

MASCULINITY IN PRESCHOOL MALES AS RELATED TO TEACHER-CHILD
INTERACTION AND PLAY MATERIAL CHOICES

by 4589

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The most basic category into which human beings, regardless of race, creed or culture, are placed is the category of sex: male or female. Associated with the obvious biological differences between boys and girls and men and women, are psychological and behavioral differences that are perhaps even more important for individual adjustment than the biological differences (McCandless, 1967).

The masculinity and femininity of human beings has been measured and studied in a number of different ways. Some of the standard measures utilize a single scale with masculinity at one end and femininity at the other end. Others measure masculinity and femininity independently (Maccoby, 1966). Biller and Borstelmann (1967) conceived masculinity and femininity as two separate, sometimes divergent, sometimes overlapping continuums and not as mutually exclusive polar opposites. Bieliauskas (1965) viewed them as complementary personality traits rather than as two competitive characteristics.

From the moment a child is born he is placed in the category of male or female, and treated in a manner prescribed by the culture as appropriate for his sex. Boys and girls from birth are repeatedly reminded of the behaviors expected of them. Awareness of sex-role differentiation begins about the second year and is relatively complete by the third or fourth year (Rabban, 1952; Seward, 1954; Brown, 1958). Aggression in boys is accepted and often encouraged while girls are encouraged to inhibit

such behavior. Girls are expected to be dependent, passive and conforming while boys are to inhibit these behaviors (Kagan, 1964). Boys are expected to prefer rough and daring games that test their physical prowess, to prefer trucks and helping father fix a chair rather than playing with dolls or helping mother with the housework. Play activities and imitation of adult activities provide the opportunity to learn much sex-typed behavior (Biller and Borstelmann, 1967). By the age of four or five years most boys and girls are aware that their parents expect them to prefer sex-typed activities (Fauls and Smith, 1956).

Masculinity has been related to a wide variety of behaviors including social acceptance, social and emotional adjustment, intelligence, leadership, anxiety, toy preferences, and success in school. The present study was initiated to explore the concept of masculinity in preschool boys. It was the purpose of this investigation to relate masculinity in preschool males, as determined by teacher ratings and ranking, to play materials used by the boys in the nursery school setting, and their interaction with teachers.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Theories of Identification

The major hypotheses pertaining to masculine development have been derived from theories of identification (Biller and Borstelmann, 1967). Presented here are brief accounts of the major theories relating to masculinity in young boys.

According to Freudian theory the boy desires to possess his mother during the Oedipal period when he is three to five years of age. He comes to see his father as a very aggressive competitor; and since the father is so much more powerful physically, the boy fears his father will castrate him. The normal resolution of the Oedipus complex takes place, when, in order to cope with his fear of castration, the boy identifies with his father, the aggressor, and represses his desire for his mother. Through his identification with his father, he learns to be masculine (Biller and Borstelmann, 1967).

According to Whiting's (1959) status-envy theory of identification, a young boy will learn masculine behavior only if he sees his father (or a father-surrogate) as the primary consumer of valued resources. Status-envy theory can be seen as an extension of the Freudian theory of identification-with-the-aggressor in that "identification with the aggressor is the outcome of a rivalrous interaction between the child and the parent who occupies an envied status" (Bandura and Walters, 1963, p. 94).

The learning theory of identification gives little importance to the Oedipus conflict, although it would not deny that this conflict may be frequent in some cultures. The boy in a normal family probably loves his mother best during his early childhood. But he also has an affection for his father which usually grows stronger with age. From this and general cultural influences, the boy, early in his preschool years, begins to imitate his father and eventually makes his masculine identification. In other words, learning theory postulates that a father with whom a boy identifies, in the sense of loving and respecting him, facilitates appropriate sex-role identification in his son, and that this factor, rather than fear, is a major one in successful identification (McCandless, 1967). Thus the major hypothesis of learning theory is that identification is positively related to the degree of warmth and affection the father gives his son. The more love and respect a boy has for his father the more reinforcing his father's approval will be for him (Biller and Borstelmann, 1967).

Several sociologists have presented a theory which, in essence, combines the Freudian and learning theory hypotheses. According to the role or power theory, for a boy of preschool age to become masculine, his father or another male must be the most powerful in interacting with him. The boy will identify with the person who is most able to dispense both rewards and punishments. According to Parsons, the boy identifies with the instrumental role of the father, and in this way becomes masculine (Biller and Borstelmann, 1967).

