests

Preference tests have been designed to allow children to indicate their masculinity or femininity by their choices of games, activities, and pictures (Rabban, 1950; Fauls and Smith, 1956; Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith, 1959; De Lucia, 1963; Hartup and Moore, 1963; Walker, 1964; White, 1967; McKinzie, 1968). In most of the preference tests, the children's responses have been judged as masculine or feminine on the basis of criteria established by adults, that is, the children are judged from an adult point of view. In two of these studies (White, 1967; McKinzie, 1968) the judgement of masculinity or femininity was based on the actual responses of the children. In the preference test used in these studies, each possible response was weighted in terms of the number of boys and girls who made that response and each child was scored accordingly. The assumption underlying this method of scoring was that the actual behavior of little boys and little girls provides a more acceptable measure of children's masculinity or femininity than do adult judgements.

Of these techniques for measuring masculinity and femininity, the preference tests have certain advantages over projective techniques and observation studies. The young child easily understands and enjoys the task of selecting the toy or picture he likes best. This type of test is also simple to administer and score, and the results are often more objective than those of other methods.

Measures of Parent-Child Relationships

The relationship between parents and their children is accepted as a major factor in sex-role identification, and this relationship

has been studied in a variety of ways. Parent-child interaction has been studied by direct observations and by using questionnaires and interviews with both parents and children.

Observations of Parent-Child Interaction

Observations of parent-child interactions have been made in highly controlled laboratory situations and in free play situations.

In a study by Stevenson, Keen, and Knights (1963), children's attempts in a marble dropping game were reinforced by adults with comments such as "You're doing fine" and "You really know how to play this game." Four types of adult reinforcers were used. They included the child's mother, the child's father, a female stranger, and a male stranger. The results indicated that parents were less effective reinforcement agents than strangers, and males were less effective than females.

Sears, Rau, and Alpert (1965) observed mothers and children interacting in four different types of situations. (1) In a "mother busy" situation, the child was given an opportunity to play freely with toys while his mother was busy filling out a questionnaire. This situation was designed to elicit interrupting and dependency behaviors. (2) In a "mother attentive" situation, the mother helped the child do a number of puzzles. (3) In a telephone game, the mother and child used battery powered telephones and the mother instructed the child to make certain calls to her. These calls were designed to elicit role playing and guilt reactions from the child. (4) In a fishing game, the mother told the child how to use a pole and hook to catch metal fish from a tub of water. The fish were designed to spill water on the floor whenever they were pulled from the tub, so raincoats, boots, hats, newspapers, and a

mop were handy. Mothers were observed for controlling behavior and the children were watched for their reactions to this control.

Smith (1958) observed mother-child interaction in a free play situation which was followed immediately by a "mother busy" situation. One month later the mothers were interviewed about their relationship with their children, and the observation records were then compared with the interview information. The findings indicated that 70 per cent of the mothers reported using techniques which they actually had used during the observation period.

Walters, Connor, and Zunich (1964) observed mother-child interaction in a free play situation. They were interested in changes that occurred in guidance techniques and in mother-child interaction when mothers believed their children were achieving below their actual potential in constructiveness and imagination. Under these circumstances, mothers tended to give their children more help in their play.

Bishop (1951) observed differences in mother-child and stranger-child interaction in free play situations. She discovered that as the children became familiar with a neutral adult, their behavior became similar to that displayed toward their mothers. She concluded that children reflect in their own behavior the type of control and stimulation exercised by their mothers.

Levin and Turgen (1957) using a permissive doll play situation, studied the changes in children's aggressive behavior when they were observed by a stranger and when they were observed by their mothers. The children's aggressive behavior increased when mothers were present and decreased when a stranger was present.

Questionnaires and Interviews

Written essays and questionnaires have been used in studies of parent-child relations when the children have been old enough to read and write easily. Sowers (1957) used essays and questionnaires with high school students. Stott (1940) and Gardner (1947) used questionnaires to study school age children's criticisms of their parents. Hawkes, Burchinal, and Gardner (1957a) used a parental rating scale with fifth grade children in order to determine the feeling tone generated by each parent.

Direct methods of interviewing have been used with school age children and have involved rather specific questions about the child's family and himself. This type of questioning has been used in the study of patterns of authority (Hess and Goldblatt, 1962) and in the study of the influence of parental models and of models outside the family (Crane, 1955).

In work with young children, indirect methods of interviewing have been more effective than direct questioning. Finch (1954) compared responses of young children in direct questioning and their responses in the more indirect methods of pictorial interviews and doll play. She found that the pictorial interview was the most enjoyable method for the children and that it produced the greatest variety of responses. This method involved showing the children pictures of parent-child interaction and asking questions about the people in the pictures. Finch also found that doll play was more effective than direct questioning, but found that it was hard for some children to become involved with the materials. Kagan and Lemkin (1960) compared direct and indirect methods of questioning young children. Direct questioning consisted of

asking the children about themselves and their own parents, while indirect questioning consisted of asking the children questions about children and parents in general. The direct method caused some anxiety and elicited more evasive answers than did the indirect method. When interview methods with young children are made indirect through the use of visual aids and hypothetical situations, the focus seems to be taken off the child and he is more able to express his true feelings and thoughts.

Mott (1954), in a study of preschool children's concepts of their mothers, had the children draw pictures of their families. She then asked the children questions about the mother and her role in the home. Mothers were found in the center of most of the pictures while the fathers were often left out. The children's awareness of their mother's role increased and became more realistic with age.

Emmerich (1959b) used paired figure drawings representing mother-girl, father-boy, mother-father, and girl-boy as a basis for questions about parent and child roles. He found that the father is perceived as having more power than the mother.

Hartley (1959) showed children pictures of mother-child situations in order to find out how children feel about working mothers. Hartley also used a hypothetical situation to explore children's knowledge of sex-roles. She had children pretend they were explaining to a Martian how to tell the difference between women and men. Traditional domestic roles were mentioned most often for women, and wage-earning roles were mentioned most often for men.

Grace and Lohman (1952) also used a hypothetical situation in trying to discover which parent children viewed as the more frustrating.

They presented children with incomplete stories of parent-child conflict in the home and asked them to make up endings. The results showed that neither the mother nor the father was seen as the more frustrating.

Relevant Findings

The methods used to measure sex-role identification have varied from study to study, but many of these studies have produced similar results. Sex and age of the children, mothers and fathers, and socio-economic status of the family have all been shown to have an influence on children's sex-role identification.

The Influence of Sex and Age on Sex-Role Identification

Children begin to show an awareness of sex-characteristics and sex-determined roles early in life. With increasing age, this awareness becomes clearer and perceptions of parents and parents' sex-roles become more realistic. With the exception of Rabban (1950), most studies X have found that by age three, children are able to draw distinctions between the social functions performed by males and by females (Koch, 1944; Mott, 1954; Finch, 1955; Hartley, 1960).

