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Attitudes of Preschool Caregivers Toward their Work

David Michael Anthony Wright

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ATTITUDES OF PRESCHOOL CAREGIVERS TOWARD THEIR WORK

by

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Bachelor of Science, University of San Francisco, 1968
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A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of the

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for the degree of

Doctor of Education

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This dissertation submitted by David Michael Anthony Wright in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education from the University of North Dakota is hereby approved by the Faculty Advisory Committee under whom the work has been done.

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Date

July 26, 1977

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ABSTRACT

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to identify and compare attitudes of a sample of male and female, professional and preprofessional caregivers toward their work in preschools. To accomplish this purpose the following research questions were answered:

1. Do male and female caregiver subjects differ in their
 - a. reasons for becoming caregivers?
 - b. reasons for satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - f. reasons for staying on the job?

2. Do male and female preprofessional caregiver subjects differ in their
 - a. reasons for wanting to become caregivers?
 - b. reasons for anticipated satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for anticipated dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall expected intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall expected extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?

3. Do subjects differ by sex or status as professional or preprofessional caregivers in their
 - a. reasons for becoming or wanting to become caregivers?
 - b. reasons for satisfaction or anticipated satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for dissatisfaction or anticipated dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall intrinsic or expected intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall extrinsic or expected extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?

Procedure

The investigator used seventy (70) subjects, not randomly selected, made up of forty (40) professional subjects and thirty (30) preprofessional subjects. Both groups had equal numbers of males and females. Subjects resided in two geographical areas, Chicago and the Red River Valley of the North.

Attitudes were identified through responses to an open ended interview questionnaire, the Preschool Caregiver Interview Questionnaire (PCIQ), developed by the researcher and a paper and pencil questionnaire, the short form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). PCIQ questions elicited reasons for career selection, job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction and job longevity. Interview statements were categorized as either intrinsic or extrinsic with each subject being assigned a percentage representing the proportion of intrinsic statements used. MSQ responses were categorized according to manual instructions and resulted in an intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction score for each respondent.

Data collected by the PCIQ and MSQ were analyzed by an analysis of variance technique with significant difference set at the .05 level.

Results

No significant differences were found between subject groups on MSQ scores. Interview responses were not found to be significantly different in six of ten possible areas. The four areas in which differences were significant were the following:

1. Male subjects used more intrinsic statements in discussing their satisfaction with the job of caregiving than did the female subjects.

2. Male professional subjects used more intrinsic statements in discussing their reasons for staying on the job than did the female professional subjects.

3. Preprofessional subjects used more intrinsic statements in discussing reasons for becoming caregivers than did the professional subjects.

4. Preprofessional subjects used more intrinsic statements in discussing possible job dissatisfaction than did the professional subjects.

Conclusions

The major finding of this study is that the males and females in this sample did not differ significantly in most of their attitudes toward the job of caregiving. Men, more than women, however, did find personal accomplishments and activities as attractive aspects of working in preschools.

The lack of difference in most of the job attitudes surveyed of the males and females corresponds with findings of other researchers who have studied male and female teachers of elementary school children. This study, then, provides additional data which indicates little attitudinal or behavioral difference between males and females who choose to be involved in the education or care of young children.

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Previous to the American Civil War, children in this country were taught primarily by men. Since the Civil War and the Industrial Revolution that followed it, few men have worked with young children in this nation's elementary or preschools. The reasons for men not being involved in the formal education and care of American's young are many and varied but seem to lie primarily in the areas of economics and developing tradition. This absence of men in elementary and preschool programs has, since the turn of the century, been of concern to people in the educational and psychological fields.

Since 1900, concern has been expressed about the minimal male presence in the care and education of America's young. In much of the writing, scholars present theories as to what effect the lack of male teachers has on the development of the young child. A few of the men who have been working with young children have also written of the benefits they feel they bring to the developing child. During the second half of the twentieth century, research was conducted to investigate any special abilities men bring to the development of young children in group settings. All of the literature, while conflicting at times, seems to suggest a general consensus that more men should be involved with the education and care of young children.

What about the men themselves? Why do a small number of men, against economic considerations and a strong tradition, continue to involve themselves in the education and care of young children? One way to deal with this question is to investigate the attitudes such men have about their job as caregivers. Information is available as to how some men feel about their work as elementary school teachers, but practically nothing is known about the feelings of men who work in day cares and nursery schools.

Writings are available which espouse various rationales for the inclusion of males on the staffs of preschools. Research is available that reports on the potential effect of men on the preschool child. One study is available in which the author investigated the value of working with young children to the men who do such work. Nothing has been done, however, to find out if men and women differ in their feelings about working with and caring for young children. Another area of interest that has not been studied is the male who decides to enter a college training program for early childhood workers and that individual's attitude toward such work and how it differs from his female colleague.

Since current research shows little or no special effect in having a male staff person in a preschool classroom, of what value is it to study this topic further? This research is rooted in a concern about the lack of male preschool caregivers and what that means in terms of providing the very best care for young children. Good care for young children is dependent on good caregivers. Since almost one half of the work force (men) are not involved in the caregiving profession, one

must presume that some very good caregivers are not helping to provide care for young children. This researcher does not assume that either men or women are the better caregiver. He does assume that some men, as well as some women, have the capacity to be good caregivers for young children.

Attitudes and feelings of society, and men themselves, are contributing factors to the low wages and prestige of the caregiving profession and the tradition of caregiving as "women's work." This investigator feels that to change these attitudes and feelings requires a better understanding of the benefits and frustrations experienced by men now in, or preparing to enter, the role of caregiver. By comparing the attitudes of a sample of males and females, professional and pre-professional caregivers it is expected that the attitudinal differences will provide information useful in understanding the special feelings of men involved in caregiving. The question under exploration, then, is: Do samples of male and female, professional and preprofessional caregivers differ in their attitudes about preschool as a work place.

Purpose of the Study

While there seems to be general consensus as to why males have not taken up careers as caregivers (low pay, societal pressures, etc.), there is little knowledge as to the benefits and frustrations encountered by males who do decide to go into the caregiving profession. This study identified and compared attitudes toward their work by a sample of professional and preprofessional, male and female caregivers. Analysis of the data was directed towards a better understanding of the preschool as a prospective work place for males. It was the

purpose of this study to investigate through comparison with female colleagues, the satisfactions and dissatisfactions a sample of men receive from caring for preschool children in group settings. To do this, the following research questions have been developed for investigation.

1. Do male and female professional caregiver subjects differ in their
 - a. reasons for becoming caregivers?
 - b. reasons for satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - f. reasons for staying on the job?

2. Do male and female preprofessional caregiver subjects differ in their
 - a. reasons for wanting to become caregivers?
 - b. reasons for anticipated satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for anticipated dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall expected intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall expected extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?

3. Do subjects differ by sex or status as professional or preprofessional caregivers in their
 - a. reasons for becoming or wanting to become caregivers?
 - b. reasons for satisfaction or anticipated satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for dissatisfaction or anticipated dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall intrinsic or expected intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall extrinsic or expected extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?

Development of Instruments

After a review of the industrial psychology literature indicating approaches for assessing how one feels about a job, it was decided to use a combination interview and questionnaire technique. The

interview offers the flexibility of verbal responses without the limiting aspects of written responses. A short, multiple choice questionnaire provides another instrument, more controlled than the open-ended interview, but one that provides more statistically manageable measures of attitudes.

An investigator who has studied a number of occupations (anesthesiologists, lawyers and teachers), Dan Lortie of the University of Chicago, has presented, in his book School-Teacher: A Sociological Study, an open ended interview process that produced a revealing look at a sample of elementary school teachers. His interview, though broader in scope than necessary here, was felt to be a good example of the interview questions necessary for this investigation. An adaptation of the Five Town Interview Outline developed by Lortie, resulted in the Preschool Caregiver Interview Questionnaire (PCIQ). The PCIQ was used for the interview part of this study.

Responses to PCIQ questions were, for the purpose of analyses, categorized as either intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic statements were defined as those statements involving reference to the respondent or the respondent's activities. Extrinsic statements referred to influences, feelings or activities attributed to persons, places or things external to the respondent.

A second instrument, the multiple choice questionnaire, provided additional data along the same general lines as the interview. The short-form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire provided results that were categorized as intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction with one's work.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study the following terms hold specific meanings:

Preschool. A setting for group care of children not yet in first grade.

Preschool Children. Children not yet in first grade.

Professional caregiver. One who is paid to work with preschool children in a group setting for a major portion of the work day.

Preprofessional caregiver. One who is enrolled, at least part time, in an early childhood, child care or similar training program at a college or vocational school.

Intrinsic statements. Those statements made in response to PCIQ questions which involved reference to oneself or one's activities.

Extrinsic statements. Those statements made in response to PCIQ questions which involved references to influences, feelings or activities attributed to persons, places or things external to the respondent.

PCIQ. Preschool Caregiver Interview Questionnaire, a schedule of questions adapted from Lortie's Five Town Interview Outline (1975).

MSQ. Short-form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, a multiple choice questionnaire developed by the Work Adjustment Project, University of Minnesota.

Significant difference. Those differences found to be statistically significant at the .05 level or better.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to seventy (70) subjects made up of forty (40) professional subjects and thirty (30) preprofessional subjects, both groups having equal numbers of males and females. The subjects are not considered to be representative of all professional and pre-professional caregivers nor are they considered to be representative of their male or female colleagues. All subjects were closely matched with regard to area of residence. Professional subjects were closely matched on job title and funding source for the work site. Male subjects were identified through the help of the Chicago Association for the Education of Young Children, directors of Hull House and Christopher House day care centers and personal acquaintances of the investigator. Male preprofessionals were identified through the help of college early childhood education programs. The selection process, then, cannot be considered random.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to identify and compare attitudes toward work as indicated by a sample of professional and preprofessional, male and female caregivers in order to get a better understanding of any unique satisfactions and dissatisfactions the sample of men received from caring for and educating preschool children in group settings. To do this, the investigator interviewed 70 subjects selected in a non-random fashion, and analyzed their comments in an attempt to answer the following research questions.

1. Do male and female professional caregiver subjects differ in their
 - a. reasons for becoming caregivers?
 - b. reasons for satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - f. reasons for staying on the job?

2. Do male and female preprofessional caregiver subjects differ in their
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 - d. overall intrinsic or expected intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall extrinsic or expected extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction to the Chapter

This chapter contains a review of the literature on the topic of men working with young children in educational or group care settings. The review could have included the literature on men as fathers, men as counselors, men as pediatricians and other roles that allow men to work with young children, but it was felt that limiting the scope would permit a more in-depth view of men in the role of particular interest to this study, men as caregivers of preschool children in group settings. Most of the available literature describes men as teachers in the elementary school (grades one through six) and only recently has there been much written about men as preschool caregivers. Included in this review is the literature on men as elementary school teachers as well as men as preschool caregivers.

