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THE NATURE OF MATERNAL SEPARATION ANXIETY AS IT
RELATES TO EMPLOYMENT-RELATED SEPARATIONS

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By
Mary Therese Gnezda, B.A., M.S.

* * * * * *

The Ohio State University
1983

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TO

The memory of my father Walter F. Gnezda
from whom I learned patience and compassion
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Recent social and economic conditions have stimulated dramatic increases in labor force participation of mothers of young children, resulting in growing rates of routine employment-related mother-infant separations. Past research has examined the effects of employment-related separation on children, but the mother's perception of separation has not been empirically explored. Therefore, the major emphasis of this research is to examine mothers' feelings about routinely separating from their infants in order to return to work. In the past, mothers who worked often left the labor market during their childbearing years, perhaps not returning until after their children were grown. This employment pattern is no longer characteristic of growing numbers of mothers. From 1965 through 1977, the number of children under age six with working mothers increased from 15 to 38 percent, and projections for the future suggest that by 1990 nearly half of all children under six will have mothers in the labor force (Hofferth, 1979). Of all groups, the most rapid increase in full time employment outside the home is occurring with mothers of infants. In 1977, more than one-third of all mothers of infants in the U.S. were working (Grossman, 1978). By 1980, 41.7 percent of all mothers of children under age three were employed (Children's Defense Fund, 1982). In 1983, Hock, Gnezda, and McBride found that in a sample of 620 maternity ward patients delivering theirfirst
babies, 65 percent planned to return to work before their baby's first birthday. Clearly, these 1982 data suggest that the number of mothers of infants reentering the work force may show a significant acceleration during the 1980s.

As the number of working mothers increases, so does the incidence of routine short-term mother-infant separations. Concern over the effects of these separations on mothers and children has become salient. Although there is a controversy in the literature, most research has not found routine short-term separations to be detrimental to a child's intellectual or emotional development (Belsky & Steinberg, 1978). There is strong support for the belief that maternal characteristics are associated with a child's response to separations (Hock, 1978; Hock & Clinger, 1981; Vaughn, Gove & Egeland, 1980; Thompson, Lamb & Estes, 1982) and of particular concern among these maternal characteristics is the mother's separation anxiety. However, the effect of short-term separations on the mother has not been systematically studied.

Although maternal separation anxiety has not been studied, research (Hock, 1978, 1980; Hock & Clinger, 1981) suggests that differences exist among mothers in the degree of concern they feel toward mother-child separations. Maternal separation anxiety is characterized by the apprehension, guilt, fear, nervousness, and worry the mother feels in relation to her child during separations. Mothers experiencing separation anxiety also miss the physical closeness and intimacy of the mother-child relationship. Hock, Gnezda, and McBride (1983) suggest that maternal separation anxiety further involves the nature of a mother's
belief in short-term mother-child separations as facilitating the child's independence and social development. They also suggest that a mother's feelings and attitudes toward employment and motherhood contribute to maternal separation anxiety.

Much of the literature (Hoffman, 1961; Poloma, 1972; Birnbaum, 1975) conducted with working mothers suggests that many of these women feel guilty and anxious over mother-child separations, but only one study has specifically measured maternal separation concerns. Using a sample of 620 working and nonworking primipara mothers, Hock, Gnezda, and McBride (1983) assessed maternal concerns over separation. This research was designed in part to establish the psychometric properties of a 68-item Likert-type questionnaire, the Maternal Separation Anxiety Scale (MSAS) and revealed some interesting findings. Of their sample, 81 percent reported that they expected to worry during mother-child separations and 44 percent reported that they anticipated feeling guilty if they routinely left their children in nonmaternal care. Sixty-five percent of this sample expected to be working before their child's first birthday, and 50 percent felt they would probably resent their employment if they found that working interfered with the time they had available to spend with their infants. Although 49 percent reported that their jobs/careers brought them a lot of personal satisfaction, 88 percent agreed that they would not regret postponing their careers so that they could be home with their infants. The major conclusion derived from these data suggests that this sample of mothers was conflicted about leaving their infants in order to return to work. These
findings support the belief that even though many mothers with infants are returning to work, they do so with strong conflict and ambivalence. This conflict seems to be related to maternal separation anxiety and is associated with other maternal characteristics.

Among the maternal characteristics that may contribute to maternal separation anxiety and ambivalence toward separation are the degree of the mother's investment in her maternal role, and her investment in her career (Bernard, 1974; Birnbaum, 1975; Hock, 1980). These two characteristics are highly significant to a woman's self-concept. Hock (1980) suggests that a woman who is highly invested in the maternal role but who also works, may be in an incongruent situation. This incongruence may have a negative impact on her self-esteem and contribute to feelings of inadequacy in her maternal role. These feelings may be related to her perception of her husband's feelings about her work status and impact on her anxieties about separation, adding to her conflicts as she attempts to integrate employment and motherhood. The mother's orientation toward motherhood and employment may also be related to her attitudes toward nonmaternal care and her perceptions of mother-child separation experiences (Hock, 1980). These maternal characteristics may also impact on her separation anxiety.

Because of the growing need for two incomes in two-parent families, the increase in single-parent families, and the increased pressure on women, brought about through the reevaluation of male and female roles, to work outside the home, it is likely that many mothers will experience conflict and anxiety over work-related mother-child separations. In
order to help women deal effectively with separations, more extensive research examining maternal perceptions of mother-child separations is warranted.

Statement of the Problem

This research explored the nature of maternal separation anxiety through comparisons of employed and nonemployed mothers of infants. This study also examine maternal separation anxiety as it relates to employment-related mother-infant separation at the time employed mothers return to full time employment outside the home. The objectives of the research are to:

1. Investigate maternal separation anxiety as expressed by employed and nonemployed mothers of infants as it relates to maternal role investment, career investment, and trait anxiety, at the time of their infants' births and 5-7 weeks later.

2. Explore differences in maternal separation anxiety as expressed by employed mothers in the maternity ward and at the time they return to work with particular emphasis on the mother's preference to remain at home or her preference to return to work.

3. Examine the validity of the MSAS and the Home Visit Interview as measures of maternal separation anxiety for employed mothers.

Research Questions

To meet these objectives, the following research questions were explored:

1. Do employed and nonemployed mothers express different levels of maternal separation anxiety, and do these differences remain
stable from the time of the infant’s birth to 5-7 weeks later?

2. Do employed and nonemployed mothers express different levels of trait anxiety and do these differences remain stable from the time of the infant’s birth to 5-7 weeks later?

3. Do employed and nonemployed mothers differ in their investment in the maternal role at the time of their infant’s birth?

4. Do employed and nonemployed mothers differ with respect to their career investment, and are these differences stable from the time of the infant’s birth to 5-7 weeks later?

5. What is the relationship between trait anxiety and maternal separation anxiety in employed and nonemployed mothers at the time of their infant’s birth and 5-7 weeks later?

6. What is the relationship between maternal role investment and maternal separation anxiety at the time of the infant’s birth in employed and nonemployed mothers?

7. What is the relationship between career investment and maternal separation anxiety in employed and nonemployed mothers at the time of their infant’s birth and at 5-7 weeks later?

8. At the time of their infant’s birth, what is the relationship between maternal role investment and career investment in employed and nonemployed mothers?

9. Do employed mothers who would prefer to be at home and employed mothers who prefer to be working express different levels of maternal separation anxiety in the maternity ward and at the time they return to work?
10. Do employed mothers who would prefer to be at home and employed mothers who prefer to be working express different levels of trait anxiety in the maternity ward and at the time they return to work?

11. Do employed mothers who would prefer to be at home and employed mothers who prefer to be working differ with respect to their career investment, and are these differences stable from the time of the infant's birth until the time the mothers return to work?

12. At the time they return to work, do employed mothers who would prefer to stay home differ from those who would prefer to be employed regarding their investment in the maternal role, and how do these differences relate to their investment in the maternal role at the time of their infant's birth?

13. For employed mothers, what is the relationship between maternal role investment and maternal separation anxiety at the time they return to full time employment outside the home?

14. For employed mothers, what is the relationship between maternal role investment and career investment at the time they return to work outside the home?

15. What is the relationship between an employed mother's maternal separation anxiety and her perception of her husband's feelings about her work status at the time she returns to work?

16. What is the relationship between the measurement of maternal separation anxiety using the MSAS, and the measurement of maternal separation anxiety using the Home Visit Interview schedule?
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

From a theoretical perspective, maternal separation anxiety can be conceptualized as a transitory emotional state. The proneness to experience heightened levels of maternal separation anxiety exists at varying degrees among mothers and is associated with particular situational perceptions and maternal variables. Situational perceptions occurring around actual separation experiences include the mother's attitudes toward nonmaternal care and her perceptions of her child's reaction to separations. These variables may trigger maternal separation anxiety. Research (Hock, 1980; Birnbaum, 1975) suggests that the degree to which a mother feels anxious during separations may also be related to the mother's investment in her maternal role, and her investment in her career.

This review of literature will consider maternal separation anxiety from theoretical and empirical perspectives. Since maternal separation anxiety can be defined as a type of state anxiety, Spielberger's (1972) theory of trait-state anxiety will be used as the conceptual framework. This review will examine the characteristics of maternal separation anxiety in addition to exploring specific maternal variables and situational perceptions found to be associated with it.
Spielberger's Trait-State Theory of Anxiety

Spielberger's (1972) theory defines anxiety as a complex emotional reaction. The theory distinguishes and establishes relationships between anxiety proneness as a stable personality trait (A-Trait) and anxiety as a transitory emotional state fluctuating in duration and intensity (A-State). Spielberger emphasizes the critical role that cognition plays in triggering anxiety reactions and states that elevated A-States occur when an individual subjectively evaluates a situation as threatening to his/her physical well-being or self-esteem. Threats to self-esteem are considered to be more potent than physical dangers, and anxiety states can be triggered by perceptions of possible, impending, imagined, or direct threats to the individual. Individuals consciously experience A-State reactions and generally feel nervous, apprehensive, and tense when confronted with a threatening event. Physiological reactions often accompany elevated anxiety states as well. The extent to which a person experiences anxiety directly depends upon the degree of threat that he/she interprets as inherent in a situation.

Trait-State anxiety theory stresses the importance of an individual's personality traits, unique internal (i.e., feelings, attitudes, needs) and external (i.e., particular situations) factors as well as past experiences in influencing cognitive appraisals of situations. Individuals who possess higher levels of A-Trait anxiety are more likely to regard a wider range of situations as threatening, and thus have a higher tendency to experience elevated A-States more often, for longer periods of time, and more severely than people with lower levels of
A-Trait. Individuals express anxiety reactions through their behaviors, and Spielberger suggests that with repeated stimuli, individuals develop defense mechanisms and coping styles to avoid, reduce, or eliminate anxiety states.

Spielberger's model depicts the process by which individuals experience anxiety.

Cognitive Feedback

A situation occurs (external stimulus) and is evaluated based on the individual's proneness to anxiety (A-Trait) and his/her feelings, attitudes, and needs (internal stimuli) associated with the event. If the individual has had prior experience with the situation, cognitive feedback from past anxiety responses will also impact on the appraisal of the threatening nature of the situation. Similarly, if the individual has developed coping strategies and defense mechanisms for dealing
with the situation, these, too, will influence cognitive appraisal.

Once the situation is perceived, the individual responds in one of the following ways. If the situation is evaluated as nonthreatening, behavior occurs that is not influenced by aroused anxiety. If the situation is perceived as threatening, it will heighten anxiety and trigger an A-State anxiety response. If the individual has not developed coping mechanisms to lessen his/her anxiety level, the individual will express anxious behavior as a response to the situation. However, it is possible for the A-State reaction to activate the individual's defense mechanisms, and thus reduce the impact of the anxiety on his/her behavior. An individual may develop predictable behaviors or coping strategies to a situation. These strategies lead to and incorporate defense mechanisms into the individual's evaluation of the stimulus and redirect his/her responses away from A-State arousal. As a result the stimulus activates a learned behavioral response which essentially eliminates anxiety.

Clearly, Spielberger's theory concentrates heavily on the interaction of stable individual differences, cognitive appraisal and past experiences in understanding anxiety reactions and behavioral responses to situations. Within this context Spielberger suggests that the major task of his theory is to discover particular aspects of external stimuli which lead to different levels of A-State responses in individuals who are prone to different levels of anxiety.
Maternal separation anxiety involves a woman's interpretation of the implications of separation for her and for her child. It occurs in response to actual or anticipated separation experiences (Hock, 1980; Hock, Gnezda & McBride, 1983), and is reflected in the mother's expression of nervousness, worry, and guilt. Maternal separation anxiety seems to be a transitory emotional state, and thus, can be defined as a type of A-State anxiety. It is expected that the degree to which a woman perceives mother-child separations as threatening to her child's well-being or to her own self-adequacy will be associated with the level of separation anxiety she feels. As suggested by Spielberger, threats to self-esteem have a greater impact on eliciting A-State reactions. A woman who primarily defines her self-concept around her mother role may perceive mother-child separation as a greater threat to her self-esteem than a woman who is less invested in motherhood, and thus experience more intense separation anxiety.

Spielberger suggests that stable individual differences, internal beliefs, experiences with anxiety-producing events, and the actual nature of the events contribute to appraisals of potentially threatening situations. In order to understand the nature of the differences in separation anxiety experienced by mothers, it is necessary to examine maternal characteristics associated with it. For a mother, her general anxiety level, investment in the maternal role, career investment, and attitudes toward employment-related separations and non-maternal care
may contribute to her appraisal of mother-child separations as being threatening or nonthreatening. It is expected that this evaluation will then elicit a corresponding level of maternal separation anxiety and influence the mother's separation-related behavior.

Maternal Separation Anxiety

Maternal separation anxiety has not emerged as a well-defined concept in empirical research. However, numerous studies (Hoffman, 1961; White, 1972; Birnbaum, 1975; Harrell & Ridley, 1975) report that working women do experience varying levels of anxiety and guilt over separating from their children. Conceptually, maternal separation anxiety can be interpreted from ethological attachment theory and defined as a consequence of the affective mother-child relationships.

According to attachment theory, a child forms a reciprocal enduring affective bond with his/her primary caregiver, who is most often the mother. The attachment relationship is crucial because it is the basis from which the child receives protection from harm, security, comfort, and a foundation for exploration. The attachment relationship also provides a prototype for future intimate relationships. Attachment is a result of an inherent behavioral system that is necessarily activated in order to ensure the infant's survival. An infant initiates attachment behaviors directed toward achieving proximity to the mother and resists separation from her. As the infant's attachment behaviors are activated, so too are the mother's. Within the context of the attachment relationship, the mother responds to the child's needs by providing protection, physical closeness, and nurturance and the child's
separation distress elicits separation concern from the mother (Bowlby, 1964, Ainsworth et al., 1978; Sroufe, 1979).

Bowlby (1969) postulates that if a child's primary attachment figure is physically absent, unresponsive, or otherwise inaccessible, the child's source of protection, comfort and security is missing and the child will become anxious and distressed. Since attachment involves a mutually intense relationship, mothers, too, experience anxiety when separated from their children. A mother may experience maternal separation anxiety since the separation interferes with her ability to provide protection through proximity, security through accessibility, and comfort through physical closeness. Mother-child separations also interrupt the intimacy expressed during mother-child interactions, and decreases the mother's ability to share and encourage the child's exploration and discovery of the world. Therefore, it is likely that maternal separation anxiety is a natural consequence of mother-child attachment.

Corter and Bow (1976) studied the effects of infants' separation and reunion behavior on mothers' separation and reunion behaviors using 24 mother-infant pairs. The infants ranged in age from 9.5 to 11.0 months and were randomly assigned to one of two treatment groups. Group 1 infants were left alone in a play pen without toys during a 5-minute separation experience, and Group 2 infants were left in a play pen with toys during separation. After leaving the infant in the play pen, the mother was instructed to go to another room where she could read magazines, sit, or watch her child's response to the episode on a
television monitor. Corter and Bow recorded infant vocal behavior and the latency and duration of vocal distress during separation and at reunion. Simultaneously, they recorded the mother's "duration of vigilance" and latency to retrieve her infant during separation. At reunion they recorded the latency and duration of the mother's touching and the frequency of her smiling. Among their findings Corter and Bow reported that a mother's vigilance during separation was affected by her infant's vocal distress. None of the infants were retrieved before they expressed vocal distress. This study seems to demonstrate the responsiveness of the mother to comfort her infant in a stressful situation. Her behavior may relate to her role in the attachment relationship and be a response to ease her maternal separation anxiety triggered by the infant's distress. This study was of particular interest since it empirically explored the behaviors of mothers during separation experiences.

