Electronic Theses and Dissertations

Summer 2006

Determinants of Attitudes and Perceptions Concerning Married Women in the Labor Force

Kristy Margaret Krivickas

Follow this and additional works at: https://dsc.duq.edu/etd

Determinants of Attitudes and Perceptions Concerning

Married Women in the Labor Force

A Thesis

Presented to the

McAnulty College and Graduate School of Liberal Arts

Duquesne University

in partial fulfillment of

the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

by

Kristy Krivickas

May 4, 2006

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT

Over the past few decades, the relationship between women and family has changed due to the increased participation of women in the labor force. This study analyzes the 2002 General Social Survey (GSS) to determine what types of individuals believe in traditional versus nontraditional sex roles for mothers. The entire sample within the 2002 GSS was analyzed as well as subsets for married individuals. The significant variables in each model differed somewhat, indicating that married individuals' determinants are not exactly the same as those in the entire sample. This study also points out possible policy recommendations that would serve to increase the resources that women can use to have both a career and a family.

I.   Introduction

Over the past few decades, the relationship between women and the family has changed due to the increased participation of women in the labor force. The feminist movement contended that women did not have to be satisfied with only their role in the family. Women are now holding multiple roles in the labor force and in the family. More women are working now since the 1970's, but is this increase reflected by more permissive attitudes concerning working women? Do people still hold traditional viewpoints on women's role as nurturers and caregivers or are people more accepting of the nontraditional role of women as breadwinners?

A key indicator of public opinion towards women, family, and work involves the questions of whether women should work outside the home after marrying and during different stages of children's development. The questions reflect the strength of attitudes that prioritize a woman's traditional family roles of wife and mother over her roles in the labor force. In particular, questions include: Should women work outside the home after marrying, but before they have children? Should women work when there is a child under school age? Should women work when their youngest child starts school? Should women work when their children have left home? What is the public opinion towards married women participating in the labor force? What are the determinants of people's attitudes toward the roles of women in combining family and work?

These questions are crucial in determining if women are gaining public recognition of equality with men in the labor force. If public opinion shapes public policy and if the majority of society does not feel that women should be working, then public policies affecting women, family, and work will be more difficult to change.

In a time where women still do not receive equal pay as their male counterparts, when women are either denied employment or are forced from their positions if they become pregnant, where rigid work hours do not allow for family time, and where women are still pegged into "pink-collar" jobs, it is important to understand people's perceptions of working women and working mothers and the correlates of those perceptions. Issues of the public opinion context of public policy are vital, because issues of women participating in the labor force are at least partially dependent on public opinion. Without public support for wives and mothers working, changing policy will be difficult. This is why it is important to examine the attitudes towards married women and mothers in the labor force as well as the determinants these attitudes. Public policy that addresses gender equality is more likely to be effective when strong public sentiment is present.

This research examines the determinants of people's attitudes towards the interrelated issues of women, family, and work. The investigator hypothesizes that it will be age, sex, educational attainment, whether or not a respondent's mother worked during childhood, religious affiliation, income, attitudes towards men's role in childcare and housework, and attitudes towards family life suffering if women work that will be the strongest determinants. After analyzing the determinants, the investigator will use France's family policies as a guideline in determining policy recommendations. Using a comparative approach will assist in gaining a greater understanding of the public's attitudes towards women, family, and work.

II.   Literature Review

Historical Background

It is important to remember that the study of women in the labor force cannot be viewed solely from a social perspective, but other areas, such as historical events and changes in the economy, have to be considered as well. Cotter et al's study rests on the notion that "there has long been a general agreement that increasing gender equality is fueled, at least in part, by the growth in women's paid labor force participation" (2001: 430). In order for gender equality to exist, women need to be accepted in the labor force. This argument seems logical, but the next question that should be asked is how women become accepted. Oppenheimer (1973) as quoted by Cotter et al (2001) argues that "continued economic development in our society has increased the demand for female labor, which combined with demographically induced shifts in the supply of women, has resulted in a considerable rise in women's labor force participation" (Cotter et al 2001: 432). Cotter et al (2001: 433) go on to show that female labor demand is grounded in the "changing shape of the nation's economy that shifts employment from manufacturing to the service sector, and its growing firm size and its attendant problems of organizational control that leads to increases in clerical work." Their study indicates that historical changes in the economy have created the demand for female labor. The reduction of male-dominated labor areas, such as mining and farming, and the increase of female-dominated labor areas, such as nursing and clerical work, have changed the dynamics of the labor force and have provided for the demand of female labor.   With this historical increase in demand for female labor, it is even more important to grasp current attitudes.

In taking a historical approach to the literature, the investigator will first look at the literature that outlines how attitudes towards women in the labor force have developed since the 1970's. Oppenheim-Mason et al's (1976) study specifically looks at changes in women's attitudes towards sex-roles from 1964-1974. From 1964-1970 they found that there was a significant attitude change only within those that graduated from college, but these shifts in opinion were substantial. Their results showed that from 1964 to 1970 approximately 34% more women disagreed with the statement "a man can make long-range plans for his life, but a woman has to take things as they come" and that approximately 7% more women disagreed with the statement that "it is more important for a wife to help her husband than to have a career herself" (Oppenheim-Mason 1976: 587). From 1970-73 their work showed that between 9-18% more women in 1973 gave egalitarian responses compared to their responses in 1970. During this time frame there was also an increase in the amount of women "endorsing the rights of women to keep their jobs while bearing children and the rights of women to be considered for top jobs on an equal footing with men" (1976:587). The ten years between 1964 and 1974 see a drastic increase in women's attitudes toward their right to be a member of the labor force.

Thornton et al's (1983) study depicts attitude change from the mid-1970's into the 1980's. Although there were favorable attitudes during the mid-1970's for women participating in the labor force and for greater opportunities for women outside of the home, there was a change during the late 1970's and early 1980's towards disapproval for nontraditional women's roles.

There have been great strides in the egalitarian views of women's roles within the past 30 years. These views were strongest during the 1970's and 1980's, but the trend

towards liberal attitudes has been slowing since the late 1980's. Bolzendahl & Myers (2004) study of feminist attitudes from 1974-1998 show that attitudes have continued to liberalize and converge over time and that the determinants of feminist opinion have been stable over time (2004: 760). Thornton and Young-DeMarco's (2001) study of trends in attitudes toward family issues from the 1960's through the 1990's shows that while Americans still value family life there have been increases of individual freedom and egalitarianism. They also show that the distinctions between the rights and responsibilities of women and men are becoming increasingly suspect (2001: 1011). The overall trend from the 1960's until the late 1990's was continued increases in egalitarian views towards women, but with a gradual slowing from the late 1980's. After this slowing, there has been a leveling-off of this trend during the late 1990's (Thornton and Young-DeMarco 2001).

Teachman et al's (2000) research highlights the drastic changes that have occurred in the structure of the American family. Single-parents families, cohabitation over marriage, and gay and lesbian parenting, are just a few of the types of familial changes that Teachman et al (2000) list. The changing nature of the family is important when studying sex role attitudes, particularly when looking at the growth of economic independence of women. Economic independence and the decline in the economic power of men are major factors in determining changes of marriage patterns (2000:1237). Women's income has become a key factor in marriage. Research points out two ways in which women's income impacts sex roles. First, "female employment seems to encourage marriage rather than discouraging it" and secondly, "younger men appear to be more willing to accept egalitarian division of labor, reducing the work burden wives face

in dual-earner families" (Teachman et al 2000: 1244). There has been a dramatic decrease in the importance of male economic worth to women. Women do not have to be economically dependent on their husbands any longer. It appears that men are more interested in marrying employed women seems to have marked a turning point in the image of sex roles. Female employment no longer appears to have a negative stigma attached to it.

Determinants

Oppenheim-Mason et al's study shows that education and employment were among the most important determinants in egalitarian attitudes.   These egalitarian attitudes help spread the ideas of gender equality. While these two determinants are critical, the researchers also noted that "women from all walks of life have apparently undergone comparable attitude change since 1964" (1976:594).

Numerous studies have shown that the amount of education one has obtained is a strong determinant of egalitarian views regarding women in the labor force (Oppenheim-Mason et al: 1976; Powell & Steelman: 1982; Bolzendahl & Myers: 2004). Bolzendahl & Myers (2004) discuss the role of education in egalitarian ideas. They state that "education provides exposure to egalitarian ideas and inhibits acceptance of gender myths and stereotypes" (2004: 766). More important than the individual's education may be the amount of education an individual's mother has. It is the mother that provides the female model for children and therefore is more likely to spread ideas concerning gender equality (Powell & Steelman: 1982 and Bolzendahl & Myers: 2004).   Powell & Steelman (1982) also state that the role of an individual's mother's education impacts sons more than daughters. This is an important point because most often it is men that

are in control of the job hiring process and when more egalitarian attitudes are passed down to sons, it is more likely that gender equality will exist in the labor force.

Along with education as a determinant, Thornton et al's research shows that sex and age are determinants of attitudes. Within their intergenerational study, eighteen-year-old sons had significantly more traditional views than did eighteen-year-old daughters (1983: 213). They also found that "daughters were more egalitarian in 1980 than their mothers were in 1962" (1983:213). Looking at the attitude differences based on sex, research shows that the working status of women is also significant. Women working full-time have the strongest egalitarian attitudes, women working part-time have attitudes similar to women who are full-time homemakers, and women who are full-time homemakers have attitudes more similar to men (Glass: 1992; Cassidy and Warren 1996). Not only does an individual's working status impact attitudes towards women in the labor force, but an individual's mother's working status also plays a part. Willetts-Bloom and Nock (1994) state that it is not only whether an individual's mother worked, but the age of the child when the mother began working that is important. "The younger the respondent was when her/his mother began working, the greater the approval of mothers working" (Willetts-Bloom and Nock 1994: 380).

Religious affiliation and religious attendance are also essential. Between 1962 and 1977, "Fundamental Protestants became less egalitarian and Catholics more egalitarian than Nonfundamentalist Protestants" (Thornton et al: 1983). The research of Thornton et al (1983) and Willetts-Bloom and Nock (1994) showed that those who attended religious services frequently had more traditional attitudes. As Bolzendahl & Myers also point out, "conservative Protestants are the least supportive of nontraditional

gender roles and Jews are the most supportive, with Catholics and mainline Protestants falling somewhere in between" (2004: 766-767).

A gap within the literature resides in current writing on the attitudes of women in the labor force. The majority of recent articles focus on feminist attitudes and sex roles, but do not focus on the attitudes towards women in the labor force. The most up-to-date literature reflects differences in the way in which men and women use their free time (Sayer: 2005). As well as studies on time-usage, current research provides insights into the division of household labor. While these issues are critical, it is also important to continually review the attitudes towards women in the workforce, especially during conservative political atmospheres. The increased attention to the conservative right may cause changes in the attitudes towards gender, family, and work.

III. Conceptual Framework

This research uses the public opinion approach within policy-making theory as its theoretical framework. Adolino and Blake discuss the public opinion approach as "the impact of contemporary, specific attitudes as reflected in public opinion polls; scholars use responses to questionnaires to measure support for government intervention or belief in the role of individual responsibility" (2001: 32). It is important to use a public opinion approach in this study because as previously mentioned, without a greater understanding of the public's opinions towards married women in the labor force, policies will be more difficult to change. Increases in public sentiment need to occur in order to provide opportunities for change.

It is important to re-evaluate these attitudes, because from the late 1980's to 2000's we have seen a waning in the American feminist movement. With this waning, will egalitarian viewpoints reach a peak, or will attitudes continue to liberalize so that female breadwinners will be fully accepted into society?

