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ATTITUDES OF EMPLOYED AND NON-EMPLOYED
LATTER-DAY SAINT MOTHERS TOWARD
THE HOMEMAKING ROLE AND
OUTSIDE EMPLOYMENT

A Thesis

Presented to the (1)

Faculty of the Department of

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Lois Richins Monroe

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Latter-day Saint¹ culture rates very highly the concept of an ideal home and family. This is probably due to their belief in the "eternal" family relationship² with the role of woman as homemaker and mother. These beliefs are frequently stressed, and mothers are generally discouraged from entering employment because it is felt that working outside of the home might detract from the home-making role.

¹The Latter-day Saint culture is composed of members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. The titles Mormon, L. D. S., and Latter-day Saint will be used as synonymous.

²A fundamental concept in Mormon theology is that of "celestial" marriage with "eternal" family relationships. To participate in celestial marriage, the couple must be members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints; and through personal interviews with the Bishop and Stake President, they must verify that they observe the Church standards of chastity, word of wisdom, tithing, and attendance at Church meetings. The men are also members of the Melchizedek Priesthood. These "celestial" marriages are performed only in specially designated "temples" of the Church. For a detailed discussion of the Latter-day Saint doctrine of marriage and the family, read the following: LeGrand Richards, A Marvelous Work and A Wonder (Salt Lake City: Deseret Book Co., 1950), pp. 193-206; Joseph Fielding Smith, Doctrines of Salvation: Sermons and Writings of Joseph Fielding Smith, compiled by Bruce R. McConkie (Salt Lake City: Bookcraft, 1955), II, pp. 58-99; and The Doctrine and Covenants of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Salt Lake City: The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, 1921), Section 132.

During General Conferences of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, held October, 1963,³ April, 1964,⁴ and October, 1964,⁵ leading Church officials discussed the necessity of mothers being at home to rear their children and of leading exemplary lives as wives and mothers. The women of the Church were also cautioned to avoid any activity which would detract from their roles as mothers in Israel.⁶

I. THE PROBLEM

Since the home and the family appear to be so highly valued in the Mormon culture, it would seem desirable to know how Mormon

³Spencer W. Kimball, "Keep Mothers in the Home," The Improvement Era, LXVI (December, 1963), 1071-1074.

⁴Boyd K. Packer, "Suffer the Little Children," The Improvement Era, LXVII (June, 1964), 491-492.

⁵Richard L. Evans, "No Other Success Can Compensate for Failure in the Home," The Improvement Era, LXVII (December, 1964), 1100-1102.

⁶For more on this subject, read the following: David O. McKay, Gospel Ideals (Salt Lake City: Deseret News Press, 1958), pp. 449-490; Boyd K. Packer, "Family Togetherness," Speeches of the Year (Provo, Utah: Extension Division, Brigham Young University, 1963); Mark E. Peterson, The Church News, August 25, 1956, editorial; Roy A. West, Family Eternal (Salt Lake City: Bookcraft, 1946), pp. 45-65; LeGrand Richards, "Building Your Marriage to Last Forever," Speeches of the Year (Provo, Utah: Extension Division, Brigham Young University, 1954).

women feel toward the current trend to combine the role of worker-mother-wife.

Statement of the Problem. It is the purpose of this study to investigate and compare the attitudes of employed Latter-day Saint mothers and non-employed Latter-day Saint mothers toward the homemaking role and outside employment.

Purpose and Significance. This is an attempt to study the attitudes of Latter-day Saint mothers toward homemaking and employment. If there is a relationship discovered between employment and more positive feelings toward the homemaking role, then it would seem that this study could be followed with others focused upon the reasons for this relationship. Then better ways might be suggested to help mothers find more enjoyment in the mother-wife role and become more satisfied with themselves and their environments.

II. DEFINITIONS AND TERMS USED

Homemaking Role. The activities in which a mother engages in order to manage the household. The most common of these activities include the selection and preparation of food and clothing, the use of income, upkeep of the home, and the care and training of children.

Employment. The engaging in work outside of the home for wages. In this study only women working full time, forty hours a week, will be included in the employed group.

Roles. The rights and duties belonging to the individual who fills a certain position in society. These organized patterns of behavior include the various activities an individual does in his position.

Attitude. A readiness or predisposition to act. It helps trigger one's behavior and involves a feeling or mood.

III. RATIONALE

From earliest infancy, the female in the Latter-day Saint culture is exposed to the concept that to be a wife and mother is to be in partnership with God, and that her highest goal in this life should be the development of a "heavenly" home. They are exposed to this thought informally and formally in both the home and at weekly Church meetings. Women are taught early in life to value very highly the home and family living. The Primary Association⁷ begins formally

⁷The Primary Association is assigned the responsibility of carrying on a week-day religious program for the children of the Church in general ages four to eleven, inclusive.

teaching this principle to the Latter-day Saint girls at the time they are nine years old.

The 9, 10, and 11 year old girls in Primary belong to an organization called Lihomas, which means little homemakers (Li-ho-mas). Its objective is to help each girl to bring the light of the gospel into her home through her cheerful attitude, her desire to help others to feel joy, and her willingness to serve.

Home, as an institution, is fundamentally a sacred part of Latter-day Saint living. In a home that is filled with the light of the gospel, each member can learn the proper ideals of personal living, of family life, of community life, and of church life. The foundation for a belief in God and His Church can take on true significance and importance.

Helping to make the home a joyful, happy place in which to live can become a part of every girl's life, and will help her to attain her heavenly home.⁸

These girls are also introduced to such homemaking skills as knitting, sewing, crocheting, embroidering, budgeting, and cooking. This is to supplement the philosophy of the "heavenly" home and help prepare the girls for establishing their own homes. These teachings continue throughout the young girl's life and are even carried on after marriage through the lessons for the Young Marrieds' groups.⁹

⁸Norma O. Nichols, Gaynotes (The General Board of the Primary Association of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, Salt Lake City, Utah, 1960), v.

⁹The aim of the Young Marrieds Program in the L. D. S. Church is to provide all young married couples in the Church with opportunities for social and intellectual experiences which will increase their interest in and devotion to the Church. Young

It would seem that this principle of the "eternal" family and "heavenly" home, if properly taught, would indeed instill into each girl's heart a desire to achieve the finest of homes and to become a good homemaker and mother. These teachings combined with the counsel given by the General Authorities (see footnotes 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6) would tend to create a very positive attitude toward the role of homemaking and a somewhat negative attitude toward combining outside employment with the wife and mother role.

However, after reviewing the available literature about employed mothers, it would seem that employed mothers would be expected to show fewer feelings of frustration and boredom, and a somewhat more favorable attitude toward the homemaking role than non-employed mothers. Women who are unable to be away from the home on a regular basis report feelings of isolation from the intellectual world. These feelings of frustration, boredom, and isolation may produce a hostile, anxious, and nervous mother and homemaker.¹⁰

Marrieds Manual - 1964-65 (The General Board's of the Mutual Improvement Associations of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, Salt Lake City, Utah, 1964-1965), 15.

¹⁰F. Ivan Nye, The Employed Mother in America (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1963), p. 354.

"The demands of modern society are such that many intelligent and highly competent women cannot be happy devoting all their time to housekeeping and child care."¹¹

Komarovsky, in discussing "The Homemaker and Her Problems," emphasizes that women who have no desire for employment indicate considerable dissatisfaction with the homemaker role:

Overwork, tired muscles, constant and almost exclusive association with young children, and monotony are among the frequently mentioned grievances. But even these women who had no yearning for careers complained not only about drudgery and fatigue, but also about the frustration of their days.¹²

It is interesting that young women in our present society with one or two young children and the modern conveniences can feel overworked. Many of them stress feelings of dullness and monotony:

Besides, I find life dull, I described my day to you. It isn't just one day--it is every day. Believe me, there is not enough stimulation in the incessant dishwashing, picking up, ironing, folding diapers, dressing and undressing the kids, making beds, day in and day out. My social life with the other mothers on the park bench is depressing. I cannot get them away from the same old talk. They have nothing fresh to give me because they, too, are up to their necks in the same routine.¹³

¹¹Paul H. Landis, Making the Most of Marriage (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955), pp. 520-521.

¹²Mirra Komarovsky, Women in the Modern World (Boston: Little, Brown, 1953), p. 107.

¹³Ibid., p. 110.

Landis also feels that the contemporary educated mother should not be limited to household tasks. He feels that the life of the non-employed mother is too limited and monotonous.¹⁴

In conclusion, the available data generally support the position that the domestic roles of the mother with a small family are not sufficiently significant and interesting for many women, and that many are happier if they can find employment under satisfactory conditions.

IV. HYPOTHESIS

On the basis of the literature surveyed and the rationale presented above, it is proposed that there is a relationship between the acceptance of outside employment and acceptance of the homemaking role by mothers. Specifically, it is hypothesized that:

1. Employed Latter-day Saint mothers will have a more favorable attitude towards the homemaker role than non-employed mothers.
2. Employed Latter-day Saint mothers will have a more favorable attitude toward outside employment than non-employed mothers.

¹⁴Landis, op. cit., pp. 452-453.

To test these hypotheses, the responses of employed mothers will be compared with the responses of non-employed mothers. The instruments to be used are a modification of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) for mothers and a questionnaire developed by the researcher.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

I. HISTORY AND STATISTICS

Few, if any, single changes in family life have as profoundly affected so many families in so few years as the movement of mothers into paid employment. Since 1940 there has been an estimated net increase of 10 million mothers in the labor force. Other millions have taken paid employment for a period of time, but have eventually left it. The reasons for specific mothers taking employment may be explained in terms of individual talents and training, personality needs, or the constellation of beliefs, values, or particular family needs. To appreciate the larger phenomenon of the massive movement of mothers into the labor force, one must consider the rapid and fundamental social and cultural developments which have changed America.¹

The main forces behind this movement seem to have been industrialization and technological developments. Industrialization first brought about a shift from family-centered to factory-centered production and still later a shift to distribution and service functions. Most of our families have moved from farms to cities and suburbs, and the wife no longer works alongside her husband and children on the farm. Technological developments now make it possible to fashion, produce, and service clothing more economically in

¹F. Ivan Nye and Lois Wladis Hoffman, The Employed Mother in America (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1963), p. 3.

factories and service establishments than in the home. Also, food is more economically produced on specialized farms and processed in factories than in the home. We can presently see a trend in the food area toward women being able to purchase entire family meals that are completely prepared and need be only heated and served. This frees the mother more than ever before from a homemaking task.

