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Analysis of the effect of selected variables on birth intentions.

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ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECT OF SELECTED VARIABLES ON BIRTH INTENTIONS

by

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B.A., B. Comm. (Hons.), Windsor

A Thesis
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Dedicated to my Father and Mother

ABSTRACT

This study is an attempt to find out how family size desires relate to selected variables. The study started with the assumption that religion, socioeconomic status, sex role norms, female employment, and the area of specialization will tend to have influence on the number of children an individual would like to have.

A stratified random sample of 154 students has been drawn from those students registered for the 1979 summer session at the University of Windsor. There are 86 males, 65 females, and 3 students not identified. Sixty-two point three per cent of them are single, 33.1 per cent married, and 4.5 per cent are either divorced, separated or widowed. The questionnaire was administered in the classrooms in various Faculties. The questions used to measure the sex role norms are taken from the work of John Scanzoni (1975).

It is observed that the respondents are highly modern with respect to the sex role dimensions. The majority of them would rather have a small family than a large one. The findings further show that a statistically significant relationship does exist between socioeconomic status, religion, sex role norms, awareness of world population, full-time female employment and birth intentions. But these variables are not isolated. They do influence, and they are being influenced by other variables in explaining birth intentions.

The selected variables used in this study have provided only partial information on the birth intentions of the respondents. As indi-

cated by the coefficient of determination (R^2 = 0.8322) obtained from the regression analysis, the variables used here accounted for only 83 per centof the variations in birth intentions of the respondents.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

This study deals with birth intentions of university students. It examines the relationships between modern and traditional sex role norms[1] and some of the fertility relevant variables that are expected to have an influence on family size intentions. With reference to modern sex role norms[2] and traditional sex role norms[3], Scanzoni (1975) has affirmed that modern or egalitarian sex role norms do influence the desire for a smaller family size.

For the purpose of this study, it is assumed that university students have an idea of the number of children they would like to have. The decision concerning the number of children one should have has always been the perogative of the family, but this decision is considered to be influenced by many factors. These include, among other things, early socialization and education, religion, economic conditions, and whether one is being brought up in a rural or urban area.

It is expected that in a situation where children are considered as resources and rewards, there is a tendency to have large family size intentions. On the contrary, where other rewards appear to be more attractive than children, as in the case of females holding full-time jobs during child-bearing years[4], the minimum number of children will be desired so as to maximize the rewards from the alternative sources. It is also expected that religious affiliations and the level of

education will tend to influence birth expectations.

This study will measure both modern and traditional sex role orientations of university students, both married and single, and try to find out if these attitudes are related to their birth intentions.

The major variables for this study include sex roles, religion, education, socioeconomic status of parents, area of specialization, community raised, full-time female employment and birth intention.

There has been a great deal of research done in the area of human fertility in the United States and other developed nations. At the moment, the United Nations is conducting more empirical investigation of specific human groups in the developing nations in Africa and Asia where rapid population growth contrasts sharply with that of Europe and North America. But most of the studies have been concerned with long-term fertility rates. This study is looking at human fertility in a slightly different way. Without pretending to predict the fertility rate of students, it examines the desired family size of both single and married students, and tests for the existence of relationships between this desire and certain variables.

Due to the nature of the study design, the findings cannot be generalized from this sample to any population. Yet, it is expected that they will provide the basis for future comparative studies in the same area.

Fertility Trends

The fertility rate is one of the major socioeconomic factors that distinguish the developed countries from the less developed ones. As stated by S. J. Behrman (1969), "A sharp dichotomy has arisen between

low fertility, developed countries, and high fertility, underdeveloped countries, with very few countries in the transition from one to the other."[5] It is estimated by the United Nations that towards the end of the century about 85 per cent of the entire world population will continue to occupy less developed areas of the world.

In industrialized countries, population growth has been maintained at a very modest level, generally within the range of one per cent or less per annum. The birth rate has been reduced to a minimum in recent years, especially in Western Europe and North America. In some developed countries, the birth rate is still declining and this decline can be attributed to factors such as:

a) Reduction in infant mortality - since more children are surviving, few births are needed for the desired family size.

b) High cost associated with childbearing and child rearing in urbanized societies.

c) Improvement in the status of women.

d) Changes in religious attitudes towards childbearing - most religious groups in developed countries have developed secular attitudes towards voluntary fertility control.

In the Canadian scene, demographers in this country observe that the fertility trend has continued to fluctuate since the First World War. Between the two world wars, more precisely, during the depression years, the lowest birth per woman aged between 15-44, 2.64 children was registered. But this situation did gradually change within the mid forties to the late fifties. This period, usually referred to as the period of the baby-boom[6], saw a somewhat remarkable increase in the

fertility rate in this country. There was a move from an all period low of 2.64 births per woman to a record high of 3.95. This has been the highest rate recorded in this country in recent years. The baby-boom years in Canada were characterized by couples getting married at an earlier age and having relatively shorter intervals between children.

With the exception of a small section of the population, the age of marriage has not changed very much in the United States and Canada. What seems to have changed over the years is the taste for large families. The couples within the current productive age are more inclined to have fewer children than their predecessors. As expressed in Statistics Canada, "There seems to be a tendency towards more homogenous, procreative behaviours in terms of the number of children per couple, and a shift towards a family composition centered on two rather than on three children."[7]

Statistics Canada's projection shows that the rate of birth per woman was expected to be within the range of 1.80 to 2.60 in the late seventies and early eighties. But the actual figures show a rate of 1.60 births per woman in 1976. The discrepancy between the actual and the estimated figures shows that the fertility rate is still on the decline in this country. There are certain factors in both Canada and the United States which tend to influence further decline in family size and increase in childlessness. These include wider access to efficient contraceptive methods, promotion of family planning techniques, public awareness of problems relating to population growth and increasing participation of females in the labour market.

The proportion of females who participate in the labour force in

both Canada and the United States is essentially the same. Labour force participation is considered to have a depressing effect on fertility. In the case of married women, Scanzoni (1975) considers that those who work because their families really need the money expect to have more children than those who work because they enjoy it or because they merely want extra money.

The entry of Canadian women into the labour market has constantly increased since the Second World War. In 1951, there were only about 11.2 per centof married women in the labour force. This figure increased to 22.0 per cent by 1961. Towards the end of 1971, 37.0 per cent was recorded. Recent figures are much higher. Preliminary figures released by Statistics Canada indicate 49 per cent in 1979. With regard to the age category of these women, there is a high percentage of the younger women in the labour force than the older ones. As indicated by Statistics Canada (1979) there are 69.5 per centof young women within the range of 20-24 years of age, as conpared to 61.0 per centof those within 25-34, and 35-44 years of age categories who are in the labour force.

The presence of such a high percentage of females in the labour force within the early stages of childbearing years will tend to have an effect on the fertility rate in the country as a whole. The present fertility decline in Canada may also be attributed to the fact that females are postponing childbearing for later periods, or the married women are having longer intervals between children so that their career and the child-bearing can go hand-in-hand. If this idea of birth postponing and longer intervals between children holds true, then any

change in the attitude of women that will curtail these behaviours will likely result in a higher fertility in the country (new baby-boom).

The remainder of this study will examine some specific issues. The next chapter will give a review of some of the work that has been done in the area of gender roles and family size intentions. The third chapter will deal with the theoretical perspectives of the study, more precisely, hypotheses will be stated linking birth intention to several independent variables. Chapters four and five are concerned with the methods and analysis of the data, respectively, and then the conclusion.

CHAPTER 1

FOOTNOTES

1. Sex role norms, as used here, are those norms applicable to a man because he is a man, or to a woman for being a woman. These norms are considered to be acquired at the early stages in life. They include norms relating to activities, essentially sex division of labour, and norms concerning personality characteristics and attitudes.

2. Modern sex role norms--the expression refers to a more egalitarian male and female role norms, a situation in which the interests of the male and the female (wife and husband) including the children, have no preference over the other. Modern sex role norms put less emphasis on sex differentiation.

3. Traditional sex role norms--traditional sex role norms are essentially the opposite of modern sex role norms. This expression describes orientations wherein the ascribed gender roles are strictly adhered to by both the wife and the husband. Traditional norms highly emphasize sex differentiation.

4. Childbearing years--the expression childbearing years denotes the period between sixteen and forty-five years of age of females. Period within which females are capable of bearing children.

5. S. J. Behrman, Fertility and Family Planning, p. 98.

6. Baby-boom--baby-boom as referred to in Canada, is a phenomenon which followed the Second World War and lasted til the sixties. It is characterized by low mean age for family building, earlier age of marriage and relative shorter intervals between children.

7. Statistics Canada--Population Projection for Canada and Provinces 1972-2001, p. 29.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The male and the female differences and their ascribed roles have been, in recent years, the main targets of attacks by feminists and educated women who are advocating a more modern or egalitarian sex role. Holter (1970) considers that the biological differences between the sexes form the basis of the division of labour according to which women are held responsible to rear children and maintain the household, while the men secure the means of subsistence. She argues that the inferior social status of women is derived from their inherent physical weakness. In primitive societies where power cannot be separated from physical strength, women's social position is a lot more inferior to that of men than in western societies. Holter affirms that there is an association between the type of subsistence economy and women's position relative to those of men.

The relative position of the male and the female in any socioeconomic system gives a clearer indication of the sex differentiation. The greater the economic inequality, the greater the differentiation. Every known society constrains the females to be dependent upon the males. This is done by restricting them from having access to viable economic power. This situation is reinforced by the system of monogamy[1] that has been maintained in the entire civilized world. The dependence of married women on their husbands' incomes restricts them from having influence within or outside the family. One would expect that if women

are able to obtain and control sufficient economic power equivalent to that of men, the accommodative subordinate roles they play in their relationship with men, either in marriage or other spheres of life will disappear. The male-female relations will be more egalitarian. It has been mentioned by Holter "that once women have the same economic or, rather, occupational opportunities as men, they will gain equality in other spheres, such as politics and education."[2]

Engels' view of sex differentiation relates to the production of surplus value and monogamy. His explanation for the inferior status of women as compared to that of men is that household work, which has been the accepted responsibility of women, has never been profitable. By doing merely household work women have not been able to have access to surplus value. On the contrary, according to Engels, men's position as bread-winners has been able to provide them with additional power. Through the appropriation of the surplus of production, they have been able to gain the property rights which stratifies their position.

Engels believed that men, having had access to the surplus of production, tried to establish the monogamous family structure. The essence of this type of family structure was to ensure a clear linkage of children to the parents. A nuclear family structure of this kind was intended for the protection and inheritance of property.

Modern social scientiest see sex role differences as a way of providing protection for the stability for the monogamous marriage institution (Holter, 1970). Their assumption is that the traditional division of labour between the male and the female, especially the married couples, is contributing highly to the stability of the marital

relations. It is considered that equal participation of husbands and wives in the occupational structure will result in serious competition among the marital partners. This will tend to destroy the family. Social scientists who share this point of view emphasize that in order to ensure normal procreation, society must not assign duties to females that can prevent them from acting as mothers. In her detailed analysis of this line of thought, Holter made reference to the assumption that "the normal development of the human infant requires a relationship between father, mother and child that can be obtained only by a traditional division of labour."[3]

The rapid social transformation which has followed the two world wars has had some effect on sex differentiation in industrialized nations. The development and expansion of industries within this period have allowed for the entry of many women into the labour market. Although most of these women have been concentrated in low income jobs, they are gaining access to some of the positions that have been traditionally occupied by males. With the exception of women in underdeveloped countries, who, because of low standards of living, cannot effectively exercise their rights, women in Europe and North America are making way to assume their responsibilities and affirm their rights in the home and at work.