A review of the literature on the topic of men teachers of children, in preschool through grade six, reveals only a smattering of material written prior to World War II and only slightly more from then until the mid 1960's. At that point, the professional literature shows an increase in articles about male teachers of young children as well as an increase in the research articles on the value of the male presence in the education and care of young children in group settings.

The literature seems to fall into three major categories: the history of men as teachers of young children in America; the views of professional educators, psychologists and others about men as teachers of young children; and the research focusing on men as teachers of young children and how men feel about themselves in this role. The history of men teachers has been part of American educational history and has been found in books dealing with that topic. Professional views of men as teachers has been found primarily in professional journals and other sources such as project and research reports that provide for the exchange of ideas in the field of education. Research, too, has mainly been shared through professional journals, although government documents and dissertations have also been a valuable source of information. This chapter, then, will be divided into three sections: the history of men as teachers of young children in America; the views of professional educators, psychologists and others about men as teachers of young children; and research focusing on men as teachers of young children and how men feel about their role in the teaching of young children.

Section I: An Historical Perspective

In this section is a brief, chronological look at the literature concerned with male teachers of young children throughout American educational history. Since the education of children in America previous to the twentieth century was generally limited to what are now called the elementary grades, grades one through six, the review focuses on this general area.

The Colonial Period

During the early years of American educational history, schools for children were private, often church related and taught by men. Latin grammar schools, in the larger colonial cities, were usually staffed by college-trained men who were fairly well paid and were highly esteemed in the community. Even smaller communities were able to attract recent college graduate males who were usually available until a church could provide them with a ministerial position. In addition, there were women who taught in their homes the basic reading skills to lower class children and, in rural areas, there were young male farmers who taught children in what were called "winter district" schools. These winter district schools were the backbone of what was later to become universal, public elementary education (Tyack, 1967).

Early rural American schools were staffed by men who, like the children, were not needed on the farm during the winter months. The men who took such positions were considered a sordid lot. "Normally teaching was a casual and part-time occupation which sometimes attracted the transported convict, the drunkard, and the 'low bred clown'" (Tyack, 1967, p. 413). As James Carter stated in 1826, "If a young man be moral enough to not be in the State-Prison, he will find no difficulty in getting approbation as a school-master" (Tyack, 1967, p. 155).

The Nineteenth Century

After two hundred years of school masters guiding the young children of America through their education, the nineteenth century saw a complete turnabout as the school master was replaced by the "school marm."

While men filled most teaching positions previous to the nineteenth century, women had, as stated earlier, taught young children in their homes and in dame schools as early as the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. A number of events in the mid nineteenth century seems to have brought about the increased presence of women in teaching. Probably most important was the Industrial Revolution which provided full time, year round work for men so that they were no longer available for winter term teaching. The Civil War, too, had its effect. As more and more men were needed as soldiers, women were hired to fill their positions. Friedrich Froebel, Horace Mann and Henry Barnard also influenced the movement of women into teaching when they suggested the preferability of women over men in teaching young children because of women's superior patience, sympathy and moral nature (Brubacker, 1947, p. 531). In 1875, Francis Adams wrote, "The extensive employment of women as teachers has been due partly to natural causes, but more to the conviction which experience has confirmed, that women are better qualified for the work of elementary teaching than men" (Tyack, 1967, p. 176). Thus by the year 1900, the majority of teachers were women. What a turnabout in a short fifty to sixty year period!

The Twentieth Century

Throughout the first quarter of the twentieth century, women continued to increase their majority as teachers of young children. A. E. Winship, editor of the then New England Journal of Education, wrote, in 1922, that

. . . the reduction of the number of men teachers (in the last fifteen to thirty years) all came within five years after the certification was a state affair, and many men were too wise to try for a certificate. . . . There has been a fairly steady increase in men teachers since that exodus so far as the conditions corresponded. Conditions do not correspond because the enforcement of compulsory education fills up the grades in which women teach and thus increases women teachers.

The "grades in which women teach," of course, was a reference to the primary grades and Winship expressed the general feeling of the time that these grades were to be taught by women. A few years earlier, however, G. Stanley Hall, the founder of the child study movement, voiced concern about the ever increasing number of women in the teaching profession and urged more men to seek positions as teachers (Hall, 1908).

Hall's views were not widely held and it was not to be until the second half of the twentieth century that an acceptance of men as teachers of young children was once again to gain favor. As an outgrowth of articles and research on the topic of men working with young children, a sizeable increase in the proportion of male preschool and primary grade teachers may appear during the last quarter of the twentieth century. Indeed, Seifert (1976), predicts that in one hundred years we may have an economy that permits men to seek positions as teachers of young children.

This brief historical look at men as teachers of young children reveals that it has only been in the last one hundred years that women have been the predominant source of teachers and that, for the hundreds of years previous, men were heavily involved with the education of young children. We may be on the edge of a new cycle in which the best people, both men and women, will become the teachers of young children.

Section II: Professional Views

Early writings on the topic of men in child care and education were in response to the changing cadre of teachers from predominantly men to predominantly women. As more and more women became teachers of young children and more and more men joined the industrial work force, there were people who expressed concern about the effect this might have on the development of young children. This concern has persisted to the present and has resulted in many articles that reflect differing views on the subject. In this section of the review of the literature, writings reflecting these professional views have been grouped by area of concern: discipline, role model, academic achievement, age of child when men are most effective, why there are so few men in this field and what to do about it. In each of these subsections, the author attempts to bring together the opinions of the various writers on the topic and synthesize the major views.

Discipline

One of the first to write about the lack of a male presence in schools was G. Stanley Hall, the child study psychologist. Hall had noticed that since the Civil War there had been a complete change from a majority of men teachers to a majority of women teachers. In 1908, Hall reported that only 23 per cent of all teachers were male and that the teachers of that time were poorly paid, poorly trained and left the profession at an alarming rate (25 per cent each year). He felt that something should be done to increase the pay, training and career longevity of teachers and, especially, to get more men teachers.

The importance of an adult male presence in the classroom came from Hall's view of a traditional role for men and not from a psychological perspective as might be expected from Hall. He felt that, without men, young children would not receive the discipline they need. To quote a 1908 article of his:

Let us, then, at least try to keep men enough in the school so that the venerable and Biblical traditions of the rod shall not quite lapse to innocuous desuetude, and so that it shall not become like a sword so rusted in its scabbard that it cannot be drawn out again when the whole country needs and calls for it" (p. 10239).

This view of men teachers as staunch disciplinarians has persisted throughout the twentieth century. In a 1959 review of the literature covering the first half of this century, Robert S. Thurman found that one of the main contributions attributed to men elementary school teachers was their ability to maintain discipline in the school. A study of parents' attitudes by Harris and Smith (1976) indicates that this view is still widely held.

While a man's ability to discipline has been emphasized by many in the field of education and by the general public at large, it is interesting to note that when men are questioned as to what they thought were their major contributions to the field of elementary education, none mentioned discipline (Kaplan, 1947; Rogers, 1953; Thurman, 1959). The men questioned described their contribution to the social adjustment of the child, especially the male child, as the greatest contribution they make.

Role Model

The man teacher as provider of a male role model, the literature reveals, is currently receiving more emphasis than his role as

disciplinarian. Two male kindergarten teachers reflect this feeling in the following quotation:

The idea of "role" plays an important part in the development of a sense of identity and self-understanding. As young children develop, they need the opportunity to explore many different roles. Hand in hand with the trying out, examples must be provided--models, if you will--for each of these roles a child explores. Equally important are easily accessible, clearly evident contrasts for each of the roles. One basic value of having male teachers interacting with young children is to provide models for boys and contrasts for girls (Williams and Johnston, 1970, p. 145).

The importance of a male role model on the development of a child is well documented (Ostrovsky, 1959; Hymes, 1963; McCandless, 1967; Janis, Mahl, Kagen and Holt, 1969) but these writers have concerned themselves with the presence of a father in the home rather than a man in the school. While they provide ample evidence of the deprivation that can result from father absence, there is no such clear evidence of deprivation occurring due to the absence of male teachers. Most of the literature on the importance of the male role model in the classroom is based on conjecture, "common knowledge" and studies involving fathers.

Concern for the provision of male role models for young children has come, in part, from the view of schools as "feminized" places. Hall (1908) was the first to use such a label and in recent years there has been much written about the feminizing effect of schools (Laurita, 1966; Fagot and Patterson, 1969; Kellogg, 1969; Sexton, 1969; Biber et al., 1972; Lee, 1973; Strigna, 1973; Jones, 1974, Milgrim, 1974; Etaugh et al., 1975; and Vroegh, 1976). Most of these writings are based on studies which have shown boys to identify school related objects as feminine and that much teacher behavior reinforces traditionally viewed feminine behavior on the part of both male and female students (Fagot

and Patterson, 1969; Biber et al., 1972; and Etaugh et al., 1975).

Some are concerned not only with the feminization of the school but, also, of the home. Phillip Vairo of Fordham University feels that the

. . . segmented character of urban life, which has become the dominant mode in American society, has resulted in the ascendancy of secondary or primary relationships, thus weakening the primary group structure, the family, and its controls. With urbanization has come social disorganization, insecurity, and family disintegration. The positive male image is disappearing from the American scene (1969, p. 222).

This situation, Dr. Vairo contends, can be alleviated by the presence of adult males in preschools and the primary grades of elementary schools.

While the bulk of the literature stresses this feminization of young boys as inappropriate for proper social adjustment and directly links it to the lack of an adult male presence, some authors are writing that an adult male presence can, and should, serve a different function than simply "defeminizing" schools. Kelvin Seifert, professor of educational psychology at the University of Manitoba, has written,

Almost unanimously, leaders in the field have concluded that early childhood education needs more men. Some feel that having men will facilitate sex-role identification, especially for the boys. With a male model present, both boys and girls will learn the differences between "manly" and "womanly" behavior more clearly. In this view, having a male teacher will accentuate sex roles among young children. But others argue the opposite; they say that including men will help to show children that sex roles are not necessary. The children will see that even a man can care about them, and in this way a male teacher will obscure sex roles for his classroom of children (1974, p. 299).

This latter view is especially reflected in the literature of the women's liberation movement (Tanner, 1970). The "movement" has placed an emphasis on the blurring of traditional sex typed roles and has pushed for the creation of new roles that are not tied to one's

sex. From this perspective, the male teacher of young children is seen as a person who can model nurturant behavior and, thus, break the myth of child caring as women's work.