Other technological advances have made the housekeeping role potentially less time-consuming and, to many women, less satisfying than in previous years. These technical developments have brought about a change in the mother from one who could make a significant contribution economically by fashioning, producing, servicing, and processing food and clothing in the home or by helping her husband on the farm, to one whose role in this respect is very limited.

With this change, the cost of paying for these tasks has been transferred to the father. From his earnings must come the cost of food, clothing, and household expenses. These changes have left the mother with time that may be devoted to paid employment outside the home. Also, these changes have created employment opportunities for women outside the home and have provided her with an opportunity to become once again an economic contributor to the family and reduce the strain upon the income of the father.

At the turn of the century, nearly half of the women in the United States never entered paid employment. Now, at least nine out of ten women work outside their homes sometime in the course of their lives.

Although the United States census data shows a steady increase in the proportion of women in paid employment, until 1940 it did not distinguish between women without children and mothers; and until 1948 the data did not indicate the presence and age of children in the family.

In the twenty-year period from 1940 to 1960, there has been an increase of the proportion of employed women from 25.7 per cent to 34.8 per cent. Meanwhile, the proportion of employed married women who were living with their husbands increased from 14.7 to 30.5 per cent, and the proportion of mothers with children under eighteen increased even more dramatically (see Table I).³

In 1960 almost one-third of all employed women were mothers with children under eighteen. In actual numbers this group grew almost 400 percent, while the number of single employed women declined, and the widowed, divorced, and separated groups showed only small increases.

²National Manpower Council, Womenpower (New York: Columbia University Press, 1957), p. 10.

³Nye, op. cit., p. 8.

TABLE I
WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE, 1940-1960

Marital Status	Employed Women						
	1940	1944	1958	1952	1955	1958	1960
	(Number in Millions)						
Single	6.7	7.5	5.9	5.5	5.1	5.4	5.4
Married, living with husband	4.2	6.2	7.6	9.2	10.4	11.8	12.3
No children under 18	2.7		4.4	5.0	5.2	5.7	5.7
Children 6-17 only	1.5		1.9	2.5	3.8	3.7	4.1
Children 0-5			1.2	1.7	2.0	2.4	2.5
Widowed, divorced, living apart	2.9	4.7	3.7	4.1	4.6	4.8	4.9
All women	13.9	18.5	17.2	18.8	20.1	22.0	22.6
	(Percent)						
Single	48.1	58.6	51.1	50.0	46.6	45.5	44.1
Married, living with husband	14.7	21.7	22.0	25.3	27.7	30.2	30.5
No children under 18			28.4	30.9	32.7	38.8	34.7
Children 6-17 only	8.6*	**	26.0	31.1	34.7	37.6	39.0
Children 0-5			10.7	13.9	16.0	18.2	18.6
Widowed, divorced, living apart	35.4	42.0	38.3	38.8	38.5	40.8	40.0
All women	25.7	35.0	31.0	32.7	33.4	35.0	34.8

* Estimated.

**No information available.

Sources: Current Population Reports, Labor Force. United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Series P-50 Nos. 22, 62, 73, 76, 81, and 87 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office), and Special Labor Force Report, No. 13. United States Department of Labor (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1961).

Within this twenty-year period, the employed mother changed from a negligible social and economic phenomenon to one that affects almost two in five households in which there are children under eighteen.⁴

There has also been a change in (1) the type of work performed by an employed mother, (2) the type of woman employed, and (3) the type of family from which she comes.

Prior to 1950, the employed mother "had several children and was forced into an unskilled, physically tiring, low-paying job by direct economic necessity."⁵ If she worked by choice she was often considered a "high powered" woman with a need for dominance. This belief that "high powered" women seek employment may be based on the traditional association that a woman's place is in the home and that she should be subordinate to men, and therefore only "high powered" women would go against societies norm. The American folk saying, "you gotta keep 'em barefoot in the winter and pregnant in the summer," was an admonition to husbands to keep the wife eternally attached to her place in the home.

Both of these beliefs, that is, (1) the wife taking a subordinate position and (2) working women having a need to dominate, certainly seem to be outdated.

⁴Ibid., p. 8.

⁵Ibid., p. 9.

First of all, women's employment is too widespread and multidetermined for any particular personality trait to characterize the working group. Furthermore, because it is so widespread it is no longer an appropriate way for a woman to manifest her need for power and masculine strivings; i. e., working is no longer a "manly" thing to do. When working was more uncommon for women, the employed group probably constituted a more homogeneous group. Except for the women who worked out of sheer economic necessity, the working woman was clearly acting against social pressure. Since there were many factors mitigating against her employment, her motivation must have been particularly strong. In accepting employment, she often had to renounce many of the privileges and obligations of being a woman; marriage and children were rarely combined with a career.⁶

From Tables II and III, we can see that today the typical working mother is more likely to be living with her husband, who is also employed; she is no longer the main source of support for the family. She is more highly skilled and better educated than previously, and generally enters employment selectively, by choice, choosing a job that is higher-paying, gives more status, has better working conditions, and is less physically tiring than those held by women before 1940.

General Current Findings. The question as to the effect of the mother's working upon her marriage, her family life, and her children has recently been widely studied. In 1952, one of the first studies on maternal employment utilizing controls on important variables

⁶Ibid., p. 10.

TABLE II
OCCUPATIONS OF THE EMPLOYED FEMALE POPULATION
FOR THE UNITED STATES, 1900-1960

Occupation	(Percentage of Women Working)						
	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	8.1	9.7	11.6	13.4	12.7	12.2	13.3
Farmers and farm managers	5.8	3.7	3.2	2.4	1.2	.7	.4
Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm	1.4	2.0	2.2	2.7	3.2	4.3	4.6
Clerical and kindred workers	4.0	9.2	18.6	20.8	21.4	27.4	30.0
Sales workers	4.3	5.1	6.2	6.8	7.3	8.6	7.2
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.5	.9
Operatives and kindred workers	23.8	22.9	20.2	17.4	19.5	19.9	16.1
Private household workers	28.7	24.0	15.7	17.8	18.1	8.8	9.8
Service workers, exc. private household	6.7	8.4	8.1	9.7	11.3	12.6	15.4
Farm laborers and foremen	13.1	12.0	10.3	5.9	2.7	2.9	2.0
Laborers, exc. farm and mine	2.6	1.4	2.3	1.5	1.1	.8	.3
Total	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	100.0

Source: Occupational Trends in the United States, 1900 to 1950⁷ and Special Labor Force Report No. 13.⁸

⁷Occupational Trends in the United States, 1900 to 1950. United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Working Paper No. 5 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1958).

⁸Special Labor Force Report No. 13. United States Department of Labor (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1961).

TABLE III
 EDUCATION LEVEL AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS
 OF 1972 WASHINGTON MOTHERS⁹

Education	Percentage			Total	Total Number
	Not Employed	Part-Time Employed	Full-Time Employed		
1-6 yrs.	2.0	1.4	.3	1.6	32
7-9 yrs.	15.1	13.0	8.6	13.7	270
10-12 yrs.	60.9	59.6	64.9	61.4	1211
13-16 yrs.	20.0	24.2	20.1	20.6	407
17 or more	1.9	1.8	6.0	2.6	552
Total	99.9	100.0	99.9	99.9	1972

was produced by Ivan Nye. Prior to this, it was generally felt that the roles of mother and employee were incompatible and should only be combined in an emergency. Both professional and lay people tended to lump the increased employment of women along with other trends, such as higher divorce rate and more crime and delinquency. Some people speculated that the employment of the mother was the principal cause of current social problems; still others contended that maternal employment was detrimental to children.

Empirical studies of the effects of maternal employment have long suffered from a paucity of adequate controls.

⁹Ibid., p. 11.

It was the lack of controls, for example, which led to the long-standing belief that maternal employment was strongly associated with juvenile delinquency. In fact, both maternal employment and delinquency were associated with social class and with broken homes; and when the latter variables were controlled, the relationship disappeared, suggesting it had been a spurious one.¹⁰

Following Nye's study on the adjustment of adolescent children in 1952, there have been many serious attempts to examine empirically the effects of maternal employment. It would seem beneficial at this point to include in this review of literature a summary of the findings of some of the major studies which have been done on the effects of maternal employment upon the children, the husband-wife relationship, and upon the mother herself.

II. EFFECTS OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT ON CHILDREN

What are the effects upon children of the mother's outside employment? Need we expect any repercussions in the children's development? Is there any relationship between maternal employment and juvenile delinquency? Does the mother's employment

¹⁰S. Glueck and Eleanor Glueck, "Working Mothers and Delinquency," Mental Hygiene, XVI (1957), 351.

stimulate the child to greater school achievement? Until recently, it was generally believed that maternal employment had a great many effects upon the child--all of them bad. Since 1952, however, research findings challenge this point of view. But perhaps the pendulum has swung too far in the opposite direction, as the current outlook seems to be that maternal employment has no effect at all. However, after reviewing the research literature it does not seem appropriate to state that maternal employment does affect children. These effects may be good, bad, or at present, incapable of evaluation; and they may depend upon the variables; but nonetheless, maternal employment does affect children.

Development and Adjustment of Preschool Children. Alberta Siegel (1959)¹¹ in her study of "Dependence and Independence in the Children of Working Mothers," found no difference between children of working and non-working mothers in behavior relevant to dependence and independence. One may conclude from the data of this study that maternal employment per se is not the overwhelmingly influential factor in children's lives that some of us thought it to be.