Unlike sex differentiation that deals with biological factors, power, and prestige of the two sexes; sex role norms concern the norms, values, and beliefs applied to both male and female. Sex roles are learned. It is believed that the family and the school system play major roles in this learning process. Holter (1970) believes that sex

role norms are acquired from childhood through the process of socialization. In traditional societies, sex role norms are considered God-given and unchangeable. Women accept the sex division of labour and their subordination to men without question. They derive most of the satisfaction of their married life from being supportive wives and nurturant mothers.[4] On the other hand, the married men, in addition to their position as heads of families, receive individualistic gratification from the occupational structure (J. Scanzoni, 1976). But this traditional way of life is undergoing a rapid change. It is losing ground to a system where the husbands and wives will be able to play equal roles within and outside the family.

The feminists and educated women desire changes that will allow them greater access to the occupational structure. It is assumed that such a change will certainly tend to have an effect on the expected family size. In a situation where egalitarian male and female roles are the norms, one would expect a full-time participation of both the males and the females in the labour force. This will, of course, have a depressing effect on the number of children by family, since full-time employed females are more likely to shy away from acting as mothers compared to females who are not holding regular employment.

The age of marriage, the spacing of the first, second and third children are factors that now seem to be influenced by the economic system. Working mothers tend to make adequate spacing for their children so as to prevent childbearing from interfering with their work. The responsibilities of child care, especially in the case of working mothers, have been shifted to day care centres so that both parents can

have adequate time for remunerative work. The effect of day care centres on children will be an interesting study to undertake.

Technology is another factor that has had a great influence on gender roles. It has helped to liberate the modern woman from tedious household duties. Washing machines, dishwashers and other household equipment have automated a good percentage of domestic labour. In addition, the use of mechanized and automated systems in different areas of production have reduced the emphasis on physical strength which made certain jobs almost exclusively sex differentiated. The gradual access of women to many areas in the labour market in industrialized nations is having positive influence on sex role modernity.[5]

Scanzoni (1975) has emphasized that females, unlike the males, are pushing harder for a more egalitarian or modern masculine and feminine roles because they have constantly played the subordinate roles. The question of how successful the females have been in this area remains to be investigated. One would expect that any marked changes in sex role norms would be more accurately identified among university students who have a greater contact with current events, and tend to adapt easily to the changing situations.

The advocates of changes in sex role norms, feminists and educated young women, do not entirely reject the core female role of wife and mother. On the contrary, they desire sex role modernity. Like the men, these women want to be able to enjoy familistic-type gratification[6], and, at the same time, receive individualistic gratification[7] from the occupational structure. The young women would rather postpone marriage and have fewer children than traditional women (Scanzoni, 1976). The

full-time employment of women during their childbearing years is another factor that is considered by Scanzoni to have influence on the intended number of children.

Rosen and La Raia (1972) have confirmed that modern sex role orientation is positively related to a woman's education and negatively related to her preferred and actual family size. With respect to education, Holter believes that men with advanced education are more inclined to associate with women of the same standard, and they tend to be more egalitarian in their sex roles. This is because higher education promotes egalitarianism. As a consequence of this, the higher educated desire small families, as opposed to large families desired by the less educated. If this trend is consistent, it can certainly be identified among the university students who constitute this study.

CHAPTER II

FOOTNOTES

1. Monogamy. The word monogamy refers to a custom by which the male is constrained to have one wife at a time.

2. Harriet Holter, Sex Roles and Social Structure, p. 14.

3. Harriet Holter, Sex Roles and Social Structure, p. 16.

4. Nurturent Mother--mother responsible to care and bring up a child.

5. Modernity. The word modernity is defined here in the same way as it has been defined by Rosen and La Raia of Cornell University. It is considered "as the extent to which a woman (a) has a sense of her own worth as a member of a sex which is perceived as competent and deserving of serious attention, thus (b) enabling her to take part in a more egalitarian nuclear family structure, relatively free of extended ties, which emphasizes communication between spouses and places importance on equal husband-wife participation in decision-making, and where (c) children are not over-protected, but socialized to be independent and to have aspirations in a (d) world perceived as being controllable through activistic endeavour."

6. Familistic-type gratification. The expression refers to the satisfaction the individual receives from his family responsibilities.

7. Individualistic gratification. The expression means the delight the individual gets from his or her personal adventure in the occupational world. That is, the satisfaction a male or a female gets from his or her employment outside the home.

CHAPTER III

THEORY

The major concern of this paper is to find out if it is theoretically acceptable to establish a linkage between variables such as socioeconomic status of parents, sex role norms, religion, area of specialization, community of rearing[1], full-time female employment, marital status, age, and birth intentions of university students. In his study of never-married undergraduates in a midwestern university in the United States, Scanzoni (1976) has affirmed that there is a relationship between sex roles, religion, years of schooling and family size intentions of college students.

The socioeconomic framework of fertility forms the base of this study. Becker's work in this area has dealt essentially with family size variables, putting emphasis on the costs and benefits of children to parents. In his analysis, Becker (1960) viewed children as both consumer and producer goods. To him, children are considered to be producer goods and services if they are able to generate benefits to their parents that are greater than their consumption. In such a situation, the determinant for having children is based on the factors which influence the returns to the parents. On the other hand, in a case where children are expected to produce direct benefits that are less than their consumption, parents will be less motivated to have them. According to Becker, parents rationally analyze the rewards and costs associated to children. It has been illustrated by Cain and Weiniger (1973)

"that fertility is negatively related to the potential earnings available to wives in the labour market."

As concerns the importance of social norms in determining the expected family size, Westoff and Potvin (1967) have tried to formulate what they called theory of ideal family size. They affirm that family size intention is influenced by social norms. In this situation, the parents play a dominant role in making their children develop the appropriate values and attitudes toward childbearing from the early periods of their lives.

Education of women, in particular, has considerable effect on childbearing and childrearing. This is not merely because of the egalitarian values acquired through education, but because education increases the opportunity cost of women's time[2] in the home; thus the higher the education of a particular woman, the higher the price of childbearing and childcare. The high cost of childbearing has direct impact on the size of the family. Education, on the other hand, creates new opportunities and goals for women. It makes them substitute child quality for numbers (W. W. Hicks, 1974). Given certain circumstances, education will reinforce either male or female role traditionalism or modernity. One would expect non-religious education to be modern, while the religious education tends to have a more traditional orientation.

Females with long durations of work experience often perceive themselves to have male competency. According to Scanzoni (1975), these women are modern in their sex roles, and tend to have a few children. He insists that there is "an inverse relationship between duration of wife work experience and family size."

Many social, economic and psychological factors seem to influence family size intentions. On the basis of the theory, the following hypotheses will be tested:

Hypothesis I: There is a relationship between sex role norms and birth intentions of university students.

Given that sex role norms are acquired during the early stages of socialization, it can be expected that the students are playing either traditional or modern gender roles, depending on the type of socialization. Those who are inclined to be traditional in their sex roles will tend to emphasize function differentiation between males and females, and will be more likely to have large families. On the contrary, those who are modern will tend to put less emphasis on the differences between men and women and will be more inclined to have smaller family intentions.

Hypothesis II: Catholics are more likely to desire a large family.

Since university students have essentially the same educational background, with the exception of a few years of schooling that separate the graduates and the undergraduates, education, in this case, may not make much of a difference in determining family size intentions. But religion is expected to be an important variable. This is because most of the students are born and brought up in religious environments before they enter into university. The values acquired from this early period of childhood do not change very much over the years.

In this situation, the intention is to investigate whether Catholics, Protestants or other religious groups are more modern or traditional as regards to sex role norms and birth intentions. Those with

modern orientation will tend to desire smaller families as opposed to the larger families that might be desired by those with traditional values.

Hypothesis III: Students brought up in cities are more likely to desire a small family.

Considering the cities to be areas where people are more aware of the problems of population growth and the cradle of crime and unemployment, particularly of the youth, one would expect that people brought up in such areas would have small family size intentions. On the contrary, it is expected that those brought up in the rural areas, especially on the farms, would desire large families. This might be due to economic reasons or reasons relating to their original family size. Those brought up on the farms, and with the intent to become farmers themselves may desire a large family so that the children might help work on the farm. On the other hand, where children are brought up in a large family, they are more susceptible to develop the taste for it.

Hypothesis IV: Students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds will tend to desire a small family.

Children from higher socioeconomic homes tend to have greater aspirations for both higher education and higher positions in society. It is assumed that students of such origin acquire from the early stages of their socialization that child quality is of much greater importance than quantity. It is also expected that higher status women have higher potential earnings in the labour market than lower class women. Given this information, it will be attempted here to investigate the link between family size intentions and socioeconomic

status of parents.

Hypothesis V: Female students who would like to hold a full-time job during their childbearing years will tend to have smaller family size intentions.

As it has already been mentioned, women with high education and male competency have higher opportunity cost for the time spent on childbearing and childcare. Richard A. Easterlin[3] considers that the price of a child varies directly with the wife's potential earnings. One would expect that women in this category will have no choice but to have a small family.

Hypothesis VI: There is a relationship between the area of specialization and birth intentions of university students.

Universities aim at offering a broad education to students. But different faculties give specific career orientations to their students. With respect to this, some of the faculties appear to be modern and others traditional. As a consequence of this, one would expect that, depending on the faculty, students will tend to have differential attitudes towards birth intentions. That is, those who are modern will be more inclined to desire a small family, while those who are traditional, a large one.

Summary of Hypotheses

i. There is a relationship between sex role norms and birth intenions of university students.

ii. Catholics are more likely to desire a large family.

iii. Students brought up in cities are more likely to desire a small family.

iv. Students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds will tend to desire a small family.

v. Female students who would like to hold a full-time job during their childbearing years will tend to have smaller family size intentions.

vi. There is a relationship between the area of specialization and birth intentions of university students.

CHAPTER III

FOOTNOTES

1. Community raised refers to the town or city where the respondent lived during the time when he or she was growing up.

2. Opportunity cost of women's time. The expression means the earning potentials of the wife in the labour market. The higher the earning potentials of women, the higher price they pay for leaving their employment to have children.

3. Easterlin, Richard A., Towards Socioeconomic Theory of Fertility: A Survey of Recent Research on Economic Factors in American Fertility. In S. J. Behrman's Fertility and Family Planning: A World View, p. 132.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The sample of this study has been drawn from the University of Windsor. The subjects include those students registered at the 1979 Summer Session. Summer school students have been chosen for this study in order to ensure a better representation of mature students with definite family size intentions in the sample.

Stratified sampling method has been used for the sample design so as to include subjects from the Faculties of Social Sciences, Business, Engineering and Pure Sciences, Arts, Education and Law. Since there were no classes in Engineering, only the graduate students available during this period were sampled.

The stratified sampling method has not produced the sample expected because it appears that most of the students were taking optional courses in different Faculties. Practically none of the students sampled in the Faculty of Law was a law student. The same thing is applicable to other Faculties. There were very few of those who were contacted in the Faculty of Arts that were actually majoring in that area. As a consequence of this, some Faculties have been over represented in the sample. With these limitations, it will be unsafe to generalize the result of this study. Yet, it is a true representative sample of the 1979 Summer Session at the University of Windsor.

