DIFFERENTIAL ATTITUDE TOWARDS TRADITIONAL GENDER ROLE AMONG ADOLESCENTS: A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY
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Abstract: This research was conducted using data from Alberta High School Graduate Survey (AHGS) 1996 in Canada to examine the differential attitude towards traditional gender role among high school graduates in Canada. Sex (men and women), mother as homemaker, father as homemaker, fathers’ education, mothers’ education, and community size were taken into account to predict adolescents’ attitude towards traditional gender role. Using multivariate statistical techniques, it was tested that boys and girls significantly differ regarding attitude towards traditional gender role. Overall, it was found that respondents’ sex had the strongest impact on adolescents’ attitude towards traditional gender role. And females’ attitude towards traditional gender role is less biased compared to males. Regarding parents as homemaker it was found that those whose mothers work as homemaker had high gender bias compared to those whose mothers were not homemakers. Finally, it was found that mothers’ high education was negatively associated with high level of gender bias.

Keywords: Sex, adolescents’ attitude, gender role, parents’ as homemaker, education

Introduction
Attitude towards traditional gender role is one of the important aspects in theories of social development both in the context of developed and underdeveloped countries. Various theories have been developed to explain the differential attitudes towards gender role. The main theme of these theories (i.e., social cognition approach, biological approach, structural-functionalist perspective) is that through a gradual process of socialization both men and women become oriented with certain types of attitudes and belief system which is manifested by their activities in later life. Moreover, various formal and informal organizations play another important role to shape their mental framework. Thus, a certain type of mental framework is developed among adolescents regarding attitude toward traditional gender role.

According to the social role approach different people are expected to behave in a different way which is approved by the existing norms of the society (Martin and Parker, 1995). Among different types of social role ‘gender roles’ are seen from bio-sociological perspective. For example, during the Neolithic era (around 8000 BC), which was the starting point of stereotyped gender role in the history of human civilization, men took roles as judges while women were in-charge of family control. Women in the Roman Empire were considered as mere objects of reproduction (Nagle, 2006). But the limitation of social role approach is that it focuses more on the ascribed attitude among individuals which is derived from various norms and values for differential mental framework. It does not consider the achieved attitude of the individuals which
is generated from education as time passes. In fact, the differential pattern of attitude towards gender role in North America and Asia can be explained by the different system of education.

These theoretical approaches have paved the way for further research on attitude towards stereotyped gender role. Several studies have been conducted on predicting stereotyped gender roles (i.e., Huber and Spitze 1981; Loo and Thorpe, 1998; Kulik, 2005). Huber and Spitze (1981) examined the impact of wives’ employment on household behaviours and sex-role attitudes in USA. Essentially what they found was that sex role attitudes differ significantly based on wives’ employment. But they didn’t focus on the impact on parental factors (i.e. parents’ education, income, and ethnicity) on their children’s attitude towards traditional gender role. Kulik (2005) examined the role of parental factors on children’s attitude towards traditional gender role and found that parental factors had a strong effect on their children’s attitude towards traditional gender role. However, limited attention has been given to explain adolescents’ differential attitudes towards traditional gender role in developed and underdeveloped countries. This study is a modest attempt to explain adolescents’ differential attitudes towards traditional gender role in developed countries. The research is guided by the question: Does sex impact on adolescents’ attitude towards traditional gender role?

Conceptual Framework: In this study ‘Sex’ was considered as the central independent variable and ‘attitude towards traditional gender role’ is the dependent variable. Other independent variables which were controlled in multivariate analyses include mother as homemaker, father as homemaker, father’s education, mother’s education, and community size. The intervening variable in the model is ‘self-esteem’ which was measured in the model for data analysis. The reason for controlling mother as homemaker, father as homemaker, mother’s education, father’s education, and community size to examine the impact of sex on traditional gender role is that previous research shows that these variables have some sort of impact (either direct or indirect) on the selected dependent variable.

Previous research shows that attitude towards traditional gender role differs significantly on the basis of sex. Men have different attitude towards traditional gender role than women. This can be supported by the biological approach which explains the development of different personality traits among men and women based on physical differences. According to this approach, a certain type of personality traits develops among men for which they believe that women should do certain types of works for household maintenance. Thus, sex has a direct impact on attitude towards gender role. Moreover, different attitude towards gender role among men and women is also mediated through the development of self-esteem. Among men and women those who have high level of self-esteem show less gender bias attitude compared to those who have low self-esteem. Kulik (2005) examined whether adolescent boys and girls differ with respect to their gender role stereotypes. Overall, he found significant differences by the adolescents’ sex and specifically, boys showed higher stereotyped attitude towards gender role than did girls.