¹¹ Alberta Siegel, Lois Stolz, Ethel Hitchcock, and Jean Adamson, "Dependence and Independence in Children of Working Mothers," Child Development, XXX (December, 1959), pp. 533-546.

In the American culture, the care of the preschool child by its mother is considered her most crucial duty. Society's concern about this role appears to stem from the belief that the mother's presence is necessary for the satisfaction of the child's emotional and physical needs. It is generally assumed that only the biological mother or a permanent mother substitute can adequately provide for the needs of the child. A number of investigations of children reared in institutions showed that these children were inferior intellectually, emotionally and physically. The objective of a study by Nye, Perry, and Ogles¹² was to consider the question of whether the employment of mothers of preschool children is accompanied by personality damage to the children. The results of this study add evidence to the concept that the working mother is not one who typically rejects her children emotionally or neglects their needs. "It is believed that generalizations of the results of studies of institutionalized children to the children of employed mothers should be avoided."

Yarrow¹³ in her study obtained interview data from fifty working and fifty non-working mothers. They were from comparable,

¹²F. Ivan Nye, Joseph Perry and Richard Ogles, "Anxiety and Anti-Social Behavior in Preschool Children," The Employed Mother in America (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1963), pp. 82-92.

¹³M. R. Yarrow, P. Scott, L. de Leeux, and C. Heinig, "Child Rearing in Families of Working and Nonworking Mothers," Sociometry, IV (1962), 122-140.

white, intact, economically stable families where maternal employment was a matter of choice. It was found that child-rearing practices are not related to work status until maternal motivation and education are taken into account. Mothers who prefer to work but out of a sense of "duty" do not work, report the most problems in child-rearing. Of mothers with high school training, children are under firmer control and are given more responsibility by the employed than by the non-employed mothers. This difference does not exist between working and non-working college-trained mothers. College-trained families tend to compensate for the mother's employment away from home by more planned activities with the children.

Lee Burchinal,¹⁴ in attempting to ascertain if there was any relationship between personality characteristics of children and maternal employment, was unable to find any relationship of significant correlation.

Development and Adjustment of the School-Age Child and the Adolescent. Using a sample of 176 white, intact families with at least one child in the third through sixth grades of three elementary

¹⁴Lee Burchinal, "Personality Characteristics of Children," Marriage and Family Living, XXIII (November, 1961), 334-340.

schools in Detroit, Lois Hoffman¹⁵ matched 88 working-mother families with 88 non-working-mother families. It was found that where the working mother indicates a positive attitude toward her work, the child associates a more positive effect with the mother than do children in the matched group of non-working women. The working mother also uses mild discipline, and tends to avoid inconveniencing the child with household tasks; the child is relatively nonassertive and ineffective. The working mother who dislikes working seems less involved with the child altogether than the other mothers and obtains the child's help with tasks. The child is also more assertive and hostile.

Francena Nolan,¹⁶ in studying the effects of maternal employment upon rural children, found few differences among the children of employed and non-employed mothers. Among the older-age group, children whose mothers were employed scored slightly higher in academic achievement and acceptance by peers than children from homes of full-time homemakers.

¹⁵Lois Hoffman, "Mother's Employment of Work and Effects on the Child," Child Development, XXXII (March, 1961), 187-197.

¹⁶Francena Nolan, "Effects on Rural Children," Bulletin 655, Pennsylvania Agricultural Experiment Station (1959).

In 1958 in a rural county in Washington, Prodipto Roy¹⁷ conducted a study on adolescent roles. In brief, his conclusions were:

1. The children of employed mothers seem to do more household chores than children of non-employed mothers.
2. The employment of the mother does not seem to have any adverse effect on the social activities of the children.
3. The employment of the mother does not generally lower the academic performance or aspirations of the children.
4. The general fear that delinquency would increase because of the employment of the mother was not substantiated.

Summary. The relationship between maternal employment and presumed dependent variables can only be examined when the researcher controls other factors. When these factors are controlled, the correlates of maternal employment seem to disappear. According to Lois Hoffman, "none of the studies done thus far has found meaningful differences between the children of working mothers in general and the children of non-working mothers."¹⁸

¹⁷Prodipto Roy, "Adolescent Roles--Rural-Urban Differentials," Marriage and Family Living, XXIII (November, 1961), 340-349.

¹⁸Lois Hoffman, "Effects on Children: Summary and Discussion," The Employed Mother in America, (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1963), 190-211.

This is an area where it would be helpful to have specific information about what aspects of maternal employment are important, what its specific effects on the child are, and the process by which these effects take place.

III. EFFECTS OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT UPON THE HUSBAND-WIFE RELATIONSHIP

When a wife and mother moves into the labor force and is in the role of homemaker fewer hours than before, we can naturally assume some shifts and changes in the structure of the family relationship. Perhaps the first noticeable change is in the division of labor in the home.

Robert Blood¹⁹ shows conclusively that the division of labor in the family is altered by the presence of a working mother. Five research projects have the hypothesis that the wife's employment increases the husband's share in the division of labor. In all five cases, the hypothesis was confirmed. Blood and Hamilton²⁰ find that the median husband's share of housework is 15 per cent when the wife

¹⁹Robert Blood, "The Husband-Wife Relationship," The Employed Mother in America (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1963), 282-304.

²⁰Robert Blood and Robert Hamilton, "The Effects of the Wife's Employment on the Family Power Structure," Social Forces, XXXVI (May, 1958), 347-352.

does not work and 25 per cent when the wife is employed.

Hoffman²¹ found that the employment of mothers will decrease her participation in household tasks and increase that of her husband. This was found to be true in four different household task areas: fathers', mothers', common, and child-care.

That employed wives shift the burden of housekeeping both onto their husbands and onto commercial services was found by Francena Nolan.²² These wives reduced the amount of time spent in household tasks by reducing home canning, freezing, and sewing, and increasing the use of mixes in baking. The husbands help out more in all areas of housekeeping, including foods, clothing, cleaning, and child-care. "Families with employed homemakers appeared to be able to redistribute the homemaker's work load in such a way that the mother was not failing in her obligations to her children, her house, or her community."²³

²¹Lois Hoffman, "Parental Power Relations and the Division of Household Tasks," Marriage and Family Living, XXII (February, 1960), 27-35.

²²Francena Nolan, "Rural Employment and Husbands and Wives," The Employed Mother in America (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1963), 241-250.

²³Ibid., p. 250.

It was Kathryn S. Powell's²⁴ discovery that although working wives in Florida depend heavily upon paid housekeepers, their husbands still assumed more household tasks than did the husbands of non-working wives.

Blood and Wolfe²⁵ found that the wife's employment introduces greater flexibility into the handling of the traditional feminine tasks but less flexibility into the handling of masculine ones. Hence, it would be misleading to say that all household tasks are shared in a dual income family. There is, however, a greater equalization of the amount of work done by husband and wife.

That these shifts in the division of labor are not always accomplished smoothly is suggested by conflicts in working-wife families. Ivan Nye²⁶ in his study of "Marital Interaction," set forth these hypotheses:

1. Conflict is more frequent among couples in which the mother is employed full time than among those in which she is not employed.

²⁴Kathryn S. Powell, "Family Variables," The Employed Mother in America (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1963), 321-239.

²⁵Robert Blood and Donald Wolfe, Husbands and Wives: The Dynamics of Married Living (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1960), p. Appendix A.

✓ ²⁶F. Ivan Nye, "Marital Interaction," The Employed Mother in America, (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1963), 263-280.

2. Separations and divorce are more characteristic of couples in which the mother is employed.
3. Marital happiness and satisfaction are greater among full-time employed mothers than among mothers not employed.²⁷

With respect to arguments, the data provided support for the hypothesis that more marital conflict is present among couples in which the mother is employed. In regards to permanence of the marriage relationship, the data did show that a slightly higher proportion of employed mothers have at some time been divorced, but there is no information about whether the divorce came before or after the employment. The data does provide limited support for the hypothesis that divorce and separation are more likely to occur among couples in which the mother is employed. The third hypothesis relating employment to marital happiness and satisfaction did not receive enough support to be significant.

Gianopulos and Mitchell²⁸ found that "when conflict occurs in working-wife families, it does not spread randomly over all aspects of marriage. For instance, there is no increase in difficulties over

²⁷Ibid., p. 264.

²⁸Artie Gianopulos and Howard E. Mitchell, "Marital Disagreement in Working Wife Marriages as a Function of Husband's Attitude Toward Wife's Employment," Marriage and Family Living, XIX (November, 1957), 373-378.

in-laws, friendships, or sexual or religious matters." Almost all the significant differences are concentrated in the "domestic-economic field."

Lois Hoffman²⁹ in the summary of her research on power structure in the family, had this to say:

Women's employment does not effect family power structure directly but only in interaction with the pre-existing ideologies and personalities of the actors.

This review of literature suggests, therefore, that the wife's employment (a) decreases the decisions she makes in household task areas, (b) but increases her share in major economic decision-making, while (c) leaving unchanged the amount of influence of husband and wife over each other.

In summarizing from Blood and Wolfe's study of leisure-time interaction of husband and wife, we see that the relationship between the wife's employment and marital companionship seems to run in opposite directions, depending on the husband's income. If his income is below average, the wife's income increases their ability to engage in enjoyable uses of leisure time together. If his income is above average, there is less need for the wife to work, and a sense of deprivation arises from the smaller amount of leisure time available.

²⁹Hoffman, op. cit., p. 35.

One other area worthy of note in regards to the husband-wife relationship is the husband's attitude toward employment. Nye has this to say about the attitude of the husband towards employment:

In families in which the wife is employed and the husband disapproves, marital adjustment averages poorer. However, in families in which the wife is not employed but the husband would approve of her entering the labor force, marital adjustment is poorer also. . . . There is an association between the husband's approval of the wife's occupational role and her marital adjustment, whether or not the wife is employed.³⁰

Summary. The impact of the wife's employment upon marriage seems well established. (1) The wife decreases her housekeeping activities while the husband increases his. (2) In many families, the pressure for revising the division of labor results in conflict between husband and wife over marriage roles. (3) The power structure of the marriage shifts in the direction of the wife who has a lesser voice in routine household decisions and a greater voice in major economic decisions.