Data Collection

The direct data collection method has been used to obtain the information for this study. The direct data collection method is considered appropriate for this study because it will help provide more accurate data, at a given point in time, about the birth intentions of the students. All the questionnaires were administered to students during their regular class or laboratory sessions. In each case, the researcher contacted the instructor before an attempt was made to administer the questionnaire in his class. Some of the instructors, especially those in the Faculty of Law, insisted on studying the questionnaires before they were administered to the students.

The researcher started the collection of the data in each class by reading the heading of the questionnaire, encouraging the students to give their free opinion by answering the questions and, also, giving additional comments where necessary. The questionnaires were then passed out to the students and collected when they were completed, about ten to fifteen minutes later.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire (Appendix A) is designed to measure sex role norms, demographic and some structural variables. The questions measuring sex role norms are identical to those that have been used in previous studies by Scanzoni (1975). In this instance, sex roles are measured in terms of the norms that constitute them. The questions used for this measurement relate to the three major positions within the conjugal family in regards to wife, husband and mother. The responses, Likert-type response categories (strongly agree, agree, mixed feelings,

disagree or strongly disagree) are added up to determine modern or traditional attitudes of the subjects studied. The variables relevant to the final analysis of the data obtained by this questionnaire are as follows:

Operational Definition of Variables

Sex Roles

The sex roles constitute the major independent variables. Of the seven roles, two are part of the position of wife, traditional wife (TW) and self-actualization (SA); and two of the mother, religious legitimation of the mother's role (RLM) and traditional mother (TM). The other three are included under the position of the husband, problematic husband alterations (PHA), traditional husband (TH) and institutionalized equality (IE).

Traditional Wife (TW)

TW is a measure of the social position of the wife. It represents the emphasis in which the interests of the husband and children are placed ahead of those of the wife (Question 6 a,b,d,f,g,j,k,l). Responses from these questions are coded, summed up and dichotomized into modern or traditional orientations. See illustrated calculations in Appendix B.

Self-Actualization (SA)

SA is considered as an emphasis in which wife interests are given priority. They are accepted as being equal to those of the husband and children (Question 6 c,e,h,i). Stronger preference for the wife's interest is indicative of role modernity while weaker preference refers to traditionalism (Appendix B,2). It is divided

into modern and traditional orientations.

Problematic Husband Alterations (PHA)

PHA concerns the problematic alterations that a husband might make regarding wife's occupational efforts. It is the dimension in which the interests of the husband remain superior to those of the wife but the husband is willing to make provisions for the wife when necessary (Question 7 d,e,f,h,i). The highest score on the PHA dimension is 20. Lower score indicates modern orientation while higher score indicates traditionalism (Appendix B,3).

Institutionalized Equality (IE)

Husband-wife equality is considered as one in which the husband's interests are not superior to those of his working wife (Question 7 b,c). The IE scores, which add up to 18 points, with a higher score indicates traditionalism (superior husband's interest) while a lower score means modern orientation (Appendix B,4).

Traditional Husband (TH)

TH is considered as the dimension in which the husband's interests and authority are legitimized through his ascribed privileges based on gender. It is operationalized by Question 7 a and g. The TH scores add up to 8 with low score indicating traditional orientation (Appendix B,5).

Religious Legitimation of the Mother's Role (RLM)

RLM concerns the sacred-secular views of motherhood. It measures the degree of sacredness attached to marital and familial patterns (Question 8 a,b). The highest score on this scale is 2. Higher score means modern (less sacred) while lower score indicates tra-

ditionalism (Appendix B,6).

Traditional Mother Role (TM)

TM dimension is defined as one in which the interests of the children are considered more important than that of the mother (Question 8 c,d,e,f,g). The TM scores are dichotomized into modern and traditional (Appendix B,7).

Birth Intention

The birth intention of the respondent is the chief dependent variable. It is measured by the question, "If you could have any number of children you want, how many would you like to have"? The response gives a measure of the actual number of children the respondents desire and want to have. It is expected to be influenced by traditional and modern sex role attitudes. Scanzoni (1975) has mentioned that the social position of both the husband and wife do influence birth intentions. The response is recorded into three categories: small family, 0 to 1 child; medium size family, 2 to 3 children; and large family, 4 or more children.

Socioeconomic Status of Parents

The occupation of the head of the family has been used to measure the socioeconomic status of the parents (Question 15). For coding and ranking high socioeconomic status and low socioeconomic status, the Blishen scale has been used.

Community where Respondent was Raised

Community has been recoded into three categories: rural and small cities (up to 2,499 people), medium size cities (2,500 to 99,999 people), and large cities (100,000 and above). Joseph Kahl (1967)

has mentioned that "people who live in cities, and especially those who belong to the urban middle class, adhere to certain values and perceive their life circumstances in certain ways which lead them to restrict fertility."[1]

Religion

Religion has been recoded into three categories: Catholics, Protestants and Others.

Faculty

Depending on the data obtained, Faculty has been trichotomized as follows: Social Sciences (Arts and Social Sciences), Engineering and Science (Science, Mathematics and Engineering), and Business and Law.

CHAPTER IV

FOOTNOTES

1. Joseph A. Kahl, Modern Values and Fertility Ideals in Brazil and Mexico, November 4, 1967.

CHAPTER V

DATA ANALYSIS

Background of the Respondents

It is necessary to examine some of the background information concerning the respondents. This will give better insight into the major variables before proceeding with detailed analysis.

The sample is composed of 154 students, 57 per cent of which are males and 43 per cent females. The majority of them, 69 per cent, are either fourth year or graduate students, while 31 per cent are undergraduates. With the exception of the faculties of Human Kinetics and Education, all the other faculties at the University of Windsor are represented.

Age

As illustrated in Table I, the people we are dealing with in this study range in age from under 20 years old to 54 years old. With the exception of a few respondents, the majority of the students are within 20 to 34 years age range.

Table I

Age of Respondents

Age	%	N
Under 20	1.3	2
20 - 24	41.6	64
25 - 29	23.4	36
30 - 34	16.2	54
35 - 39	4.5	7
40 - 44	3.9	6
45 - 49	1.9	3
50 - 54	1.9	3
55 and older	0.0	0
No response	5.2	8
Total	100.0	154

Marital Status

The majority of the students, 62.3 per cent, as shown by Table II, are single and 33.1 per cent are married. The widowed, divorced or separated might have discrepancies between the actual number of children they have now and what they would have liked to have, depending on their individual experiences. But since they constitute only 4.5 per cent of the respondents, their position will not alter the findings much.

Table II

Marital Status of Respondents

Status	%	N
Single	62.3	96
Married	33.1	51
Divorced or separated	3.2	5
Widowed	1.3	2
Total	100.0	154

Religion

Table III

Religion of Respondents

Category	%	N
Roman Catholic	37.7	58
Protestant	31.8	49
Jewish	1.3	2
Others	26.0	40
No response	3.2	5
Total	100.0	154

The data consist of nearly equal numbers of Roman Catholics and Protestants. As illustrated by Table III, 37.7 per cent of the respondents are Roman Catholics, while 31.8 per cent are Protestants. A significant number of the respondents have been classified as others. There is a likelihood

that some religious groups with high representation in the Windsor area have been omitted.

Religiosity

Table IV indicates that although a high percentage of the respondents, 45.5 per cent, seldom or never worship, the majority of them do worship at least several times a year. Among the 48.7 per cent that worship several times a year, 27.3 per cent of them do worship God on a weekly basis or more frequently.

Table IV

Religiosity of Respondents

Frequency of Worship	%	N
Weekly or more	27.3	42
Monthly	7.1	11
Several times a year	14.3	22
Seldom or never	45.5	70
No response	5.8	9
Total	100.0	154

Birth Intentions

Considering 0 to 1 child and 2 to 3 children to be small and medium size families respectively and a large family to consist of 4 or more children, Table V shows that majority of the respondents have preference for small and medium size families. There is a high concentration of respondents in three categories; that is, those of 2, 3 and 4 children. The mean number of children (2.86) desired by the respondents is considerably higher than the mean number of children by families in Canada (1.60) but it is within the range of the projections of Statistics Canada for the 1980's.

Table V

Birth Intentions of Respondents

Number of Children Desired	%	N
0	3.9	6
1	1.3	2
2	37.0	57
3	26.6	41
4	16.9	26
5	3.2	5
6	0.6	1
8 or more	2.6	4
No response	7.8	12
Total	100.0	154

Community Raised

Table VI illustrates that the respondents fall fairly evenly in all the categories, but the majority of them were brought up in either medium size or large cities. The data has an adequate representation of respondents brought up in smaller cities.

Table VI

Community Where Respondent was Raised

Size of Community	%	N
Up to 2,499	16.9	26
2,500 - 24,999	14.3	22
25,000 - 49,999	8.4	13
50,000 - 99,999	6.5	10
100,000 - 499,999	25.3	39
500,000 and above	21.4	33
No response	7.1	11
Total	100.0	154

Table VII

Area of Specialization of the Respondents

Faculty	%	N
Arts	9.1	14
Social Sciences	32.5	50
Pure Science and Maths	22.1	34
Business Administration	26.0	40
Engineering	7.8	12
Law	2.6	4
Total	100.0	154

Area of Specialization

Table VII shows the various Faculties of the students that constitute this study. While the Faculty of Social Sciences and Business Administration appear to have been slightly over sampled, only 2.6 per cent of the sample is composed of Law students. None of the respondents did identify with Faculties of Human Kinetics and Education. Hence, these Faculties have been left out of the table.

Sex Role Dimensions

With the exception of the traditional mother role (TM) dimension, the respondents indicate a very high level of modern sex role orientation. According to issues that have been discussed, this orientation is quite typical for small family size intentions. As illustrated by Table VIII, all the respondents expressed modern views on what Scanzoni referred to as institutionalized husband-wife equality (IE) dimension. This means that the respondents clearly believe in these two statements (Appendix A):

(a) that if the wife works the husband should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning and washing;

(b) that if the wife works the husband should share equally in the responsibilities of child care.

Table VIII

Sex Role Dimensions of the Respondents

Category	Modern Role %	Traditional Role %
TW	83.2 (114)	16.8 (23)
SA	86.2 (119)	13.8 (19)
PHA	85.5 (118)	14.2 (20)
IE	100.0 (138)	0.0 (0)
TH	68.6 (96)	31.4 (44)
RLM	66.9 (87)	33.1 (43)
TM	47.4 (65)	52.6 (70)

The propositions that form the base of this study will be examined individually and the validity of each recorded in the following section. Further, interrelationships between all the variables will be examined through regression analysis. An attempt will be made to connect some of the independent variables to the dependent variable by the use of path diagram.

Test of the Hypotheses

In an attempt to establish a more specific body of information about the separate effect of the variables sex role norms, religion, community of rearing, socioeconomic status, full-time female employment, and area of specialization on birth intention, the hypotheses below are going to be tested individually:

Hypothesis I

H_0: There is no relationship between sex role norms and birth intentions of university students.

H_1: There is relationship between sex role norms and birth intentions of university students.

Hypothesis II

H_0: There is no relationship between religion and birth intention of university students.

