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Gender Differences Among College Students With Respect to Work-Parenting Balance

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Gender Differences Among College Students With Respect to Work-Parenting Balance

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Abstract

Do gender differences exist among Trinity students with respect to career and parenting expectations? Do gender differences also exist with respect to hostile versus benevolent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996)? Is sexism associated with career and parenting expectations for oneself? From these questions, I hypothesized that women would be more likely to hold career and parenting expectations that are mutually dependent; men would be more likely to hold career expectations that are independent of parenting expectations. More sexist women would hold more dependent expectations; more sexist men would hold more independent expectations. An online survey was fielded to a stratified random sample of 200 Trinity women and 400 Trinity men. This survey included the Life Role Salience Scales (Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986) and the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996). In a Trinity College sample of 40 women and 35 men, men scored significantly higher than women with respect to occupational role commitment, but women scored marginally significantly higher on parental role commitments; there was no gender difference in marital role commitments. Trinity men scored higher than women in hostile sexism, but there was no gender difference in benevolent sexism. Results also showed that for women overall (those who demonstrated both high and low hostile sexism), occupational and parental role commitments were negatively correlated. Additionally, occupational and marital role commitments were negatively correlated for women. For men who were high in hostile sexism, these roles were also negatively correlated – but for men low in hostile sexism, these roles were positively correlated with one another. The findings suggest that Trinity women believe families and careers require a trade-off, while Trinity men are split: more

sexist men hold beliefs similar to women's, while less sexist men believe the role commitments are compatible.

In recent years, many college seniors have feared one thing after graduation – the prospect of getting a job and establishing a successful career after their undergraduate years. The United States and many other parts of the world have fallen on hard times. Small steps of recovery have been made, but there is still much to be done. Women's participation in the work force is undergoing an interesting period. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2011), women's labor force participation steadily increased from 1970 until about 1987 – then, a period of fluctuations occurred. There can be many reasons as to why this has occurred – multiple recessions, more opportunities for men - the list can go on.

One important reason as to why women have been dropping out of the labor force may have to do with the fact that women have been seen as natural caregivers. This means that if they wanted to start a family after they have started a career, they are the ones who usually take care of the children. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics' report *Employment Characteristics of Families – 2012*, 43.1 percent of families had children who were under the age of 18. Of these families, the mother of the children was employed in 67.1 percent of the families, which is a great statistic considering the fact that it means the majority of women with children under the age of 18 are employed. However, men were employed in 81.6 percent of the families. This statistic indicates that there is still a gap that needs to be filled. In addition, the labor force participation rate specifically for mothers was 70.5 percent. The participation of mothers in the work force with a spouse present was lower than the participation of mothers of other marital statuses (which include never married, divorced, widowed, etc.). Mothers with younger children were less likely to participate in the labor force than mothers who had older

children. Mothers who had children under the ages of 6 had lower participation rates than mothers whose children were between the ages of 6 and 17 (64.8 percent versus 75.1 percent).

It is also important to note that while these statistics sound like women have been making huge strides in the work force, one must look at what the BLS defines as the labor force participation rate – "the percent of the population working *or looking for work (p.1)*." While many women who are looking for work may be employed, some may be unemployed. Additionally, the definition of employment varies – "employed persons are all those who, during the survey reference week, (a) did any work at all as paid employees; (b) worked in their own business, profession, or on their own farm; (c) worked 15 hours or more as unpaid workers in a family member's operated business. (p. 1)" A mother may work at home while with her children and still be deemed employed. These women have an advantage; what about the women who cannot stay at home? The main idea to take away from the Bureau of Labor Statistics data is that men and women make different and difficult decisions regarding careers and parenting.

Major and Career Expectations

For many students, choice of major is very relevant to the field that they wish to go in to. If students want to go into finance, they may pick economics as a major. A major does not set one's career path in stone, but it definitely can help. Malgwi, Howe and Burnaby (2005) conducted a study looking at gender differences in choice of a business major. In this study, the researchers found that men and women are alike in some ways when it comes to a major, but different in others. For both genders, interest in the subject mattered the most. Additionally, if students decided to change their major

