THE PERCEPTION OF GENDER ROLES AMONG THE AWRA AMBA COMMUNITY AS A FUNCTION OF AGE AND SEX

BY
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JULY, 2009
ADDIS ABABA
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A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES OF ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

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The ultimate objective of this study was to discover the influence of age and sex on gender role perception in the Awra Amba community. For this purpose, a total of 180 participants (from 403 total Awra Amba population), 60 from three age groups (children, adolescents and adults), 30 from two sex groups (male and female) have been selected by using stratified random sampling method. Two different instruments (Personal Attribute Questionnaire and Social Role Questionnaire) have been adapted and pilot tested. Based on the result of the pilot test, two vague items have been discarded from the Personal Attribute Questionnaire. But, one culturally unfit item has also been removed from the Social Role Questionnaire before the pilot test, and generally the two instruments exhibited almost closer reliability indices with the original reliabilities. For data analysis, descriptive statistics, One-Way ANOVA and independent t-test have been employed. In relation to the major findings, there is a statistically significant difference in gender role perception among the Awra Amba children, adolescents and adults. While children hold stereotypic and traditional gender role perception, adolescents and adults demonstrate androgynous and egalitarian gender role perception. Besides, egalitarian and non-traditional gender role perception increases with age in the Awra Amba community when one grows older from childhood to adolescence and adulthood. Finally, statistically significant difference has not been found between the Awra Amba males and females in gender role perception. Both males’ and females’ gender role perception is androgynous and egalitarian or non-traditional.
1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Apart from the biological variations that differentiate females from males, there are psychosocial facets of society that make boundaries for behavior manifestations that are considered “appropriate” for each sex. These psychosocial pressures would directly or indirectly dictate every member of the society to act according to the norms that govern the behaviors specified for males and females. The community spells out some of the rules and regulations clearly in black and white and their influence on the behavior of its members is strong. However, others remain latent whose influences are not clearly perceived by members of a society. Thus, whatever the way of acquiring gender specific knowledge, the set of societal expectations for behaving, thinking and feeling that is based on a person’s biological sex is labeled as gender roles.

Psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists and biologists argue convincingly that, it is not reproductive biology alone that determines how a person develops. Rather there is an interaction between one’s genetic biological make up usually referred to as sex and the expected behaviors and attitudes for male and female in the social contexts in which a person lives usually referred to as gender.

As recent theorists (Bockting, 1999; Bohan, 2002; Kimmel, 2000; Maurer, 1999) have claimed that, gender system is socially constructed. Religious, political, educational, communication and occupational institutions create and enforce expectations for how women and men should behave in societies. These expectations might differ across different cultures. How we express our
Maleness or femaleness varies widely from one social context to another. The roles and role expectations confronting the individual deeply influence her/his development, self identification and general adjustment. Mead (cited in Santrock, 2006) explained, sex like age is a determinant of position that creates certain role expectations in all societies even if they differ much from society to society.

Children develop positive or negative perception about gender roles through their socialization processes in their respective cultures. In every culture, children are expected to learn the differences between sexes and acquire behaviors believed to be “appropriate” for their own sex. In relation to this, Feldman and Wentzel (1990) points out that, not only are boys and girls expected to acquire gender typed skills, they are also expected to have or gain gender typed self-concept and attitudes to be masculine or feminine as defined by their culture.

Early home and other social experiences play a great deal of role on the development of self and independence of children. Thus, children begin to sex-typing themselves, what roles they should play that are considered “appropriate” for sexes, and assume responsibilities corresponding to their sexes. As a matter of fact, such gender roles are developed through socialization processes. As Hurlock (1980) stated, the sex of the individual has much effect on his behavior and personality developments for three reasons. First, each individual child is pressured by the society to act according to behavioral patterns expected of his or her sex. If the individual fails to conform to his or her sex members’ behavior, he or she will be subject to social criticism. Hence, not to be exposed to such aversive or unpleasant circumstances, each sex member complies with social stereotypes. The second reason is that learning activities, day-to-day experiences in schools, Medias and at homes are designed according to the sex of individuals. These have the
tendency to contribute a lot for the conceptions and perceptions of oneself towards a certain stereotypic roles. Lastly, those individuals who prefer to play the opposite sex's roles are subject to labels from the society as “tomboy”¹ and “sissy”². These terms inevitably, directly or indirectly, will exert much pressure on children to adopt the sex role stereotypes of their society. In addition, as Poduska (1980) states another important factor for gender role development in children is identification. By this he meant that children identify with whom they consider similar individuals to them. Thus male child attaches himself more than the girl to his father because of their sex sameness, and the girl to her mother.