H_1: Catholics are more likely to desire a large family.

Hypothesis III

H_0: There is no relationship between place of rearing and birth intentions.

H_1: Students brought up in cities are more likely to desire a small family.

Hypothesis IV

H_0: There is no relationship between socioeconomic status and birth intentions.

H_1: Students from higher socioeconomic status will tend to desire a small family.

Hypothesis V

H_0: There is no relationship between desire for full-time work among female students and birth intentions.

H_1: Female students who would like to hold a full-time job during their childbearing years will tend to have a smaller family size intention.

Hypothesis VI

H_0: There is no relationship between the area of specialization and birth intentions of university students.

H_1: There is a relationship between the area of specialization

and birth intentions of university students.

The Chi-Square test of statistical significance is used to determine whether the variables are independent. Other appropriate test statistics will be used to describe the relationship between the variables where necessary. The critical region is set at 5 per cent ($P \leq .05$) for this analysis. Each of the hypotheses will be tested, and the findings recorded and discussed.

Sex Role Norms and Birth Intentions

a) Traditional Mother Role

Table IX

Traditional Mother Role by Birth Intention

	Birth Intention			
Role Dimensions	Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Traditional	1.4	67.1	31.4	70
Modern	11.1	68.3	20.6	63
				133
Total %	6.0	67.7	26.3	100.0

Chi Square = 6.64203 df = 2 significance = 0.0361

Tau C = -0.1723 significance = 0.0181

Gamma = -0.36355

As shown by Table IX, there is a concentration of the respondents in the rank of medium size family. There are 68.3 per cent of those with modern orientation; that is, those who consider that the mother's individualistic interest should be significant as compared to those of the children that prefer a medium size family. The traditionalists, who believe that the interests of the children should be placed ahead

of those of the mother, show equally high preference for medium size family, 67.1 per cent. But both the traditional and the modern sex role oriented respondents differ on their preference for both small and large families. While 11.1 per cent of those with modern orientation show their preference for a small family, only 1.4 per cent of the traditionalists expressed the same desire. On the other hand, there are 31.4 per cent of the traditional oriented respondents who want a large family as compared to 20.6 per cent of those who are modern.

This finding shows that a statistically significant relationship does exist between traditional mother role and birth intention. That is, sex role norms, as described by traditional mother role, are related to birth intentions. Those with modern sex role orientations appear to show more desire for small and medium size families, while those with traditional orientation tend to have preference for large and medium size families.

Table X

Traditional Mother Role by Birth Intention by Sex

Males

Role Dimension	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Traditional	0.0	72.5	27.5	40
Modern	12.1	78.8	9.1	33
				73
Total %	5.5	75.3	19.2	100.0

Chi Square = 8.13866 Significance = 0.0171 df = 2

Tau C = -0.26947 Significance = 0.0041

Conditional Gamma = -0. 67355

Table XI

Traditional Mother Role by Birth Intention by Sex

Females

Role Dimension	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Traditional	3.4	58.6	37.9	29
Modern	10.3	55.2	34.5	29
				58
Total %	6.9	56.9	36.2	100.0

Chi Square = 1.07792 Significance = 0.5834 df = 2

Tau C = -0.07610 Significance = 0.2851

Conditional Gamma = -0.14035

As further investigations are made into the measure of association that exist between the variables, new facts appear. When the variable sex is controlled for, as illustrated in Table X and Table XI, a stronger association is revealed for the males as opposed to that of the females. Tau C for the males is -0.26947, while that of the females is only -0.07610. A more significant difference is illustrated by that of the conditional gamma. For males, it is -0.67355, and for females it is only -0.14035. This information suggests that, in the case of the males, there is a stronger relationship between sex role norms and birth intentions, and this relationship is statistically significant beyond the 5 per cent level ($P \leq 0.004$).

Table X shows that 72.5 per cent of the males with traditional orientation, on the Traditional Mother Role index, prefer a medium size family, as compared to 78.8 per cent of those with modern orientation. A further remarkable difference does exist between these two orienta-

tions, as indicated by the desire expressed for both small and large families. On the other hand, 12.1 per cent, and 9.5 per centof the modern males desire, respectively, small and large families.

b) Religious Legitimation of Mother Role

Table XII

RLM by Birth Intention

Role Dimension	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Traditional	2.3	53.5	44.2	10
Modern	8.0	75.9	16.1	87
				130
Total %	6.2	68.5	25.4	100.0
Chi Square = 12.58188	Significance = 0.0019			df = 2
Tau C = -0.27124	Significance = 0.0002			
Gamma = -0.58769				

RLM has been defined as "the degree of sacredness attached to marital and familiar patterns." As illustrated by Table XII, the sacred, that is, those who are traditional on the RLM index, have a very high desire for large families, as compared to the modern or less sacred. Forty-four point two per centof the traditionals desire a large family, while only 16.1 per centof the modern desire the same. The difference in the preference for medium size families is also quite noticeable. There are 75.9 per centof those with modern orientation that desire a medium size family, as compared to 53.5 per centof those with traditional orientation. Equally important is the desire for a small family. While only 2.3 per centof the traditionals desire a

small family, a higher percentage (8.0 per cent) of those with modern values desire the same.

There is sufficient information from Table XII to confirm that a statistically significant relationship does exist between Religious Legitimation of Mother Role and birth intention. As a consequence of this, the null hypothesis of no relationship between sex role norms and birth intention is rejected. The association between the two variables appears to be quite strong as indicated by the test statistics. For more investigation into the existing association, a test variable, sex, is introduced into the analysis. As a result of this, a stronger association for the females becomes evident, as compared to a much weaker association between RLM and birth intention for the males.

Table XIII

RLM by Birth Intention by Sex

Females

Role Dimensions	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Traditional	0.0	31.6	68.4	19
Modern	11.1	72.2	16.7	36
				55
Total %	7.3	58.2	34.5	100.0

Chi Square = 15.28465 Significance = 0.0005 df = 2

Tau C = -0.49983 Significance = 0.0001

Conditional Gamma = -0.840

Table XIV

RLM by Birth Intention by Sex

Males

Role Dimensions	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Traditional	4.2	70.8	25.0	24
Modern	6.3	77.1	16.7	48
				72
Total %	5.6	75.0	19.4	100.0

Chi Square = 0.77976 Significance = 0.6771 df = 2

Tau C = -0.08488 Significance = 0.1922

Conditional Gamma = -0.23305

Table XIII shows that none of the traditionally oriented females wants a small family, but 11.1 per cent of the modern females have a desire for it. A stronger distinction between the modern and the traditionally oriented females is in the medium size and large family categories. While only 16.7 per cent of the modern females prefer a large family, 68.4 per cent of the traditionals opted for it. In the case of the medium size family, 72.2 per cent, and 31.6 per cent of modern and traditional women, respectively, have a desire for it.

As illustrated by Table XIV, with the exception of slight variations, the males that are either modern or traditional on the RLM index have essentially the same desire for medium and small size families. There are twice as many modern males in this dimension as there are the traditionals. Seventy-seven point one per cent and 70.8 per cent of both modern and traditionals, respectively, desire medium size families.

Those with traditional orientation still have a higher desire, and lower preference for large and small size families, respectively. Twenty-five point zero per cent of the males with traditional orientation on the RLM index want large families, as compared to only 16.7 per cent of the modern males. As for a preference for a small family, 6.3 per cent and 4.2 per cent of the modern and traditionals, respectively, have desires for them.

Religion and Birth Intention

Table XV

Religion by Birth Intention

Religion	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Catholic	1.8	66.1	32.1	56
Protestant	12.8	72.3	14.9	47
Others	2.6	69.2	28.2	39
Total %	5.6	69.0	25.4	100.0

Chi Square = 9.68533 Significance = 0.0461 df = 4

Cramer's V = 0.18467

Contingency Coefficient = 0.25269

Table XV shows that the Catholics, Protestants, and other religious group members have essentially similar preference for medium size family. There are 72.3 per cent Protestants who have expressed their desire for a medium size family, while 66.1 per cent, and 69.2 per cent of both Catholics and Others, respectively, have opted for the same. The Catholics and other religious groups, however, do not seem to care very much for a small size family. It is only 1.8 per cent of the Catholics, and 2.6 per cent of other religious groups who desire a small family. On the other hand, this desire is expressed by 12.8 per cent of

Protestants. In essence, both the Catholics and other religious groups do not differ very much about their desire for a large family. While 32.1 per cent of the Catholics, and 28.2 per cent of other religious groups prefer a large family, it is only 14.9 per cent of the Protestants who have the same preference.

There is sufficient statistical evidence that religion and birth intention are not independent ($P < .05$), therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. To find out more about the strength of the association, a test variable, sex, has been controlled for. As illustrated, however, in Table XVI, and Table XVII, there is hardly any significant statistical difference between the religious males and females about birth intentions.

In order to examine the effect of other aspects of religious affiliations on birth intentions, religiosity is introduced into the analysis. This is illustrated in Table XVIII.

Table XVI

Religion by Birth Intention by Sex

Males

	Birth Intention			
Religion	Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Catholic	0.0	87.0	13.0	23
Protestant	11.5	80.8	7.7	26
Others	3.3	66.7	30.0	30
				79
Total %	5.1	77.2	17.7	100.0

Chi Square = 8.5643 DF = 4 Significance = 0.0730
Cramer's V = 0.23282
Contingency Coef. = 0.31274

Table XVII

Religion by Birth Intention by Sex

Females

Birth Intention

Religion	Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Catholic	3.2	48.4	48.4	31
Protestant	15.0	60.0	25.0	20
Others	0.0	77.8	22.2	9
				60
Total %	6.7	56.7	36.7	100.0

Chi Square = 6.77188 df = 4 Significance = 0.1484

Cramer's V = 0.23755

Contingency Coef. = 0.31846

Table XVIII

Religiosity by Birth Intention

Birth Intention

Religiosity	Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Frequently	2.0	66.7	31.4	51
Seldom	8.1	70.9	20.9	86
				137
Total %	5.8	69.3	24.8	100.0

Chi Square = 3.58362 Significance = 0.1667 df = 2

Tau C = -0.13533 Significance = 0.0399

Gamma = -0.31482

As it has been noted in previous tables, the desire for a medium size family is quite outstanding. Seventy point nine per cent of those who seldom go to religious services prefer a medium size family, as compared to 66.7 per cent of those who are frequent religious service

attenders. But in the case of preference for a large family, frequent religious service goers outweigh those who seldom go to religious services. There are 31.4 per cent of the frequent service goers who desire a large family, while only 20.9 per cent of the seldom religious service goers have the same desire. As for a small family size, both groups do not care very much for it. Two per cent and 8.1 per cent of the frequent religious service goers, and seldom religious service goers, respectively, have expressed the desire for a small family. Of course, the relationship between religiosity and birth intention is not statistically significant at the 5 per cent level. But when religion is introduced as a control variable, a stronger relationship is identified.

Table XIX

Religiosity by Birth Intention by Religion

Catholic

	Birth Intention			
Religiosity	Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Frequently	0.0	60.0	40.0	30
Seldom	4.0	76.0	20.0	25
				55
Total %	1.8	67.3	30.9	100.0

Chi Square = 3.48362 Significance = 0.1752 df = 2

Tau C = -0.22215 Significance = 0.0410

Conditional Gamma = -0.48276

As shown by Table XIX, 76.0 per cent of the Catholics that seldom go to religious services, and 60.0 per cent of those that frequently go to church desire a medium size family, but none of the frequent church

goers wants a small family, and only 4.0 per cent of the seldom religious service goers want it. In the case of a large family, 40.0 per cent of the frequent church goers, as compared to 20.0 per cent of those who seldom go to church services expressed their desire for it. There are some indications that Catholics who frequently go to church services have a tendency to desire a large family.