midway through their undergraduate career, both genders would focus on the positive factors of the new major rather than the negative factors of the old major (Malgwi et al., 2005). These results show that women and men have become more alike in their thinking in regards to choosing a college major, and quite possibly, their careers (Malgwi et al., 2005). However, the researchers did find a significant difference when it came to the second most important factor for women and men. For women, the second most important factor in choosing a major was aptitude in that subject (Malgwi et al., 2005). For men, the second most important factor was compensation and potential for career advancement (Malgwi et al., 2005). The results show that for men, the ramifications of choosing a major that leads to a career in business are more important than just doing well in a subject. Advancing in a career and making more money are more important. This has negative implications about this group of men and career expectations - negative in the sense that they are seen as ambitious people who care about getting a lucrative job that will benefit them for the rest of their lives. The fact that the women in this study care about getting good grades in their subject of choice is also interesting to look into. It would seem that they think getting good grades is the key to success. However, the men possess the drive to do better in their careers – and ultimately, they obtain better positions in business companies (Malgwi et al., 2005).

Past research has indicated that women tend to focus on their careers in their twenties (Hoffnung, 2004). However, life after that may get complicated. Referring back to the BLS data, many women may feel the need to drop out of the work force after starting a family of their own. Malgwi et al. (2005) and Hoffnung's (2004) research have

explored college women and men's thoughts about career and family balance and expectations.

"Having it All": Women's and Men's Expectations in Regards to Work-Family Balance

Baber and Monaghan (1988) conducted a study that solely focused on women's career, marriage, and family expectations. Two hundred and fifty unmarried females at a New England university completed the Career and Family Questionnaire, which contained questions about marriage and childbearing expectations, career expectations, and attitudes about work and family roles (Baber & Monaghan, 1988). Only 1.2 percent of the women in the study planned on remaining single, and about 2.4 percent of women planned on being childless throughout their careers (Baber & Monaghan, 1988). These tended to be the women who wanted to go into fields in which their gender was under-represented, like engineering, which was pioneering for women at the time (Baber & Monaghan, 1988). Most women wanted to have a career, and they planned on fulfilling the desire to "have it all" by delaying childbirth – the average age women in this study indicated that they wanted to have children was 27.7 years, which was about five years later than the mean age of their own mother's first birth (Baber & Monaghan, 1988). After childbirth, only 30 percent of the participants indicated that they would continue to work full time (Baber & Monaghan, 1988). Reducing their role in the workforce indicates that after working for a while, the most important role in their lives would be to take care of their children. To deal with this issue, women in this study stated that they would marry a partner who would be willing to share the work family balance with them. Women and men are increasingly entering egalitarian marriages, but the values these men

express are not truly being expressed in their day-to-day lives (Baber & Dreyer, 1986, as cited by Baber & Monaghan, 1988). In essence, being married, having a career and a family is a complicated process, which was expressed in the results of this study. The women in this study seemed hopeful about the future. However, this study was conducted in the eighties. Do women still feel this optimistic about their future work-family balance? Do they even feel the need to have a balance, or do they just want to focus on their careers?

Thorn and Gilbert (1998) completed a study that focused on college male perspectives of work and family balance. Several surveys were administered to male juniors and seniors at a southwestern university. The type of family that males came from was the biggest predictor of whether or not the male would decide to share household work with their future spouses (Thorn & Gilbert, 1998). The main finding was that modeling is key; when fathers step outside the traditional gender role norm by doing some of the housework, it is associated with role sharing expectations for their sons (Thorn & Gilbert, 1998). In other words, the sons emulate what they have seen their fathers do. However, Thorn and Gilbert note that a causal connection cannot be inferred from this data. Although some of the men in this study have taken a more liberal approach to parenting, it is still important to note that family work still heavily lies on women (Thorn & Gilbert, 1998). As aforementioned, men often do not express their egalitarian beliefs in their daily lives, meaning that their beliefs about women and men sharing labor and other household duties do not translate in their actions (Baber & Dreyer, 1986, as cited by Baber & Monaghan, 1988). On the other hand, Thorn and Gilbert made an important discovery in their findings – there was a negative association

between the educational level attained by the fathers of the college men in the study and role sharing expectations. Most people would assume that the lower the educational status, the less likely a man would share household responsibilities with his spouse. Thorn and Gilbert found the opposite. It can be assumed that this is a result of demanding careers; perhaps the fathers in these families do not have enough time to spend at home with their children. Additionally, these fathers may employ help from outside of the home since they make more money (Thorn & Gilbert, 1998). It is safe to assume that the average college male wants to have a high-paying job. Therefore, is it safe to say that the demands of his job will keep him from sharing household work with his spouse? Will he use his career as an excuse? Or will he use his own father as an example?