Similarly, as Bem (1981) states, although culture differ in the specific tasks they assign to the two sexes, all societies allocate adult roles on the basis of gender and anticipate this allocation in the socialization of their children. Socialization processes begins in the family. Studies show that when the attitude of traditional fathers and modern fathers seen separately, children of conservative fathers show higher knowledge of gender and gender typed beliefs than children of modern fathers. In connection with this, Kagan and Mischel's study (cited in Tesfaye, 1997) state that, traditional parents may teach their children by telling what roles are appropriate for boys and girls and by praising when she or he conforms to and punishing when she or he violates acceptable “standard” of behavior.

Adults in general have stereotypic perception towards male and female. In relation to adults' perception towards gender roles, Schaefer (1981) asked adult participants to first describe God and human kind in relation to each other, and then describe male and females. Finally, Shaef found that, in the eyes of many adults, males are to females as God is to human kind.

¹ Tomboy- a girl who acts and dresses like a boy, liking noisy and physical activities.
² Sissy- a boy acts and/or plays the "role" of girls
As Farrell (1995) states, high expectations of men can be enormous burdens for them. Real men are expected to be tough “big boys don’t cry” and fearless. They are supposed to be logical and practical, not emotional and idealistic. Similarly, the expectation is high on women, too. According to Bepe Ko and Krestan (1990) there is a “goodness code” for women to be attractive and sexy, lady like, unselfish and thoughtful, ensure that everyone is getting along and be competent. These rules are pervasive that they seem to “come natural” to women.

So far, many researchers have revealed structural inequalities in the form of values, goals including income, wealth, status, political power, health, education, employment opportunities, housing and freedom within societies across nation and over time. There are some indicators that show how the stereotypic views determine opportunities in life. For instance, females’ activities and duties are limited to home and their access to school and educational opportunities is very minimal, especially in developing countries. A recent analysis by (United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund [UNICEF], 2004) found that a higher percentage of girls than boys around the world have never had any education. The countries with the fewest females being educated are in Africa, where in some areas girls and women are receiving no education at all. According to the statistics of the (United Nations [UN], 2002), at the beginning of the twenty-first century, 80 million more boys than girls were in primary and secondary educational settings around the world. As a result females’ share of unemployed and illiterate is shockingly large, and still they contribute majority of the poor.

Learning about the perception of gender roles in the Awra Amba community has its own rationale. It is obvious that, equality in terms of personal freedom, work, payment, employment and the like are very critical for social, political, economical and cultural issues. Among other things, gender role stereotypes
are one of the major obstacles to achieve such developments, particularly in the developing world.

But, as the report of different Media, gender role stereotypes are very less in the Awra Amba community. It is not because they innately acquired such less stereotypic understanding of gender roles, rather it is a kind of learned disposition; it seems that members of the group are influenced by the philosophy of the community leader\(^3\). He promotes his principles of equality, among community members.

It would be appreciable to have such a community having a “fair” perception of gender roles. The most important concern here is the transmission of such perceptions and understanding to the younger generation of the community. As it has been mentioned clearly in this background section and would be mention widely in the literature review section too, socialization process is fundamental in learning how to act and react in our environment. Social pressures, especially those of parents, rather than natural endowments are, to a large degree, at the center of gender role development. Researchers (Maccoby, 1984; Kochanska & Aksan, 1995) displayed that, the young child’s ability to internalize those values, social standards and many other behavior patterns that are accepted and approved by the society rest heavily on the socialization processes undertaken by parents. Thus, if the Awra Amba community really have a fair perception towards gender roles, then it is reasonable to expect them to socialize their younger generation accordingly. Therefore, the ultimate intention of the present research is to investigate whether there exists a significant difference in terms of gender role perception among the Awra Amba adults (both sexes), adolescents (both sexes) and children (both sexes).