As indicated by Table XIX, a strong association does exist between birth intention and the frequency of going to religious services in the case of the Catholics.

Table XX

Religiosity by Birth Intention by Religion

Protestant

	Birth Intention			
Religiosity	Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Frequently	0.0	84.6	15.4	13
Seldom	18.2	66.7	15.2	33
				46
Total %	13.0	71.7	15.2	100.0

Chi Square = 2.78277 Significance = 0.2487 df = 2

Tau C = -0.12665 Significance = 0.1507

Conditional Gamma = -0.37853

Table XXI

Religiosity by Birth Intention by Religion

Others

Religiosity	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Frequently	12.5	62.5	25.0	8
Seldom	0.0	71.4	28.6	28
				36
Total %	2.8	69.4	27.8	100.0

Chi Square = 3.6000 Significance = 0.1653 df = 2

Tau C = 0.08642 Significance = 0.2534

Conditional Gamma = 0.25926

Community and Birth Intention

Table XXII illustrates that a medium size family has higher preference among students brought up in large, small and medium size cities. There are 78.6 per cent and 68.6 per cent of the students brought up in medium size and large cities, respectively, who desire a medium size family, as compared to 58.3 per cent of those raised in rural areas and small cities. But those raised in rural areas and small cities have a much higher preference for a large family than the other two categories. While only 14.3 per cent, and 24.3 per cent of those brought up in medium and large size cities, respectively, desire a large family, there are 41.7 per cent of those brought up in rural areas or small cities who have the same desire. Both those brought up in large and medium size cities have identical desires for a small family. There are 7.1 per cent of them who have expressed their desire for it, as compared to zero per cent of those brought up in rural areas and small cities.

Table XXII

Community Raised by Birth Intention

Community	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Rural and Small Cities	0.0	58.3	41.7	24
Medium Size Cities	7.1	78.6	14.3	42
Large Cities	7.1	68.6	24.3	70
				136
Total %	5.9	69.9	24.3	100.0

Chi Square = 7.36260 Significance = 0.1179 df = 4

Tau C = -0.06601 Significance = 0.1470

Gamma = -0.15880

It appears that the variables, community where the individual is raised and birth intention are statistically independent ($P > .05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. The variable religion is introduced as a test to further investigate the relationship between these two variables.

Table XXIII

Community Raised by Birth Intention by Religion

Catholic

Community	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Rural and Small Cities	0.0	60.0	40.0	10
Medium Size Cities	0.0	77.8	22.2	18
Large Cities	4.2	62.5	33.3	24
				52
Total %	1.9	67.3	30.8	100.0

Chi Square = 2.37714 Significance =0.6668 df = 4

Tau C = -0.02219 Significance =0.4167

Conditional Gamma = -0.05155

Table XXIV

Community Raised by Birth Intention by Religion

Protestant

Community	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Rural and Small Cities	0.0	54.5	45.5	11
Medium Size Cities	18.2	81.8	0.0	11
Large Cities	16.7	75.0	8.3	24
				46
Total %	13.0	71.7	15.2	100.0

Chi Square = 11.57392 Significance = 0.0208 df = 4

Tau C = -0.23677 Significance = 0.0138

Conditional Gamma = -0.54397

Table XXV

Commune Raised by Birth Intention by Religion

Others

Community	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Rural and Small Cities	0.0	66.7	33.3	3
Medium Size Cities	7.7	76.9	15.4	13
Large Cities	0.0	68.2	31.8	22
				38
Total %	2.6	71.1	26.3	100.0

Chi Square = 2.91930 Significance = 0.5714 df = 4

Tau C = 0.10803 Significance = 0.1707

Conditional Gamma = 0.30952

The analysis shows that some association exists between community and birth intention. This relationship becomes evident when the variable, religion, is controlled for. A much stronger association

exists in the case of the Protestants (Gamma = -0.54397) as compared to the Catholics (Gamma = -0.05155) and other religious group members (Gamma = 0.30952).

Table XXIV shows that Protestants brought up in rural and small cities do not care for a small family. On the other hand, 18.2 per cent and 16.7 per centof those brought up in medium and large cities, respectively, have preferences for it. A medium size family has the highest favour among the Protestants. There are 76.9 per cent of the Protestants brought up in medium size cities who desire a medium size family, while 54.5 per centof those brought up in rural areas and small cities and 68.2 per centof those brought up in large cities have the desire for the same. The Protestants from the rural areas and small cities have exceptionally high preferences for a large family. There are 45.5 per centof them who have large family-size desires. While none of those raised in medium size cities care for a large family, 8.3 per centof large city Protestants have the desire for a large family.

Socioeconomic Status and Birth Intention

Table XXVI shows that 72.7 per centof those students whose parents are of high SES desire a medium size family as compared to only 66.1 per centof those with low SES. Students of low SES parents have much higher preferences for a large family than those with high SES parents. There are 32.2 per cent and 21.2 per cent of the low and high SES students, respectively, who desire a large family. In the case of a small family, the high status students have slightly higher preferences (6.1 per cent) than the low status students (1.7 per cent).

Table XXVI

SES of Parents by Birth Intention

	Birth Intention			
SES of Parents	Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Low SES	1.7	66.1	32.2	59
High SES	6.1	72.7	21.2	66
				125
Total %	4.0	69.6	26.4	100.0

Chi Square = 3.10635 Significance = 0.2116 df = 2

Tau C = -0.13722 Significance = 0.0494

Gamma = - 30594

Socioeconomic status of the parents, and birth intentions of the students are not independent. A statistically significant relationship does exist between them at 5 per cent level. Sufficient information does exist for rejecting the null hypothesis, and maintaining the proposition that students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds will tend to desire a small family. However, the variable, religion, is introduced into the analysis for a search for a stronger association.

Table XXVII

SES of Parents by Birth Intention by Religion

Catholic

	Birth Intention			
SES of Parents	Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Low SES	0.0	68.0	32.0	25
High SES	3.7	66.7	29.6	27
				52
Total %	1.9	67.3	30.8	100.0

Chi Square = 0.95306 Significance = 0.6209 df = 2

Tau C = -0.04882 Significance = 0.3356

Conditional Gamma = -0.10820

Table XXVIII

SES of Parents by Birth Intention by Religion

Protestant

SES of Parents	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Low SES	5.9	64.7	29.4	17
High SES	10.0	80.0	10.0	20
				37
Total %	8.1	73.0	18.9	100.0

Chi Square = 2.31696 Significance = 0.3140 df = 2

Tau C = -0.21037 Significance = 0.0791

Conditional Gamma = -0.47368

As shown by the two preceeding tables, middle-class Protestants seem to show higher preference (10.0 per cent) for a small family than the middle class Catholics (3.7 per cent). The opposite is true in the case of a large family. The Catholics have a much higher desire for a large family (29.6 per cent) than the Protestants (10.0 per cent). But as shown in the elaboration, controlling for religion does not produce any stronger relationship between SES of parents and birth intentions of students.

Full-Time Female Employment and Birth Intention

Table XXIX shows that 70.8 per cent of the respondents, who do not want married women to hold full-time jobs during their childbearing years, desire a medium size family, while 66.7 per cent of those who would like married women to hold full-time jobs during the period of childbearing desire the same. There is not much difference between these two groups of respondents about their preference for large fami-

lies. While 27.7 per cent of those who do not want married women to work full-time during their childbearing years have preference for large families, 22.2 per cent of the respondents with the opposite conviction do have the same preference. In the case of a small family, 11.1 per cent of those on the affirmative desire it, as compared to only 1.5 per cent of those on the negative.

Table XXIX

Female Employment by Birth Intention

Full-Time Employment During Childbearing	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Yes	11.1	66.7	22.2	63
No	1.5	70.8	27.7	65
				128
Total %	6.3	68.8	25.0	100.0

Chi Square = 5.15182 Significance = 0.0761 df = 2

Tau C = 0.12305 Significance = 0.0695

Gamma = 0.26471

Full-time female employment and birth intention do not appear to be independent. They are related but their relationship is not statistically significant at the 5 per cent level. The variable, sex, is introduced into the analysis for further search for a meaningful association.

Table XXX

Female Employment by Birth Intention by Sex

Male

Full-Time Employment During Childbearing	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Yes	12.0	68.0	20.0	25
No	2.1	81.3	16.7	48
				73
Total %	5.5	76.7	17.8	100.0

Chi Square = 3.42897 Significance = 0.1801 df = 2

Tau C = 0.04504 Significance = 0.3180

Conditional Gamma = 0.12146

Table XXXI

Female Employment by Birth Intention by Sex

Females

Full-Time Employment During Childbearing	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Yes	11.1	69.9	25.0	36
No	0.0	41.2	58.8	17
				53
Total %	7.5	56.6	36.8	100.0

Chi Square = 6.62621 Significance = 0.0364 df = 2

Tau C = 0.33464 Significance = 0.0054

Conditional Gamma = 0.65097

As illustrated in Table XXXI, 11.1 per cent of the females who would like to hold full-time jobs during their childbearing period desire a small family as compared to 0.0 per cent of those females who do not

want to hold full-time jobs at the same period. The differences between these two groups increase as we move from small to medium and large size families. Females opting for full-time jobs during childbearing years have high preferences for a medium size family. There are 69.9 per cent of them who want a medium size family and only 41.2 per cent of those females who do not want to hold full-time jobs during childbearing years desire the same. The respondents on the negative are more inclined to have a large family. Fifty-eight point eight per cent of them have shown their desire for it, while only 25.0 per cent of those on the affirmative have a desire for a large family. There is an indication that females who want full-time employment during childbearing years have smaller family size desires. This tendency is statistically significant beyond the 5 per cent level ($P < 0.01$). There is enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis, and retain the proposition that female students who would like to hold a full-time job during their childbearing years will tend to have smaller family size desires.

Area of Specialization and Birth Intention

Table XXXII shows that students in Business and Law combined, and those in the Applied Sciences, Mathematics and Engineering, have essentially similar desires for both medium size and large families. Seventy-four point four per cent of the students of Applied Sciences, Mathematics and Engineering have the desire for a medium size family, as compared to 76.2 per cent of the Business and Law students with the same desire. Again, the difference between the desires of these two groups for a large family is quite narrow. There are 23.3 per cent of the students in the Applied Sciences, Mathematics and Engineering who

want a large family, as compared to 16.7 per centof those in Business and Law. Regarding a small family, the Business and Law students (7.1 per cent) and Arts and Social Science students (7.0 per cent) have the same preference. But it is only 2.3 per centof the students of the pure sciences who have the same desire. The Arts and Social Science students have much greater desire for a large family (33.3 per cent) than the other two categories of students.

