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WEINER, ANNE MARIE

SEX ROLE PREFERENCE AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG SECONDARY  
HOME ECONOMICS TEACHERS

*The University of North Carolina at Greensboro*

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SEX ROLE PREFERENCE AND JOB SATISFACTION  
AMONG SECONDARY HOME ECONOMICS TEACHERS

by

Anne Marie Weiner

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Approved by:

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APPROVAL PAGE

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The major purpose of this study was to determine the sex role preference and job satisfaction of secondary home economics teachers. A further purpose was to identify whether or not there was any relationship between the two variables. It was hypothesized that there would be no relationship between sex role preference and job satisfaction and that demographic characteristics would have no relationship to either of the two main variables.

The survey sample included 200 teachers randomly selected from a listing of all of the home economics teachers employed in the North Carolina public schools. Each participant was sent a questionnaire which included the Measure of Sex Role Preference (Scanzoni, 1975), the Job Description Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), and six questions designed to obtain specific demographic information. One hundred and seventy questionnaires were returned, and 168 contained sufficient data to be included in the analysis.

The data were analyzed using non-parametric correlation techniques and analysis of variance. A wide range of scores was obtained on both the Measure of Sex Role Preference and the Job Description Index and there was no significant relationship between the two main variables. Age was inversely related to sex role preference as was years of teaching experience. The older, more experienced home economics teachers held more traditional sex role attitudes than did the younger teachers. The other significant relationship was between level of education and job satisfaction. The teachers who held Bachelor's degrees only were more satisfied with their work situation than those who held Master's degrees, particularly in the

areas of supervision and coworkers. No other relationships were significant in this study.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The recent decade has brought about a changing perception of the appropriate roles for men and for women. This has been especially true of women and their roles in the world of work. The occupational and career choices that women make is of concern as well as their adjustment and success in them. The educational process that plays a part in socializing men and women to their roles has been examined and often criticized. Differentiation of roles has been the norm in the educational setting rather than the exception. The field of home economics is in the midst of the controversy since it deals closely with areas that are relevant to the core of this dispute.

With the passage of federal legislation and the urging of leaders within the profession, home economics teachers are being encouraged to eliminate sex role stereotyping in their teaching. Sexism in the classroom has been and remains an issue of concern. The need to examine curriculum and materials in this light has been stressed (Richardson, 1977; Weis, 1979), and research time and funds have been allocated to this task. The responsibility of the teacher to help students clarify values relating to sex role stereotyping and home economics related occupations has also been addressed (McClelland, 1977). The emphasis on molding the secondary home economics curriculum along more equalitarian lines is certainly evident.

The activities proposed to secondary home economics teachers for reviewing the atmosphere of their classroom in terms of sex role stereotyping

presume that the teacher is operating from a personal equalitarian sex role definition. This assumption is usually unstated, but necessary, since beliefs and attitudes determine actions. Mischel (1966) stated that motives and intentions account for the acts of individuals. Araji (1977) explained this relationship more precisely when she stated "role attitudes serve as accurate predictors of role behavior" (p. 309). Conflict results if the role attitude is not in congruence with the required behavior. An equalitarian sex role attitude is necessary for a teacher if he/she is to take an active concern in reducing sex bias in the classroom.

What attitudes do home economics teachers hold concerning the roles of men and women in modern American society? This question is worthy of consideration if programs to eliminate sex role stereotyping in the classroom are to be effective. The answer is not self-evident. Women, in general, have undergone considerable change in their sex role attitudes since the mid-1960's (Scanzoni, 1978). The trend is toward more equalitarian role definitions (Mason, Czajka, & Arber, 1976). On the other hand, the field of home economics and the profession of teaching have long been considered to be in the feminine domain (Confair, 1976; Ginzberg, 1966). Women who choose a traditionally female occupation may hold traditional role attitudes. This dichotomy supports the need to ascertain the sex role attitude of secondary home economics teachers so that the thrust to eliminate sex bias in the classroom can be more effective.

There is a growing interest in our society in the factors that affect job satisfaction. This is due to a continuing interest in the human condition and the realization that work and the job setting are major components of contemporary adult life (Anderson, 1977; Katzell & Yankelevich, 1975). The research in this area has gone beyond an examination of extrinsic

factors such as salary and promotion to the investigation of intrinsic factors such as held values and opportunity for self-expression (Locke, 1976; Schackmuth, 1979; Seashore & Taber, 1975). The role of women in the world of work and the satisfaction that they derive from their jobs also has been explored and even the specific field of teaching has been examined in the light of factors that influence job satisfaction (Chase, 1951; Kuhlen, 1976; Peck, 1936).

One of the strongest relationships that has been identified in these research endeavors is that of need fulfillment and job satisfaction. Lofquist and Dawis (1969) stated that "satisfaction represents the individual worker's appraisal of the extent to which the work environment fulfills his requirements" (p. 47). In studying the mental health of Canadian industrial workers, Jamal (1977) found that it was related to need fulfillment in both the work and the non-work environment. Vocational counselors and personnel staff have been encouraged to ascertain the needs of the individual worker and suggest or modify a work situation based on these needs (Friend, 1973).

The particular need fulfillment of a home economics teacher in his/her work environment may be influenced by his/her role attitude and definition. As work satisfaction is influenced by need fulfillment, roles that are adopted are a function of need satisfaction (Steinmann, 1963). Figure 1 illustrates this point using a simplified flow chart to show the relationship between role perception and job satisfaction. Each arrow indicates a directional influence. Role perception and adoption influence the determination of individual needs and these needs set the criterion for personal fulfillment. This in turn influences job satisfaction.

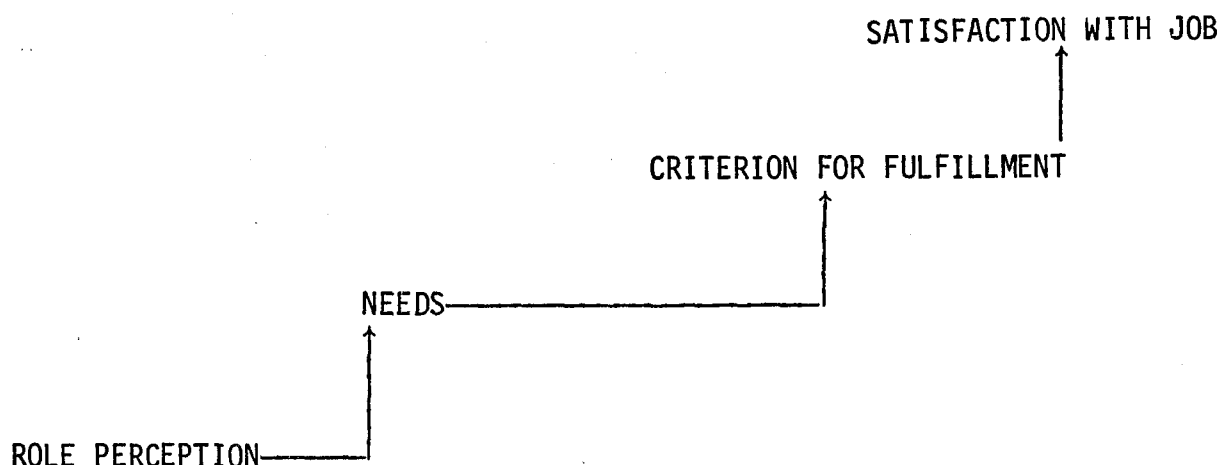


Figure 1. Relationship between role perception and job satisfaction.

A study of the role attitude of home economics teachers, their job satisfaction, and the relationship between the two is justified by the relationship detailed in the preceding paragraph. The role attitude of the home economics teachers should influence and even perhaps predict their job satisfaction. Increasing the job satisfaction of classroom teachers is the concern of those working with teachers and those who are involved in their professional preparation. The present study was designed to provide information that could be used to influence the effective training of teachers and also to improve the classroom environment for both teachers and students.

Included in the study were several variables or personal attributes thought to influence sex role preference. Demographic characteristics such as age and level of education have also been associated with job satisfaction. Sex role preference becomes more traditional (differentiated) as the age of the respondent increases (Scanzoni, 1978; Vanier & Hardison, 1978). This is due to the socializing influences shared by a cohort group that differentiate them from other age groups rather than attributable to age

itself. In a study of sex role attitudes among college students and their parents, Roper and Labeff (1977) found the students to have more equalitarian attitudes than their parents, but both groups were more modern in this dimension when compared to subjects in a similar study conducted in 1936. The effect of age is consistent in the majority of sex role studies.

Age has also been related to job satisfaction, but in a less precise manner. Glenn, Taylor, and Weaver (1977), in summarizing the results of a multifaceted study which included these variables, stated that age and job satisfaction had a moderate, positive correlation. The relationship was verified in the research of Saleh and Otis (1976). In a study of union workers, Borjas (1979) found a curvilinear relationship between age and job satisfaction. Young workers were least satisfied with their jobs, but older workers were less satisfied than those in the middle.

The number of years that a person has taught or worked in general has not been related to sex role preference. It can be considered, however, that this relationship would follow that of age and sex role preference, i.e., less preference for undifferentiated roles as age increases. Job satisfaction, on the other hand, has been related to years of work experience. Borjas (1979) found a curvilinear relationship of the same type as that of the relationship between age and job satisfaction. Confair (1976), however, found that years of teaching or work were not related to job satisfaction. In a survey of home economists in higher education, the discriminating variable was found to be achievement of career goals.

Educational attainment has been linked with sex role preference in many research investigations. In his numerous studies of sex role preference, Scanzoni (1975, 1978) found that the higher the level of education



of the respondent, the more modern or equalitarian they tended to be in their attitude toward sex roles. In a study of stereotyping of personality traits, however, Albrect, Bahr, and Chadwick (1977) concluded that education was not a particularly useful predictor of sex role attitudes. Job satisfaction has also been related to education, however, on the basis of assumption rather than empirical evidence (Klein & Maher, 1976). Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) stated that white collar-workers were more satisfied with their jobs than blue-collar workers. This was not supported with data and was typical of the literature concerning job satisfaction and education.

The marital status of an adult has not been examined in relation to either sex role preference or job satisfaction. Married adults may be more differentiated in their sex role preference because marriage is considered the traditional course of male-female relationships or they may be more equalitarian because the closeness of marriage has forced them to reexamine sex roles in a very personal manner. The relationship of marital status and job satisfaction is completely open to speculation. The correlation here may be influenced by the sex of the worker or by the fact that employment in a particular job may be either by necessity or choice.

The relationship between the geographic location of the respondents and sex role preference has not been established. This also holds true in the case of job satisfaction. It is assumed, however, that rural residents are more conservative than urbanites, and this may particularly influence the sex role preference of the respondents. Urban areas offer greater job possibilities than rural locations and this may influence the level of job satisfaction indicated by workers.

Each of the demographic variables discussed above was included in this study. Their effect, individually and collectively, on sex role perception and job satisfaction was explored. These variables were also used to clarify the correlation between sex role preference and job satisfaction in an effort to provide a more accurate description of this relationship.

### Statement of the Problem

The major purpose of this study was to determine the sex role preference and job satisfaction of secondary home economics teachers. A further purpose was to identify whether or not there was any relationship between the two. The following research questions were asked:

1. What attitudes do secondary home economics teachers have concerning sex role differentiation?
2. What is the level of job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers?
3. How does the sex role preference of secondary home economics teachers relate to their job satisfaction?
4. How do personal characteristics such as age, years of teaching, level of education, marital status, and location of school relate to sex role preference and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers?