After the age of three there is an increase in appropriate sex- X role preferences. Differences between the preferences of boys and girls are present at age three, more pronounced at age four, and still larger at age five (Rabban, 1950; Hartup and Zook, 1960).

The development of an appropriate sex-role preference seems to be more complicated for girls than for boys. Brown (1957) found that girls in all age groups were more variable in sex-role preference than boys. Girls at the kindergarten level showed a preference pattern of about equal numbers of masculine and feminine elements; from the first grade

through the fourth grade, they showed a strong preference for the masculine role; and by the fifth grade, they shifted to a strong preference for the feminine role. A similar pattern was found by Rabban (1950) who reported that the only remarkable deviation from correct identification in children from five to eight years of age, was a strong preference for the father role shown by six year-old girls.

Hetherington (1965) found that boys age four and five had already developed a strong preference for the masculine role and that this preference increased only slightly through age eleven, whereas girls in the nine to eleven age group showed a significant increase in preference for the feminine role. Evidence of the stronger and more consistent sex-role preference of boys was also reported by Emmerich (1959a), Brown (1956), Hartup and Zook (1960), and DeLucia (1963).

The Influence of Parents on Sex-Role Identification

A number of studies have used measures of masculinity-femininity and measures of parent-child relationships in order to study the influence of parents on their children's sex-role identification. These studies have focused on traits of parents which affect the parent-child relationship, differences in the viewpoints of parents and of children, and the general feelings that children have about their parents.

Mussen and Rutherford (1963), studying parental influence on children's sex-role preference, found that the degree of appropriate sex-role preference of the children was a reflection of the father-son and mother-daughter relationships. Positive parent-child relationships were related to the self-acceptance of parents and to an affectionate, nurturant attitude toward the child. A questionnaire was used to determine personality traits of the parents and various aspects of the

parent-child relationship, while the It Scale and a structured doll play situation were used with the children to measure masculinity-femininity.

Payne and Mussen (1956) found that boys who were highly identified with their fathers perceived them as rewarding and affectionate. Fathers with high masculine ratings had sons with high masculine ratings, but mothers who were somewhat masculine tended to inhibit strong father identification in their sons. The masculinity-femininity items from the California Psychological Inventory were used to measure the masculinity-femininity of both parents and their sons, and a story completion test was used to determine the way in which the boys perceived their parents.

Lefkowitz (1962), in a study of the relationship between parent and child variables and sex-role identification, found that children with strong appropriate sex-role preference frequently have nurturant mothers and are from homes in which both parents take responsibility for the discipline. Sex-role preference of the children in this study was measured with a Games and Activities Preference Test and a Draw-a-Person Test, while interviews with the parents provided information about the parent-child relationship from the parents' point of view.

Levin and Sears (1956) studied the relationship between the sex-role identification and aggression of kindergarten children. They found that highly aggressive boys were also highly identified with their fathers, while highly aggressive girls were highly identified with their mothers only when the mother was the main punitive agent. The children's sex-role identification was determined from interviews with the mothers and the children's aggressive behavior was measured in a permissive doll play situation.

Hetherington (1965) studied the effect of the dominant parent on sex-role identification. She found that children tended to identify with the dominant parent more than with the passive parent. When the father was dominant, boys identified strongly with him and girls identified equally with both parents. When the mother was dominant, boys and girls identified strongly with her and identified little or not at all with the father. Dominance scores were based on interviews in which the father and mother discussed and agreed upon solutions to various child rearing problems. Sex-role identification of the children was measured by the It Scale (Brown, 1956) and a preference test in which the children had an opportunity to imitate their parents' choices.

Emmerich (1959b) studied children's identification with their parents and found that children were more controlling in a hypothetical situation than their parents indicated that they themselves would be in the same situation. Three-year-old boys were an exception in that they tended to be much more nurturant than their parents. With increasing age, the boys became more strongly identified with the father and assumed his controlling role. For this study, Emmerich used a questionnaire with parents and structured doll play with the children. The questions asked of each were essentially the same and were designed to measure nurturance-control attitudes.

Connor, Greene, and Walters (1958) and Connor, Johannis, and Walters (1954) studied children's and parents' perceptions of a "good" father, a "good" mother, and a "good" child. They found that members of the same family have different concepts of these ideals. Greater agreement existed between mothers and their children and between husbands and their wives than between fathers and their children. The instrument

used in this study consisted of a questionnaire designed to measure traditional and developmental concepts of parent and child roles.

Bronson, Katten, and Livison (1959) studied the authority, affection, and involvement of parents as viewed by school age children and as viewed by their parents. They found little difference between the amount of parental authority and affection reported by children and that reported by the parents themselves. Mothers were reported to exercise more authority in the home, but mothers and fathers were reported to be equally affectionate toward their children. The same rating scale was used with the parents and children in order to determine how each viewed the authority, affection, and involvement of the parents.

Angrilli (1960) compared the masculinity-femininity of preschool boys with the masculinity-femininity of their parents and found no significant relationship between the two. A questionnaire containing several masculinity-femininity scales was used with the parents, and a figure-drawing test was used with the boys.

Various research studies indicate that the mother is the preferred parent, especially with young children. Strong maternal preference has been found among both boys and girls who are quite secure in their own appropriate sex-roles. This maternal preference by both sexes of young children is considered to be the result of the caretaking and nurturant role of the mother. (Gardner, 1947; Hawkes, Burchinal, and Gardner, 1957b; Kagan and Lemkin, 1960; Mott, 1964).

The Influence of Socioeconomic Status on Sex-Role Identification

Studies of the influence of socioeconomic status on sex-role identification are rare, but the few that have been published suggest that there are differences in the identification patterns of children

from different social classes and that parent-child interaction differs from one class to another.

Rabban (1950) in a comparison of sex-role identification of children from the middle and working class groups found that children of the working class are earlier and more clearly aware of their appropriate sex-role pattern than are middle class children. This was especially true of working class girls. They accepted their appropriate sex-role by six years of age, while middle class girls did not fully accept their appropriate sex-role until their eighth or ninth year. Working class boys also achieved their appropriate sex-role identification earlier than middle class boys but the difference was not so pronounced as it was for the girls.

Walters, Connor, and Zunich (1964) observed in a free play situation the interaction patterns of mothers and children from the lower class and compared their data to those of similar studies (Merrill, 1946; Bishop, 1951; Schalock, 1956; Zunich, 1961) in which the interaction patterns of middle class mothers and children have been observed. This comparison showed there were marked differences in the mother-child interaction patterns in the two social classes. Middle class mothers seemed to exhibit more contacting, directing, and helping behavior toward their children than lower class mothers.