Many similarities can be seen in these theories of masculine development. All stress the significance of the father-son relationship and the boy imitating his father, although with different emphasis. Freudian theory seems

to stress the importance of the father as punitive and threatening; status-envy theory, the father as the primary consumer of resources; learning theory, the father as rewarding and affectionate; role theory, the father as the primary controller of resources. From each of these theories, it could be assumed that if the mother were more dominant than the father (in terms of the particular theory's emphasized function), the young boy would be less masculine (Biller and Borstelmann, 1967).

Sex-Role Development

The importance of sex-role adjustment is commonly recognized. It is one of the integral components of normal, satisfactory social development and adjustment. Whether a person is male or female biologically is dependent upon genetic and biological processes, but whether that person is male or female socially and psychologically (i.e., in terms of sex-role behavior) is in large measure dependent upon learning, environmental factors, and experiential development (Brown, 1956).

Shortly after children become aware of physical sex differences, but before they realize there are psychological differences, they become aware of differences in appropriate sex-role behavior. They first learn the behaviors appropriate to their sex by identifying with the parent of their sex, and by parental pressures and training. Later, by identifying with the cultural ideal and stereotype for their sex, they continue to learn appropriate sex roles (Hurlock, 1964).

Sex-Typing

Sex-typing refers to the learning process by which children learn behaviors and adjustments appropriate to their biological sex (McCandless, 1967). Using imitative or modeling behavior, young children, with or without thinking much about it, practice ways of behaving they have learned are characteristic of their sex.

Sex-typing precedes and is a part of identification, and results from a pattern of rewards and punishments administered by parents, teachers, older sisters and brothers, and playmates. By the early preschool years, many signs of sex-typing have appeared. The toy choices of children are striking even before they reach the age of three. But there is also much crossing over in the type of activity during the preschool years (McCandless, 1967).

Sex-Role Preference

Lynn (1959) made a differentiation between sex-role preference, sex-role adoption and sex-role identification. Sex-role preference refers to the desire to adopt the behavior associated with one sex or the other, or the perception of such behavior as preferable or more desirable.

Sex-role preference in children has been measured in a number of ways. One purpose of an investigation by Hartup and Zook (1960) was to obtain information concerning sex-role preference of three and four year old children. Using the It Scale for Children, clear-cut sex differences were found in the scores of the boys and girls in the study. Girls at four scored significantly more feminine than girls at three. Boys at four scored more masculine than boys at three but only at borderline significance.

These findings imply that early childhood is an important period in sex-role development, and that acquisition of sex-role preference by the male is a less complicated developmental process than for the female (Hartup and Zook, 1960).

A study of Hall and Keith (1964) examined the relation between sex-role preference and social class, and the differences in sex-role preference pattern between boys and girls. Significant findings were that boys of lower social economic class demonstrated more clearly masculine sex-role preference than boys of upper class, and boys of both classes evidenced more distinctly masculine sex-role preference than did girls evidence feminine sex-role preference. The findings of a significant difference between boys of diverse classes imply that specific traditions, attitudes, and values of social class are important in the personality development in the primary area of sex-role preference (Hall and Keith, 1964).

Sex-Role Adoption

Sex-role adoption as defined by Lynn (1959) refers to the actual adoption of behavior characteristics of one sex or the other; not simply the desire to adopt such behavior. A child may prefer the opposite sex but make adequate adoption of the behavior of his own sex.

Because of the difficulty in specifying the complexity and range of behaviors, there have been few attempts to measure sex-role adoption in young children. Koch (1956) used simple point scale rating of masculinity in her sex-role adoption study. Sears (1965 et. al.) studied the amount of time spent in sex-typed play activities.

Sex-Role Identification

Sex-role identification refers to the actual incorporation of the role of a given sex, and to the unconscious reactions characteristic of that role (Lynn, 1959). Identification may be largely an unconscious process but it is one of the most basic processes involved in socialization (McCandless, 1967).

Sex-role identification is much more difficult to measure than sex-role preference or adoption. Attempts have been made to measure sex-role identification through projective techniques such as human figure drawings (Brown and Tolor, 1957). Angrilli (1960) investigated the relationship between the degree of acceptance of masculine identification in a group of thirty preschool boys and their parents' acceptance of their own sexual identification. It was hypothesized that there would be a direct relationship between the degree to which boys accepted their masculine role and the degree to which their parents accepted their respective roles, but no significant relationship was found.