### Hypotheses

Based upon the problem statement, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- $H_1$  There is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

H<sub>2</sub> There is no significant relationship between age and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

H<sub>3</sub> There is no significant relationship between age and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

H<sub>4</sub> There is no significant relationship between years of teaching and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

H<sub>5</sub> There is no significant relationship between years of teaching and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

H<sub>6</sub> There is no significant relationship between level of education and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

H<sub>7</sub> There is no significant relationship between level of education and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

H<sub>8</sub> There is no significant relationship between marital status and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

H<sub>9</sub> There is no significant relationship between marital status and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

H<sub>10</sub> There is no significant relationship between location of school and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

H<sub>11</sub> There is no significant relationship between location of school and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

### Assumptions

The major assumptions of this study were that the attributes of sex role preference and job satisfaction are present and measurable within the population of secondary home economics teachers. It was further assumed that the teachers would differ in their possession of each of these characteristics and that it could be adequately measured.

### Limitations

This study was limited to secondary home economics teachers who were employed on a full-time basis in the public school system of the state of North Carolina at the time of the study. The author realized that the sex role preference of these teachers may be more or less conservative than that of teachers in other parts of the country or the nation as a whole. The job satisfaction of the teachers may also be influenced uniquely by the particular structure or atmosphere of the North Carolina public schools.

### Definition of Terms

The following terms have been defined with the purpose of maintaining clarity and consistency within the study:

Sex Role - "A set of preferences, rewards, tastes, and goals that a person learns because he or she happens to be male or female" (Scanzoni, 1978, p. 6).

Job Satisfaction - "An overall affective orientation on the part of an individual toward work roles which they are presently occupying" (Kalleberg, 1977, p. 126).

Secondary Home Economics Teacher - An individual who is currently employed full time teaching Consumer and Homemaking or Occupational Home Economics in the public high school.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to investigate the sex role preference and job satisfaction of secondary home economics teachers. A further purpose was to identify whether or not there was any relationship between sex role preference and job satisfaction. In view of the nature of this study, the review of the literature is presented with the two main variables as the focal points. A review of the theory and research of sex role definition, development, and influence is presented first followed by a review of the elements and correlates of job satisfaction. Instrumentation and methods of measuring these variables are presented next. These reviews are followed by a summary relating specific highlights of the literature to the present study.

#### Sex Role Preference

There is an abundance of literature dealing with the topic of sex roles. The feminist movement has spurred a preponderance of research and writing on the roles of men and women both in the popular press and in the scholarly and professional arena. Much of this awareness has dealt with the inequality of the masculine and feminine roles or with the changing perceptions and definitions of these roles. This review will limit itself to the definition of sex roles, their development and influence on adult behavior, and the changing perception of these roles in our society. The role that the present educational system has in the setting of sex roles

will also be examined. An examination of these areas within the broad topic of sex roles will provide the justification and need for this research endeavor.

The definition of sex role used in this study was taken from the work of Scanzoni who has conducted several research studies on sex role attitude. His definition, in turn, was based on the writing of Holter, a noted sociologist who wrote extensively on the development of norms. Scanzoni (1978) defined sex role as "a set of preferences, rewards, tastes, and goals that a person learns because he or she happens to be male or female" (p. 6). The definition is global in the fact that it asserts that persons being either male or female will have varied values and modes of acting because of this gender difference. It also suggests that these attributes are learned rather than innate.

An earlier definition of sex role given by Scanzoni (1975) was "differences among persons and groups that are the result of gender, i.e., differences based on ascribed characteristics" (p. 20). This description again signified differences and attributes these differences to gender. Hartley (1964), speaking from a developmental view of female sex role identification, defined sex role as "a set of related cognitions maintained by subjects for objects designated as members of [a specified sex]" (p. 3). She alluded to differences based on gender, but spoke more in the framework of one's perceptions of others. Sex roles, then, include both an individual's actions and his/her attitude concerning how others should act.

Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz (1972) have not defined sex role per se: however, their definition of sex role standards

is appropriate for consideration. The definition was derived from their extensive work on sex role stereotypes and mental health. They maintained that "sex-role standards can be defined as the sum of socially designated behaviors that differentiate between men and women" (p. 60). Here again is a mention of differences that are not innate but rather socially designated. This designation is based on whether a person is male or female.

All of the definitions of sex role presented, which were representative of the literature, referred to differences due to the fact that one is either male or female. The definitions also alluded to the fact that they are learned or ascribed characteristics rather than inborn traits. Chafetz (1974), in a review of the theories of sex role development, clarified and strengthened this point when she differentiated between gender as a term that implied biologically determined differences and sex role as a term that encompassed learned attributes and behaviors. The Freudian theory of psychosexual development as the interaction of biology and culture was disputed. It was generally agreed that the theory that "biology is destiny" was no longer tenable (Montagu, 1953). The next question is when and where are sex roles learned.

The literature supported the theory that sex roles are learned in early childhood and that the family is the primary socializing unit in this process. Culturally prescribed rewards and sanctions act to reinforce the learned sex roles and the educational system in our society also serves as a socializing agent.

Sex roles, as with any of the other learned social roles, are not automatically acquired. Ward (1969) suggested three stages in the development of the sex role, namely, role preference, role adoption, and role

identification. This was similar to Kohlberg's model of sex-role acquisition which included gender identity, sex role preference, and identification (Kohlberg, 1966; Kohlberg & Zigler, 1967). Throughout each of these stages, a child is directed by adults in a certain manner depending upon whether the child is a male or a female. The research of Belotti (1976), conducted with parents and young children in Italy, showed that adults general and mothers in particular behave differently toward young boys and girls, even when they are infants. This influence begins an unconscious role preference that leads to a conscious role preference and adoption. Belotti has also found that different activities were permitted or discouraged depending on the sex of the child and that different toys and games were permitted for boys and for girls. These types of differences tend to solidify the role identification of a child.

Many similar views of sex role development have been presented in the literature. Hartley (1964) spoke of the intricacy of sex role development when she stated

sex role differentiation takes place through a variety of highly complex processes, each of which contributes to a particular facet of status-related personality formation, perceptual sharpening, and response reinforcement. (p. 14)

These processes are interactional in nature and take place within the family as well as with other social groups. Albrecht, Bahr, and Chadwick (1977) agreed with this general view of sex role development. They stated "sex role definitions are generally seen as products of the socializing process" (p. 225). The importance of this socialization in producing individual personality traits and occupational preference was also noted. These statements were supported with data from studies that were concerned with public stereotyping of sex roles, personality characteristics, and occupations.



The consensus of these and other researchers was that sex roles are learned through a socialization process and they account for personality differences between males and females.

Research has found the family to be the major socializing influence in the development of sex roles in children. In studies of sex roles, careers, and families in England, Fogarty, Rapoport, and Rapoport (1971) found that "sex type molding of children occurs in families" (p. 34). It was also found that the preschool years are critical in establishing tendencies and attitudes that affect adult thinking and behavior. A child of this age is usually surrounded by a family unit for the majority of the day, so this gave further credence to the importance of the family in the sex role socialization process.

Chafetz (1974) described the family's part in the development of differentiated sex roles in children in her work on sex stereotyping. She stated

First, from birth the nature of the interaction between parents and children differs markedly according to the gender of the child. If, indeed, the interaction process is crucial to the development of a self-image, it is clear that those of males and females will eventually be quite different. The parents of the little girl relate to her as a breakable object ... the little boy's parents treat him as self-reliant.... These images are undoubtedly learned by the children. In addition, they are verbally instructed and sanctioned for doing or refraining from certain things according to gender. (p. 72)

This was congruent with the findings of Belotti that were previously discussed. These authors dwelt mainly on the socializing effects of the parent. In the development of sex roles, however, siblings as well as extended kin can have an impact if interaction is quite frequent. The extended family is the social milieu in which an individual develops a preference for a definition of appropriate sex roles.

The schools also play a significant role in this process. Differences are reinforced by the varied opportunities available in the classroom to males and females and the varied behavior permitted or accepted from each. Chafetz (1974) observed that schools require students to dress differently according to sex, to engage in different play and sports activities and to excel or achieve in different areas of the curriculum. Zimet and Zimet (1977) concluded, after a study of teachers' perceptions of people, that educators not only share the sex orientation of the society but that they help to promote it. Both the structure of the educational system and the attitudes of teaching professionals reinforce the sex role identification of males and females.

The sex role socializing effect of the schools has been particularly apparent in the vocational fields such as home economics. Richardson (1977) examined the present situation and its implication and concluded

Enrollment statistics indicate that vocational education programs follow traditional sex role patterns. A high percentage of young women are enrolled in home economics, business, and health occupations. An equally high percentage of young men are enrolled in agriculture, industrial arts, and the technical trades. This pattern is viewed by many to be restrictive in light of individual differences and changing male and female roles. (p. 162)

This differentiated role socialization has an effect not only on the academic life of an individual but also throughout adult life since it influences occupation and career considerations and choices.

The reinforcement of sex role socialization continues throughout childhood, adolescence, and adulthood. The literature addressed the effect of socialization of children and adolescents. Adult sex role development was addressed to a lesser extent, but it is equally important. The occupational influences of and on sex role identification were pervasive. Millman

(1971), in a summary of research on sex roles, stated that "sex roles are more stringently enforced when individuals are engaged in their work careers" (p. 774). Scanzoni (1978) also spoke of adult sex role development but in the framework of change. He contended that sex roles "are by no means fixed in any functional sense" (p. 6). Abrahams, Feldman, and Nash (1978), in a study of college students and adults, found that changes in sex role self-concept and sex role attitudes in adulthood were directly related to corresponding changes in life situations. Albrecht et al. (1977) also found that age explained most of the difference in sex role perception. This again alluded to adult sex role change and development. These views of continuing change in the conceptualization of adult sex roles by individuals throughout the life span justified the interest in examining adult sex role preferences and added to the rationale of the present study.

The differentiation of roles by gender is important in our culture. It has previously been mentioned that sex roles are significant in selecting occupational preferences and in setting life goals (Albrecht et al., 1977). They also play a part in career adaptation (Fogarty et al., 1971; Greer, 1970; Millman, 1971) and in personality formation (Hartley, 1964). Scanzoni (1975) spoke of the normative function of sex roles as they were used to label or define the two sexes. The normative function has been particularly prevalent in the discussion of sex role differentiation in what may be considered the traditional manner.

The identification with culturally deemed appropriate role standards has been linked to various facets of psychological health. The degree to which an individual integrates prevailing sex role standards has been associated by Crisall and Dean (1976) with self-actualization and

flexibility in self-expression. It was found that "individuals who are highly self-actualized are also free from strong sex-role stereotypes" (p. 842). They also stated that "traditional concepts of masculinity and femininity restrict an individual's flexibility in self-expression in new interpersonal situations" (p. 842).

The degree of integration of culturally deemed appropriate sex role standards has also been associated with psychological health (Schiff & Koopman, 1978), effective psychological functioning (Worell, 1978), and mental health (Broverman et al., 1972). All of these correlations are not in a positive direction. It was traditionally thought that sex role identification was necessary for mental health, but the research cited above has shown that less differentiation of sex role may be more in line with psychological well-being.

The definition of sex roles for men and women has changed throughout the last century. The trend appears to be toward less differentiation and more shared traits within the roles. Worell (1978) expressed this point of view in reviewing the research on sex roles. She contended that traditionally, adoption of a differentiated sex role was deemed appropriate, whereas now the androgynous (undifferentiated) model of sex role organization implying a relative balance of sex-typed characteristics is desirable. Scanzoni (1978) concurred with this and stated "Persons at that end of the continuum [modern or contemporary] prefer low differentiation or very little sex typing of behaviors" (p. 8). This modern or equalitarian attitude toward sex roles is espoused in the majority of the literature on the topic.