Another way that children learn the traditional stereotyped roles is through observing that almost all day care teachers are women. The children quickly comprehend the concept that there is "women's work" and "men's work." This in itself would be sufficient argument for us to insist that men be included at all levels in the day care staff (Gross and Macewan, 1970, p. 205).

Academic Achievement

The lack of school achievement on the part of young boys is a point made by Charles May (1971) that might make one view men teachers of young children differently. Many besides May seem to believe that this low level of achievement by young boys is a direct result of not enough men in the schools for young children.

In a review of the research entitled, "Sex of Teacher and Academic Achievement," Karen Vroegh, of the Institute for Juvenile Research in Chicago, reports that many writers believe that one of the advantages of having a male teacher is that

. . . male teachers are expected to provide a different nurture than female teachers, one more suitable for stimulating the general academic achievement of boys, and perhaps that of girls in certain academic areas (1976, p. 391).

She goes on to say, however, that "little support has been found for a general hypothesis that male teachers, when compared with female teachers, improve the academic achievement of, and reduce the number of problems experienced by boys in elementary schools" (p. 397).

This lack of difference in effect on academic achievement may be due to what Patrick Lee of Teachers College, Columbia University,

described as the school's ability to socialize teachers "irrespective of sex, to place a high premium on pupil control" (1973, p. 87). Thus, he believes, there is little difference in teacher expectations and behaviors, especially at the upper elementary grades. "It would seem that sex of teacher is a more significant operational aspect of classroom ecology in the earliest grades and that, if male teachers were to be introduced into the elementary schools, they would have the greatest impact at these grades" (p. 88). But Dr. Lee's belief that men would be most effective with the youngest children is not, and has not, been a widely held opinion.

Age of Child When Men are Most Effective

Thurman (1959) states in his review of the literature that

. . . it is generally conceded that men begin making . . . contributions to the intermediate grades, because children in the primary grades need women teachers. By and large, men who might be interested in teaching primary children are not encouraged to do so (p. 57).

Louis Kaplan in his study, "The Status and Function of Men Teachers in Urban Elementary Schools" (1948) recommended that men teachers should only be assigned to the upper elementary grades and in their chosen field of preparation--such as science, physical education or mathematics.

A. E. Winship (1922, 1976), in arguing that forty per cent of all teachers should be men, states that, "There is not likely to be a perceptible increase of men teachers in the first six grades or in principalships of schools with six grades, but forty per cent men for students above the sixth grade is quite probable in co-education schools and certainly in boys schools" (p. 49, 567).

More recently though, articles with titles such as: "Wanted: 20,000 male first-grade school teachers" (Vairo, 1969) and "Help Wanted: Men to teach the lower elementary grades" (Laurita, 1966) are an indication of the ever increasing shift in attitude about male teachers for the young child. But much of this shift in attitude is simply a change from one unsubstantiated conclusion (young children should be taught by women) to another unsubstantiated conclusion (men provide something special for young children). Even so, there is increasing concern as to why so few men are involved in the care and education of young children.

Why So Few Men

While there are no reliable figures on the number of men working with children on the preschool level, we know that at the elementary school level during the 1974-1975 school year, only 16.9 per cent of all teachers were male (see Table 1). While that figure may be viewed as a considerable improvement over the 1939-1940 school year when only 11.7 per cent of elementary teachers were male, it is still well below what one might expect when one considers that over half the workforce in this country is male. The percentage would be even smaller if one were able to gather accurate figures on how many of the male elementary teachers were assigned to young children, grades kindergarten through third. Thurman (1959) found that only one per cent of his sample of 898 men elementary school teachers taught full time in the primary grades.

Patrick Lee (1973) states that few men enter the elementary and preschool field for three reasons: since the mid to late nineteenth century it has been traditional for men not to teach at the elementary

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS NATIONWIDE THAT ARE MALE

Year	Percentage
1939-1940	11.7
1949-1950	9.0
1951-1952	12.5
1953-1954	12.2
1955-1956	12.7
1957-1958	12.8
1959-1960	14.1
1961-1962	14.5
1963-1964	14.5
1965-1966	15.2
1967-1968	14.6
1969-1970	15.3
1971-1972	17.4
1973-1974	16.8
1974-1975	16.9

SOURCE: Ellenburg (1975, p. 330).

and preschool level, there are sex role attitudes against men in early childhood education, and both pay and prestige are low in these occupations. Martha Whitemore (1973) reports that Calvin Clans, chairman of the psychology department at the National College of Education, "pointed to societal misgivings about the wisdom of allowing little girls to interact with strange males as a force that pushed men out of elementary education" (p. 317). Yet Lawrence F. Lowery (1969) reports from his research that parents associated teachers with things that are feminine and had a negative attitude toward teachers, but when a teacher was identified as being male, the accompanying attitudes tended to be positive. So, while there appears to be a general consensus that working with young children is "women's work," there is a positive feeling

toward men who do such work. What then, can be done about the situation?

What To Do

Kyselka (1966) takes the position that it is nearly impossible, at this time, to get men to work with younger children professionally and that volunteers may be the way to go. Kyselka reported on the use of high school boys in a nursery school. Joel Milgram (1972) has advocated the use of any male volunteers that will come into the preschool and Dorothy Sciarra (1972) has also advocated such volunteers.

Others say that we can get men to work with young children if some changes are made. One might be able to get males interested in young children while still in high school, through child development classes (Hammerberg, 1973). Robert Topp, Dean of the National College of Education, has suggested that high school counselors might encourage male students to enter the elementary school field and that special scholarships be set up especially for men majoring in elementary education. Topp (1954), Barnes and Lambert (1958), Gleason and Mathews (1959), Star (1959), Vairo (1969), and others have suggested such remedies as higher salaries and more prestige for the job. None of these ideas, of course, are new and many of them are more applicable to the preschool today than they are to the elementary school where salaries have risen sharply over the past decade. In an interesting look at the future, Kelvin Siefert predicts that by the year 2076, men will be entering the early childhood education field quite naturally as a result of what he calls a "no growth economy" that emphasizes human services rather than material products and guarantees an income for all (1976).

One final obstacle to men entering the early childhood field that may be diminished as men and women get to know each other better, has been brought out by Rogers (1953) and Milgrim and Sciarra (1974). Many men who work with young children feel that their female colleagues do not totally accept them, regardless of their teaching skills. This makes the male teacher or caregiver lonely in his work environment and thus not as happy with his job as he might be.

This review of the literature regarding men in the role of caring for and educating young children has found three basic concerns about the lack of men in such roles. The earliest concern was that without men, children would not receive the discipline they need in their early years. A second, more predominant concern today, was the necessity of having men around young children to provide a male role model for young children, especially boys. And, lastly, some writers felt that there was a direct relationship between the low achievement levels of young boys in school and the lack of an adult male presence in the classroom.

The literature also revealed that in the past it was not considered appropriate for men to be caring for or educating young children but that, in recent years, there has been a trend toward encouraging men to do such work. In addition, it becomes apparent that, indeed, few men do work professionally with young children in preschools and primary grades and that if one is to alter that situation certain changes in high school counseling and job prestige may be necessary.

Section III: Review of the Research

Research on the subject of men as teachers and caregivers of young children is a fairly recent phenomena. Early research took the form of surveys of men engaged in elementary school teaching and the concern of principals and others with men in these positions. These early findings indicated that men were seen as valuable assets to an elementary school program for various reasons, the major one being that men provide appropriate sex role models and thus enhance the social development of children, especially boys. From the mid 1960's to the present, experimental research has been carried out to investigate the actual effect of the male presence on children in preschool and elementary classrooms. Most of this research has centered on two questions: are men better able to help with the social adjustment of young children (boys, in particular) than women; and is a man better able to stimulate academic achievement among boys than a woman. In the sixties, dissertations reflected concern with the views of people about men as elementary school teachers. More recent studies have focused on a new matter of concern, men as preschool caregivers.

For the purpose of reporting the research, this section has been divided into four subsections: early surveys of male elementary school teachers; the effect of male and female teachers on the social adjustment of boys; the effect of male and female teachers on the academic achievement of boys; and recent surveys of male teachers of young children.

Early Surveys of Male Elementary School Teachers

Since about the end of World War II, scholarly research reports dealing with the topic of men teaching young children have been finding their way into dissertations and professional journals and papers.

This research has tended to look at the male as a person who contributes something special to the lives of the young children with whom he comes in contact.

The earliest research found that dealt with men working with young children in group settings was the 1947 doctoral dissertation of Kaplan entitled: "The Status and Function of Men Teachers in Urban Elementary Schools." Kaplan was interested in that minority of the elementary faculty, the male teacher. The purpose of the study was to gather views concerning the need for and the contributions of men teachers in elementary school classrooms. Findings were based on a questionnaire mailed to 104 psychologists, 87 school administrators, 898 men teachers, 491 male principals and 157 women principals.

Kaplan was the first to provide the profession with data on how psychologists and educators viewed the role of men in elementary schools. With this information, he made some conclusions (many of which still predominate) as to the value of men working with children and recommendations for schools hiring men teachers. The value of men teachers working with young children, as hypothesized by Kaplan (1947, p. 176) and agreed to by 80 per cent of the respondents to his questionnaire were as follows:

1. Men teachers are needed in the elementary school to meet the children's need for the paternal pattern of influence similar to that which prevails in the normal home atmosphere.
2. Men teachers are needed in the elementary school to give children experience which would supplement the influence of women teachers in promoting the social growth of children.
3. Men teachers exert a unique influence on the personality development of boys.
4. Men teachers promote the normal personal adjustment of girls.
5. Men teachers enrich the educational experience of children.
6. Men teachers contribute to the personal and professional welfare of the teaching staff.

The 898 men teachers surveyed by Kaplan made the following recommendations for involving more men teachers at the elementary school level.

1. Contributions of men teachers should be publicized before the public and the profession.
2. Physical facilities, such as restrooms and lounges, should be provided for men teachers.
3. Attention should be given to extra duties assigned to men teachers to assure that the men are not being assigned jobs that women find distasteful.
4. Men should be assigned to positions that they are prepared to fill.
5. Opportunities for advancement should be given (Kaplan, 1947, pp. 367-370).

A similar study was undertaken by Thurman in 1959. His questionnaire was returned by 719 men elementary teachers from throughout the country. A few of the more interesting data from this study are as follows:

1. Only one per cent of his sample taught full time in the primary grades.
2. Only forty-six per cent named an interest in children as their main reason for entering elementary education.
3. Twenty-nine per cent gave negative reasons for entering the profession (i.e., only job available; preparation was cheaper; less

preparation was required; transferred from high school; got into it accidentally; could not succeed in another line of study).

Thurman sent out another survey instrument across the country to school superintendents, Parent Teacher Association presidents, a small sample of men teachers and other educators. He found that most did not consider men to be better disciplinarians than women and fifty per cent agreed with Thurman's statement: "Even with the necessary background and training, few men would make good first grade teachers."