The Measurement of Maternal Separation Anxiety. In order to focus particular attention on the maternal perspective of mother-infant separation, Hock, Gnezda and McBride (1983) developed a 35-item Likert-type questionnaire, the Maternal Separation Anxiety Scale (MSAS), to assess separation anxiety. The dimensions underlying the MSAS were derived from an integration of theoretical and empirical literature related to mother-infant attachment, child development, working mothers, maternal attitudes toward nonmaternal care, and mother-child separation. Reliability of the instrument was established with 620 first time mothers of infants. The MSAS measures maternal separation anxiety based on three major dimensions, the presence of maternal worry, sadness and
guilt associated with separation; anxiety related to the mother's beliefs about separation promoting or inhibiting the development of the child's sociability and independence; and anxiety related to the mother's interpretation of separation impacting on her ability to balance her maternal and employment roles and responsibilities.

Investigation of the validity of the MSAS and an interview measure of maternal separation anxiety was conducted in the present research. Nunnally (1978) suggests that the most common method of assessing construct validity between measures is to determine whether the measures relate as expected to other constructs. In addition, Cronbach (1970) defines concurrent validity as the relationship between different methods of measuring the same concept administered simultaneously, and according to Neal and Liebert (1973), convergent validity refers to the correlation between two methods of assessing the same concept. High correlations indicate convergent validity.

Work Status Differences Related to Maternal Separation Anxiety

Much of the existing literature relating to maternal separation anxiety, although not specifically measuring the concept, suggests that employed mothers experience guilt, distress, and anxiety associated with being away from their children in order to work. Few studies examine differences in employed and nonemployed mothers' feelings about separation.

Harris (1979) describes common reactions of working women who leave their children with alternative caregivers. The concerns expressed clearly reflect maternal separation anxiety. Working women
often worried about the quality of care their children received and regretted being separated from them. They questioned whether or not their children were happy and felt inadequate in being able to help them cope with minor crises. Harris suggests that working women are often afraid that mother-child separations will result in irreparable harm to the emotional development of their children. Working women reported missing their children's company and were distressed because they were not able to spontaneously share new experiences with them.

Similarly, in her study of gifted college graduates, Birnbaum (1975) found that professional mothers reported feeling guilty about their inaccessibility to their children and felt they were not involved enough with them. She also found that professional mothers are often afraid that their work-related separations will endanger their children's development and lead to maternal deprivation.

Poloma's (1972) research conducted with 53 married couples in which both husbands and wives were career-committed, revealed that career women with young children experienced role strain that often centered around concerns over mother-child separations. Of these women, many felt guilty and unable to help children resolve their problems. Their responses seemed to indicate a need to protect their children and they felt that if their children were being harmed they would stop working. These women also suggested that when they felt comfortable, trusting, and secure toward the alternative caregiving situation, their worry, guilt, and anxiety lessened.

In their research with middle-class, married, suburban mothers of school-aged children, Yarrow, Scott, de Leeuw, and Heinig (1962)
examined differences in childrearing attitudes and practices between 50 working and 50 nonworking mothers. The researchers suggested that the impact of work status on childrearing would be related to the mother's sex role identity, preference for work or home, and be motivated by the supportiveness of her personal situation regarding her present work status, and her motivations toward her mother role. Among the results, Yarrow et al. found that working and nonworking mothers with similar cultural backgrounds and family circumstances were very similar in respect to their childrearing philosophy and practices. However, 42 percent of the working mothers and only 24 percent of the nonworking mothers reported dissatisfaction related to their mother role, with the working mothers reporting concern and worry over whether their work status interfered with their relationships with their children and their childrearing.

Hock, through longitudinal research studies, specifically examined work status differences in separation anxiety as expressed by working and nonworking mothers of infants. In her research examining attitudes and caregiving behaviors of 42 working and 55 nonworking mothers, Hock (1980) found variability in the degree of anxiety mothers expressed over separations. In this study, maternal attitudes were assessed using a standardized questionnaire and through semi-structured interviews conducted in the maternity ward at 3 and 8 months. Hock's findings suggest that the extent of the mother's separation anxiety is related to her career orientation and her beliefs about exclusive maternal care. Women who are highly career-oriented and low in their perception of
their child's need for exclusive maternal care tended to express less anxiety over separation.

Hock's (1980) research also examined separation behaviors of the mother-child pairs in her sample of 42 working and 55 nonworking mothers using Ainsworth and Wittig's Strange Situation Behavior Instrument (SSBI). These observations suggested that maternal separation anxiety is reflected in the child's separation behavior and related to the nature of the mother-child relationship. Hock found that during separation and reunion episodes, infants of working mothers who score high on exclusive maternal care exhibited less effort to maintain proximity with their mothers. She suggests that this behavior may indicate that the mother is experiencing conflict over her beliefs about exclusive maternal care and her inability, due to her work status, to provide it. Hock further suggests that maternal separation anxiety contributes to this conflict, and as a result of the mother's internal conflict, the security of the mother-child relationship is impaired. Therefore, children of conflicted working women with higher levels of maternal separation anxiety were less likely to seek comfort from their mothers during reunion episodes in the laboratory.

Hock's (1978) longitudinal study with 59 working and 71 nonworking mothers of infants explored mothers attitudes and perceptions related to balancing their infants needs with their own needs. Specifically, Hock investigated differences between the working and nonworking mothers' orientation toward a career, their perceptions of their child's need for exclusive maternal care, and their satisfaction with mothering.
Hock suggested that, particularly for the working mothers, the attitude about the child's need for exclusive maternal care would relate to her feelings about being separated from her child. Hock's findings revealed that working mothers were significantly more career oriented than non-working mothers, less concerned about exclusive maternal care, and less likely to perceive their infant's distress at separation as a result of being away from the mother. These mothers tended to interpret their infants' separation distress as situational but not directly attributable to her departure. The working mothers were also found to be less anxious over mother-infant separation.

Clearly, the literature suggests that employment status relates to maternal separation anxiety and may be influenced by specific maternal characteristics, one of which is the mother's investment in her maternal role.

**Relationship of Maternal Role Investment to Work Status**

According to Bernard (1974), nearly all women want to have children and anticipate that motherhood will be part of their adult lives. Bernard also contends that our culture defines parenting as the appropriate top priority for mothers. The "ideal mother" is loving, self-sacrificing, devoted to her children, gentle and kind. Her primary personal investment is found in her commitment to motherhood, and it is her major source of fulfillment and satisfaction. Similarly, Moore and Hofferth (1979) suggest that in spite of the trend toward smaller families, most women still want children. Children are important to
women because they provide variety, enjoyment, creativity, a sense of power, and purpose. Moore and Hofferth further contend that motherhood can reaffirm a woman's femininity which is threatened by employment and success.

Although some women accept this model of motherhood, Bernard suggests that others do not and reports that in a 1971 survey of 568 housewives, only 53 percent reported motherhood as their major source of satisfaction. Women whose interests extend beyond their motherhood roles and who are career-oriented possess values and attitudes toward childrearing and motherhood which are inconsistent with the traditional mother model. Bernard defines these women as denying self-sacrifice as part of motherhood and establishing childrearing patterns which provide for an integration of the child's and mother's needs. Career-oriented women establish role hierarchies which enable them to balance their investment and commitment to their children and their jobs. Even though these women find their work enjoyable and important, Bernard suggests that motherhood is still their first priority.

In their research with 21 employed and 31 nonemployed suburban mothers of school-aged children, Rodgon and Gralewski (1979) found that regardless of the reasons for working or the conditions under which mothers returned to work, employed mothers were less traditional in their assessment of themselves and in their sex role attitudes. Thornton and Camburn (1979) found similar results in their research exploring how women's sex role attitudes are related to fertility and labor force participation. Women who were considered home-oriented typically defined a woman's primary role in the home and that, through familial
roles, women gain the greatest personal happiness and satisfaction. These home-oriented women were not likely to want or need a career, less likely to be working, and felt that working would conflict with their abilities to fulfill family responsibilities. Yarrow et al. (1962) found that nonworking mothers were more oriented toward mothering than working mothers, described mothering as a duty, and suggested that they "loved" mothering.

Although it is evident that there is variation among women in their investment in the maternal role, research suggests that even for career-oriented women, motherhood is highly salient. Schwartz (1980) found few differences in part-time and full-time working mothers' orientations toward motherhood. All of her sample expressed a preference for part-time and flexible work schedules to accommodate both work and mother roles. Schwartz did find that part-time workers felt that their work was less important than did full-time workers; however, for all women in her sample with young children, maternal responsibilities took precedence over work. Similarly, Poloma (1972) found that even for career-committed mothers, when their children are young, their mother roles override their career roles. Typically, while children are young a woman temporarily regards her career more like a job so that she can more adequately mother her children. As children become less demanding her work regains its significance as a career.

In her study of homemaker and career-oriented gifted college graduates, Birnbaum (1975) found that women who chose to be homemakers held traditionally feminine attitudes and perceived themselves as
family-oriented and conventional. Motherhood was found to be the focal point of the homemakers' lives, and it involved self-sacrifice, self-subordination to her parenting responsibilities, and devotion to family happiness and welfare. These women reported the importance of being needed and loved by their children and husbands as central in their lives and expressed the belief that "real women" generously give of themselves to make others happy. Birnbaum's homemakers were found to be nurturant, emotionally responsible and loving, and highly invested in their maternal role. In Birnbaum's study, maternal role investment was characterized by the extent to which a woman's identity was defined through motherhood. The homemakers in her sample believed that their children provided them with a sustaining personal worth which gave them a sense of purpose, value, and wholeness. The homemakers' self-esteem was clearly dependent on their assessments of themselves as "good mothers," and these women, more so than professional mothers, were fearful of failure with their children. Birnbaum's homemakers also tended to see work outside the home as undesirable since it would interfere with family responsibilities.

In contrast to the homemakers, the professional working mothers in Birnbaum's sample revealed less investment in the maternal role. These women described themselves as unconventional and sought personal fulfillment through the integration of professional, marriage, and motherhood roles. They were highly committed to their careers, and found their children, primarily, as a source of fun and pleasure. Birnbaum's professionals did not define their worth and value as
directly related to their mother-child relationships, nor did they see motherhood as necessitating self-sacrifice and total devotion. They did express some guilt about being away from their children, but were able to develop positive feelings toward work and family. As children, the professional women remembered themselves as intellectual, assertive, independent, cheerful, and competitive. Unlike the homemakers, the professional women felt their self-esteem during adolescence and young adulthood was dependent on achievements other than interpersonal relationships and approval of others. Birnbaum's research suggests that the woman's degree of maternal role investment may be an extension of relatively stable personality attributes.

Hock and Clinger (1981) examined maternal attributes in working and nonworking first-time mothers during the first year post partum. Women who were assessed in the maternity ward as being highly invested in the maternal role were found to be significantly more responsive to their infants' demands at 3 months, and to have strong beliefs in their own irreplaceability in their children's lives at 8 months. In contrast, women who expressed less maternal investment, those who found fulfillment through means other than motherhood, were less directed by their children's demands at 3 months and less concerned about exclusive maternal care at 8 months. As does Birnbaum's (1975) research, Hock and Clinger's findings suggest that investment in the maternal role may be a relatively stable maternal attribute existing at varying levels in the population.
The belief that children are best cared for by their mothers is closely related to maternal role investment, and is pervasive in our society in spite of the changes in sex role attitudes that have occurred as a result of the Women's Movement during the 1970s (Rhodes, 1979). Wortis (1971) suggests that society's emphasis on the importance of a mother's role as primary caregiver originated with instinct theory and was reinforced by Bowlby and Spitz' maternal deprivation studies. Russo (1976) suggests that society dictates in its "motherhood mandate" that to be a good mother, a woman must stay at home. Thomson (1980) found this attitude prevalent in a sample of 378 white, married women with young children. In Thomson's study, child's age was related to a woman's expectation to enter the labor force. This finding reflects the belief that work-related mother-child separations are harmful to young children. Hare-Mustin and Broderick (1979) found that in their sample of 177 female students and their parents, 58 percent of the men and 32 percent of the women believed that it is detrimental to children if their mothers work. These studies reflect society's belief in the child's need for exclusive maternal care and reflect a negative attitude toward nonmaternal care.

The mother's perception of her child's need for exclusive maternal care was identified in Hock's (1980) longitudinal research as a maternal attributed that discriminated significantly between working and non-working mothers. Hock found that nonworking mothers scored significantly higher than working mothers on this attribute. Her research also revealed that exclusive maternal care relates to the mother's attitude
toward nonmaternal care, and her trust of alternative caregivers and reflects the degree of interest she has in leaving her child to go to work. Hock's research also suggests the importance of a woman's career-orientation in her personal assessment of employment-related separation experiences.

Relationship of Investment in Career to Employment Status

A woman's career investment involves her interest in and commitment to work. Career investment is similar to Hock's (1978) definition of career orientation and Greenhaus' (1971) concept of career salience. Hock defines career orientation as the amount of interest a mother expresses toward an occupation, job, or career and relates to the satisfaction a mother finds in her work. According to Greenhaus, career salience signifies the degree of importance an individual places on work as a part of his/her self-concept. People with high career salience view their work as an integral part of their lives. The greater the perceived meaning and fulfillment attached to work, the higher an individual's career salience and the more likely he/she is to be greatly invested in systematically pursuing a career. Highly career invested people expect to derive a significant degree of satisfaction and purpose from work and thus working becomes a crucial source of self-esteem for them.

Research indicates that career investment may be a relatively stable attribute in women. Tinsely and Faunce (1978) examined the relationship between women's vocational interests in college and their
career orientation and behavior 13-21 years after college. Tinsley and Faunce found significant differences between scores on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank when the subjects were college freshmen and their later career of homemaker orientation. Women who were classified as career-oriented had held less conventional vocational interests and were significantly more enterprising as college freshmen than their homemaker-oriented counterparts. These findings may reflect stability of career investment. Morgan (1981) measured career salience and career orientation with her sample of working and nonworking mothers. She found a high significant correlation between the measures. She also found that a woman's labor force participation during the first 6 years of motherhood was highly correlated with career salience/orientation. Career salience/orientation accounted for 46-62 percent of the variance and was the most predictive variable in her study of labor force participation of mothers.

Hock's (1978) exploratory research examining attitudinal differences of working and nonworking mothers of infants revealed significantly higher levels of career orientation in working than nonworking mothers as expressed in interviews in the maternity ward and 3 months later. During the maternity ward interviews, Hock's subjects were asked whether they planned to return to work or remain at home with their children during the first year. A follow-up interview at 12 months revealed that the women who changed their plans and returned to work had scored higher in career orientation in the maternity ward and at 3 months than had the women who remained at home throughout the first
year (Hock, Christman & Hock, 1980). This research supports Hock's (1978) conclusion that career orientation is a relatively stable pre-
disposition.

In her presentation of her research with gifted college graduates, Birnbaum (1975) develops a typology of the married professional mother that lends credence to the stability of career investment. She suggests that professional mothers remember themselves as independent, determined, and assertive children. For these women, pursuing a career and having a family were always considered compatible goals and expected outcomes of adulthood. Birnbaum reports that in her sample of professional women, satisfaction was expected and found in career and family experiences. Career commitment was salient to these women throughout adulthood as a necessary and fulfilling part of their lives.