The change in sex roles over the last decade or two is well documented. It is, however, the result of forces that have been in effect for a longer

time span. The change in role definitions has paralleled or resulted from changes in the economy of our society (Dahlstrom, 1971). In the agrarian society that prevailed in our culture previous to a century and a half ago, differentiation of roles was less prevalent (Chafe, 1977). The industrial revolution changed this as the home became separated from the workplace. Chafe (1977) explained that "as male and female spheres became more polarized in reality, notions of 'masculine' and 'feminine' responsibilities became more entrenched" (p. 22).

This situation prevailed in our society until the onset of World War II. Chafe (1977) stated that "female work patterns were transformed in the years after 1940" (p. 119). He also explained the ramification of this in terms of sex roles in the statement, "Although the employment changes did not signify progress toward equality, they ensured that social norms about woman's 'place' no longer had a base in reality" (p. 120). Sex role differentiation became less viable or appropriate.

The feminist movement of the sixties is credited with bringing the issue of undifferentiated sex roles to the forefront. Albrecht et al. (1977) contended that the feminist movement has led the effort to de-emphasize longstanding sex role definitions and divisions of labor. Legislation has also been responsible for inducing changes in sex role definitions. Ellis and Bentler (1973) in a study of sex stereotyping found that "legal and economic advances have extended the range of roles permissible for men and women" (p. 28). The full impact of these two forces is not yet fully known. As Albrecht et al. (1977) stated "public attitudinal change frequently lags well behind the vanguard of important legal and institutional changes" (p. 224).

The influence of the feminist movement and of federal legislation has also resulted in an interest in research concerning sex roles. The literature cited in the above paragraphs was, on the whole, gleaned from intensive research investigations and is ample proof of this interest. In addition to studies concerning the formation and effect of sex roles, research has centered on the androgynous or equalitarian personality (Bem, 1975a, 1975b) and on attempts to study the change in sex roles using a longitudinal approach (Mason, Czajka, & Arber, 1976; Scanzoni, 1975, 1978). The latter studies as well as the majority of the works in the field were concerned mainly with females and in the context of the family. This is one of the criticisms and voiced limitations concerning the research on sex roles. Women have been studied more often than men and the results have been used to draw universal implications. There is a need for more research concerning sex role development and adult sex role attitudes. Among males, the study of sex roles within the family unit is important since the family is the primary socializing unit in this instance. There is a need, however, to study sex roles in the educational realm and in an occupational setting. These considerations lend support to the rationale for the present study.

#### Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a concept that also needs definition before it can be examined. There have been many attempts in the literature to define this term, and there appeared to be no one universally accepted comprehension of the concept. As Andrisani stated "Job satisfaction is an extremely elusive concept" (1978, p. 49). A review of the most widely used definitions of job satisfaction assisted in placing parameters on the concept.

Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969), the developers of the widely used Job Description Index, have provided a simplistic definition of job satisfaction. It was defined as "the feeling a worker has about his job" (p. 6). This is concise, but it does not give a scientific explanation of the phenomenon to guide an empirical investigation. Others enlarged upon this definition and included a dimension relating work to inner human conditions. Lofquist and Dawis (1969) spoke of job satisfaction as an internal indicator of the success that an individual has achieved in maintaining harmony between himself and his environment. The definition resulted from research on adjustment to work. Locke (1976), in his work on the nature and causes of job satisfaction, defined it as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (p. 130).

The preceding definitions imply that job satisfaction is a positive state. The research, however, has measured it on a continuum with the lower end of the continuum measuring negative feelings. A more comprehensive idea of job satisfaction is necessary. The work of Kalleberg (1977) on work values and job rewards was based on a definition of this concept that is broad, yet specific enough to guide empirical investigation. Job satisfaction was defined as "an overall affective orientation on the part of an individual toward work roles which they are presently occupying" (p. 126). This definition served as a guide in the present study.

There has been much interest throughout the literature in recent years concerning the topic of job satisfaction. Many studies and reviews in the areas of defining job satisfaction, detailing the components of this construct, and relating job satisfaction to other areas of human life have

been the result. Numerous writings also appeared on the need to study job satisfaction and the benefit that empirical studies can contribute to the field. It is these ideas that will be reviewed next.

Katzell and Yankelevich (1975) provided a global basis for the study of job satisfaction. It was stated

Concern with the satisfaction and quality of life of workers has been expressed over the last century by various social planners and reformers, and has been a formal objective of policy-makers and social scientists during the past 50 years or so. (p. 3)

This was used as the rationale for numerous studies of job satisfaction and productivity. The origin of the study of job satisfaction was in the social welfare realm rather than that of business or psychology. Along a similar vein, Lofquist and Dawis (1969) asserted that "many of the social problems of our time are intimately bound up with work" (p. 76). In a review of job satisfaction in the teaching profession, Schackmuth (1979) furthered this assumption and stated that, "The rationale for a study of work satisfaction is that work is a major factor in the lifestyles of Americans" (p. 229). These references were an example of the literature that provided a basic and timely rationale for the study of job satisfaction in general and for this present study in particular.

Both the fields of business and psychology provide support for the study of job satisfaction, though it is in a less overall manner than that previously described. The mental health of a person has been related to the satisfaction obtained in his/her occupational role and has been given as a justification for many of the studies concerning job satisfaction (Jamal, 1977, Kalleberg, 1977). Job satisfaction and productivity have also been linked and this relationship has prompted numerous studies of the



relationship particularly within the realm of industrial relations (Hulin and Smith, 1976; Katzell and Yankelovich, 1975; Metzner and Mann, 1976).

Most of the studies conducted in terms of job satisfaction have been concerned with the industrial blue-collar worker, the white-collar worker in business and industry, and clerical personnel. There have been, however, a few studies that have focused on the job satisfaction of teachers. One of the first of these studies was the research done by Peck in the 1930's. Peck (1936) was concerned with the adjustment to the teaching situation and found that this adjustment influenced job satisfaction and, incidentally, that women were more poorly adjusted than men.

There has been an increased interest in job satisfaction among educators in recent years. Chase (1951) pioneered work in attempting to identify the extrinsic factors related to job satisfaction in teaching. Kaufmann and Buffer (1978) investigated the job satisfaction among industrial arts teacher educators, and Sparks (1979) conducted an informal look at job satisfaction among a group of teachers in Michigan. This is not a comprehensive list of all research conducted on job satisfaction among teachers, but it is a fairly representative one. It does justify the need for further research in this area and provides a guide for the design of this current study.

Further justification for the study of job satisfaction among teachers was found in several of the critical reviews of the American educational system that have been prominent in recent years. The writings of William Glasser are a pertinent example of this body of literature. Glasser (1969) spoke of the many factors inherent in the traditional education system that contribute to poor performance among students. He also contended that

these same factors account for much of the lack of positive morale among the teaching professionals in the system. Morale and job satisfaction can be considered to have a cause-and-effect relationship, so the conditions in the schools that affect morale also influence job satisfaction. A study of job satisfaction among teachers indicates the morale within a school or a system and can signify the intrinsic circumstances that have a negative effect on both professionals and students.

Robert has reconfirmed the facts and theories that were introduced by Glasser and developed inservice programs to raise the morale in the schools. In his rationale for devoting time to improving professional attitude and teaching situations, the relationship between the job satisfaction of the teacher and the learning environment of the classroom was noted. Robert (1973) stated

efforts must be made to create environments that enable teachers to achieve professional satisfaction, which I believe is the key factor in improving education. Teachers who do not achieve self-worth suffer a type of loneliness and pain that may influence from thirty to one hundred and fifty students each day. (p 4)

The study of teacher job satisfaction can indicate areas of strength and weakness in the humane and professional aspects of the present educational system. This information, in turn, can be used to modify and improve the teaching-learning experience.

The majority of the studies concerned with job satisfaction, particularly the earlier ones, were solely concerned with the job satisfaction of males. The results of these studies have been applied to workers in general, but some researchers have stressed that the implications were valid only for males. An example was the work done by Bamundo (1977) on job satisfaction and life satisfaction. It was found that work and life

spheres were positively related and emphasized that this was true only in the case of males. A few studies have centered around women such as the work of Williamson and Karras (1970) that dealt with female clerical workers, their job satisfaction, and their rate of turnover. Recently, studies of job satisfaction have often included an interpretation of the results with a consideration to the sex of respondents. This was considered an improvement and a result of an increase of women at all levels of the job market.

Glenn, Taylor, and Weaver (1977) found that job satisfaction varied directly with age in females as well as males. It was emphasized that females should be considered in all aspects of the job satisfaction research. Hulin and Smith (1976) in a study of workers at all levels in industry, found that females were slightly less satisfied with their jobs than was their sample in general. Specifically it was found that although females tended to be more satisfied with pay than males, they were more dissatisfied with promotional opportunities. The authors were careful to insist that these sex differences may be the result of variables that consistently covary with sex rather than directly caused by the sex of the respondent. A study by London, Crandall, and Seals (1977) found that leisure satisfaction contributed more to the life style of females than job satisfaction with the opposite holding true for males. These studies have not been subjected to published replications or verification at this point, thus signifying the need for more studies of job satisfaction particularly aimed at female workers.

Studies of female home economists have provided data in the area of job satisfaction. A study by Confair (1976) of home economics administrators

and non-administrators has been previously noted. The researcher found that attainment of career goals was the major factor contributing to job satisfaction. The job satisfaction of the respondents was not related to whether they were in administrative positions, but rather to whether their job was in line with their goals. Attitudes that indicated the job satisfaction of vocational home economics teachers was the topic of a study conducted by Story (1967). Both intrinsic and extrinsic factors were found to be important indicators of job satisfaction. It was concluded that there existed a need to identify attitudes important to the job satisfaction of female teachers and to use this information to evaluate curriculum changes for home economics teaching programs. It could be expanded to include, as a rationale, the improvement of job conditions for inservice teachers guided by the results of job satisfaction research.

One of the main areas of concern in the literature dealing with job satisfaction has been the definition and isolation of the components that make up this construct. Job satisfaction can be thought of as consisting of two groups of factors namely intrinsic and extrinsic or hygienes and motivators (Williamson & Karras, 1970). Holdaway (1978) spoke of facet and overall satisfaction in his study of Canadian teachers. Several researchers have identified four to six components of job satisfaction through the use of factor analysis with the data from their studies (Ash, 1954; Kalleberg, 1977; Lynn & Vaden, 1979; Morse, 1953; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Wherry, 1956; Wherry, 1958). Several elements were common to many of the works listed above although they may be given different headings dependent upon the researcher. These common components included job rewards, the content of the jobs, supervision, coworkers, possibilities

for promotion, and working environment. These elements provided a framework for the investigation of job satisfaction in this study, and guided in the selection of instrumentation and the analysis of results.

Job satisfaction has been shown to be a correlate of fulfillment of needs in several research studies (Jamal, 1977; Kuhlen, 1976; Schaffer, 1954). Kuhlen (1976) enlarged on this relationship when he stated "achievement need discrepancies are consistently related to occupational satisfaction" (p. 3). It was further stated "Where needs and the perceived need-satisfaction potential of the occupation are more in harmony, it was anticipated that satisfaction with occupation would be rated higher" (p. 4). Although it has a broader context, occupational satisfaction still does influence job satisfaction to a great degree and the relationship with need fulfillment is similar. Jamal (1977) found the highest mental health scores for the subjects in his study who indicated that their needs were fulfilled to a great extent in both work and non-work areas. As previously discussed, work is a significant part of an adult's life, so it is imperative that needs be fulfilled in this parameter.

The needs that are necessary to be fulfilled in order for a worker to have a high level of job satisfaction are determined by the sex role preference of the worker. This relationship was discussed in detail in the previous chapter. There were, however, no studies that address this relationship. Studies have been undertaken that relate sex role to personality development and self-concept. These studies have also been discussed earlier in this chapter. Self-concept and personality in turn influence the particular needs of an individual. These related studies and the lack of specific studies involving sex role perception and need fulfillment

supported the rationale for a study including measures of both sex role preference and job satisfaction. The sex role preference of an individual influences his/her needs and the fulfillment of these needs is reflected in his/her job satisfaction. This was the premise that guided the present study.