We can only generalize tentatively about the impact of the wife's employment on the performance of family functions. (1) Dual-income families expect more interaction and joint-activity in their leisure time, but (2) reduction in the amount of leisure time available seems to decrease use of leisure time together.

³⁰Nye, op. cit., p. 279.

In general, marital adjustment was higher in cases where the mother was not working and the husband did not want her to work than in cases where she worked and the husband wanted her to. Dissatisfaction with the wife's occupational role by either the husband or the wife seems to be related to poor marital adjustment.

IV. EFFECTS OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT UPON THE MOTHER

Today women usually receive the same education as men and most prepare for some occupation. Yet a woman can receive more social approval and undergo less role conflict through marriage and motherhood than through an occupational career. In the American culture, marriage and child rearing are defined as a "woman's true vocation." A career woman, if she is married, is generally condemned for being an unsatisfactory wife and mother. If she is unmarried, it is assumed that she would prefer to be married. Thus, sixteen or more school years have been spent in awakening the same interests in both sexes, but these interests are presently defined as undesirable in adult women. The values of the American culture make housekeeping every married woman's duty. The result of this is a great pressure on every woman to adopt the role of housewife after her marriage.

(Weiss and Samelson³¹ found in their study that marriage seems to set a condition in which housework takes on and maintains value for the majority of women. Few married women will be motivated to seek careers because of the emptiness of housework. In addition, they found that the occupation of the woman is very important: women in professional-managerial jobs and in service work are most likely to value their jobs; women in semi-skilled work and in private household work least likely. Therefore, the job open to the woman, which depends upon her education, is important in determining the likelihood of her wanting to work should her home no longer offer her basis for feelings of worth.)

In a recent nationwide interview survey of the self-assessed mental health of the nation, ✓Sheila Feld³² in analyzing the results had this to report:

1. Employed mothers show more self-acceptance and fewer physical symptoms of distress; but in contrast they report more frequent doubts of their adequacy as mothers.

✓³¹Robert Weiss and Nancy Samelson, "Social Roles of American Women: Their Contribution to a Sense of Usefulness and Importance," Marriage and Family Living, XX (November, 1958), 358-366.

✓³²Sheila Feld, "Feelings of Adjustment," The Employed Mother in America (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1963), 331-352.

2. It is clear from correlating employment status and education that a mother's educational level is a much more important determinant of her feelings of distress than her employment status.
3. Working mothers feel more inadequate as parents than mothers who do not work outside the home.
4. Working mothers are less likely than housewives to complain of pains and ailments in different parts of their body and of not feeling healthy enough to carry out things they would like to do.

Ivan Nye³³ in reporting on recreation and community activity of employed mothers, says: "As expected, the mothers employed full time visit less, telephone less, attend fewer parties, and play cards less often than non-employed mothers." Mothers employed part time follow closely the recreational patterns of non-employed mothers. His research shows further that the community leadership activity of mothers of school-age children appear to be limited by their occupations, although it does not reduce the number of organizations to which they belong or attend.

³³F. Ivan Nye, "Recreation and Community," The Employed Mother in America (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1963), 363-371.

In respect to the mother's adjustment to children, Nye reports that some significant differences from each sample showed better adjustment to children among employed mothers. "Statistically, the chances that a mother will be better satisfied if she is employed are increased if she has a small family, but decreased if she has a large family."³⁴

Summary. The addition of the employment role of the mother-wife position represents a major structural change in that it can require more time than any of her other roles. Furthermore, this time generally is rigid and tends to modify her other roles more than it is modified by them.

It has been reported that employed and non-employed mothers do not differ significantly concerning the number of problems in relationships to children.

Concerning relationships with husbands, the findings of the studies seem to agree that marital relationships tend to contain more negative elements for employed-mother couples.

Employed mothers showed significantly more satisfaction with their daily work and the community as a place in which to live. Among

³⁴F. Ivan Nye, "Adjustment to Children," The Employed Mother in America (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1963), 353-362.

older women in the post-parental period, the opposite was found; the non-employed mothers showed more satisfaction in daily work and community.

V. GENERAL SUMMARY

It appears that the association between maternal employment and broader feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction differs with the relationship studied--whether it is parent-child, husband-wife, or person-community. For younger women, the employed mothers appear to be more satisfied with these relationships--except for the husband-wife relationship.³⁵

There are a few exceptions to the satisfactions stated above. Employed mothers are better satisfied with their relationship to children only when they have three or less. Poorer marital adjustment is not found among the remarried employed mothers. Higher education and socio-economic level appear to decrease differences between the employed and non-employed in marital relationships.

³⁵F. Ivan Nye, "Adjustment of the Mother: Summary and a Frame of Reference," The Employed Mother in America (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1963), 385.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The primary purpose of the design of this study is to formulate a plan in which the data can be collected and organized for analysis so that the various hypothesis may be tested. Briefly, the procedure is fourfold. First, construction of the measuring instrument; second, selection of the sample; third, collection of the data; fourth, the statistical analysis.

One of the most frequent methods used when trying to measure attitudes is the interview schedule. An interview lends itself well to the design of the study, allowing probing in depth, helping to prevent misunderstanding; and also, it lends itself well to a higher sample return than is usually secured from mailed questionnaires.

I. MEASURING INSTRUMENT USED

The first part of the interview schedule was concerned with the background of the individual. Items included were ages of children, education of the mother, present and past employment experience of the mother, and, where applicable, how many hours a week the mother was employed outside the home. Data was also collected about the income of the family, current employment of the husband, and reasons

why the mother chose to be a full-time homemaker or sought outside employment. The remainder of the instrument was related to the following variables: (1) attitudes toward the homemaking role, and (2) attitudes toward maternal employment outside the home.

The study was also constructed to control for the number of children, education of the mother, and religious affiliation of the mother. All of the couples were economically struggling students with high motivation for employment of the mother. They were all members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints and had received a Temple Marriage.

Selected sub-scales of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) were utilized in determining maternal attitudes toward the homemaking role. In determining attitudes toward outside employment, the researcher found it necessary to devise a series of questions attempting to determine the mother's attitude toward outside employment. These questions were presented to five Family Life Educators for a face validity evaluation.

The Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI). The PARI was constructed by Earl S. Schaefer and Richard Q. Bell in 1957. The PARI Form IV for mothers is an attitude scale consisting of 23 sub-scales of five items each. Scales three (seclusion of the mother),

five (martyrdom), thirteen (rejection of the homemaking role), and nineteen (ascendancy of the mother) were selected as being measures of the mother's attitude toward the homemaking role.

Validity and reliability checks have been made for the PARI and the scale has a high median scale reliability of .67. The results of investigations of internal consistency and test-re-test reliabilities for the various sub-scales used in this study are reported below:

<u>Sub-Scale</u>	<u>Reliability</u>
Seclusion of the mother	.70
Martyrdom	.67
Rejection of the homemaking role	.68
Ascendancy of the mother	.76 ¹

Construction of the Interview Schedule Measuring Attitudes

Toward Employment. An interview schedule was constructed, designed to determine attitudes toward employment outside the home. It follows the general style and content of the PARI Scales used. The full text of the interview schedule appears in the appendix to this study.

The instrument in this study was designed so that weights of 4, 3, 2, and 1 are used to designate strongly agree, mildly agree, mildly disagree, and strongly disagree. The scale score consists of the sum

¹Earl S. Schaefer and Richard Q. Bell, "Development of a Parental Attitude Research Instrument," Child Development, XXIX (1958), 350-351.

of the items within the scale, and each scale has a possible range from twenty to eighty points. Therefore, a higher score means that the mother agrees with the scale where a low score means that the mother disagrees with the scale. The lower score is indicative of a more positive attitude, while the higher score represents a negative attitude.

II. SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

The subjects for this study were the wives of students at Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah. These mothers were all residents of Wyview Village, a portion of Brigham Young University Campus Housing for Married Students. This particular group lends itself to the study because (1) it appears that there is a large proportion of working mothers and (2) the marriages were all intact and the husbands were living at home with their families.

Residing in Wyview Village at the time of the study were 150 couples whose husbands were all full-time students. Since the husbands were attending school, the wives would be expected to have a high economic factor motivating them towards employment outside the home. All of the mothers in the sample had graduated from high school, as had their husbands. Twenty-three had also attended some college, while five had a college degree. The families had from one

to five children, ranging in age from eight months to eleven years. The mothers were all members of the Latter-day Saint Church, as were their husbands, and all had been married in a Latter-day Saint Temple.

A sample of 20 per cent of the women residing in Wyview Village was selected. Directories for the two Latter-day Saint Wards (parishes) in the Village were used for the population; and, with the help of the ward clerks, it was noted which mothers were employed and which were full-time homemakers. A table of random numbers was used to select fifteen employed and fifteen non-employed mothers from the wards' population.

III. APPROACH TO SECURING THE DATA

Each mother selected for the study was contacted by telephone or in person and an appointment was made for the personal interview. In the process of the interview, rapport was established by stating that this was a study on the homemaking role of student wives. The mothers were then told that they would not be identified in any way in the study. They were asked to be open and frank and were assured that any information they would give concerning their homemaking role would be appreciated.

In order to help the respondent give her opinion on the questions in the four categories (strongly agree, mildly agree, mildly disagree, and strongly disagree) each was given a card listing these responses. She was able to refer to it throughout the interview.

IV. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The interview schedule was designed with weights of 4, 3, 2, and 1 to designate strongly agree, mildly agree, mildly disagree, and strongly disagree. The scale score consists of the sum of the items within the scale and each had a possible range from twenty to eighty points. Therefore, a higher score means that the mother agrees with the scale, whereas a low score means that the mother disagrees with the scale.

With fifteen mothers in each sample, it was possible to draw from the ratings a total score for each mother. Then the scores of the non-employed mothers were compared with the scores of the employed group of mothers by means of the "F" test.