A third study, prior to 1960, was conducted by Dorothy Rogers (1953). Though not as comprehensive as the Kaplan and Thurman studies, Rogers gathered valuable information from forty male graduates of State University Teachers College, Oswego, New York. All the men in the sample taught children in grades three through eight. Among the more interesting findings were:

1. Most of the responses of the men regarding the special contributions of male teachers centered around the need for a masculine influence on children.

2. Of the sample, 55.5 per cent disagreed with the statement: "Male elementary school teachers are probably better teachers than are female elementary teachers."

3. The large majority of the men testified that they found classroom teaching deeply satisfying, especially in the area of the teacher-pupil relationship.

4. Most dissatisfaction with teaching revolved around inadequate pay, extra jobs without corresponding compensation, and factors relating to the disproportionate number of women on the teaching staff.

The three studies reported reveal the feelings and understanding of teachers, administrators and psychologists about the value of the male presences in the classroom for young children. In general, the studies showed a consensus that men are important in early childhood classrooms and that men seem to enjoy this type of work.

Experimental research dealing with the effect of the male presence in the classroom is a comparatively recent phenomena, the earliest dating from the mid-sixties. This research has revolved around two central questions: are men better able to help with the social adjustment of young children (boys, in particular) than women? And are men better able than women to stimulate academic achievement among boys? The subsequent section reports on the findings from experimental research addressed to these two questions.

The Social Adjustment of Boys

One of the most commonly expressed reasons for the inclusion of male teachers in the elementary grades and preschools is the need to "de-feminize" the classroom. In her book, The Feminized Male, Patricia Sexton (1969) described what she felt was an evolving society of feminized males resulting from the prominent role that females play in the home and school. This concern expressed by Sexton, resulted in a call for more men to work with young children. But what did the emerging experimental research have to say about the feminizing influence of female classroom teachers?

Studying female nursery school teachers' reinforcement of sex-role behaviors, Fagot and Patterson (1969) found that the teachers did indeed reinforce behaviors in both boys and girls that are normally

considered feminine. Two similar studies by Biber et al. (1972) and Etaugh et al. (1975) reconfirmed the findings of Fagot and Patterson. The results of all three studies, based on observation of actual teacher behavior toward boys and girls, seems, at first glance, to confirm the views of Patricia Sexton. However, further analysis of the data indicates that this may not be the case.

In observing the behavior of the children involved in their study, Fagot and Patterson found that, in spite of the teacher reinforcement for feminine characterized behavior, the boys and girls spent most of their time in "sex appropriate" behavior. The Etaugh et al. study of two year old children in a nursery school found that, despite reinforcements from female teachers and even masculine reinforcements by a male teacher, the boys and girls preferred sex appropriate activities. In another study involving a male teacher, this time in a kindergarten, Brophy and Laosa (1971) found that a man's presence, along with his wife's, "did not change the typical pattern of sex typing in interests and preferences and clearly did not change the tendency of the children to classify certain school-related objects as feminine" (p. 170). It seems that even when the nursery school or kindergarten teacher is male, as was the case in the Etaugh study and the Brophy and Laosa study, there is little evidence of any effect on the children's preference for sex appropriate activities.

Other studies seem to bear out the conclusion that women teachers play a minimal effect on male social adjustment. Dorothea Sciarra (1970) found that there were no statistically significant differences in aggression, interest in school or susceptibility to peer pressure,

between day care center children exposed solely to female adults and those exposed to a volunteer male role model once each week for eight weeks. Sweely (1969) found that in the elementary school, male teachers had no differential effect on children's self-concept when compared to female teachers. McFarland (1966) found there was no significant difference in personality development due to the presence of a male student teacher in a first grade classroom when compared with the presence of a female student teacher. Farrall (1965) found no difference in male elementary students' self concept regardless of sex of the teacher. In another study by Etaugh (1973), she found no evidence that male teachers facilitate the school attitudes and behaviors of male elementary pupils.

Other research, however, has indicated that male teachers can make a difference if certain conditions exist. Minetos (1970) found that a male presence with fatherless boys tended to strengthen appropriate sex-role identification. Dawson (1971) who also studied the effect of a male teacher on fatherless boys, found higher ratings on overall social and emotional development for boys in male teacher classrooms when compared with fatherless boys in a female teacher classroom. Mathews (1969) and Revelle (1972) found men teachers to be effective in increasing the positive self-concepts of boys when teaching in an all boy kindergarten or first grade. But the weight of the evidence, so far, seems to indicate that the mere presence of a male adult in an elementary or preschool room does not make a measurable difference in the social adjustment of young boys.

Academic Achievement of Boys

Turning now to the claim made by Karen Vroegh (1976) that many writers believe that one of the advantages of having a male teacher is that male teachers stimulate the achievement of boys better than female teachers, one finds that the research does not always bear this out.

McFarland (1969) found no significant differences in the math or reading achievement of first grade pupils due to the presence of a male student teacher or female student teacher working with a woman master teacher. Bennett (1966) even found that higher school achievement among fifth graders was consistently associated with female pupils and female teachers. Revelle (1972) did a three year study comparing an all male group of students who had a male teacher for both kindergarten and first grade with a control group of mixed boys and girls who were taught by a male kindergarten teacher and a female first grade teacher. She found no significant differences between the groups on academic achievement at the end of first grade. Comparing the achievement of intermediate level boys and girls taught by either male or female teachers, Forslund (1974) concluded that "sex of teacher does not significantly effect achievement of either boys or girls at the upper elementary level" (p. 87).

Mathews (1969), however, did find men to be effective in certain types of achievement in an all male kindergarten and first grade when compared to a mixed male and female group of children taught by women. At the end of the first grade, the all boy group was found to have achieved higher means in many of the abilities and characteristics often thought of as male appropriate (i.e., pull ups, sit ups, visual

perception, inhibitions, etc.) while the mixed group had done better in many abilities and characteristics usually considered female appropriate (i.e., reading, arithmetic, language, conformity, etc.).

These research findings seem to confirm the conclusion of Karen Vroegh (1976) that "little support has been found for a general hypothesis that male teachers, when compared with female teachers, improve the academic achievement of, and reduce the number of problems experienced by boys in elementary schools" (p. 397).

Another question of interest is the idea that men provide better discipline for children than women. While this investigator could find no empirical research on the question of whether men are better classroom disciplinarians than women, an interesting study by Harris and Smith (1976) using the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, found no significant difference between a sample of men and women teachers on high controlling attitudes. The researchers did find a significant difference between the men and women in their sample on the Study of Values Political Scores, which they say indicates that men had higher personal power characteristics. This characteristic, the authors maintain, could be detrimental to children.

Recent Surveys of Male Teachers of Young Children

This review of the research is now directed to the question of how men feel about being teachers of young children. Since 1966, five studies have been conducted on this question, four at the elementary level and one at the preschool level. These studies, in general, have tried to identify how men feel about working with young children, and

recommendations that the male teachers have for improving their working conditions.

In 1966, John Diggs surveyed male elementary school teachers in suburban Washington, D.C. and received the following recommendations:

1. In elementary schools having only one man teacher, an attempt should be made to increase this number so that there will be male comradeship and the "woman's world" feeling may be reduced.
2. When possible and practical, male elementary teachers should be allowed to work with male principals if they wish.
3. School systems should attempt to provide extra work compensation so that teachers will not have to take jobs outside the school system.

All of these recommendations are similar to ones found in surveys of male elementary teachers some ten to twenty years previous (Kaplan, 1947; Thurman, 1959; and Rogers, 1953).

Male elementary school teachers in Nebraska were found by Peterson (1966) to agree that working in elementary schools encompasses the rewards and satisfactions for an ideal position. He also reported that school administrators felt that children between six and eight do not need a man teacher, but children between nine and eleven do.

In 1968, James O'Brien summarized his findings from interviews of all the male elementary school teachers in St. Louis County, Missouri. Like other researchers, he found that the low pay and poor image of elementary school teaching kept men out of the profession and that most of the men who were teaching planned to move into administrative positions.

Weinfurtner (1970) listed reasons why men enter the elementary school teaching profession. As ranked in order of importance by the teachers surveyed, they are: working with children; the challenge, service to others, security, intellectual atmosphere, the opportunity to influence social change and advancement opportunities.

The most recent study on the subject of male teachers comes from the Male Caregivers in Day Care Demonstration Project directed by Boyd McCandless of Emory University in 1973. The project was designed to study the effect of the male presence on day care children and the effect of day care work on male adults. The male adults in the study were high school students in and around Atlanta. The students were placed in one of two day care centers, one for suburban children and one for inner city children.

Pre and post test data were collected on the young men who were part of the study and were working part time as assistant teachers over a one to two year period. Analysis of the data showed the following results.

1. The average I.Q.'s of the male caregivers remained the same.
2. There was a significant change toward decreased scores, thus toward greater field independence on the Embedded Figures Test.
3. On the Adjective Check List, one change reflects possible increased surgency and drive, and a relative absence of repressive tendencies and, possibly a change in the young men's attitudes toward change itself, indicating increased openness to new experiences, and a sensitivity to all that is unusual and challenging.
4. Therman-Miles Masculinity-Feminity Test results showed the average score at the time of final testing was significantly higher

than the average score for the male caregiver group at the time of initial testing, the higher scores being in the masculine direction.

5. The Miller Locus of Evaluation and Control Scales showed there was no difference between the average locus of control scores between the initial and final test time.

6. The Black Intelligence Test of Cultural Homogeneity resulted in a mean transformed score of the male caregivers at the time of final testing that was significantly higher than their mean score on the initial test.

McCandless (1972, pp. 13-14) concluded that,

It was shown that caregiving could be a very rewarding and enjoyable experience for the young men involved. Their co-workers and supervisors evaluated the males as having become more confident in themselves, more competent and responsible in their jobs, and more open in their interactions with others.

As a result of questionnaires, interviews, and evaluations, the young men in the study expressed the following feelings relative to their work:

1. They were important to the children.
2. Some of the young men felt that their relationships with the staff had improved and they were finally accepted as teachers.
3. Whatever difficulties there might have been with staff were more than compensated by the feelings the young men had about the children. Among the responses on the initial questionnaire, discipline, control, and respect were the primary concerns, whereas by the end of the year the males were talking about how the children enjoyed them and sought their attention.
4. The male caregivers generally felt well accepted by the parents of the children at both centers (mothers requested to have their children placed into classes taught by the males).
5. Only two males, one male at each center, reported having ever been teased about their jobs with children.
6. The families of the young men appeared to have grown more enthusiastic about the male caregiver's job.
7. At the time of the initial administration of the questionnaire, there was only one young man at each center who listed behavioral differences between the little boys and little girls,

at the end of the year, every male caregiver at both centers specified behavioral differences between the sexes.