It is also interesting to note a study conducted by Hoffnung (2004). Hoffnung completed a longitudinal study involving women from northeastern colleges from the years 1993 to 2000. In 1993, she interviewed senior women in college. Most of these women said they "wanted it all" – 86 percent planned to marry, 96 percent planned to have a career and 98 percent planned to have children (Hoffnung, 2004). In the year 2000, most of the women she interviewed were still single (Hoffnung, 2004). Hoffnung found that social class was related to motherhood – graduates of regional colleges were more likely to have children right after graduating, and less likely to have a high-paying job (Hoffnung, 2004). These women also admitted that they still believed women could have it all, but they were much more realistic about their expectations (e.g., they can work, but they receive lower pay than non-mothers) (Hoffnung, 2004).

Trade-Offs: Do Men and Women Differ?

The idea of trade-offs is another important issue to consider when dealing with work-parenting balance. DiBenedetto and Tittle (1990) explored job-family trade offs in a population of both male and female college students. Using a set of cards that contained scenarios on them, participants rated these scenarios from very preferable to least preferable. The results replicated findings from earlier studies that men continue to view their work and their family lives as independent of each other (DiBenedetto & Tittle, 1990). The women in this study also feel the same way. In addition, they see themselves as constantly having to accommodate trade-off demands. The men in the study also viewed their future spouses as having to experience trade-off conflicts, but neither men nor women in the sample viewed men as having to make the trade-offs (DiBenedetto & Tittle, 1990). When jobs and children were considered separately, both women and men felt that women did have to choose between their roles as caretaker or career woman. When these two factors were considered together, women and men felt that women had to make a choice (DiBenedetto & Tittle, 1990). This study portrays a slightly more negative picture of work and family balance. This population feels that women will always have to make a choice. However, this study was conducted 24 years ago. Presently, do both college men and college women feel that women have to choose between being a career woman and being a mother? What are the ramifications of thinking in this type of way?

Ambivalent Sexism – Does this Relate to Work and Parenting Balance?

Turning away from work and parenting trade offs, another interesting topic that came up in this research was ambivalent sexism. Many studies have focused on

ambivalent sexism, but it would be essential to look at the original study conducted by Glick and Fiske (1996). Ambivalent sexism consists of two components: hostile and benevolent. Hostile sexism is a set of interrelated attitudes that portray women in an entirely negative light (Glick & Fiske, 1996). An example of this would be "The world would be a better place if women supported men more and criticized them less" (Glick & Fiske, 1996, p. 512). Benevolent sexism is characterized as having a set of interrelated attitudes towards women that are sexist in terms of viewing women stereotypically but that are subjectively positive in feeling for the perceiver (Glick & Fiske, 1996). An example of this would be "Women are naturally better at being caregivers" (Glick & Fiske, 1996, p. 512). These two forms of sexism were the basis of the scale Glick and Fiske developed, entitled the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory.

Glick and Fiske decided to test their theory of sexism on a group of undergraduate students and a group of nonstudents. They found that across six studies, factor analysis confirmed the existence of both hostile and benevolent sexism among both sexes. Ambivalent Sexism Inventory scores were related to ambivalence towards women (Glick & Fiske, 1996). It is also interesting to note that for the nonstudent samples, benevolent sexism was looked at as a positive thing, while for undergraduate men and nonstudent female populations, benevolent sexism was looked at as a negative thing (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Additionally, the researchers found a positive correlation between the hostile and benevolent sexism scales, which supported their claim that these two forms of sexism are related to sexist ideology (Glick & Fiske, 1996). If these two types of sexism are related to sexist ideologies, will these ideologies predict future behaviors about work and family balance? Will a man who is rated as more "hostile" demand that his future spouse stay at

home? Will the "benevolent" man encourage his spouse to stay at home, or work? Have these attitudes changed since 1996?

Recent research has attempted to answer some of the questions that have been presented. Mosso, Briante, Aiello, and Russo (2013) conducted a study that focused on legitimizing social ideologies and ambivalent sexism in Italian and American high school and college students. The first study they conducted focused on Italian students, and how the rationalization of inequalities is linked to ambivalent sexism (Mosso et al., 2013). The researchers gave various scales, including the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, to 544 Italian students who ranged in age from 14 to 20 years old. For their United States study, 293 high school and college students were given the same measures. The researchers decided to conduct research in the States as a comparison; they theorized that since equal opportunity policies have been in effect longer than in Italy, there would be a greater tendency to justify sexism among American participants (Mosso et al., 2013). The researchers found that in both countries, men had higher levels of hostile sexism than women. Italian women had higher levels of benevolent sexism – this finding is in line with Glick and Fiske's 1996 research that claimed that more sexist countries will have a reversal in benevolent sexism beliefs, meaning that more women endorse benevolent sexism than men (Mosso et al., 2013). In turn, this means that Italian women place emphasis on traditional gender roles. Correlations between hostile and benevolent sexism were smaller in Italy, which is also in line with Glick and Fiske's research. In terms of social ideologies, social dominance orientation (a measure that relates to relationships and conflicts between groups) and system-justification (a measure that explores the