The model (Fig. 1) also assumes that parents as homemaker has both a direct and an indirect effect on respondents’ attitude towards traditional gender role. Those whose mothers are working as homemaker tend to have low self-esteem which in turn results in high gender bias. The underlying mechanism is that when mothers are homemaker then fathers are working outside. In that case fathers are solely responsible for their earnings to maintain their households. They (fathers) do consider that mothers should be involved in household maintenance and taking care of their children. On the other hand, those whose fathers are working as homemaker tend to have high self-esteem which in turn results in low gender bias. In this case, it is assumed that when fathers are working as the homemaker then mothers are working outside and doing jobs. Mothers are also earning for the maintenance of their households. Children of this type of parents possess high self-esteem which in turn leads to low gender bias attitude. This assumptions can be supported by the theory of symbolic interaction as mentioned by George Herbert Mead in his
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‘Mind Self and Society’. According to this theory, children develop different types of personality traits through the process of socialization which starts from the family and parents play the most important role to shape different types of mental framework.

![Conceptual framework](image_url)

The model further assumed that parents’ education has a direct impact on children’s attitude towards gender role and an indirect impact as well, which is mediated through the development of self-esteem among children. Regarding the direct impact it is assumed that those whose parents have high educational background show low gender bias compared to those whose parents have low educational background. Regarding the indirect impact of parents’ education on their children’s attitude towards gender role it is assumed that those whose parents have high level of educational background develop high level of self-esteem which in turn results in low gender bias. Kulik (2005) examined whether parents’ higher education is related with low gender bias attitudes. Specifically, he found that parents’ education was not significantly correlated with adolescents’ attitude towards gender role. But the limitation of his study was that Kulik (2005) did not consider mother’s education and father’s education separately. Since he did consider parents’ education in one variable, it can not be said that both mother’s and father’s education were insignificant. To overcome this limitation, both fathers’ education and mothers’ education have been treated separately in our analysis. It has enabled us to predict impact of mothers’ education and fathers’ education separately.

Moreover, the model also assumes that community size has both direct and indirect impact on adolescents’ attitude towards traditional gender role. Those who live in urban community show less gender bias compared to those who live in rural community. But how does community size facilitate different attitude towards traditional gender role? This can be explained by the theory of urbanization which advocates that urban centers provide better education facilities compared to rural areas. Those who live urban areas get access to better education facilities, are influenced by modernization, and have interaction with a variety of people. Thus people who live in urban communities get access to different types of resources which in turn results in low gender bias.
A total of five hypotheses were tested in this research. First, females attitude towards traditional gender role is less bias then males; second, those whose mothers are working as homemaker tend to have low self-esteem which in turn results in high gender bias; third, those whose fathers are working as homemaker tend to have high self-esteem which in turn results in low gender bias; fourth, those whose parents have high educational background show low gender bias compared to those whose parents have low educational background; fifth, those who live in urban community show less gender bias compared to those who live in rural community.

Materials and Methods

Data: This research was conducted using data from Alberta High School Graduate Survey 1996 which was conducted by Population Research Laboratory, University of Alberta, Canada. The survey data were collected from 2681 respondents using self-administered questionnaires. The same respondents were again interviewed in 2003 but the response rate was 45% (N=1218) compared to 1996 baseline sample (N=2681). In this study, only 1996 data were used. The 1996 data set contains information on sex, age, marital status, income, occupation, parents’ socioeconomic background, self-esteem, attitude towards gender role, and community size. A weighting factor was developed to make the sample representative of the population. In this study weighting factor was used in all statistical analyses.

Methods: Along with a univariate analysis, multivariate statistical techniques were used to analyze data and to test research hypotheses. Ordinary Least Square (OLS) Regression models were carried out to predict respondents’ attitude toward traditional gender role by selected independent variables.