Past quantitative studies highlight the interpretation of sex, age, education, and mother's education as independent variables (Oppenheim-Mason et al: 1976; Powell & Steelman: 1982; Bolzendahl & Myers: 2004). These variables were interpreted to show that women, younger individuals and those with more education are often times more liberal than men, older individuals and those with less education. Along with examining these variables, it is imperative that we look at the role that religion and demographic factors play in this study. There is a general understanding that those with strong religious beliefs who attend religious services frequently are more conservative in their thinking than those that attend on a less frequent basis or do not attend at all. Also, regarding demographic areas those in the South and Mid-West have typically been considered as more conservative than those on the West-Coast and North-East regions of the United States. I hypothesize that young individuals, women, those that are highly educated, and those residing in areas other than the South will have more liberal viewpoints.

In doing a quantitative study, it is important to use both bivariate and multivariate analysis. While bivariate correlation analysis measures the relationship between two variables, multivariate analysis measures the relationship between two variables when controlling for others in the model (Allison 1999:105). Determining the degree of shared variance between the independent and dependent variables is done within the

bivariate analysis, whereas multivariate analysis measures the variance in one independent variable that is not accounted for by the other independent variables (Allison 1999).

IV.   Methodology

This study analyzes the 2002 General Social Survey (GSS) in order to establish the determinants of peoples' attitudes towards married women in the labor force. The GSS is an independently drawn sample of English-speaking persons 18 years of age or over, living in non-institutional arrangements within the United States. The GSS is conducted by the National Opinion Research Center in order to provide accurate data for analysis. Babbie et al (2003: 32) state that the sampling of the GSS is representative of American adults, making the results an accurate reflection of the attitudes of all American adults. GSS data was collected in face-to-face household interviews, with professional interviewers asking each question and writing down the answers, taking approximately 90 minutes per interview (Babbie et al 2003). The sample in the 2002 GSS involved 2,765 respondents. Within this 2002 GSS data set, the investigator located an International Social Survey Program (ISSP) Module that included questions concerning Americans' attitudes toward women working as explained below.
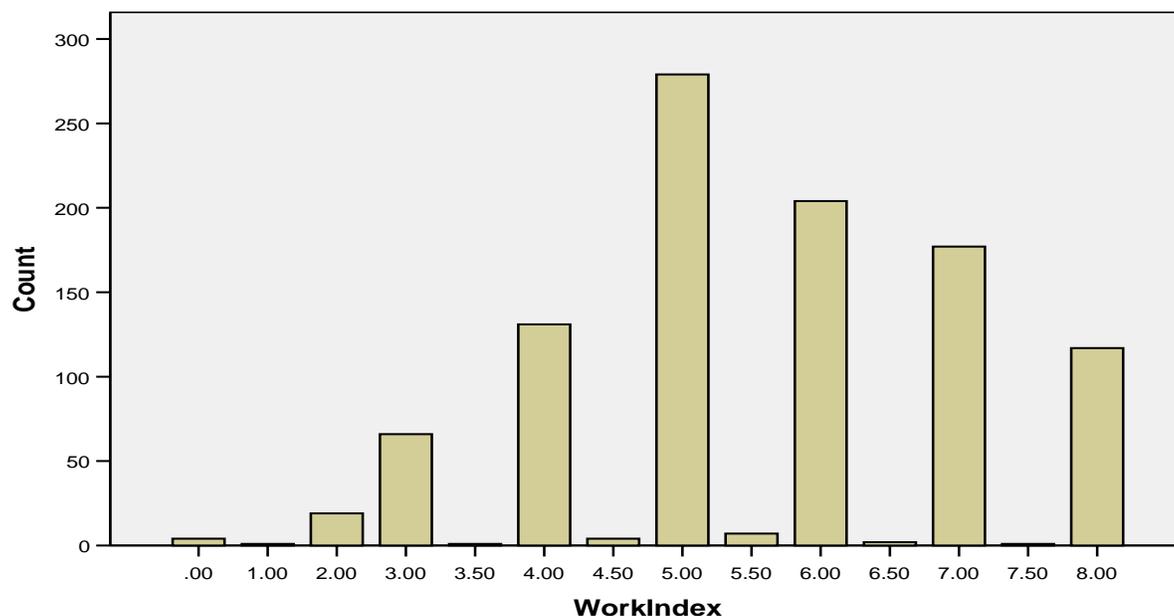
Dependent Variable

The dependent variable for this study, attitudes toward women in the labor force is derived from questions on the 2002 ISSP Module: Family and Changing Gender Roles III found within the 2002 GSS. The questions asked in the module were: **Do you think that women should work outside the home full-time, part-time or not at all under**

the following circumstances, 1: After marrying and before there are children, 2: When there is a child under school age, 3: After the youngest child starts school, 4: After the children leave home. The possible responses to these circumstances were *work full-time*, *work part-time*, *stay home*, *can't choose*, *no answer*, and *not applicable*. In 2002, of the 2,765 total respondents, 1169 respondents provided a response for each of the four parts of the leading question. The number of cases was reduced because these respondents were part of the 2002 ISSP Module: Family and Changing Gender Roles III and the questions within this module were not asked of all of the respondents.

From these questions, the investigator constructed an index that provides a continuum of the most liberal to the most conservative views on women and mothers in the labor force. The most liberal side depicts the respondents who agreed with the statement that women should work under all circumstances. Respondents on the more conservative end of the index are those who expressed a more restricted set of circumstances under which they believe women should work. The index is created so as to have a range from 0-8. Within each of the four above-stated circumstances, the respondents that believe that women should work full-time will be given a value of 2. Those who believe that women should work part-time will be given values of 1. The respondents who selected that women should stay at home were given values of 0. Since the question involved four circumstances, the sum of scores for the index ranges from a highest possible score of 8 to a lowest of 0. A score of 8 indicates the most liberal attitudes towards women in the labor force, while a score of 0 indicates the most conservative attitudes. (See Figure 1 for a graphical representation of the dependent

variable.) Appendix A provides a more detailed explanation of the construction of the

index.

Figure 1

Independent Variables

This study analyzes 30 independent variables: 1) age, 2) marital status, 3) sex,

4) race, 5) number of siblings, 6) number of children, 7) education, 8) mother's

education, 9) spouse's education, 10) female spousal educational difference, 11) male

spousal educational difference, 12) total family income in 1998, 13) respondent's income

in 1998, 14) respondent's SEI, 15) respondent's mother's SEI, 16) respondent's spouse's

SEI, 17) political party identification, 18) religious affiliation-Catholic, 19) religious

affiliation-Protestant, 20) religious service attendance, 21) strength of religious

affiliation, 22) labor force status, 23) mother's employment when growing up, 24) region

of interview, 25) both men and women should contribute to income, 26) kid fulfillment

index, 27) marriage attitude index, 28) family life index, 29) family benefits index, and

30) men nontraditional index.

Short definitions are listed in this section with more detailed definitions in

Appendix B. Age is defined as the current age in years of the respondent, making this a

ratio level variable. Sex is defined as the gender of the respondent, which was recoded

into a dummy variable with female=1 and male=0, making this a nominal variable. It is

important to note that all dummy variables will operate like interval level variables in the

correlation and regression analyses. Race is the race of which the respondent identifies

themselves. This variable was transformed into a dummy variable in which white=1 and

all other races=0, making it a nominal level variable. Marital status is defined as the

respondent's marital status at the time of interview. This variable was transformed into a

dummy variable in which married=1 and all others=0, making this variable a nominal

level variable. The number of siblings and children a respondent has are the definitions

of number of siblings and number of children, both of these variables are ratio level

variables. The highest year of school completed is the definition of education, making

this is a ratio variable. Mother's education is the highest year of school completed by the

respondent's mother, which is also a ratio level variable. Spouse's education is the

highest year of school completed by the respondent's spouse, also a ratio level variable.

Male spousal educational difference is the difference between husband's education and

wife's education, which is a ratio level variable. Female spousal educational difference is

the difference between wife's education and husband's education, which is a ratio level

variable. Total family income in 1998 and respondent's income in 1998 are ratio level

variables. Respondent's SEI, respondent's mother's SEI, and spouse's SEI are the

socioeconomic economic index values for each category, these values are interval level

values. Political party affiliation is the political party the respondent classifies

themselves as. This variable was recoded into a dummy variable were Democrats=1 and

all other parties=0, making this a nominal level variable. Religious affiliation is defined

as the respondent's religious preference. This variable was recoded into two dummy

variables, Protestant and Catholic. Protestant was recoded so that Protestant=1 and all

other religious affiliations=0 making this a nominal variable. Catholic was recoded so

that Catholics=1 and all other religious affiliations=0, making this a nominal variable.

Religious attendance is defined as how often the respondent attends religious services.

This variable was transformed into a dummy variable in which those that frequently

attend services (attending 2-3 times a month or more) were coded as 1 and those

attending services on a seldom basis (once a month or less) were coded as 0, making this

a nominal variable. Working status is defined as the respondent's labor force status.

The seven possible responses for this variable were working full time, working part time,

temporarily not working, unemployed – laid off, retired, school, and keeping house. This

variable was transformed into a dummy variable in which work full time=1 and all

others=0, making this a nominal level variable. Mother's labor force status is defined as

whether the respondent's mother worked while growing up. Those that had mothers that

worked were coded as 1 and those that did not work were coded as 0. This transformed

the variable into a dummy variable, making it a nominal variable. Demographic region

is defined as the region in which the interview took place, which was recoded into a

dummy variable with the South=1 and all other regions=0, making this a nominal

variable. Both men and women should contribute to income is the respondent's belief

that both people should contribute, this variable was recoded into those that responded

yes were coded as 1 and those that stated no were coded as 0, making it a nominal level

variable.

Each of the following fives indices are interval level variables and are more fully

defined in Appendix B. Kid fulfillment index combined two variables: kids are life's

greatest joy (coded strongly agree=1, agree=2, neither agree nor disagree=3, disagree=4,

strongly disagree=5) and kidless people lead empty lives (coded strongly agree=5,

agree=4, neither agree nor disagree=3, disagree=2, and strongly disagree=1). Marriage

index combined three variables: married people are happier than unmarried people

(coded strongly agree=1, agree=2, neither agree nor disagree=3, disagree=4, strongly

disagree=5); bad marriage better than none at all (coded strongly agree=1, agree=2,

neither agree nor disagree=3, disagree=4, strongly disagree=5); and those wanting kids

should get married (coded strongly agree=1, agree=2, neither agree nor disagree=3,

disagree=4, strongly disagree=5). Family life index combined six variables: working

mom can have a warm relationship with kids (coded strongly agree=4, agree=3, neither

agree nor disagree=2, strongly disagree=1); preschooler will suffer if mom works (coded

strongly agree=1, agree=2, neither agree nor disagree=3, strongly disagree=4); family life

suffers if mom works full-time (coded strongly agree=1, agree=2, neither agree nor

disagree=3, strongly disagree=4); most women really want a home and kinds (coded

strongly agree=1, agree=2, neither agree nor disagree=3, strongly disagree=4); being a

housewife is as fulfilling as paid work (coded strongly agree=1, agree=2, neither agree

nor disagree=3, strongly disagree=4); and job is best way for woman to be independent

(coded strongly agree=4, agree=3, neither agree nor disagree=2, strongly disagree=1).

The family benefit index combined two variables: should working women have maternity leave (coded as strongly agree=5, agree=4, neither agree nor disagree=3, disagree=2, and strongly disagree=1) and should families get benefits if both parents work (coded as strongly agree=5, agree=4, neither agree nor disagree=3, disagree=2, and strongly disagree=1). The men nontraditional index combined two variables: men ought to do more housework than they do now (coded as strongly agree=5, agree=4, neither agree nor disagree=3, disagree=2, and strongly disagree=1) and men ought to do more childcare than they do now (coded as strongly agree=5, agree=4, neither agree nor disagree=3, disagree=2, and strongly disagree=1). The literature suggests that education, mother's education, and working status are the three most relevant variables in determining the attitudes towards women in the labor force (Bolzendahl & Myers: 2004).