Lynn (1959), assuming the process of identification followed the laws of learning, hypothesized both male and female infants learned to identify with the mother. Later, boys but not girls must shift from their initial identification with the mother to a masculine identification. Even though girls need not shift roles and their mother is present during her development, she is affected by cultural pressures. The prestige and privileges offered males and the lack of punishment for adopting aspects of the masculine role are predicted to have a weakening affect on the girls' feminine identification, whereas these cultural expectations strengthen the boys' masculine identification.

Despite the fact boys, much more than girls, show a concern for behaving along sex-appropriate lines, there has been considerable change in the direction of both masculine and feminine roles becoming broader, less rigidly defined, less sex-typed, and more overlapping (Brown, 1958). Similarity of educational experiences, husbands doing more housework, wives holding down jobs, and the wearing apparel of both sexes are further indications of the trend toward increased similarity of sex roles.

Measurement of Masculinity

Investigators have utilized various methods to measure different aspects of sex-role development. Some of the studies attempting to measure sex-role preference, sex-role adoption, and sex-role identification were presented in the previous section. Studies attempting to measure masculinity and femininity as two separate continuums and studies attempting to measure masculinity and femininity as if they were at opposite ends of one continuum are considered in this section.

Benjamin (1932) presented six toys (car, airplane, powder, horse, girl doll, boy doll) to children to play with while he recorded which toys were chosen and the time spent with each toy. Benjamin found three toys to show conclusive sex differences; the car appeared to be a masculine toy and the boy and girl dolls were feminine toys.

DeLucia (1963) developed a Toy Preference Test as a technique for measuring sex-role identification. Pairs of toys, of determined masculinity and femininity were presented to a subject who was asked to choose with which of the two toys a pictured child of the same sex as the subject would like to play. The subjects were children in kindergarten through fourth

grade. There was an orderly increase in the number of sex-appropriate choices for both boys and girls through the third grade. Fourth graders made fewer appropriate choices than third graders. Boys made more sex-appropriate choices than girls. When children were presented with paired toys both of which were inappropriate for their sex, they chose the more appropriate one more often than if the paired toys were both appropriate for their sex. That is, when a boy was presented with two feminine toys he made more appropriate choices (chose the least feminine of the two) than he did when he was presented with two masculine toys and asked to choose between them.

Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1964) compared the game choices of boys and girls with those listed in the early work of Terman. These comparisons demonstrated marked changes in game preferences of boys and girls and led to the development of new play scales for the measurement of masculinity-femininity. The new scales were standardized on fourth, fifth and sixth grade children.

Brown (1956) developed the It Scale for Children for a study of the nature, patterns and differences of sex-role preference in young children. The It Scale consists of thirty-six picture cards, three by four inches, depicting various objects, figures, and activities associated with masculine or feminine roles. A child-figure drawing named It, unstructured as to sex, was used, and each subject was asked to make choices for It. In using It the assumption was made that the child would project himself or herself into the It-figure on the basis of his or her own sex-role preference, and would attribute to It the child's own role preference.

Brown found large and significant differences occurred between boys and girls, suggesting the existence of definite, relatively dichotomous

sex-role patterns in young children. A number of children in both groups evidenced a mixed preference pattern, indicating acceptance of components of both the male and female roles; this tendency was about twice as frequent in girls as in boys. Some children evidenced a strong opposite sex-role preference; this tendency was more frequent and more pronounced in girls than in boys. Boys evidenced significantly greater preference for the masculine role than girls did for the feminine role.

Honzik (1951) studied sex differences in the occurrence of materials in the play constructions of preadolescents. Marked individual differences and wide sex differences in the use of available play materials was suggested by the photographs of the children's play constructions. Play materials made available were blocks, toy furniture, dolls, toy cars, and toy animals. Girls generally used only the family figures, furniture and a few blocks to construct scenes closely related to the home. The boys' constructions were more varied and tended to depict more daring and imaginative scenes.