In this study, Sex was the principal independent variable. Sex was recoded into a dummy variable (female=1 and male=0) to fit the nominal variable into the OLS regression model. A new dummy variable was created for ‘mother as homemaker’ (checked=1, Unchecked=0) and also for ‘father as homemaker’ (checked=1, and unchecked=0) to fit these dichotomous variables into OLS regression models.

The AHGS 1996 contains information both on fathers’ education and mothers’ education into six categories (elementary/JR high, some high school, high school grad, tech/community college, some university, and university grad). Both father’s education and mother’s education were recoded into dummy variables (high=1, low=0) to fit categorical variables into the OLS regression models. University graduation was recoded into ‘high education’ and other five categories were recoded into ‘low education’. Two other categories (no response and don’t know) were treated as missing values.

The data set provides information on community size into five categories (Edmonton, Calgary, <100,000, <10,000, and <2500). Community size was recoded into dummy variable (urban=1, and rural=0) to fit the categorical variable with OLS regression models. A community with a population of <2500 has been defined as the ‘rural’ and other four categories (Edmonton, Calgary, <100,000, and <1,000,000) were defined as ‘urban’ category.

To measure respondents’ self-esteem, out of ten categories, first six categories (on whole satisfies with self, at times think am no good at all, feel have number of good qualities, am able do things most people, feel useless at times, and all in all inclined feel am failure) which were used by Rosenberg (1965) were taken for this study. Five possible responses were offered, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). An index was created ranging from 0 to 4 from a series of six variables that were used to measure self-esteem. The Cronbach Alpha reliability statistics of six questions for self-esteem was 0.803. Thus one score for a new ordinal variable ‘self-esteem’ was derived by computing the mean of the items on the questionnaire to facilitate some of the more advanced techniques like OLS regression: high score is associated with higher levels of self-esteem.

1 ‘Father as homemaker’ denotes the situation where father is actively involved in household works rather than working at any formal or informal institutions.
Five questions were taken to measure stereotyped attitude towards gender role that includes same job opportunities for men and women, husband responsible for earning, wife responsible for raising children, unemployment high men should get job before women, and do not like spouse to earn more money. The scale of responses ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). An index was created ranging from 0 to 4 for five questions. The Cronbach’s Alpha reliability statistics was 0.52 for above five questions. With a view to increase the reliability of the study, the first question on same job opportunities for men and women was deleted. Finally, the new Cronbach Alpha rose to 0.738 with four items. One score was derived by computing the mean of the four items: the higher the score, the higher the stereotyped gender role attitude.

An ordinal variable was created for self-esteem to conduct bivariate analyses. The self-esteem level of 0.00 to 2.00 was recoded into low self-esteem, 2.01 to 3.00 into medium self-esteem, and 3.01 to 4.00 into high self-esteem. Level of gender bias was also recoded into a different variable in which levels of gender bias of 0.00 to 1.00 was defined as low gender bias, 1.01 to 2.00 into medium gender bias, and 2.01 to 4.00 into high gender bias.

To examine interaction effect in the regression model ‘mothers’ education’ was recoded into two categories (high=1, low=2) and ‘mother as homemaker’ was also recoded into two categories (not checked=1, checked=2). Then a new variable of ‘interaction’ (between mother’s education and mother as homemaker) was created in which new values were 1, 2 and 4.

Sample Characteristics: Among respondents 51.2% was male and 48.8% was female. Out of total samples 35.2% of respondents’ mothers were homemaker. It was observed that only 3.0% of the respondents’ fathers were homemaker.

Table 1. Sample characteristics (Alberta High School Graduate Survey 1996)