8. All of the males agreed that the teaching experience had been a positive one both initially and at the end of the year,
 - a) it increased their understanding and appreciation of little children,
 - b) it perhaps made them more openly affectionate and less self-conscious,
 - c) it provided them with many new friends and helped some of them get summer jobs,
 - d) it impressed upon them the importance of early childhood experiences and home environment in forming the personality,
 - e) and it would make them better fathers (McCandless, 1973, pp. 9-13).

This study, the only experimental look at men teachers and the only look at men who are preschool caregivers which has been published, provides much new and valuable information on caregiving by men. The study has pushed researchers beyond the question of who helps children more, males or females, a question it would seem, from looking at the research, for which there is no answer. It has focused attention on the question of the effect of caregiving on men.

Overall, this review of the research has revealed some possible answers to the questions of what effect a male presence in the classroom has on young children. The majority of the findings seem to indicate that the male presence makes little difference in either social adjustment or academic achievement among young boys when compared to classes taught by women. While no real experimental evidence could be found, there does seem to be consensus among male teachers that they have no unique abilities when it comes to disciplining little children. It is apparent, though, that men can and do enjoy working with young children and that if working conditions were improved, the task of educating and caring for young children in group settings might be viewed more

positively by males. In the study by McCandless (1973) it was further shown that working with young children might have some beneficial effects on young men.

Summary of the Chapter

While this chapter did not attempt to review all the literature relevant to the topic of men and young children; it did provide a review of the literature on the narrowed topic of men teachers and caregivers of young children.

Section I provided a brief summary of the role of men in the education of young children in America. The literature shows that from the Colonial Days up to the Civil War, most teachers of young children were men and that it was the Industrial Revolution that pulled men out of the classrooms and into the factories. Section II reviewed the views of many prominent and not so prominent individuals who have written on the subject of men working with young children in group settings. There seemed to be differing views as to the value of men in such roles but there was also a general consensus that more men were needed in preschools and elementary schools. Section III presented experimental research data that showed no real advantage in social adjustment or academic achievement for children by having men in the classrooms of preschool and elementary aged children. Surveys of male teachers revealed, however, that men doing such work seemed to benefit from it.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction

Since the turn of the century, educators and others have been concerned about the absence of males in the education and care of young children. Much has been written and said about the presumed effect of this absence on the young child. Studies have been conducted to determine the effect that a male teacher has on young children in group settings and most of these studies indicated that there was no measurable significantly different effect on the children due to the presence of a male or female teacher. Other researchers have gathered data from men who work with young children in elementary schools in an attempt to identify how such men view their roles. One researcher, McCandless (1972), questioned the effect that working with young children had on male high school students. None of the research, however, has dealt with how male preschool caregivers feel about their work.

Research on attitudes toward work have a comparatively short but substantial history in the field of industrial psychology. When one investigates the research on men's attitudes toward the work of educating or caregiving, one finds an even shorter history and definitely not a substantial one. The first such research was in 1947 by Louis Kaplan. Since then there have been only six additional research studies. Of

those seven studies, only one dealt with males working at the pre-kindergarten level (McCandless, 1972) and that study did not investigate the professional caregiver but rather students put in an experimental situation.

The purpose of this study was to identify and compare attitudes toward work through a survey of a sample of professional and preprofessional, male and female caregivers. The study was directed towards increased understanding of the preschool as a prospective work place for males.

Research Questions

Many early childhood specialists believe that more men should enter the preschool field but, in fact, most preschool staffs are predominantly female. The following research questions were developed to get a better understanding of (1) how men, now working in preschools or training for such work, differ from females in the same positions with regard to attitudes toward their work, and (2) whether the professional and preprofessional in training differ in their attitudes.

1. Do male and female professional caregiver subjects differ in their
 - a. reasons for becoming caregivers?
 - b. reasons for satisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for dissatisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall intrinsic satisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall extrinsic satisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - f. reasons for staying on the job?

2. Do male and female preprofessional caregiver subjects differ in their
 - a. reasons for wanting to become caregivers?
 - b. reasons for anticipated satisfactions with the job of caregiving?

- c. reasons for anticipated dissatisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall expected intrinsic satisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall expected extrinsic satisfactions with the job of caregiving?
3. Do subjects differ by sex or status as professional or preprofessional caregivers in their
- a. reasons for becoming or wanting to become caregivers?
 - b. reasons for satisfactions or anticipated satisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for dissatisfactions or anticipated dissatisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall intrinsic or expected intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall extrinsic or expected extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?

Research Subjects

This study used a four celled sample of male and female, professional and preprofessional preschool caregivers (see Table 2). The

TABLE 2
RESEARCH SUBJECTS

	Male	Female	Total
Professional	20	20	40
Preprofessional	15	15	30
Total	35	35	70

two professional cells contained twenty (20) persons while the two pre-professional cells contained fifteen (15) persons, a total population of seventy (70).

Professional caregivers were defined as those persons receiving pay for spending a major portion of each work day working directly with

preschool children in group care settings. Preprofessional caregivers were defined as those persons who, at the time of the study, were enrolled, at least part time, in an early childhood, child care or similar training program at a college. Preschool children were defined as children not yet in kindergarten or kindergarten children in a before or after school day care setting.

Male subjects were identified through the help of the Chicago Association for the Education of Young Children, day care directors in Chicago and the Red River Valley of the North and chairpersons of college child development or early childhood education departments. Equal numbers of female subjects were identified through the same process and matched as closely as possible with their male colleagues with regard to area of residence (see Table 3), position title (see Table 4) and funding source of the work place (see Table 5).

TABLE 3
PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS BY AREA OF RESIDENCE

	Chicago Metropolitan Area	Red River Valley
Female Professionals	80	20
Male Professionals	85	15
Female Preprofessionals	53	47
Male Preprofessionals	60	40

TABLE 4

PERCENTAGE OF PROFESSIONAL SUBJECTS BY POSITION TITLE

	Assistant Teacher	Teacher	Teacher/Director
Male	40	45	15
Female	45	40	15

TABLE 5

PERCENTAGE OF WORK PLACES OF PROFESSIONAL SUBJECTS BY FUNDING SOURCE

	Tuition	Government Funding
Female	25	75
Male	25	75

Work setting and training site varied. The preschools were located in tenement housing and on university campuses. Programs were sponsored by private organizations and by governmental agencies. Training sites varied from prestigious institutions (Erikson Institute) to less well known colleges and junior colleges. Most training sites were funded by tuition and state and federal funds. All work settings used in this study have been identified as to major source of support: tuition or governmental funding.

Instruments

A survey of the literature regarding measurement of job attitudes indicated use of three basic types of instruments. One type

asks the respondent to answer questions that express an over-all attitude toward the job. The second type is a scaled inventory requiring specific responses that result in a job attitude score. The third type of measurement is one involving observation of the worker by the investigator resulting in a behavioral measure of attitudes towards one's work (Herzberg, 1959). The third approach was ruled out by the investigator principally because of the time and expense involved in an observational technique. The first two methods of measurement were felt to be feasible and both were used in determining attitudes toward work as indicated by the professional and preprofessional, male and female caregiver in a preschool setting. The two instruments used are described below.

The Preschool Caregiver Interview Questionnaire (PCIQ) was used by the investigator to survey the respondent's over-all attitude toward the job and the reasons for the respondent entering the caregiving field. The PCIQ is the investigator's adaptation of the Five Town Interview Outline developed by Lortie (1975), who used the interview during the summer of 1963 with 94 elementary and secondary teachers in five school systems in the Boston metropolitan area to study teachers from a sociological perspective. Lortie's Interview Outline was an eighty-eight (88) question, open ended interview, dealing with recruitment, socialization and career rewards of teachers. This particular interview form was felt appropriate because the current investigator was interested in answers to questions about recruitment and career rewards.

The nineteen (19) questions selected for use can be categorized in the following manner:

1. six (6) questions eliciting demographic data,
2. four (4) questions regarding career selection,
3. five (5) questions about satisfactions with the job,
4. four (4) questions regarding dissatisfactions with the job.

A twentieth question was added by the investigator to elicit reasons for job longevity.

Some of the questions were inappropriate for all respondents so each of the two groups, professional and preprofessional, answered less than twenty questions. Professional subjects answered nineteen (19) questions while the preprofessional sample answered fifteen (15) questions.

Reliability and validity statistics are not available from Lortie's work for the questions used in the PCIQ. However, Lortie (1975) did a followup study of teachers and administrators in Dade County, Florida, which seemed to concur with the earlier findings in the Boston area. Copies of the two questionnaires developed for this study can be found in Appendix A.

The second attitudinal measure used was a scaled inventory requiring responses that resulted in a job attitude score. That instrument was the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The short-form MSQ is a five minute, self administered, paper and pencil questionnaire developed in 1963 by the Work Adjustment Project, Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota.

The short-form MSQ produces three scales, two of which were used in this study: intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction. It provided data for answering research questions involving overall intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving.

Hoyt reliability coefficients were used for a number of norming groups (assemblers, clerks, engineers, janitors, machinists, salesmen) resulting in the following median coefficients for each scale: intrinsic satisfaction, .86; extrinsic satisfaction, .80. Since the short-form MSQ is a subset of twenty (20) items from the long-form, validity, in part, is inferred from the long-form. However, there is evidence of validity from studies of occupational group differences in mean satisfaction scores which were found to be statistically significant for each of the two scales (Weiss et al., 1967). A copy of the short-form MSQ can be found in Appendix B.

Procedure

All respondents were contacted in advance of the interview by either letter or telephone call explaining the purpose of the interview and asking for a preference regarding interview site and time. Respondents were cautioned that since the interview dealt with their work they might not want to be interviewed at the work place.

Because both the PCIQ and the MSQ dealt with the respondent's attitudes toward the job of caregiving, special precautions were taken to assure anonymity of those subjects identified as professional caregivers. For instance, all respondents were identified by only their first name and category of work place and the respondents were not required to be interviewed at work. Consequently, some of the interviews were conducted at the respondent's home and some at the work or training site.

Each interview lasted approximately one half hour and was recorded on audio tape with each respondent identified at the

beginning of the interview only by first name and category of work place. At the end of the interview, the respondent was asked to fill out the short-form, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, and to return it to the investigator before he left the interview site.