\(^3\) The community leader is Zumra Nuru Mohammed and he is the person who teaches and promotes the unique way of social life in Awra Amba community.
1.2. Statement of the Problem

Stereotypic perceptions of men and women towards different roles have been studied outside of Ethiopia. While some researchers reported a changing conception of gender role stereotypes among men and women, others pointed out that even college education does not bring a significant change in students’ gender role stereotypic perspectives, Carmine Levine, Morrison, Smith and Wolf (cited in Yalew, 1997).

At present the Ethiopian government, different women groups and NGOs are making efforts in assessing the role of women in the society. The intended objective is to maintain gender equality in every aspect of the human life. Along with such efforts, a number of studies have been done by different researchers at different time and places. For instance, researchers (Misrak and Tayechelem, 2007; Seyoum, 1986; Tesfaye, Yalew, and Yohaness 1997; Wondmagegn, 2008; and Zubedia, 1992) have conducted their studies on issues related to gender. Although the domains of those studies are the same (gender issues), they are quite different in terms of the specific objectives they have addressed. Like wise, the present research raised the same domain (gender issue), but different research questions have been addressed. This study attempted to investigate the perception of gender roles at different age levels and sexes in the Awra Amba community. Accordingly, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Is there a significant gender role perceptual difference among the Awra Amba children, adolescents and adults?

2. Is there a gender role perceptual flexibility with age in the Awra Amba community?

3. Is there a significant gender role perceptual difference between the Awra Amba males and females?
1.3. Operational Definitions

- **Perception**: in this study perception is the opinion or the view children adolescents and adults (both sexes) have regarding gender roles in work, decision making, duties, responsibilities, emotions and relationships.

- **Children**: in the present study children are individuals whose age range is between 8 and 12, and who live in Awra Amba at the time of study.

- **Adolescents**: in this research adolescents are individuals whose age range is between 13 and 20, and who live in Awra Amba at the time of the study.

- **Adults**: in the present study adults are persons whose age range is between 21 and 65 and who live in Awra Amba at the time of the study.

- **Gender role**: culturally defined set of expectations about “appropriate” duties, responsibilities, behaviors, emotions, thinking, feeling that is based on a person’s biological sex (Kilmartin, 2000).

- **Age**: it is the number of years that have elapsed since birth.

- **Sex**: it is the biological dimension of being female or male.

1.4. Limitation

The present study had some limitations. One of those limitations was the lack of adequate literature resources. The other limitation was to find out the exact number of children (birth-12), adolescents (13-20) and adults (above 21) population in the study place. The cohort effect might be the other drawback of the present study. In spite of such limitations, the researcher has exerted the maximum effort to make the study meaningful and make it as a stepping stone for further study.
CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This section presents a review of conceptual and empirical studies related to the perception of gender roles. It begins with a review of historical root of gender roles. This will be followed by theoretical perspectives of gender role and gender role development. The fourth section incorporates gender role socialization. While the fifth section deals with cultural differences in gender role socialization, the sixth part is dedicated to the effect of age on the perception of gender roles. Section seven, all in all, focuses on the gender differences in gender role perception. The final section summarizes local studies conducted related to the topic thereby showing the research gap and the purpose of the present research.

2.1. Historical Root of Gender Issues

Gender role is deeply entrenched issue even in early societies. As Jackson (cited in Schaefter, 2005), historically women tend to have a higher status in horticultural societies, where most activities were centered at home than in agricultural and industrial ones. But, when much of production and activities were shifted from home to agriculture, field and industry the role of women declined.

On the other hand, Huber (2007) places much of the blame for the exploitation of women on the invention of agriculture. She argues that rather than improving human welfare, agriculture had a terrible effect on women and on society in general. According to Huber, after the plow became the modal tool used to produce food the pattern of social stratification assumed a pyramidal
shape. The plough is held responsible for a huge number of social ills. Increased food supply fostered hierarchal political systems, as the larger the food supply, the greater the attempt to control production.

2.2. Theoretical Perspective of Gender Roles

2.2.1. Functionalist Theory

This theory maintains that gender differentiation has contributed to overall social stability. To function most effectively, the family requires adults who specialize in particular roles. The theory viewed the traditional gender roles as arising out of the need to establish a division of labor between marital partners. In relation to this, Parsons (cited in Schaeffer, 2005) argue that the theory of functionalists assume women take the expressive (concern for the maintenance of harmony and the internal emotional affairs of the family) emotionally supportive roles, and men the instrumental (emphasized on tasks, a focus on more distant goals and a concern for the external relationship between one's family and other social institutions) practical roles, with the two complementing each other. According to this theory, women's interest in expressive goals frees men for instrumental tasks, and vice versa.