Table XXXII

Faculty by Birth Intention

	Birth Intention			
Faculty	Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Arts and Soc. Sc.	7.0	59.6	33.3	57
App. Sc., Maths., Eng.	2.3	74.4	23.3	43
Bus. Ad., and Law	7.1	76.2	16.7	42
				142
Total %	5.6	69.0	25.4	100.0

Chi Square = 5.17504 Significance = 0.2698 df = 4

Cramer's V = 0.13499

Area of specialization and birth intention do not appear to be independent. A relationship exists between them. But it is not statistically significant at the 5 per cent level. Community of rearing is introduced into the analysis for further investigation about stronger correlation.

Table XXXIII

Faculty by Birth Intention by Community

Small Cities and Towns

Faculty	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Arts, and Soc. Sc.	6.7	66.7	26.7	15
App. Sc., Maths., Eng.	0.0	81.8	18.2	11
Business and Law	12.5	87.5	0.0	16
				42
Total %	7.1	28.6	14.3	100.0

Chi Square = 5.89311 Significance = 0.2073 df = 4

Cramer's V = 0.26487

Table XXXIV

Faculty by Birth Intention by Community

Large Cities

Faculty	Birth Intention: Small Family	Medium Size Family	Large Family	N
Arts, and Soc. Sc.	12.5	62.5	25.0	24
App. Sc., Maths., Eng.	4.0	72.0	12.0	25
Business and Law	4.8	71.4	23.8	21
				70
Total %	7.1	68.6	24.3	100.0

Chi Square = 1.68138 Significance = 0.7941 df = 4

Cramer's V = 0.10959

Among the students brought up in small cities and towns, a strong relationship exists between area of specialization and birth intention (Cramer's V = 0.26487). As shown by Table XXXIII, the Business and Law students brought up in small cities and towns do not care for a large family, but 18.2 per cent, and 26.7 per cent of the students of pure sciences, and Arts and Social Sciences have, respectively, expressed their desire for it. However, 87.5 per cent of the Business and Law students desire a medium size family, as compared to 81.8 per cent, and 66.7 per cent of the pure science, and the Arts and Social Science respectively. None of the students of the Applied Sciences desire a small family, yet 12.5 per cent of the Business and Law students, 6.7 per cent of the Arts and Social Science students do desire it.

Multiple Regression Analysis

In addition to the testing of specific hypothesis, this section is concerned with general analysis that brings together all the variables to examine how the independent variables linearly relate to each other, and to the dependent variable.

A concise description of the relationship that exists between birth intention, the dependent variable and the independent variables is shown in Table XXXV. As indicated in this table, the independent variables appear to be strongly correlated to birth intention (Multiple R = 0.9123). Multiple R is considered here as being similar to the coefficient of correlation. But R^2, the coefficient of determination gives a more straightforward information about the existing relationship. The value of R^2 being 0.8322 shows the proportion of

variations in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variables. That is, 83 per centof the variation in birth intention is explained jointly by the selected variables used in this study. The B values shown in the same table are the partial regression coefficients. They measure the influence which each of the selected variables has on birth intention when all the other variables are controlled for.

Table XXXV

Selected Statistics from Regression Analysis

Dependent Variables: Birth Intention

Multiple R	0.9123
R^2	0.8322
Std. Error	1.2218

Independent Variables	B	Beta
Sex	-0.8833	-0.2602
TW	0.2061	0.6224
SA	0.2093	0.2972
PHA	-0.2515	-0.4656
IE	0.7488	0.6031
TH	-0.5647	-0.7356
RLM	-0.4787	-0.2263
TM	-1.4047	-0.7296
Religion	0.4084	0.0596
Religiosity	0.4423	0.3356
Father's Occupation	0.6887	0.7959
Father's Education	-1.5320	-1.7941
Mother's Occupation	-0.2184	-0.2155
Mother's Education	0.1315	0.1537
Community	-0.3060	-0.0330
Faculty	0.8955	0.7097
Year	1.4192	0.9260
Female Employment	-0.6957	-0.1982
World Population	5.1104	1.1962
Age	1.4771	0.7592
Marital Status	0.5277	0.2218
(constant)	-7.0448	

Table XXXVI shows the interrelationships between all the variables. The variables that constitute the socioeconomic status of the parents, education and occupation of both the father and the mother, are negatively correlated with birth intention. On the other hand, these variables are strongly intercorrelated. The seven sex role dimensions also show strong intercorrelations with one another, with the strongest relationship being the one between TW and TH (.70). PHA and IE (-.59), PHA and SA (.56), and PHA and TW (.55) are equally significant.

Religion positively relates to birth intention, awareness of world population, area of specialization, and RLM, but it shows relatively weaker relationships with the rest of the variables. Community is positively strongly related to father's occupation, IE, years of schooling, and marital status. Full-time female employment shows strong positive correlations with birth intention, PHA, and IE; with TW, TH, RLM, age and religiosity it is strongly negatively correlated. Finally, area of specialization does not appear to strongly intercorrelate with the other variables, except religion, IE, PHA, and sex.

In comparing the males to the females, as shown in Table XXXVII and Table XXXVIII, certain differences do exist between the intercorrelations for the male, as compared to the female respondents. But, essentially, the direction of the relationship does not appear to deviate from that of Table XXXVI. The two tables are self-explanatory. Yet, there are a few points that require some comments. The variables that constitute the socioeconomic status of the parents show much stronger intercorrelations for the males than for the females. As for the sex role dimension, the intercorrelations appear to be much stronger for the females

Table XXXVI

Correlations Between Variables used in the Analysis of Birth Intentions

Male & Female (N = 154)

		X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9
XI	Birth Intention									
X2	World Population	.36								
X3	Female Employment	.29	.16							
X4	Mother's Occupation	-.34	-.29	.03						
X5	Mother's Education	-.37	-.26	.15	.66					
X6	Father's Occupation	-.31	.09	-.01	.50	.50				
X7	Father's Education	-.28	.28	-.06	.40	.43	.67			
X8	Religiosity	-.07	-.11	-.39	.00	.00	.07	.19		
X9	Religion	.22	.23	.00	-.17	-.00	-.07	.04	.26	
X10	Community	-.03	.06	.10	.13	.13	.44	.27	.18	.02
X11	Marital Status	-.07	-.16	-.14	-.05	-.15	-.27	-.15	.06	.03
X12	Years of Schooling	.00	.03	-.08	.39	.32	-.36	.32	.08	.22
X13	Age	-.14	-.26	-.30	.01	-.16	-.17	-.02	.06	.13
X14	Faculty	.09	-.08	.21	.03	.11	.06	.29	-.20	.04
X15	RLM	-.13	-.06	-.57	.12	-.04	.01	.08	.38	.09
X16	TM	-.18	.09	-.19		-.11	.24	.05	-.07	.41
X17	TH	-.27	.04	-.60	.01	.21	.12	.06	.03	-.18
X18	IE	.16	.03	.27	.05	.19	.16	.33	.10	.17
X19	TW	-.28	.07	-.36	.11	.17	-.05	.05	-.07	-.03
X20	SA	-.19	.09	.03	.20	.29	.38	-.39	-.13	-.15
X21	PHA	.03	-.18	.39	.17	.28	.24	.13	.00	-.07
X22	Sex	-.29	.09	-.20	-.11	.02	-.21	-.09	-.14	-.17

Table XXXVI--Continued

X10	X11	X12	X13	X14	X15	X16	X17	X18	X19	X20	X21	X22
-.24												
.26	-.42											
-.18	.57	-.26										
.04	-.06	-.24	-.26									
.21	.03	.28	.34	-.18								
-.06	.13	.09	.29	.00	.23							
.02	.02	.18	.18	-.08	.50	.17						
.30	-.34	.01	-.19	.23	-.11	-.25	-.39					
-.15	.18	.07	.22	-.13	.23	.03	-.70	-.54				
-.02	-.13	.10	-.02	.14	-.19	.00	.37	-.28	-.28			
.16	-.24	.01	-.31	.40	-.37	-.26	.55	-.59	-.28	.56		
-.13	.16	.10	.00	-.33	.10	.11	.42	.62	-.27	-.27	-.49	

Table XXXVII

Correlations Between Variables used in the Analysis of Birth Intentions

Males (N = 86)

		X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9
X1	Birth Intention									
X2	World Population	.47								
X3	Female Employment	.24	.22							
X4	Mother's Occupation	-.50	-.30	.23						
X5	Mother's Education	-.39	-.18	.23	.67					
X6	Father's Occupation	-.42	-.01	.06	.71	.61				
X7	Father's Education	-.40	-.04	-.11	.51	.56	.75			
X8	Religiosity	-.04	.00	-.46	-.15	-.30	-.10	.28		
X9	Religion	.21	.60	-.18	-.38	-.37	.09	.02	.32	
X10	Community	-.08	.09	.02	.14	-.04	.33	.37	.02	.08
X11	Marital Status	-.11	-.24	.09	.19	.00	-.15	-.08	.32	.03
X12	Years of Schooling	-.08	-.07	-.28	.11	.21	.45	.32	.13	.11
X13	Age	-.29	-.17	-.30	.18	.03	.10	.34	.43	.33
X14	Faculty	-.08	-.12	.12	.04	.31	.18	.08	-.62	-.35
X15	RLM	-.02	.16	-.65	-.23	.09	.09	.34	.45	.37
X16	TM	-.25	.24	-.14	.07		.38	.06	-.17	.48
X17	TH	-.24	.02	-.57	.12	.42	.17	.24	.02	-.03
X18	IE	.15	.18	.06	-.14	.00	.20	.50	.21	.13
X19	TW	-.23	-.33	-.23	.33	.50	.19	.19	.03	-.31
X20	SA	-.27	-.27	-.14	.24	.49	.47	.40	-.06	-.24
X21	PHA	-.07	-.28	.23	.12	.30	.06	.06	-.19	-.33

Table XXXVII--Continued

X10	X11	X12	X13	X14	X15	X16	X17	X18	X19	X20	X21
-.14											
.22	-.36										
.02	.40	.06									
.08	-.16	-.30	.43								
.30	-.25	.34	.08	-.31							
.12	.04	.16	.27	.07	.23						
-.04	-.36	.05	.08	.10	.46	.08					
.42	.27	.05	-.03	.24	.13	-.13	-.12				
.02	-.04	.02	.19	.10	.10	.18	.62	-.28			
.02	-.08	.28	.21	.19	.16	.20	.33	.22	.01		
.06	.18	-.13	.09	.37	-.44	-.15	-.13	-.41	.51		

Table XXXVIII

Correlations Between Variables used in the Analysis of Birth Intentions

		Females (N = 65)								
		X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9
X1	Birth Intention									
X2	World Population	.28								
X3	Female Employment	.28	.13							
X4	Mother's Occupation	.10	-.28	.10						
X5	Mother's Education	-.35	-.36	.02	.67					
X6	Father's Occupation	-.24	.32	-.28	-.06	.30				
X7	Father's Education	-.11	.75	-.03	.14	.18	.48			
X8	Religiosity	-.35	-.19	-.46	.20	.41	.39	.01		
X9	Religion	.11	-.27	.26	.25	.43	-.11	.02	-.10	
X10	Community	-.05	.06	.17	.05	.43	.64	.03	.34	.17
X11	Marital Status	.10	-.13	.35	-.22	-.31	-.42	-.18	.08	.09
X12	Years of Schooling	.26	.12	.28	.59	-.46	.26	-.51	-.08	.47
X13	Age	.05	-.34	-.35	-.23	-.38	-.57	-.51	-.27	-.13
X14	Faculty	.25	.08	.30	-.14	-.36	-.50	-.13	.05	-.08
X15	RLM	-.31	-.40	-.40	.12	.03	-.09	-.39	.38	-.39
X16	TM	-.28	-.32	-.32	-.18	-.28	-.18	.34	.27	.34
X17	TH	.06	-.03	-.60	-.08	-.18	.27	-.22	.34	-.32
X18	IE	-.12	-.23	.51	.32	.52	-.03	.02	-.19	.10
X19	TW	.15	.10	-.55	-.02	-.40	-.06	.02	.14	-.23
X20	SA	-.38	.22	.23	.05	-.00	.11	.30	-.43	-.16
X21	PHA	-.29	.04	.59	.14	.42	.28	.17	.00	.14

Table XXXVIII--Continued

X10	X11	X12	X13	X14	X15	X16	X17	X18	X19	X20
-.33										
.37	-.52									
-.43	.70	-.50								
-.22	.24	-.04	-.03							
.11	.15	-.14	.37	.27						
.06	.32	-.08	.49	-.32	.15					
.35	.37	-.17	.40	.08	.61	.44				
.03	-.36	.06	-.42	.14	-.41	-.61	-.66			
-.26	.34	-.01	.49	.10	.48	.55	.60	-.81		
-.15	-.31	-.09	-.32	-.35	-.49	-.59	-.53	.47	-.55	
.45	-.66	.37	-.75	.04	.22	-.62	-.56	.59	.79	.51

than for the males.