Employment Status Preference

Although not specifically addressed in the literature, it appears that congruence between a mother's work status and her preference for employment or staying at home may be related to her feelings toward employment-related separations. These feelings may relate to her separation anxiety, her feelings of adequacy as a mother, her attitudes toward her job, and her relationships with her children. Yarrow et al. (1962) examined role preference in working and nonworking mothers as one variable influencing differences in childrearing attitudes and behaviors between working and nonworking mothers. Role preference was considered a more important factor than employment status per se. The 50 employed and 50 nonemployed mothers in this research were asked whether they
would want to work or not work outside the home if free to choose. Seventy-six percent of the working mothers reported that they wanted to work, and 82 percent of the nonworking reported they wanted to remain at home. The researchers found little differences between working and nonworking mothers related to childrearing if the mothers are in their preferred employment roles, that is, if they want to work and are working or if they want to stay home and they are home. Of all the mothers, the most dissatisfied were nonworking women who would have preferred to be working. These mothers were found to be less consistent than the others in their childrearing behaviors, described their children as more dependent, were less emotionally satisfied, less confident, and less adequate with their mothering.

In her research, Hoffman (1961) examined how an employed mother's feelings toward work related to her attitudes and behaviors toward her children. Hoffman's premise suggested that an employed mother who likes her job would feel guilty and overcompensate for this guilt with leniency and "smother love." Alternatively, employed mothers who felt negatively toward their jobs were expected to be guiltless, to exhibit less warmth, less positive affect, and less disciplining with their children. They were also expected to withdraw from the maternal role. Of Hoffman's sample of 88 nonworking and 88 working mothers with school-aged children, 65 of the working mothers reported liking their jobs, and 23 disliked them. Analysis of the data revealed that mothers who had a positive attitude toward work demonstrated more positive affect toward their children, used less severe discipline, and were more sympathetic and less hostile toward their children than were nonworking mothers.
Mothers with negative attitudes toward work demonstrated less involvement with their children, had greater expectations for the child's participation in household tasks, and were less sympathetic to the child.

In their research with 185 working class mothers in Great Britain, although designed as a reliability study of their assessment tool for measuring mothers' attitudes toward work, Parry and Warr (1980) found that their employed and nonemployed mothers did not differ significantly regarding positive affect and life satisfaction. The researchers suggest that this finding may have occurred because a high proportion of women in each work status group had chosen that status, thus their employment status preference and their actual employment status were congruent.

Hock's (1978, 1980) research also suggests implications of the relationship of a mother's inconsistent work status preference and actual work status to her mothering experiences and attitudes. In her 1978 research, Hock found that inconsistent nonworking mothers, those who were highly career-oriented (indicating a desire to work), perceived infant discontent as a personal affront, and perceived infant distress at separation as caused by the mother's absence. Working mothers who were highly career-oriented, thus in a consistent situation, were less likely to be anxious over mother-infant separations, less likely to perceive infant separation distress as a result of the mother's absence, less likely to interpret infant discontent as a personal affront, and less likely to be concerned about nonmaternal care for
their children. In her 1980 research, Hock examined working and non-working mothers' attitudes toward exclusive maternal care. Nonworking mothers who scored high on exclusive maternal care were interpreted to be in a situation consistent with their beliefs about the child's needs. These mothers demonstrated a preference for being home since they did not evidence an interest in working or a career. Working mothers who scored high on the exclusive maternal care measure were considered to be in a conflicting situation which may reflect work status preference since their work status did not enable them to be the sole caretaker of their infants. Hock's working mothers who were in an inconsistent situation in terms of their beliefs about exclusive maternal care, had infants who in a laboratory behavioral observation, exhibited less proximity maintaining behavior toward the mother. Hock suggests that the mother's inconsistent work status situation may have negatively influenced the mother-infant relationship and accentuated the dependency promoting aspect of the relationship. She further suggests that mothers in a work status situation that is consistent with their attitudes toward exclusive maternal care may experience greater satisfaction in the maternal role and an enhanced relationship with their infant.

Morgan (1981) found with her sample of 49 working and nonworking mothers of 6-year olds, that vocational satisfaction was significantly related to a woman's career orientation and commitment, number of children, and score on a nurturance measure administered during her first year of motherhood. Morgan also found a negative relationship
which almost reached significance for working mothers between financial need and vocational satisfaction. Morgan's findings suggest that a working woman who is interested and invested in her career and who perceives her home environment conducive to combining work and family roles is in a state of congruence. Consequently, she is able to derive satisfaction from working and motherhood.

Schwartz (1980) studied 10 full-time and 10 part-time middle and upper-middle-class married working mothers. She found few differences among the women in their orientation toward motherhood. All of the women accepted primary responsibility for their children, wanted to have more children, and enjoyed motherhood. Among the 20 subjects, all but one wanted to continue working. The greatest challenge confronting the subjects involved time conflicts. Full-time working mothers were found to experience significantly more difficulty than part-time working mothers in coping with work and family responsibilities. The full-time group generally felt that they spent too little time with their children. Schwartz found that work satisfaction was related to perceived financial and personal benefits, but most strongly affected by job flexibility. All but two of her subjects expressed a definite preference for part-time employment.

Perception of Husband's Feelings About Wife's Work Status

A woman's perception of her husband's feelings about her work status has not been specifically examined for its relationship to an employed mother's feelings about separation or her attitude toward
combining work and motherhood. However, the literature suggests that a wife's perception of her husband's feelings about her work status does influence her decisions to work (Weil, 1961; Wise and Carter, 1965; Farmer and Bohn, 1970; Ferrucci and Tang, 1978) or to remain at home, and it has been found to impact on marital relationships (Arnott, 1972; Gianopulus and Mitchell, 1965; Staines, Pleck, Shepard and O'Connor, 1978; Orden and Bradurn, 1969). Therefore, it is logical to suggest that an employed mother's perception of her husband's feelings about her work status may relate to her feelings associated with employment-related separation.

Spitze and Waite (1981) explored causal relationships between wives' attitudes and their perceptions of their husbands' attitudes toward working women and the relationship of these attitudes toward the wife's labor force participation. Using a national probability sample of 1069 married women from the National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Market Experiences of Young Women, the researchers found that in families with children two years old or younger, the wives were significantly less likely to perceive of their husbands as approving of their actual or potential labor force participation. In general, wives perceived their husbands' attitudes as subjectively related to family financial needs. Spitze and Waite concluded from their research that a wife's perception of her husband's attitude toward her working was related to the family situation, possibly reflecting the feasibility and necessity of her work in relation to the family financial need and the needs of the family (i.e., child care of young children).
Berkove's (1979) descriptive study of perceptions of husband's support of returning students examined wives' perceptions of their husband's attitudes toward nontraditional roles for women, emotional support through expressed approval and encouragement, financial support, and behavioral support/assistance with household tasks and child care. Although this research examined the impact of perceived support for wives returning to school and not to work, the findings have implications for employed mothers. In the sample of 361 married mothers returning to college, Berkove found that the women's perception of their husbands' support was of primary importance. Those subjects who perceived that their husband's attitudes towards women's roles were traditional had a greater desire to ensure that their returning to school would not inconvenience their husbands, and the women were very concerned about not neglecting their children. Berkove also found that when mothers attempt to manage traditional roles and return to school, perceived husbands' support is related to the stress they experience. Berkove concluded from the findings that women who reported feeling less stress associated with combining school and family responsibilities perceived their husbands to have liberal attitudes toward women's roles and abilities, and to be emotionally, financially, and behaviorally supportive. This research may suggest a relationship between stress and husband's perceived attitudes toward employment for working mothers.

Summary

Based on Spielberger's trait-state theory of anxiety, maternal separation anxiety is defined as a type of state anxiety. Varying
levels of maternal separation anxiety occur in response to differing
cognitive appraisals of the threatening nature of mother-child separa-
tions. Separations which are perceived as threatening to the child's
well-being or the mother's self-esteem trigger maternal separation
anxiety. This anxiety involves the tension, apprehension, worry, and
guilt the mother experiences and is an expression of the mother-child
attachment relationship. The concept also involves the mother's per-
ception of her child's response and the value she sees in separation as
a means of promoting the infant's independence and social development.
Maternal separation anxiety also involves the mother's separation-
related concerns associated with combining employment and motherhood.
Relatively stable characteristics such as investment in career and
investment in the maternal role may also be associated with maternal
separation anxiety, as may the mother's perception of her husband's
feeling about her work status and her preference for staying home or
returning to work.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The methodology for this research is presented in four sections. The first section provides a description of the sample. In the second section, the procedures are detailed, and in the third section the variables are defined and the measures and instruments described. The final section describes the analytic procedures used with the data.

Subjects

The subjects for this research were drawn from a population of 320 healthy primiparous mothers who delivered full term healthy infants in one of three hospitals in a large midwestern metropolitan area during March through June, 1982. In order to conduct this research all mothers who indicated in the maternity ward that they would return to full-time employment within 3 months (N=77) were considered for inclusion in the sample as the employed mothers. All mothers indicating that they would remain at home (N=75) for at least a year were considered as potential nonemployed mothers for this research. All of these 152 mothers were caucasian and married. All of the 77 employed mothers and all but one of the nonemployed mothers had completed at least 12 years of education. The 77 employed mothers were contacted within 1 week of their projected date to return to work and the nonemployed mothers were contacted around 3 months infant age to verify their work status and
interest in further participation in the research. When the employed mothers were contacted, the potential 77 subjects were reduced to 42 for inclusion in the study. Of the 35 employed mothers not used in the research, 12 had decided not to return to work, three returned to work sooner than they had planned and had been working at least 3 weeks when contacted (they were not eligible for the study since they could not be interviewed within the first 2 weeks after returning to work), seven had extended their maternity leave beyond 3 months, and two had returned to part-time employment. In addition, it was not possible to contact five of the mothers, one had moved out of the area, one lived beyond 60 miles from the University (thus, too far away), and four were not interested in participating. The number of nonemployed mothers was reduced from 75 to 36 since four of the mothers had returned to work, two had moved out of town, six could not be contacted, eight lived too far away, and 19 were not interested in participating. Therefore, the sample for this research consisted of 42 employed and 36 nonemployed mothers.

Twenty-seven of the employed and 21 of the nonemployed mothers delivered female babies. The 42 employed mothers returned to full time work outside the home within 3 months after their infant's birth (range 4 to 15 weeks, \( \bar{X} = 8.45 \) weeks). Analyses of variance revealed no significant differences between the employed and nonemployed groups for mother's age, mother's education, head of household SES, and total family income (see Table 1). The subjects had a mean age of 25.90 years (range 20-39 years) and had completed a mean of 14.44 years of education
TABLE 1
Demographic Characteristics
Employed and Nonemployed Mothers
N=78

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>( X )</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother's Age</td>
<td>25.90</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>20-39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother's Education</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>11-19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father's SES</td>
<td>45.40</td>
<td>19.79</td>
<td>17.52-88.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father's Income</td>
<td>$22,639.04</td>
<td>$15,126.92</td>
<td>0-$100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Family Income</td>
<td>$30,637.97</td>
<td>$16,433.27</td>
<td>$10,000-$100,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Socioeconomic status for the head of household (the husband) was determined using the Duncan Prestige Scale (Stevens & Featherman, 1980), a measure of occupational prestige. Although all SES levels were represented, the sample mean fell within the middle range ($\bar{X} = 45.40$; range $17.52 - 88.42$). The mean total family income for all subjects was $30,637.97 annually (range $10,000-$100,000).

Significant between group differences were found for husband’s income (see Table 2). Husbands of employed mothers earned significantly less than husbands of nonemployed mothers ($F(1,69) = 4.95 p < .05$). In the maternity ward, 20 of the employed mothers reported that, if given a choice between staying at home with their infants and returning to work, they would have preferred to stay home. Twenty-one of the employed mothers indicated a preference for returning to work, and one was undecided. Of the nonemployed mothers, 29 preferred to stay home, two would have preferred to return to work, and five mothers were undecided.

Within the employed group, ANOVA revealed significant group differences on mother’s SES, mother’s education and father’s income (see Table 3). Mothers preferring employment had significantly higher SES scores than employed mothers who would have preferred to have been at home ($F(1,39) = 7.44 p < .01$). Significant group educational difference were also found with women preferring to be employed more highly educated than those preferring to be at home ($F(1,41) = 7.53 p < .01$), and women preferring to be at home had husband’s with lower incomes ($F(1,36) = 7.11 p < .01$). Although the employed
TABLE 2
One-Way Analyses of Variance-Demographic Characteristics of Employed and Nonemployed Mothers
N=78

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother's Age:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Status</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother's Education:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Status</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head of Household SES:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Status</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>397.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father's Income:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Status</td>
<td>1</td>
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</table>

* p < .05

TABLE 3
One-Way Analyses of Variance-Demographic Characteristics of Employed Mothers by Home/Employment Preference
N=42

<table>
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<th>Source of Variance</th>
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<td>Error</td>
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<td>62631753.09</td>
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</table>

* p < .01
mothers reported various reasons for working. 78.15 percent indicated that they were working, at least in part, for financial reasons. Social reasons (i.e., "I missed the people at work," "I like being with adults") were reported by 69.05 percent and 61.91 percent of the employed mothers indicated that work added interest and variety to their lives (i.e., "I'd go crazy at home," "I'd be bored if I stayed home"). Fifty percent of the employed mothers indicated that they received a sense of mastery and achievement from their work ("I like the challenge of my job." "I like learning new things at work"), and 9.52 percent were working for recognition and dominance ("I like the responsibility"). Only 4.72 percent reported working because it gave them a sense of independence ("I like being able to contribute my share [financial] to my family").

Slightly more than half (51.22%) of the employed mothers believed that their husbands would have preferred that they were at home rather than working, and 42.86 percent of the employed subjects had themselves been children of working mothers. The mean number of hours that the employed mothers' infants were in nonparental child care per week was 37.63 (range 0-50 hours), and the majority (69.05%) of the infants were being cared for by a babysitter in the babysitter's home. Relatives, including the infant's father, cared for 26.19 percent of the infants, and in 4.76 percent of the cases, a babysitter came to the infant's home. None of the infants were receiving care in day care centers.
Procedure

Sample selection was conducted from March through June, 1982. The nursing staff at each hospital provided the researcher with daily lists of healthy primiparous mothers who had delivered full-term healthy babies. Within 48 hours after the infants' births, the researcher contacted all possible subjects, explained the research, described the subject's participation and obtained written consent from the subjects. The research was described as an investigation of working and nonworking mothers' feelings about motherhood. Demographic information was then obtained using the New Mother's Fact Sheet (see Appendix D), which the subject completed, and the Maternity Ward Interview, Part I (see Appendix E). Following the demographic interview, the subject's maternal role investment was assessed using the Maternity Ward Interview, Part II (see Appendix F). After the interviews, directions for completing the Parent Questionnaire, Part I (the Maternal Separation Anxiety Scale, MSAS, see Appendix A), the Parent Questionnaire, Part II (the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale, see Appendix B), and the Attitudes About Work Scale (the Career Salience Questionnaire, see Appendix C) were explained to the subject. The subjects were instructed to independently complete the questionnaires, responding to all items. The researcher then thanked the subjects for participating in the research and left the questionnaires. On the following day, the researcher returned to the hospital to collect the questionnaires. The subjects were then reminded that they would be contacted by mail in the next two months to complete additional questionnaires. The women who intended to return to full-time employment during the first 3 months were
reminded that they would be interviewed in their homes shortly after their return to work. The maternity ward procedure took approximately 20 minutes per subject.

The primary researcher and three research assistants participated in the maternity ward procedure. Prior to data collection, each researcher was trained in the procedure and interrater reliability for the maternal role investment instrument was established. The primary researcher worked independently with each of the research assistants. The training sessions and interrater reliability procedures consisted of a four phase process. During the first training phase, the research team met and discussed, in-depth, the conceptual interpretation of maternal role investment. In the second phase, the team participated in role playing sessions, conducting the maternal role investment (MRI) interview, in which they alternated as "interviewer" and "new mother." Each mock interview was discussed and each set of responses was rated independently by the researchers on the 9-point MRI scale. Discrepancies in interpretation of responses were discussed to increase the researchers' mutual understanding and sensitivity to the concept of maternal role investment. Approximately four mock interviews were conducted with each trainee. During the third phase, the research team piloted the interview procedure in the maternity ward. Initially, the trainee accompanied the primary researcher and observed the procedure. Together the team discussed and then independently rated the maternity ward patient's responses to the MRI interview. When the trainee felt comfortable with the procedure, she then assumed responsibility as the interviewer, and the primary researcher became the observer.
Again responses to the MRI were discussed and rated. Phase four of the training consisted of the researchers alternating roles and individually scoring the MRI without discussing the content of the subjects responses. If discrepancies in these ratings occurred, they were discussed to clarify points of disagreement. Final interrater reliability was established with 12 pilot cases for each trainee.