The last two independent variables, female spousal educational difference and male spousal educational difference[1], were created using respondent's education and spouse's education. Female spousal educational difference was created using a double selection process within SPSS. Only those that were female and married were selected. Once these cases were selected, the formula Respondent's Education – Spouse's Education was used to create the female spousal educational difference variable. Meaning that the male's education was subtracted from the female's education, therefore positive values would indicate a wife having more years of education than the husband. Male spousal educational difference was also created using a double selection process within SPSS. Only those that were male and married were selected. Once these cases were selected, the formula Spouse's Education – Respondent's Education was used to

[1] The variables female spousal educational difference and male spousal educational difference were not found within the 2002 GSS; rather they were created by Dr. Richard Colignon, Duquesne University, 2006.

create the male spousal educational difference variable. Meaning that the male's education was subtracted from the female's education, therefore positive values would still indicate a wife having more years of education than the husband similar to the female spousal education difference variable.

Univariate, bi-variate, and multi-variate analyses were performed on these variables. The multi-variate analysis was also divided into three models. The first was done to portray the entire 2002 GSS sample that was asked the questions contained in the dependent variable, Work Index, (N=1013). The second model was a subset of the 2002 GSS that only included married females (N=268). The third model was a subset that only included married males (N=212). Creating these two subsets allowed for a more detailed view of how married individuals feel about married women working. These two subsets also created the opportunity to analyze whether or not spousal educational differences are a determinant of attitudes towards married women in the labor force. Two variables were created for spousal educational difference. Positive answers within either formula would indicate higher female education. These formulas led me to postulate that positive responses will indicate more liberal or nontraditional viewpoints towards married females in the labor force. These insights into married individuals are not something that the literature highlights and therefore also points out a gap in the literature. By performing quantitative analysis on these variables, we can gain a better picture of who feels that married women should be working and who feels that married women should be homemakers. Providing descriptive statistics, correlations, and multi-regression will determine if single variables have an impact or if it is a combination of variables that are critical in determining attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

V.   Data Analysis

Univariate Descriptives

Table 1 on pages 61-62 presents the mean, minimum, maximum, standard deviation, and number of each variable found in this study. As can be seen from the descriptive statistics the dependent variable, **Work Index,** has 1013 valid responses with a mean of 5.5632, a range of 0 to 8 and a standard deviation of 1.52108.

The descriptive statistics for the independent variables show that the total number of respondents that provided their **age** is 1011 with a mean of 44.79, a range of 18 to 89, and a standard deviation of 16.845. As for **marital status** (married=1 and all others=0), the total number of respondents is 1013, with a mean of 0.48, range of 0 to 1, and a standard deviation of 0.500. For **sex** (female =1 and male=0), the total number of respondents is 1013, with a mean of minimum of 0.57, a range of 0 to 1, and a standard deviation of 0.495. **Race** (white=1 and all others=0) shows that the total number of respondents is 1013, a mean of 0.80, a range of 0 to 1, and a standard deviation of 0.400. **Number of siblings** was recoded so that those that responded "Don't Know" were considered missing. This allowed for a total number of respondents within the variable siblings to be 1012, a mean of 3.58, a range of 0 to 26, and a standard deviation of 2.949. **Number of children** has 1012 total respondents, mean of 1.77, a range of 0 to 8 and a standard deviation of 1.601. (Please note that the number of children was listed as 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 or more.)

Education, mother's education and spouse's education were all recoded so that those that responded "Don't Know" were considered missing. This allowed for a total number of respondents within **education** to be 1011, a mean of 13.4164, a range of 1 to

18

20, and a standard deviation of 2.70674. The total number of respondents for **mother's education** is 890, a mean of 11.5022, a range of 0 to 20, and a standard deviation of 3.38469. The total number of respondents for **spouse's education** is 480, a mean of 13.6021, a range of 2 to 20, and a standard deviation of 2.79015. For the variable **female spousal educational difference**, the total number of respondents is 268, a mean of 0.0709, a range of -8.00 to 13.00, and a standard deviation of 2.81891; for **male spousal educational difference**, the total number of respondents is 212, a mean of -0.1840, a range of -11.00 to 6.00, and a standard deviation of 2.46667.

The total number of respondents within **total family income for 1998** is 936, a mean of $47,983.44, a range of $500 to $130,000, and a standard deviation of $36,110.664. **Respondent's total income for 1998** has 675 total respondents, a mean of $32,325.93, a range of $500 to $130,000, and a standard deviation of $27,798.716. **Respondent's SEI** has 971 total respondents, a mean of 48.570, a range of 17.1 to 97.2, and a standard deviation of 18.6716. **Respondent's mother's SEI** has 613 total respondents, a mean of 43.415, a range of 17.1 to 97.2, and a standard deviation of 18.6740. **Respondent's spouse's SEI** has 461 total respondents, a mean of 51.586, a range of 17.1 to 97.2, and a standard deviation of 19.4287.

Political party affiliation has 1005 total respondents, a mean of 0.42, a range of 0 to 1, and a standard deviation of 0.494. Two dummy variables were created for religious affiliation. The first is the variable **Catholic**. The total number of respondents is 1009, a mean of 0.25, a range of 0 to 1, and a standard deviation of 0.434. The second is the variable **Protestant**. The total number of respondents is 1009, a mean of 0.54, a range of 0 to 1, and a standard deviation of 0.499. **How often the respondent attends**

religious services was recoded into a dummy variable in which frequent=1 and seldom=0 and has 1009 responses, a mean of 0.41, a range of 0 to 1, and a standard deviation of 0.491. The last religious variable is **strength of religious affiliation** which was recoded into a dummy variable in which strong=1 and other=0. There were 1010 valid cases, a mean of 0.38, a range of 0 to 1, and a standard deviation of 0.486.

Labor force status was recoded into a dummy variable in which working full time=1 and other=0. The total number of respondents is 1013, a mean of 0.50, a range of 0 to 1, and a standard deviation of 0.500. The variable **mother's employment when respondent was growing up** was transformed into a dummy variable in which mothers that worked=1 and those that did not=0. This variable has 946 total responses, a mean of 0.66, a range of 0 to 1, and a standard deviation of 0.475.

Region of interview was transformed into a dummy variable and recoded into the South=1 (South Atlantic region, East South Central region, and West South Central region) and all other regions=0 (New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, Mountain, and Pacific), therefore the total number of respondents were 1013, a mean of 0.33, a range of 0 to 1, a standard deviation of 0.472.

For the variable **Both Men and Women Should Contribute to Income**, the total number of respondents is 992, a mean of 3.7147, a range of 1 to 5, and a standard deviation of 1.19208.

The following two variables created the **Kid Fulfillment Index** variable which has 981 valid responses, a mean of 4.1233, a range of 2 to 8, and a standard deviation of 1.23308. **Kids are life's greatest joy** variable has 1000 total responses, a mean of 1.62, a range of 1 to 5, and a standard deviation of 0.808. **Kidless people lead empty lives**

variable has 991 total responses, a mean of 2.49, a range of 1 to 5, and a standard deviation of 1.159.

The following three variables created the **Marriage Attitudes Index** variable which has 970 total respondents, a mean of 9.3062, a range of 3 to 15, and a standard deviation of 2.39712. **Married People are Happier than Unmarried People** variable has 983 total respondents, a mean of 2.7548, a range of 1 to 5, and a standard deviation of 1.20332. **Bad Marriage Better than None at All** variable has 1004 total respondents, a mean of 4.3596, a range of 1 to 5, and a standard deviation of 0.94789. **Those Wanting Kids Should Get Married** variable has 1002 total respondents, a mean of 2.1966, a range of 1 to 5, and a standard deviation of 1.27148.

The following six variables created the **Family Life Index** variable with 923 valid responses, a mean of 15.9772, a range of 6 to 24, and a standard deviation of 3.79298. **Working Mom Can Have a Warm Relationship with Kids** variable has 1003 total respondents, a mean of 2.9202, a range of 1 to 4, and a standard deviation of 1.09052. **Preschooler Will Suffer If Mom Works** variable has 998 total respondents, a mean of 2.7966, a range of 1 to 4, and a standard deviation of 1.05596. The **Family Life Suffers If Mom Works Full-Time** variable has 1000 valid responses, a mean of 2.7610, a range of 1 to 4, and a standard deviation of 1.09044. **Most Women Really Want a Home and Kids** variable has 990 total respondents, a mean of 2.7333, a range of 1 to 4, and a standard deviation of 1.02822. The **Being a Housewife is as Fulfilling as Paid Work** variable has 978 valid responses, a mean of 2.2301, a range of 1 to 4, and a standard deviation of 1.04418. The **Job is Best Way for Woman to be Independent** variable has

1003 valid responses, a mean of 2.5633, a range of 1 to 4, and a standard deviation of 1.06605.

The following two variables created the **Family Benefits Index** variable. This variable has 985 total respondents, a mean of 7.8406, a range of 2 to 10, and a standard deviation of 1.83517.   The **Should Working Women Have Maternity Leave** variable has 1005 total respondents, a mean of 4.2925, a range of 1 to 5, and a standard deviation of 0.90263. The **Should Families Get Benefits if Both Parents Work** variable has 991 total respondents, a mean of 3.5469, a range of 1 to 5, and a standard deviation of 1.27429.

The following two variables created the **Men Nontraditional Index** variable with 989 valid responses, a mean of 7.5025, a range of 2 to 10, and a standard deviation of 1.87171. **Men Ought to Do More Housework than they Do Now** has 996 valid cases, a mean of 3.6576, a range of 1 to 5, and a standard deviation of 1.10924. **Men Ought to Do More Childcare than they Do Now** has 1002 valid cases, a mean of 3.8363, a range of 1 to 5, and a standard deviation of 1.02767.

Bivariate Statistics

The following section will provide information on the correlations between the dependent variable, Work Index, and each of the independent variables.[2] Please see Table 2, on pages 63-64, as a quick reference for the Pearson correlation, probability, and number within each correlation.

---

[2] Dummy variables were also tested using an independent sample t-test. The relationships found within the Pearson Correlations were the same as those found when using the t-test.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and the **age** of the respondent. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.196 with a 2-tail probability of 0.000. We can reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship, because the probability of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a negative relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce (as defined by the working women index) and the age of the respondent. Consistent with the literature, younger individuals appear more liberal in their attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **marital status**. This variable has been recoded into a dummy variable where married respondents = 1 and all others =0. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.096 with a 2-tail probability is 0.002. We can reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship, because the significance level of 0.002 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a negative relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and marital status. Consistent with my expectations, those that are not married appear more liberal in their attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **sex**. This variable has been recoded into a dummy variable in which female=1 and male =0. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.088 with a 2-tail probability of 0.005. We can reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship, because the probability of 0.005 is less than

the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a positive

relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and sex.