Through the multivariat cross-tabular analysis and the correlation matrices, it has been observed that some relationships do exist between religion, socioeconomic status, sex role norms, years of schooling, awareness of world population, and birth intention. Thus, a presumed structure of a causal model is derived from these variables, connecting all the independent variables with the dependent variable. As shown in Table XXXIX, SES of parents and sex role norms are negatively correlated with birth intention. On the other hand, religion, full-time female employment, years of schooling and awareness of world population show positive correlation with birth intention at the 5 per cent level of significance. Most of the path coefficients are statistically signifi-

Table XXXIX

Direct and Indirect Path Coefficients

		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
I	Birth Intention							
II	SES of Parents	-.36						
III	Religion	.21	-.21					
IV	Female Employment	.36	-.13	-.03				
V	Sex Role	-.37	.35	.31	-.76			
VI	Years of Schooling	.17	.07	.13	-.09	.26		
VII	World Population	.37	.04	.19	.17	-.03	.14	

cant. But to make the diagram more meaningful, some weaker coefficients have been included.

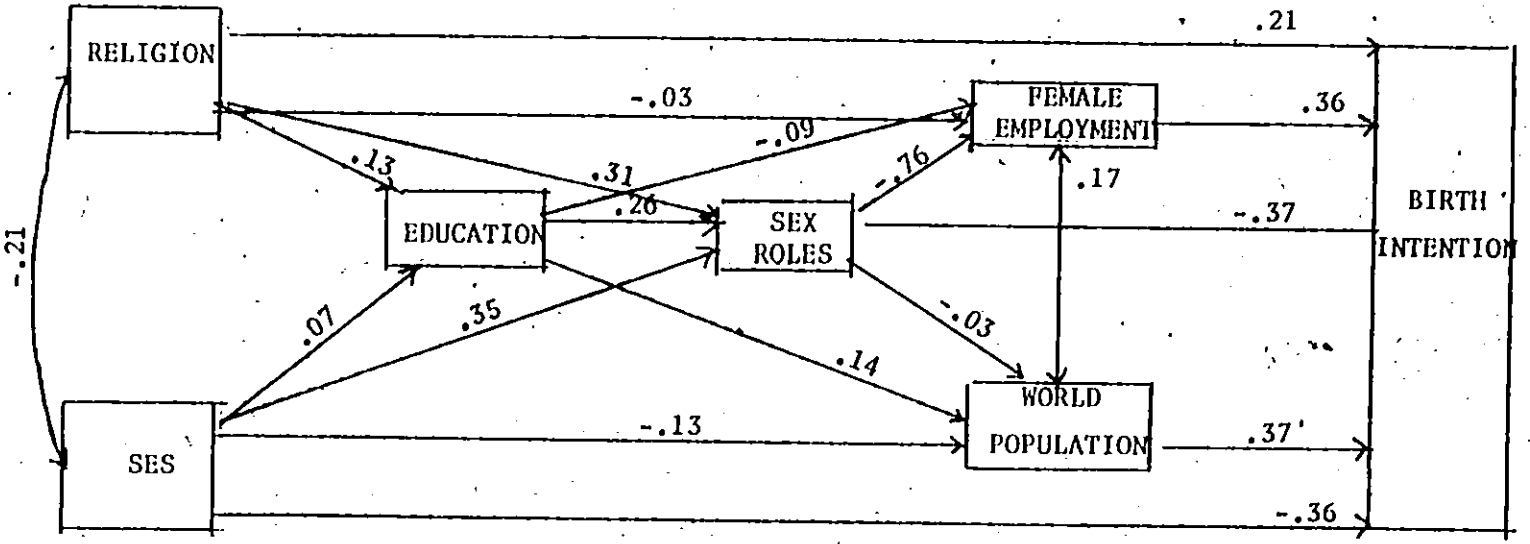
The path diagram, Figure 1, relates birth intention to prior variables. As shown in the diagram, it is assumed the SES has direct and

indirect effects on birth intention. It is fairly strongly correlated with sex roles and awareness of world population. It has a strong mutual relationship with religion, and its weakest relationship is that with education. At the same time, religion shows a strong direct influence on birth intention, and it is significantly interrelated with sex role norms and education. However, its relationship with female employment is not statistically significant. Both SES and religion have a much stronger influence on sex role norms than on education. However, education is significantly intercorrelated with awareness of world population and sex role norms. As shown by the diagram, the variables SES, religion, sex role norms, awareness of world population, and full-time female employment are all having a statistically significant influence on birth intention.

In this section, different statistical methods have been employed to examine the linkage between birth intention and certain selected fertility-relevant variables. The observations made here will be discussed in the following chapter.

Figure 1

Presumed diagram showing paths of influence of religion, SES, education, sex roles, female employment, and awareness of world population on birth intention.



The ordinary regression coefficients represent the path coefficients.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study has attempted to analyze the family-size desires of university students by looking mainly at how these desires relate to variables such as socioeconomic status of parents, community where the individual was raised, the individual's perception of the world population, sex role norms, full-time female employment, and religious affiliations. Both the male and the female respondents in this study appear to be relatively modern in their sex roles. As indicated by Table VIII, the sex role dimensions, PHA, IE and TH which give a combined measure of the social role of the males, clearly show that the respondents are highly inclined to a modern life style. The same thing is applicable to the factors which indicate the social role of the females, TW and SA.

All the male and female respondents expressed a hundred per cent support for institutionalized husband-wife equality. This means that everyone agrees with the idea that both the husband and the wife should share equally in household responsibilities and child care, if both of them work. On the other hand, a majority of the respondents are traditional as regards to factors which deal with the young child and the mother, Traditional Mother role. This traditional orientation seems to be in line with the ideas expressed by Holter (1970), that a special relationship between husband, wife and children is essential in order to maintain the stability of marital relations.

It has been observed that there is a linkage between sex role norms

and birth intention. All the seven role dimensions are relatively strongly correlated to birth intention. This finding supports that of Scanzoni (1975). When the males and the females are examined separately on the TW and RLM dimensions, it is observed that the relationship between TW and birth intention is much stronger for the male than for the females. In fact, the females, who are either traditional or modern on the TW dimension, do not show much difference between their desires for small, medium size or large families. But with the exception of medium size family, the traditional and the modern males vary significantly on their desire for both small and large families. The RLM index shows stronger relationship with birth intention for the females than for the males, with exceptionally high percentage (68.4 per cent) of the traditional females desiring a large family, and none of them showing a desire for a small one. The traditional and the modern males, however, did not show any remarkable difference between their family-size desires. This observation seems to be in line with the findings of Scanzoni (1976) that "men continue to emerge as more modern (or secular) than women"[1] on the RLM dimension. But in this area of male-female traditionality, Scanzoni did further observe that females are less traditional than males in the case of frequency of future labour force participation.

Religion is found to have some influence on birth intention, and it is found to intercorrelate strongly with TM, TH and years of schooling. But, in essence, there is not much distinction between the Catholics and other religious groups about their family-size desires. However, the Protestants appear to be less inclined towards having a

large family, and they do have a much higher desire for a small family, as compared to the Catholics and the other religious groups. The frequency of going to religious services appears to be strongly associated with birth intention, with the frequent goers, as compared to those who seldom go to religious services, showing more desire for a large family. With regard to the Catholics, Protestants and other religious groups, there is some evidence that the Catholics who frequently go to religious services are more inclined to have a large family. As the findings show, the Protestant and the Catholics who frequently go to religious services do not desire a small family. However, they differ in their desire for large and medium size families with the Catholics showing greater interest in having a large family.

The community of rearing is found not to have a statistically significant relationship with birth intention. Yet, it strongly intercorrelates with variables such as father's occupation, father's education, religiosity, marital status, and years of schooling which do directly and indirectly influence birth intention. It has been expected that those who are brought up in large, overcrowded cities would have small family-size desires due to the fact that smaller families appear to be much easier to raise in the cities than the large ones. Alternatively, it would seem that those brought up in rural areas, especially on the farms, would tend to desire large families.

Religious affiliations do show some influence in this situation as well. By using religion as an additional empirical indication, some linkage has been observed between community of rearing and birth intention. The findings show that the Protestants, unlike the Catholics, who

are brought up in large cities have a greater tendency to desire a small family. The same thing is true of those from medium size cities. On the contrary, those Protestants and the Catholics brought up in rural areas and small cities do not show remarkable differences in their family-size desires. In essence, they do not care for a small family. They prefer only large and medium size families. The desire of the rural Protestants and Catholics for large and medium size families seems to be attributed to economic factors. It appears that the cost of child bearing and rearing is smaller in the rural areas than in the cities. On the other hand, in the situation where the parents are farmers, the need for more helping hands on the farms appears to be the driving force for having a large family, and if the children do work on the farm, their contribution is more likely to outweigh their consumption. Hence, the essence of having a good number of them.

There is some indication that socioeconomic status of parents has a direct and indirect influence on birth intention. It also has strong intercorrelations with years of schooling, TM, PHA, SA, and marital status. The findings show that those of higher socioeconomic origin are more inclined to have a small family than those of low socioeconomic status. In the case of a large family, those of low socioeconomic status have greater desire for it than those of high socioeconomic status. When religious affiliation is taken into consideration, it is found that Protestants, unlike the Catholics of high socioeconomic status, are interested in having a small family. Alternatively, the high socioeconomic Catholics are more interested in large families than the Protestants of the same class.

Despite the fact that the students we are dealing with in this study have essentially the same level of education, one would expect that those from high status homes have access to better family planning, and other fertility planning and control techniques than the others. In addition, students from high status milieu are more likely to develop tastes for quality rather than quantity of children.

Full-time female employment during her childbearing years is found to be associated with birth intention. It also strongly intercorrelates with the frequency of going to religious services, area of specialization, RLM, IE, TW and PHA. Those who do not want the females to hold a full-time job at this period do not care very much for a small family, as compared to those who do want them to hold a full-time job. But the two do not differ very much in their desire for a medium size family. However, they differ slightly in their desire for a large family, with those who do not want them to hold a full-time job during the childbearing period showing more desire for it.