At seven weeks infant age the nonemployed mothers were readministered the Parent Questionnaire, Part I and Part II, and the Attitudes About Work Scale. The decision to readminister the questionnaires at seven weeks was made so that it would coincide with the time just prior to the time when the majority of the employed mothers was returning to work. They were instructed to complete and return the questionnaires within one week. The subjects who intended to return to full-time employment during the 6th week after the birth of their infants were sent the questionnaires at 5 weeks infant age so that they could complete the questionnaires before actually separating from their infants to return to work. All other employed mothers received the mailing at 7 weeks infant age. Approximately 1-2 weeks before the employed subjects projected return to work date, they were contacted by phone and arrangements for the home interview were made. Each interview was confirmed either the day before or the day of the interview. (Confirming the interview was crucial since many of the subjects had forgotten about arranging the visit and then needed to reschedule it.) The subjects were interviewed shortly after returning to full-time employment; 23 subjects were interviewed within the first week, 11 within the
second week, 5 within the third week, and 3 within the fourth week ($\bar{x} = 1.71$ weeks).

The home interviews were conducted with the researcher and the subject in the subject's home and generally lasted 45 minutes to an hour. The interview combined 5 semi-structured interview rating scales with additional demographic questions. All interviews were tape recorded. Written records of the interviews were also taken. Ratings on the scales were made following the entire interview.

Training in the use of the scales and interrater reliability for the Home Interview rating scales was established using a technique similar to the procedure used for establishing interrater reliability for Maternal Role Investment Scale. The primary researcher and two research assistants participated in the training and interrater reliability procedure. After discussing the meaning of the interview scales and ratings, the researchers listened to a tape of an actual interview. All three researchers made written records of the responses to the tape. After listening to the tape, the written records were compared to assess the extent to which the three researchers identified and recorded similar data on which to rate the subject. Discussion of the responses relative to the rating scales followed, and each researcher individually rated the tape subject on all scales. Discrepancies in ratings were discussed in order to clarify differences in interpretation. The three researchers then proceeded to independently rate 12 additional subjects on the rating scales using written protocols of the interviews. Twelve responses to each rating scale were made sequentially by the
individual researchers, and discussion followed each rating (i.e., all 12 responses to rating scale 1 were completed and then 12 responses to rating scale 2, etc.) in order to clarify discrepancies in ratings.

**Measures and Instruments**

The variables under investigation in this research were defined and measured as follows:

**Maternal Separation Anxiety**

This variable refers to a mother's concern or worry associated with routine short-term mother-child separations. It involves the extent to which she feels apprehensive, fearful, and nervous about her child's well-being during mother-child separations. It also includes the degree to which a mother misses her child's physical and emotional closeness and the intimacy of the mother-child relationship during separations. In addition, maternal separation anxiety involves the nature of the mother's beliefs about separation promoting a child's independence and sociability and her employment-related separation concerns.

This variable was measured using the Maternal Separation Anxiety Scale (MSAS) developed by Hock, Gnezda, and McBride (1983). It was also measured using the Home Visit Interview Schedule. The MSAS is a 35-item, 3-factor self-administered paper-pencil questionnaire. The items are arranged as a 5-point Likert scale with response categories ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The factors are defined as follows:
Factor I—Maternal Separation Anxiety

This factor consists of 21 items and represents the presence of worry, sadness and guilt surrounding a separation event. It also includes the extent to which a mother perceives that her child needs exclusive maternal care, and refers to the mother's beliefs about her child's ability to adapt to nonmaternal care.

Factor II—Separation Promotes Independence and Sociability

This factor represents the mother's interpretation of separation experiences as contributing to the child's independence and sociability. It consists of 7 items and involves maternal beliefs that mother-child separations are important for a child's social development and encourage autonomous behavior regardless of any distress or difficulty experienced by the child during separations. It reflects the belief that a child needs experiences with other adults and children away from his/her mother in order to develop social skills, to become aware of and to cope effectively with unfamiliar people, diverse values and new experiences.

Factor III—Employment-Related Separation Concerns

This factor reflects a mother's feelings and attitudes toward work and motherhood. It reflects her primary orientation either toward motherhood or work, and reveals personal conflicts as she separates from her child and integrates employment and mothering roles and responsibilities.

Scores on the factors were generated by summing the items on each factor. Factor I was then divided by three so that the range of responses for all 3 factors would be comparable and range from
7-35 as well. The higher the mother's score, the higher her separation anxiety. The coefficient alphas were found to be .90 for Factor I, .77 for Factor II, .71 for Factor III, and .89 for the total MSAS (Hock, Gnezda, and McBride, 1983).

Maternal Separation Anxiety was also measured using the Home Visit Interview. This instrument is a semi-structured interview schedule that incorporates and modifies five of Hock's (1976) interview-based 9-point rating scales. Interrater reliability was established using Cronbach's Alpha. The majority of the questions on the interview schedule are designed and organized in order to validate the MSAS. (The remaining questions measure maternal role investment.) Maternal separation anxiety (Factor I of the MSAS) was measured using Hock's Separation Stress (A = ranged .97 to .98) Perception of Child's Distress at Separation (A = .99), and Attitude Toward Nonmaternal Care (A = ranged .94 to .97) rating scales. Scores on each of these scales were summed and then divided by three in order to obtain the total interview-based Factor I score. Mothers' beliefs about separation promoting independence and sociability (MSAS Factor II) was measured using a newly generated semi-structured interview that was rated on a 9-point scale (A = .99). Employment-rated separation concerns (MSAS Factor III) was assessed using an elaboration of Hock's (1976) and Morgan's (1981) Career Orientation rating scale (A = .99). A total interview-based maternal separation anxiety score was generated by summing the scores from the three interview-based factors and dividing by three.
Maternal Role Investment

This variable measures the importance a woman places on motherhood as a source of personal fulfillment. It reflects her level of commitment to motherhood as her primary responsibility in life and assesses the priority that motherhood assumes in her self-concept.

This variable was measured using a modification of Hock's (1976) 9-point Investment in Maternal Role rating scale. Ratings were based on semi-structures interview questions. This variable was measured during the maternity ward interview and also incorporated into the Home Visit Interview schedule. Interrater reliability ranged from .81 to .98.

Career Investment

Career investment refers to the importance a person places on a career for personal fulfillment and reflects the degree of commitment to and satisfaction derived from planning and pursuing a career. Degree of career investment also reflects the priority a woman places on her career within the context of her life experiences.

Career investment was measured using Greenhaus' (1971) Career Salience Questionnaire. This instrument is a self-administered, paper-pencil, 28-item scale. Twenty-seven of the items use a 5-point Likert format and are designed to tap three broad areas: general attitude about work, the relative importance of work, and the degree of relevant vocational thought and planning. (The twenty-eighth item, which is a ranking of life priorities concerning family, career, religion, leisure, local community activity, and activity in national politics was not used in this study.) The career salience score is obtained by an unweighted
summation of the responses (range = 27-140). High scores reflect high career salience. Greenhaus (1971) reports the coefficient alpha of the scale to be .81 for both females and males.

**Husband's Feelings About Wife's Work Status**

This variable refers to the employed subject's perception of her husband's preference for her to stay at home with the infant versus her husband feeling comfortable with her working outside the home. During the home visit interview, the subjects were asked, "How does your husband feel about you working?" Responses were coded, "would prefer wife at home" or "does not object to wife working."

**Home/Employment Preference**

This variable refers to the subjects desired employment status and indicates whether, if given a choice, she would prefer to stay at home or return to full-time employment outside the home. Home/employment preference was assessed for all subjects in the maternity ward. Subjects were asked, "If you could choose between staying at home or returning to work, which would you choose?"

**Reasons for Working**

Based on Eyde's (1962) conceptualization of motivations toward work, this variable measures the employed mother's current reasons for working outside the home. During the home visit interview the mothers were asked, "What are the main reasons that you are working." The responses were classified based on their similarity to Eyde's categories (interest/vary, financial, social, recognition/dominance, achievement motivation). All reasons given were considered of equal importance and
were coded (i.e., if a woman reported that she was working to help pay the mortgage on her house and because she would be bored if she stayed at home, both responses were coded). This variable was used for descriptive purposes only.

**Trait Anxiety**

Trait anxiety is considered a relatively stable characteristic which indicates the individual's proneness toward experiencing heightened levels of anxiety as a response to a variety of stressful situations (Spielberger, 1972). This variable was measured using the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (Taylor, 1951, 1953), a subscale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. The MAS is a 50 item self-administered questionnaire. Items consist of statements concerning overt responses to anxiety (i.e., blushing) feeling states associate with anxiety (i.e., headaches), sensitivity to reaction of others, strength of self-confidence, and feelings of uselessness and unhappiness (Graham, 1977) in a true/false response format. Reliability was established at .92 using split-half reliability coefficient by Hilgard, Jones and Kaplan (1951), and at .89, .82, and .81 by Taylor (1953) using test-retest reliability coefficients. The MAS is scored by summing the designated responses. Higher summed scores indicate higher levels of trait anxiety.

**Data Analysis**

Analyses of variance were used to investigate group differences on the instruments and demographic variables between employed and non-employed mothers, and to examine group differences in the employed
group between employed mothers who would have preferred to be at home and employed mothers who wanted to be working. Repeated measures analyses were performed on variables that were measured more than once with time as the within factor and group as the between factor. Because of the small sample size, it was not possible to investigate these group differences using multiple analyses of variance techniques. For stable, significant results that would be interpretable, a sample size of 20 subjects per variable would have been necessary. As an alternative, separate one-way analyses of variance were computed. It is necessary to acknowledge the limitations of using several ANOVA's for this data analysis. Such a procedure assumes the independence of the measures and thus does not adequately account for multicollinearity of the variables. Furthermore, because of the number of ANOVA's that were performed, it is likely that some of the significant group differences may have occurred by chance. However, this approach provided a more appropriate method of analyzing the data than a MANOVA. Additional analyses of relationships between the variables were conducted using correlational techniques. Multiple regression was used to investigate interactive effects of work status and home/employment preference on the relationships between the variables and to control for covariate effects.

The results of this research are organized and reported under the appropriate objectives and corresponding research questions.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The findings of this research will be reported in three distinct sections corresponding to the three research objectives. The first section presents results based on comparisons of work status differences between the employed and nonemployed mothers. The second section reports the results of analyses of within group differences of the employed group on the variables based on home/employment preference at the time the mothers return to work. The third section will report findings on the validity of the two measures of maternal separation anxiety. In all sections the results are presented following the appropriate research questions.

Section I - Comparisons of the Employed and Nonemployed Mothers

OBJECTIVE: To investigate maternal separation anxiety as expressed by employed and nonemployed mothers of infants as it relates to maternal role investment, career investment, and trait anxiety, at the time of their infants' births and 5-7 weeks later.

1. Do employed and nonemployed mothers express different levels of maternal separation anxiety, and do these differences remain stable from the time of the infant's birth to 5-7 weeks later?

In order to determine whether or not employed and nonemployed mothers of infants differ in the extent to which they express maternal separation anxiety, four one-way ANOVA'S with repeated measures were performed with work status as the grouping factor and MSAS Factor I,
MSAS Factor II, MSAS Factor III, and the total MSAS scores at T1 (maternity ward) and T2 (5-7 weeks infant age) as dependent variables (see Table 4). Significant main effects were found for MSAS Factor I \((F(1,71) = 14.85\, p < .001)\) and the total MSAS \((F(1,71) = 5.73\, p < .05)\). Nonsignificant main effects for Factor II and Factor III were found. No significant time and no significant interaction effects were found for either Factor I, Factor II, Factor III or the Total MSAS.

Examination of the group means (see Table 5) revealed that the employed mothers expressed significantly less worry, sadness and guilt surrounding mother-infant separations than did nonemployed mothers.

As mentioned previously, father's income was the only demographic variable on which the employed and nonemployed groups differed (see Table 2). To examine the effect of father's income on the MSAS findings, father's income and work status were entered into separate regressions with each MSAS factor and the total. In each regression analysis, the coefficient for father's income was nonsignificant, suggesting that father's income did not significantly influence the work status differences found on the MSAS.

2. Do employed and nonemployed mothers express different levels of trait anxiety, and do these differences remain stable from the time of the infant's birth to 5-7 weeks later?

Group differences on trait anxiety were explored with a one way ANOVA with repeated measures performed with T1 and T2 Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scores (see Table 6). No significant main effects, no time effects, and no interaction effects were found. These findings suggest that at the time of their infants' births, mothers who planned to return
<table>
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<th>F Ratio</th>
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</table>

* p ≤ .05
** p ≤ .001
TABLE 5
Descriptive Comparison of Employed and Nonemployed Mothers’
Responses at $T_1$ and $T_2$

$N=78$

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<td>20.43</td>
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<td>3.04</td>
<td>12-27</td>
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<td>15-25</td>
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<td>13.60</td>
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<td>1-33</td>
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<td>$T_2$</td>
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<td>$T_1$</td>
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<td>$T_2$</td>
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<td>1.45</td>
<td>3-9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Career Investment:</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>$T_1$</td>
<td>76.38</td>
<td>11.42</td>
<td>56-107</td>
<td>75.23</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>51-96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_2$</td>
<td>76.39</td>
<td>12.70</td>
<td>56-100</td>
<td>75.58</td>
<td>7.55</td>
<td>56-91</td>
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### TABLE 6
Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance—Trait Anxiety and Career Investment
Work Status Analyses
N=78

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of Variance</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Trait Anxiety:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Status</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>53.65</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
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<td>115.03</td>
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<tr>
<td>Time</td>
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<td>18.29</td>
<td>1.53</td>
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<td>Work Status X Time</td>
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<td>1.07</td>
<td>.09</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>11.96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Career Investment:</strong></td>
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</tr>
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<td>Work Status</td>
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<td>Error</td>
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<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.99</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Status X Time</td>
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<td>.31</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error</td>
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<td>20.71</td>
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</table>

(no significant F Ratios)

### TABLE 7
One-Way Analysis of Variance—Maternal Role Investment
Work Status Analysis
N=78

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td><strong>Maternal Role Investment:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Status</td>
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<td>4.33*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>3.41</td>
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</table>

* p < .05
to work by 12 weeks infant age and those intending to remain at home with their infants for at least a year, reported similar levels of trait anxiety. Neither group was more prone than the other to higher levels of general anxiety. Furthermore, at 5-7 weeks the employed and non-employed mothers again expressed similar levels of trait anxiety, and that level did not differ significantly from the anxiety they had expressed in the maternity ward.

3. Do employed and nonemployed mothers of infants differ in their investment in the maternal role at the time of their infants' births?

To explore differences in maternal role investment between employed and nonemployed mothers, a one-way ANOVA was performed on the $T_1$ maternal role investment ratings (see Table 7). The results revealed a significant group difference ($F(1,77) = 4.33 p < .05$). Examination of the means (see Table 5) revealed that nonemployed mothers expressed greater investment in the maternal role than did employed mothers. The covariate, father's income, was regressed with work status and maternal role investment. Father's income produced a nonsignificant regression coefficient.

4. Do employed and nonemployed mothers differ with respect to their career investment, and are these differences stable from the time of their infants' births to 5-7 weeks later?

A one-way ANOVA with repeated measures was performed on the $T_1$ and $T_2$ career investment data for the employed and nonemployed mothers (see Table 6). No significant main effects, no significant time, and no significant interaction effects were found. These findings suggest that the employed and nonemployed mothers expressed similar and stable levels of interest in a career.
5. What is the relationship between trait anxiety and maternal separation anxiety in employed and nonemployed mothers at the time of their infants' births and 5-7 weeks later?