A rough masculinity-femininity score was suggested by the fact that boys had a greater tendency to use blocks, vehicles and persons-in-uniform and girls used house furniture and persons-in-ordinary dress. A masculinity-femininity score was therefore derived which equals the algebraic sum of the following:

- +1 for one or more blocks
- +1 for one or more vehicles
- +1 for one or more persons-in-uniform
- 1 for one or more persons-in-ordinary dress
- 1 for one or more pieces of furniture

The masculinity-femininity scores ranged from -2 (very feminine) to +3 (very masculine). The tendency for more of the boys to earn + or masculine

scores, and for more of the girls to earn - or feminine scores, was clear-cut at all age levels.

The Terman and Miles Attitude-Interest Blank, a masculinity-femininity test, is a questionnaire made entirely of items upon which the sexes differ significantly. The total score for an individual gives a masculinity or femininity rating which can be compared with norms for a wide variety of groups of men and women (Ford, Fenton and Tyler, 1952).

Franck and Rosen (1949) developed another way of measuring masculinity and femininity. They presented to their subjects (college students) incomplete drawings consisting of a few simple lines. The subjects were to complete the drawings in any way they liked. A number of differences were found in the manner men and women completed the drawings. Men tend to close off areas, enlarge and expand, emphasize sharp and angular lines, and prefer unity to separating parts. Women leave open areas and elaborate within these areas. They tend to blunt or enclose sharp lines or angles, and prefer pairs to unity.

Freedheim (1960) developed a method to measure sex-role adoption in young boys. Teachers of first to fifth graders selected the boys they perceived as most and least masculine in their classes. The teachers then filled out a rating scale for each member of their class. Certain items were found to consistently characterize masculinity as perceived by teachers. This technique was developed by comparing boys with boys and not with girls, so the assumption that masculinity and femininity are at opposite ends of the same continuum was not involved. Rather they were assumed to be two separate continuums.

Adult-Child Interaction

When adult-child interaction is studied in the nursery school situation, specific behaviors such as dependency, attention-seeking, and motivation are usually observed. Other researchers have been interested in developing methods for observing such interaction behavior.

Hartup (1958) conducted a study on preschool children based on the hypothesis that non-nurturance by an adult is more strongly associated with the occurrence of dependency behavior in young children than is nurturance alone. His study was designed to explore the relationship between the withdrawal of nurturance and young children's acquisition of responses which elicit adult approval.

The findings for girls uniformly supported the hypothesis that nurturance-withdrawal is associated with more efficient performance on the learning tasks than consistent nurturance. No difference was found between the nurturance-withdrawal and the consistent nurturance groups in the results for boys. However, when the boys' groups were divided according to the measures of dependence, highly dependent boys were found to respond much as the girls while low dependent boys responded in the reverse fashion (Hartup, 1958).

Horowitz (1940) found evidence in his study of adult-child interaction pointing to the generalizations (a) there is an increase in the children's independence of adults in relation to the overt activity involved in solving the problems of their day's activities, and (b) there is an increase in the children's dependence on the adults for attention and affectional support.

The parallel lines of development were noted by the author. On one side the child is developing a sphere of independence, he does things for himself; on the other, he is developing a sphere of dependence, he has increasing need for personal relationships with adults. The need for further study of this development was suggested by the author (Horowitz, 1940).

Stith and Connor (1965) used a time-sampling technique and pre-determined categories to determine the frequency and proportions of helpful and dependent behavior exhibited by preschool children. They found that as age increased among the subjects, dependent contacts with adults decreased in both frequency and proportion, and helpful contacts with both adults and children increased significantly.

The purpose of a study by Moustakas, Sigel and Schalock (1956) was to present a procedure for objective description and recording of adult-child interaction. The following criteria were used for selecting the categories in the schedule: comprehensiveness, relevance and meaningfulness, and ease of identification. "Attention," "Stimulus," "Orienting and Directing," "Criticism, Discipline, Rejection," "Approval or Reward," and "Cooperation, Compliance, Noncooperation," were the main categories used in the schedule. Observations were made of mother-child and therapist-child situations in a laboratory room set up for play therapy. The behavior of the child and adult was recorded individually for each five-second period. A prepared coding sheet was used for recording the behaviors observed. Observations were also made of the mother-child interaction in the home. The behavior of adult and child tended to vary from one situation to another; however, there was greater similarity in the behavior of mother and child in the playroom and in the home

than there was between therapist and child and either of the mother-child situations.

In summary, masculinity appears to be an encompassing, multi-dimensional concept. It has been measured in a number of different ways and related to various behaviors. The major hypotheses pertaining to masculine development have been derived from theories of identification.