Statistical Treatment

The following analysis was performed on the data collected by the Preschool Caregiver Interview Questionnaire and the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

A content analysis technique was used with all statements in answer to interview questions regarding career selection, job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction and job longevity for the purpose of categorizing them as either intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic statements were identified as those involving reference to oneself or one's activities (i.e., "I like kids," "Helping children grow"). Extrinsic statements were those involving references to influences, feelings or activities attributed to persons, places or things external to the respondent (i.e., "My neighbor told me about the job," "The college had a good early childhood program," "The money keeps me coming back"). After all responses were categorized, each respondent was assigned the percentage of intrinsic statements made in each area of interest: career selection, job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction and job longevity. Job longevity scores were not calculated for the preprofessional group as they were not yet working as caregivers.

Short-form MSQ answers were scored according to manual instructions (Weiss et al., 1967) resulting in an intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction score for each subject.

To answer research questions one and two involving male and female subjects, a t test was used. For question three involving subjects by sex and status, a two-way analysis of variance with disproportionate cell frequency using an unadjusted main effect solution was used. Such analysis was used to determine statistically different mean scores between the groups. Similar analysis was also done on demographic data to see if there were any statistically significant differences among the groups.

Field Study

The interview questionnaire and technique were field tested in Grand Forks, North Dakota, during July, 1976. The sample used for field testing consisted of three professional caregivers and two University of North Dakota students minoring in early childhood education. As a result of the field study, changes were made in the questions to increase clarity and in the investigator's interview techniques to assure smoothness of questioning.

Summary

The stated purpose of this study was to identify and compare attitudes toward work as indicated by the responses of a sample of professional and preprofessional, male and female caregivers with the hope of gaining increased understanding of the preschool as a prospective work place for males. In accordance with this purpose, the following research questions were developed.

1. Do male and female professional caregiver subjects differ in their
 - a. reasons for becoming caregivers?
 - b. reasons for satisfactions with the job of caregiving?

- c. reasons for dissatisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - f. reasons for staying on the job?
2. Do male and female preprofessional caregiver subjects differ in their
- a. reasons for wanting to become caregivers?
 - b. reasons for anticipated satisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for anticipated dissatisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall expected intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall expected extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
3. Do subjects differ by sex or status as professional or preprofessional caregivers in their
- a. reasons for becoming or wanting to become caregivers?
 - b. reasons for satisfactions or anticipated satisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - c. reasons for dissatisfactions or anticipated dissatisfactions with the job of caregiving?
 - d. overall intrinsic or expected intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
 - e. overall extrinsic or expected extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving?

Data was gathered as to attitudes toward the preschool as a work place from a four celled sample of male and female, professional and preprofessional caregivers, through use of an open ended interview questionnaire and the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. Results were analyzed for significance of differences between the cells through use of analysis of variance.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This study was a comparison of attitudes toward work of a sample of professional and preprofessional, male and female caregivers in a pre-school setting. A sample of forty (40) professionals and thirty (30) preprofessionals containing equal numbers of males and females was used. The attitudes compared were those relating to reasons for: career selection, job satisfaction, job dissatisfaction, general intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving and reasons for job longevity on the part of the professional sample. Attitudes were identified by an interview technique called the Preschool Caregiver Interview Questionnaire (PCIQ) and a paper and pencil questionnaire, the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). Interview responses were classified as either intrinsic or extrinsic and scores computed for the percentage of intrinsic statements used by subjects to answer the interview questions. The short-form MSQ was scored according to its manual instructions, the final score indicating satisfactions with various intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of a job. Analyses were made on demographic data, PCIQ scores and the short-form MSQ scores for the following categories:

1. Male and female professional caregivers,
2. Male and female preprofessional caregivers,

3. Male and female, professional and preprofessional caregivers.

Presentation of the data is categorized by the three headings above.

Male and Female Professional Caregivers

A one way analysis of variance was used with demographic data and score data to determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the male and female professional caregiver sample. With regard to demographic data, no such differences were found (see Table 6).

TABLE 6

ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHIC DIFFERENCES OF MALE AND FEMALE
PROFESSIONAL CAREGIVERS

Source of Variance	Mean and/or Proportion for Males	Mean and/or Proportion for Females	t	Level of Significance
Subjects identified as teachers	0.40	0.45	-0.312	NS
Subjects identified as assistant teachers	0.45	0.40	0.312	NS
Subjects identified as teacher/directors	0.15	0.15	-0.000	NS
Subjects' area of residence	0.85	0.80	1.251	NS
Subjects' year of birth	49.55	49.15	0.283	NS
Married subjects	0.05	0.25	-1.798	NS
Single subjects	0.70	0.65	0.329	NS
Divorced subjects	0.25	0.10	1.241	NS
Number of offspring	0.10	0.75	-1.477	NS
Subjects' years of experience	2.09	2.94	-1.784	NS
Subjects who had training	0.15	0.15	-0.000	NS
Income level of families served	2.00	1.75	1.157	NS
Funding source for day care center	0.75	0.75	0.000	NS

The male and female subjects did not differ significantly in terms of job title, area of residence, age, marital status, number of offspring, years of experience, training, income level of families served or funding source for the work place.

Research question 1a read: Do male and female professional caregiver subjects differ in their reasons for becoming caregivers? While 57% of the statements used to answer the questions regarding career selection by female subjects were intrinsic statements and 65% of the statements used by male subjects were intrinsic, the difference was not found to be statistically significant (see Table 7). The answer to question 1a, therefore, is no.

TABLE 7

AN ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES OF MALE AND FEMALE PROFESSIONAL
CAREGIVER SUBJECTS

Research Question	Mean and/or Proportion for Males	Mean and/or Proportion for Females	t	Level of Significance
1a	0.65	0.57	1.418	NS
1b	0.60	0.47	1.978	NS
1c	0.21	0.29	-1.548	NS
1d	4.10	4.17	-0.483	NS
1e	3.07	3.23	-0.608	NS
1f	0.84	0.59	2.271	.05

Research question 1b read: Do male and female professional caregiver subjects differ in their reasons for satisfaction with the job of caregiving? Intrinsic statements used to answer the questions regarding job satisfaction by female subjects accounted for 47% of the responses while male subjects used such statements 60% of the time. A one-way

analysis of variance revealed this difference not to be significant (see Table 7). The answer to question 1b, therefore, is no.

Research question 1c read: Do male and female professional caregiver subjects differ in their reasons for dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving? Twenty-nine per cent of the statements used by female subjects to answer the questions regarding job dissatisfaction were intrinsic and 21% of the statements used by male subjects were intrinsic, a difference, once again, found not to be significant (see Table 7). The answer to question 1c, therefore, is no.

Research question 1d read: Do male and female professional caregiver subjects differ in their overall intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving? No significant difference was found between the mean scores of female subjects (4.17) and male subjects (4.10) as to intrinsic satisfaction on the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (see Table 7). The answer to question 1d, therefore, is no.

Research question 1e read: Do male and female professional caregiver subjects differ in their overall extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving? The female subjects' mean score of 3.23 and the male subjects' mean score of 3.07 as to extrinsic satisfaction on the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire were not found to be significantly different (see Table 7). The answer to question 1e, therefore, is no.

Research question 1f read: Do male and female professional caregiver subjects differ in their reasons for staying on the job? The mean percentage of intrinsic statements used to answer the

question regarding job longevity was 59 for females and 84 for males. This difference in percentages was found to be significantly different at the .05 level (see Table 7). The difference found in this analysis reflects a difference in types of answers given by male and female professional subjects to questions eliciting reasons for the job longevity of the subject with male subjects using more intrinsic statements than female subjects.

Intrinsic statements used in answering the question regarding reasons for staying on the job varied but included statements that ranged from emphasizing a like for young children and the opportunity to influence their growth to personal growth resulting from interacting with young children. The extrinsic statements also varied but included statements emphasizing the convenience of the job, such as flexible hours and a nearby location, and the friendly, relaxed atmosphere of the preschool setting.

Male and Female Preprofessional Caregivers

A one-way analysis of variance was used with demographic data and score data gathered from the preprofessional subjects to determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the male and female subjects. With regard to demographic data, no such differences were found (see Table 8). The male and female subjects did not differ significantly in terms of area of residence, age, marital status, number of offspring and portion of training program completed.

Research question 2a read: Do male and female preprofessional caregiver subjects differ in their reasons for wanting to become caregivers? Seventy-six per cent of the responses made by the female

TABLE 8

ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHIC DIFFERENCES OF MALE AND FEMALE
PREPROFESSIONAL CAREGIVERS

Source of Variance	Mean and/or Proportion for Males	Mean and/or Proportion for Females	t	Level of Significance
Subjects' area residence	0.60	0.53	0.357	NS
Subjects' year of birth	51.99	50.87	0.353	NS
Married subjects	0.13	0.13	-0.000	NS
Single subjects	0.87	0.87	0.000	NS
Number of offspring	0.00	0.47	-1.333	NS
Portion of training program completed	0.55	0.62	-0.962	NS

subjects and 71% of the responses made by the male subjects were classified as intrinsic when referring to reasons for wanting to become caregivers. This difference was not found to be significant (see Table 9). The answer to question 2a, therefore, is no.

Research question 2b read: Do male and female preprofessional caregiver subjects differ in their reasons for anticipated satisfactions with the job of caregiving? Intrinsic statements accounted for 55% of the responses made by female subjects and 67% of the responses made by male subjects when discussing ways they would be satisfied with the job of caregiving. This difference was not found to be significant at the .05 level (see Table 9). The answer to question 2b, therefore, is no.

Research question 2c read: Do male and female preprofessional caregiver subjects differ in their reasons for anticipated

TABLE 9

AN ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES OF MALE AND FEMALE PREPROFESSIONAL
CAREGIVER SUBJECTS

Research Question	Mean and/or Proportion for Males	Mean and/or Proportion for Females	t	Level of Significance
2a	0.71	0.76	-0.882	NS
2b	0.67	0.55	1.899	NS
2c	0.37	0.34	0.363	NS
2d	4.09	4.36	-1.676	NS
2e	3.33	3.61	-1.562	NS

dissatisfactions with the job of caregiving? While female subjects used intrinsic statements 34% of the time when discussing possible job dissatisfaction, male subjects used such statements 37% of the time. The difference between the male and female responses was not found to be significant (see Table 9). The answer to question 2c, therefore, is no.

Research question 2d read: Do male and female preprofessional caregiver subjects differ in their anticipated overall intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving? Female subjects had a mean score of 4.36 on the intrinsic scale of the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire while male subjects had a mean score of 4.09. This difference was not found to be significant (see Table 9). The answer to 2d, therefore, is no.

Research question 2e read: Do male and female preprofessional caregiver subjects differ in their anticipated overall extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving? Once again, no significant difference was found (see Table 9) between the female subjects' mean score of

3.61 and the male subjects' mean score of 3.33 on the extrinsic scale of the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. The answer to question 2e, therefore, is no.