Consistent with the literature, women appear more liberal than men in their attitudes

towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards

married women in the workforce and **race**. This variable has been recoded into a dummy

variable in which white respondents=1 and all other races =0. The appropriate technique

is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.104 with a 2-tail probability of 0.001. The

null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected because the probability of

0.001 is less than the 0.05 for statistical significance. There is a negative relationship

between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and race (white=1).   This

result is consistent with the investigator's expectation that non-whites are more liberal in

their attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards

married women in the workforce and **number of siblings**.   The appropriate technique is

Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.014 with a 2-tail probability is 0.663. The null

hypothesis that there is no relationship cannot be rejected, because the significance level

of 0.633 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. The data from the

sample is unable to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between attitudes towards

married women in the workforce and number of children.   This result is contrary to the

investigator's expectation that those with a small number of siblings would be more

liberal in their attitudes towards women in the labor force than those with a large number

of siblings.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **number of children**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.092 with a 2-tail probability is 0.003. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.003 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a negative relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and number of children. This result is consistent with my expectation that those with fewer children are more liberal in their attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **education**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.081 with 2-tail probability of 0.010. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.010 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a positive relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and education. This relationship is consistent with the literature in that those with more education are more liberal in their attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **mother's education**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.009 with 2-tail probability of 0.791. We cannot reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship, because the significance level of 0.791 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. The data in the sample were unable to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and mother's education. This result is contrary

to the literature that states that one of the strongest determinants of sex role attitudes is mother's education.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **spouse's education**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.001 with 2-tail probability of 0.979. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship cannot be rejected, because the significance level of 0.979 is more than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. This sample provides insufficient evidence of a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and spouse's education. It is important to mention that there only 480 cases were analyzed for this relationship. The result is contrary to the investigator's expectations that the higher the spouse's education, the more liberal the respondent's attitudes towards women in the labor force would be.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **female spousal educational difference**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.248 with 2-tail probability of 0.000. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a positive relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and wife's spousal educational difference. A positive relationship indicates that when the wife's education is higher than the husband's, the respondent shows more liberal viewpoints towards married women in the labor force. Consistent with the investigator's expectations, wives who have more education than their husbands appear to have more liberal attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **male spousal educational difference**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.164 with 2-tail probability of 0.017. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.017 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. It is important to mention that there only 212 cases were analyzed for this relationship, but there does appear to be a positive relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and husband's spousal educational difference. Consistent with the investigator's expectations, wives who have more education than their husbands appear to have more liberal attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **total family income in 1998**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.024 with 2-tail probability of 0.464. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship cannot reject, because the significance level of 0.464 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. This sample does not provide evidence of a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and income. This result is contrary to the investigator's expectation that there would be a negative relationship between income and attitudes towards women in the labor force. It was anticipated that those with smaller incomes would have more liberal attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **respondent's total income in 1998**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.030 with 2-tail

probability of 0.437.   The null hypothesis that there is no relationship cannot be rejected, because the significance level of 0.437 is more than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does not appear to be a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and respondent's income. The result is contrary to the investigator's expectation that there would be a negative relationship between income and attitudes towards women in the labor force. It was anticipated that those with smaller incomes would have more liberal attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **respondent's SEI**.   The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.049 with 2-tail probability of 0.128.   The null hypothesis that there is no relationship cannot be rejected, because the significance level of 0.192 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does not appear to be a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and respondent's socioeconomic index. The result that there is no relationship is contrary to the investigator's expectation that there would be a negative relationship between respondent's socioeconomic index and attitudes towards women in the labor force. It was anticipated that those with a smaller socioeconomic index would have more liberal attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **respondent's mother's SEI**.   The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.053 with 2-tail probability of 0.192.   The null hypothesis that there is no relationship cannot be rejected, because the

significance level of 0.192 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does not appear to be a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and respondent's mother's socioeconomic index. The result that there is no relationship is contrary to the investigator's expectation that there would be a negative relationship between mother's socioeconomic index and attitudes towards women in the labor force. It was anticipated that those with a smaller socioeconomic index would have more liberal attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **respondent's spouse's SEI**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.074 with 2-tail probability of 0.111. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship cannot be rejected, because the significance level of 0.111 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does not appear to be a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and respondent's spouse's socioeconomic index. The result is contrary to the investigator's expectation that there would be a negative relationship between spouse's socioeconomic index and attitudes towards women in the labor force. It was anticipated that those with a smaller socioeconomic index would have more liberal attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **political party affiliation**. This variable has been recoded into a dummy variable in which Democrats=1 and all other parties =0. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.114 with 2-tail probability of 0.000 (meaning less than 0.001). The null hypothesis that there is no

relationship can be rejected because the significance level is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a positive relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and political party affiliation. This relationship is consistent with the expectation that those who are affiliated with the Democratic Party would have more liberal attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **religious affiliation**. This variable has been recoded into a dummy variable in which Catholics=1 and all other affiliations =0. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.000 with 2-tail probability of 0.994. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship cannot be rejected, because the significance level of 0.994 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There is no evidence of a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and religious affiliation where Catholics=1. This relationship is contrary to the investigator's expectation that those Catholics would have more conservative attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **religious affiliation**. This variable has been recoded into a dummy variable in which Protestants=1 and all other affiliations =0. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.065 with 2-tail probability of 0.039. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.039 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a negative relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and religious affiliation where Protestants=1. This

relationship is consistent with the literature; Protestants are more conservative in their attitudes towards women in the labor force than those in other religions.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **religious services attendance**. This variable has been recoded into a dummy variable showing those that frequently attended services=1 and those that seldom attend =0. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.135 with 2-tail probability of 0.000 (meaning less than 0.001). The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected because the significance level is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a negative relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and religious services attendance. Those that attend religious services frequently appear to be more conservative in their attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is consistent with the literature in that the more often one attends religious services the more conservative their attitudes towards sex roles will be.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **strength of religious affiliation**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.076 with 2-tail probability of 0.016. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.016 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does appear to be a negative relationship between strength of religious affiliation and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. Those with a strong religious affiliation appear to be more conservative in their attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is consistent with the literature in that the stronger the strength of

an individual's religious affiliation the more conservative their attitudes towards sex roles will be.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **labor force status**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.129 with 2-tail probability of 0.000. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a positive relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and labor force status. This result is consistent with the literature in stating that those who are participating in the labor force full-time are more liberal in their attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **mother's employment when respondent was growing up**. This variable has been recoded into a dummy variable showing those that worked=1 and those that did not work=0. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.090 with 2-tail probability of 0.006. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.006 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a positive relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and mother's labor force status. This relationship is consistent with the literature in stating that an individual whose mother worked is more liberal in their attitudes towards women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **region of interview**. This variable has been recoded into a dummy variable showing those being interviewed in the South=1 and those interviewed in all other regions=0. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.015 with 2-tail probability of 0.633. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship cannot reject, because the significance level of 0.633 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does not appear to be a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and region of the country. The result is contrary to the literature stating that there would be a negative relationship between region and attitudes towards women in the labor force, as those in the South would have more conservative attitudes towards married women in the labor force. Although, the literature did state that Southern attitudes are becoming more egalitarian over time as more women have entered the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and the idea that **both men and women should contribute to income**. The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.369 with 2-tail probability of 0.000 (meaning less than 0.001). We can reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship because the significance level is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does appear to be a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and attitudes that both men and women should contribute to income. This positive relationship is consistent with the expectation that those believing that both men and women should

contribute to income would have more liberal attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **Kid Fulfillment Index** (Kid Fulfillment Index added the responses from the variables Kid's Are Life's Greatest Joy and Kidless People Lead Empty Lives). The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is -0.086 with 2-tail probability of 0.007. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.007 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does appear to be a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and attitudes concerning children being very important in life. The result is consistent to the expectation that there would be a negative relationship between these two variables. The more individuals cherish children, the more conservative in their attitudes towards women in the labor force will be.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **Marriage Attitudes Index** (Marriage Attitudes Index added the responses from the variables Married People are Happier than Unmarried People, Bad Marriage Better than None at All, and Those Wanting Kids Should Get Married). The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.249 with 2-tail probability of 0.000. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does appear to be a positive relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and attitudes concerning marriage. This result

is consistent with the expectation that those having less traditional viewpoints towards marriage were expected to be more liberal in their attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **Family Life Index** (Family Life Index added the variables Working Mom Can Have a Warm Relationship with Kids, Preschooler will Suffer if Mom Works, Family Life Suffers if Mom Works Full-Time, Most Women Really Want a Home and Kids, Being a Housewife is as Fulfilling as Paid Work, and Job is Best Way for Woman to be Independent).   The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.533 with 2-tail probability of 0.000. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does appear to be a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and attitudes concerning family life. A positive relationship is consistent with the expectation of those having more liberal viewpoints towards family life should also have more liberal attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **Family Benefit Index** (Family Benefit Index adding the variables should Working Women have Maternity Leave and Should Families get Benefits if Both Parents Work). The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.157 with 2-tail probability of 0.000. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There appears to be a positive relationship

between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and attitudes about dual-income families receiving extra benefits. This positive relationship is consistent with the expectation that those having more liberal viewpoints towards providing benefits for maternity leave and receiving benefits if both parents work should also be more accepting of nontraditional family roles and should have more liberal attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and **Men Nontraditional Index** (Men Nontraditional Index added the variables Men Ought to do More Housework than they Do Now and Men Ought to do More Childcare than they Do Now). The appropriate technique is Pearson Correlation. The correlation is 0.109 with 2-tail probability of 0.001. The null hypothesis that there is no relationship can be rejected, because the significance level of 0.001 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance. There does appear to be a relationship between attitudes towards married women in the workforce and attitudes concerning men taking a larger role in household activities. This positive relationship is consistent with the expectation that those having more liberal viewpoints towards nontraditional men's sex role attitudes should also be more accepting of nontraditional family roles and should have more liberal attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

In summary, the bivariate analyses indicate that age, marital status, sex, race, number of children, education, female spousal educational difference, male spousal educational difference, political party identification, religious affiliation (Protestant=1), religious attendance, labor force status, strength of religious affiliation, mother's

employment, both men and women contribute to income, kid fulfillment index, marriage

index, family life index, family benefit index, and men nontraditional index were

statistically significant.

The next section will distinguish whether the relationships found within the

bivariate analysis hold true when combined with multiple independent variables.

Multivariate Analysis

In this section a model with multiple variables was analyzed to determine if the

relationships found within the bivariate analysis hold true when combining multiple

variables. Three multiple regression models were constructed. The first was based on

the entire 2002 GSS sample (N=1013). This will provide an overall model that will assist

in finding the determinants for explaining the attitudes concerning women in the labor

force. The second and third models are based on subsets from within the 2002 GSS

sample (N=1013). The second and third models were conducted to provide insights into

married individuals. The second model was based on married females (N=268) and the

third model was based on married males (N=212). Tables 3A, 3B, and 3C are

represented in pages 65-67. These tables list the slope, standard error, and probability for

each variable within each multiple regression model.

The regressions between the dependent variable (work index) and the independent

variables (age, marital status, sex, race, number of siblings, number of children,

education, mother's education, religious affiliation – Protestant, religious attendance,

strength of religious affiliation, labor force status, mother's labor force participation

while respondent was growing up, region of interview, both men and women should

contribute to the family income, and Family Life Index) had a R-square value of 0.339 (33.9% of attitudes towards married women in the labor force can be "explained" by the included variables) and contained 795 total cases. The statistically significant variables in this model were age, education, mother's education, number or children, both men and women should contribute to the family income, and Family Life Index. It is important to note that multicollinearity, meaning there is a strong linear relationships between independent variables, was tested for in each of the three multiple regressions. Allison (1999) discusses two diagnostics for multicollinearity, tolerance and the variance inflation factor. These diagnostics need to be checked for tolerances below 0.40 and variance inflation factors above 2.50 (Allison 1999: 141). For the first multiple regression model the lowest variance was 0.621 and the highest variance inflation factor was 1.611; therefore multicollinearity is not an issue within this model.

The variables having the most power within the model were determined by using the stepwise method of adding variables to the model. After figuring out which variables had the most power, the enter method was used to finalize the model. The variables with the most power and the variables that were found to be significant within the literature were included in the final multiple regression model. The variables within the literature were included to see if this study would different results compared to the literature.

Multivariate Analysis for Entire 2002 GSS Sample

The null hypothesis is that **age** and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression.

Age is negatively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of -0.010 and a t-value of -2.955. The probability is 0.003; because the significance level of 0.003 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one-year increase in age attitudes towards married women in the labor force decreases by 0.010 units. This result is consistent with the bivariate correlation that there is a negative relationship between age and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is also consistent with the literature in stating that younger individuals would have more liberal attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that **marital status** and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Marital status (married respondents coded as 1) is negatively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of -0.142 and a t-value of -1.461. The probability is 0.145; because the significance level is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This result is contrary to the significant bivariate correlation finding of a negative relationship between marital status and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. Marital status is not statistically significant when analyzed among a combination of multiple independent variables.