Correlations between trait anxiety and maternal separation anxiety were examined separately at T₁ and T₂ for both the employed and the nonemployed mothers. At T₁ for the nonemployed mothers (see Table 8), significant moderate correlations were found between Factor II and trait anxiety \((r = .44, p < .01)\) and the Total MSAS and trait anxiety \((r = .41, p < .01)\). The relationship between Factor III and trait anxiety was low and approached significance \((r = .32, p < .06)\). The correlation between Factor I and trait anxiety was nonsignificant. For the employed mothers at T₁, none of the correlations between MSAS scores and trait anxiety were significant (see Table 9). However, Factor II and the total MSAS produced low positive correlations with trait anxiety and although they were nonsignificant, they represented a trend of association. (Factor II and trait anxiety \(r = .26, p < .10\), MSAS and trait anxiety \(r = .26, p < .11\).) When the interaction between work status and T₁ MSAS factor and total scores were regressed separately with T₁ trait anxiety scores, nonsignificant regression coefficients resulted. Interactions between home/employment preferences and the MSAS factors and total scores were also regressed with T₁ Manifest Anxiety Scores for the employed group. Nonsignificant regression coefficients resulted.

At T₂, the correlations for both employed and nonemployed groups had changed. For the nonemployed group (see Table 10), none of the correlations between the MSAS factors or the total score and trait anxiety were significant. For the employed mothers (see Table 11) at T₂, high correlations between trait anxiety and Factor II \((r = .57\)
### TABLE 8

**Correlations Between Variables at T₁**

*Nonemployed Mothers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F₁</th>
<th>F₂</th>
<th>F₃</th>
<th>Tot</th>
<th>TA</th>
<th>MRI</th>
<th>CI</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Factor I (F₁)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor III (F₃)</td>
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<td>.46*</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total HSAS (Tot)</td>
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<td>.74***</td>
<td>.78***</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trait Anxiety (TA)</td>
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<td>.44**</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td></td>
<td>.41*</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Maternal Role Investment (MRI)</td>
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<td>.09</td>
<td>.12</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Career Investment (CI)</td>
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<td>-.23</td>
<td>-.24</td>
<td>-.44*</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>-.03</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05  
** p < .01  
*** p < .001

### TABLE 9

**Correlations between Variables at T₁**

*Employed Mothers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F₁</th>
<th>F₂</th>
<th>F₃</th>
<th>Tot</th>
<th>TA</th>
<th>MRI</th>
<th>CS</th>
<th>H/E</th>
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<td>Factor III (F₃)</td>
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<td>Total HSAS (Tot)</td>
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<td>.63***</td>
<td>.62***</td>
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<td>Trait Anxiety (TA)</td>
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<td>.27</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.26</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maternal Role Investment (MRI)</td>
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<td>.36*</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>.32*</td>
<td>.02</td>
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<td>Career Investment (CI)</td>
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<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.29</td>
<td>-.64***</td>
<td>-.06</td>
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<td>Home/Employment Preference (H/E) (1=Employment 2=Home)</td>
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<td>.27</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.36*</td>
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* p < .05  
** p < .01  
*** p < .0001
### TABLE 10

Correlations Between Variables at T₂
Nonemployed Mothers

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<th>F₁</th>
<th>F₂</th>
<th>F₃</th>
<th>Tot</th>
<th>TA</th>
<th>MRI</th>
<th>Cl</th>
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<td>Factor III (F₃)</td>
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<td>.73**</td>
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<td>.03</td>
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<td>Trait Anxiety (TA)</td>
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<td>.33*</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.32*</td>
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<td>.23</td>
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<td>.05</td>
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* p ≤ .05
** p ≤ .001

### TABLE 11

Correlations Between the MSAS and Other Variables at T₂
Employed Mothers

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<th>F₁</th>
<th>F₂</th>
<th>F₃</th>
<th>Tot</th>
<th>TA</th>
<th>MRI</th>
<th>Cl</th>
<th>H/E</th>
<th>HF</th>
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<td>Total MSAS (Tot)</td>
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<td>.57***</td>
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<td>Maternal Role Investment (MRI)</td>
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<td>Career Investment (Cl)</td>
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<td>(1=Employment 2=Home)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Husband’s Feelings (HF)</td>
<td>.34*</td>
<td>.33*</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.35*</td>
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<tr>
<td>(1=prefer her home 2=work ok)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p ≤ .05
** p ≤ .01
*** p ≤ .001
**** p ≤ .0001
p < .0001) and trait anxiety and the total MSAS (r = .46, p < .01) were found to be significant. The correlation between trait anxiety and Factor I was low, and it showed a trend toward significant (r = .29, p < .10). A nonsignificant correlation was found between trait anxiety and Factor III. Although the magnitudes of the relationships were less, the interview-based maternal separation anxiety measures repeated the same pattern as the MSAS with trait anxiety (see Table 12). Significant correlations were found between trait anxiety and interview-based Factor II (r = .38, p < .05) and between trait anxiety and the interview-based total maternal separation anxiety rating (r = .34, p < .05).

At T2, the interaction between work status, each of the three MSAS factors and the total MSAS were entered into separate regressions with the trait anxiety measure. A significant work status by total MSAS regression coefficient at the .05 alpha level was found. The interaction between work status and Factor II approached significance (T = 1.94, p < .06), and the other interactions were nonsignificant. For the employed group at T2, interactions between home/employment preference and the interview-based factors and total were regressed in separate regressions with the trait anxiety measures. None of these interaction terms produced a significant regression coefficient.

These findings suggest the significant relationship found between trait anxiety and maternal separation anxiety does not reliably differ between employed and nonemployed mothers at the time their babies are born. However, a work status difference associated with the relationship of trait anxiety and maternal separation anxiety was found at 5-7
weeks infant age. (It is important to note that this approximates the
time just prior to the time when the employed mothers were returning to
work.) At this time, the relationship between trait anxiety and
maternal separation anxiety in nonemployed mothers is no longer signifi-
cant, but for employed mothers, the relationship is strong and signifi-
cant. Therefore, as employed mothers prepare to reenter the labor force,
those who are prone to greater levels of trait anxiety will also be
likely to experience higher levels of general maternal separation
anxiety and maternal separation anxiety as it relates to separation
promoting infant independence and sociability.

6. What is the relationship between maternal role investment and
maternal separation anxiety at the time of the infant's birth in
employed and nonemployed mothers?

Correlations were computed separately between the three MSAS factors,
the total MSAS scores, and maternal role investment scores for the nonem-
ployed and employed groups. For the nonemployed group (see Table 8) non-
significant correlations were found for maternal role investment with
each of the three factors and the total T₁ MSAS. Different relationships
emerged for the employed group (see Table 9). Significant moderate rela-
tionships between maternal role investment and Factor I (r = .37, p < .06),
maternal role investment and Factor II (r = .36, p < .05) and maternal role
investment and the total MSAS T₁ scores (r = .32, p < .05) were found. A non-
significant correlation was found for maternal role investment and Factor
III. To test the significance of group differences with respect to the
correlations, interactions between work status and each MSAS factor, and
work status and the total MSAS were entered into separate regressions
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<th>IntF₁</th>
<th>IntF₂</th>
<th>IntF₃</th>
<th>Int Tot</th>
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<th>MRI</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>H/E</th>
<th>HF</th>
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<td>Trait Anxiety (TA)</td>
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<td>.34*</td>
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<td>.10</td>
<td>.18</td>
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<tr>
<td>Career Investment (CI)</td>
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<td>-.38*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Home/Employment Preference (H/E) (1=Employment 2=Home)</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.08</td>
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<td>.16</td>
<td>.37*</td>
<td>.34*</td>
<td>-.39*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Husband's Feelings (HF)</td>
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<td>-.24</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.24</td>
<td>-.30</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>-.35*</td>
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<tr>
<td>(1=prefers her home 2=work ok)</td>
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</table>

*a p < .05
**a p < .01
***a p < .0001
with maternal role investment. Despite the work status differences in
the correlations, none of the interactions were significant. This suggests
that the differences between the groups on the correlations between
maternal role investment and the maternal separation anxiety measures
was not a reliable difference between employed and nonemployed mothers
at T<sub>1</sub>. Therefore, in order to understand the relationship between
maternal role investment and maternal separation anxiety in the maternity
ward, correlations were computed with the whole sample (N=78). Signifi-
cant correlations were found between Factor I and maternal role invest-
ment, (r = .35, p < .01), Factor II and maternal role investment (r = .26,
p < .05), and the total MSAS and maternal role investment (r = .26,
p < .05) (see Table 13).

To further interpret the relationships found between separation
anxiety and maternal role investment for the employed mothers, the
significance of the interaction of the home/employment preference vari-
able and Factors I, II, III and the total MSAS were examined. The inter-
action terms revealed nonsignificant regression coefficients. These
findings suggest that home/employment preference does not significantly
effect the relationship between maternal role investment and maternal
separation anxiety in employed mothers at T<sub>1</sub>.

These findings suggest that at the time of a baby's birth maternal
role investment and maternal separation anxiety are positively related.
Mothers who express higher levels of maternal role investment are more
likely to express higher levels of general maternal separation anxiety
and separation anxiety related to separation promoting independence and
sociability.
**TABLE 13**

Correlations Between the MSAS and Maternal Role Investment

All Subjects at $T_1$

$N=78$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$F_1$</th>
<th>$F_2$</th>
<th>$F_3$</th>
<th>Tot</th>
<th>MRI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor I ($F_1$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor II ($F_2$)</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor III ($F_3$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.27*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total MSAS (Tot)</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.65**</td>
<td>.66***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal Role</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.26*</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment (MRI)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .0001$
7. What is the relationship between career investment and maternal separation anxiety in employed and nonemployed mothers at the time of their infants' birth and 5-7 weeks later?

Correlations were calculated between scores on the career investment measure and all three factors and the total MSAS $T_1$ scores for the non-employed and the employed groups. For the nonemployed group (see Table 8) significant moderate negative correlations were found between career investment and Factor I ($r = -.47$, $p < .01$), and career investment and the total MSAS ($r = -.47$, $p < .01$). Nonsignificant correlations were found for career investment and the other two factors. For the employed group (see Table 9) significant high negative correlations were found between career investment and Factor I ($r = -.82$, $p < .0001$) and career investment and the total MSAS ($r = -.64$, $p < .0001$). Although nonsignificant correlations were found for career investment and Factors II and III at $T_1$, the negative correlation between career investment and Factor II approached significance ($r = -.29$, $p < .06$). Regression analyses conducted with the interaction terms of work status by each MSAS factor and the total revealed nonsignificant regression coefficients with $T_1$ career investment. Therefore, the differences in the magnitudes of the correlation coefficients for employed and nonemployed mothers relative to the relationship between career investment and maternal separation anxiety as measured in the maternity ward, was not an indication of a reliable group difference. Therefore, for all the mothers, those who reported greater investment in a career were more likely to report lower levels of overall maternal separation anxiety.
In order to investigate the relationship of career investment and maternal separation anxiety at 5-7 weeks infant age, correlations were computed between these variables for the employed and nonemployed groups. It is important to note that 5-7 weeks approximates the time at which the employed mothers were preparing to return to outside employment. Correlations for the nonemployed mothers with career investment on each of the three factors and total MSAS at T₂ revealed nonsignificant correlations (see Table 10). However, the correlations for the employed group demonstrated a different pattern (see Table 11). For the employed mothers high significant negative correlations were found for career investment and Factor I \((r = -.77, p < .0001)\) and career investment and the total MSAS \((r = -.67, p < .0001)\). A significant moderate negative correlation was found between career investment and Factor III \((r = -.34, p < .05)\). A nonsignificant correlation was found between career investment and Factor II. Regression analyses revealed significant interactions between work status and Factor I \((T = -2.41, p < .02)\), and work status and the total MSAS \((T = -2.43 p < .05)\) at T₂. For the employed group, career investment was regressed on the interaction of home/employment preference and the MSAS scores. The interactions of home/employment preference were not significant with any of the three factors nor the total MSAS.

For the employed mothers, maternal separation anxiety was also measured using the interview-based rating scales during the home interview (see Table 12). Correlations between the interview-based ratings and the career investment measure revealed significant moderate correlations between interview-based Factor I and career investment.
(r = -0.33, p < .05), the interview-based Factor III and career investment (r = -0.38, p < .05) and the interview-based total and career investment (r = -0.37, p < .05). A nonsignificant correlation was found between the interview-based Factor II scores and career investment. Regression analyses revealed nonsignificant regression coefficients for home/employment preference and the correlates.

These findings suggest that the relationship of career investment and maternal separation anxiety differs from employed and nonemployed mothers (except for separation anxiety as it relates to promoting infant independence and sociability) at 5-7 weeks infant age. For nonemployed mothers, career investment does not reliably relate to maternal separation anxiety. However, when maternal separation anxiety is measured with employed mothers using both the MSAS and interview-based ratings, at the time they return to work, mothers who report greater investment in a career are likely to report lower levels of general separation anxiety, and separation anxiety as it relates to combining motherhood and employment. Furthermore, among working mothers, home/employment preference does not have a significant interactive effect on these relationships.

8. At the time of their infant's birth, what is the relationship between maternal role investment and career investment in employed and nonemployed mothers?

Correlations were derived between maternal role investment and career investment for each of the groups. Nonsignificant correlations were found between these two variables for the nonemployed (see Table 8) and employed groups (see Table 9). These findings suggest that maternal role investment and career investment are not reliably related in mothers
of infants regardless of their work status, at the time of their infant's birth.

Section II - Differences between the Employed Mothers Based on Home/Employment Preference

OBJECTIVE: To explore differences in maternal separation anxiety as expressed by employed mothers in the maternity ward and at the time they return to work with particular emphasis on the mother's preference to remain at home or her preference to return to work.

1. Do employed mothers who would prefer to be at home and employed mothers who prefer to be working express different levels of maternal separation anxiety in the maternity ward and at the time they return to work?

Because the employed mothers consisted of two sub-groups (those preferring to stay home, and those preferring employment), separate one-way ANOVA's with repeated measures were performed on the MSAS factors and totals with $T_1$ and $T_2$ data. The ANOVA's revealed significant group differences (see Table 14) on Factor I ($F(1,35) = 18.76 p < .0001$), Factor II ($F(1,35) = 4.43 p < .05$), and the total MSAS ($F(1,35) = 12.69 p < .001$). No significant time and no significant interaction effects were found for Factors I and II or the total MSAS. Examination of the means revealed that the mothers preferring to be employed were less anxious than the mothers who would have preferred to be at home (see Table 15). No significant main and no significant time effects were found on Factor III. A time by home/employment preference effect on Factor III approached significance. This finding suggests that employed mothers preferring to be at home express increasing levels of separation anxiety related to balancing maternal and employment responsibilities, and employed mothers who prefer to work have decreasing
TABLE 14  
Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance Maternal Separation Anxiety Scale  
Home/Employment Preference Analyses  
N=42  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>617.13</td>
<td>18.76***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
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<td>32.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
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<td>2.29</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
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<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>4.43**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Error</td>
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<td>2.17</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Factor III MSAS:</strong></td>
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<td>.03</td>
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<td>Time</td>
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<td>.21</td>
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<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
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<td>1.14</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* p ≤ .08  
** p ≤ .05  
*** p ≤ .001  
**** p ≤ .0001
TABLE 15
Employed Mothers' $\bar{X}$'s on Variables at $T_1$ and $T_2$
N=42

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>All Employed Mothers N=42</th>
<th>Home Preference N=20</th>
<th>Employment Preference N=21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\bar{X}$</td>
<td>$\bar{X}$</td>
<td>$\bar{X}$</td>
</tr>
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<td>MSAS:</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>25.17</td>
<td>19.74</td>
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<td>Factor II $T_1$</td>
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<td>22.06</td>
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<tr>
<td>Factor II $T_2$</td>
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<td>22.33</td>
<td>19.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor III $T_1$</td>
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<td>13.44</td>
<td>13.89</td>
</tr>
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<td>13.68</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total $T_1$</td>
<td>19.21</td>
<td>20.33</td>
<td>17.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total $T_2$</td>
<td>19.11</td>
<td>20.67</td>
<td>17.63</td>
</tr>
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<td>Trait Anxiety:</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_1$</td>
<td>14.14</td>
<td>17.35</td>
<td>12.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_2$</td>
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<td>18.06</td>
<td>11.32</td>
</tr>
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<td>Maternal Role Investment:</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>$T_1$</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>6.95</td>
<td>5.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_2$</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Investment:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_1$</td>
<td>76.38</td>
<td>71.61</td>
<td>80.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_2$</td>
<td>76.39</td>
<td>71.33</td>
<td>81.26</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
separation anxiety related to Factor III from $T_1$ to $T_2$ (see Table 14).