The basis of statistical analysis used in this study is the null hypothesis. This assumes no difference between the two groups. A statistical test of any manifest differences rejects or fails to reject the null hypothesis. The statistical test simply determines whether or not the differences between the two groups are actual or due to

sampling fluctuations. If the null hypothesis is rejected, the differences manifest are considered significant. However, a significant difference does not always mean it is an important difference with known social consequences.²

V. TESTING STATISTICS

The data was arranged in ascending order for each sample group, and the mean and variance were calculated by use of the following formulas:³

$$\text{mean} = \frac{\sum fY}{n}$$

$$s^2 = \frac{n\sum fY^2 - (\sum fY)^2}{n(n-1)}$$

The population variances were then tested for homogeneity by testing the null hypothesis that $\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ by means of the "F" test, where $\alpha = .10$.

$$F = \frac{s_1^2}{s_s^2} \text{ with } n_1-1 \text{ and } n_s-1 \text{ degrees of freedom.}$$

Acceptance of this hypothesis then allowed the use of the "t" test for determining a difference between means. The null hypothesis was

²James E. Wert, Charles O. Needt, and Stanley J. Ahmann, Statistical Methods in Educational and Psychological Research (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954), p. 123.

³Edward C. Bryant, Statistical Analysis (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 56.

$\mu_1 = \mu_2$ with the alternative hypothesis that $\mu_1 < \mu_2$. Calculations of the t values were made by the following formulas:⁴

$$t = (\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2) / s_p \sqrt{(1/n_1 + 1/n_2)}$$

$$\text{where } s_p^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1) s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1) s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

A t-table was then consulted at the required degrees of freedom to determine the level of significance or the value where the t test rejected the null hypothesis on a one-tailed test. It was decided that only α values of .05 or smaller would be considered significant.

⁴Ibid., p. 91.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

I. DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

The sample consisted of thirty subjects: fifteen full-time employed Latter-day Saint mothers and fifteen non-employed Latter-day Saint mothers. The women were all wives of Brigham Young University students and had received at least a high school education. The comparative educational levels of the mothers are shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV
EDUCATION LEVELS OF EMPLOYED
AND NON-EMPLOYED MOTHERS

Years of Schooling	Employed Mothers		Non-Employed Mothers	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
High School Graduate	3	20	4	26.6
One Year of College	6	40	4	26.6
Two Years of College	1	7	1	7.0
Three Years of College	0	0	1	7.0
College Graduate	2	13	2	13.0
Business School Graduate	2	13	3	20.0
Graduate Study	1	7	0	0.0
Total	15	100	15	100.2

Number and Ages of Children. The number of children for the employed mothers ranged from one to three with ages ranging from eight months to nine years. For the non-employed mothers, the number of children ranged from one to five with ages ranging from two months to eleven years. The number of children for both groups are shown in Table V, and their ages are shown in Table VI. It may be noted that when comparing the average family size and age of children, the non-employed families were larger and older; however, when considering only children under age three, the family size of the employed and non-employed mothers were comparable. This

TABLE V
NUMBER OF CHILDREN

Number of Children	Employed Mothers		Non-Employed Mothers	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
1	6	40	5	33
2	5	33	3	20
3	4	27	3	20
4	0	0	1	7
5	0	0	3	20
Total	28	100	39	100

difference of family size may have been due to a shorter time of marriage for the employed mothers.

TABLE VI
AGES OF CHILDREN

Age	Employed Mothers		Non-Employed Mothers	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Under 12 mos.	1	3	3	10
One year	5	18	3	8
Two years	5	18	5	13
Three years	3	11	4	10
Four years	1	4	7	18
Five years	5	18	2	5
Six years	2	7	6	15
Seven years	2	7	3	7
Eight years	3	11	2	5
Nine years	1	3	2	5
Ten years	0	0	1	2
Eleven years	0	0	1	2
Total	28	100	39	100

Income and Occupation. The employed mothers are engaged in a variety of occupations. The largest number (nine) were secretaries and bookkeepers. Two were employed at a garment factory as cutters and seamstresses, three held professional jobs, and one woman did telephone sales which required no training or experience.

TABLE VII
OCCUPATION OF EMPLOYED MOTHERS

Occupation	No.	Percent
Seamstress	2	13
Secretary - Bookkeeper	9	60
Telephone Sales	1	7
Professional (Teacher, Dietitian, Nurse)	3	20
Total	15	100

In comparing the employment of the husbands, we find that of the non-employed mothers, twenty per cent of their husbands worked full time. Only thirteen per cent of the employed mothers' husbands did. Of the employed mothers' husbands, sixty-seven per cent engaged in part-time employment, compared to sixty per cent of the husbands of the non-employed mothers. Twenty per cent of the husbands in each group did not engage in any employment at all.

However, each of the husbands of this group of non-employed mothers were receiving fellowships or scholarships which were considered sufficient for the support of their families. In view of the size of the sample, there does not seem to be enough difference in the employment of the husbands to enable us to draw any conclusions relating to the incidence of employment of the mothers.

TABLE VIII
EMPLOYMENT OF HUSBANDS

Employment	Employed Mothers		Non-Employed Mothers	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Not Employed	3	20	0	0
Not Employed (receiving fellowships or scholarships)	0	0	3	20
Employed Part Time	10	67	9	60
Employed Full Time	2	13	3	20
Total	15	100	15	100

In analyzing Table IX, the income level of the husband was higher for the non-employed mothers than for the employed mothers. Here the question arises, "Is the difference due to (1) a willingness on the part of the employed mothers' husband to depend upon her for support of the family, and therefore, he did not seek a higher paying job; (2) was this dependence forced upon him due to higher-paying jobs being scarce in the Provo area and the fact that there are perhaps not enough for all who would like to assume full support of the family; or (3) was it due to a desire for a higher standard of living for the employed mother's family?"

TABLE IX
INCOME LEVELS OF HUSBANDS

Income	Employed Mothers		Non-Employed Mothers	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
None	3	20	0	0
\$ 500	1	7	1	7
1,000	3	20	0	0
1,500	3	20	2	13
2,000	2	13	2	13
3,000	3	20	7	47
4,000	0	0	1	7
5,000 and above	0	0	2	13
Total	15	100	15	100

Table X shows that 49 per cent of the non-employed mothers are living at the \$3,000 per year level, while only 13 per cent of the employed mothers are at this income level. Forty per cent of the employed mothers are in the \$5,000 to \$6,000 per year level compared to 7 per cent of the non-employed mothers living at this level. Each group had one family with an income above \$6,000. The mean income of the employed mothers' families was \$4,730, while the mean income of the non-employed families was only \$3,866.

TABLE X
TOTAL FAMILY INCOME LEVELS

Income	Employed Mothers		Non-Employed Mothers	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
\$3,000	2	13	7	47
4,000	6	40	6	40
5,000	2	13	1	7
6,000	4	27	0	0
7,000	1	7	0	0
8,000	0	0	1	7
Total	15	100	15	101

The data in Table XI indicates that more non-employed mothers worked before marriage than did the employed mothers. After marriage, before the coming of children, only 60 per cent of the

non-employed mothers worked out of the home, while all but one of the employed mothers worked before children were born. In reviewing the interview of the one woman who did not work after marriage before children were born, it is noted that she had three older children (ages 5-9) and her husband decided to return to school only this year; and, therefore, perhaps she had not previously felt the need for outside employment.

TABLE XI
PREVIOUS WORK EXPERIENCE
OF THE MOTHERS

Groups	Worked Before Marriage				Worked After Marriage			
	Yes	%	No.	%	Yes	%	No.	%
Employed Mothers	10	80%	5	20%	14	93%	1	7%
Non-Employed Mothers	14	93%	1	7%	9	60%	6	40%

In reporting their feelings of job satisfaction, most of the women stated that they enjoyed their jobs, but they would prefer being at home; therefore, they looked forward to their husbands' completing school and their being able to return to full-time homemaking. More of the women with incomes above \$3,000 indicated that they were

"very satisfied" with their jobs than did those with lower salary scales. In reviewing the interview schedules, it is noted that the women with professional jobs rated themselves as very satisfied with their work. The mother with an income of over \$5,000 who rated her job satisfaction as "very unsatisfied" stated that it was not dissatisfaction over the job, but that she strongly disliked the woman she worked with. In view of this, we may assume a trend towards a correlation between income level and job satisfaction.

TABLE XII
COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION AND INCOME
LEVELS OF EMPLOYED MOTHERS

Rating of Job Satisfaction	Income Level	No.	Percent
Very Satisfied	\$5,000	1	33
	4,000	2	
	3,000	2	
Quite Satisfied	\$3,000	6	47
	2,000	1	
Quite Unsatisfied	\$2,000	1	7
Very Unsatisfied	\$5,000	1	13
	3,000	1	
Total		15	100

Reasons for Working or Not Working. All of the employed mothers indicated financial need as their main reason for employment, and all but two said that this was their only reason for working. These two mothers gave job satisfaction as a secondary reason for employment, but added that they did not plan to continue working after their husbands completed school.

Table XIII gives a breakdown of the reasons given by non-employed mothers for not working. The most frequent reason given was that a woman's place was in the home. This statement was frequently followed by a comment about children needing the mother at home.

TABLE XIII

REASONS EXPRESSED BY NON-EMPLOYED MOTHERS
FOR NOT SEEKING OUTSIDE EMPLOYMENT

Reason	No.	Percent
Woman's place is in the home	6	40
Prefer being home	2	13
Husband does not want me to work	3	20
It is not necessary	2	13
Too expensive for me to be out of the home	1	7
I am not organized enough	1	7
Total	15	100

II. THE HYPOTHESIS

The first hypothesis stated that the employed Latter-day Saint mothers have a more favorable attitude toward the homemaking role than non-employed mothers. This hypothesis was tested by using a "t" test to compare the mean score of employed mothers with the mean score of non-employed mothers. The results of this statistical calculation was that the null hypothesis ($\mu_1 = \mu_2$) was rejected at the .05 level of significance for the attitude towards homemaking scale.