The null hypothesis is that **sex** and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Sex (females coded as 1) is positively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.125 and a t-value of 1.303. The probability

is 0.193; because the significance level is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This result is contrary to the bivariate correlation that there is a significant positive relationship between sex and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is also contrary to the literature finding that women are more liberal viewpoints towards women participating in the labor force. Sex is not statistically significant when analyzed among a combination of multiple independent variables.

The null hypothesis is that **race** and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Race (white coded as 1) is positively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.006 and a t-value of 0.049. The probability is 0.961; because the significance level is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This result is contrary to the bivariate correlation finding of a negative relationship between race and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. Race is not statistically significant when analyzed among a combination of multiple independent variables.

The null hypothesis is that **number of siblings** and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Number of siblings is negatively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of -0.011 and a t-value of -0.661. The probability is 0.509; because the significance level is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This result is consistent with the bivariate correlation that there was no relationship between number

of siblings and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. Number of siblings is not statistically significant when analyzed among a combination of multiple independent variables.

The null hypothesis is that **number of children** and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Number of children is positively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.068 and a t-value of 1.960. The probability is 0.050; because the significance level is equal to the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every additional child that a respondent has their attitude towards married women in the labor force increases by 0.068 units. This result is consistent with the bivariate correlation that there is a relationship between number of children and attitudes towards married women in the labor force, but the relationship changed from negative in the bivariate to a positive relationship in the multivariate analysis.

The null hypothesis is that **education** and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Education is positively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.038 and a t-value of 2.001. The probability is 0.046; because the significance level of 0.046 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one-year increase in education attitudes towards married women in the labor force increases by 0.038 units. This result is consistent with the literature and

the bivariate correlation that there is a positive relationship between education and attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that **mother's education** (yes coded as 1) and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Mother's education is negatively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of -0.040 and a t-value of -2.477. The probability is 0.013; because the significance level is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one year increase in mother's education attitudes towards married women in the labor force decreases by 0.040 units. This result is contrary to the bivariate correlation that there is no relationship between mother's education and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is also contrary to the literature, stating that the higher the mother's education the more liberal their attitudes towards married women in the labor force should be.

The null hypothesis is that **religious affiliation** (Protestant coded as 1) and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Religious affiliation is positively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.051 and a t-value of 0.532. The probability is 0.595; because the significance level is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This result is contrary to the bivariate correlation that there was a negative relationship between religious affiliation and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is also contrary to the negative relationship that was found in the literature as

well. The literature stated that Protestants would be more conservative in their attitudes

towards married women working. Religious affiliation is not statistically significant

when analyzed among a combination of multiple independent variables.

The null hypothesis is that **religious attendance** (frequent attendance coded as 1)

and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other.

The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Religious attendance is negatively

related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized

slope of -0.116 and a t-value of -1.020. The probability is 0.308; because the significance

level is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis

cannot be rejected. This result is contrary to the bivariate correlation that there was a

significant negative relationship between religious attendance and attitudes towards

married women in the labor force.   This result is also contrary to the literature that stated

those attending religious services more frequently would be more conservative in their

attitudes towards married women in the labor force. Religious attendance is not

statistically significant when analyzed among a combination of multiple independent

variables.

The null hypothesis is that **strength of religious affiliation** (strong affiliation

coded as 1) and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of

each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Strength of religious

affiliation is positively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with

an unstandardized slope of 0.111 and a t-value of 0.999. The probability is 0.318;

because the significance level of 0.318 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical

significance the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This result is contrary to the bivariate

correlation that there was a negative relationship between strength of religious affiliation and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is also contrary to the literature. The research indicated that those having a strong sense of religious affiliation would be more conservative in their viewpoints towards married women in the labor force.   Strength of religious affiliation is not statistically significant when analyzed among a combination of multiple independent variables.

The null hypothesis is that **labor force status** (working full-time coded as 1) and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Labor force status is positively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.076 and a t-value of 0.774. The probability is 0.439; because the significance level of 0.439 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This result is consistent to the bivariate correlation that there was a positive relationship between labor force status and attitudes towards married women in the labor force, but contrary to the result that labor force status was significant in the bivariate analysis. This result is also contrary to the literature that found a significant positive relationship. The literature stated that those that worked full-time would have more liberal attitudes towards married women participating in the labor force. Labor force status is not statistically significant when analyzed among a combination of multiple independent variables.

The null hypothesis is that **mother's employment when respondent was growing up** and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Mother's employment

when respondent was growing up is positively related to attitudes towards married

women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.091 and a t-value of 0.891.

The probability is 0.373; because the significance level of 0.373 is greater than the 0.05

convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This result

is consistent to the bivariate correlation that there was a positive relationship between

mother's employment when respondent was growing up and attitudes towards married

women in the labor force. This positive relationship is consistent with the literature that

found that those respondent's whose mother's worked while growing up were more

liberal in their attitudes towards married women in the labor force, but within the

literature mother's employment was one of the key determinants of attitudes towards

married women in the labor force. Mother's employment when respondent was growing

up is not statistically significant when analyzed among a combination of multiple

independent variables.

The null hypothesis is that **region of interview** and attitudes towards married

women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is

multiple regression. Region of interview (Southern states coded as 1) is negatively

related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized

slope of -0.100 and a t-value of -0.997. The probability is 0.319; because the significance

level of 0.319 is greater than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null

hypothesis cannot be rejected. This result is consistent to the bivariate correlation that

there was no relationship between region of interview and attitudes towards married

women in the labor force. This result is contrary to the literature that found that those

residing in the South would be more conservative in their attitudes towards married

women in the labor force. Region of interview is not statistically significant when analyzed among a combination of multiple independent variables.

The null hypothesis is that **both men and women should contribute to income** and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Both men and women should contribute to income is positively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.257 and a t-value of 6.121. The probability is 0.000; because the significance level of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one-unit increase in both men and women should contribute to income, attitudes towards married women in the labor force increases by 0.257 units. This result is consistent to the bivariate correlation that there is a positive relationship between both men and women should contribute to income and attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that the **family life index** and attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. The family life index is positively related to attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.173 and a t-value of 12.661. The probability is 0.000; because the significance level of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one-unit increase in the family life index, attitudes towards married women in the labor force increases by 0.173 units. This result

is consistent to the bivariate correlation that there is a positive relationship between the family life index and attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

Multivariate Results for Married Females within the 2002 GSS

The second multiple regression model was conducted to analyze married females. The same variables that were included in the entire sample model, except for sex and marital status for which were controlled and spousal educational difference which was not included in the entire model due to the fact that it drastically reduced the degrees of freedom within the model. The same variables were used in order to maintain consistency. This regression model consisted of the dependent variable (work index) and the independent variables (age, race, number of siblings, number of children, education, mother's education, female spousal education difference, religious affiliation–Protestant, religious attendance, strength of religious affiliation, labor force status, mother's labor force participation while respondent was growing up, region of interview, both men and women should contribute to the family income, and Family Life Index), had a R-square value of 0.445 (44.5% of married females' attitudes towards married women in the labor force can be explained by the included variables) and contained 226 total cases. The statistically significant variables in this model were female spousal education difference, labor force status, both men and women should contribute to the family income, and Family Life Index. For this regression model the lowest variance was 0.583 and the highest variance inflation factor was 1.716; therefore multicollinearity is not an issue within this model.

The null hypothesis is that **female spousal educational difference** and married females' attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Controlling for the other variables in the model, female spousal educational difference is positively related to married females' attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.104 and a t-value of 3.353. The probability is 0.001; because the significance level of 0.001 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one year increase in female spousal educational difference, attitudes towards married women in the labor force increases by 0.104 units. This result is consistent with the bivariate analysis that there was a positive relationship between female spousal educational difference and married females' attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that **labor force status** and married females' attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Labor force status is positively related to married females' attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.573 and a t-value of 3.334. The probability is 0.001; because the significance level of 0.001 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one-unit increase in labor force status attitudes towards married women in the labor force increases by 0.573 units. This result is contrary to the entire sample regression model that found no relationship between labor force status and attitudes towards married

women in the labor force.   Labor force status is significantly significant in determining

married females' attitudes towards married women in the labor force.

The null hypothesis is that **both men and women should contribute to income**

and married females' attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent

of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Both men and women

should contribute to income is positively related to married females' attitudes towards

married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.296 and a t-value of

4.055. The probability is 0.000 because the significance level of 0.000 is less than the

0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The

unstandardized slope states that for every one-unit increase in both men and women

should contribute to income, attitudes towards married women in the labor force

increases by 0.296 units. This result is consistent to the bivariate correlation that there is

a positive relationship between both men and women should contribute to income and

attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is also consistent with the

results found in the entire sample model.

The null hypothesis is that the **family life index** and married females' attitudes

towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The

appropriate technique is multiple regression. Family life index is positively related to

married females' attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an

unstandardized slope of 0.142 and a t-value of 5.874. The probability is 0.000 because

the significance level of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance

the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one-

unit increase in family life index, attitudes towards married women in the labor force

increases by 0.142 units. This result is consistent to the bivariate correlation that there is a positive relationship between family life index and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is also consistent with the results found in the entire sample model.

Multivariate Results for Married Males within the 2002 GSS

The third multiple regression model was conducted to analyze married males. The same variables that were included in the entire sample model, except for sex and marital status for which were controlled and spousal educational difference which was not included in the entire model due to the fact that it drastically reduced the degrees of freedom within the model. The same variables were used in order to maintain consistency. This regression model consisted of the dependent variable (work index) and the independent variables (age, race, number of siblings, number of children, education, mother's education, male spousal education difference, religious affiliation–Protestant, religious attendance, strength of religious affiliation, labor force status, mother's labor force participation while respondent was growing up, region of interview, both men and women should contribute to the family income, and Family Life Index), had a R-square value of 0.384 (38.4% of married males' attitudes towards married women in the labor force can be explained by the included variables) and contained 177 total cases. The statistically significant variables in this model were male spousal education difference, both men and women should contribute to the family income, and Family Life Index. For this regression model, the lowest variance was 0.575 and the highest variance inflation factor was 1.739; therefore multicollinearity is not an issue within this model.

The null hypothesis is that **male spousal educational difference** and married males' attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Male spousal educational difference is positively related to married males' attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.171 and a t-value of 3.004. The probability is 0.003; because the significance level of 0.003 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one year increase in male spousal educational difference, attitudes towards married women in the labor force increases by 0.171 units. This result is consistent with the bivariate analysis that there was a positive relationship between male spousal educational difference and married males' attitudes towards married women in the labor force. Spousal educational difference is significant in both the married female and married male subset models.

The null hypothesis is that **both men and women should contribute to income** and married males' attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Both men and women should contribute to income is positively related to married males' attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.539 and a t-value of 5.055. The probability is 0.000; because the significance level of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one-unit increase in both men and women should contribute to income, attitudes towards married women in the labor force increases by 0.539 units. This result is consistent to the bivariate correlation that there is

a positive relationship between both men and women should contribute to income and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is also consistent with the results found in the entire sample model and in the married female subset model.

The null hypothesis is that the **family life index** and married males' attitudes towards married women in the labor force are independent of each other. The appropriate technique is multiple regression. Family life index is positively related to married males' attitudes towards married women in the labor force with an unstandardized slope of 0.159 and a t-value of 4.209. The probability is 0.000; because the significance level of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 convention for statistical significance the null hypothesis can be rejected. The unstandardized slope states that for every one-unit increase in family life index, attitudes towards married women in the labor force increases by 0.159 units. This result is consistent to the bivariate correlation that there is a positive relationship between family life index and attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result is also consistent with the results found in the entire sample model and the married female subset.