The process of sex-role development in children begins very early. Lynn (1959) considers three phases of the process: sex-role preference (desire to adopt behavior associated with one sex or the other), sex role adoption (adoption of behavior characteristic of one sex or the other), and sex-role identification (incorporation of the role of a given sex and unconscious reactions characteristic of that role). Many studies have been conducted concerning all three phases of the process. A common method of measuring the different aspects of sex-role development has been to use play materials.

Adult-child interaction is usually studied by observing specific behaviors such as dependency or motivation. Researchers have devised instruments for recording interaction behavior in various situations.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this research was to study the masculinity, as perceived by teachers, of males three to five years of age and the relationship between masculinity and contacts with play materials, and masculinity and teacher-child interaction.

Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship between masculinity and
 - a. number of contacts with masculine play materials.
 - b. number of contacts with feminine play materials.
 - c. number of contacts with neutral play materials.
 - d. number of total contacts with play materials.

2. There is no significant relationship between masculinity and frequency of
 - a. seeking physical and eye contact
 - b. seeking reassurance
 - c. seeking protection
 - d. seeking comfort
 - e. seeking permission
 - f. seeking affection
 - g. seeking attention
 - h. seeking praise and approval
 - i. seeking help
 - j. seeking instruction
 - k. seeking reward
 - l. seeking information
 - m. giving information
 - n. giving directions to teacher

- o. explaining own behavior to teacher
- p. showing object to teacher
- q. statement of fact
- r. uncooperative behavior
- s. ignoring teacher's comment
- t. complying with teacher's request
- u. contacts with adults

Subjects

The subjects of the study were fourteen preschool males enrolled in the Kansas State University Child Development Laboratory. They ranged in age from thirty-eight months to sixty months at the beginning of the observation period.

The subjects were among thirty-two children enrolled in the nursery school program. All the males in the nursery school were used as subjects in this study. Seven of the subjects attended the morning session and seven the afternoon session. The laboratory was conducted four days a week, Monday through Thursday, for two hours and fifteen minutes each day. The children participated in a variety of indoor and outdoor play activities, mid-morning or mid-afternoon snack, rest period on rugs, and a story and song period.

Adults involved in each session of the laboratory included the head teacher, graduate assistant teacher, two student teachers, three advanced undergraduate students, and other student observers.

Observer Reliability

Observer reliability was established before collection of data began. After preliminary practice with the recording procedure, reliability was established by observation of the males enrolled in the Kansas State University Child Development Laboratory. The investigator and an associate

reached a percentage agreement of at least 80 percent before the data were collected. In order to constitute an agreement the behavior had to be recorded in the same category by the two observers. All of the subjects used in this study were observed by the investigator.

Teacher Rating Scale

A teacher's rating scale (Appendix A), developed by Freedheim to measure a boy's adoption of masculinity, was adapted for use in this study. The rating scale was designed to differentiate high and low masculine boys in terms of general behavior.

The head teachers completed a rating scale for each male member of their class. They were asked to circle each item on a five-point scale of frequency of the behavior occurrence: always, usually, moderately, seldom, never. Scores of four to zero were assigned to the categories "always" to "never" in scoring the masculinity items, with the third, fifth and eighth items being scored in the reverse direction. The sum of the scores for the eight masculine items constituted the boys' masculine score, zero being least masculine and thirty-two being most masculine.

Teacher Ranking

The director of the nursery school, the only adult in contact with all the subjects, was asked to rank the boys from most masculine to least masculine. A list of the subjects in both groups was given to the director for the masculine rankings. Directions to rank the boys from one through fourteen, most masculine to least masculine, accompanied the list. The rankings of the males were used to divide the group into high and low masculinity groups. The high masculine group consisted of the males ranked

from one to seven in masculinity. The low masculine group was composed of those ranked from eight to fourteen in masculinity.

Play Materials Observations

A list of play materials at the nursery school was compiled by the investigator. Six Department of Family and Child Development personnel were asked to rate whether they felt the items on the list were traditionally masculine, feminine or neutral play materials. Two-thirds criteria or four of the six personnel had to agree on the rating for it to be considered in one of the three categories. For example, four of the six personnel rated "wooden animals" as masculine and two of the six rated the item as neutral, therefore, "wooden animals" was considered a masculine play material. All six personnel rated "doll buggy" as feminine and "telephone" as neutral, therefore, they were considered feminine and neutral play materials respectively.