Since these two employed groups were found to differ significantly on mother's education, mother's SES, and father's income, the MSAS was regressed on these covariates with home/employment preference. Nonsignificant covariate effects were found with Factor I and with the MSAS total at both $T_1$ and $T_2$. A significant regression coefficient was found only for mother's education when it was regressed with Factor II at $T_1$ ($T = -2.05, p < .05$). A significant covariate effect for mother's SES was found at $T_2$ with Factor III ($T = -2.25, p < .05$). These findings suggest that the employed mothers differed significantly in their reported separation anxiety associated with separations promoting infant independence and sociability and that this difference was related to the mother's educational level, not her home/employment preference per se. The negative regression coefficient suggests that mothers with less education expressed greater maternal separation anxiety related to Factor II than did those who had more education. The findings also suggest that mothers with lower SES experience greater separation anxiety associated with balancing motherhood and employment at the time they return to work.

Since at $T_2$ maternal separation anxiety was also measured with the employed mothers using the home visit interview, the three interview-based factors and the interview-based maternal separation anxiety total were analyzed in separate one-way ANOVA's for within group differences based on home/employment preference. No significant main, time or interaction effects were found.
2. Do employed mothers who would prefer to be at home and employed mothers who prefer to be working express different levels of trait anxiety in the maternity ward and at the time they return to work?

Group differences on trait anxiety in the employed group based on home/employment preference were examined using a one-way ANOVA with repeated measures (see Table 16). The ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for home/employment preference ($F (1,34) = 4.51, p < .05$) with mothers preferring to be at home expressing higher levels of trait anxiety ($\bar{X} = 17.71$) than those preferring to be employed ($\bar{X} = 12.05$). When the covariate effects were entered into a regression with the anxiety measure, mother's SES produced a regression coefficient that approached significance at $T_1$ ($T = -1.93, p < .07$). At $T_2$ it became significant ($T = p < .01$). These results suggest that the employed mothers with lower occupational prestige reported higher levels of trait anxiety. Therefore, the discrepancies between the two employed groups regarding mother's SES impacted on this group difference.

3. Do employed mothers who would prefer to be at home and employed mothers who prefer to be working differ with respect to their career investment, and are these differences stable from the time of the infant's birth until the time the mothers return to work?

Within the employed groups, an ANOVA with repeated measures was performed to investigate differences between mothers preferring to be at home vs. mothers preferring to be employed (see Table 16). A significant main effect for home/employment preference was found ($F (1,35) = 6.65, p \leq .01$), with mother's preferring to be employed reporting higher levels of career investment ($\bar{X} = 81.03$) than mothers preferring to be home ($\bar{X} = 71.47$). No significant time and no significant interaction
### TABLE 16
Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance—Trait Anxiety, Maternal Role Investment and Career Investment
Home/Employment Preference Analyses
N=42

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Trait Anxiety:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home/Employment Preference</td>
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<td>4.51*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>127.06</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
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<td>2.64</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home/Employment Preference X Time</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Maternal Role Investment:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home/Employment Preference</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31.34</td>
<td>6.64**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4.72</td>
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<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home/Employment Preference X Time</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>.98</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Career Investment:</strong></td>
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<td>6.65**</td>
</tr>
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<td>.01</td>
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<tr>
<td>Home/Employment Preference X Time</td>
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<td>20.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p ≤ .05
** p ≤ .01
effects were found. To further explore the relationship of home/employment preference and career investment for the employed women, home/employment preference and the covariates mother's education, mother's SES, and father's income were entered into regressions with career investment. None of the covariates produced a significant regression coefficient.

4. At the time they return to work, do employed mothers who would prefer to stay home differ from those who prefer to be employed regarding their investment in the maternal role, and how do these differences relate to their investment in the maternal role at the time of their infant's birth?

Based on maternal role investment ratings measured in the maternity ward and during the home interview, a one-way ANOVA with repeated measures was performed to investigate differences based on home/employment preferences (see Table 16). A significant main effect was found ($F(1,40) = 6.64, p < .01$). No significant time and no significant interaction effects were found. The covariate effects of mother's education, mother's SES, and father's income were partialled-out using regression analyses. None of the covariates produced a significant regression coefficient with maternal role investment at $T_1$ or $T_2$.

Examination of the group means revealed that employed mothers preferring to be at home reported greater maternal role investment ($\bar{X} = 6.98$) than did those preferring to be employed ($\bar{X} = 5.74$).

5. For employed mothers, what is the relationship between maternal role investment and maternal separation anxiety at the time they return to full time employment outside the home?

Correlations between maternal role investment as measured during the home interview and for each of the $T_2$ MSAS factors and the $T_2$ MSAS total were calculated for the employed mothers (see Table 11).
Significant moderate correlations were found between maternal role investment and Factor I ($r = .42, p < .01$), and maternal role investment and the total MSAS ($r = .37, p < .05$). The correlation between maternal role investment and Factor II was low and approached significance ($r = .20, p < .08$). The correlation for maternal role investment and Factor III was nonsignificant. Interactions between the MSAS measures and home/employment preference yielded nonsignificant regression coefficients related to maternal role investment. These results suggest that home/employment preference does not contribute significantly to the relationship between maternal separation anxiety and maternal role investment in working mothers at the time they return to work. Since maternal separation anxiety was also measured at $T_2$ using the interview-based rating scales, correlations between maternal role investment and the interview-base Factor I, Factor II, and Factor III, and the total interview-based MSAS scores were calculated (see Table 12). No significant correlations were found.

The correlations between the MSAS and maternal role investment suggest that working mothers who have a greater investment in motherhood are more likely to express higher levels of general maternal separation anxiety. However, investment in motherhood does not relate to expressed levels of maternal separation anxiety associated with separation promoting the child's independence and sociability (Factor II), nor the mother's separation concerns over balancing work and motherhood (Factor III).
6. For employed mothers, what is the relationship between maternal role investment and career investment at the time they return to work outside the home?

A correlation between maternal role investment and career investment for the employed mothers was calculated with $T_2$ measures of these variables (see Table 11). The correlation was found to be nonsignificant. Investigation of possible interactive effects between the correlates and home/employment preference also revealed a nonsignificant regression coefficient. These findings suggest that for the employed mothers, regardless of their home or employment preference, career investment and maternal role investment are not reliably related at the time they return to work.

7. What is the relationship between an employed mother's maternal separation anxiety and her perception of her husband's feelings about her work status at the time she returns to work?

Correlations were calculated for each of the $T_2$ MSAS factors and the $T_2$ MSAS total, with ratings of the mother's perception of her husband's feelings about her work status (see Table 11). Correlations were also calculated with the interview-based maternal separation anxiety factors and the husband's feelings variable (see Table 12). Significant moderate negative correlations were found between Factor I and husband's feelings ($r = .34, p < .05$) and Factor II and husband's feelings ($r = -.33, p < .05$). A moderate negative correlation between MSAS total and husband's feelings approached significance ($r = -.31, p < .06$). Factor III and husband's feelings yielded a nonsignificant correlation. All correlations between the interview-based factors and husband's feelings were nonsignificant. Regression analyses used to investigate the significance of the interaction between home/employment
preference and all maternal separation anxiety measures produced non-significant results. These findings indicate that for employed mothers, those who perceive that their husbands would prefer that they be at home rather than working, are more likely to express higher levels of specific maternal separation anxiety and separation anxiety related to promotion of infant's independence and sociability.

Section III - Validity of Maternal Separation Anxiety Measures

OBJECTIVE: To examine the validity of the MSAS and the Home Visit Interview as measures of maternal separation anxiety for employed mothers.

What is the relationship between the measurement of maternal separation anxiety using the MSAS and the measurement of maternal separation anxiety using the Home Visit Interview?

To investigate the relationship between the MSAS and the Home Visit Interview, correlations between the MSAS factors and the equivalent interview-based factors were computed. Correlations between the total MSAS and the total interview-based ratings were also calculated (see Table 17). T2 MSAS data were used for these correlations since they represented contemporaneous measures of maternal separation anxiety with the interview ratings.

All correlations between the MSAS scores and the home interview ratings were positive. Significant correlations were found between the MSAS Factor I and the interview-based Factor I ($r = .40, p < .01$), the interview-based Factor II ($r = .58, p \leq .0001$), and the total MSAS and the total interview-based rating ($r = .58, p \leq .0001$). The correlation
TABLE 17
Correlations between the MSAS and the Home Visit Interview at T2 Employed Mothers.
N=42

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<th></th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
<th>F3</th>
<th>Tot</th>
<th>IntF1</th>
<th>IntF2</th>
<th>IntF3</th>
<th>Int Tot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Factor 2 (F2)</td>
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<td>.73****</td>
<td>.58****</td>
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<td>Interview F1</td>
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<td>.33*</td>
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* p < .05
** p < .01
*** p < .001
**** p < .0001
between the MSAS Factor III and the interview-based Factor III approached significance ($r = .28, p < .09$). These findings lend support to the validity of the measures.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Stimulated by the trend toward increased labor force participation
of mothers of infants, this research investigated maternal separation
anxiety in a group of employed and a group of nonemployed mothers of
infants. Although previous literature has examined the effects of
employment-related separations on the infant, the impact of these
separations on the mother had not previously been studied. This research
provides the first systematic empirically-based investigation of
mothers' feelings about mother-infant separation, and suggests interest-
ing implications concerning work status, and work status preference as
they relate to separation anxiety in mothers of infants. The findings
also suggest relationships between specific maternal characteristics
(i.e., maternal role investment, trait anxiety, and career investment)
and maternal separation anxiety. The discussion of the findings and
implications of this research is organized in three sections. The first
section provides a comparative interpretation of the findings as they
relate to the mothers' work status. The second section addresses the
findings related specifically to the employed mothers emphasizing dif-
erences based on work status preference. The third section examines
the validity of the MSAS and the Home Visit Interview as measures of
maternal separation anxiety.
Section I - Comparisons of the Employed and Nonemployed Mothers

The findings of this research reveal significant differences between the employed and nonemployed mothers, which confirm Hock's (1978) earlier research findings regarding work status and separation anxiety. Nonemployed mothers were found to be more likely than employed mothers to express higher levels of maternal separation anxiety when their infants were born and again 5-7 weeks later. Specifically, the nonemployed mothers reported greater separation anxiety related to Factor I and the total MSAS. A thorough examination of the implications of these findings suggests that nonemployed mothers will express higher levels of worry, sadness and guilt surrounding mother-infant separation events. They will also be likely to express greater commitment to the belief in the child's need for exclusive maternal care, that is, those mothers believe that they alone are best able to meet their children's needs, and nonemployed mothers would be expected to express greater concern over the child's ability to adapt successfully and comfortably to situations when they are not present or are otherwise not available to their children. In a broader sense, nonemployed mothers in this study were found to be more likely than employed mothers to experience maternal separation anxiety suggesting that they would experience heightened anxiety during separation associated with missing the physical closeness, emotional closeness, and overall intimacy of the mother-infant relationship.

Nonemployed mothers also reported higher levels of maternal role investment than did employed mothers. As anticipated from previous
research (Birnbaum, 1975; Hock and Clinger, 1981), this difference was found to remain stable from the maternity ward until 5-7 weeks later. These findings suggest that nonemployed mothers are more likely to define motherhood as their primary source of personal fulfillment. It suggests that nonemployed mothers may be more committed to the traditional model of the mother role than are employed mothers, in which mothering is considered to be the appropriate number one priority for mothers, involves devotion to the children, self-sacrifice, and is considered the primary means of defining the woman's identity (Birnbaum, 1975; Bernard, 1974). These nonemployed mothers may also be reflecting a commitment to the "motherhood mandate" (Russo, 1976) in which a woman's major goal in life is defined as rearing well-adjusted children, and in order to satisfactorily achieve this goal, it is considered necessary for mothers to stay at home to be continually available to their children. The findings of this study further suggest that the nonemployed mothers may represent a group of women similar to Yarrow et al's. (1962) homemakers who viewed motherhood as a duty and because of this belief were less likely to want to work. The nonemployed sample also resembles Thornton and Camburn's (1979) home-oriented women who expected to gain the greatest personal fulfillment and happiness through familial relationships and were not likely to want to work.

Together, the maternal separation anxiety and maternal role investment differences between the employed and nonemployed groups suggests interesting relationships of maternal characteristics. Without suggesting causality, it is possible to speculate on causal implications of the findings. These findings may suggest that nonemployed mothers who are
looking toward motherhood as their primary source of fulfillment may view mother-infant separations as interfering with their abilities to meet their self-imposed perceptions of the appropriate maternal role. As earlier research has shown, nonworking mothers were found to score significantly higher than working mothers on measures of exclusive maternal care, one dimension of maternal separation anxiety, and this finding was interpreted to relate to the nonworking mothers disinterest in returning to work (Hock, 1980). The implications of the findings from the present research also relate to Hock's (1978) study in which nonworking mothers who were more highly concerned over exclusive maternal care were also more likely to interpret their infants' distress at separation as caused by the mother's absence, thus possibly impacting on her anxiety and guilt associated with mother-child separation.

As Spielberger's (1972) Trait-State theory of anxiety implies, the employed mothers may cognitively perceive separations as less threatening to their self-esteem and self-concept since they define their identities beyond motherhood and thus more broadly than do the non-employed mothers. Therefore, the employed mothers would be less likely than nonemployed mothers to interpret mother-child separation as a source of A-State anxiety. As a result employed mothers would be less likely to experience a state-anxiety reaction related to potential or actual mother-infant separations. Contrarily, Spielberger also suggests that individuals may develop strategies incorporating defense mechanisms which enter into their cognitive appraisal of potentially threatening external stimuli and function to reduce A-State reactions to those
stimuli. It is also possible that the employed mothers, particularly those who would prefer to be at home rather than at work, may be denying to some extent, either their investment in the primacy of the mother role, or the extent of anxiety they feel surrounding separation. This denial may be a healthy defense mechanism which is important in helping some employed mothers cope with routine employment-related separations.

Despite the findings indicating that employed mothers experience less separation anxiety than nonemployed mothers, it is important to recognize that they do experience employment-related maternal separation anxiety as previous research literature has suggested (Harris, 1979; Hoffman, 1961; Paloma, 1972). The present research findings indicate that all the employed mothers reported separation anxiety within a fairly broad range (see Table 15).

A work status difference was found in the examination of the correlations between the MSAS and trait anxiety at T1 and T2. Although the relationship of these variables was similar for the employed and nonemployed mothers in the maternity ward, at 5-7 weeks, group differences with regard to the magnitude of the relationships were found. At 5-7 weeks, MSAS and the trait anxiety measure were no longer significantly related for the nonemployed mothers, and for the employed mothers, the magnitudes of the correlations increased and were significant. Since the variability of the trait anxiety scores increased at T2 for the employed mothers (see Table 15), it is possible to suggest that the increased magnitude between the MSAS and trait anxiety may have been a statistical artifact. However, since the variability of neither the MSAS nor the trait anxiety
measure increased or decreased substantially at T2 for the nonemployed mothers (see Table 5), it is unclear why the relationship between these two variables changed so drastically from T1 to T2.

In the maternity ward, career investment and maternal separation anxiety were found to have a moderate negative correlation that was significant for both groups, but by 5-7 weeks later, a nonsignificant relationship was evident for the nonemployed group. For the employed mothers at 5-7 weeks, as they prepared to begin routine employment-related separations, the more highly invested they were in their careers, the less likely they were to express maternal separation anxiety. In particular, highly career-oriented employed mothers were less likely to express guilt, sadness and worry over mother-infant separations. They were also less likely to be concerned about exclusive maternal care and the child’s ability to adapt to nonmaternal caregiving situations. Furthermore, the highly career-oriented employed mothers also expressed less separation anxiety related to balancing maternal and work roles and responsibilities. An integration of previous research findings suggest the likelihood of a negative relationship between career investment and maternal separation anxiety. Hock’s (1978, 1980) research suggested that mothers with high career orientation were less concerned over exclusive maternal care, and experienced less separation anxiety. However, it is interesting to consider why this relationship would occur for both groups in the maternity ward, and for the employed but not for the nonemployed mothers at 5-7 weeks since the groups did not differ significantly in the measure of career investment. Since greater variability of responses to the career investment measure were found for the employed
group at $T_2$ (see Table 15) and less variability was found at $T_2$ for the nonemployed mothers (see Table 5), the group differences in the $T_2$ correlation could be a statistical artifact. Thus, the increased variability for the employed mothers increased the likelihood of association, and the decreased variability attenuated the association between career investment and maternal separation anxiety for the nonemployed mothers at $T_2$.