legitimization of inequality and injustice) were predictors of hostile sexism for men and women, respectively.

Masser and Abrams (2004) completed a study that sought to see whether or not hostile sexism was related to negative evaluations of women who violate specific gender norms. The researchers noted that research had been done on benevolent sexism and gender roles, but not hostile sexism. Three hundred and seven participants (144 men, 137 women, 26 did not specify) were given curriculum vitae and were instructed to fill out the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. The participants were told that the curriculum vitae were sent out to a large company that advertised for a managerial position. For both men and women, high hostile sexism was associated with more negative perceptions of women who applied for this job, and more positive perceptions of men who applied for the job. This indicates that in both sexes, those who are high in hostile sexism feel that women are a possible threat to men in the workplace.

Gaunt (2013) conducted a study that dealt with ambivalent sexism and perceptions of men and women who violated gender norms. Three hundred and eleven participants were recruited from a large research project. They were given descriptions of primary caregivers and primary breadwinners, along with the ASI. Both categories contained men and women. The results demonstrated that men exhibited hostile sexism when it came to female breadwinners and benevolent sexism when it came to female caregivers. Additionally, people who endorsed benevolent sexism reacted more positively to a male breadwinner but more negatively to a male caretaker.

Research about ambivalent sexism has also been done in regards to marital roles and beliefs. Chen, Fiske, and Lee (2009) created a new scale called the Gender-Role

Ideology in Marriage inventory and used the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory in their study to investigate gender-role beliefs in marriage norms and mate selection. Five hundred and fifty two Chinese citizens and 252 American college students participated in the study. The two groups that exhibited high levels of hostile sexism were the Chinese and men. Chinese women endorsed benevolent sexism more than American women. Both Chinese genders stuck to more traditional gender stereotypes, i.e., the man goes to work, the woman does the chores, the male dominates, the female is subservient, etc. For Americans, benevolent sexism predicted mate selection. These results indicate that culture may have an influence on hostile and benevolent sexism.

There is a good amount of research on two areas: work-family roles and ambivalent sexism. However, much of the basic information needed for this research is not very recent. Additionally, although very recent research has been made linking ambivalent sexism to young people and ambivalent sexism with gender and marital roles, it seems that there is very little research that combines these two topics. How does ambivalent sexism relate to gender and family roles in a liberal arts college population? The present study seeks to solve these issues. By combining both of these topics, the present study will be conducted at Trinity College, a private liberal arts school in New England. This study will seek to see if expectations related to careers, marriage, and parenting are related to sexist ideologies. The main research questions being posited here are: do gender differences exist among Trinity students with respect to career expectations? Do gender differences exist with respect to parenting aspirations? Do gender differences exist with respect to hostile and benevolent sexism? Is ambivalent sexism associated with career and parenting expectations for oneself?

Based on the previous research presented here, four hypotheses will be explored in this study:

1. Women will be more likely to hold career and parenting expectations that are mutually dependent, meaning they will expect tradeoffs.

2. Men will be more likely to hold career expectations that are independent of parenting expectations, meaning that they do not expect tradeoffs.

3. More sexist women will hold more dependent expectations.

4. More sexist men will hold independent expectations.

   The latter two hypotheses are in reference to both hostile and benevolent sexism.

   These hypotheses are based on the findings that women feel that they always need to make trade-offs, and men feel their wives have more pressure to make trade-offs. The women who feel this way are holding more sexist views of their own gender; therefore, they will have more dependent expectations. The men also hold sexist, stereotypical views: sexist because they feel women must bear the burden of having a career and taking care of the children while maintaining a strong marriage; stereotypical because they see themselves as the breadwinners, and their spouses as support systems.

METHOD

The research described in this report was conducted in accordance with ethical guidelines for obtaining informed consent, maintaining confidentiality of participants' responses, and minimizing risk for participants; the Trinity College Institutional Review Board approved the protocol for this research prior to recruitment of participants and data collection.