Further interpretations for each significant variable will be provided in the next section.

VII. Results

The results within each of the three multiple regression analyses differed somewhat. Tables 3A, 3B, and 3C list the findings from each model. Within the entire 2002 model: age, number of children, education, mother's education, both men and women should contribute to income, and family life index were significant. Within the

52

married female subset: spousal educational difference, labor force status, both men and women should contribute to income, and family life index were statistically significant. Within the married male subset: spousal educational difference, both men and women should contribute to income, and family life index were statistically significant.

As these variables indicate, the determinants of attitudes towards married women in the labor force are slightly different for married individuals. Age and mother's education were found to be significant in the entire model. Age may be significant within the entire model and not in the married model for two reasons. First younger people are less likely to be married and secondly, as the literature points out, younger individuals tend to have more egalitarian attitudes towards women in the labor force. The result that number of children is positively related was interesting. Respondents with more children may feel that a woman has to work out of sheer financial necessity. It is extremely hard to support a large family on a one parent income and therefore more respondents may agree that women should participate in the labor force.

The higher the level of education the more liberal their attitudes. This relationship was highlighted in the literature; although researchers did point out that the causal link between the two variables is not known. At this time it is not possible to determine whether education causes liberal attitudes or liberal attitudes cause people to pursue higher levels of education.

It was surprising to find mother's education only significant in the entire model. According to the literature (Powell & Steelman: 1982 and Bolzendahl & Myers: 2004), mother's education was found to be one of the strongest determinants. It is also very surprising that mother's education was negatively related in this study. This indicated

that those respondents whose mother had less education had more liberal attitudes. A possible explanation as to why mother's education was not significant in either the married female or married male analyses might be that the mother's education does not play as strong as role as spouse's education. This also might lead to an explanation as to why spousal educational difference was significant in both the married male and married female analyses.

Another important finding in this study was that religiosity had no effect on attitudes towards married women in the labor force. According to the literature (Thornton et al: 1983 and Bolzendahl & Myers: 2004), religious factors should have played a role in determining attitudes towards married women in the labor force, but none of the three variables dealing with religion were significant in this study. Mother's labor force status was also found to be a key determinant in the literature, but none of the three models found this variable to be significant.

In looking at the subset models, labor force status was significant in the married females' subset. This is consistent with the literature that stated that women that participate in the labor force are more likely to have more liberal attitudes towards married women in the labor force. This result can be understood because working women may not want to provide differing answers concerning their attitudes towards married women working. Those already working full-time may not want to express the idea that married women should stay at home once they are married or have children, because this may make them appear hypocritical.

It is not surprising that both men and women should contribute to income and family life index were statistically significant in each of the three models. The

significance of these attitudinal variables might be explained in two ways. The first is that in providing answers for each of these attitudinal questions, respondents may not have wanted to contradict themselves and provided the same type of responses to all of the questions. The other possible explanation is that all of these attitudes belong together in the same attitudinal set. Respondents that were more likely to agree with questions such as both men and women should contribute to income and a working mom can establish a warm relationship with a child were also more likely to agree with married women working outside the home.

The introduction of spousal educational difference elicited an interesting finding. In both the married females' and married males' subsets, spousal educational difference were statistically significant and indicated a positive relationship. By constructing the variables so that a positive value would indicate a higher wife's education than husband's education, a positive relationship shows that wives with education closer to that of their husbands are more liberal in their attitudes towards married women in the labor force. Both the female and male spousal educational difference variables indicated positive relationships. The positive relationship indicates that regardless of sex of the respondent, when the wife had a higher educational level than the husband that individual was more accepting of married women in the labor force.

VI.   Limitations

The first limitation in this study is that attitudes are constantly changing and therefore are difficult to pinpoint. Sassler and Schoen mention that attitudes about sex roles are ever changing and become less traditional over time (1999: 152). Individual's

sex role attitudes can change over time and therefore results may not be generalizable to future or past attitudes. Attitudes can change on a daily basis and therefore the results of this study will be reliable, but they may not be absolutely valid. Not only may attitudes change on a daily basis, the most current data on this topic was from 2002, therefore attitudes may have changed within the past few years for which I cannot account. As past literature has pointed out, causality is also hard to determine. Researchers have not discovered whether it is education that causes more liberal stances or whether it is those that have more liberal stances that pursue higher education. Similarly with occupational status, researchers are unsure if it is those that have higher occupational status make a respondent more likely to believe that women should be present in the labor force or vice-versa (Thornton et al: 1983). These two issues are important limitations in my research.

Another limitation is that I was held to analyzing only the variables in the GSS dataset. Without conducting my own interviews or creating my own questionnaires, I was unable to ask more specific questions concerning the attitudes and perceptions towards married women in the labor force and I was therefore limited to analyzing the questions that were asked in the GSS. Additionally I was limited on the type of attitudes that could be analyzed; the 2002 ISSP Module: Family and Changing Gender Roles III did not include questions on other attitudes, such as attitudes towards capital punishment and abortion. Similarly, the literature pointed out that the more active fathers were in their children's lives the more likely the children would have increased egalitarian attitudes in later life. Unfortunately, the GSS did not include questions on the role of the father; therefore I was unable to analyze this situation.

VII.   Policy Recommendations

This section will highlight certain policy recommendations that will serve to increase the resources that women can use to have both a career and a family. This section will also focus on a comparative approach so as to provide new insights on how American businesses and the American government can remove obstacles that impede women in having both a career and a family. I will specifically be looking at French policy and how the French government has provided opportunities for working mothers. I will look at three possible recommendations: changing of school hours, maternity leave policy, and child care assistance.

I believe that one way to create more liberal attitudes towards women in the labor force is to provide alternative options for working mothers. Options that reduce the likelihood of parents leaving their children home alone and reduce the complications found in finding babysitters. By changing school hours to accommodate a working schedule, burdens of finding after-school childcare will be removed. Schools often start between 7:30 A.M. and 8:00 A.M. and end between 2:00 PM and 3:00 PM, whereas a typical parent's work schedule begins at 8:30 AM or 9:00 AM and ends at 5:30 PM or 6:00 PM. By changing the school hours to a schedule that bears some resemblance to a typical work schedule, parents will not have to worry about what to do with their children after school. If changing school hours is not a feasible option, then schools need to offer after-school programs and after-school child care at an affordable price.

The United States is one of the only industrialized countries not offering paid parental leave. Henneck states that the 1993 Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) is the only piece of legislation dealing with parental leave within the United States and the

FMLA regulations are only required of companies that employ 50 or more employees,

approximately one-half of American workers are not eligible for the benefits under the

FMLA (2003: 3). The FMLA provides twelve weeks of unpaid job-protected leave, but

the federal government does not provide any paid leave. California is one of the only

states to initiate a paid parental leave program. Many women do not have the capabilities

of taking twelve weeks of unpaid time off to have a baby, to make for an easier transition

into motherhood states and employers need to offer some form of financial assistance.

While the United States did not introduce its first parental leave policy until 1993, France

instituted their first parental leave policy in 1913. The French plan offers sixteen weeks

of paid leave for the birth of the first and second child and twenty-four weeks for the

third child (Henneck 2003: 10). Parental leave is also mandatory in France. I believe

that attitudes towards married women in the labor force would become more liberal if a

mandatory, paid maternity leave was offered. Paid maternity leave would allow for

women the time to bond with their child before returning to work.

Child care appears to be the most important aspect that controls whether or not a

mother will continue working after the birth of a child. Unfortunately, child care within

the United States can be a devastating expense for many parents. Although the United

State's federal government and state governments provide tax breaks for those with

children in public day care, a large amount of a family's income remains to be directed

towards child care expenses. "The average U.S. family using day care spends 11% of its

income for that service; low-income families spend over 20%, and high-income families

spend less than 5%" (Adolino and Blake 2001: 254). Because of the high costs

associated with public day care, many low-income families are often forced to find

informal baby-sitters to provide care for their children. Adolino and Blake show how drastically different France's child care system is compared to the United State's:

> France has one of the most comprehensive child care systems in the industrialized countries. The government provides a system of tuition-free preschools for all children ages three to six through the public education system. These preschools are funded through employer and employee contributions…In addition to the universal availability of child care, parents are also given tax concessions for children in public day care and for the cost of private day care in their homes (2001: 264).

French child care programs also become a means for socialization and education for the child, thereby providing benefits not only to the parents but also to the child. In Pettit and Hook's (2005) comparative research on women's employment indicate the importance of public childcare. "The provision of publicly funded childcare fosters the employment of women. Public childcare provisions are positively associated with the effects of having young children and marriage on women's employment (Pettit and Hook 2005: 796). It appears that public childcare can assist women in maintaining a continuous role within the labor force, rather than having to take time off in order to care for their young children.

Since the United States is often against raising taxes it does not seem likely that the U.S. government is going to be instituting expanded child care within the public educational system. What I would call for instead is placing pressure on businesses to either provide on-site child care centers or offer programs that assist workers with the expenses of child care. This could work in a similar vein as employer sponsored health plans work, with employees paying a portion of the costs. More family-oriented work places could offer on-site day care that would be staffed by their employees and workers could send their children at reduced cost for being an employee. Larger businesses could

also extend this program to surrounding businesses, in which non-employees would pay slightly higher rates.

It appears obvious that the United States needs to increase its family policy programs. With an increase in family-oriented programs, I believe that people who have conservative attitudes towards married women and mothers in the labor force will eventually adapt their attitudes and become more accepting.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable

Variable	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation	Number
Working Women Index	5.5632	0.00	8.00	1.52108	1013

Independent Variables

Variable	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation	Number
Age	44.79	18	89	16.845	1011
Marital Status (Married =1)	0.48	0	1	0.500	1013
Sex (Female=1)	0.57	0	1	0.495	1013
Race (White=1)	0.80	0	1	0.400	1013
Number of Siblings	3.58	0	26	2.949	1012
Number of Children	1.77	0	8	1.601	1012
Education	13.4164	1	20	2.70674	1011
Mother's Education	11.5022	0	20	3.38469	890
Spouse's Education	13.6021	2	20	2.79015	480
Female – Spousal Education Difference	0.0709	-8.00	13.00	2.81891	268
Male - Spousal Education Difference	-0.1840	-11.00	6.00	2.46667	212
Total Family Income in 1998	$47,983.44	$500	$130,000	36110.664	936
Respondent's Income in 1998	$32,325.93	$500	$130,000	27798.716	675
Respondent's SEI	48.570	17.1	97.2	18.6716	971
Mother's SEI	43.415	17.1	97.2	18.6740	613
Spouse's SEI	51.586	17.1	97.2	19.4287	461
Political Party Affiliation (Democrat=1)	0.42	0	1	0.494	1005
Religious Affiliation (Catholic=1)	0.25	0	1	0.434	1009
Religious Affiliation (Protestant=1)	0.54	0	1	0.499	1009
Religious Service Attendance (Frequent=1)	0.41	0	1	0.491	1009
Strength of Religious Affiliation (Strong=1)	0.38	0	1	0.486	1010
Labor force Status (Work Full-Time=1)	0.50	0	1	0.500	1013
Mother's Employment when Growing Up (Yes=1)	0.66	0	1	0.475	946

Region of Interview (South=1)	0.33	0	1	0.472	1013
Both Men and Women Should Contribute to Income	3.7147	1	5	1.19208	992
Kid Fulfillment Index	4.1233	2	8	1.23308	981
Kids are Life's Greatest Joy	1.62	1	5	0.808	1000
Kidless People Lead Empty Lives	2.49	1	5	1.159	991
Marriage Attitudes Index	9.3062	3	15	2.39712	970
Married People Happier	2.7548	1	5	1.20332	983
Bad Marriage Better Than No Marriage	4.3596	1	5	0.94789	1004
Those wanting Kids Should Get Married	2.1966	1	5	1.27148	1002
Family Life Index	15.9772	6	24	3.79298	923
Working Mom Can Have Warm Relationship with Kids	2.9202	1	4	1.09052	1003
Preschooler Will Suffer if Mom Works	2.7966	1	4	1.05596	998
Family Life Suffers if Mom Works Full-Time	2.7610	1	4	1.09044	1000
Most Women Really Want a Home and Kids	2.7333	1	4	1.02822	990
Being a Housewife is as Fulfilling as Paid Work	2.2301	1	4	1.04418	978
Job is Best Way for Woman to be Independent	2.5633	1	4	1.06605	1003
Family Benefits Index	7.8406	2	10	1.83517	985
Should Working Women Have Maternity Leave	4.2925	1	5	0.90263	1005
Should Families Get Benefits if Both Parents Work	3.5469	1	5	1.27429	991
Men Nontraditional Index	7.5025	2	10	1.87171	989
Men Ought to Do More Housework than they Do Now	3.6576	1	5	1.10924	996
Men Ought to Do More Childcare than they Do Now	3.8363	1	5	1.02767	1002

Table 2.