Bennett (1968), in a study of masculine-feminine choices of pre-school children, found race differences in sex-role identification. Negro fathers were found to play a different role in the process of sex-typing than Caucasian fathers. Negro children without a father in the home made more masculine choices than Negro children with a father in the home, while Caucasian children without a father in the home made

more feminine choices than when they had a father in the home.

Implications For The Present Study

The literature indicates that two main approaches have been used in the study of sex-role identification. In general, the masculinity-femininity of children has been measured as an indication of sex-role identification, and the influence of parent-child relationships on sex-role identification has also been studied.

In research with preschool children, indirect methods of interviewing have been more effective than other methods. Of the various methods described earlier in this chapter, preference tests have the advantage of simplicity and objectivity. A child's performance on a preference test can be evaluated either from an adult's point of view or from a child's point of view. In the present research, masculinity-femininity will be measured by a preference test so designed that the results are evaluated from the child's point of view. This type of evaluation is considered by the investigator as more valid than adult judgements.

Studies of parent-child relationships have shown that children frequently prefer their mothers rather than their fathers, and this is particularly true of young children. Apparently the mother's caretaking responsibilities place her in a position in which she exerts a strong influence on her children's sex-role identification. Another finding has been that a dominant parent has a stronger influence on children of both sexes than does a passive parent. It has also been found that children are most apt to show appropriate sex-role identification when they view their parents as rewarding and affectionate. In the present

research, the study of parent-child relationships will be confined to the relationship of young children to their mothers.

Research has shown that age and sex variables affect the strength and direction of sex-role identification. Boys tend to identify with their own sex earlier than girls, and their preference for the appropriate sex-role tends to be stronger and more consistent than that of girls. In the present research, age differences and sex differences will be studied.

The socioeconomic status of the family has also been found to influence children's sex-role identification. Children of the lower class have been found to sex-type at an earlier age than middle class children. In the present research, the subjects will be drawn from two social groups in order that social class differences in sex-role identification can be studied.

CHAPTER III

METHOD AND PROCEDURE

The purpose of this research was to study cultural differences in young children's conformity to their mothers and to study the relationship between this conformity and the children's masculinity-femininity. In this chapter the children who participated in the research are described, the instrument for measuring masculinity-femininity and the instrument for measuring conformity to mothers are described, and recommendations are made for analysis of the data.

Subjects

The subjects who participated in this research were 96 preschool children from middle and lower socioeconomic homes. These children were in attendance either at the Oklahoma State University Child Development Laboratories (middle SES) or at the Head Start Program in Stillwater, Oklahoma (lower SES). The age range was from 34 months to 63 months. In Table I, the distribution of the children by age, sex, and socioeconomic status (SES) is presented. Descriptive data and test scores for individual children are presented in Appendix A, Table V.

Measurement of Masculinity-Femininity

A masculinity-femininity test (M-F Test) adapted and validated by McKinzie (1968) was used to measure masculinity-femininity in the

TABLE I
 CHILDREN PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY OF MASCULINITY-FEMININITY
 AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO CONFORMITY TO MOTHERS:
 DISTRIBUTION BY SEX, AGE, AND SES
 (N=96)

| Age Group | Lower SES | | Middle SES | |
|---------------------|-----------|-------|------------|-------|
| | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls |
| Older Children: | | | | |
| 48 months and over | 14 | 13 | 14 | 17 |
| Younger Children: | | | | |
| 47 months and under | 10 | 11 | 10 | 07 |
| Total | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 |

present study.

The M-F Test measures the masculine and feminine preferences of preschool children. The test is designed so that the evaluation of what is masculine and what is feminine is based on the actual choices of the children being 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).

In the validation of the M-F Test, McKinzie demonstrated that boys who score highly masculine on the M-F Test are boys who prefer clothing and activities which are culturally defined as masculine, and similarly, girls who score highly feminine are girls who prefer clothing and activities which are culturally defined as feminine.

The M-F Test consists of a 24-page picture booklet constructed of colored hi-gloss paper approximately 6" x 9" in size. On each page there are three pictures (gummed seals) which are chosen and arranged by the investigator so that a masculine, a feminine, and a neutral picture appear on each page. The choice of masculine and feminine pictures for each page is arbitrary and is done for the purpose of maximizing the power of the test to discriminate between the preferences of boys and girls.

Administration

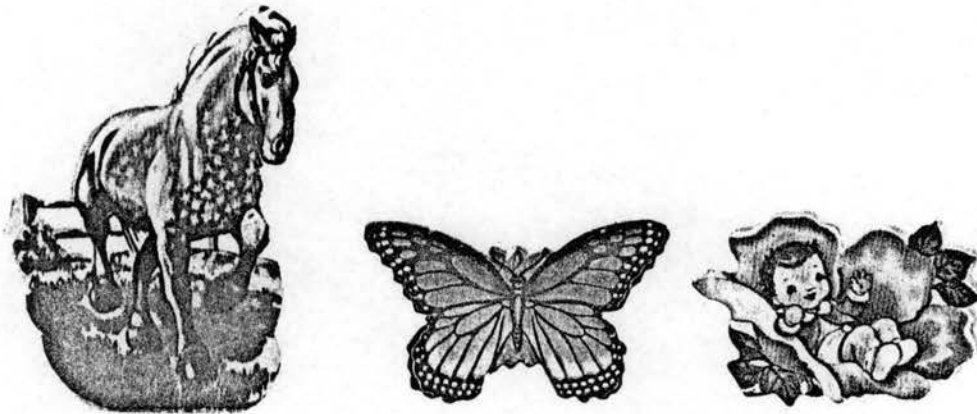
The child is shown the M-F Test booklet, page by page, and is asked to choose the picture that he likes the best on each page. For each choice that he makes, he is given an identical picture to keep. A sample score sheet is presented in Appendix B.

Scoring

Each child's M-F score is based on the masculine or feminine value of each picture he chooses. The value of each picture is determined by the specific choices of all the children in the study. For example, a picture chosen by a majority of the boys and by few of the girls is weighted heavily as masculine. This method of calculating the assigned scores is illustrated in Figure 1. In the illustration, the horse was chosen by 35 boys and 15 girls; the butterfly was chosen by 9 boys and 12 girls; and the baby was chosen by 4 boys and 21 girls. The scores assigned to each of these pictures (figured: boys-girls) were +20, -03, and -17, respectively. 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. The assigned scores for individual pictures in the M-F Test are presented in Appendix B, Table XIII.