Recruitment of Participants

Participants were obtained through a random sample given to the researcher by James Hughes, director of the Trinity College Office of Institutional Research and Planning. Four hundred males and 200 females were randomly selected from all class years. All of the participants were attending Trinity's main campus; none of the participants were studying abroad.

Characteristics of Participants

A total of 75 students participated in this study. Out of these students, 40 were female and 35 were male. According to Trinity College's website, the current population is 52 percent male and 48 percent female, so this sample is the opposite of the general Trinity population (more females than males). In terms of class year, 17 participants were first year students, 19 of them were sophomores, 17 were juniors, and 22 of them were seniors. A complete breakdown shows that out of the women, 6 were freshmen, 10 were sophomores, 11 were juniors, and 13 were seniors. Out of the men, 11 were freshmen, 9 were sophomores, 6 were juniors, and 9 were seniors. The majority of the participants were between the ages of 19 and 22 years old. With the exception of first year students, more females than males participated in the survey in every class year.

Measures

Two measures were used in this study – the Life Role Salience Scales (LRSS) (Amatea, Cross, Clark & Bobby, 1986) and the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) (Glick & Fiske, 1996). The LRSS was developed to assess men's and women's expectations around several different facets of life: occupational, marital, and parental roles. Personal importance of value attributed to participation in a role and intended level

of commitment were assessed through these scales (Amatea et al.,1986). The subscales in

the LRSS have five items each. An example of an occupational role commitment item is:

"I expect to devote whatever time and energy it takes to move up in my job/career field."

The internal consistency reliability for this subscale was 0.83. An example of a marital

role commitment item is: "I expect to commit whatever time is necessary to making my

marriage partner feel loved, supported and cared for." The internal consistency reliability

for this subscale was 0.81. An example of a parental role commitment item is: "I expect

to be very involved in the day-to-day matters of rearing children of my own." Lastly, the

internal consistency reliability for this subscale was 0.80.

The ASI measures two different types of sexism in two subscales – hostile and

benevolent sexism. Both subscales contained 11 questions. An example of a hostile sexist

item is: "Women are too easily offended." In this sample, the internal consistency

reliability of the hostile sexism scale was 0.89. An example of a benevolent sexist item is:

"Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility." In this sample, the

internal consistency reliability of the benevolent sexism scale was 0.83. The researcher

obtained permission to use the ASI, while the LRSS did not appear to be copyrighted.

Procedure

The survey was distributed to participants via email. They were instructed to click

on a link that would take them to the survey. After reading and signing the informed

consent page and answering some demographic questions, they were asked to read the

statements and indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement.

For most participants, the survey took between five and fifteen minutes. The survey ran

for approximately two weeks; one initial request was sent, and two follow-up requests

were sent out. After the survey was closed, data cleaning commenced. Participants who did not sign the informed consent and who did not answer the majority of the questions were eliminated from the data set. Additionally, participants who took under five minutes to complete the survey were also eliminated from the data; the researcher concluded that this survey should take at least five minutes to complete.

RESULTS

For the Life Role Salience Scales, a one factor ANOVA revealed that there was a significant difference in gender for the occupational role commitment subscales, $F_{(1, 73)}=12.07$, $p \leq .001$, $R^2 = 0.142$ with men scoring higher (M=20.29) than women (M=17.65). There was a marginally significant difference in gender for the parental role commitment subscale, $F_{(1, 73)}=3.54$, $p=.06$, $R^2 =0.046$ with women scoring higher (M=20.08) than men (M=18.37). There was no significant difference in marital role commitments, $F_{(1, 73)}=0.60$, $p=.44$, $R^2 = 0.082$. These results, along with means and standard deviations, are summarized in Table 1 and Figure 1.

For the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, an ANOVA revealed that there was a significant gender difference in regards to hostile sexism, $F_{(1, 57)}=5.07$, $p=0.03$, $R^2 =0.082$, with men scoring higher (M=3.13) than women (M=2.56). There was no significant gender difference in regards to benevolent sexism, $F_{(1, 57)}=0.86$, $p=0.36$, $R^2 =0.015$. The results, along with means and standard errors, are summarized in Table 2 and Figure 2.

Lastly, correlations were calculated to see if sexism was involved in women's and men's perceptions of tradeoffs. Women had a positive correlation for marital and parental role commitments, but negative correlations for occupational and parental and occupational and marital role commitments (see Table 3). Sexism was not significantly

correlated with role commitments for women. Men had positive, but not significant, correlations for occupational and parental role commitments and occupational and marital role commitments. Correlations were also positive for parental and marital commitments. Both types of sexism were negatively, but not significantly, correlated with all roles.