Correlations between Work Index and Independent Variables

Independent Variable	Pearson Correlation	Probability	Number
Age	-0.196**	0.000	1011
Marital (Married=1)	-0.096**	0.002	1013
Sex (Female=1)	0.088**	0.005	1013
Race (White=1)	-0.104**	0.001	1013
Number of Siblings	0.014	0.663	1012
Number of Children	-0.092**	0.003	1012
Education	0.081**	0.010	1011
Mother's Education	0.009	0.791	890
Spouse's Education	-0.001	0.979	480
Female Spousal Educational Difference	0.248**	0.000	268
Male Spousal Educational Difference	0.164*	0.017	212
Total Family Income in 1998	0.024	0.464	936
Respondent's Income in 1998	-0.030	0.437	675
Respondent's SEI	0.049	0.128	971
Respondent's Mother's SEI	-0.053	0.192	613
Respondent's Spouse's SEI	-0.074	0.111	461
Political Party Affiliation (Democrat=1)	0.114**	0.000	1005
Religious Affiliation (Catholic=1)	0.000	0.994	1009
Religious Affiliation (Protestant=1)	-0.065*	0.039	1009
Religious Service Attendance (Frequent=1)	-0.135**	0.000	1009
Strength of Religious Affiliation (Strong=1)	-0.076*	0.016	1010
Labor Force Status (Work Full-Time =1)	0.129**	0.000	1013
Mother's Employment When Growing Up (Yes=1)	0.090**	0.006	946

Region of Interview (South=1)	-0.015	0.633	1013
Both Men and Women Should Contribute to Income	0.369**	0.000	992
Kid Fulfillment Index	-0.086**	0.007	981
Marriage Attitudes Index	0.249**	0.000	970
Family Life Index	0.533**	0.000	923
Family Benefit Index	0.157**	0.000	985
Men Nontraditional Index	0.109**	0.001	989

Notes: *p < 0.05
**p < 0.01

Table 3A.

Regression of Work Index and Independent Variables

Independent Variable	Unstandardized Slope	Standard Error	Probability
Age	-0.010**	0.003	0.003
Marital	-0.142	0.097	0.145
Sex	0.125	0.096	0.193
Race	0.006	0.123	0.961
Number of Siblings	-0.011	0.017	0.509
Number of Children	0.068*	0.035	0.050
Education	0.038*	0.019	0.046
Mother's Education	-0.040*	0.016	0.013
Religious Affiliation (Protestant=1)	0.051	0.096	0.595
Religious Service Attendance (Frequent=1)	-0.116	0.113	0.308
Strength of Religious Affiliation (Strong=1)	0.111	0.111	0.318
Labor Force Status (Work Full-Time =1)	0.076	0.098	0.439
Mother's Employment When Growing Up (Yes=1)	0.091	0.102	0.373
Region of Interview	-0.100	0.100	0.319
Both Men and Women Should Contribute to Income	0.257**	0.042	0.000
Family Life Index	0.173**	0.014	0.000

Y-Intercept: 2.080
R^2:   0.339
R^2 adjusted: 0.325
Degrees of Freedom: 794

Notes: *$p < 0.05$
       **$p < 0.01$

Table 3B.

**Regression of Work Index and Independent Variables
within Married Females Subset**

Independent Variable	Unstandardized Slope	Standard Error	Probability
Age	-0.009	0.007	0.164
Race	0.226	0.235	0.339
Number of Siblings	0.008	0.031	0.794
Number of Children	0.017	0.067	0.800
Education	0.012	0.037	0.738
Mother's Education	-0.016	0.030	0.590
Female Spousal Educational Difference	0.104**	0.031	0.001
Religious Affiliation (Protestant=1)	-0.053	0.165	0.748
Religious Service Attendance (Frequent=1)	0.082	0.202	0.685
Strength of Religious Affiliation (Strong=1)	0.116	0.201	0.563
Labor Force Status (Work Full-Time =1)	0.573**	0.172	0.001
Mother's Employment When Growing Up (Yes=1)	-0.078	0.176	0.658
Region of Interview	-0.115	0.171	0.503
Both Men and Women Should Contribute to Income	0.296**	0.073	0.000
Family Life Index	0.142**	0.024	0.000

Y-Intercept: 2.206
R^2:   0.445
R^2 adjusted: 0.405
Degrees of Freedom: 225

Notes: *$p < 0.05$
       **$p < 0.01$

Table 3C.

**Regression of Work Index and Independent Variables
within Married Males Subset**

Independent Variable	Unstandardized Slope	Standard Error	Probability
Age	-0.006	0.010	0.521
Race	0.062	0.332	0.853
Number of Siblings	-0.006	0.041	0.875
Number of Children	0.078	0.082	0.342
Education	0.102	0.052	0.053
Mother's Education	-0.047	0.038	0.226
Male Spousal Educational Difference	0.171**	0.057	0.003
Religious Affiliation (Protestant=1)	0.085	0.235	0.717
Religious Service Attendance (Frequent=1)	-0.361	0.272	0.186
Strength of Religious Affiliation (Strong=1)	0.108	0.294	0.714
Labor Force Status (Work Full-Time =1)	-0.302	0.290	0.300
Mother's Employment When Growing Up (Yes=1)	0.116	0.239	0.627
Region of Interview	-0.183	0.239	0.444
Both Men and Women Should Contribute to Income	0.539**	0.107	0.000
Family Life Index	0.159**	0.038	0.000

Y-Intercept: -0.089
R^2:   0.384
R^2 adjusted: 0.327
Degrees of Freedom: 176

Notes: *p < 0.05
        **p < 0.01

Appendix A: Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this study was an index of the following variables found within the 2002 GSS:

Do you think that women should work outside the home full-time, part-time or not at all under the following circumstances?

A: After marrying and before there are children. Variable name = wrknokid

B: When there is a child under school age. Variable name = wrkbaby

C: After the youngest child starts school. Variable name = wrksch

D: After the children leave home. Variable name = wrkgrown

An index was created to allow for greater reliability within the data. Babbie (2003) states that creating an index has two advantages, "first, they include multiple dimensions of the subject under study. Second, composite measures tap into a greater range of variation between the extremes of a variable" (Babbie 2003:150).

In creating this index, I took the variable with the maximum amount of observations of 1014 (wrkbaby) and selected cases within the 2002 dataset that provided answers to this variable. After selecting cases within wrkbaby, I replaced the missing values of the other three variables with the median of nearby points. The span of the nearby points was six cases. Six cases were chosen because it is a more conservative approach than selecting the two nearest cases. This method, of replacing with the median of the six nearby points, was chosen to minimize variability.[3] This process created 1013 as the maximum number of cases within the dependent variable. After completing these

---

[3] One case was excluded from the analysis as the procedure of mean replacement did not work for the case. The case was excluded because the diagnosis of the particular problem within the mean replacement procedure was beyond the scope of this thesis.

procedures, the index was created by transforming the cases using the compute method.

The compute method added the responses from the variables wrknokid, wrkbaby, wrksch,

and wrkgrown. This method created an 8 point index, with values ranging from 0 to 8.

Appendix B: Independent Variables

(age) **Age** - Age of Respondent – Age ranges from 18 – 89 years old.

(marital) **Marital Status** – Respondent's Marital Status at Time of Interview
Variable was transformed into a dummy variable in which married=1 and all others=0.

(sex) **Sex** - Respondent's Sex
Variable was transformed into a dummy variable in which female=1 and male=0.

(race) **Race** – Race of Respondent
Variable was transformed into a dummy variable in which white=1 and all other races=0.

(educ) **Education** - Highest Year of School Completed
Values of "Don't Know" were recoded as missing. Education had a range of 1 year to 20 years.

(maeduc) **Mother's education** - Highest Year of School Completed by Respondent's Mother
Values of "Don't Know" were recoded as missing. Mother's education had a range of 0 years to 20 years.

(speduc) **Spouse's education** - Highest Year of School Completed by Respondent's Spouse
Values of "Don't Know" were recoded as missing. Spouse's education had a range of 2 years to 20 years.

(FEdDif) **Female spousal education difference** -This is the difference between wife's years of education and husband's years of education.
This was created by selecting respondents that were married and female. After selecting these cases, the compute function was used with the following equation: Respondent's Education – Spouse's Education (R-S).

(MEdDif) **Male spousal education difference** -This is the difference between husband's years of education and wife's years of education.
This was created by selecting respondents that were married and male. After selecting these cases, the compute function was used with the following equation: Spouse's Education – Respondent's Education (S-R).

(wrkstat) **Working status** - Labor Force Status
1 = Working Full Time
2 = Working Part Time
3 = Temporarily Not Working
4 = Unemployed, Laid Off
5 = Retired

6 = School
7 = Keeping House
8 = Other

(mawrkgrw) **Mother's employment** – Mother's Employment when respondent was growing up.
Values were originally coded as NAP (Not Applicable)=0, Yes=1, No=2, DK (Don't Know)=8, NA (No Answer)=9. Values of "Don't Know," "Not Applicable," and "No Answer" were recoded as missing. Transformed into a dummy variable in which Yes=1 and No=0.

(income) **Income** = Total Family Income in 1998
1=UNDER $1 000
2=$1 000 TO 2 999
3=$3 000 TO 3 999
4=$4 000 TO 4 999
5=$5 000 TO 5 999
6=$6 000 TO 6 999
7=$7 000 TO 7 999
8=$8 000 TO 9 999
9=$10000 TO 12499
10=$12500 TO 14999
11=$15000 TO 17499
12=$17500 TO 19999
13=$20000 TO 22499
14=$22500 TO 24999
15=$25000 TO 29999
16=$30000 TO 34999
17=$35000 TO 39999
18=$40000 TO 49999
19=$50000 TO 59999
20=$60000 TO 74999
21=$75000 TO $89999
22=$90000 - $109999
23=$110000 OR OVER

Respondents that listed Refused and Don't Know were considered missing. This variable was then recoded to the midpoint of each value, which resulted in the following more readily interpretable coding:
1=$500
2=$2000
3=$3000
4=$4000
5=$5000
6=$6000
7=$7000

8=$8000
9=$11250
10=$13750
11=$16250
12=$18750
13=$21250
14=$23750
15=$27500
16=$32500
17=$37500
18=$45000
19=$55000
20=$67500
21=$82500
22=$100000
23=$130000

(rincome98) **Respondent's Income**=Respondent's Total Income in 1998
1=UNDER $1 000
2=$1 000 TO 2 999
3=$3 000 TO 3 999
4=$4 000 TO 4 999
5=$5 000 TO 5 999
6=$6 000 TO 6 999
7=$7 000 TO 7 999
8=$8 000 TO 9 999
9=$10000 TO 12499
10=$12500 TO 14999
11=$15000 TO 17499
12=$17500 TO 19999
13=$20000 TO 22499
14=$22500 TO 24999
15=$25000 TO 29999
16=$30000 TO 34999
17=$35000 TO 39999
18=$40000 TO 49999
19=$50000 TO 59999
20=$60000 TO 74999
21=$75000 TO $89999
22=$90000 - $109999
23=$110000 OR OVER

Respondents that listed Refused and Don't Know were considered missing. This variable was then recoded to the midpoint of each value, which resulted in the following more readily interpretable coding:

1=$500
2=$2000
3=$3000
4=$4000
5=$5000
6=$6000
7=$7000
8=$8000
9=$11250
10=$13750
11=$16250
12=$18750
13=$21250
14=$23750
15=$27500
16=$32500
17=$37500
18=$45000
19=$55000
20=$67500
21=$82500
22=$100000
23=$130000

(sei) **Respondent's SEI** – Respondent's Socioeconomic Status
Values ranging from 17.1 through 97.2.