### Instrumentation

There is much discussion in the literature concerning the measurement of both sex role preference or orientation and job satisfaction. In this section, the means of measuring sex role preference, and measures concerned with job satisfaction will be reviewed. The instrument selected for use with each variable will then be discussed, followed by a summary.

Masculinity and femininity were traditionally considered at the opposite ends of a continuum. It was thought that there was an inverse relationship between the two. The instrumentation utilized in sex role studies capitalized on the bipolar dimension of the construct. The instruments that were most frequently used included the Masculinity-Femininity scale of the California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1960) and the Mf scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (Hathaway & McKinley, 1942).

As the attitude toward sex roles was changing, the instrumentation utilized in the research was revised. The most common measure of sex role orientation currently used is the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974). The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) treats masculinity and femininity as two independent dimensions. This permits a subject to be characterized as masculine, feminine or androgynous, the latter being a combination of masculine and feminine or equalitarian. This instrument has witnessed a

great deal of popularity among social science researchers, but it is currently subject to criticism from many experts in the field. Statistical problems related to inference are a methodological concern because of the use of a large number of t-tests. The construct validity of the instrument is also questioned as the argument continues as to whether the traits designated by Bem as masculine and feminine are indeed really that (Pedhazur & Tetenbaun, 1979). The debate has not been settled, but its presence may affect the use of the BSRI for some time.

The instruments that have been discussed above measure sex role orientation which is a psychological construct. In contrast to that, Scanzoni (1975) has developed a measure of sex role attitude or preference. This instrument is different from those previously mentioned because it specifically measures a respondent's attitude toward the sex role of women. The questions are concerned with the traditional versus equalitarian view of women's role and the scores are placed on a continuum from sex role modern (equalitarian) to sex role traditional. The instrument has been used by its developer in a number of studies concerned with fertility patterns and working women (Scanzoni, 1975, 1978). It has been used by others in this capacity and also in longitudinal studies which attempted to document the changing attitude toward women's roles (Mason, Czajka, & Arber, 1976).

The Measure of Sex Role Preference developed by Scanzoni (1975) was selected for use in this study for several reasons. The instrument measures sex role preference rather than orientation, and the researcher felt that this would provide data more pertinent to the study. It is the attitude of teachers that influences the students and the curriculum, and

this instrument was designed to measure attitude. The format of the measure and the style of the questions that it includes were considered by the researcher to be appropriate for the population under study. The controversy concerning other sex role measures was also considered. The use of the BSRI might have led to speculation over the results of the study so its use was not considered.

The research concerned with the measurement of job satisfaction also contained several instruments for the measure of this attitude. Many studies employed a single question pertaining to job satisfaction, namely, "how do you feel about the job you have now?" (Andrisani, 1978; Borjas, 1979; Glenn, Taylor, & Weaver, 1977). The response to this question was on a four-point scale from "like it very much" to "dislike it very much". A modification of this one question measure was employed by Kuhlen in a study of male and female teachers (1976). Two questions were used to rate job satisfaction. The first was a rating of occupation and the second was a rating of present position. There has been discussion in the literature concerning the suitability of such global questions as measures of job satisfaction. They are open to extreme subjective interpretation by respondents, and the data obtained are considered tenuous. Kalleberg (1977) has summarized the debate with the suggestion that "multiple-item indicators of job satisfaction are preferred over single item indicators" (p. 143).

Other measures of job satisfaction were concerned with only single facets of the concept. Examples of these facet-specific instruments were the Supervisory Behavior Description developed by Fleishman (1957), and the Group Morale Scale designed by Goldman (1958). Still other measures



of job satisfaction have been developed for specific occupations such as the Need Fulfillment Questionnaire for Management (Porter, 1962) and the Attitudes of Scientists in Organizations (Pelz & Andrews, 1966). These instruments are suitable for a research question only if they measure the specific facet of job satisfaction under study or if they apply to the population under investigation. In either case, the generalizability of the results of the study or the comparison to other job satisfaction studies is limited.

The Job Description Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) is an instrument that measures job satisfaction through the areas of pay, promotion, supervision, type of work, and the people on the job. The measure may be used to obtain an overall assessment of job satisfaction, while it also yields separate scores in each of the five areas. The instrument requests the respondents to describe their jobs rather than their feelings about them. In response to the validity of this approach, Robinson, Athanasiou, and Head (1969) in a review of the instrument stated, "It seems quite evident from the numerous studies with the JDI that one's perception of his job is highly colored by his satisfaction with it" (p. 105).

The JDI has been utilized by researchers in numerous studies involving various populations. The developers of the instrument have employed the measure in a satisfactory manner with students, farmers, and employees in a large bank (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Examples of other uses of the JDI included the study by Lynn and Vaden (1979) of public administrators and the research on female clerical workers and job turnover by Hulin (1966).

The JDI was selected for use in this study primarily because of its reliability in numerous other research settings. It provided the possibility for comparison and validation of the results with other investigations. The selection of this instrument was also based on the fact that a measure of overall satisfaction would be available as well as five measures of specific areas of job satisfaction. The data analysis planned made use of each of these scores.

The measurement of the variables of sex role preference and job satisfaction has warranted much discussion in the literature related to each of the variables. In the case of sex role preference, the instrumentation has developed and changed in accordance with prevailing theory, whereas the measures of job satisfaction have reflected an increased comprehension and simplicity. The Measure of Sex Role Preference and the Job Description Index were selected for use in this study because of their suitability to the research question and to the research population.

#### Summary

The review of the literature focused on sex roles and job satisfaction and the instrumentation related to each. A summary of the literature in each area with implications for this study was particularly noted. The discussion of sex roles began with a definition of the concept. The development of sex roles and their influence on adult behavior was reviewed next, and the changing perception of these roles in our society was also presented. The review of job satisfaction also began with a definition of the concept. This was followed by material related to the need to study job satisfaction, a detailing of its components, and its relation to other areas of human life.

A review of instrumentation was presented that included both the measures of sex role preference and those related to job satisfaction. The variety of instruments available to measure each concept was presented. The instruments selected for inclusion in this study were identified along with the reasons for their selection.

The major supporting points for this study from the literature were the need to study sex roles outside of the context of the family, and the need to study job satisfaction of women in general and of female teachers in particular. A link between the two through needs definition and fulfillment also supplied rationale for this study.

### CHAPTER III

#### DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the sex role preference and the job satisfaction of secondary home economics teachers and the relationship between the two variables. A descriptive study utilizing a mail survey approach was considered by the researcher to be most appropriate for the problem. This chapter presents information concerning the population and sample, the instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis.

#### Population and Sample

The target population was defined as secondary home economics teachers, and the accessible population was those secondary teachers employed in a home economics position in the public secondary schools within the state of North Carolina during 1979-80. The accessible population was thus defined by the researcher in order to obtain an accurate frame from which to draw the sample. It was hoped that the home economics teachers in North Carolina would resemble those throughout the United States in the attitudes to be measured; however, the limitation of the population will be considered in the discussion of the results and their implications.

A list of the home economics teachers within the state was obtained from the Division of Vocational Education, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction. The listing included 1,032 teachers along with their school addresses and an enumeration of any occupational courses that they were teaching. The information concerning the occupational courses was not used in this study.

A pilot study was conducted in December, 1979, to obtain a probable variance of scores among home economics teachers on the measures that were selected for possible inclusion in the final study. The 15 participants in the pilot study were graduate students at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro or community residents of Greensboro. Each participant had taught home economics but would not be a part of the target population on the final study since she was not currently employed in a North Carolina public school in a home economics teaching position. The three instruments dealing with sex role preference, job satisfaction, and professional commitment were administered. The measures of job satisfaction and professional commitment that were included in the pilot were not selected for inclusion in the final study, so the scores on the measure of sex role preference were used to obtain the variance needed to compute sample size. Utilizing this estimated variance, considering that the sample size was randomly drawn, and assuming a rate of return in the vicinity of 65% (Dillman, 1978), a sample size of 200 was calculated to be adequate to substantiate the findings.

To obtain the required sample size, each teacher on the listing was assigned a number and a table of random numbers was consulted and names were selected until the required sample size was reached. The simple random selection of 200 home economics teachers provided the sample for the data collection procedures used in this study.

#### Instrumentation

The questionnaire used in this study included the Measure of Sex Role Preference (Scanzoni, 1975), the Job Description Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), and six questions designed to obtain specific demographic

information (Appendix A). Each of the three components will be discussed in detail in the following section.

The Measure of Sex Role Preference (MSRP) was developed by Scanzoni (1975) for a study to measure sex role attitude changes arising from the feminist movement. The study was conducted in 1971 and involved 3,000 married men and women ranging in ages from 18 to 44. The instrument consisted of 28 questions, and respondents were asked to indicate their position on each item on a five-point Likert scale. The possible responses were: (1) Strongly Agree, (2) Agree, (3) Mixed Feelings; (4) Disagree, and (5) Strongly Disagree.

The questions included 12 items relating to the Position of Wife, 9 items relating to the Position of Husband-Father, and 7 items relating to the Position of Mother. These three categories were further divided into seven role indices. A discussion of the items in each category and role index follows.

#### Position of Wife

1. Traditional-Wife Role (TW) - This role index contains eight items related to: responsibility for caring for husband and children; equal pay and promotion opportunities in the work setting for men and women; the physical, mental, and emotional nature of women as related to work and career; and the reason for wives to work. The questions are phrased so that a positive response is related to a traditional or differentiated attitude toward sex roles.

2. Wife Self-Actualization (SA) - This index contains four items related to work and career, and the importance of available day care centers and nursery schools. The questions are phrased so that a positive response is related to a modern or undifferentiated attitude toward sex roles.

#### Position of Husband-Father

1. Problematic Husband Alterations (PHA) - This index contains five items related to husbands' response to wives working, and women as supervisors in the work setting. The questions are phrased so that a positive response is related to a modern or undifferentiated attitude toward sex roles.
2. Institutionalized Equality (IE) - This index contains two items related to husband's responsibility in household maintenance and child care. The questions are phrased so that a positive response is related to a modern or undifferentiated attitude toward sex roles.
3. Traditional Husband Role (TH) - This index contains two items related to the husband as head of the family, and the importance of a husband's job responsibilities. The questions are phrased so that a positive response is related to a traditional or differentiated attitude toward sex roles.

#### Position of Mother

1. Religious-Legitimation-of-Mother Role (RLM) - This index contains two items related to motherhood as a special calling

from God, and marriage and family as established by God.

The questions are phrased so that a positive response is related to a traditional or differentiated attitude toward sex roles.

2. Traditional-Mother Role (TM) - This index contains five items related to the affect of a mother's working on her children, the importance of children to a marriage, and a difference in attitudes toward sons and toward daughters. Three of the questions are phrased so that a positive response is related to a traditional or differentiated attitude toward sex roles, and two questions are positive indications of the modern or undifferentiated attitude.

A total score was obtained by summing the numbers related to the response. The items phrased in the modern direction were scored in the opposite direction, i.e., Strongly Agree - 5, Agree - 4, etc. The scores were placed on a continuum with the higher scores indicating a preference for modern or undifferentiated sex roles and the lower scores indicating a preference for traditional or differentiated roles. The seven role indices may be scored separately; however, that was not done in this study.

The Job Description Index (JDI) was developed, field tested, and refined by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin as part of the Cornell Studies of Satisfaction begun in 1959. It has merited considerable use and recommendation since its development. It measures job satisfaction in the areas of pay, promotion, supervision, type of work, and coworkers. The instrument consisted of 72 items divided among the five subscales. Eighteen items referred to work, nine items referred to pay, eighteen items referred to



supervision, nine items referred to promotion, and eighteen items referred to co-workers. The items on each subscale were obtained through factor analyses of the results of several field tests of various modifications of the instrument.