Next, women and men were split into high and low categories of hostile and benevolent sexism. For women, no matter if they were high or low in hostile or benevolent sexism, all of the correlations were negative for both occupational and parental role commitments and occupational and marital role commitments (see Table 4). For men, those that were high in hostile sexism had negative correlations in both occupational and parental role commitment and occupational and marital role commitment (see Table 5). For men who were low in hostile sexism, the correlations in these two categories were positive. Regardless of levels of benevolent sexism for men, the correlations between role commitments did not differ significantly.

DISCUSSION

Out of the four hypotheses, two of them were confirmed, while the third was partially confirmed, and the fourth was disproved. The first hypothesis, that women will hold career and parenting expectations that are mutually dependent, was confirmed; according to Table 3, occupational and parental role commitments were negatively correlated for Trinity women. This indicates that women feel the need to juggle these two roles. Additionally, it indicates that women's attitudes about work-family trade-offs have not changed over time. Consistent with my second hypothesis, for Trinity men, occupational and parental commitments were positively correlated. This indicates that men do not perceive a trade-off between these roles. This might be the case because men

typically do not have to balance these roles; they are focused on their careers (DiBendetto & Tittle, 1990).

For women, the level of sexism did not moderate correlations between occupational and parental role commitment, which partially confirmed my third hypothesis (the original prediction was that only the more sexist women would have dependent expectations). All of the correlations were negative, which shows that no matter what, women find these roles to be inversely related to each other. They feel like they will always have to find a balance between the roles. For men, those who were high in hostile sexism also held dependent expectations, which disproved the fourth hypothesis. The least sexist men held expectations that correlated positively, meaning that they felt the roles were compatible with each other. They felt like it was possible to make them all work at once.

When it came to the correlations, all women who participated in the survey felt the need for tradeoffs, while the least sexist men did not feel that same need. It is interesting to note this split in men. It was expected that more sexist men would feel that the roles are independent of each other. Why do the men who scored high in hostile sexism feel the same way women do? Is this the result of their upbringing, or is this the result of their particular Trinity College experience? The same questions should be applied to the less sexist men who participated in the research as well.

This data reveals that traditional gender roles still exist in this population of Trinity students in the year 2014. One major goal of this research was to update much of the literature that exists. This thesis sought to see if gender roles changed, but it seems as if they haven't. While both sexes seem to be on the same page when it comes to

marriage, Trinity women seem to be more focused on parental commitments as opposed to occupational commitments. Men in the survey focused more on occupational role commitments than on parental role commitments.

This study contributed to the literature surrounding it in two main ways. As aforementioned, much of the research that exists about gender and role commitments is quite outdated. The goal of this research was to not only update the research out there, but to bring this to a liberal arts college. Secondly, there seems to be very little research that links sexism and future role commitments together. The closest studies that link the two were Gaunt (2013) and Chen et al. (2009). Gaunt discussed sexism, but not how it was related to role commitments; her research addressed the ways in which sexism was related to perceptions of men and women who violate their "traditional" roles. Chen et al. researched sexism in relation to marriage norms, but not marital commitments. This research is bringing the two together.

Based off of the results, it would be interesting to see this study conducted at several other institutions of higher learning. The results could be different at another private school, a bigger school, or a public school. Additionally, it would be essential to conduct this study with a bigger population. Seventy-five people is not enough to generalize to the entire Trinity population. Lastly, this study measured student's expectations. It would be interesting to conduct a longitudinal study of these students over the next ten years and see if their perceptions and degrees of sexism change once they start to fulfill these roles.

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Table 1

Degrees of Future Role Commitments Among Trinity Students

Role	Gender		F	Partial Eta Squared
	Female	Male		
	M SD	M SD		
Occupational	17.65 (3.62)	20.28 (2.82)	12.07	.142
Marital	20.08 (3.19)	19.43 (4.00)	.61	.008
Parental	20.08 (3.68)	18.37 (4.16)	3.54	.046

Table 2
Degrees of Sexism Among Trinity Students

Sexism	Gender		F	Partial Eta Squared
	Female	Male		
	M SE	M SE		
Hostile	2.56 (.17)	3.13 (.19)	5.07	.082
Benevolent	3.06 (.16)	3.29 (.18)	.86	.015