2.2.2. Conflict Theory

This theory contends that the relationship between males and females has traditionally been one of unequal power, with men in a dominant position over women. Men may originally have become powerful in preindustrial times because their size, physical strength and freedom from bearing duties allowed them to dominate women physically. As Mead and Mayer (cited in Schaeffer, 2005) explained, in contemporary societies, such considerations are not so important, yet cultural beliefs about sexes are long established. Conflict
theorists, then, see gender differences as a reflection of subjugation of one group (women) by another group (men).

2.3. Theoretical Perspectives on Gender and Gender Role Development

In this section, what each major theory has to say about gender development, including how children develop sense of gender and how gender affects behavior will be reviewed. Seeing how the major theories address gender not only provides a variety of insights into gender development, but also highlights how the theories differ from and, often, complement one another.

2.3.1. Psychoanalytic Theory

"Biology is destiny," Freud proclaimed in one of his most famous and provocative statements. By this he meant that an individual's psychological development is to a great extent determined by his or her biological sex, by the very fact of being male or female. He thought that even very young children have a sexual nature that influences their behavior and their relationships with other people.

Freud thought that gender differences in attitudes and behavior originates in children's identification with their same sex parent. This identification begins with children's discovery, during the phallic stage (around 3-6 years of age), of the vital difference between having and lacking a penis, so easily excitable and changeable, and so rich in sensation, Freud (cited in Siegler, Deloache, & Eisenberg, 2003). Freud supposed that girls notice and resent the fact that they do not have one, experiencing what he called "penis envy". A boy's desire for his mother and hostility toward his father are so threatening that the boy's ego acts to protect him through repression, banishing his anxiety-producing thoughts and impulses to the unconscious. In addition, the boy increases his
identification with his father: instead of seeking to challenge his father, he tries to be more like him, transforming himself from rival to protégé.

2.3.2. Social Learning Theory

Many social learning theorists Bandura, Bussey, Mischel, Perry and Walter (cited in Siegler et al., 2003) claimed that children have a multitude of experiences through which they learn behaviors, beliefs and values considered by their society to be desirable or appropriate for their sex. In this view, children are socialized for gender through both observational and direct learning.

Because all societies differentially assign certain roles to males and females, all children engage in gender-typed activities. For example, throughout the world, regardless of what behavior is typical for men, children see their mothers serving as the primary caregivers in the family and the person responsible for food preparation (Rossi, 1977). In addition, children observe the behavior of their own sex more than that of the other sex because they tend to spend more time with people of their own sex. Naturalistic observations conducted in public settings by Hoffman & Teyber (cited in Siegler et al., 2003) revealed that boys were more often in the company of men, whereas girls were more often with women. Maccoby (1998) also found throughout childhood, children spend much more time in the company of same-sex peers.

Social learning theorists propose that in addition to learning gender-typed behaviors through observation, children also learn them through direct teaching. There are consistent differences in how parents treat their sons and daughters, systematically encouraging and rewarding “gender appropriate” behaviors in boys and girls. American parents, for example, consistently provide their children even infants with “gender-appropriate” toys (Fisher-
Thompson, 1993). They purchase toy tools and trucks for their boys, kitchen utensils and dolls for their girls.

2.3.3. Social Cognitive Theory

Imitating same-sex models which is a basic mechanism for sex role acquisition in social learning theories, depends upon children’s knowing what sex they are in the first place. Where does this knowledge come from, and how do it and other forms of knowledge contribute to gender role development? Two theories, that attempts to answer this question are Kohlberg’s cognitive developmental theory and gender schema theory.

Kohlberg’s Cognitive Developmental Theory

Reflecting a Piagetian framework, Kohlberg’s (1966) cognitive developmental theory of gender role development proposes that children actively construct gender knowledge in the same way they construct other knowledge about the world. But, since their cognitive development like language and information processing is not as matured as adults, their knowledge about the world is limited. And just as young children’s understanding of the physical world is limited, so is their understanding of the social world, including their knowledge of the meaning and immutability of gender.