Measurement of Conformity to Mothers

A conformity-nonconformity test developed by Starkweather (1964) was used to measure conformity to mothers. This test offers the child an opportunity to conform to his mother by constructing a picture booklet, page by page, identical to or different from a booklet constructed for his mother. The test consists of two steps: (a) Each child indicates his color preferences by ranking thirteen colors. From this ranking, 5 colors which range from his first choice to his last are chosen for use in the test proper. (b) The child then makes color choices in selecting pages for his booklet. The five colors designated for the child are arranged in pairs, each color being paired with every other



| | | | |
|--------|-----|-----|-----|
| Boys: | 35 | 9 | 4 |
| Girls: | 15 | 12 | 21 |
| | — | — | — |
| Score: | +20 | -03 | -17 |

Figure 1. The Method of Calculating Assigned Scores for One Page of the M-F Test.

color twice, making a total of 20 pairs. These are presented to the child in such a way that he has an opportunity to choose between red and blue, for example, when his mother receives red and again when his mother receives blue.

The assumption underlying the design of the conformity test is that the child who really prefers one of the two colors will choose that color on both occasions if he is free to use conforming or non-conforming behavior, whereas the conformist will choose the preferred color only when his mother receives it, and the nonconformist will choose the preferred color only when his mother does not receive it.

Administration

In the administration of the test, the pairs of colored pages are presented to the child one at a time as he constructs a booklet of pictures for himself and one for his mother. A colored page (e.g., the picture of a dog on a blue page) is placed in front of the child and he is told that this is for his mother. He is then given his choice between a page identical to his mother's and a page of a different color (e.g., the picture of a dog on a yellow page). A sample score sheet is presented in Appendix B.

Scoring

The scoring for the conformity-nonconformity test consists of a simple count of the number of conforming and nonconforming responses. A D-score, or difference score, is figured by subtracting the number of non-conforming responses from the number of conforming responses. The possible range of D-scores is from +20 (complete conformity) to -20 (complete non-conformity). The strength and direction of the child's

response are indicated in this one score.

Recommended Analysis

Conformity-nonconformity test scores and M-F Test scores will be analyzed for age, sex, and SES differences. The Mann-Whitney U Test will be used for these analyses.

The relationship between conformity-nonconformity scores and M-F Test scores will be analyzed. Spearman rank order correlations will be used for these analyses.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this research was to study cross-cultural differences in young children's conformity to their mothers and to study the relationship between this conformity and the children's masculinity-femininity. A preference test designed to give a child the opportunity to conform to his mother and a preference test designed to measure masculinity-femininity were administered to 96 preschool children from lower and middle socioeconomic homes. Descriptive data and test scores for individual children are presented in Appendix A, Table V.

The data provide three test scores for each child: (1) a score indicating the direction of his response on the conformity-nonconformity test; (2) a score indicating the strength of his response on the conformity-nonconformity test; and (3) a masculinity-femininity score. Median scores, ranges, and average ranks by age, sex, and SES groups are presented in Appendix A, Tables VI-VIII.

In the data analysis, the Mann-Whitney U Test was used to determine group differences for each of the three scores and the Spearman rank-order correlation was used to determine the relationship between masculinity-femininity and the direction and strength of the conformity-nonconformity responses. Results of these analyses are presented in Appendix A, Tables IX-XII.

Conformity-Nonconformity Responses

Two conformity-nonconformity scores are available for each child. One score indicates the direction of the child's response, i.e., a positive score shows conformity and a negative score shows nonconformity. The actual range of these scores was from -18 to +20. The other score indicates the strength of the child's response, i.e., the extent to which he is influenced by the opportunity to conform regardless of whether he is influenced positively or negatively. The actual range of these scores was from zero to 20.

Direction of Response

Four-year-old middle-class boys (4MB) were significantly more conforming than any other group of children in the study. The median score for this group of boys was +08, and no other group of children in this study approached this degree of conformity.

The results of the Mann-Whitney U Test analyses of the direction of response data are presented in Table II.

Strength of Response

Four-year-old middle-class boys (4MB) tended to be more influenced by the opportunity to conform than any other group of children in the study. They were significantly more influenced than were the four-year-old middle-class girls (4MG) or the three-year-old middle-class boys (3MB).

A comparison of the four-year-old middle-class boys (4MB) and the four-year-old lower-class boys (4LB) indicates that both groups of boys were influenced by the opportunity to conform to their mothers, but that the responses of the middle-class boys were largely positive

TABLE II
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST ANALYSIS OF GROUP DIFFERENCES
IN THE DIRECTION AND STRENGTH OF RESPONSES ON
THE CONFORMITY-NONCONFORMITY TEST

| Groups Compared [*] | Median Scores | z | p |
|------------------------------|---------------|-------|-------|
| Direction of Response | | | |
| 4MB : 4MG | +08 : -02 | 2.752 | <.005 |
| 4MB : 3MB | +08 : 00 | 2.084 | <.02 |
| 4MB : 4LB | +08 : +02 | 1.912 | <.05 |
| Strength of Response | | | |
| 4MB : 4MG | 08 : 02 | 2.026 | <.05 |
| 4MB : 3MB | 08 : 04 | 1.886 | <.05 |
| 4MB : 4LB | 08 : 05 | 1.367 | n.s. |

^{*} Each group is designated by age, SES, and sex. 4MB : 4MG indicates four-year-old middle-class boys compared to four-year-old middle-class girls.

(conforming), while the responses of the lower-class boys were positive and negative (conforming and nonconforming).

The results of the Mann-Whitney U Test analyses of the strength of response data are presented in Table II.

Masculinity-Femininity Responses

The M-F score for each child indicates the extent to which his preferences were those of the boys in the study or those of the girls in the study. The actual range of M-F scores was from -125 (highly feminine) to +128 (highly masculine). For the boys, no real differences in M-F scores were found when age groups and SES groups were compared. For the girls, significant differences were found.

Three-year-old middle-class girls (3MG) showed significantly fewer feminine preferences, with a score of +13, than did either the four-year-old middle-class girls (4MG) or the three-year-old lower-class girls (3LG), whose scores were -43 and -27, respectively.

The results of the Mann-Whitney U Test analyses of the M-F scores are presented in Table III.

Relationship Between Masculinity-Femininity and Conformity-Nonconformity Responses

Spearman rank-order correlations were used to determine the relationship between masculinity-femininity and the direction and strength of the conformity-nonconformity responses. No significant relationship was found between M-F scores and the direction of the conformity-nonconformity responses; but significant relationships were found between the M-F scores and the strength of the conformity-nonconformity responses. All correlation coefficients, figured for sex, age and SES

TABLE III
 MANN-WHITNEY U TEST ANALYSIS OF THE
 MASCULINITY-FEMININITY RESPONSES
 OF GIRLS BY AGE AND SES
 (N=48)

| Age Group | Lower SES | Middle SES | z |
|---------------------|-----------|-------------------|------------------|
| Older Girls: | | | |
| 48 months and over | -38 | -43 | n.s. |
| Younger Girls: | | | |
| 47 months and under | -27 | +13 | 2.084 p < .02 |
| z | n.s. | 2.699 p < .005 | |

groups, are presented in Appendix A, Table VIII.