Each subscale consists of a list of adjectives or descriptive phrases. The verbal level of the items is quite low and does not require the respondent to understand complicated abstractions. The respondents were requested to indicate their perception of the item as it related to their job by circling YES if the item described their job and NO if it did not. A question mark (?) was available for the respondents to circle if they could not decide about the relevance of an item to their job. The YES responses were scored 3, the question mark (?) responses were scored 1, and the NO responses were scored 0 for the questions that positively related to job satisfaction, and the scoring was reversed for the negative items. A total score was obtained with higher scores indicating greater job satisfaction. Scores for each of the subscales could be calculated in a similar manner; thereby providing data related to specific areas of job satisfaction.

The reliability and validity of the instrument have been documented. Robinson, Athanasiou, and Head (1969) referring to the JDI reported that "corrected split-half internal consistence coefficients are reported to exceed .80 for each of the scales" (p. 105). The developers of the JDI attempted to establish the stability over time estimate of reliability, but have been hampered by the fact that job satisfaction can be affected by changes in the situation (Smith et al., 1969). Test-retest data were obtained using the JDI with 45 employees in a farmer's cooperative after a three-year interval. Values of .45 to .75 were obtained and the low

coefficients were probably due to major changes in the farmer's cooperative rather than an indication of the reliability of the instrument.

The developers of the JDI have also attempted to establish the convergent and discriminant validity of the instrument. In an initial field testing of the instrument with a sample of 166 college students who held full-time jobs, Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) found that "the results also show reasonably adequate convergent validity for most of the methods of measurement including the final version of the JDI" (p. 46). In the same study, the degree of discriminating validity exceeded .50.

Six questions designed to obtain demographic information were also included in the survey. In the question concerning age, the respondent was requested to record his/her age in years. The item concerning years of teaching requested the respondent to record his/her teaching experience in number of years. In the item dealing with education, the respondent was requested to check the highest degree obtained from a listing that included Bachelor, Master, Specialist, Doctor. The item that dealt with location directed the respondent to check the area that best described the location of his/her school from a listing that included urban, rural, suburban, and small town. Marital status was determined by requesting the respondent to select from the following categorizations: single, married, separated, divorced, and widowed. The respondent was also requested to indicate whether or not he/she was a parent by circling YES or NO.

#### Data Collection

The data collection procedures for this study were implemented in April and May of 1980. A mail survey was sent to the teachers selected for the sample which included a cover letter, the questionnaire as described

previously, and a return envelope stamped and addressed to the researcher. The cover letter included a statement of the problem that prompted the study, an explanation of the study, an appeal for participation, a promise of confidentiality, and a statement of appreciation (Appendix B).

The questionnaire was number coded to aid in follow-up procedures. This was explained in the cover letter along with the promise of anonymity. Two weeks after the original mailing, a follow-up letter was sent to those teachers who had not returned the questionnaire (Appendix C). The message reminded the teachers of the study and its purpose and the importance of the individual's response. An appeal for the return of the questionnaire was also included. A second follow-up was conducted two weeks later and it involved sending a second copy of the survey instrument with a letter of appeal for response to those teachers who had not yet returned their questionnaire. A total of 170 surveys were returned, a response rate of 85%. Of the total, 164 were complete and 168 contained sufficient data to be included in the analysis. The data collection procedures were concluded by late June 1980.

### Data Analysis

The data obtained from the questionnaires were keypunched onto computer cards and the data analysis was done with the help of the computer. Statistical analysis was used to describe the following relationships:

1. Sex role preference and overall job satisfaction;
2. Sex role preference and each of the five subscales (work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers) of job satisfaction;
3. Each demographic variable (age, years of teaching, education,

marital and parental status, and location) and sex role preference;

4. Each demographic variable and job satisfaction.

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data, and correlation, regression and analysis of variance techniques were used to test for relationships. A 0.01 level of significance was used throughout the study.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the sex role preference and job satisfaction of secondary home economics teachers. A further purpose was to identify whether or not there was any relationship between sex role preference and job satisfaction. A random sample of 200 home economics teachers who were currently employed in North Carolina public schools was drawn, and these teachers were included in the research survey. Each teacher selected was sent a questionnaire that included measures of the variables under consideration. A total of 170 surveys were returned. Of that total, 164 were complete and 168 contained sufficient data to be included in the analysis.

The findings are presented first in a descriptive form and then each hypothesis is considered. Data used to support the hypotheses are presented along with the statistical techniques and levels of significance employed to test the results. A summary of the results will be presented at the conclusion of this chapter.

#### Survey Data

The following data were available from the questionnaires completed by each respondent:

1. Individual scores on the Measure of Sex Role Preference (MSRP);
2. Individual scores of the Job Description Index (JDI);

3. Individual scores on the components of job satisfaction - work, pay, supervision, co-workers, and promotion;
4. Demographic data including age of the respondents, years of teaching experience, level of education, marital status, parental status, and location of school.

Each data group was given a variable name to simplify the analysis. These names along with a description of the variable are given below.

SEXROLE - Scores from the MSRP

JOBSAT - Scores from the JDI

WORK - Scores from the Work Component of the JDI

PAY - Scores from the Pay component of the JDI

SUPERVIS - Scores from the Supervision component of the JDI

COWORKER - Scores from the Coworker component of the JDI

PROMOT - Scores from the Promotion component of the JDI

AGE - Age of the respondent in years

YRSTCGH - Teaching experience of the respondent in years

DEGREE - Highest degree obtained by the respondent

MARITAL - Marital status of the respondent

PARENT - Parental status of the respondent

LOCAT - Location of the school in which the respondent was employed

These variable names will be used when describing the data throughout the remainder of the discussion of this study.

#### Description of the Data

The data were first examined using descriptive statistics. The first variable to be discussed is SEXROLE. The mean for the 168 responses to

the MSRP was 101.22 (Table 1). The range was 48 to 132 which was close to the range of 28-140 that was possible on the measure. The standard deviation was 13.33, and when two standard deviations were added to the mean in each direction, the resulting confidence intervals indicated a wide distribution. The lower end of the confidence limit was approximately 46 points above the lowest possible score, while the upper limit of the confidence interval was approximately 12 points below the highest possible score. The direction here was toward the higher end of the scale which signified an undifferentiated sex role attitude. This can be interpreted to mean that the home economics teachers tended to be sex role equalitarian as a group.

TABLE 1

Number of Respondents, Mean, and Range of Scores for the Variables  
SEXROLE and JOBSAT and the Components of Job Satisfaction

Variable	<u>n</u>	<u><math>\bar{x}</math></u>	Minimum		Maximum	
			Actual	Possible	Actual	Possible
SEXROLE	168	101.22	48	28	132	140
JOBSAT	168	127.58	46	0	197	213
WORK	168	35.61	6	0	51	54
PAY	168	7.56	0	0	21	27
SUPERVIS	166	39.62	0	0	54	54
COWORKER	164	40.80	0	0	54	54
PROMOT	168	5.43	0	0	27	27

The second variable under consideration was JOBSAT. The 168 respondents had a mean of 127.58 on the scores from the JDI, and a range of 46 to 197 from a possible range of 0-213 (Table 1). The standard deviation was 29.11 and a confidence interval was again computed here. Table 2 shows that the confidence interval was wide, but it was grouped toward the higher end of the possible range of scores for the JDI. The mean is also above the median of possible scores by 20 points. This can be interpreted to mean that the home economics teachers in the survey tended toward satisfaction with their jobs rather than toward dissatisfaction.

TABLE 2

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Confidence Interval for the Variables  
SEXROLE and JOBSAT and the Components of Job Satisfaction

Variable	$\bar{x}$	$s$	95% Confidence Interval
SEXROLE	101.22	13.33	74.56 to 127.88
JOBSAT	127.58	29.11	69.36 to 185.80
WORK	35.60	8.72	18.16 to 53.04
PAY	7.56	5.27	- 2.98 to 18.10
SUPERVIS	39.62	12.84	13.94 to 65.30
COWORKER	40.80	12.98	14.84 to 66.76
PROMOT	5.43	4.67	- 3.91 to 14.77

The mean score and the range of scores obtained in this study for the five components of job satisfaction are indicated in Table 1. The



group mean was above the median of possible scores on the variables WORK, SUPERVISION, and COWORKER, but considerably below the median of possible scores on the variables PAY and PROMOTION. Each variable, however, had a wide range of scores, the widest possible range in two of the cases, so it was not possible to draw a conclusion about these variables other than the group of home economics teachers was widely differing in its attitudes in these areas. Table 2 shows a confidence interval for each of these variables that is two standard deviations above and below the mean. The confidence intervals in the case of the variables WORK, SUPERVIS, and COWORKER, were almost as wide as the range; however, they tended to be toward the upper end of the range. The confidence intervals for the variables PAY and PROMOT were not as wide and they were negative at their lower limit. It can be concluded that the home economics teachers in this study were more satisfied with the work, supervision, and coworker components of their teaching situation than with the pay or the possibilities for promotion.

The range of the respondents on the age variable was 22 to 65 and the mean was 41.05. This signified that the sample included teachers from every cohort group that could be represented. The mean for YRSTCHG was 16.55 with a range of 1 to 39. This again showed that this research study included teachers from all levels of experience.

Table 3 shows the respondents in groups according to the highest degree that they have obtained. The majority of teachers, 82.14% held Bachelor's degrees only. There were no teachers with Doctorate degrees and only two who held a Specialist's degree or certificate. The remainder of the teachers, 16.67% held Master's degrees. This was not an

TABLE 3  
 Number of Respondents and Percentage of Total  
 for Each Level of the Variables  
 DEGREE, MARITAL, PARENT, and LOCAT

Variable	<u>n</u>	%
DEGREE		
Bachelor	138	82.14
Master	28	16.67
Specialist	2	1.2
Doctor	0	0
Other	0	0
MARITAL		
Single	14	8.33
Married	122	72.62
Widowed	12	7.14
Separated	4	2.38
Divorced	16	9.52
PARENT		
Parent	124	73.81
Childless	44	26.20
LOCAT		
Urban	30	17.86
Rural	62	36.90
Suburban	16	9.52
Small Town	60	35.71

even distribution by level of degree, but perhaps it is typical of the educational levels of home economics teachers in the public schools.

The marital status of the respondents is also shown in Table 3. The majority of teachers, 72.62%, were married. The next largest group were those who were single, 8.33%. The remainder were widowed, separated, or divorced with the group of separated teachers being the smallest, 2.38%. The majority of the teachers in the sample were parents, 73.81%, and were employed at a school that was located either in a rural area or in a small town. A total of 72.61% of the teachers were employed in either of these locations. Only 46 teachers or 27.38% of the respondents were employed in an urban or suburban area.

The data obtained in this research survey were rather evenly distributed along the possible range for each variable. The sex role attitudes of the respondents encompassed a wide range from differentiated to undifferentiated. The teachers in the study expressed more satisfaction with their jobs than dissatisfaction and were more satisfied with the work, co-worker, and supervision components of their teaching situation than with the pay or promotion.

The respondents included teachers from every cohort group and with varying levels of experience. The majority of the teachers held Bachelor's degrees with a smaller percentage holding Master's degrees. Most of the teachers were married and most were parents. The majority of the teachers were employed in schools that were located in rural areas or small towns with fewer teachers in schools that were in urban or suburban areas.