Gender Schema Theory

Gender schema theorists, Bem, Martin, Martin & Halverson (cited in Siegler et al., 2003) offers a view of gender development that is similar to Kohlberg’s but is also different in several important ways. To begin with, it proposes that children’s intrinsic motivation to acquire gender-consistent interests, values and behavior emerges as soon as children can identify their own gender,
sometimes in the third year much earlier than Kohlberg's thought. It also proposes that children’s understanding of gender develops through their construction of gender schema-mental representations incorporating everything they know about gender, including memory representations of their own experience with males and females gender stereotypes transmitted directly by adults and peers (“boys don’t cry,” “girls like to be neat and tidy”), and messages conveyed indirectly through the media. These schemas are dynamic, changing constantly as children acquire additional gender-related concepts (Ruble & Martin, 1998).

Young children begin with a simple in-group or out-group gender schema that they use to classify other people as being either “the same as me” or not. A natural motivation for cognitive consistency leads them to prefer, pay attention to, and remember more about others of their sex.

2.3.4. Evolutionary Theory

Evolutionary theory has a great deal to say about sex differences in childhood, as well as in adolescence and adulthood. Taking an evolutionary perspective, Geary (1999), proposes that the play fighting of boys may represent, an evolved tendency to practice the competencies that were associated with male-male competition during human evolution. In contrast, play parenting, including play with dolls, is much more common among girls than boys in all cultures in which children’s play has been studied, which may also have evolutionary basis.

Evolutionary theorists also argue that, primarily because of their differing roles in reproduction, male and females faced different pressures in primeval environments when the human species was evolving. In particular, because having multiple sexual liaisons improves the likelihood that males will pass on
their genes, natural selection favored males who adopted short-term mating strategies. These males competed with other males to acquire more recourse in order to access females. Therefore, say evolutionary psychologists, males evolved dispositions that favor violence, competition and risk taking. In contrast, according to evolutionary psychologists, females' contributions to the gene pool were improved by securing resources for their offspring, which was promoted by obtaining long-term mates who could support a family, Jackson (cited in Santrock, 2006). As a consequence, natural selection favored females who devoted effort to parenting and chose mates who could provide their offspring with resources and protection. Females developed preferences for successful, ambitious men who could provide these resources.

This evolutionary unfolding, according to some evolutionary psychologists, explains key gender differences in sexual attitudes and sexual behavior. For example, in one study, men said that ideally they would like to have more than 18 sexual partners in their lifetime, whereas women stated that ideally they would like to have only 4 or 5, Buss & Schmidt (cited in Santrock, 2006). In another study, 75% of the men but none of the women approached by an attractive stranger of the opposite sex consented to a request for sex (Clark & Hatfield, 1989).

2.3.5. Maccoby's Account of Gender Segregation

Maccoby's theory is based on an array of research findings that testify how gender segregation is strong to elementary school children. Social learning, social cognitive and evolutionary psychology views all play a part in her account of gender segregation – the strong tendency of children to seek out and interact with peers of their own sex and to actively avoid children of the other sex. According to Maccoby (1998) gender segregation is observable quite early. Toddlers in day care or play groups begin to prefer same-sex playmates,
with girls showing the preference somewhat earlier than boys. Their tendency become increasingly strong until, by grade school, it is quite pronounced, LaFreniere et al. (cited in Siegler et al., 2003).

All in all, when the different theories in this section are examined in relation to gender role development, the social learning theory could best describe the Ethiopian context.

2.4. Gender Role Socialization

Children learn at a very early age what it means to be a boy or a girl in different cultures. Through myriad activities, opportunities, encouragements, overt behaviors, covert suggestions and various forms of guidance, children experience the process of gender role socialization (Martin, Wood & Little, 1990). A child’s burgeoning sense of self or self concept is a result of the multitude of ideas, attitudes, behaviors and beliefs to which he or she is exposed. According to Santrock (1994) the information that surrounds the child and which is internalized comes into the child within the family arena through parent-child interactions, role modeling, reinforcement for desired behaviors and parental approval or disapproval.