| Variables                  | Frequency & (percentages) |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Sex                       |                           |
| Male                      | 1363 (51.2%)              |
| Female                    | 1301 (48.8%)              |
| Mother as Homemaker       |                           |
| Checked                   | 937 (35.2%)               |
| Not checked               | 1725 (64.8%)              |
| Father as Homemaker       |                           |
| Checked                   | 79 (3.0%)                 |
| Not checked               | 2583 (97.0%)              |
| Mother’s education        |                           |
| High                      | 574 (23.4%)               |
| Low                       | 1886 (76.6%)              |
| Father’s education        |                           |
| High                      | 646 (27.4%)               |
| Low                       | 1710 (72.6%)              |
| Community size            |                           |
| Urban                     | 2455 (91.6%)              |
| Rural                     | 226 (8.4%)                |
| Self-esteem               |                           |
| Low (0.00 – 2.00)         | 357 (13.4%)               |
| Medium (2.01 – 3.00)      | 1195 (45.1%)              |
| High (3.01 – 4.00)        | 1103 (41.5%)              |
| Gender bias               |                           |
| Low (0.00 – 1.00)         | 1600 (60.3%)              |
| Medium (1.01 – 2.00)      | 747 (28.2%)               |
| High (2.01 – 4.00)        | 306 (11.5%)               |
Regarding mother’s education it was found that a vast majority of respondents’ parents have low education (76.6%) compared to high education (23.4%). Also 72.6% of the respondents’ fathers have low education compared to high education (27.4%). A vast majority of respondents (91.6%) live in urban area. Considering the overall distribution samples it can be used as representative of the population.

Majority respondents (45.1%) have medium self-esteem followed by high self-esteem (41.5%). It was observed that, only 13.4% of respondents have low self-esteem. In the case of attitude towards traditional gender role, it was found that 60.3% of respondents had low gender bias and only 11.5% of the respondents had high gender bias.

**Results**

**Differences between males and females in attitude towards gender role (Hypothesis 1):** Table 2 shows that 74.6% of female respondents have low gender bias compared to 47.1% of male respondents. The finding was, only 3.4% of female respondents have high gender bias compared to male respondents (19.1%). Analysis of Chi-square shows that differences are statistically significant at 0.001 levels. Specifically, the result supports the first hypothesis that females attitude towards traditional gender role is less bias then males.

Table 2. Crosstabs between gender and attitude towards gender bias (Alberta High School Graduate Survey 1996)

| Level of gender bias | Gender* |   |   |
|----------------------|---------|---|---|
|                      | Male    | Female | Total |
| Low                  | 636     | 961    | 1596   |
| (0.00 – 1.00)        | (47.1%) | (74.6%) | (60.5%) |
| Medium               | 455     | 284    | 739    |
| (1.01 – 2.00)        | (33.8%) | (22.0%) | (28.0%) |
| High                 | 257     | 44     | 301    |
| (2.01 – 4.00)        | (19.1%) | (3.4%)  | (11.4%) |
| Total                | 1347    | 1289   | 2636   |
|                      | (100.0%) | (100.0%) | (100.0%) |

* Chi-square=255.73; p<0.001

**Association between Parents as homemaker and gender bias (Hypotheses 2 and 3):** Table 3 reveals that 15.9% of respondents whose mothers work as homemaker have high gender bias compared to those whose mothers are not homemakers (9.1%). The differences are statistically significant (chi-square=54.85; p<0.001). It does support our second hypothesis that those whose mothers are working as homemaker tend to have high gender bias compared to those whose mothers do not work as homemaker. On the other hands, differences of gender bias among those whose fathers work as homemaker and those whose fathers do not work as homemaker, are not statistically significant.

Table 3. Crosstabs between parents as homemaker and gender bias* (Alberta High School Graduate Survey 1996)

| Level of gender bias | Parents as homemaker |   |   |
|----------------------|----------------------|---|---|
|                      | Mother* | Father | Total |
| Low                  | 477     | 46     | 523   |
| (0.00 – 1.00)        | (51.2%) | (59.0%) | (51.8%) |
| Medium               | 306     | 24     | 330   |
| (1.01 – 2.00)        | (32.9%) | (30.8%) | (32.7%) |
| High                 | 148     | 8      | 156   |
| (2.01 – 4.00)        | (15.9%) | (10.3%) | (15.5%) |
| Total                | 931     | 78     | 1009  |
|                      | (100.0%) | (100.0%) | (100.0%) |

* Chi-square=54.85; p<0.001
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**Association between parents’ education & attitude towards traditional gender role (Hypothesis 4):** Table 4 shows that majority of respondents (68.1%) whose mothers have high education have low gender bias compared to those whose mothers have low education (58.6%). Only 8.4% of respondents whose mothers have high education have high gender bias compared to whose mothers have low education (11.9%). The differences are statistically significant (chi-square=16.998; p<0.001) which means that those whose mothers have high education have low gender bias attitude compared to those whose mothers have low education. But this is not true in the case of fathers’ education.