Male and Female, Professional and Preprofessional Caregivers

A two-way analysis of variance with disproportionate cell frequency using an unadjusted main effect solution was used with demographic data and score data to determine if there was any statistically significant differences attributable to subjects' sex or status as professional or preprofessional caregivers. With regard to demographic data, two significant differences were found at the .05 level. A significantly higher percentage of professionals (82) were from the Chicago metropolitan area than preprofessionals (57) (see Table 10). A three way chi-square analysis revealed a significant difference in marital status between the professional and preprofessional groups (see Table 12) with the professional group having a higher percentage of divorced subjects (17) than the preprofessional group (0). When the sample

TABLE 10

AN ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR LOCATION OF RESIDENCE BASED ON
SEX OR STATUS

Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	F	Level of Significance
Sex	1	0.06	0.06	0.288	NS
Status	1	1.14	1.14	5.771	.05
Interaction	1	0.00	0.00	0.000	NS
Within	66	13.08	0.20		

TABLE 11

AN ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR AGE BASED ON SEX OR STATUS

Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	F	Level of Significance
Sex	1	8.98	8.93	0.201	NS
Status	1	74.40	74.40	1.678	NS
Interaction	1	2.30	2.30	0.052	NS
Within	66	85.64	44.35		

TABLE 12

THREE WAY CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS FOR MARITAL STATUS BASED ON SEX AND POSITION STATUS

Source of Variance	df	Chi-Square	Level of Significance
Sex and Marital Status	2	2.905	NS
Position Status and Marital Status	2	6.115	.05
Sex and Position Status	1	0.000	NS
Sex, Marital Status and Position Status	2	2.178	NS
Total	7	11.198	

population was divided by sex, there were no significant differences due to location of residence, age, marital status or number of offspring. Based on status as professional caregiver or preprofessional caregiver, the subjects were not found to be significantly different with regard to age and number of offspring (Table 13).

Research question 3a read: Do subjects differ by sex or status as professional or preprofessional caregivers in reasons for becoming or wanting to become caregivers? Looking at Table 14 one finds that preprofessional subjects included significantly more intrinsic

TABLE 13

AN ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR NUMBER OF OFFSPRING BASED ON SEX OR STATUS

Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	F	Level of Significance
Sex	1	5.71	5.71	3.799	NS
Status	1	0.63	0.63	0.419	NS
Interaction	1	0.14	0.14	0.096	NS
Within	66	6.49	1.50		

TABLE 14

AN ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS REGARDING CAREER SELECTION BASED ON SEX OR STATUS

Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	F	Level of Significance
Sex	1	0.01	0.01	0.325	NS
Status	1	0.24	0.24	9.699	.01
Interaction	1	0.06	0.06	2.542	NS
Within	66	1.68	0.03		

statements (73%) when referring to their reasons for wanting to become caregivers than did the professional subjects (61%). The difference found in this analysis reflects a difference in types of answers given by professional and preprofessional subjects to questions eliciting reasons for becoming or wanting to become caregivers with preprofessional subjects using more intrinsic statements than professional subjects.

In referring to why one would want to become a caregiver, the intrinsic statements included reference to a love of children and a

desire to help children grow, among other attitudes. Extrinsic statements varied widely but included references to outside forces, such as friends or circumstances, as reasons for becoming a caregiver.

Research question 3b read: Do subjects differ by sex or status as professional or preprofessional caregivers in their reasons for satisfaction or anticipated satisfaction with the job of caregiving? Looking at Table 15, one finds that the responses of the male subjects differed significantly from the responses of the female subjects. Sixty-two percent of the statements made by male subjects were intrinsic when referring to reasons for job satisfaction while only 50% of the female subjects responses were so categorized. No such difference was found between professional subjects and preprofessional subjects. The difference found in this analysis reflects a difference in types of answers given by male and female subjects to questions eliciting reasons for satisfaction with the job of caregiving with male subjects using more intrinsic statements than female subjects.

TABLE 15

AN ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS REGARDING JOB SATISFACTION BASED ON SEX OR STATUS

Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	t	Level of Significance
Sex	1	0.31	0.31	7.371	.01
Status	1	0.10	0.10	2.362	NS
Interaction	1	0.00	0.00	0.085	NS
Within	66	2.78	0.04		

Intrinsic statements used in referring to job satisfaction included responses that reflected a stress on the things a caregiver can do on the job, such as helping children grow and being able to plan a day as one wants. Extrinsic statements sometimes involved references to what the children can do, such as behaving themselves and learning.

Research question 3c read: Do subjects differ by sex or status as professional or preprofessional caregivers in their reasons for dissatisfaction or anticipated dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving? A look at Table 16 reveals that responses of professional and preprofessional subjects differed significantly in the percentage of intrinsic

TABLE 16

AN ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS REGARDING
JOB DISSATISFACTION BASED ON SEX OR STATUS

Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	t	Level of Significance
Sex	1	0.02	0.02	0.616	NS
Status	1	0.20	0.20	6.218	.05
Interaction	1	0.05	0.05	1.488	NS
Within	66	2.13	0.03		

statements used in discussing job dissatisfaction. Preprofessional subjects used such statements 36% of the time while professional subjects used such statements 25% of the time. No such difference was found between male and female responses. The difference found in this analysis reflects a difference in types of answers given by professional and preprofessional subjects to questions eliciting reasons for dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving with preprofessionals using more intrinsic statements than professionals.

The intrinsic statements used by the sample in referring to dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving included, among other statements, statements referring to the respondent's inability to handle problem situations in the work setting. An example of extrinsic statements would be statements that included reference to the lack of appreciation of society for the work of caregiving.

Research question 3d read: Do subjects differ by sex or status as professional or preprofessional caregivers in their overall intrinsic or anticipated intrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving? Analysis of the data showed no significant differences between groups when combined by sex or status. The answer to question 3d is, therefore, no.

TABLE 17

AN ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SCORES ON THE INTRINSIC SCALE OF
THE SHORT-FORM MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE
BASED ON SEX OR STATUS

Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	t	Level of Significance
Sex	1	0.41	0.41	2.135	NS
Status	1	0.14	0.14	0.734	NS
Interaction	1	0.17	0.17	0.900	NS
Within	66	12.57	0.19		

Research question 3e read: Do subjects differ by sex or status as professional or preprofessional caregivers in their overall extrinsic or anticipated extrinsic satisfaction with the job of caregiving? Examination of Table 18 reveals no significant difference between

males and females of professionals and preprofessionals. The answer to question 3e is, therefore, no.

TABLE 18

AN ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SCORES ON THE EXTRINSIC SCALE OF
THE SHORT-FORM MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE
BASED ON SEX OR STATUS

Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	t	Level of Significance
Sex	1	0.77	0.77	1.565	NS
Status	1	1.73	1.73	3.529	NS
Interaction	1	0.06	0.06	0.125	NS
Within	1	32.41	0.49		

Summary

Analyses of data collected in this study indicated few differences in the responses of male and female, professional and preprofessional caregiver samples. While no significant demographic differences were found between male and female subjects in this study, differences were found between the sample of professionals and preprofessionals. A significantly higher percentage of professional respondents resided in the Chicago metropolitan area than did preprofessionals. Marital status was also found to be different between the professional and preprofessional groups with a significantly higher percentage of professionals having been divorced.

The findings of this study indicated that the responses of male and female subjects differed in only two areas out of sixteen (16). With regard to reasons for staying on the job, male professionals used significantly more intrinsic statements, some of which emphasized a

like for children and a sense of personal growth due to the job, than did the female professional sample. When referring to job satisfaction, male subjects were found to use significantly more intrinsic statements which sometimes indicated a satisfaction with the things a caregiver can do on the job, such as helping children grow and being able to plan a day as one wants. Female subjects did not use as high a percentage of intrinsic statements.

The responses of professional and preprofessional subjects differed in two of five areas. In discussing reasons for becoming caregivers the preprofessional sample used significantly more intrinsic statements than the professional sample. The intrinsic statements included references to, among other attitudes, a love of children and a desire to help children grow. Preprofessionals used significantly more intrinsic statements in referring to job dissatisfaction. An example of the intrinsic statements used by the preprofessionals was statements which reflected an uneasiness about the respondent's ability to handle problem situations in the work setting. Professional subjects did not use intrinsic statements as often.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Study

This study was designed to determine if differences exist between a sample of male and female, professional and preprofessional caregivers in their attitudes toward the job of caregiving. Caregiving was defined as work involving the education and care of preschool aged children in group settings. Subjects consisted of equal numbers of male and female professional caregivers and equal numbers of male and female preprofessional caregivers from either the Chicago metropolitan area or the Red River Valley of the North area.

Attitudes of subjects were identified by two research instruments. The Preschool Caregiver Interview Questionnaire (PCIQ) was the investigator's adaptation of the Lortie (1975) Five Town Interview Outline and requested reasons for the respondent's career selection, satisfaction with the job of caregiving, dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving and job longevity. The short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), a paper and pencil questionnaire developed by the Work Adjustment Project at the University of Minnesota, was also used. It provided an intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction score for each respondent. Answers to the PCIQ questions were categorized as either intrinsic or extrinsic through content analysis. The percentage of intrinsic statements used was then determined for each subject.

Short-form MSQ data were scored according to manual instructions, resulting in an intrinsic satisfaction and an extrinsic satisfaction score for each subject of the study.

Summary of the Findings

Analyses of data collected for this study indicated two areas of difference between the responses of the males and females sampled. Male professional caregivers were found to use significantly more intrinsic statements than the female professional caregiver sample when referring to reasons for staying on the job. Intrinsic statements were those statements which referred to the respondent or something the respondent did and were exemplified by references to a liking for children and the opportunity to influence their growth. Another example of an intrinsic statement used by the sample of professional caregivers, was a statement referring to a feeling of personal growth resulting from interactions with young children.

The total sample of males differed from the total sample of females in reasons for satisfaction with the job of caregiving. The male sample used significantly more intrinsic statements than the female sample and those statements included references to the things a caregiver can do on the job, such as helping children grow and being able to plan a day as one wants, as reasons for job satisfaction. Besides the two areas of difference mentioned above, no other significant differences were found between the responses of the male and female subjects used in this study.

In comparing the population of professional subjects with the population of preprofessional subjects, four areas of difference were

found. Two of the four differences were based on demographic data. A significantly higher percentage of the professional population resided in the Chicago metropolitan area and a significantly higher percentage of the professionals were divorced. The professional caregivers were also found to differ from the preprofessional caregivers in reasons for wanting to become caregivers. The preprofessionals used significantly more intrinsic statements than the professionals and included references to a love of children and a desire to help children grow as reasons for wanting to become caregivers. Reasons for dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving also resulted in a significant difference. The preprofessional sample used significantly more intrinsic statements in referring to possible job dissatisfaction than did the professional group. The intrinsic statements included statements reflecting concern over the inability of the respondent to handle problem situations on the job as reasons for dissatisfaction as a caregiver.