### Test of Hypotheses

In this section, each hypothesis is considered individually with the data relevant to it enumerated and examined, statistical procedures discussed, and results analyzed. A summary of the conclusions drawn about the hypotheses is given at the end of this section.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

The data used as evidence to test the first hypothesis were the scores on the Measure of Sex Role Preference (MSRP) and the scores on the Job Description Index (JDI). An item analysis of the data on each of these measures showed that the responses were not normally distributed, so it was necessary to utilize non-parametric statistical techniques. Both the Spearman correlation coefficient and the Kendall Tau correlation coefficient were calculated. Results were a coefficient of  $-.11$  ( $p = .15$ ) for the Spearman analysis and  $-.07$  ( $p = .15$ ) using the Kendall Tau procedure. The inverse relationship indicated that a person with a more undifferentiated or equalitarian view of sex roles would have a lower sense of satisfaction with his/her job as a home economics teacher than a person with differentiated or traditional sex role attitudes. This relationship, however, was not significant at the .01 level selected for use in this study. Hypothesis 1, therefore, was not rejected.

The JDI was divided into five subscales and it was possible to correlate the scores of each subscale with the scores on the MSRP. The Spearman coefficient for each of these correlations is given in Table 4.

Table 4  
Correlation Coefficients for the Components of  
Job Satisfaction and the Variables  
SEXROLE, AGE, and YRSTCHG

Variable	WORK	PAY	SUPERVIS	COWORKER	PROMOT
SEXROLE					
$r_s$	0.03801	0.02103	-0.11211	0.03724	-0.18945
$p$	0.6248	0.7868	0.1504	0.6359	0.0139
AGE					
$r_s$	0.07172	-0.06402	0.08688	0.14940	0.00679
$p$	0.3570	0.4111	0.2672	0.0570	0.9306
YRSTCHG					
$r_s$	0.13736	-0.10663	0.10242	0.12625	0.02081
$p$	0.0767	0.1702	0.1905	0.1083	0.7895

The strongest correlation was between SEXROLE and PROMOT. The relationship again was inverse indicating that respondents who held more equalitarian sex role attitudes were less satisfied with the possibilities for promotion in their job as secondary home economics teachers than those with more traditional sex role views. This correlation has a  $p$ -value of 0.0139, but it was rejected at the designated 0.01 level.

The relationship between SEXROLE and SUPERVIS (adequacy of supervision) had an inverse but non-significant correlation. In addition, no significant relationships occurred among SEXROLE and the other components of JOBSAT, i.e., WORK, PAY, and COWORKER. Thus, the hypothesis

that there was no significant relationship between sex role preference and any of the components of job satisfaction was not rejected.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between age and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

The data used as evidence to test the second hypothesis were the scores on the MSRP and the age recorded by the respondents in the demographic section of the questionnaire. The Spearman correlation coefficient and the Kendall Tau coefficient were calculated. A significant inverse relationship was noted with a Spearman coefficient of -0.29 and a corresponding p-value of 0.0001. Thus, the older respondents held more traditional or differentiated sex role views and the younger respondents tended toward more equalitarian or undifferentiated sex role attitudes. On the strength of this evidence, Hypothesis 2 was rejected. There was a significant inverse relationship between age and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between age and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

The data used as evidence to test the third hypothesis were the scores on the JDI and the age recorded by the respondents in the demographic section of the questionnaire. Results of the Spearman and the Kendall Tau procedures indicated a positive relationship with a p-value of approximately 0.1 in each test. Since this did not meet the 0.01 significance level that was previously determined, the third hypothesis

was not rejected. There was no significant relationship between age and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

The variable AGE was also correlated with each of the five components of job satisfaction, none of which resulted in significant relationships. The Spearman coefficients and the corresponding p-values for each of these relationships appear in Table 4. There was a positive relationship between AGE and four of the subscale variables - namely, WORK, SUPERVIS, COWORKER, and PROMOT. None of these correlations, however, met the test of significance at the 0.01 level. An inverse relationship was noted between AGE and PAY with a Spearman coefficient of -0.06402 and a corresponding p-value of 0.4111. This correlation also failed to meet the 0.01 significance level. Hypothesis 3, therefore, was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no significant relationship between age and any of the components of job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between years of teaching and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

The data used as evidence to test the fourth hypothesis were the scores on the MSRP and the number of years of teaching experience that the respondent had indicated in the demographic section of the questionnaire. The Spearman correlation coefficient and the Kendall Tau correlation coefficient were calculated at -0.25561 and -0.17330 respectively. A significant inverse relationship was noted in both tests with p-values

of 0.009 and 0.0012. As the years of teaching experience increased, the scores on the MSRP decreased. This was interpreted to mean that the respondents with the greater number of years of teaching experience were more traditional or differentiated in their sex role views while the teachers with fewer years of experience tended to be more equalitarian or undifferentiated in their sex role attitudes. On the strength of this evidence, Hypothesis 4 was rejected. There was a significant inverse relationship between years of teaching experience and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant relationship between years of teaching and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

The data used as evidence to test the fifth hypothesis were the scores on the JDI and the number of years of teaching experience that the respondents had indicated in the demographic section of the questionnaire. The Spearman correlation coefficient and the Kendall Tau Correlation coefficient were calculated. A positive relationship (.12 and .09 respectively) was noted with a p-value of approximately 0.1 for each test, but this did not meet the 0.01 significance level that was previously determined. This hypothesis, therefore, was not rejected. There was no significant relationship between years of teaching and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

The variable YRSTCGH was also correlated with each of the five components of job satisfaction. The Spearman correlation coefficients and the corresponding p-values for each of these relationships appear in Table 4. Although there was a positive relationship between YRSTCGH



and four of the subscale variables - namely, WORK, SUPERVIS, COWORKER, and PROMOT - these correlations did not meet the 0.01 significance level designated for this study. An inverse relationship existed between YRSTCGH and PAY, but again it was not significant. It was concluded that there was no significant relationship between years of teaching experience and any of the components of job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant relationship between level of education and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

The data used as evidence to test the sixth hypothesis were the scores on the MSRP and the level of education that the respondents indicated in the demographic section of the questionnaire. The respondents were grouped according to their level of education and analysis of variance was performed to assess the differences among the groups. The results are shown in Table 5. The resulting F value of 3.27 had a significance level of 0.0404. This did not meet the determined level of significance for this study and the sixth hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant relationship between level of education and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

The data used as evidence to test the seventh hypothesis were the scores on the JDI and the level of education that the respondents indicated in the demographic section of the questionnaire. The respondents were grouped according to the level of education that they had attained

Table 5  
 Analysis of Variance for the Variables  
 DEGREE, MARITAL, PARENT, and LOCAT

Variables	df	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
DEGREE			
SEXROLE	2,165	3.27	0.0404
JOBSAT	2,165	7.47	0.0008*
MARITAL			
SEXROLE	4,163	1.39	0.2392
JOBSAT	4,163	1.29	0.2743
PARENT			
SEXROLE	1,166	0.31	0.5792
JOBSAT	1,166	0.08	0.7810
LOCAT			
SEXROLE	3,164	1.77	0.1528
JOBSAT	3,164	0.32	0.8100

\*Significant at the 0.01 level.

and the analysis of variance technique was utilized to determine the differences among the groups. The results are shown in Table 5. The F-value of 7.47 had a p-value equal to 0.0008; hypothesis 7, therefore, was rejected. There was a significant relationship between level of education and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

A post hoc analysis was planned to determine the nature of the difference among the groups using the group means that appear in Table 6. It was noted that Group 3, those teachers who held Specialist certificates or degrees, had only two members, so it was eliminated from the analysis at this point. A t-test was performed to determine whether or not there was a difference between the two remaining groups. The resulting t-value of 3.8867 was significant at the 0.0001 level. A scan of the mean values indicated that the first group scored higher on the JDI than the second group. It was concluded that those home economics teachers holding Bachelor's degrees only were more satisfied with their jobs than those holding Master's degrees.

The variable DEGREE was also examined in relation to each of the five components of job satisfaction. DEGREE Group 3 was eliminated from this analysis because of its small size. The resulting t-values and their corresponding levels of significance are shown in Table 6. The relationships between DEGREE and PAY, between DEGREE and WORK, and between DEGREE and PROMOT were not termed significant. The relationship between DEGREE and SUPERVIS was significant ( $p = 0.0037$ ) as was the relationship between DEGREE and COWORKERS ( $p = .0053$ ). A check of the means showed that, in both cases, the teachers with Bachelor's degrees only were more satisfied with the supervision and the colleague aspects of their jobs than those with Master's degrees.

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant relationship between marital status and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

Table 6  
t-Values and Levels of Significance for the Variable  
 JOBSAT and Components of JOBSAT by DEGREE

Variable	$\bar{x}$	df	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
JOBSAT		2,165	3.8867	0.0001*
Bachelor	131.456			
Master	109.143			
WORK		2,165	2.2151	0.0281
Bachelor	36.174			
Master	32.214			
PAY		2,165	0.8231	0.4117
Bachelor	7.645			
Master	6.750			
SUPERVIS		2,165	2.9421	0.0037*
Bachelor	40.804			
Master	33.037			
COWORKER		2,165	2.8293	0.0053*
Bachelor	42.000			
Master	34.536			
PROMOT		2,165	2.0422	0.0427
Bachelor	5.746			
Master	3.785			

\*Significant at the 0.01 level.

The data used as evidence to test the eighth hypothesis were the scores on the MSRP and the marital status that the respondents indicated in the demographic section of the questionnaire. The respondents were grouped according to their marital status and analysis of variance was utilized to assess the differences among the groups. The results are shown in Table 5. Since the  $F$ -value obtained for this test had a  $p$  of 0.2392, hypothesis 8 was not rejected.

In addition to investigating the relationship between SEXROLE and MARITAL, the relationship of the variable PARENT to SEXROLE was examined. The data concerning the variable PARENT were obtained from the demographic section of the questionnaire where the respondent indicated whether or not he/she was a parent. Analysis of variance was utilized and the results yielded an  $F$ -value of 0.31 with a significance level of 0.5792 (Table 5) thus indicating no significant relationship between PARENT and SEXROLE.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant relationship between marital status and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

The data used as evidence to test the ninth hypothesis were the scores on the JDI and the marital status that the respondents indicated in the demographic section of the questionnaire. The respondents were grouped according to their marital status and the analysis of variance technique was utilized to assess the differences among the groups. There were no significant differences among the groups (Table 5).

The variable PARENT was also examined in relation to JOBSAT. The results are shown in Table 5, and the relationship was not significant at the 0.01 level.

The variables MARITAL and PARENT were both analyzed in relation to each of the five components of job satisfaction. There were no significant relationships among these variables.

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant relationship between location of school and sex role preference among secondary home economics teachers.

The data used as evidence to test the tenth hypothesis were the scores on the MSRP and the geographic location of the school in which the respondent was currently employed. The latter information was obtained from the demographic section of the questionnaire where the respondent indicated the location of his/her school. The respondents were grouped according to the type of location of their school and analysis of variance was utilized to assess the difference among the groups. Since the results were not significant, hypothesis 10 was not rejected (Table 5).

Hypothesis 11: There is no significant relationship between location of school and job satisfaction among secondary home economics teachers.

The data used as evidence to support the eleventh hypothesis were the scores on the JDI and the geographic location their school that the respondents indicated in the demographic section of the questionnaire. The respondents were grouped according to the type of location of the

school in which they were employed and analysis of variance was utilized to assess the difference among the groups. The  $F$ -value of 0.32 was small and it had a relatively high significance level, 0.81; therefore, hypothesis 11 was not rejected.

The variable LOCAT was also analyzed in relation to each of the five components of job satisfaction. There were no significant relationships among these variables.

### Summary

Two hundred questionnaires were sent to a random sample of home economics teachers employed in North Carolina public schools. One hundred seventy surveys were returned and 168 contained sufficient data to be included in this study.