Table 4. Crosstabs between mother’s education and gender bias (Alberta High School Graduate Survey 1996)

| Level of gender bias | Mother’s education* | Father’s education | Total (mother’s) | Total (Father’s) |
|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|----------------|
|                     | Low (0.00 – 1.00)   | High (1.01 – 2.00) | Medium (2.01 – 4.00) | Total               |
|                     | Low (58.6%)         | High (68.1%)       | Medium (29.5%)    | Total (mother’s) |
|                     | 1096                | 389                | 551             | 1485               |
|                     | (58.6%)             | (68.1%)            | (29.5%)         | (60.8%)            |
|                     | 1007                | 398                | 489             | 685                |
|                     | (59.2%)             | (62.1%)            | (28.8%)         | (28.1%)            |
|                     | 1007                | 398                | 489             | 685                |
|                     | (59.2%)             | (62.1%)            | (28.8%)         | (28.1%)            |
|                     | 1405                | 665                | 721             | 2341               |
|                     | (60.0%)             | (28.4%)            | (11.6%)         | (100.0%)           |
| Total               | 1870                | 571                | 2100            | 2341               |
|                     | (100.0%)            | (100.0%)           | (100.0%)        | (100.0%)           |

* Chi-square=16.998; p<0.001

**Multivariate Analysis:** In order to examine the impact of sex on the dependent variable (attitude towards traditional gender role) OLS regression analysis was carried out. In the first step (model-1) all independent variables were entered. Specifically, to predict respondents’ attitude towards traditional gender role gender, self-esteem, mother as homemaker, father as homemaker, mother’s education, father’s education and community size were entered as independent variables.

In the second step (model-2), self-esteem was entered as the dependent variable and gender, mother as homemaker, father as homemaker, mother’s education, father’s education, and community size were entered as the independent variables to examine the indirect impact on attitude towards traditional gender role bias which is mediated through self-esteem.

In the third step, interaction between ‘mothers education’ and ‘mother as homemaker’ was entered to examine the interaction effect along with other independent variables (gender, mother as homemaker, father as homemaker, mother’s education, father’s education, community size and self-esteem). In this model it was found that interaction term was not significant. And collinearity statistics showed that Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) were extremely high for mother homemaker (20.53), mother’s education (9.43), and interaction (30.79). For this reason, in model-3 those two variables (mother as homemaker and mother’s education) were excluded. Specifically, gender, father as homemaker, father’s education, community size, self-esteem, and interaction were entered as independent variables to predict respondents’ attitude towards traditional gender role.

In the fourth step, with a view to examine the differential attitude among males and females regarding traditional gender role two regression models (model-4 and 5) were carried out by taking out males (model-4 for females only) and then by taking out females (model-5 for males only). These two models were used to predict whether impact of selected independent variables on gender bias differs significantly based on sex.
### Table 5. Predicting attitude towards gender role by independent variables (Alberta High School Graduate Survey 1996)

| Model 1 |  |  |  |  |
|---------|---|---|---|---|
| **B**   | **β** | **SE** | **R²** | **F**  |
| Constant| 1.579 | 0.097 | 0.124 | 45.04** |
| Gender (female=1) | -0.533 | -0.311** | 0.035 |  |
| Self-esteem | -0.066 | -0.055** | 0.024 |  |
| Mother homemaker (checked=1) | 0.255 | 0.144** | 0.036 |  |
| Father homemaker (checked=1) | -0.233 | -0.046* | 0.101 |  |
| Mother’s education (high=1) | -0.167 | -0.083** | 0.046 |  |
| Father’s education (high=1) | 0.028 | 0.015 | 0.044 |  |
| Community size (urban=1) | -0.162 | -0.054** | 0.060 |  |

| Model 3 |  |  |  |  |
|---------|---|---|---|---|
| **B**   | **β** | **SE** | **R²** | **F**  |
| Constant| 1.321 | 0.106 | 0.122 | 51.43** |
| Gender (female=1) | -0.533 | -0.311** | 0.035 |  |
| Father homemaker (checked=1) | -0.222 | -0.044* | 0.101 |  |
| Father’s education (high=1) | 0.029 | 0.015 | 0.040 |  |
| Community size (urban=1) | -0.166 | -0.055** | 0.060 |  |
| Self-esteem | -0.067 | -0.056** | 0.024 |  |
| Interaction | 0.130 | 0.165** | 0.016 |  |