Similarly, as Laver et al. (cited in Witt, 1997) a child’s earlier exposure to what it means to be male or female comes from parents. From the time their children are babies, parents treat sons and daughters differently, dressing infants in a gender specific colors, giving gender-differentiating toys and expecting different behaviors from boys and girls (Thorne, 1993; Hargreaves & Colley, 1986). In the same track, researchers, Miller & Lane (cited in Berryman-Fink Ballard-Risch & Newman, 1993) found that, the parental influence on gender role is strong. The parent-child relationship has effects on development that last well
into adulthood. Because of these long-lasting effects, the parent-child relationship is one of the most important developmental factors for the child.

According to Weinraub et al. (1984) children internalize parental messages regarding gender at an early age with awareness of adult sex role differences being found in two-years-old children. Consistent to this, Fagot, Leinbach, O'Boyle, Hoffman and Cowan (cited in Witt, 1997) found that, children at two and a half years of age use gender stereotypes in their world and are likely to generalize gender stereotypes to a variety of activities, objects and occupations. Children even deny the reality of what they are seeing when it does not conform to their gender expectations (i.e. a child whose mother is a doctor stating that only men are doctors) (Sheldon, 1990).

The study of Lytton & Romney (cited in Witt, 1997) suggested that, parent shaping as a socializing factor has little impact on a child's sex role development. Other researchers, Ballard-Reisch & Newman (cited in Santrock, 1994), however, strongly argue that parents are the primary influence on gender role development during the early years of life. Because socialization is a two way interaction, each person in the interaction influences the other (Lewis & Rosenblum, 1974). Thus, parents and children engage in a reciprocal interaction with children both responding to and eliciting behaviors, Kaplan (cited in Witt, 1997).

Katz (1987) points out that both gender knowledge and schemacity have been related to socialization factors, specially, the traditionality of parental attitudes toward child rearing. More traditional parents are reported to have children who hold stereotyped gender role attitudes, Weinser & Wilson-Mitchell (cited in O'Brien et al., 2000), and highly gender schematized (Levy, 1989b). Thus, such researches suggest that parental attitudes and beliefs are associated with both
children's knowledge about gender stereotypes and the emphasis children place on gender related information.

Gender role socialization may not be attributed only parental influences. As Bronfenbrenner, Alvarez & Henderson (1984) argue, development is influenced by many social factors, and children may best be understood in terms of their environment. These environments include the peers, schools and the media. In relation to the influence of peers on gender role socialization a longitudinal study that has been done by, Maccoby & Jacklin (cited in Weiten & Lloyd, 1987), showed that the ratio of time spent with same-gender playmates versus other-gender playmates rose from 3:1 to 11:1 between 4 and 6 years of age children. Therefore, it seems that during these ages, same gender peers are the most powerful instruments of gender role learning (Fagot, 1985).

As Best, Busch-Rossnaged and Vance (cited in Weiten & Lloyd, 1997) explained, schools also make a major contribution to the socialization of gender roles. The books that children use in learning to read can influence their ideas about what is suitable behavior for males and females (Schau & Scott, 1984). Traditionally, males have been more likely to be portrayed as clever, heroic and adventurous in those books, whereas females have been more often shown performing domestic chores. Gender bias in school also shows up in teachers' behaviors. Preschool and grade school teachers frequently reward "gender appropriate" behaviors in their pupils Fagot et al. (cited in Weiten & Lloyd, 1997). The report of Sadker (cited in Weiten & Lloyd, 1997) also shows, teachers tend to pay greater attention to males- helping them, praising them and scolding them more than females. In contrast, girls tend to be relatively invisible in the classroom and receive little encouragement for academic achievement from teachers.
Media is yet another source of gender role socialization (Morgan, 1982). Youngsters in the United States spend a lot of time watching television. Children between age 3 and 11 watch on average of 2-4 hours of television per day, Huston, Liebert & Sprafkin (cited in Weiten & Lloyd, 1997). African American children and youth spend more time in front of Television than their white peers, Brown et al. (cited in Weiten & Lloyd, 1997). Television programs have traditionally depicted men and women in highly stereotypical ways (Basow, 1992). Music videos frequently portray women as sex objects, and these portrayals appear to influence viewers' attitudes about sexual conduct, Hansen & Hansen (cited in Weiten et al., 1997).

2.5. Cultural Differences in Gender Role Socialization

In spite of the widespread similarities in gender role expectations across cultures, there are distinct differences in how gender related behaviors are transmitted to young girls and boys, Davenport, Yurich, & Maccoby (cited in Gardner & Kosmitzki, 2002). Depending on availability of role models, displays of expected role behavior, or influence of socialization agents, children in different cultures experience their socialization differently.