(masei) **Mother's SEI** – Respondent's Mother's Socioeconomic Status
Values ranging from 17.1 through 97.2.

(spsei) **Spouse's SEI** – Respondent's Spouse's Socioeconomic Status
Values ranging from 17.1 through 97.2.

(region) **Demographic region** - Region of Interview
1 = New England
2 = Middle Atlantic
3 = East North Central
4 = West North Central
5 = South Atlantic
6 = East South Central
7 = West South Central
8 = Mountain
9 = Pacific
Variable was recoded into a dummy variable in which South Atlantic region, East South
Central region, and West South Central region were combined into the South and given
the value on 1 and New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North

Central, Mountain, and Pacific were combined into other regions and given the value of 0.

(partyid) **Political Party Affiliation**
0 = Strong Democrat
1 = Not Strong Democrat
2 = Independent, Near Democrat
3 = Independent
4 = Independent, Near Republican
5 = Not Strong Republican
6 = Strong Republican
7 = Other Party
8 = Don't Know
9 = No Answer
Variable was recoded so that "Don't Know" and "No Answer" were considered missing. Variable was then transformed into a dummy variable in which Strong Democrat, Not Strong Democrat, and Independent, Near Democrat were recoded into Democrat and were given the value of 1. All other parties were recoded into Other and were given the value of 0.

(relig) **Reigious affiliation** - Respondent's Religious Preference
Variables were originally listed as:
1 = Protestant
2 = Catholic
3 = Jewish
4 = None
5 = Other (Specify)
6 = Buddhism
7 = Hinduism
8 = Other Eastern
9 = Moslem/Islam
10 = Orthodox –Christian
11 = Christian
12 = Native American
13 = Inter-Nondenomination
This variable was recoded into two dummy variables. The first dummy variable is Catholic (Catholic). This variable was coded as Catholics=1 and all other religion=0. The second dummy variable is Protestant (Protestant). This variable was coded as Protestants=1 and all other religion=0.

(attend) **Religious attendance** - How often does Respondent Attend Religious Services
0 = Never
1 = Less than Once a Year
2 = Once a Year
3 = Several Times a Year
4 = Once a Month

5 = 2 – 3 Times a Month
6 = Nearly Every Week
7 = Every Week
8 = More than Once a Week
This variable was recoded into a dummy variable in which values from Never (0) to Once a Month (4) were recoded into Seldom=0 and values from 2-3 Times a Month (5) through More than Once a Week (8) were recoded into Frequent=1. Values with responses "Don't Know" and "No Answer" were recoded as missing.

(reliten) **Strength of Religious Affiliation**
1 = Strong
2 = Not Very Strong
3 = Somewhat Strong
4 = No Religion
8 = Don't Know
Variable was recoded into a dummy variable in which Strong=1 and Not Very Strong (2), Somewhat Strong (3) and No Religion (4) were recoded into Other=0. Don't Know was recoded into a missing value.

(childs) **Number of Children** – Number of children respondent has.
Values range from 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 or more.

(sibs) **Number of Siblings** – Number of siblings respondent has.
Values range from 0-26.

(kidjoy) **Kids Are Life's Greatest Joy**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 5 point scale.

(kidempty) **Kidless People Lead Empty Lives**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 5 point scale. Variable was recoded so that Strongly Agree=5, Agree=4, Neither Agree nor Disagree=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1. This was done so that nontraditional views had the highest values and more traditional views held the lowest values.

(KidFulfillmentIndexB) **Kid Fulfillment Index**
This index was created by transforming variables using the compute function. The compute method added kidjoy and kidempty and created an index with values ranging from 2 – 8.

(marhappy) **Married People are Happier Than Unmarried People**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 5 point scale.

(marnomar) **Bad Marriage Better Than None at All**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 5 point scale.

(marlegit) **Those Wanting Kids Should Get Married**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree
8= Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 5 point scale.

(MarriageIndexB) **Marriage Attitudes Index**
This index was created by transforming variables using the compute function. The compute method added marhappy, marnomar and marlegit and created an index with values ranging from 3-15.

(mawrkwrm) **Working Mom Can Have a Warm Relationship with Kids**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 4 point scale. This variable was recoded so that Strongly Agree=4, Agree=3, Neither Agree Nor Disagree=2, and

Strongly Disagree=1. This was done to present the most liberal viewpoint with the largest value.

(kidsuffr) **Preschooler Will Suffer If Mom Works**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 4 point scale.

(famsuffr) **Family Life Suffers If Mom Works Full-Time**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 4 point scale.

(homekid) **Most Women Really Want a Home and Kids**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 4 point scale.

(housewrk) **Being a Housewife is as Fulfilling as Paid Work**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 4 point scale.

(fejobind) **Job is Best Way for Woman to be Independent**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 4 point scale. This variable was recoded so that Strongly Agree=4, Agree=3, Neither Agree Nor Disagree=2, and Strongly Disagree=1. This was done to present the most liberal viewpoint with the largest value.

(FamilyLifeIndex B) **Family Life Index**
This index was created by transforming variables using the compute function. The compute method added mawrkwrm, kidsuffr, famsuffr, homekid, housework, and fejobind and created an index with values ranging from 6-24.

(mapaid) **Should Working Women Have Maternity Leave**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 5 point scale. Variable was recoded so that Strongly Agree=5, Agree=4, Neither Agree nor Disagree=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1. This was done so that more liberal views had the highest values and more conservative views held the lowest values.

(chldcare) **Should Families Get Benefits if Both Parents Work**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 5 point scale. Variable was recoded so that Strongly Agree=5, Agree=4, Neither Agree nor Disagree=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1. This was done so that more liberal views had the highest values and more conservative views held the lowest values.

(FamilyBenefitIndexB) **Family Benefits Index**

This index was created by transforming variables using the compute function. The compute method added mapaid and chldcare and created an index with values ranging from 2-10.

(mekcare) **Men Ought to Do More Housework than they Do Now**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 5 point scale. Variable was recoded so that Strongly Agree=5, Agree=4, Neither Agree nor Disagree=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1. This was done so that more liberal views had the highest values and more conservative views held the lowest values.

(mehhwork) **Men Ought to Do More Childcare than they Do Now**
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 5 point scale. Variable was recoded so that Strongly Agree=5, Agree=4, Neither Agree nor Disagree=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1. This was done so that more liberal views had the highest values and more conservative views held the lowest values.

(MenNontraditionalIndexB) **Men Nontraditional Index**
This index was created by transforming variables using the compute function. The compute method added mekcare and mehhwork and created an index with values ranging from 2-10.

(twoincs1) **Both Men and Women Should Contribute to Income** – Does the respondent feel that both men and women should contribute to the family income?
1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Disagree
5 = Strongly Disagree
8 = Can't Choose
Can't Choose responses were recoded as missing, leaving a 5 point scale. Variable was recoded so that Strongly Agree=5, Agree=4, Neither Agree nor Disagree=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1. This was done so that more liberal views had the highest values and more conservative views held the lowest values.

References

Adolino, Jessica R. and Charles H. Blake. *Comparing Public Policies: Issues and Choices in Six Industrialized Countries*. Washington, DC: Congressional Quarterly Inc. 2001.

Allison, Paul D. *Multiple Regression: A Primer*. Thousand Oaks, Ca: Pine Forge Press. 1999.

Babbie, Earl, Halley, Fred, and Jeanne Zaino. *Adventures in Social Research.* Sage Publications, Inc. Thousand Oaks, CA. 2003.

Bolzendahl, Catherine I. and Daniel J. Myers. "Feminist Attitudes and Support for Gender Equality: Opinion Change in Women and Men, 1974-1998." *Social Forces*; Dec 2004; 83 (2); 759-790.

Cassidy, Margaret L. and Bruce O. Warren. "Family Employment Status and Gender Role Attitudes: A Comparison of Women and Men College Graduates." *Gender & Society;* June 1996: 10 (3); 312-329.

Cotter, David A, Hermsen, Joan M., and Reeve Vanneman. "Women's Work and Working Women: The Demand for Female Labor." *Gender & Society*; June 2001; 15(3); 429-452.

Glass, J. "Housewives and employed wives: Demographic and attitudinal change, 1972-1986." *Journal of Marriage and the Family;* 1992: 54: 559-569.

Henneck, Rachel. "Family Policy in the US, Japan, Germany, Italy and France: Parental Leave, Child Benefits/Family Allowances, Child Care, Marriage/Cohabitation, and Divorce" (A Briefing Paper). 2003. Accessed at http://www.contemporaryfamilies.org/public/articles/Int%27l%20Family%.htm

Interuniversity Consortium for Political and Social Research. General Social Survey Data (GSS). Chicago: National Opinion Research Center. 2002.

Oppenheim-Mason, Karen, Czajka, John L, and Sara Arber. "Change in U.S. Women's Sex-Role Attitudes, 1964-1974." *American Sociological Review;* Aug 1976: 41 (4); 573-596.

Norusis, Marija. *SPSS 13.0: Guide to Data Analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. 2005.

Pettit, Becky and Jennifer Hook. "The Structure of Women's Employment in Comparative Perspective." *Social Forces;* Dec 2005: 84 (2); 779-801.

Powell, Brian and Lala Carr Steelman. "Testing an Undertested Comparison: Maternal Effects on Sons' and Daughters' Attitudes toward Women in the Labor Force." *Journal of Marriage and the Family; May* 1982: 44 (2); 349-355.

Robinson, John P. and Melissa A. Milkie. "Back to the Basics: Trends in and Role Determinants of Women's Attitudes toward Housework." *Journal of Marriage and the Family;* Feb 1998: 60 (1); 205-218.

Sassler, Sharon and Robert Schoen. "The Effects of Attitudes and Economic Activity on Marriage." *Journal of Marriage and the Family;* February 1999: 61 (1); 147-159.

Sayer, Liana C. "Gender, Time and Inequality: Trends in Women's and Men's Paid Work, Unpaid Work and Free Time." *Social Forces*; Sept 2005: 84 (1); 285-303.

Spade, Joan Z. "Wives' and Husbands' Perceptions of Why Wives Work." *Gender & Society;* June 1994: 8 (2); 170-188.

Teachman, Jay D, Tedrow, Lucky M. and Kyle D. Crowder. "The Changing Demography of America's Families." *Journal of Marriage and Family;* 2000: 62(4): 1234-1246

Thornton, Arland et al. "Causes and Consequences of Sex-Role Attitudes and Attitude Change." *American Sociological Review;* April 1983: 48 (2); 211-227.

Thornton, Arland and Linda Young-DeMarco. "Four Decades of Trends in Attitudes Toward Family Issues in the United States: The 1960s Through the 1990s." *Journal of Marriage and Family;* Nov 2001: 63; 1009-1037.

Willetts-Bloom, Marion and Steven L. Nock. "The Influence of Maternal Employment on Gender Role Attitudes of Men and Women." *Sex Roles;* 1994: 30 (5/6): 371-389.