Conclusions

Conclusions drawn from this research must take into consideration the limitations of the study. Factors that must be considered are the size of the sample and its selection. Forty professional caregivers, selected through non-random means, cannot be considered as representing the population of people working with preschool children in group settings, nor can thirty preprofessional caregivers be presumed to be indicative of early childhood students. With these considerations in mind, however, certain conclusions can be drawn from

this sample of male and female, professional and preprofessional caregivers.

Analyses of data collected for this research indicated no difference in the responses of the male and female preprofessional caregiver groups. Even though the preprofessional sample attended various training programs in two very different parts of the country, one very urban and one very rural, the responses were not found to be significantly different. Two possible reasons for the lack of difference may be postulated. Since the males and females in the preprofessional sample seemed to be well matched on factors of area of residence, age, marital status, number of offspring and portion of the training program completed, one might consider this lack of difference in background as a contributing factor to the lack of difference in responses. Another variable effecting the preprofessional group that might also have effected the outcome is the fact that the preprofessionals were all currently enrolled in a college early childhood program. Many of the responses used by the preprofessional sample could be labeled "textbookish" and might reflect a similarity of philosophy of early childhood education as espoused by the various colleges attended.

Responses of male and female subjects in the professional group differed in only one area, reasons for staying on the job. Again, the similarities in such areas as job title, area of residence, age, marital status, number of offspring, years of experience, training, income level of families served and funding source for the work place, may have accounted for a lack of difference on five of the six variables. One might conclude that a group as homogenous as this sample of professionals

would not be likely to differ to any great extent when sex is the only distinguishing variable for the two groups.

When the professional and preprofessional samples of each sex were combined, an additional difference was found. The sample of males used significantly more intrinsic statements than females in referring to satisfaction with the job of caregiving. This difference was the only one found in an analysis of five variables. Once again, the responses of the total population subdivided by sex was found not to differ significantly on any demographic variables.

This study revealed only two areas out of sixteen in which significant differences were found between the responses of male and female subjects. One might conclude, therefore, that males and females engaged in or preparing to engage in caregiving, do not differ in many of their attitudes toward the job of caregiving. Males were found, however, to differ from females in terms of satisfaction with the job of caregiving and reasons for continuing on the job. One might assume that the two areas of difference are related since satisfaction would be a factor in one's decision to continue with a particular line of work. These differences may indicate that men do differ from women in what one receives from working with preschool children. Since the responses of the male subjects tended to include more intrinsic statements, and intrinsic statements were defined as statements referring to the respondent or something the respondent does, it may be that the male sample's positive attitudes toward the job of caregiving resulted more from personal accomplishments and activities than did the female sample.

The professional and preprofessional samples were found to differ on two out of five variables, reasons for wanting to become caregivers and reasons for dissatisfaction with the job of caregiving. This increase in differences may have been influenced in two ways. Unlike the male and female subgroups, professionals and preprofessionals did differ on two demographic variables, area of residence and marital status. Area of residence seems significant to this investigator because the two locations used were so different. The fact that significantly more of the professional population was from the Chicago area might tend to influence the subjects' perspective. The larger percentage of divorced professionals does not seem to be relevant. Another contributing factor might have been the two positions: professional and preprofessional. A professional, in the field, can be expected to have quite a different outlook on caregiving than the inexperienced student on the college campus.

The major finding of this study is that within this sample, the males and females did not differ significantly in most of their attitudes toward the job of caregiving. Men, more than women, however, did find personal accomplishments and activities as attractive aspects of working in preschools.

The lack of difference in most of the job attitudes surveyed of the males and females corresponds with findings of other researchers who have studied male and female teachers of elementary school children. This study, then, provides additional data indicating little attitudinal or behavioral difference between males and females who choose to be involved in the education or care of young children.

Recommendations

Further research suggested by the results of this study include the following:

1. While significant differences were found between male and female subjects in terms of job satisfaction and job longevity, a replication of this study using a larger sample, one that is randomly selected and covering a larger geographical area, may provide more information about the attitudes of male and female caregivers toward their job. The researcher might also investigate attitudes male and female caregivers have toward each other.
2. Since differences were found among male and female subjects in terms of job satisfaction and job longevity, a study investigating the two areas of difference using an instrument that can more precisely identify differences than was possible with the PCIQ, may reveal more information about how males and females differ on satisfaction with the job of caregiving and reasons for staying on the job.
3. Another study of professional and preprofessional caregivers where an urban and rural location of residence is not different, may result in more accurate information about the difference in attitudes between the two groups.

APPENDIX A

PRESCHOOL CAREGIVER INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

(PROFESSIONAL AND PREPROFESSIONAL)

PROFESSIONAL

PRESCHOOL CAREGIVER INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE*

DEFINITION OF TERMS:

Caregiver: one who is paid to work with preschool children in a group setting for a major portion of the work day.

Preschool: pre-kindergarten

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. In what year were you born?
2. What is your marital status (single, married, divorced, widowed)?
3. Do you have any children? If so, how many?
4. How long have you been employed as a professional caregiver? That is how long have you been paid to work directly with children for the major portion of each day?
5. What kind of training did you have before you started this type of job?
6. Would you describe your position here please? By that I mean your title and the types of children you work with.

CAREER SELECTION

7. When did you make the definite decision to become a caregiver? What were the circumstances at that time?
8. What were the major attractions that caregiving held for you at the point where you decided to enter it or start training for it?
9. At the time you decided to enter the caregiving profession what qualities did you feel you had that would fit well with caregiving as a line of work for you?
10. In what ways is caregiving different from what you expected when you made the decision to go into the field? How is it better than what you expected? How is it worse than what you expected?

JOB SATISFACTION

11. Every so often, caregivers tell me, they have a really good day. Tell me what a good day is like for you? What happens?

12. What do you think attracts and holds people in the caregiving profession?
13. What are the really important satisfactions which you receive in your work as a caregiver? Of those you have mentioned, which do you feel is the most important satisfaction?
14. In the course of your work, what do you find to be the "fun" things for you?

JOB DISSATISFACTIONS

15. Can you think of any changes--of any kind--which might increase your satisfaction with the job of caregiving?
16. What are the things which you like least about caregiving? What are the things which bother you the most in your work?
17. What do you think you lose by being a caregiver rather than having some other job? Be as specific as you can.
18. What, to you, are the little things that irritate you in your work?

JOB LONGEVITY

19. If I recall correctly, at the beginning of the interview you said that you have been a professional caregiver for _____. Can you tell me why you have stayed that long with this line of work?

*An adaptation of the "Five Town Interview Outline" developed by Dan Lortie, Professor of Education, University of Chicago.

PRE PROFESSIONAL

PRESCHOOL CAREGIVER INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE*DEFINITION OF TERMS:

Caregiver: one who is paid to work with preschool children in a group setting for a major portion of the work day.

Preschool: pre-kindergarten

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. In what year were you born?
2. What is your marital status (single, married, divorced, widowed)?
3. Do you have any children? If so, how many?
4. At what point are you in terms of completing this training program?

CAREER SELECTION

5. When did you make the definite decision to become a caregiver? What were the circumstances at the time?
6. What were the major attractions that caregiving held for you at the point where you decided to start training for it?
7. At the time you decided to enter the caregiving profession, what qualities did you feel would fit well with caregiving as a line of work for you?

JOB SATISFACTION

8. Every so often, caregivers tell me, they have a really good day. Tell me what you think a good day would be like for you? What would happen?
9. What do you think attracts and holds people in the caregiving profession?
10. What do you think will be the really important satisfactions which you will receive in your work as a caregiver? Of those you have mentioned, which do you feel will be the most important satisfaction.
11. In the course of your prospective work, what do you think you will find to be the "fun" things for you?

JOB DISSATISFACTION

12. From what you know about the caregiving profession, what changes-
of any kind-might increase your satisfaction with the job of
caregiving?
13. What are the things which you think you will like least about
caregiving? What are the things which you think will bother
you most in your work?
14. What do you think you will lose by being a caregiver rather than
having some other job? Be as specific as you can.
15. What, to you, will be the little things that will irritate you
in your work?

*An adaptation of the "Five Town Interview Outline" developed by Dan
Lortie, Professor of Education, University of Chicago.

APPENDIX B

MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE
(SHORT-FORM)

minnesota satisfaction questionnaire

(short-form)



Vocational Psychology Research
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

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minnesota satisfaction questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you a chance to tell **how you feel about your present job**, what things you are **satisfied** with and what things you are **not satisfied** with.

On the basis of your answers and those of people like you, we hope to get a better understanding of the things people **like and dislike about their jobs**.

On the next page you will find statements about your **present job**.

- Read each statement carefully.
- Decide **how satisfied you feel about the aspect of your job** described by the statement.

Keeping the statement in mind:

- if you feel that your job gives you **more than you expected**, check the box under **"Very Sat."** (Very Satisfied);
- if you feel that your job gives you **what you expected**, check the box under **"Sat."** (Satisfied);
- if you **cannot make up your mind** whether or not the job gives you what you expected, check the box under **"N"** (Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied);
- if you feel that your job gives you **less than you expected**, check the box under **"Dissat."** (Dissatisfied);
- if you feel that your job gives you **much less than you expected**, check the box under **"Very Dissat."** (Very Dissatisfied).

- Remember: Keep the statement in mind when deciding **how satisfied you feel about that aspect of your job**.
- Do this for **all** statements. Please answer **every** item.

Be frank and honest. Give a true picture of your feelings about your **present job**.

Sat. means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

N means I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job.

Dissat. means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

Very Dissat. means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about . . .	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	N	Sat.	Very Sat.
1. Being able to keep busy all the time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The chance to work alone on the job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. The chance to do different things from time to time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. The way my boss handles his men	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. The way my job provides for steady employment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. The chance to do things for other people	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. The chance to tell people what to do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The way company policies are put into practice	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. My pay and the amount of work I do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. The chances for advancement on this job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. The freedom to use my own judgment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. The working conditions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. The praise I get for doing a good job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	N	Sat.	Very Sat.

Name _____ Today's Date _____ 19____
Please Print

1. Check one: Male Female

2. When were you born? _____ 19____

3. Circle the number of years of schooling you completed:

4 5 6 7 8
Grade School

9 10 11 12
High School

13 14 15 16
College

17 18 19 20
Graduate or
Professional School

4. What is your present job called? _____

5. What do you do on your present job? _____

6. How long have you been on your present job? _____ years _____ months

7. What would you call your **occupation**, your usual line of work? _____

8. How long have you been in this line of work? _____ years _____ months

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