The strength of the conformity-nonconformity response was positively related to the masculinity of boys and the femininity of girls in each of the following groups: 4MB, four-year-old middle-class boys; 3LB, three-year-old lower-class boys; and 4LG, four-year-old lower-class girls. The more masculine boys were more influenced by the opportunity to conform than were the less masculine boys; and the more feminine girls were more influenced than were the less feminine girls. Correlations ranged from +0.592 to +0.721, significant beyond the .05 and .01 levels (See Table IV).

TABLE IV
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MASCULINITY-FEMININITY AND
STRENGTH OF CONFORMITY-NONCONFORMITY RESPONSE

| Group | N | rho [*] | p |
|-------|----|------------------|------|
| 4MB | 14 | +0.592 | <.05 |
| 3LB | 10 | +0.682 | <.05 |
| 4LG | 13 | +0.721 | <.01 |

*Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient

Summary of Findings

1. Four-year-old middle-class boys (4MB) were more conforming, as opposed to nonconforming, than any other group of children in the study. This finding refers to the direction of response.
2. Four-year-old middle-class boys (4MB) were more influenced by the opportunity to conform than were other middle-class children. This finding refers to the strength of response.
3. Three-year-old middle-class girls (3MG) were less feminine, as indicated by preferences, than were any other girls in the study.
4. The more masculine boys were more influenced by the opportunity to conform than were the less masculine boys. This relationship was true for the four-year-old middle-class boys (4MB) and the three-year-old lower class boys (3LB).
5. The more feminine girls were more influenced by the opportunity to conform than were the less feminine girls. This relationship was true for the four-year-old lower-class girls (4LG).

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this research was to study cross-cultural differences in young children's conformity to their mothers and to study the relationship between this conformity and the children's masculinity-femininity. To accomplish this purpose, a preference test designed to measure the masculinity-femininity of preschool children and a preference test designed to give children an opportunity to conform to their mothers were administered to children from middle and lower socioeconomic homes.

The subjects participating in this study were 96 preschool children ranging from 34 months to 63 months of age. The children were in attendance at child development laboratories (middle SES) or at the Stillwater Head Start Program (lower SES).

The measure of masculinity-femininity used in this study was a preference test (M-F Test) in which the child responds by selecting pictures that he likes; and his M-F score is based on the masculine or feminine value of each picture he chooses. The assigned M-F values for the pictures are determined by the number of boys and the number of girls in the study who choose each picture; thus, the 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.

Conformity to mothers was measured by a conformity-nonconformity test in which the child is offered an opportunity to conform to his mother by constructing a picture booklet, page by page, identical to or different from a booklet constructed for his mother. The booklet pages are of different colors and the assumption underlying the design of the conformity test is that the child who really prefers one of the two colors will choose that color on both occasions if he is free to use conforming or nonconforming behavior, whereas the conformist will choose the preferred color only when his mother receives it, and the nonconformist will choose the preferred color only when his mother does not receive it.

Data from both the conformity-nonconformity test and the M-F Test were analyzed for age, sex, and SES differences. Findings included: (1) Four-year-old middle-class boys (4MB) were more conforming, as opposed to nonconforming, than any other group of children in the study. This finding refers to the direction of response. (2) Four-year-old middle-class boys (4MB) were more influenced by the opportunity to conform than were other middle-class children. This finding refers to the strength of response. (3) Three-year-old middle-class girls (3MG) were less feminine, as indicated by preferences, than were any other girls in the study.

The relationship between masculinity-femininity and conformity to mothers was analyzed by comparing the results of the two tests. Findings included: (1) The more masculine boys were more influenced by the opportunity to conform than were the less masculine boys. This relationship was true for the four-year-old middle-class boys (4MB) and the three-year-old lower-class boys (3LB). (2) The more feminine girls

were more influenced by the opportunity to conform than were the less feminine girls. This relationship was true for the four-year-old lower-class girls (4LG).

Implications

The results of this study tend to support other research findings on sex-role identification. The literature indicates that boys tend to identify with their own sex earlier than girls, and children of the lower-class tend to sex-type at an earlier age than middle-class children. In the present study, neither age nor SES differences were found for the boys. Three-year-old middle-class girls (3MG) were less feminine than any other group of girls indicating that appropriate sex-role identification is achieved later for middle-class girls than for lower-class girls. The fact that three-year-old middle-class boys (3MB) had high masculine preference scores and three-year-old middle-class girls (3MG) did not have high feminine preference scores indicates that middle-class boys achieve appropriate sex-role identification earlier than middle-class girls.

These findings are in keeping with the results of previous studies and are comparable with those of McKinzie (1968) who used the same M-F Test in her research.

The results of this study indicate that there is a relationship between conformity to mothers and masculinity-femininity. The more feminine girls and the more masculine boys, i.e., the children who had achieved appropriate sex-role identification, were the ones who conformed the most to their mothers. This finding raises the question of what conformity means in this test. On the one hand, a child may feel

an obligation to conform or he may conform to gain approval when he is insecure. There is a lack of freedom in this type of conforming behavior. On the other hand, a child may conform freely because he loves his mother and wants to have things like hers. In this study, the mothers were not present for the testing situation and the conforming children were quite secure in their sex-role identification. It is therefore probable that the conforming behavior exhibited by the children in this study was a free expression of their desire to be like and have something like their mothers.

A cross-cultural difference in the relationship of conformity to mothers and masculinity-femininity is suggested by the results of this study. The more masculine boys in both SES groups were influenced by the opportunity to conform to their mothers; however, most of the middle-class boys responded by conforming, whereas some lower-class boys responded by conforming and others by nonconforming. This finding indicates that lower-class children have a different relationship to their mothers than do middle-class children.

Further research is needed to better understand conformity-nonconformity and its relationship to sex-role identification.