In addition to the differences found between the employed and nonemployed groups, several similarities were also found. Both groups expressed similar levels of maternal separation anxiety related to separations promoting infant independence and sociability and maternal separation anxiety related to balancing employment and motherhood. Although research conducted with older children has suggested that employed mothers, except when particularly guilty about working, may encourage and expect greater independence from their children (Hoffman, 1982), previous research has not investigated mother's attitudes toward separation promoting an infant's independence and sociability. In this research, neither the employed nor nonemployed mothers seemed to perceive mother-child separations as more or less threatening to the child's social development or independence, regardless of the amount of distress the child may be expected to experience during separation. Furthermore, neither employed nor nonemployed mothers reported greater separation anxiety associated with integrating employment and motherhood responsibilities. This finding was somewhat surprising. It might have been expected that nonemployed mothers would express higher levels
of separation anxiety associated with balancing maternal and work roles and that this anxiety would have contributed to their decision to remain at home (Beckman, 1978; Thomson, 1980). Alternatively, the employed mothers may have been expected to report higher levels of this type of separation anxiety since they were anticipating the experience of combining work and motherhood. It is likely that differences were not found on these measures of separation anxiety because of the heterogeneity of the employed group related to their work status preference. Therefore, the group of employed mothers who would have preferred to be at home may have been responding in a manner similar to the nonemployed mothers and, thus, masking differences that might have occurred if the employed groups had consisted solely of women who wanted to be employed.

It is possible that the effects of the heterogeneity of the employed group may also have influenced the results related to the career investment measure. Neither the employed nor the nonemployed group expressed greater interest in and commitment to pursuing a career. Previous research (Hock, 1978; Morgan, 1981; Birnbaum, 1975) has suggested that employed mothers represent a group of more highly career oriented women, but because of the economic conditions today, less women have the flexibility to choose whether or not to work, and thus, the employed group was composed of mothers with varying levels of career investment.

Interestingly, when the relationship between career investment and maternal role investment was explored for both groups, a reliable relationship between these variables was not found. This finding
suggests that career investment and maternal role investment are not antithetical concepts within women, and both may be important. Therefore, it is unwise to assume that highly career-oriented mothers of infants will be less concerned about their mother roles than would less career-oriented mothers. This finding relates to Hoffman's (1982) suggestion that although employed women are less likely to refer to motherhood as a major aspect of their identity, they are not less enthusiastic toward motherhood nor less likely to view their children as an important source of love.

Section II - Comparisons of the Employed Mothers Based on Home/Employment Preference

To further understand the nature of maternal separation anxiety as it relates to employment-related separation, comparisons were made between employed mothers who would have preferred to have stayed home with their infants, and the employed mothers who preferred to be working and would not have wanted to be home. Significant demographic differences were found for these two groups with the employment-preference mothers found to be more highly educated, to have jobs with higher occupational prestige, and to have husbands who earned more per year than the home-preference mothers. In addition to demographic differences the home-preference group was found to be significantly higher than the employment-preference group in trait anxiety in the maternity ward and at the time they returned to work. Previous literature suggests that women with the characteristics of this employment-preference group may represent women who hold nontraditional attitudes towards women's roles and motherhood (Hare-Mustin and Broderick, 1979; Campbell, 1980;
Rindfuss, Bumpass & St. John, 1980). As stated earlier, mothers with nontraditional attitudes are less likely than mothers with traditional attitudes to experience heightened levels of maternal separation anxiety and greater maternal role investment (Birnbaum, 1975; Bernard, 1974; Hock, 1978, 1980; Hock & Clinger, 1981). Therefore, the significant differences found between the employment-preference and home-preference mothers were not surprising.

In the maternity ward and at the time they returned to work, home-preference mothers expressed significantly higher levels of separation anxiety than did employment-preference mothers on the total MSAS, Factor I, and Factor II. An interaction effect between home/employment preference and time of measurement was found to approach significance with Factor III. These findings suggest that the home-preference mothers were more likely to feel guilty and sad, and more likely to worry during separation from their infants. They were also more likely to perceive separation as interfering with the intimacy of the mother-child relationship. Furthermore, the home-preference mothers were more likely than the employment-preference mothers to believe that they alone are best able to meet their child's needs, and to experience increased separation anxiety during separation because it necessitates nonmaternal care for their children. Similarly, the home-preference group was found to be more likely to experience separation anxiety associated with greater concern over the potential that the child will experience distress during mother-child separation, and that separations particularly if the child is distressed, are neither necessary nor facilitative of the development of the child's independence or sociability. Mother's
education was found to significantly influence the group difference on separation anxiety related to child's independence and sociability and, this may reflect the home-preference mother's traditional perception of the significance of the mother's role in supporting and facilitating the child's social development and independence. The interaction effect suggests that for employed mothers who did not want to be working, their level of maternal separation anxiety associated with balancing motherhood and employment increased from the maternity ward until the time they returned to work, and for the employed mothers who wanted to be working their maternal separation anxiety decreased from the time of their infant's birth to the time they returned to work.

If economic conditions were different, it is likely that these home-preference mothers would not be working, and would then have been part of the nonemployed group. Since these home-preference mothers are employed, the maternal separation anxiety they express cannot be interpreted as a rationalization for staying home, but it may be seen as a rationalization for their desire to be at home. Again, in a manner similar to that for the nonemployed mothers, sensitivity to heightened levels of separation anxiety may contribute to their preference to remain home.

The employment-preference group expressed greater career investment, less concern over separation, and less commitment to the mother role as their primary source of fulfillment. Thus, as suggested earlier for the entire employed group, the employment-preference group may be less susceptible to maternal separation anxiety because they see it as less
threatening to their self-esteem as mothers, and this may be contributing to their preference for returning to work.

Home-preference mothers were also found to express higher levels of maternal role investment and lower levels of career investment than were employment-preference mothers both in the maternity ward and at the time they returned to work. These findings reinforce the notion that the home-preference mothers possess more traditional attitudes toward motherhood and women's roles (Bernard, 1974; Russo, 1976), which may relate to the mothers susceptibility to experience maternal separation anxiety in a manner similar to that expressed by the nonemployed mothers in this study.

In addition to the group differences found between the employed mothers, similarities with respect to the relationships of the variables were found at the time the mothers returned to work. For all employed mothers, trait anxiety was found to be related to maternal separation anxiety with mothers having greater proneness to experience general anxiety more likely to express higher levels of separation anxiety at the time they begin employment-related separations. For the employed group as a whole, greater career investment was related to lower levels of maternal separation anxiety, and with separation anxiety associated with separations promoting infant independence and sociability. Interestingly, career investment was not found to be related to separation anxiety associated with combining mother's roles and employment responsibilities. This finding may suggest that the employed mothers may be denying anxiety associated with combining work and motherhood in order to cope with returning to work.
For the employed group as a whole, maternal role investment was found to be significantly related to maternal separation anxiety in the maternity ward and at the time the mothers returned to work. Mothers reporting greater investment in the mother role also expressed higher levels of maternal separation anxiety. Again, this finding may suggest that mothers who are more invested in the maternal role, hold more traditional views toward motherhood, and thus regard separation as interfering with their abilities to appropriately perform maternal responsibilities, and thus the likelihood of experiencing separation anxiety is increased.

Significant differences between the home-preference and employment-preference groups were not found regarding the relationship between husband's feelings about his wife's work status and maternal separation anxiety. Therefore, for the whole employed group, if the mother perceived that her husband would have preferred that she not be working, she was more likely to express greater separation anxiety. This finding relates to past research that suggests the wife's perception of her husband's attitude toward and support of her employment contributes to her conflict or stress associated with nonfamilial roles (Berkove, 1979; Birnbaum, 1975; Harrison & Minor, 1978) and her interest in and satisfaction derived from outside employment (Wise & Carter, 1965; Arnott, 1972; Spitze & Waite, 1981). This finding also suggests the need to investigate more extensively, the relationship between the husband's behavioral manifestations of his support (helping with household tasks and child care) and the wife's work status to see how it impacts on her separation anxiety. Although consideration of her
perceptions of his support is valuable, direct measures of his actual feelings and attitudes toward her work status would also be valuable.

Section III - Validation of the MSAS and the Home Visit Interview

The MSAS and the Home Visit Interview were used to assess maternal separation anxiety with the employed mothers. Validity of the two measures was considered through correlational analyses at $T_2$ of the data collection (see Table 17), the time at which the mothers were returning to full-time employment outside the home and beginning routine employment-related mother-infant separations. In this study the two measures of maternal separation anxiety were administered at approximately the same time to the employed mothers with the MSAS being administered approximately one week before the mothers returned to work, and the Home Visit Interview being conducted approximately one to two weeks after employment-related separations had begun. The findings revealed that Factors I and II and the total MSAS scores showed moderate to strong significant relationships with the respective interview-based factors. The relationship between Factor III of the MSAS and the interview, although low, approached significance. These findings support the concurrent validity of the measures particularly in terms of the measurement of general maternal separation anxiety, and separation anxiety related to separation promoting the infant's independence and sociability. The nonsignificant correlation found for Factor III is somewhat surprising. Examination of the standard deviation for both the MSAS and interview Factor III showed greater variability than the other factors (see Table 15), so the nonsignificant correlation cannot be explained by limited
variance in responses. Additional research with Factor III is necessary to understand the nature of this interview-based and MSAS concept.

As seen on Tables 11 and 12, to further investigate the validity of the measures, the similarity of relationships between the MSAS and the Home Visit Interview with maternal role investment, career investment, and trait anxiety were considered. Although the MSAS and Home Visit Interview did not produce identical relationships with all the variables at T2, several similar patterns evolved. When correlations between the MSAS and career investment were calculated, strong negative correlations were found to be significant for Factor I and Factor II. A significant moderate negative relationship was found between the total MSAS and career investment. Moderate negative relationships were found between the interview-based Factors I and II and the total interview-based maternal separation anxiety rating and the career investment. Although the magnitudes of the correlations differed with the two maternal separation anxiety measures, both related similarly to career investment. Comparisons of the correlations between the MSAS and trait anxiety and the Home Visit Interview and trait anxiety also revealed similar results at T2. Again, the magnitudes of the correlations were higher with the MSAS than with the interview-based measure, but for both measures, Factor II and the total maternal separation anxiety ratings were found to be significantly related to trait anxiety.

Although the MSAS was found to correlate with maternal role investment and with the mother's perceptions of her husband's feelings about her work status at T2, the interview-based Home Visit Interview did not significantly relate to these measures. It is interesting to note that
both of these variables are interview-based ratings, and perhaps the Home Visit Interview variables were not as sensitive measures of maternal separation anxiety as was the MSAS.

In general, the data lend support to the validity of the MSAS and the Home Visit Interview as measures of maternal separation anxiety for employed mothers at the time they return to work.

Conclusions and Implications

Through this research, the nature of maternal separation anxiety was explored by comparative analyses of employed and nonemployed mothers of infants. Of particular interest in this study was an examination of the relationship of maternal separation anxiety to other maternal characteristics, specifically, trait anxiety, maternal role investment and career investment. In addition, the employed mother's separation anxiety was also considered in terms of its relationship to the mother's home/employment preference and her perception of her husband's feelings about her work status. The findings from this research suggest several conclusions about employment-related separation anxiety and point to important implications for future research and social policies.

The findings of this research suggest that nonemployed mothers of infants express greater separation anxiety and are more invested in the maternal role than are employed mothers at the time of their infants' births and 5-7 weeks later. The findings suggest that the nonemployed mothers may represent a group of women who define their self-concepts from a traditional perspective concentrating heavily on the mother role as a primary source of personal fulfillment and satisfaction. The
association of separation anxiety to maternal role investment within these nonemployed mothers may reflect a belief in the mother's irreplacability in the lives of their children, and thus, the heightened levels of separation anxiety expressed by nonemployed mothers may be a means of justifying their decision to remain home and available to their children. Alternatively, these mothers may be more prone to separation anxiety, and because of this proneness, have chosen to remain at home with their children.

As a group, the employed mothers expressed less separation anxiety and less maternal role investment than the nonemployed mothers. This suggests that the employed mothers may have been able to incorporate routine short-term, employment-related separations into their lives more easily than the nonemployed mothers would have possibly because they were less susceptible to maternal separation anxiety and less threatened by mother-infant separation. However, this research clearly emphasizes the need to look beyond work status per se in order to understand the nature of maternal separation anxiety in employed mothers of infants. The employed mothers in this sample consisted of a heterogeneous group of women in relation to their work status preference, with half of the employed mothers reporting that they would have preferred to be at home rather than working. The findings indicate that the home-preference group expressed greater separation anxiety, higher levels of trait anxiety, greater maternal role investment, and lower career investment than the employment-preference group. The home-preference group was also found to have less education, less prestigious jobs, and husbands
who earned less per year than the employment-preference group. Although this research does not specifically examine the effects of incongruent work preference/work status on the employed mother's response to employment-related separation, the findings seem to suggest that incongruence may negatively impact on the mother's satisfaction with motherhood and employment and may intensify her separation anxiety and guilt.

The findings of this research also suggest that in addition to maternal personality characteristics and attitudes, other familial and nonfamilial situational variables may relate to maternal separation anxiety for the employed mothers. The employed mothers' perceptions of their husbands' feelings about their work status was found to relate to maternal separation anxiety at the time the mothers returned to work. Women who believed that their husbands would have preferred them to be at home were more anxious over mother-infant separation than those who believed that their husbands were comfortable with them working. The employed mothers' occupational prestige was also found to relate to maternal separation anxiety, specifically separation anxiety associated with balancing motherhood and employment. The implications of this finding are somewhat unclear, but seem to suggest that employment conditions may influence maternal separation anxiety.

Although this research provides initial information helpful in understanding the nature of employment-related maternal separation anxiety, several issues emerge from the findings that warrant further investigation in future research. The present research suggests that maternal personality characteristics and attitudes relate to separation
anxiety. In-depth exploration of mothers' individual personality characteristics, attitudes toward parenting and childrearing, perceptions of motherhood as part of their identity, and motivations toward employment assessed before and after the birth of the first child could provide additional insight into possible causal links between personality, attitudes, and maternal separation anxiety. Examination of such maternal variables would also provide information helpful in understanding how and why mothers develop preferences for remaining at home or preferences for returning to work, and which aspects of a mother's personality and/or attitudes serve to mediate separation anxiety that is triggered by employment-related separation.

It would also be valuable to investigate employment-related maternal separation anxiety from a family systems perspective incorporating the father's self-reported perception of employment-related, mother-infant separation as it effects his parental role and household responsibilities, his relationship with his wife, and parent-child relationships within the family. Examination of the impact of psychological and behavioral support of employment-related separations from extended family members would also be of interest in understanding the dynamics of the employed mother's separation anxiety. In addition, it will be crucial in the future to examine how infant characteristics such as baby sex, temperament, and developmental level, relate to maternal separation anxiety. The characteristics of the mother-infant relationship, mother-infant interaction patterns, and other characteristics of mothering style also need to be examined in relation to maternal separation anxiety. A family
systems approach will be critical to the understanding of the nature of employment-related maternal separation anxiety.

Future longitudinal research with employed mothers of infants is necessary in order to discover whether or not the relationships found in this research between maternal separation anxiety, interest in career and investment in the maternal role remain stable over time as mothers and their infants adjust to separation. Longitudinal research would also be important in examining how the infant's development (i.e., onset of stranger anxiety, beginnings of language development, etc.) effects the mother's and the child's separation anxiety.

The present research explored employment-related separations with mothers who returned to full time employment by 3 months after their infant's birth. It would be valuable for future research to examine employment-related separation for women who return to work at various times, such as at 6 months or 12 months infant age, and women who return to alternative work patterns, such as part time employment.