*p <0.05,  **p <0.01

The Model 1 (Table 5) which explains the direct impact of all selected independent variables on gender bias shows that being a female reduces the likelihood of gender bias by 0.311 points compared to males. High self-esteem results in low gender bias. Those whose mothers work as homemaker increase the likelihood of gender bias to 0.144 points compared to those whose mothers are not homemaker. But this is not true for those whose fathers work as homemaker. Regarding education it was found that those whose mothers have high education reduces the likelihood of gender bias to 0.083 points compared to those whose fathers have low education. Moreover, those who live in urban community have low gender bias compared to those who live in rural areas. With the model-1 we can explain 12.4% variation.

Model 2 (Table 6) shows that females have high level of self-esteem compared to males. Among those whose fathers work as have comparatively low level of self-esteem than those whose fathers are not homemaker. The model explains only 3.8% of the variation.
Table 6. Predicting respondents’ self-esteem by independent variables (Alberta High School Graduate Survey 1996)

| Model-2                  | B   | β    | SE   | $R^2$ | F     |
|-------------------------|-----|------|------|-------|-------|
| Constant                | 3.044 | 0.054 | 0.038 | 14.89** |
| Gender (female=1)       | -0.241 | 0.169** | 0.029 |       |
| Mother homemaker (checked=1) | 0.019 | 0.013 | 0.031 |       |
| Father homemaker (checked=1) | -0.314 | -0.076** | 0.087 |       |
| Mother’s education (high=1) | 0.052 | 0.031 | 0.040 |       |
| Father’s education (high=1) | 0.067 | 0.042 | 0.038 |       |
| Community size (urban=1) | -0.058 | -0.023 | 0.052 |       |

*p <0.05,   **p <0.01

Model 3 (interaction model) shows that females have low gender bias compared to males and same is true for those whose fathers work as homemaker. It is also revealed that those who live in urban community have low gender bias compared to those who live in rural community. Regarding self-esteem it is evident that high self-esteem is associated with low gender bias. Regarding interaction between mother as homemaker and mother’s education high values are associated with high gender bias. All the outcomes of model-3 are consistent with model model-1.

Model-3 explains only 12.2% of the variation. Therefore, including the interaction term did not increase our capability to explain more variation compared to model-1. Hence, we can conclude that two models are equally good.
It is evident from model 1 and model 2 that selected independent variables have strong direct effects on the respondents’ attitude towards traditional gender role. Among those independent variables gender has the strongest effect on respondents’ attitude towards traditional gender role. But if we look at indirect additive effects we can see that indirect effects on traditional gender role are not significant.

Table 7. Comparison between direct effects and indirect additive effects (Alberta High School Graduate Survey 1996)

| Variables          | Direct effect  | Indirect additive effect |
|--------------------|----------------|--------------------------|
| Sex                | -0.311**       | -0.0093                  |
| Mother as homemaker| 0.144**        | -0.00072                 |
| Father as homemaker| -0.046*        | 0.0042                   |
| Father’s education | 0.015          | -0.0023                  |
| Mother’s education | -0.083***      | -0.0017                  |
| Community          | -0.054**       | 0.0011                   |

*significant at 0.05 levels; **significant at 0.001 levels

Model 4 and Model 5 compare the impact of selected independent variables on respondents’ attitude towards traditional gender role for females and males respectively. The interaction between mother as homemaker and female (model-4) is statistically significant and the same is true for males. It is evident that among those whose mothers work as homemaker males have high level of gender bias (b=0.353) compared to females (b=0.154) and the difference between the two slopes is statistically significant.

Table 8. Net effect of sex and other predictor variables on gender bias (Alberta High School Graduate Survey, 1996)

| Independent variable          | Full sample (model-1) | Female (model-4) | Male (model-5) |
|------------------------------|------------------------|------------------|----------------|
|                               | Beta (β)               | B                | b              |
| Gender (female=1)             | -0.311**               | ***              | ***            |
| Self-esteem                  | -0.055**               | -0.051           | -0.092*        |
| Mother homemaker (checked=1) | 0.144**                | 0.154**          | 0.353**        |
| Father homemaker (checked=1) | -0.046*                | 0.008            | -0.429**       |
| Mother’s education (high=1)  | -0.083**               | -0.134*          | -0.201**       |
| Father’s education (high=1)  | 0.015                  | 0.081            | -0.010         |
| Community size (urban=1)     | -0.054**               | -0.135*          | -0.191         |
| Constant                     | 1.579                  | 0.988            | 1.673          |
| R^                            | 0.124                  | 0.028            | 0.054          |
| N                             | 2236                   | 1083             | 1153           |