Table 3

Correlations Among LRSS and ASI Scales, Separately by Gender

Measure	1	2	3	4	5
LRSS					
1. Occupational Role Commitment	-	0.28	0.19	-0.19	-0.04
2. Parental Role Commitment	-0.33*	-	0.76***	-0.12	-0.30
3. Marital Role Commitment	-0.39*	0.54***	-	-0.06	-0.11
ASI					
4. Hostile Sexism	0.04	-0.16	-0.07	-	0.44*
5. Benevolent Sexism	0.02	0.01	0.20	0.53***	-

Note. Correlations for females (n's=36 to 40) are below the diagonal; correlations for males (n's=29 to 35) are above the diagonal.
* p≤.05 *** p≤.001

Table 4
*Correlations Between Role Commitments for Trinity Women, Separated by High and
Low Sexism*

Type of Sexism	N	Occupational and Parental Role Commitments	Occupational and Marital Role Commitments
Overall	40	-0.33	-0.39
Low HS	16	-0.37	-0.39
High HS	17	-0.40	-0.54
Low BS	17	-0.33	-0.58
High BS	18	-0.44	-0.16

Note. HS=Hostile Sexism; BS=Benevolent Sexism.

Table 5

Correlations Between Role Commitments for Trinity Men, Separated by High and Low Sexism

Type of Sexism	N	Occupational and Parental Role Commitments	Occupational and Marital Role Commitments
Overall	35	0.28	0.19
Low HS	13	0.52	0.37
High HS	15	-0.42	-0.38
Low BS	15	0.23	0.22
High BS	11	0.25	-0.11

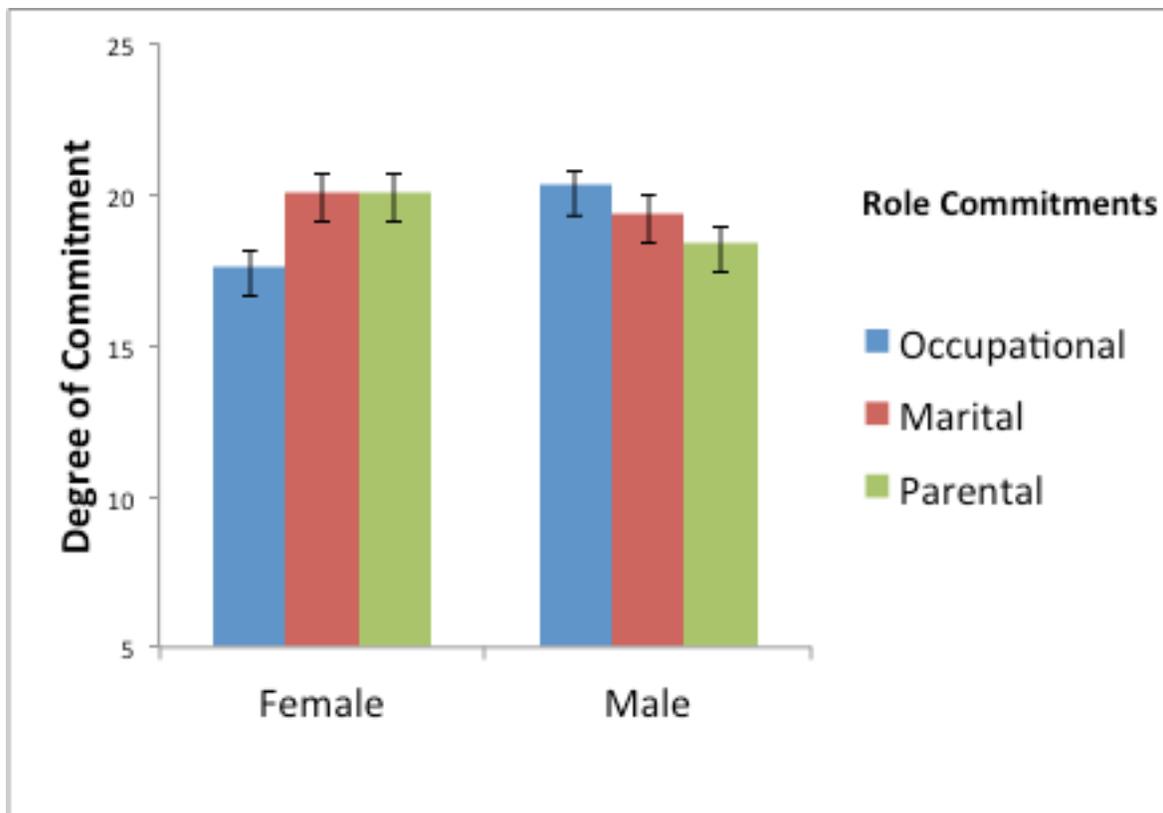*Note.* HS=Hostile Sexism; BS=Benevolent Sexism.