The present research examined employment-related separation anxiety within a group of married, caucasian, middle-class primiparous mothers. To fully understand the dynamics of maternal separation anxiety, replication studies with diverse samples (i.e., minority groups, low-income mothers, adolescents, single parents, mothers of second and third born children, etc.) is necessary.

From a broader perspective, this research suggests the need for considering maternal separation anxiety as an important variable in applied research related to mother's employment and to the development of
social policies that will facilitate and support maternal employment. The findings suggest that the characteristics of the mother's employment situation may relate to her separation anxiety. Examination of the relationship of separation anxiety to innovative and traditional employment policies (i.e., current and extended maternity leave plans, flexi-time, paternity leave, flexibility in workplace, part time employment) may contribute to an understanding of employed mothers' productivity on the job, interest and commitment to employment, and abilities in satisfactorily balancing maternal and employment responsibilities consistent with family and professional needs. In addition, investigation of the relationship between maternal separation anxiety and the availability of employer-facilitated supports to working mothers, such as counseling programs, parent-support groups, and day care services may provide important information to employers as they reevaluate personnel policies in relation to the dramatic increase in labor force participation of mothers of young children.

Another area of social policy directly related to maternal employment concerns nonmaternal child care. Although the present research study does not specifically examine the relationship of maternal separation anxiety to the child's or the mother's adjustment to nonmaternal child care, the findings suggest that mothers more likely to experience heightened levels of separation anxiety are less comfortable with nonmaternal care for their children. Therefore, future research examining maternal separation anxiety as a mediator in the process of adjustment to nonmaternal care for the child, the mother and
the caregiver, is necessary. Investigations of the relationship between
maternal separation anxiety and the mother's choice of child care
arrangement would provide information crucial to policy makers by helping
to define preferred types of child care arrangements. Policies to expand
day care services could then be developed that would be consistent with
parents' preferences. The investigation of the relationship between
maternal separation anxiety and satisfaction with child care could also
provide important information related to the effects of day care on
mothers and children.

In conclusion, this investigation of maternal separation anxiety
suggests that maternal separation anxiety is a salient concern of first
time mothers of infants. Maternal separation anxiety relates to other
maternal attitudes, beliefs, and personality characteristics, and differs
in intensity between employed and nonemployed mothers. This research
strongly suggests that the inclusion of maternal separation anxiety as
a variable in basic and policy-related research examining issues related
to maternal employment is necessary in order to fully understand the
social and familial implications of employment-related mother infant
separation.
REFERENCE NOTES


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Eyde, L. D. Work values and background factors as predictors of women's desire to work. Bureau of Business Research Monographs, #108. Columbus, Oh: College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, 1962.


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These consist of pages:

P. 112-114 Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale Part II

University
Microfilms
International
300 N Zeeb Rd., Ann Arbor, MI 48106 (313) 761-4700
APPENDIX C

New Mother Fact Sheet

1. What is your baby's name?

2. What is your baby's sex? (circle one) Boy Girl

3. Was this your first pregnancy? (circle one) YES NO

4. Are you planning to breast feed your baby? (circle one) YES NO

5. How long do you expect to breast feed? (Circle the closest one)
   less than
   6 wks. 6 wks. 3 mos. 6 mos. 9 mos. 12 mos.

6. How old are you?

7. Circle the number that best represents the number of years of school that YOU have completed.
   no. of yrs. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24
   (Before High School) ( High School) ( After High School )

8. Circle the number that best represents the number of years of school that your HUSBAND has completed.
   no. of yrs. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24
   (Before High School) ( High School) ( After High School )

9. If you work, what is your approximate yearly income?

10. What is your husband's approximate yearly income?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Possible Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1. Were you working/in school during your pregnancy?</td>
<td>YES NO Fulltime Parttime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How many weeks before delivery did you stop working?</td>
<td># weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What kind of work do you do?</td>
<td>Job Title Specific Responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What kind of work does your husband do?</td>
<td>Job Title Specific Responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Are you planning to go back to work during the next year?</td>
<td>YES NO # hrs. Fulltime Parttime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. If you are going back to work, when do you think you'll return?</td>
<td># weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Do you have a job you will be returning to?</td>
<td>YES NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. What is the main reason you are going back to work?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. How does your husband feel about your decision to return to work or</td>
<td>SUPPORTIVE NON-SUPPORTIVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. If you had a choice would you stay home with your baby?</td>
<td>YES NO return to work YES NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. How long would you stay home before returning to work?</td>
<td># weeks/months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. What is the primary reason that you've chosen to breast/bottle feed</td>
<td>your baby?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. How does your husband feel about your decision to breast/bottle feed</td>
<td>your baby?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Do you plan to continue breastfeeding after you return to work?</td>
<td>Why or why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. What do you plan to do regarding breast feeding when you return to</td>
<td>work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. If you are going back to work, have you made child care plans?</td>
<td>YES NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If YES, what are they? Relative Daycare Center In-home babysitter Babysitter's home</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX E
MATERNITY WARD INTERVIEW
PART II

Now I'd like to ask you some questions about motherhood. Since you've just had your baby, you may need to project into the future and answer the questions the way you think you will feel when your baby gets a little older.

1. Please rank the following 3 things in terms of how much satisfaction they will give you, with 1 being the most satisfying aspect of your life.
   - being married
   - being a mother
   - working

2. How would you have felt if you couldn't have had children? Why?
   a. Would you have adopted children? Why or why not? (probe)
   b. Have you always wanted to have children? Why? (probe)
   c. How Important is it to you to have children? Why?

3. What do you expect to get from motherhood?
   a. What do you think your relationship with your baby will be like? (probe)
   b. How will being a mother change your life, or will it? (probe)

4. How complete would your life be if you weren't a mother?

Rating 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (circle one)

1--being a mother is of relatively no importance to M, she expresses minimal investment in this role

5--M expresses moderate investment, it is important to her to be a mother but other aspects of her life are also important (work, recreation, etc.)

9--being a mother is extremely important to M, she feels it is her major way of fulfillment in life, she cannot conceive of not being a mother.
APPENDIX F
CAREER SALIENCE QUESTIONNAIRE
ATTITUDES ABOUT WORK

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by placing a check on the line under the appropriate category. Please try not to leave any statement out.

1. SD - Strongly Disagree
2. D - Disagree
3. U - Uncertain
4. A - Agree
5. SA - Strongly Agree

1. I intend to pursue the job of my choice even if it cuts deeply into the time I have for my family.

2. It is more important to have some leisure time after work, and to enjoy some of the adventures of the mind (art, music, literature, etc.) than to have a job in your chosen field, be devoted to it, and be a success at it.

3. If you work very hard on your job, you can’t enjoy the better things in life.

4. Work is one of the few areas in life where you can gain real satisfaction.

5. I intend to pursue the job of my choice, even if it limits my personal freedom to enjoy life.

6. To me, a job should be viewed primarily as a way of making good money.

7. I enjoy thinking about and making plans about my future career.

8. It is difficult to find satisfaction in life unless you enjoy your job.

9. Work is one of those necessary evils.

10. Deciding on a career is just about the most important decision a young person makes.

11. I don’t think too much about what type of job I’ll be in ten years from now.

12. I’m ready to make many sacrifices to get ahead in my job.

13. I look at a career as a means of expressing myself.

14. I would consider myself extremely “career minded.”

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15. I could never be truly happy in life unless I achieved success in my job or career.

16. I intend to pursue the job of my choice, even if it allows only very little opportunity to enjoy my friends.

17. I want to be able to pretty much forget my job when I leave work in the evenings.

18. I started thinking about jobs and careers when I was young.

19. I intend to pursue the job of my choice, even if it leaves me little time for my religious activities.

20. It is more important to have a job in your chosen field of interest, be devoted to it, and be a success at it than to have a family that is closely knit and that shares many experiences.

21. The whole idea of working and holding a job is kind of distasteful to me.

22. Planning for and succeeding in a career is my primary concern.

23. I often find myself thinking about whether I will enjoy my chosen field.

24. It is more important to be liked by your fellow men, devote your energies for the betterment of man, and be at least some help to someone than to have a job in your chosen field of interest, be devoted to it and be a success at it.

25. Planning for a specific career usually is not worth the effort; it doesn't matter too much what you do.

26. I would move to another part of the country if I thought it would help advance my career.

27. I never really thought about these types of questions very much.

28. Rank the following activities in terms of how much satisfaction you expect they will give you in your life. Rank them from 1 (most satisfaction) to 6 (least satisfaction).

- Family relationships
- Leisure time recreational activities
- Religious beliefs and activities
- Your career or occupation
- Participation as a citizen in affairs of your community
- Participation in activities directed toward the betterment of national or international affairs
APPENDIX G

HOME VISIT INTERVIEW

Mother's Name ________________________________________________

Mother's occupation __________________________________________

Baby's name __________________________________________________

Baby's birthdate _______________________________________________

Date returned to work full time _________________________________

Type of child care _____________________________________________

Has received and returned follow-up mailing? YES NO
MATERNAL ROLE INVESTMENT

1. Please rank the following 3 things in terms of how much satisfaction they will give you, with 1 being the most satisfying aspect of your life.

_____being married _____being a mother _____working

2. How would you have felt if you couldn't have had children? Why?
   a. Would you have adopted children? Why or why not? (probe)
   b. Have you always wanted to have children? Why? (probe)
   c. How important is it to you to be a mother? Why?

3. What do you expect to get from motherhood?
   a. What do you think your relationship with your baby will be? (probe)
   b. How will being a mother change your life, or will it? (probe)

4. How complete would your life be if you weren't a mother?

5. If you could choose between staying at home with your baby and going to work, which would you choose?

RATING 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (circle one)

1—Being a mother is of relatively no importance to M, she expresses minimal investment in this role.

5—M expresses moderate investment, it is important to her to be a mother but other aspects of her life are also important (work, recreation, etc.).

9—Being a mother is extremely important to M, she feels it is her major way of fulfillment in life, she cannot conceive of not being a mother.
EMPLOYMENT-RELATED SEPARATION CONCERNS

1. During the past couple of weeks, how were you feeling about returning to work? (excited, sorry to be going back, etc.)

2. How do you feel about being back at work?
   b. What don't you like about being at work? (probe)
   c. Has having a baby changed your feelings about work? If so how? (probe)

3. How does your husband feel about your being back at work?

4. How does working influence your ability to meet your responsibilities as a mother?
   a. Does your company have special work policies that make it easy to be a mother and work? What are they (i.e., flex-time, day care, sick leave, supportive boss)? (probe) Would you use on-site day-care?
   b. What things would you change about your job that would make it easier to be a working mother? (probe)

Rating 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9  (circle one)

1 - M expresses minimal conflict associated with integrating motherhood and work. She expresses competence in balancing work and motherhood responsibilities.

5 - M expresses some conflict associated with integrating motherhood and work roles. She is interested in being a mother and in work, and she reports some difficulty in satisfactorily balancing her dual responsibilities.

9 - M expresses a high degree of conflict associated with integrating motherhood and work. Her primary orientation may be either toward motherhood or toward work. Regardless of her orientation M reports dissatisfaction, frustration, and upset in relation to meeting her primary orientation. She views her secondary orientation as interfering with her primary role.
SEPARATION STRESS

1. Describe how things went the first day back at work. What was it like when you left your baby? How was it being back at work? When you picked up the baby?

2. When you are at work, how do you feel about being away from your baby
   a. How often do you think about your baby when you are at work? (probe)
   b. When you do think about your baby, what things are you thinking about? (probe)
   c. Are you able to become totally involved in your work when you are away from your baby? (probe)

3. Do you worry about your baby? If so, what kinds of things do you worry about? (probe)

4. How do you feel about leaving your child with someone else in order for you to be able to go to work? Why?
   a. Do you miss your child? If so, what is it that you miss? (probe)
   b. Do you feel guilty? Why? (probe)
   c. Does leaving your child with someone else make you nervous? Why? (probe)

RATING 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

1. - M expresses no anxiety at leaving child. She expresses no regret at having to be away from her child, does not report missing her child, nor does she worry while she is at work.

5. - M may experience some discomfort when away from her child and at work. She is concerned about child's well-being in her absence but is able to enjoy her life away from the child. She is not absorbed in worry. M may regret having to be away from child often, but does not express strong guilt feelings. She may miss her child.

9. - M dreads being away from her child in order to work. She usually worries constantly while away and is eager to return. Separation is highly stressful. She may express strong guilt feelings.
ATTITUDE TOWARD NONMATERNAL CARE

1. Do you think that babysitters, day care teachers, or other adults are as effective as you in recognizing and meeting your child's needs?

2. Are there special things that you give to your child when you care for him/her that another individual is not able to give to your child? If so, what are they and why?

3. Are there special things that another adult can give your child that you cannot? What are they and why?

4. In general, how do you feel about having your child cared for regularly by someone else? Why?
   a. How do you think this situation will affect your child?
   b. How did you find your sitter/day care center?
   c. What qualities did you look for in that other person?
   d. Do you think that you are more concerned about your child's safety and well-being than a babysitter (alternative caregiver) would be? Why?

RATING 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (circle one)

1 - Exhibits essentially no apprehension over someone else caring for her child.

5 - M expresses some fears and describes concerns over nonmaternal care but is not preoccupied with these concerns. Generally, M feels that she can meet her child's needs more effectively than the alternative caregiver can.

9 - M is preoccupied with constant apprehension over nonmaternal care. She expresses fears and is concerned for a specific kind of child care. She believes that she is the only person who can truly meet her child's needs. She believes that nonmaternal care will interfere with mother-child attachment and her relationship with her baby. She may report feeling jealous of the alternative caregiver.
PERCEPTION OF CHILD'S DISTRESS AT SEPARATION

1. Describe your routine when you leave your baby with the babysitter.

2. How many hours per week is the baby with the babysitter?

3. How do you think your baby feels about being away from you when you are working? What causes the baby to feel this way?
   a. Does your baby miss you, feel sad, upset, angry or insecure? (probe)
   b. Does your baby like being with the babysitter, enjoy new people and enjoy new environments? (probe)

4. How does your baby act when you leave him/her? What do you think this behavior means?

5. How do you think your baby behaves at the babysitters'?
   a. Is he/she comfortable and playful with the babysitter? (probe)
   b. Does he/she act normally? (probe)
   c. Is he/she fussy, cry or does he/she have problems eating and/or sleeping? (probe)

6. How does your baby act when you pick him/her up at the babysitter? What is he/she trying to tell you by this behavior?

7. Have you noticed any changes in your baby's behavior since you returned to work? What has caused these changes?
   a. Does your baby react differently to you? How?
   b. Does your baby seem more lively, curious, and excited?
   c. Have your baby's eating and sleeping habits changed? Is your baby more fussy than before?

RATING  1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9  (circle one)

1 - M perceives no child distress surrounding work-related separations.

5 - M recognizes child distress or discomfort as a result of work-related separation. She perceives that the cause of the distress is primarily situational (i.e. adjusting to new routine), but to some extent she believes that her child "misses" her or that his/her distress may in part be due to her absence.
9 - M perceives that her child experiences a great deal of distress surrounding separation. She believes that this distress is a result of separation from her. She believes that the child cries, is lonely, behaves in an unusual manner before, during, and after mother-child separations. M perceives infant distress whether or not the child exhibits it.

(Scores of 2 through 4 reflect increasing degrees of perceived distress but are still related to situational factors. Scores of 6 through 8 reflect increasing degrees of perceived distress. M also describes her child's distress as caused by mother-child separations.)
1. Your child is experiencing many things at the babysitter's without you. How do you feel about this? Affect your child?

2. Do you think that children who are cared for by people other than their parents develop differently than children whose mothers are with them at home full time? How?

3. I've heard some mothers say that even if their children cry and fuss, it's important that the children spend time away from them. How do you feel about this?

   a. How does being away from you benefit your child?

   b. Is it harmful to your child to be with other adults? How?

RATING 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

1 - M perceives mother-child separations as necessary in order for her child to develop as an independent individual regardless of any distress or difficulty the child experiences during separation.

5 - M perceives stressless mother-child separations may contribute to the child's ability to develop as an independent individual but does not see separations as essential.

9 - M perceives mother-child separations as unnecessary for the development of autonomy. She expresses the belief that children benefit most from the security and familiarity of shared experiences between mother and child as they develop into independent individuals.