The second hypothesis stated that the employed Latter-day Saint mothers would have a more favorable attitude towards outside employment than the non-employed mothers. This hypothesis was also tested by the use of a "t" test to compare the mean score from the employment attitude scale of the employed mothers with the mean score of the non-employed mothers. This analysis did not show a statistically significant difference in the attitude of the two groups. However, one non-employed mother had an extremely low score on the employment scale. When it was eliminated from the sample, the hypothesis was supported at the .05 level. There may be justification in removing her from the non-employed data as she stated that she planned to work when she was able to secure a suitable position, and that she felt that outside employment for the mother could be a worthwhile experience for a family.

When a correlation-coefficient was determined for the data, there was a positive correlation between favorable attitude towards homemaking and a favorable attitude towards outside employment of .837 for the employed mothers. From this, we could, therefore, predict about 70 per cent of the time a favorable attitude towards the homemaking role would also be related to a favorable attitude towards outside employment and the converse for the employed mothers. However, a lower correlation between these roles of .667 was found for non-employed mothers. Because of the indication of these correlation coefficients and the above data logic, it might be possible that a larger sample should show a significant difference for the second hypothesis. (See Figures 1 and 2.)

III. GENERAL DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES

The range of scores on the Parental Attitude Research Instrument was from 25 to 56 for employed mothers and from 32 to 63 for non-employed mothers. The mean score for employed mothers was 39.53, and the mean score for non-employed mothers was 46.6. (See Figure 3.)

On the Employment Attitude Scale, the range of scores for employed mothers was from 34 to 60 and from 26 to 68 for the non-employed mothers. The mean score for employed mothers was 47.4,

and the mean score for non-employed mothers was 52.6 (See Figure 4.)

IV. DISCUSSION ON FINDINGS

It is suggested in this paper that there is a relationship between outside employment and acceptance of the homemaking role. The support for the first hypothesis, that employed Latter-day Saint mothers would have a more favorable attitude toward the homemaking role than non-employed mothers, is statistically significant at the .05 level for the Parental Attitude Research Instrument scale. The support for the second hypothesis, that employed Latter-day Saint mothers would have a more favorable attitude toward outside employment than non-employed mothers, was not found significant beyond the .10 level. Statistically, the second hypothesis must be rejected at the .05 level, but seems worthy of further study.

The research data showed that the mean income of the employed mothers' families was higher than the mean income of the families of the non-employed mothers. The income level of the husbands of the non-employed mothers was higher than the income level of the employed mothers' husbands.

In regards to previous work experience of the sample, it was found that more of the non-employed group had worked before