During the observation period, teachers introduced new play materials not included on the original list. Another list containing these new items was given to the six personnel for rating. A final list of play materials at the nursery school was then compiled (Appendix B).

On the final list of 137 play materials, 31 or 22.63 percent of the play materials were scored as masculine, 30 or 21.90 percent was feminine and 68 or 49.64 percent as neutral. Only eight items (5.83 percent) did not meet the two-thirds criteria.

Each subject was observed for three ten-minute periods to determine the number of contacts made with masculine, feminine and neutral play materials. The observations were conducted during play periods when the child was free to choose the play materials he wanted to use. When all of the observations were concluded they were compiled to determine the number of contacts each subject made with masculine, feminine and neutral play materials.

Teacher-Child Interaction Observations

A teacher-child interaction scale was adapted from the one used by Reeh (1969) in her observations of mother-child interaction. Twenty behavior categories were selected for observation of interaction of teacher and child in the nursery school situation. It was necessary to select categories that "were clearly definable, easily recognized in the rapid flux of social interaction, and comprehensive enough to permit the categorization of all possible behavior incidents that appeared during the observation period" (Reeh, 1969, p. 26).

The following categories were believed to fulfill the above conditions:

(1) seeking physical contact, including eye contact, (2) seeking reassurance, (3) seeking protection, (4) seeking comfort, (5) seeking permission, (6) seeking affection, (7) seeking attention, (8) seeking praise and approval, (9) seeking help, (10) seeking instruction, (11) seeking reward, (12) seeking information, (13) giving information, (14) giving directions to teacher, (15) explaining own behavior to teacher, (16) showing object to teacher, (17) statement of fact, (18) uncooperative behavior, (19) ignoring teacher's comment, (20) complying with teacher's request.

Observations of teacher-child interaction were made during play periods when the child was free to choose his own activity. All of the subjects were observed for three fifteen-minute periods, according to an established order. Each time a contact was made between a teacher and the subject the appropriate behavior category was checked on a recording sheet. The total number of behaviors made in each category by each subject was compiled.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Description of Subjects

The sample consisted of 14 preschool male children who attended the Kansas State University Child Development Laboratory in 1969-70. The children ranged in age from 38 months to 60 months. All of the children were of the Caucasian race.

Ordinal position and the number of siblings were recorded. Six of the children were first-born in the family. Five of the children were the youngest in the family. Two children were the second child of three children. There was one "only" child. Eight of the children had only one sibling, three had two siblings, one had three siblings, and one had four siblings. The mean number of siblings was 1.5.

Thirteen of the 14 mothers were not employed outside the home. One of the thirteen was attending the University. The only employed mother worked in a government clerical position. The mother's educational level ranged from two with a high school education to one with a Master's degree. Five mothers had either a Bachelor of Science or Bachelor of Arts degree.

Nine of the 14 fathers were connected with the University through teaching, research, or coaching. Two fathers were working toward graduate degrees. Of the three remaining fathers, one was an attorney, one a construction foreman and one an assistant bank vice-president. The educational level of the fathers was as follows: one had a high school education, two

had a Bachelor's degree, two had a Master's degree, eight had a Ph.D. degree, and one had a Juris Doctor.

Twelve of the families lived in houses with six or more rooms. The two student families lived in four-room apartments. The religious background of the families were: 12 Protestants, one Catholic, and one with no religious affiliation. (See Table 1).

Teacher Ratings on Masculinity

Table 2 indicates the ratings given to the high and low masculine groups on the teacher rating scale.

The items found to consistently characterize masculinity as perceived by teachers in Freedheim's study were "is active and energetic," "likes sports and active games," "leads other children," "makes own decisions," and "stands up for his own rights." "Prefers table games," "is timid around others," and "prefers to stay by himself" were associated with low masculinity (Freedheim, 1960).

The high masculine group scored more often (23) in the "always" and "usually" categories than the low masculine group (16) on items one, two, four, six and seven. The low masculine group scored more often (25) in the "moderately" category as compared to the high masculine group (17) on all eight items. The high masculine group scored twelve times in the "seldom" and "never" categories on the third, fifth and eighth items, whereas the low masculine group scored six times. The high masculine group scored more in the masculine direction on all items of the teacher rating scale than did the low masculine group.