In looking more specifically at the female respondents, it is observed that there is a clear distinction in birth intentions of those who would like to hold a full-time job during the childbearing period, and those who do not. Those who do not want to hold a full-time job at this period care only for large and medium size families, with more inclination for a large family. On the contrary, those females who would like to work at this period would rather have small or medium size families. The male respondents appear to be inclined in the same direction as the females on this issue.

It appears from this finding that there is a trade-off between

female employment and childbearing. Those females who would like to participate in the labour market on a full-time basis are opting for small families. It is likely that these women, who are evidently modern and egalitarian, would rather forego the cost related to the bearing of many children for the satisfaction they get from an occupation. This observation is supportive to a certain extent of the findings of Scanzoni (1975), "that persons who hold modern, egalitarian sex role norms do indeed behave in such a way as to have smaller families."[2]

It has been further observed that the area of specialization of the students is not significantly related to birth intention. However, it strongly intercorrelates with female employment, religion, the frequency of going to religious services, PHA and age. As the final analysis shows, depending on the community where the individual is raised, his or her birth intention can be influenced by the area of specialization. The Arts and Social Science students, as well as the Applied Science, Maths, and Engineering students of both large cities and small towns, do not vary much about their desire for children. However, the Business and Law students do have some differences. Unlike the Law and Business students from large cities, those from small cities and towns do not care for a large family; they are more interested in small and medium size families.

The difference in the desires for children, as illustrated here, may be attributed to economic factors. It is possible that, although it is more costly to raise children in large cities as compared to small towns, the Law and Business students in large cities are looking at a large family as a valuable asset, wherein the children will directly con-

tribute to the family business. For the Law and Business students who live in small cities, however, a large family will not seem to be of any economic advantage because the market for either goods or services is limited.

The regression analysis has shown how the independent variables relate to the dependent variable, and the intercorrelationship between all the variables. It has been further observed from the value of the coefficient of determination (R^2) that the selected variables that have been used in this study do explain 83 per cent of the variation in birth intentions of university students. The assumed structure of linkages between birth intention and some of the independent variables shows that religion and socioeconomic status of parents are the two prior variables that directly and indirectly influence birth intentions.

The assumed path diagram shows that sex role, awareness of world population, full-time female employment, and socioeconomic status of parents have statistically significant direct influences on birth intention. Secondly, they are strongly interrelated. However, these variables, including all the others that have been used in this study, do not fully explain the variations in birth intentions of university students. On the contrary, they do account for only 83 per cent of the changes in birth intentions ($R^2 = 0.8322$). This partial explanation of birth intentions, and the lack of statistically significant relationships between variables, where it was most expected, may be attributed to problems concerning the study design, and the very choice of the variables that have been used.

The selected fertility-relevant variables that are used in this

study have been restricted to those which the respondents were expected to freely talk about without any embarrassment. As a consequence of this, questions concerning family planning and birth control were completely avoided. The absence of such important variables is reflected in the fact that only part of the variation in birth intentions is explained by the selected variables.

The second problem in this area is that some of the variables have not been fully explored. Identification of religious affiliation was confined only to Catholics, Protestants, and Jews. This limited response category has forced most of the respondents, who are religious, to identify themselves with the non-religious in the category indicating others. Some of the respondents (5 per cent) did indicate their religious affiliations by writing it on the questionnaire. But, for the case of analysis, these cases were combined with the non-religious under the heading, Others.

The major problem in the study design deals with the fact that the intended stratified sampling method has not been suitable for this study. The stratification was based on the assumption that students who were taking courses in Law, Business, Engineering, Arts, Education, Pure Sciences and Social Sciences were considered to be majoring or specializing in these areas. But this turned out to be untrue. Most of the students were taking optional courses in the various faculties. So, instead of having a stratified random sample, as anticipated, what we have here is a sample drawn from the 1979 Summer Session at the University of Windsor, with the Faculties of Business and Social Sciences over-represented.

This study has examined the effect of selected variables on birth intentions of students. It has further looked at the interrelationships between the variables through the use of multiple regression analysis. It should be recommended that future studies in this area be designed to encompass a wider range of fertility-relevant variables, particularly variables such as intended age of marriage, family planning, and birth control methods. It would be further recommended that environmental factors such as the ups and downs in the economic activities be taken into consideration.

CHAPTER VI

FOOTNOTES

1. John Scanzoni, Sex Role Change and Influence on Birth Intentions.
2. John Scanzoni, Sex Roles, Life Styles, and Childbearing.

APPENDIX A

This study concerns the family in modern society. We would like to know what you think about it. Could you please answer the following questions. Thanks.

DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What is your major? (Specify) _____

2. Which faculty are you? _____

3. What year are you in?

   a. _____ Preliminary

   b. _____ I

   c. _____ II

   d. _____ III

   e. _____ IV

   f. _____ Post-graduate studies

   g. _____ Professional school

4. Sex: a. _____ Male

   b. _____ Female

5. Marital Status:

   a. _____ Single

   b. _____ Married

   c. _____ Divorced or separated

   d. _____ Widowed

6. The following questions concern the role of the wife in our society. To each of them indicate by "x" if you strongly agree, agree, have mixed feelings, disagree or strongly disagree.

a. A married woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her husband and children.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

b. She should realize that a woman's greatest reward and satisfaction come through her children.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

c. Having a job herself should be just as important as encouraging her husband in his job.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

d. If she works, she should <u>not</u> try to get ahead in the same way that a man does.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

e. She should be able to make long-range plans for her occupation in the same way her husband does for his.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

f. A wife should <u>not</u> have equal authority with her husband in making decisions.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

g. If she does the same job as a man who has to support his family, she should not expect the same pay.

h. If being a wife and mother isn't satisfying enough, she should take a job.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

i. There should be more day-care centres and nursery schools so that more young mothers could work.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

j. A wife should realize that, just as a woman is not suited for heavy physical work, there are also other kinds of jobs she is not suited for because of her mental and emotional nature.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

k. A wife should give up her job whenever it inconveniences her husband and children.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

l. If a mother of young children works, it should be only while the family needs the money.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

7. The following questions concern the role of the husband in our society. To each of them indicate by an "x" if you strongly agree, agree, have mixed feelings, disagree or strongly disagree.

a. A married man's chief responsibility should be his job.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

b. If his wife works, he should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning and washing.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

c. If his wife works, he should share equally in the responsibilities of child care.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

d. If her job sometimes requires her to be away from home overnight, this should not bother him.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

e. If a child gets sick and his wife works, he should be just as willing as she to stay home from work and take care of the child.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

f. If his wife makes more money than he does, this should not bother him.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

g. The husband should be the head of the family.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

h. On the job, men should be willing to work for women supervisors.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

i. A married man should be willing to have a smaller family so that his wife can work if she wants to.

_____ SA _____ A _____ MF _____ DA _____ SDA

8. a. Do you believe that the institution of marriage and family has been established by God?

a. _____ Yes b. _____ No

b. Do you feel that being a mother is a special calling from God?

a. _____ Yes b. _____ No

c. Do you think that a working mother can establish just as warm and secure relationship with her children as a mother who does not work?

a. _____ Yes b. _____ No

d. Do you feel that a parent gets more satisfaction when a son gets ahead in his occupation than when a daughter gets ahead in hers?

a. _____ Yes b. _____ No

e. Do you feel that a marriage is incomplete without children?

a. _____ Yes b. _____ No

f. Do you think that young girls should be permitted as much independence as boys?

a. _____ Yes b. _____ No

g. Do you feel a preschool child is likely to suffer if the mother works?

a. _____ Yes b. _____ No

9. If you could have any number of children you want, how many would you like to have? _____

10. Age:

a. _____ under 20

b. _____ 20-24

c. _____ 25-29

d. _____ 30-34

e. _____ 35-39

f. _____ 40-44

g. _____ 45-49

h. _____ 50-54

i. _____ 55 and older

11. Religion:

a. _____ Roman Catholic

b. _____ Protestant

c. _____ Jewish

d. _____ Other

12. How often do you go to church (temple, synagogue, etc.)?

    a. _____ weekly or more often

    b. _____ Monthly

    c. _____ Several times a year

    d. _____ Seldom or never

13. How large was the city or town in which you lived during most of the time you were growing up?

    a. _____ up to 2,499

    b. _____ 2,500 - 24,999

    c. _____ 25,000 - 49,999

    d. _____ 50,000 - 99,999

    e. _____ 100,000 - 499,999

    f. _____ 500,000 and above

14. What is your mother's occupation? (type of work she does).

    _____

15. What is your father's occupation? (type of work he does).

    _____

16. What is your father's education?

    a. _____ elementary school

    b. _____ some high school

    c. _____ high school graduate

    d. _____ some college or university

    e. _____ college graduate

    f. _____ some post-graduate

    g. _____ post-graduate or professional

17. What is your mother's education?

a. _____ elementary school

b. _____ some high school

c. _____ high school graduate

d. _____ some college or university

e. _____ college graduate

f. _____ some post-graduate

g. _____ post-graduate or professional

18. Do you think a married woman should work full-time during her childbearing years?

a. _____ Yes b. _____ No

19. Do you think the world population growth is a social problem?

a. _____ Yes b. _____ No

APPENDIX B

TECHNIQUE OF OPERATIONALIZING THE SEX ROLES

1) $TW = \bar{a} + b + c + d + f + j + \bar{k} + l$

Code	Frequency
7	1
8	1
10	1
11	2
12	3
13	4
14	7
15	4
16	1
17	5
18	9
19	7
20	10
21	9
22	14
23	9
24	10
25	6
26	10
27	10
28	9
29	4
30	7
32	4
99 (no response)	7
	154

Traditional (7 to 16)

Modern (17 to 32)

Note: 99 indicates no response

2) SA = c + e + h + i (Question 6)

Code		Frequency
0		11
1		9
2		17
3		18
4		28
5		18
6		11
8		6
9		5
10		5
11		2
12		1
14		1
99	(no response)	6
		154

Traditional (8 to 14)

Modern (0 to 7)

3) PHA = d + e + f + h + i (Question 7)

Code	Frequency
0	9
1	6
2	7
3	8
4	16
5	26
6	18
7	18
8	8
9	8
10	8
11	2
12	7
13	1
14	1
15	1
18	1
99 (no response)	0
	154

Traditional (10 to 18)

Modern (0 to 9)

4) IE = b + c (Question 7)

Code	Frequency
0	52
1	17
2	58
3	7
4	10
5	4
6	1
7	1
8	1
99 (no response)	3
	154

Traditional (9 to 18)

Modern (0 to 8) All respondents are modern on this dimension.

5) TH = a + g (Question 7)

Code	Frequency
0	5
1	8
2	13
3	20
4	34
5	20
6	24
7	14
8	9
99 (no response)	7
	154

Traditional (0 to 3)

Modern (4 to 8)

6) RLM = a + b (Question 8)

Code	Frequency
0	45
1	24
2	67
99 (no response)	18
	154

Traditional (0)
Modern (1 to 2)

7) TM = c + d + e + f + g Question 8)

Code	Frequency
0	4
1	21
2	46
3	50
4	11
5	5
99 (no response)	17
	154

Traditional (0 to 2)
Modern (3 to 5)

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