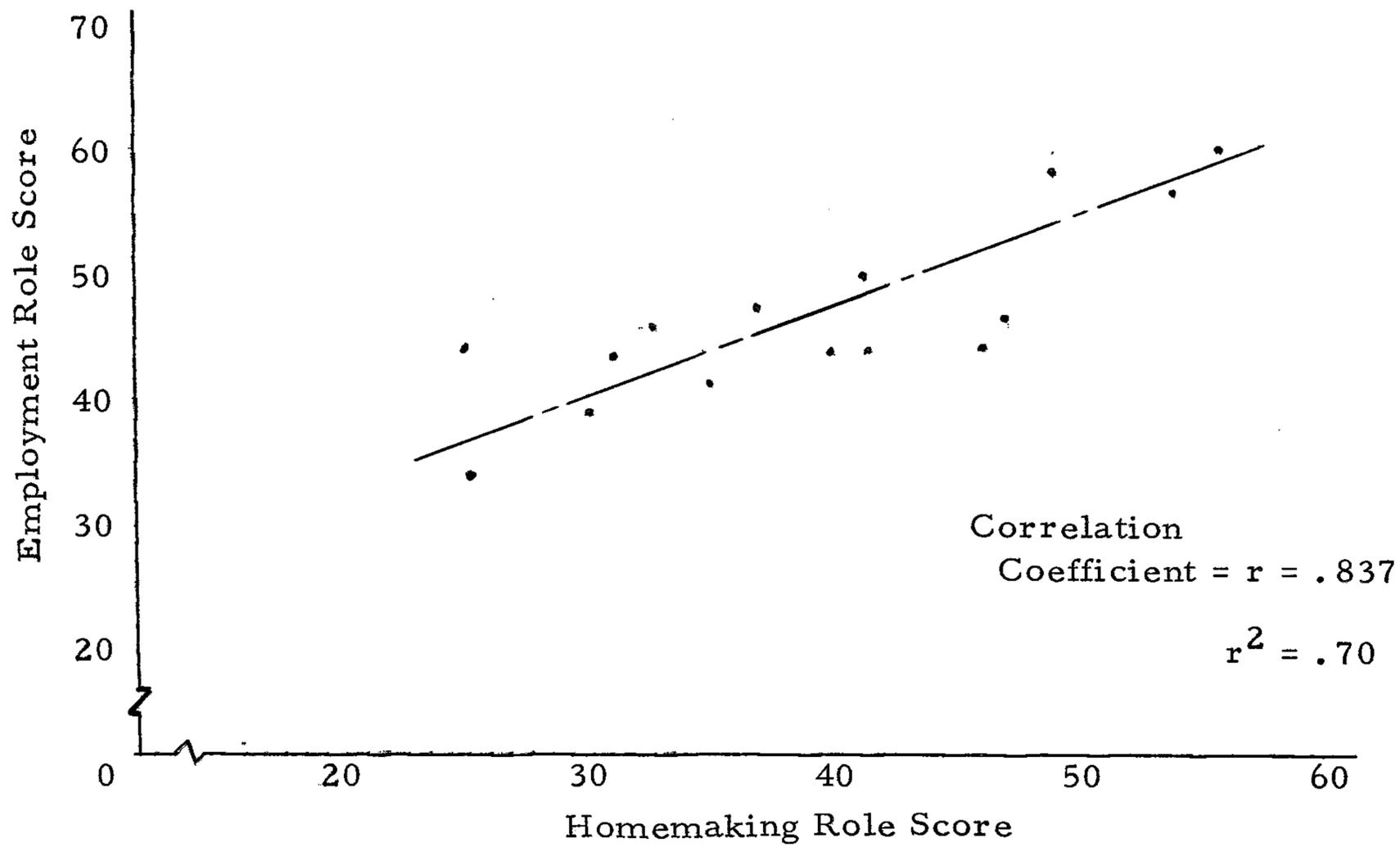


FIGURE 1

CORRELATION BETWEEN HOMEMAKING AND EMPLOYMENT ROLES OF EMPLOYED MOTHERS

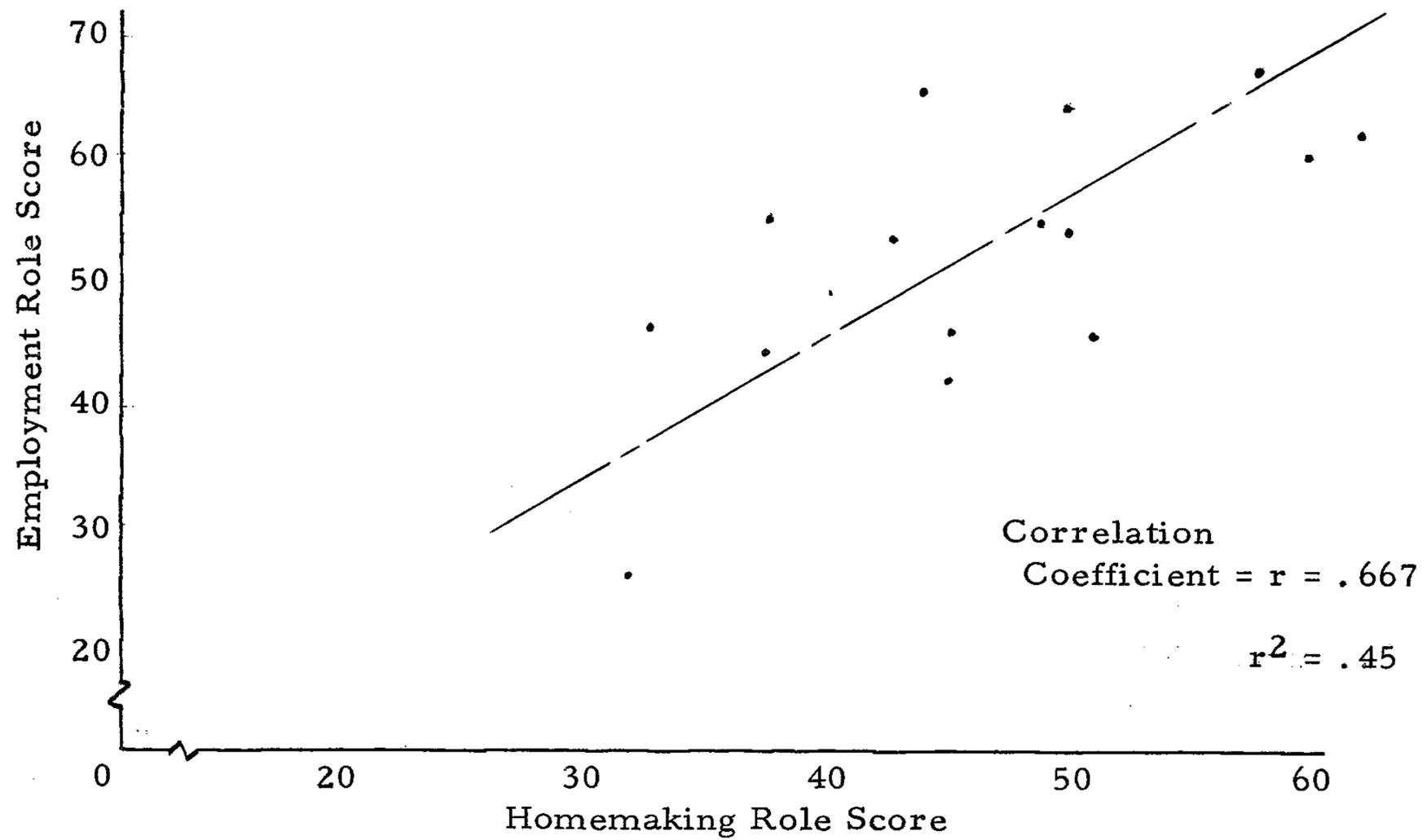


FIGURE 2

CORRELATION BETWEEN HOME MAKING AND EMPLOYMENT
ROLES OF NON-EMPLOYED MOTHERS



FIGURE 3
HOMEMAKING ROLE

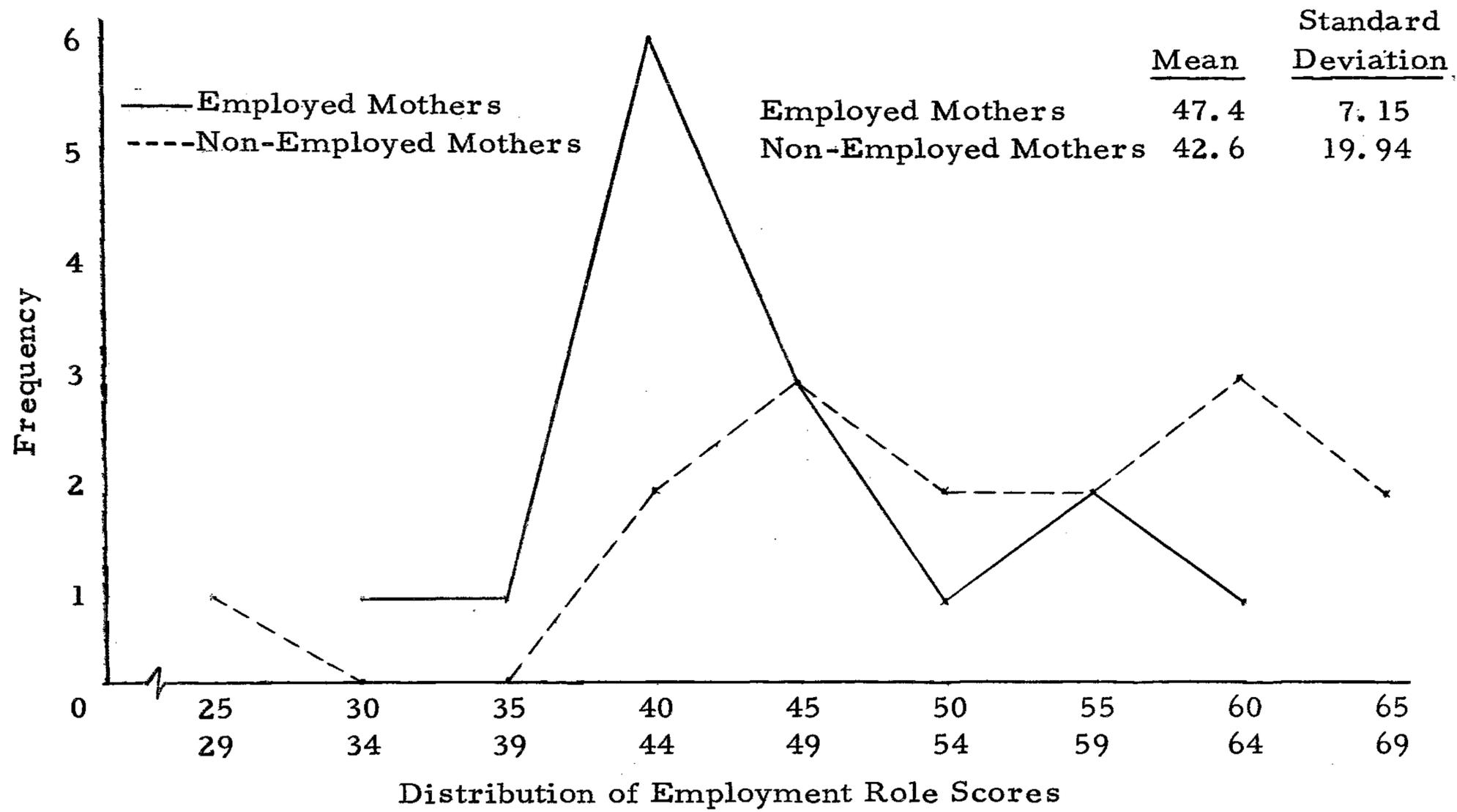


FIGURE 4
EMPLOYMENT ROLE

marriage than had the presently employed group. After marriage, before the coming of children, almost all the employed group had worked, while only just above half of the non-employed had worked then.

The main reason for seeking outside employment was a feeling of financial need on the part of the employed mothers' families. The most frequent reason given for not working was the philosophy that a woman's place was in the home and that her children needed her there.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is the purpose of this study to investigate and compare the attitudes of employed Latter-day Saint mothers and non-employed Latter-day Saint mothers toward the homemaking role and outside employment.

II. HYPOTHESIS

On the basis of the literature surveyed and the rationale expressed in Chapter I, it is proposed that there is a relationship between the acceptance of outside employment and acceptance of the homemaking role by mothers. Specifically, it is hypothesized that:

1. Employed Latter-day Saint mothers will have a more favorable attitude towards the homemaking role than non-employed mothers.
2. Employed Latter-day Saint mothers will have a more favorable attitude towards outside employment than non-employed mothers.

III. METHODOLOGY

To test these hypotheses, the responses of employed mothers were compared with the responses of non-employed mothers. Selected sub-scales of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument Form VI for mothers was utilized in determining maternal attitudes towards the homemaking role. An interview schedule measuring Attitude Towards Outside Employment was developed by the researcher. This interview schedule followed the general style and content of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument. Background data was also collected, which included family size, income, employment experience of the parents, and education of the mother.

The sample population consisted of fifteen non-employed and fifteen employed Latter-day Saint mothers. They were all wives of Brigham Young University students and currently living in Wyview Village. They had all received high school diplomas and had been married in a Latter-day Saint Temple.

The sample was selected randomly from ward directories. After selection of the sample, each mother was contacted personally and an interview was given by the researcher.

Statistical analysis was used to test the significance of the revealed differences between the two groups in their attitude towards the homemaking role and outside employment.

IV. FINDINGS

The support for the first hypothesis, that employed Latter-day Saint mothers would have a more favorable attitude towards the homemaking role than non-employed Latter-day Saint mothers, was found to be statistically significant at the .05 level or beyond. The support for the second hypothesis, that employed Latter-day Saint mothers would have a more favorable attitude towards outside employment than non-employed, was not found significant beyond the .10 level. Statistically, the second hypothesis must be rejected. However, it seems worthy of further study because when a correlation coefficient test is run on the data, there is a correlation of .837 with a positive homemaking attitude for employed mothers. This correlation was not found for the non-employed mothers.

From the data, it was found that the mean income level of the families of employed mothers was higher than the mean income of the non-employed mothers' families. The income level of the husbands of the non-employed mothers was higher than the income level of the employed mothers' husbands.

As to previous work experience of the sample groups, it was found that more of the non-employed group had worked before marriage than had the presently employed group. After marriage, before

the coming of children, almost all the employed group had worked. Only slightly more than half of the non-employed mothers had worked at that time.

The main reason expressed for seeking outside employment was a feeling of financial need on the part of the employed mothers' families. The most frequent reason given by the non-employed mothers for not seeking outside employment was the philosophy that a woman's place was in the home and that her children needed her there.

V. CONCLUSIONS

From the results of this study, it may be concluded that there seems to be a difference in attitude towards homemaking between employed and non-employed Latter-day Saint mothers. The results of this study indicated the more positive attitude towards homemaking on the part of the employed mothers.

The second hypothesis, that the employed Latter-day Saint mother would have a more favorable attitude towards outside employment, was not found to be statistically significant for either group. When a correlation coefficient test was run on the data, there was a positive correlation between favorable attitude towards homemaking and a favorable attitude towards outside employment for the employed

mother sample. From this, we could predict that about seventy per cent of the time that a favorable attitude towards the homemaking role, on the part of an employed mother, would be related to a favorable attitude towards outside employment. This same correlation was not found for non-employed mothers.

For the sample of this study, the main reason for outside employment on the part of mothers was a feeling of financial need. The non-employed mothers felt that a belief in the philosophy that a mother's place is in the home prevented her from working outside the home.

VI. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The main limitation of this study lies in the sample. The sample size is small. If larger, a more significant comparison between employed and non-employed Latter-day Saint mothers' attitude towards employment and the homemaking role could be made. The population from which the sample was drawn was limited by the fact that all the mothers were wives of college students, living in Wyview Village, and had received at least a high school education. The families were all intact and the mothers were relatively young. It is not to be considered as representative of the Church.

A second limitation lies in the difficulty of trying to measure attitude. It appears that attitudes are very subject to change and perhaps if these same mothers were interviewed after their husbands had been out of school, a change of attitude towards the homemaking role and outside employment might have occurred and been measurable.

VII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

1. It is suggested that a similar study with a representative sample of the Churchwide population would be desirable.
2. If other studies verify these findings, further studies could be directed towards an attempt to determine why employed mothers indicate a more favorable attitude towards the homemaking role.
3. More work needs to be done in developing the scale measuring attitude towards outside employment. An item analysis could be done to determine the better discriminators.
4. It might be significant to study the self-concept of employed and non-employed Latter-day Saint mothers and correlate it with attitudes towards homemaking and outside employment.

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APPENDIX

Number _____

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

This is a survey concerning the attitudes of women towards the homemaking role. The information obtained will be used in a Master's of Science Thesis in the Department of Family Life Education. The interview will be completely anonymous and any information that you can give concerning your attitude about the homemaking role will be appreciated.