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APPENDIX A

TABLE V
 DESCRIPTIVE DATA AND TEST SCORES FOR INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN
 PARTICIPATING IN A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP
 BETWEEN MASCULINITY-FEMININITY AND
 CONFORMITY TO MOTHERS
 (N=96)

| Lower SES | | | | Middle SES | | | |
|------------------|------|-------------|------------|------------------|------|-------------|------------|
| Sex and Code No. | Age | Test Scores | | Sex and Code No. | Age | Test Scores | |
| | | M-F | Conformity | | | M-F | Conformity |
| M 1410 | 3:1 | +50 | -02 | M 1392 | 3:1 | +64 | +02 |
| M 1430 | 3:5 | +21 | +02 | M 1394 | 3:1 | +65 | -08 |
| M 1420 | 3:5 | +62 | -08 | M 1391 | 3:4 | +77 | 00 |
| M 1432 | 3:8 | +28 | +02 | M 1393 | 3:4 | +32 | 00 |
| M 1414 | 3:8 | -32 | 00 | M 1390 | 3:5 | +32 | -02 |
| M 1427 | 3:9 | +19 | -06 | M 1340 | 3:6 | +40 | -04 |
| M 1426 | 3:9 | +25 | +04 | M 1395 | 3:7 | +26 | +10 |
| M 1436 | 3:11 | +22 | -02 | M 1376 | 3:10 | +63 | -10 |
| M 1424 | 3:11 | +67 | +06 | M 1405 | 3:10 | +32 | +04 |
| M 1429 | 3:11 | +83 | +10 | M 1474 | 3:11 | +66 | +04 |
| M 1406 | 4:2 | +79 | +04 | M 1384 | 4:4 | +60 | -06 |
| M 1435 | 4:2 | +59 | -04 | M 1375 | 4:4 | +08 | +02 |
| M 1473 | 4:3 | +55 | 00 | M 1372 | 4:4 | +45 | +06 |
| M 1421 | 4:3 | +31 | -08 | M 1386 | 4:5 | +68 | +08 |
| M 1431 | 4:3 | -05 | -08 | M 1389 | 4:6 | +56 | -06 |
| M 1433 | 4:4 | +63 | -02 | M 1350 | 4:6 | +85 | +14 |
| M 1422 | 4:6 | +43 | +02 | M 1352 | 4:6 | +128 | +18 |
| M 1428 | 4:7 | +36 | +02 | M 1373 | 4:6 | +29 | 00 |
| M 1402 | 4:8 | +98 | +14 | M 1382 | 4:7 | +16 | +14 |
| M 1403 | 4:8 | +69 | +12 | M 1385 | 4:7 | +79 | +10 |
| M 1409 | 4:10 | +25 | 00 | M 1387 | 4:7 | +98 | +12 |
| M 1425 | 4:11 | +21 | +08 | M 1360 | 4:8 | +77 | -02 |
| M 1434 | 4:11 | +62 | -12 | M 1385 | 4:11 | +90 | +20 |
| M 1472 | 5:3 | +01 | +06 | M 1388 | 5:0 | +14 | +08 |
| F 1453 | 3:2 | +28 | +02 | F 1398 | 2:10 | +40 | -04 |
| F 1454 | 3:2 | -35 | +08 | F 1400 | 3:2 | +06 | +02 |
| F 1476 | 3:2 | -27 | -02 | F 1397 | 3:3 | +39 | 00 |
| F 1475 | 3:3 | -13 | -04 | F 1399 | 3:5 | -13 | -02 |
| F 1466 | 3:4 | -42 | -04 | F 1396 | 3:8 | +13 | -04 |
| F 1456 | 3:4 | +03 | +02 | F 1357 | 3:10 | -33 | -12 |
| F 1445 | 3:6 | -51 | -16 | F 1356 | 3:11 | +16 | +04 |
| F 1451 | 3:8 | +18 | +02 | F 1364 | 4:0 | -36 | -02 |
| F 1444 | 3:8 | -49 | 00 | F 1368 | 4:1 | -20 | -06 |
| F 1443 | 3:9 | -24 | 00 | F 1370 | 4:2 | -44 | 00 |
| F 1465 | 3:9 | -68 | +02 | F 1371 | 4:2 | -03 | -06 |
| F 1446 | 4:0 | -16 | -04 | F 1378 | 4:3 | -15 | -10 |
| F 1442 | 4:0 | +21 | 00 | F 1339 | 4:4 | -90 | +20 |
| F 1455 | 4:2 | -22 | -02 | F 1349 | 4:4 | -72 | +02 |
| F 1407 | 4:3 | -102 | -08 | F 1365 | 4:4 | +04 | -04 |
| F 1448 | 4:3 | -38 | +02 | F 1353 | 4:6 | +34 | -02 |
| F 1457 | 4:5 | +43 | +02 | F 1363 | 4:6 | -125 | -08 |
| F 1468 | 4:7 | -43 | +06 | F 1369 | 4:6 | -105 | 00 |
| F 1470 | 4:7 | -51 | +14 | F 1342 | 4:6 | -43 | +02 |
| F 1467 | 4:9 | -75 | -04 | F 1379 | 4:7 | -77 | 00 |
| F 1447 | 4:9 | +10 | +04 | F 1380 | 4:9 | -117 | -04 |
| F 1452 | 4:10 | +29 | 00 | F 1354 | 4:10 | -84 | 00 |
| F 1471 | 4:11 | -72 | -06 | F 1355 | 4:11 | +29 | -02 |
| F 1459 | 4:11 | -109 | +04 | F 1381 | 4:11 | -32 | -18 |

TABLE VI

TEST RESULTS FOR MIDDLE AND LOWER SES CHILDREN
 BY SEX AND AGE: DIRECTION OF CONFORMITY-
 NONCONFORMITY RESPONSES
 (N=96)

| | N | Test Scores: Direction of Response | | Average Rank |
|-------------------------|----|---------------------------------------|------------|-----------------|
| | | Median | Range | |
| <u>Boys</u> | | | | |
| Older | 28 | +03 | -12 to +20 | 59.68 |
| Younger | 20 | 00 | -10 to +10 | 48.23 |
| Total | 48 | +02 | -12 to +20 | 54.91 |
| <u>Middle SES Boys</u> | | | | |
| Older | 14 | +08 | -06 to +20 | 69.04 |
| Younger | 10 | 00 | -10 to +10 | 46.15 |
| Total | 24 | +03 | -10 to +20 | 59.50 |
| <u>Lower SES Boys</u> | | | | |
| Older | 14 | +02 | -12 to +14 | 50.32 |
| Younger | 10 | +01 | -08 to +10 | 50.30 |
| Total | 24 | +01 | -12 to +14 | 50.31 |
| <u>Girls</u> | | | | |
| Older | 30 | -01 | -18 to +20 | 41.51 |
| Younger | 18 | 00 | -16 to +08 | 43.05 |
| Total | 48 | 00 | -18 to +20 | 42.10 |
| <u>Middle SES Girls</u> | | | | |
| Older | 17 | -02 | -18 to +20 | 35.50 |
| Younger | 07 | -02 | -12 to +04 | 38.14 |
| Total | 24 | -02 | -18 to +20 | 36.27 |
| <u>Lower SES Girls</u> | | | | |
| Older | 13 | 00 | -08 to +14 | 49.38 |
| Younger | 11 | 00 | -16 to +08 | 46.18 |
| Total | 24 | 00 | -16 to +14 | 47.92 |