The mean and range on the scores of the MSRP showed that the home economics teachers tended to be more sex role modern than traditional as a group. The scores on the JDI showed that the teachers were more satisfied with their jobs than dissatisfied. A review of the subscales that represented the components of job satisfaction indicated that the teachers were more satisfied with the work, co-worker, and supervision components of their jobs and they were less satisfied with the pay and the possibility for promotion.

The sample represented teachers from all cohort groups and with varying levels of experience. The majority of the teachers were married and were parents. There were more teachers that held Bachelor's degrees only than held Master's or Specialist's degrees. The majority of the teachers were employed in schools that were located in rural areas or in small towns rather than in urban or suburban areas.

Table 7 shows the results of the hypotheses tested in this study. The majority of the hypotheses were not rejected. The exceptions showed that the sex role preference of the home economics teachers became more traditional or differentiated as the age and years of teaching experience increased. The data showed that those teachers with Master's degrees were less satisfied with their jobs than those who held Bachelor's degrees only.

Table 7  
Results of Hypothesis Testing With  
the Data Obtained in this Study

Hypothesis	Variable	Status
1	JOB SAT; SEXROLE	Not Rejected
2	AGE; SEXROLE	Rejected
3	AGE; JOB SAT	Not Rejected
4	YRSTCGH; SEXROLE	Rejected
5	YRSTCGH; JOB SAT	Not Rejected
6	DEGREE; SEXROLE	Not Rejected
7	DEGREE; JOB SAT	Rejected
8	MARITAL; SEXROLE	Not Rejected
9	MARITAL; JOB SAT	Not Rejected
10	LOCAT; SEXROLE	Not Rejected
11	LOCAT; JOB SAT	Not Rejected



### Discussion and Conclusions

There were several conclusions that could be drawn on the basis of the data and results of this research study. These conclusions concerned the main hypothesis that related sex role preference to job satisfaction as well as the hypotheses that dealt with the impact of the independent demographic variables on each of the two main variables.

The sex role preference of the home economics teachers was not significantly related to their job satisfaction, but an inverse relationship was evident. Even though the relationship was not significant, it is important to note. The field of home economics encompasses the family and includes the area of adult sex role development. Those teachers who were more equalitarian were less satisfied with their job of teaching home economics. This was due, perhaps, to the nature of home economics in the secondary school. The emphasis in the area may be more traditional in focus and content. This can be used as an indicator that there is a need to examine the curriculum in home economics and see that undifferentiated sex role viewpoints are included. Society is moving in the equalitarian sex role direction and this has been shown to be beneficial in both a personal and an economic sense. Home economics, therefore, must move to be a force in assisting students to examine sex roles within this light. There are implications for teacher education here also in the sense that students who desire to teach home economics and are more equalitarian in their sex role attitudes must be helped to find satisfaction in the field of home economics education.

It is also possible that the more equalitarian teachers may be less satisfied with their teaching situation than more traditionally oriented

teachers because of the nature of the teaching situation and of the schools rather than because of the nature of the field of home economics. Teaching at the secondary and elementary levels has been a profession largely composed of women and, because of this, the nature of the job may not be as satisfying to those who are more undifferentiated in their views of the roles of men and women. This calls for an examination of the school setting in terms of sex bias and opportunities for students and teachers of both sexes. Here again, general teacher education must prepare less traditional students for a satisfying career as secondary school teachers by helping them to see the inherent sex bias in the schools and equipping them with skills to cope and also to effect change.

The sex role preference of the home economics teachers became more traditional or differentiated as the age and the years of teaching experience increased. These findings are similar to those of Scanzoni (1975, 1978) discussed previously. The older secondary home economics teachers held traditional sex role views. Society, on the other hand, is moving toward more equalitarian sex role definitions. The older teachers, then, face a personal difficulty in relating their views to those of society and a professional difficulty in helping students define their own sex roles in light of fewer restrictions. To overcome this discrepancy, inservice programs might be offered to assist teachers in developing a broader perspective on sex role definition. There also exists a need to assist teachers in examining programs, curriculum, and materials in light of more equalitarian sex role views. Supervisors of home economics teachers, principals and other administrators, and other professionals who work with home economics teachers in the secondary schools must be aware of this

relationship and assist older teachers in relating their views and teaching to current thought and sex role definition.

The level of education of the home economics teachers influenced their job satisfaction. Those teachers with Bachelor's degrees only were more satisfied with their jobs than those who had Master's degrees. Specifically they were more satisfied with the supervision and co-worker aspects of their job. This is in contrast to earlier studies (Klein & Maher, 1976; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) where job satisfaction increased with level of education. The results in this study may be due to the fact that the sample was not evenly distributed on this variable. Eighty-two per cent of the teachers held Bachelor's degrees only, while 18% had a graduate certificate or degree.

The results, however, do have implications for inservice and graduate education of home economics teachers. Either teachers must be directed to pursue further education in a manner that does not lead to an advanced degree, or graduate programs must incorporate curriculum and strategies aimed at increasing the job satisfaction of those with advanced degrees who continue to teach at the secondary level. A goal of increased interaction skills could be incorporated into graduate programs so that teachers who completed this work could better cope with the work situation and improve communications with their co-workers. Teachers perhaps would also benefit more from advanced work that dealt with education and practice than from educational theory or an academic discipline. Many states encourage or insist that teachers work toward advanced degrees through certification requirements or pay incentives. This trend must be examined in the light of the findings of this research. A means by which teachers

might broaden their scope and pursue further education while maintaining optimum satisfaction with their job situation must be explored. Existing inservice programs must also be examined in light of the need to provide teachers with new experiences that will not be detrimental to their level of job satisfaction.

It was noted in the introductory chapter of this report that studies have shown that sex role perception tends to become more equalitarian or undifferentiated as the level of education of a person increases. That was not the case in this study. Those teachers who held Master's degrees were neither more sex role traditional nor more sex role modern than those teachers who held Bachelor's degrees only. A possible explanation for no significant findings in regard to their relationship may have been the lack of variation in the educational levels of the participants and the limited number of categories used for the reporting of educational level.

Neither marital nor parental status was related to sex role preference in job satisfaction in this study. This may have been due to the fact that the teachers included in the sample were fairly homogeneous with respect to these variables. Although the teachers differed widely on their scores on the MSRP and the JDI, they did not differ a great deal in marital and parental status. Most of the teachers were married (72.62%) and the majority were parents (73.81%). This similarity may have influenced the results of these tests of relationship.

Examination of the data about location raised some question as to whether or not respondents accurately reported the setting in which they were teaching. Had size of school or population associated with the community been included on the questionnaire a more definitive test of

the relationship between location and job satisfaction and sex role preference might have been obtained. Thus, it is possible that results may have been different had the sample been more heterogenous and had the questions in regard to location and educational level been clarified and/or expanded.

The lack of significant differences in the hypothesis testing may also be due to the instrumentation used to measure sex role preference and job satisfaction. The scores that were obtained on the MSRP were rather widely distributed. A measure less generalized and more definitive may have given a more accurate picture of the sex role preference of home economics teachers. The scores obtained with the JDI were also widely distributed perhaps because this was a general measure designed for use in business and industry. Several of the respondents commented that the promotion subscale of the JDI was not applicable to their job role. Others indicated a hesitancy in identifying supervisors or co-workers on which to base their comments in those sections. A measure that specifically reflects the teaching situation may obtain a more accurate description of the job satisfaction of secondary home economics teachers.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the sex role preference and job satisfaction of secondary home economics teachers. A further purpose was to identify whether or not there was any relationship between sex role preference and job satisfaction. Eleven hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. A random sample of 200 home economics teachers who were currently employed in the North Carolina public schools was drawn, and these teachers were included in the research survey. Each teacher selected was sent a questionnaire that included the Measure of Sex Role Preferences (MSRP), the Job Description Index (JDI), and six questions designed to obtain specific demographic information (Appendix A). The MSRP was designed by Scanzoni (1975) to measure sex role attitudes, and the JDI was developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) to measure job satisfaction in the areas of work, pay, promotion, co-worker, and supervision. The demographic information requested included age, years of teaching experience, level of education, marital status, parental status, and location of school. One hundred and seventy questionnaires were returned which was 85% of the total. One hundred sixty-eight of these contained sufficient data to be included in the analysis.

#### Summary

The analysis of the data involved both descriptive statistics and tests of the hypotheses. The descriptive statistics showed a wide range

of sex role attitudes among the home economics teachers in the study. The scores were closer to the upper limit or equalitarian end of the scale. The mean score on the MSRP was 101.22 with a range of 48 to 132.

The scores on the measure of job satisfaction were less widely distributed in relation to the possible range and they were toward the upper limit of the scale or toward greater job satisfaction. The scores on the JDI ranged from 46 to 197 with a mean of 127.5. It was concluded that the teachers were more satisfied with their jobs than dissatisfied. The scores on the subscales of the job satisfaction measure indicated that the teachers were more satisfied with the work, co-worker, and supervision aspects of their jobs than with the pay and the possibilities for promotion.

A review of the demographic data obtained in this study indicated that the teachers were distributed in all adult age groups and held varying years of experience from 1 to 39 years. The majority of the teachers were married and were parents. The greater number of teachers held Bachelor's degrees only and most were teaching in schools located in rural areas or small towns with fewer being located in urban or suburban areas. The hypotheses were tested utilizing correlation techniques and analysis of variance. A significant relationship was indicated in only three of the hypotheses. There was no significant relationship between sex role attitude and job satisfaction, although an inverse relationship was noted that did not meet the designated level of significance. The major hypothesis of the study, then, was not rejected. There was no significant relationship between job satisfaction and either age or years of teaching experience. The level of education of the respondents was found to have no significant relationship to sex role attitude. Neither marital nor parental status was

significantly related to sex role attitude or job satisfaction. The location of the school in which the respondents taught also had no significant relationship to either sex role preference or job satisfaction.

The age of the respondents was significantly related to sex role preference. The older the respondent, the more traditional or differentiated their view of sex roles. The younger home economics teachers tended to be more equalitarian or undifferentiated in their sex role attitudes. The years of teaching experience of the respondents and sex role preference were also inversely related in a statistically significant relationship. The teachers with more years of teaching experience were more traditional in their sex role views and the less experienced teachers were more equalitarian. The third significant relationship was that of level of education and job satisfaction. The teachers who held Bachelor's degrees only were more satisfied with their job situations than those who held Master's degrees. This may also have implications for graduate education in home economics education. It was previously noted that graduate programs must assist the teacher in maintaining a high level of satisfaction with the job of secondary teaching. These programs must also assist the teacher in exploring personal sex role attitudes and their implications on professional development and the teaching situation. Graduate programs must aim not only at increasing the skill and knowledge of the teacher, but also at providing the environment and opportunities for personal growth. Opportunity for personal growth will not only enable the teacher to become more creative in rearranging his/her teaching situation to fulfill personal needs, but will also give the teacher the opportunity to define needs and roles in a contemporary and relevant manner.



### Recommendation for Further Research

The conclusions and implications from this study have application for graduate and undergraduate home economics programs, for those persons who work with preservice and inservice home economics teachers, and, for the culture of the secondary school system in general. There are also implications for further research that can be drawn from the scope and results of this study. The suggestions for further research concern the two main variables, sex role preference and job satisfaction.

For reasons discussed in the previous chapter this study could be replicated utilizing different measures of sex role preference and job satisfaction. There is also need for replication involving a wider geographic area from which to draw the participants for the sample. An additional alternative would involve replicating the study in another geographic area since the teachers in North Carolina may not represent the home economics teachers throughout the country in their sex role preference or job satisfaction.