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 1Difference between slopes (i.e., between female and male) is statistically significant (t-test; p<0.05).
The interaction between self-esteem and female is not statistically significant but for male it is significant. However, the difference between slopes for females and males regarding self-esteem is not statistically significant.

Interaction between father as homemaker and female is not significant. Among those whose fathers work as homemaker males have low gender bias ($b = -0.429$) compared to females ($b=0.008$) and the difference between the two slopes is statistically significant.

Model 4 and Model 5 also reveal that for both males ($b = -0.201$) and females ($b=-0.134$). Mothers’ high education contributes to reduce gender bias. But the interaction between fathers’ education and males or females is not statistically significant. Model-4 explains 2.8% variation and model-5 explains 5.4% variation.

**Discussion**

The findings of this study indicate that important differences in attitude towards traditional gender role exist depending on adolescents’ parental factors (i.e. parents as homemaker, parents’ education) and community size in which they are living. The major outcome of this study is that gender has the strongest effect on adolescents’ attitude towards traditional gender role. More specifically, females’ attitude towards traditional gender role is less biased compared to males (Hypothesis 1). This is consistent with previous research (i.e. Loo and Thrope, 1998 and Kulik, 2005). Loo and Thorpe (1998) examined changing attitude towards women’s roles in society among undergraduates at Western Canadian Universities. Overall they found that females had more liberal attitudes than males. Specifically, they found that attitudes towards women’s roles in society had become more liberal since the mid 1970s for both men and women.

Regarding parents as homemaker it was found that those whose mothers work as homemaker had high gender bias compared to those whose mothers were not homemaker (Hypothesis 2). And those whose fathers were homemaker had low gender bias compared to those whose fathers were not homemaker (hypothesis 3). This can be supported by previous research conducted by Cassidy and warren (1996). They examined family employment status and gender role attitudes among women and men college graduates. Essentially what they found was that those who were involved with full time or part time jobs were more supportive of nontraditional gender roles compared to those who were homemakers. In addition they found that among women the attitude of homemakers was more similar to those of the men.

Consistent with previous research and theoretical expectation, it was found that mother’s high education is negatively associated with level of gender bias. Those whose mothers have high educational background showed low gender bias compared to those whose mothers have low educational background (Hypothesis 4). This can be explained by the findings of Shelton and John (1993) who found that women’s high education is negatively associated with attitude towards traditional gender role. More specifically, they found that women with high education tend to spend less time in household maintenance.

Contrary to theoretical expectation, it was found that fathers’ high education was not significant in predicting adolescents’ attitude towards traditional gender role. This can be justified by previous research conducted by Brines (1994) who found that despite high education unemployment men did not prefer to work as homemaker. As mentioned by Brines (1994) the reason for men’s unwillingness to work as homemaker was related with their ideology regarding traditional gender role which was inherited from society.

Regarding community size as we expected earlier it was found that those who live in urban community had low gender bias compared to those who live in rural community (Hypothesis 5). Part of the reason may be that in urban community people do have access to higher education.
which in turn leads to lower levels of bias attitude towards traditional gender role among adolescents.

**Conclusion**

One limitation of the study was that some important variables such as age, education, occupation, and income were not taken into account in data analyses. Previous research shows that individuals’ age, socioeconomic status in terms of income, occupation, and education have profound impact on attitude towards traditional gender role. Despite this limitation, this research will have significant impact on policy implications for gender role and development for developed countries in general and for developing countries in particular. This research will encourage further research on this issue in Bangladesh, where a vast majority of women are excluded from the development process due to the negative perceptions about gender role. In future research, emphasis should be given on comparative analysis of diverse samples collecting both from developed and underdeveloped countries. This will help to explore how societal norms and values play an important role to shape the mental framework about traditional gender role. Moreover, some studies on longitudinal data analysis might be useful to explain the impact of achieved status in predicting attitude towards traditional gender role.

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