TABLE VII
 TEST RESULTS FOR MIDDLE AND LOWER SES CHILDREN
 BY SEX AND AGE: STRENGTH OF CONFORMITY-
 NONCONFORMITY RESPONSES
 (N=96)

| | N | Test Scores: Strength of Response | | Average Rank |
|-------------------------|----|--------------------------------------|----------|-----------------|
| | | Median | Range | |
| <u>Boys</u> | | | | |
| Older | 28 | 07 | 00 to 20 | 60.11 |
| Younger | 20 | 04 | 00 to 10 | 45.60 |
| Total | 48 | 03 | 00 to 20 | 54.07 |
| <u>Middle SES Boys</u> | | | | |
| Older | 14 | 08 | 00 to 20 | 66.93 |
| Younger | 10 | 04 | 00 to 10 | 45.85 |
| Total | 24 | 06 | 00 to 20 | 58.15 |
| <u>Lower SES Boys</u> | | | | |
| Older | 14 | 05 | 00 to 14 | 53.29 |
| Younger | 10 | 03 | 00 to 10 | 45.35 |
| Total | 24 | 04 | 00 to 14 | 49.98 |
| <u>Girls</u> | | | | |
| Older | 30 | 04 | 00 to 20 | 44.55 |
| Younger | 18 | 02 | 00 to 16 | 40.25 |
| Total | 48 | 03 | 00 to 20 | 42.94 |
| <u>Middle SES Girls</u> | | | | |
| Older | 17 | 02 | 00 to 20 | 43.82 |
| Younger | 07 | 04 | 00 to 12 | 42.93 |
| Total | 24 | 03 | 00 to 20 | 43.56 |
| <u>Lower SES Girls</u> | | | | |
| Older | 13 | 04 | 00 to 14 | 45.50 |
| Younger | 11 | 02 | 00 to 16 | 38.55 |
| Total | 24 | 03 | 00 to 16 | 42.31 |

TABLE VIII
 TEST RESULTS FOR MIDDLE AND LOWER SES CHILDREN
 BY SEX AND AGE: M-F PREFERENCE SCORES
 (N=96)

| | N | M-F Preference Scores | | Average Rank |
|-------------------------|----|-----------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| | | Median | Range | |
| <u>Boys</u> | | | | |
| Older | 28 | +57.50 | - 5.00 to +128.00 | 70.89 |
| Younger | 20 | +36.00 | - 32.00 to + 98.00 | 66.23 |
| Total | 48 | +52.50 | - 32.00 to +128.00 | 68.95 |
| <u>Middle SES Boys</u> | | | | |
| Older | 14 | +64.00 | + 8.00 to +128.00 | 74.57 |
| Younger | 10 | +51.50 | + 26.00 to + 77.00 | 72.05 |
| Total | 24 | +61.50 | + 8.00 to +128.00 | 73.52 |
| <u>Lower SES Boys</u> | | | | |
| Older | 14 | +49.00 | - 5.00 to + 98.00 | 67.21 |
| Younger | 10 | +26.50 | - 32.00 to + 83.00 | 60.40 |
| Total | 24 | +40.00 | - 32.00 to + 98.00 | 64.38 |
| <u>Girls</u> | | | | |
| Older | 30 | -40.50 | -125.00 to + 43.00 | 24.22 |
| Younger | 18 | -13.00 | - 68.00 to + 40.00 | 34.44 |
| Total | 48 | -28.50 | -125.00 to + 43.00 | 28.06 |
| <u>Middle SES Girls</u> | | | | |
| Older | 17 | -43.00 | -125.00 to + 34.00 | 21.91 |
| Younger | 07 | +13.00 | - 33.00 to + 40.00 | 44.93 |
| Total | 24 | -26.00 | -125.00 to + 40.00 | 28.63 |
| <u>Lower SES Girls</u> | | | | |
| Older | 13 | -38.00 | -109.00 to + 43.00 | 27.23 |
| Younger | 11 | -27.00 | - 68.00 to + 28.00 | 27.77 |
| Total | 24 | -36.50 | -109.00 to + 43.00 | 27.48 |

TABLE IX
 MANN-WHITNEY U TEST ANALYSIS OF CONFORMITY-NONCONFORMITY
 SCORES (DIRECTION OF RESPONSE) BY
 SEX, AGE, AND SES GROUP

| Groups Compared | Median Scores | z | p |
|------------------------|---------------|-------|-------|
| <u>Sex Differences</u> | | | |
| 4MB : 4MG | +08 : -02 | 2.752 | <.005 |
| 4LB : 4LG | +02 : 00 | 0.073 | |
| 3MB : 3MG | 00 : -02 | 0.689 | |
| 3LB : 3LG | +01 : 00 | 0.429 | |
| <u>Age Differences</u> | | | |
| 4MB : 3MB | +08 : 00 | 2.084 | <.02 |
| 4LB : 3LB | +02 : +01 | 0.029 | |
| 4MG : 3MG | -02 : -02 | 0.321 | |
| 4LG : 3LG | 00 : 00 | 0.293 | |
| <u>SES Differences</u> | | | |
| 4MB : 4LB | +08 : +02 | 1.912 | <.05 |
| 3MB : 3LB | 00 : +01 | 0.381 | |
| 4MG : 4LG | -02 : 00 | 1.455 | |
| 3MG : 3LG | -02 : 00 | 0.646 | |

TABLE X
 MANN-WHITNEY U TEST ANALYSIS OF CONFORMITY-NONCONFORMITY
 SCORES (STRENGTH OF RESPONSE) BY
 SEX, AGE, AND SES GROUP

| Groups Compared | Median Scores | z | p |
|------------------------|---------------|-------|------|
| <u>Sex Differences</u> | | | |
| 4MB : 4MG | 08 : 02 | 2.026 | <.05 |
| 4LB : 4LG | 05 : 04 | 0.813 | |
| 3MB : 3MG | 04 : 04 | 0.151 | |
| 3LB : 3LG | 03 : 02 | 0.699 | |
| <u>Age Differences</u> | | | |
| 4MB : 3MB | 08 : 04 | 1.886 | <.05 |
| 4LB : 3LB | 05 : 03 | 0.804 | |
| 4MG : 3MG | 02 : 04 | 0.032 | |
| 4LG : 3LG | 04 : 02 | 0.805 | |
| <u>SES Differences</u> | | | |
| 4MB : 4LB | 08 : 05 | 1.367 | |
| 3MB : 3LB | 04 : 03 | 0.077 | |
| 4MG : 4LG | 02 : 04 | 0.235 | |
| 3MG : 3LG | 04 : 02 | 0.520 | |