Additional studies that are indicated include those that would incorporate a comparison of the scores of home economics teachers on the two main variables with women and men in other areas of teaching and in other professions. This would give a clearer picture of home economics teachers in relation to those in other fields and professions in terms of sex role preference and job satisfaction. It is also suggested that studies be designed to measure sex role preference and job satisfaction that would be stratified by the demographic variables such as age, years of teaching experience, and level of education. A more accurate picture of the effect that each of these independent variables has on job satisfaction

and sex role preferences may result from this suggestion. Other variables such as commitment to teaching and awareness of sex role behavior may further clarify the impact of sex role preference on job satisfaction.

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APPENDIX A  
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

The questions in this survey deal with your satisfaction with your teaching position and your attitudes and ideas concerning the roles of women and men as well as some personal characteristics. Directions for answering each set of questions are given with each section. There are no right or wrong answers to any of the questions, so please answer them as they best describe you and your teaching situation. Your answers will remain anonymous.

The first questions are concerned with your attitude and feeling toward your job. You are asked to respond to five aspects of your job situation: work; supervision; promotion; pay; and co-workers.

Circle YES if the item describes that particular aspect of your job.  
 Circle NO if the item does not describe that aspect of your job.  
 Circle ? if you cannot decide if the item describes that aspect of your job.

#### WORK

- |                |     |    |   |                                   |     |    |   |
|----------------|-----|----|---|-----------------------------------|-----|----|---|
| 1. Fascinating | YES | NO | ? | 10. Useful                        | YES | NO | ? |
| 2. Routine     | YES | NO | ? | 11. Tiresome                      | YES | NO | ? |
| 3. Satisfying  | YES | NO | ? | 12. Healthful                     | YES | NO | ? |
| 4. Boring      | YES | NO | ? | 13. Challenging                   | YES | NO | ? |
| 5. Good        | YES | NO | ? | 14. On your feet                  | YES | NO | ? |
| 6. Creative    | YES | NO | ? | 15. Frustrating                   | YES | NO | ? |
| 7. Respected   | YES | NO | ? | 16. Simple                        | YES | NO | ? |
| 8. Hot         | YES | NO | ? | 17. Endless                       | YES | NO | ? |
| 9. Pleasant    | YES | NO | ? | 18. Gives sense of accomplishment | YES | NO | ? |

PAY

19. Income adequate for normal expenses	YES	NO	?	23. Barely live on income	YES	NO	?
20. Insecure	YES	NO	?	24. Highly paid	YES	NO	?
21. Bad	YES	NO	?	25. Underpaid	YES	NO	?
22. Less than I deserve	YES	NO	?	26. Income provides luxuries	YES	NO	?

SUPERVISION

27. Asks my advice	YES	NO	?
28. Hard to please	YES	NO	?
29. Impolite	YES	NO	?
30. Praises good work	YES	NO	?
31. Tactful	YES	NO	?
32. Influential	YES	NO	?
33. Up-to-date	YES	NO	?
34. Doesn't supervise enough	YES	NO	?
35. Quick-tempered	YES	NO	?
36. Tells me where I stand	YES	NO	?
37. Annoying	YES	NO	?
38. Stubborn	YES	NO	?
39. Knows job well	YES	NO	?
40. Bad	YES	NO	?
41. Intelligent	YES	NO	?
42. Leaves me on my own	YES	NO	?
43. Around when needed	YES	NO	?
44. Lazy	YES	NO	?

COWORKERS

45. Stimulating	YES	NO	?
46. Boring	YES	NO	?
47. Slow	YES	NO	?
48. Ambitious	YES	NO	?
49. Stupid	YES	NO	?
50. Responsible	YES	NO	?
51. Fast	YES	NO	?
52. Intelligent	YES	NO	?
53. Easy to make enemies	YES	NO	?
54. Talk too much	YES	NO	?
55. Smart	YES	NO	?
56. Lazy	YES	NO	?
57. Unpleasant	YES	NO	?
58. No privacy	YES	NO	?
59. Active	YES	NO	?
60. Narrow interests	YES	NO	?
61. Loyal	YES	NO	?
62. Hard to meet	YES	NO	?

PROMOTION

63. Good opportunity for advancement	YES	NO	?
64. Opportunity somewhat limited	YES	NO	?
65. Promotion on ability	YES	NO	?
66. Dead-end job	YES	NO	?
67. Good chance for promotion	YES	NO	?
68. Unfair promotion policy	YES	NO	?
69. Infrequent promotions	YES	NO	?
70. Regular promotions	YES	NO	?
71. Fairly good chance for promotion	YES	NO	?

The next questions are concerned with attitudes toward the roles of women and men in life. Please indicate the extent that you agree or disagree with the statements and questions.

Circle a 1 if you STRONGLY AGREE with the statement.

Circle a 2 if you AGREE with the statement.

Circle a 3 if you have MIXED FEELINGS about the statement.

Circle a 4 if you DISAGREE with the statement.

Circle a 5 if you STRONGLY DISAGREE with the statement.

	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
	<u>STRONGLY</u> <u>AGREE</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>MIXED FEELINGS</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> <u>DISAGREE</u>
72. A married woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her husband and children.				1	2 3 4 5
73. A woman should realize that her greatest reward and satisfaction come through her children.				1	2 3 4 5
74. Having a job herself should be just as important to a woman as encouraging her husband in his job.				1	2 3 4 5
75. If she works, a woman should not try to get ahead in the same way that a man does.				1	2 3 4 5
76. A woman should be able to make long-range plans for her occupation, in the same way that her husband does for his.				1	2 3 4 5

- |     |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 77. | If being a wife and mother isn't satisfying enough, a woman should take a job.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 78. | A wife should not have equal authority with her husband in making decisions.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 79. | If a woman has the same job as a man who has to support his family, she should not expect the same pay.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 80. | There should be more day care centers and nursery schools so that more young mothers could work.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 81. | A wife should realize that, just as a woman is not suited for heavy physical work, there are also other kinds of jobs she is not suited for, because of her mental and emotional nature. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 82. | A wife should give up her job whenever it inconveniences her husband and children.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 83. | If a mother of young children works, it should be only while the family needs the money.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 84. | The institution of marriage and family was established by God.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 85. | Being a mother is a special calling from God.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 86. | A working mother can establish just as warm and secure relationship with her children as a mother who does not work.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 87. | A parent gets more satisfaction when a son gets ahead in his occupation than when a daughter gets ahead in hers.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 88. | A marriage is incomplete without children.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 89. | Young girls should be permitted as much independence as boys.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 90. | A preschool child is likely to suffer if a mother works.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 91. | If a wife's job sometimes requires her to be away from home overnight, this should not bother a husband.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

92. If a child gets sick and the wife works, a husband should be just as willing as the wife to stay home from work and take care of the child. 1 2 3 4 5
93. If a wife works, a husband should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning, and washing. 1 2 3 4 5
94. If a wife makes more money than her husband, this should not bother him. 1 2 3 4 5
95. A married man's chief responsibility should be his job. 1 2 3 4 5
96. On the job, men should be willing to work for women supervisors. 1 2 3 4 5
97. A married man should be willing to have a smaller family so that his wife can work if she wants to. 1 2 3 4 5
98. If a wife works, a husband should share equally in the responsibilities of child care. 1 2 3 4 5
99. The husband should be the head of the family. 1 2 3 4 5

Finally, I would like to ask a few questions about yourself to help in the interpretation of the results. Please fill in the answer for the first 2 questions and then circle the number of the appropriate answer for each of the remaining questions below.

100. Your present age \_\_\_\_\_ YEARS.

101. How many years have you taught? \_\_\_\_\_ YEARS

102. Which is the highest degree that you hold?

(circle number)

1. BACHELOR
  2. MASTER
  3. SPECIALIST
  4. DOCTOR
  5. OTHER (Please specify)
- 

103. What is your marital status?

(circle number)

1. SINGLE
2. MARRIED
3. WIDOWED
4. SEPARATED
5. DIVORCED

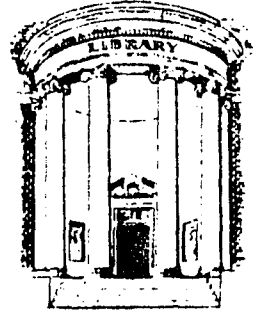
104. Are you a parent?  
(circle number)
1. YES  
2. NO
105. What is the location of your school?  
(circle number)
1. URBAN  
2. RURAL  
3. SUBURBAN  
4. SMALL TOWN

Thank you very much for your help with this study. I appreciate the time and attention that you gave to all of the questions. If you have any comments on the study in general or any of the questions in particular, please feel free to include them here.

APPENDIX B  
SURVEY COVER LETTER



THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA  
AT GREENSBORO



*School of Home Economics*

April 22, 1980

Dear Home Economics Teacher:

The job satisfaction of home economics teachers has been a concern in recent years especially among those working in the secondary public schools. This concern has been expressed by educators and by home economists and is reflected in many teacher inservice programs. There has also been much discussion and controversy concerning the changing roles of men and women. This has been reflected in the field of home economics particularly within the areas of curriculum development, coeducational recruitment, and professional identity. Our profession is in the midst of probing these issues and defining policies and activities in these areas.

You are one of a group of secondary home economics teachers who are being asked to share your attitudes toward the satisfaction that you derive from your teaching situation and also concerning the sex roles of men and women. Your name was drawn in a random sample of home economics teachers who are currently employed in the North Carolina public schools. In order that the results will truly represent the attitudes of the home economics teachers in the state, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned.

The individual responses to the questionnaires will be kept completely confidential. An identification number has been placed on each questionnaire solely for mailing purposes. This will enable me to check your name off the list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will not be placed on the questionnaire or connected with the study.

The results of this survey will be useful to home economics teachers as well as supervisors and teacher educators, especially in the area of inservice education. I would appreciate any comments that you may have concerning the survey. You may place them at the end of the questionnaire or contact me at the School of Home Economics, the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Thank you for your attention and your help.

Sincerely,

*Anne Weiner*

Anne Weiner  
Doctoral Student  
Home Economics Education

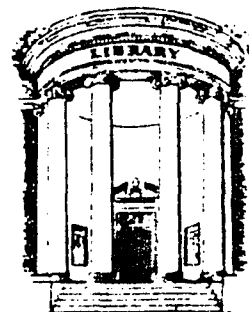
*Barbara Clawson*

Barbara Clawson  
Associate Professor  
Home Economics Education

GREENSBORO, NORTH CAROLINA / 27412

APPENDIX C  
FOLLOW-UP LETTER

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA  
AT GREENSBORO



*School of Home Economics*

May 6, 1980

Dear Home Economics Teacher:

About two weeks ago I wrote to you requesting your participation in a research project aimed at investigating home economics teachers' job satisfaction and their attitudes concerning the roles of men and women. At that time, I enclosed a questionnaire for you to use to express your opinion on these matters. As of today I have not received your completed questionnaire.

I have undertaken this study because I feel that these matters directly influence the professional life of secondary home economics teachers, and their opinion in these matters should be known. The results will be useful to anyone involved in enriching the work environment of teachers in general and home economists in particular.

The participants to be included in this study were randomly drawn from a listing of all currently employed home economics teachers in the secondary public schools of North Carolina. It is important that each selected teacher respond to the questionnaire so that the results will truly represent the thoughts and feelings of the home economics teachers in North Carolina and not those of a selected interest group. In light of this structure, it is essential that I receive your completed questionnaire as soon as possible.

It is possible that our correspondence has crossed in the mail and you have sent me your completed questionnaire. If this is the case, I appreciate your participation in this study.

Thank you for your cooperation and your assistance.

Sincerely,

*Anne Weiner*

Anne Weiner  
Doctoral Student  
Home Economics Education

*Barbara Clawson*

Barbara Clawson  
Associate Professor  
Home Economics Education

GREENSBORO, NORTH CAROLINA / 27412

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA is composed of the sixteen public senior institutions in North Carolina  
an equal opportunity employer