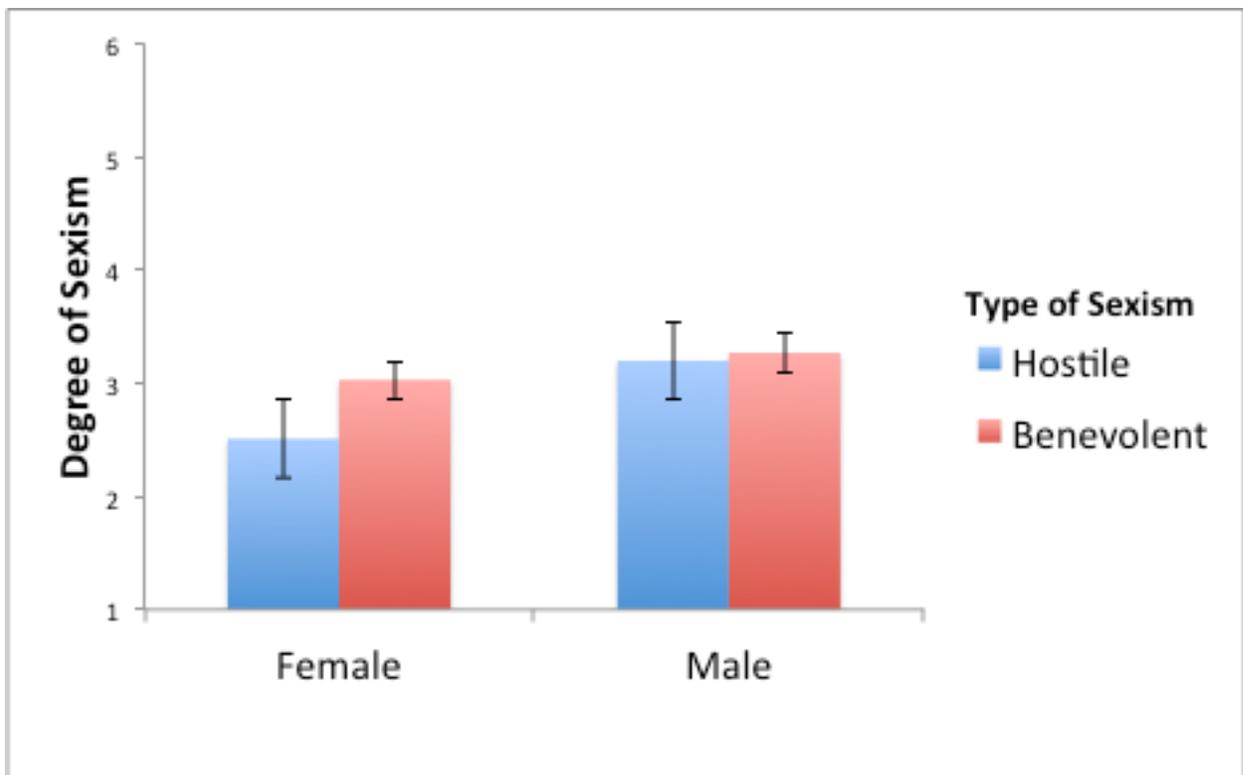*Figure 1: Degrees of Commitment Among Trinity Students*

Figure 2. Degrees of Sexism Among Trinity Students

APPENDIX

Copy of the Informed Consent

This study involves an investigation of college students expectations about careers, marriage, parenting and household work, as well as how these roles can be combined. I understand that my participation in this project is completely voluntary. I understand that all of my responses in this study are completely confidential and will be used only for research purposes. I understand that I have been chosen as part of a representative sample of Trinity College students. I further understand that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time without any penalty.

A benefit of this project is to better understand how college students approach career choices, balanced against other future roles. There are no known risks associated with participation.

If I have any questions regarding this project or wish to have further information, I am free to contact David Reuman in the Psychology Department at Trinity College at david.reuman@trincoll.edu or 860-297-2341, or Sara Bess, thesis student, at sara.bess@trincoll.edu or 347-361-2294.