TABLE XI
 MANN-WHITNEY U TEST ANALYSIS OF M-F PREFERENCE
 SCORES BY SEX, AGE, AND SES GROUP

| Groups Compared | Median Scores | z | p |
|------------------------|-----------------|-------|--------|
| <u>Sex Differences</u> | | | |
| 4MB : 4MG | +64.00 : -43.00 | 4.426 | <.0001 |
| 4LB : 4LG | +49.00 : -38.00 | 3.689 | <.0001 |
| 3MB : 3MG | +51.50 : +13.00 | 2.594 | <.005 |
| 3LB : 3LG | +26.50 : -27.00 | 3.135 | <.001 |
| <u>Age Differences</u> | | | |
| 4MB : 3MB | +64.00 : +51.50 | 0.850 | |
| 4LB : 3LB | +49.00 : +26.50 | 0.850 | |
| 4MG : 3MG | -43.00 : +13.00 | 2.699 | <.005 |
| 4LG : 3LG | -38.00 : -27.00 | 0.464 | |
| <u>SES Differences</u> | | | |
| 4MB : 4LB | +64.00 : +49.00 | 1.149 | |
| 3MB : 3LB | +51.50 : +26.50 | 1.514 | |
| 4MG : 4LG | -43.00 : -38.00 | 0.712 | |
| 3MG : 3LG | +13.00 : -27.00 | 2.084 | <.02 |

TABLE XII
CORRELATIONS OF M-F PREFERENCE SCORES WITH
CONFORMITY-NONCONFORMITY SCORES

| | N | Correlation with Direction of Response | | Correlation with Strength of Response | |
|-------------------------|----|---|------|--|------|
| | | rho | p | rho | p |
| <u>Boys</u> | | | | | |
| Older | 24 | +.381 | <.05 | +.447 | <.02 |
| Younger | 24 | -.011 | | +.296 | |
| Total | 48 | +.232 | | +.397 | <.01 |
| <u>Middle SES Boys</u> | | | | | |
| Older | 14 | +.487 | <.10 | +.592 | <.05 |
| Younger | 10 | -.379 | | -.162 | |
| Total | 24 | +.218 | | +.391 | |
| <u>Lower SES Boys</u> | | | | | |
| Older | 14 | +.198 | | +.235 | |
| Younger | 10 | +.331 | | +.682 | <.05 |
| Total | 24 | +.237 | | +.398 | >.05 |
| <u>Girls</u> | | | | | |
| Older | 24 | +.021 | | +.217 | |
| Younger | 24 | -.193 | | +.188 | |
| Total | 48 | -.052 | | +.238 | |
| <u>Middle SES Girls</u> | | | | | |
| Older | 17 | +.327 | | -.099 | |
| Younger | 07 | -.191 | | -.245 | |
| Total | 24 | +.106 | | +.004 | |
| <u>Lower SES Girls</u> | | | | | |
| Older | 13 | -.180 | | +.721 | <.01 |
| Younger | 11 | -.322 | | +.229 | |
| Total | 24 | -.201 | | +.571 | <.01 |

APPENDIX B

MASCULINITY-FEMININITY TEST FOR PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

Name Child M-1372 Sex Male Number 1372
 Birthdate 9-24-63 Age 4:3
 Date 1-4-68 SES Middle

| | <u>Pictures</u> | | | <u>Score</u> | | <u>Pictures</u> | | | <u>Score</u> | |
|-----|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------|-----|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|------------|
| 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | +7 | 13. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +2 | |
| 2. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | -5 | 14. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | -3 | |
| 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +1 | 15. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | -6 | |
| 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0 | 16. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +8 | |
| 5. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +5 | 17. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +2 | |
| 6. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +5 | 18. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | -5 | |
| 7. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | -2 | 19. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +1 | |
| 8. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +1 | 20. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +5 | |
| 9. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | -1 | 21. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +5 | |
| 10. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +7 | 22. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +20 | |
| 11. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | -5 | 23. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | +9 | |
| 12. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | +2 | 24. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | -8 | |
| | | | | | | | | | Total | <u>+45</u> |

TABLE XIII
 ASSIGNED SCORES FOR INDIVIDUAL PICTURES IN THE M-F TEST

| Booklet Page | Scores | Booklet Page | Scores |
|-----------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|
| 1 | +11 -18 + 7 | 13 | + 2 -10 + 8 |
| 2 | - 5 + 2 + 3 | 14 | - 3 - 1 + 4 |
| 3 | + 4 + 1 - 5 | 15 | - 6 + 2 + 4 |
| 4 | - 6 0 + 6 | 16 | + 7 + 8 -15 |
| 5 | + 5 -11 + 6 | 17 | + 2 + 4 - 6 |
| 6 | - 9 + 5 + 4 | 18 | - 5 + 7 - 2 |
| 7 | - 2 - 4 + 6 | 19 | + 1 + 3 - 4 |
| 8 | + 1 + 5 - 6 | 20 | 0 + 5 - 5 |
| 9 | - 1 +13 -12 | 21 | + 4 + 5 - 9 |
| 10 | + 7 + 6 -13 | 22 | +20 - 3 -17 |
| 11 | + 2 - 5 + 3 | 23 | + 9 - 6 - 3 |
| 12 | - 1 - 1 + 2 | 24 | - 8 +15 - 7 |

SCORE SHEET

Child's Name Child-M-1372 Date 2-16-68Birthdate 9-24-63 Sex MaleColor Preferences: 1st: A Red 4th: B Lt. Green
7th: C White 10th: D Blue 13th: E PurpleCHOICES

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. $\overset{M}{\text{A}}$ - B | 11. C - $\overset{M}{\text{D}}$ |
| 2. C - D | 12. A - B |
| 3. E - A | 13. E - C |
| 4. C - B | 14. D - A |
| 5. D - E | 15. B - E |
| 6. A - C | 16. A - C |
| 7. B - D | 17. D - E |
| 8. E - C | 18. C - B |
| 9. D - A | 19. E - A |
| 10. B - E | 20. B - D |

$$\begin{array}{r} C = 13 \\ NC = 7 \\ \hline D\text{-Score} = +06 \end{array}$$

VITA

Karen Griffith Marx

Candidate for the Degree of
Master of Science

Thesis: CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S MASCULINITY-FEMININITY
AND THEIR CONFORMITY TO THEIR MOTHERS

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Education: Attended grade school and junior high school in Guthrie, Oklahoma; graduated from Guthrie High School in 1962; received the Bachelor of Science Degree from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma with a major in Family Relations and Child Development in July, 1966; completed requirements for the Master of Science Degree in May, 1969.

Professional Experience: Graduate Assistant, Oklahoma State University Child Development Laboratories, 1966-1967, 1967-1968; Kindergarten teacher, Yale Public Schools, 1968-1969.

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