BACKGROUND DATA

1. What are the ages of your children?

<input type="checkbox"/> under 12 mos.	<input type="checkbox"/> 4 yrs.
<input type="checkbox"/> 1 yr.	<input type="checkbox"/> 5 yrs.
<input type="checkbox"/> 2 yrs.	<input type="checkbox"/> 6 yrs.
<input type="checkbox"/> 3 yrs.	<input type="checkbox"/> 7-12 yrs.
	<input type="checkbox"/> over 12 yrs.

2. How far have you gone in school?

<input type="checkbox"/> Grade 9 or less	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 yr. College
<input type="checkbox"/> 10	<input type="checkbox"/> 2 yrs. College
<input type="checkbox"/> 11	<input type="checkbox"/> 3 yrs. College
<input type="checkbox"/> High School grad.	<input type="checkbox"/> College Grad.
<input type="checkbox"/> Business school grad.	<input type="checkbox"/> Master's Degree
<input type="checkbox"/> Beauty school grad.	
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (list) _____	

3. Are you presently a student? Yes No

4. Are you employed outside the home? Yes No
If "No" go to #5. If "Yes" continue here.

- a. How much do you work outside the home?
 full-time (40 hrs. a week)
 part-time
 seasonally
 occasionally
- X b. What do you do for outside employment?
 teaching typist
 secretarial receptionist
 bookkeeping cashier
 nursing clerk
 other (list) _____
- c. How satisfied are you with your present job?
 very satisfied quite unsatisfied
 quite satisfied very unsatisfied
- d. What is your present income? (Do not include husband's salary)
 less than \$500 4000
 500-1000 5000
 2000 5200
 3000 above
5. X Did you work before marriage? Yes ___ No ___
 Full-time ___ Part-time ___
6. X Did you work after marriage before children? Yes ___ No ___
 Full-time ___ Part-time ___
7. Do you earn any money while at home? Yes ___ No ___
- a. What do you do?
 tend children sew
 iron other (list) _____
 type
8. People have lots of different reasons for working. What would you say is the chief reason that you work?
 finances bored
 did not enjoy being at home desire for satisfaction
 not enough challenge at home derived from work

a. Are there other reasons? Yes ___ No ___

b. What are they? _____

9. People have lots of different reasons for not working. What would you say is the chief reason that you do not work?

___ prefer being home ___ woman's place is in home
 ___ not trained for any job ___ other (list) _____

10. Is your husband earning an income? Yes ___ No ___

a. Part-time ___ Summer only ___
 Full-time ___

b. What is his approximate yearly income?

___ 500 or less ___ 2000
 ___ 1000 ___ 3000
 ___ 1500 ___ 5000
 ___ above

c. Do you have any other source of income? Yes ___ No ___

What is it? (list) _____

11. What would you say is your total yearly income?

___ less than 500 ___ 4000
 ___ 500-1000 ___ 5000
 ___ 2000 ___ 5200
 ___ 3000 ___ above

12. Social class of both parents.

Wife's Mother:

Education:

___ grade 9 or less
 ___ 10
 ___ 11
 ___ high school grad.
 ___ bus. school grad.
 ___ beauty school grad.

Wife's Father:

Education:

___ grade 9 or less
 ___ 10
 ___ 11
 ___ high school grad.
 ___ bud. school grad.
 ___ beauty school grad.

Wife's Mother:

Education: (continued)

- college 1 yr.
 2 yrs.
 3 yrs.
 college grad.
 Master's Degree
 Other (list) _____

Wife's Father:

Education: (continued)

- college 1 yr.
 2 yrs.
 3 yrs.
 college grad.
 Master's Degree
 Other (list) _____

Occupation:

Which of the following classifications best describes their regular work during the past five years?

- professional
 semi-professional
 or technical
 business proprietor
 bus. manager
 clerical or sales
 skilled worker
 semi-skilled or unskilled
 worker
 retired
 student
 housewife
 other (list) _____

Occupation:

- professional
 semi-professional
 or technical
 business proprietor
 bus. manager
 clerical or sales
 skilled worker
 semi-skilled or unskilled
 worker
 retired
 student
 housewife
 other (list) _____

What is the specific title of your present job?

Income:

Approximate yearly income:

- \$500 or less
 1000
 1500
 2000
 3000
 5000
 above

Income:

Approximate yearly income:

- \$500 or less
 1000
 1500
 2000
 3000
 5000
 above

Husband's Mother:

Education:

- grade 9 or less
 10

Husband's Father:

Education:

- grade 9 or less
 10

Husband's Mother:

Education: (continued)

- 11
 high school grad.
 bus. school grad.
 beauty school grad.
 other (list) _____
 college 1 yr.
 2 yrs.
 3 yrs.
 college grad.
 Master's Degree

Husband's Father:

Education: (continued)

- 11
 high school grad.
 bus. school grad.
 beauty school grad.
 other (list) _____
 college 1 yr.
 2 yrs.
 3 yrs.
 college grad.
 Master's Degree

Occupation:

Which of the following classifications best describe their regular work during the past five years?

- professional
 semi-professional
 or technical
 bus. proprietor
 bus. manager
 clerical or sales
 skilled worker
 semi-skilled or unskilled
 worker
 retired
 student
 housewife
 other (list) _____

Occupation:

- professional
 semi-professional
 or technical
 bus. proprietor
 bus. manager
 clerical or sales
 skilled worker
 semi-skilled or unskilled
 worker
 retired
 student
 housewife
 other (list) _____

Income:

Approximate yearly income:

- \$500 or less
 1000
 1500
 2000
 3000
 5000
 above

Income:

Approximate yearly income:

- \$500 or less
 1000
 1500
 2000
 3000
 5000
 above

What is the specific title of your present job?:

12. Observe (general trend)

_____ washer

_____ dryer

_____ deep freeze

type and year of automobile:

general appearance of home, children and mother:

other conveniences:

Attitudes of Working and Non-Working
L.D.S. Mothers Towards the Homemaking
Role and Outside Employment

Please indicate your response to the following questions by placing a check in the column indicating strongly agree, mildly agree, mildly disagree, or strongly disagree. There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own opinion. It is very important to the study that all questions be answered. Some statements may seem alike but are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

The following letters are placed over the four columns at the right of the questionnaire for the appropriate responses.

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Mildly Agree</u>	<u>Mildly Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>					
	A	a	d	D		A	a	d	D
1.	The home is the only thing that matters to a good mother.								
2.	A working mother knows that she will not be able to take the lead in family matters.								
3.	Children should realize how much parents have to give up for them.								
4.	Employment provides a young mother with the opportunity of doing lots of things she wants to do while she is young.								

38. Outside employment could not be considered by a good mother.
39. A married woman knows that she will have to take the lead in family matters.
40. One of the worst things about outside employment is that it takes the mother out of the home.

A	a	d	D

Employed _____
 Non-employed _____

SCORE SHEET FOR SAMPLE

Homemaking

Employment

1	
3	
5	
7	
9	
11	
13	
15	
17	
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21	
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14	
16	
18	
20	
22	
24	
26	
28	
30	
32	
34	
36	
38	
40	

_____ Total

Total _____

Instructions:

Enter #4, 3, 2, or 1 in each square according to whether the response was Strong Agreement, Mild Agreement, Mild Disagreement, or Strong Disagreement. Total score is merely the sum of entries in each column. The circled items are to be scored in the reverse order, i.e., 1, 2, 3, or 4, for Strong Agreement, Mild Agreement, Mild Disagreement, or Strong Disagreement.

ATTITUDES OF EMPLOYED AND NON-EMPLOYED
LATTER-DAY SAINT MOTHERS TOWARD
THE HOMEMAKING ROLE AND
OUTSIDE EMPLOYMENT

An Abstract of a Thesis

Presented to the

Department of Family Life Education

Brigham Young University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

by

Lois Richins Monroe

June, 1965

THESIS ABSTRACT

This thesis is a study of the attitudes of employed Latter-day Saint mothers and non-employed Latter-day Saint mothers toward the homemaking role and outside employment.

Two general hypotheses were tested. They were (1) employed Latter-day Saint mothers will have a more favorable attitude toward the homemaking role than non-employed mothers; and (2) employed Latter-day Saint mothers will have a more favorable attitude toward outside employment than non-employed mothers.

Participants in the study were thirty wives of Brigham Young University students living in Wyview Village. Fifteen were full-time homemakers and fifteen were employed out of the home full time.

The subjects were given a personal interview by the researcher. A modification of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) by Schaefer and Bell was utilized to obtain measures of attitude concerning the homemaking role. An interview schedule measuring Attitude Towards Outside Employment was developed following the general style and content of the PARI.

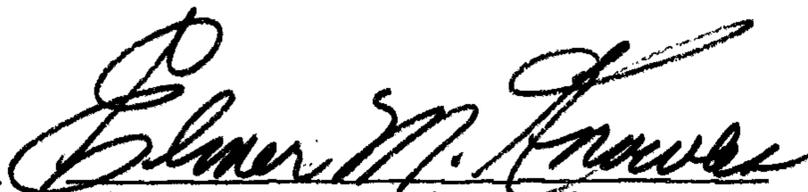
On the basis of the findings of this study, employed mothers did show a statistically significant more positive attitude towards the homemaking role than did the non-employed mothers. There was not a statistical significant difference in attitudes toward outside.

employment between the two groups, although there was a trend towards more positive attitudes on the part of the employed mothers. There was found a positive correlation between a favorable attitude towards the homemaking role and a favorable attitude toward outside employment for the employed mothers. Such a correlation was not found for the non-employed mothers.

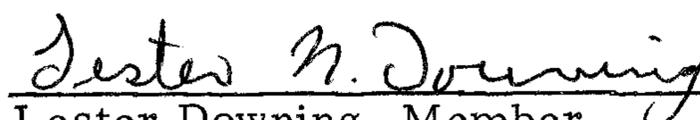
The employed mothers in this study expressed a feeling of financial need as the main reason for working outside the home. It was a belief in the philosophy that a woman's place was in the home that prevented the non-employed mothers from seeking outside employment.

6 May 1965

Date



Elmer M. Knowles, Chairman
Advisory Committee



Lester Downing, Member
Advisory Committee



Blaine R. Porter, Chairman
Major Department