Kering, Alyoshina & Volovich (1983) presents a revealing description of male and female socialization and the conflicts that sometimes result from socialization practices running contrary to gender role expectations. In Russian society, children are surrounded by female caretakers (mothers, teachers, doctors, day-care workers), when men are relatively little involved in family and household matters. This situation provides young girl with many female role models in different familial and professional roles. As a consequence, girls are socialized into a very active and dominant role. This socialization pattern is continued in adolescence and adulthood. However, the Russian stereotypes expect women to be passive and obedient; active masculine behaviors are
viewed as highly undesirable. This apparent contradiction between stereotype and social norm provides a dilemma for Russian women unless they are very flexible in their behavior and adjust to the demands of different situations. At home and at work, they need to be active and energetic, but in their social interactions with men they need to be feminine (i.e. passive and weak). In this way, Russian society has created an ecological system for women in which the values and norms representative of the micro system (interactions with men in the immediate environment) are at odds with the values and norms of the exosystem (expected economic contribution and roles as the head of household).

Russian boys, on the other hand, have few opportunities to practice, dominant behavior. They are surrounded by female authority figures and caretakers involved in female activities. At the same time, Russian culture strongly disapproves of aggressiveness and emphasizes cooperation and caring. As a result of these social constraints, a young boy frequently withdraws and responds with passivity, which represents highly unmasculine behavior.

In Sambia culture in Papua New Guinea, male aggression plays a salient role in the development of men and women over the lifespan (Herdt, 1986). For example, during childhood boys often are treated in aggressive ways by older men to teach them obedience and to serve as punishment for “unmanly” behavior. Young boys direct their aggression toward peers, younger siblings and women in their families. At the same time, women and girls are discouraged from showing any aggressive behavior. Instead, they are expected to show the qualities of passivity and subordination.

Perhaps one of the most telling studies of the phenomenon of gender roles is that done by Margaret Mead in “Sex and Temperament”, who studied three tribes of people, all living within a twenty-mile radius of each other. One tribe,
the Arapesh, socialized both their males and their females to exhibit qualities considered in our society to be “feminine”; they were warm, cooperative and nurturing and according to their histories had always been so. The Mundugamor tribe, on the other hand, raised their children to be what we consider “Masculine”; competitive, aggressive and oppositional. Once more, according to their stories, they had always been this way. The third tribe, the Tchambuli, displayed gender roles the reverse of those prevalent in our society. The women were dominant and controlling, the sexual aggressors, the principal workers and in control. The men were emotionally dependent on the women, vain about their appearance, and reported by both themselves and the women to be irresponsible, Mead (cited in Schaefer, 2005).

2.6. The Effect of Age on the Perception of Gender Roles

As the study of many researchers Cheling et al. (cited in Zhang, 2006) show, gender role perception change as people grow older. Researchers have developed theories that specifically address the developmental trajectory of gender role flexibility in adolescence. Kohlberg’s (1966) cognitive developmental theory states that adolescents become increasingly flexible as they mature. According to these researchers, as children are able to reason and consider multiple perspectives in formal operations, cognition usually becomes more flexible. Because rebelling against social conversations is an important means of achieving independence during adolescence, Katz (1997), predicted that adolescents would be less likely to adhere to gender role stereotypes and would become more flexible, especially, when their peers are modeling and supporting this flexibility. In a study of 8 to 18 years olds, Katz & Ksansnak (1994) found that gender role perceptual flexibility was highest in the late adolescent age group, and girls consistently showed more flexibility than boys, which supports the cognitive developmental theory and Katz’s model of adolescents’ increased
flexibility. Of course, these data are cross-sectional, which limits the conclusions that may be drawn.

Unlike the argument raised so far, Zhang’s (2006) finding indicates that, both age and sex are predictive of Chinese college students’ gender role egalitarian perception; as female students were more egalitarian than male students and younger students held a more non-traditional view than older students. Similarly, Tu & Liao (2005) points out that younger Chinese and Taiwanese are more egalitarian than are older Chinese and Taiwanese in terms of gender role attitudes. In addition, researchers Fan & Marini (2000) argue instead of moving in an egalitarian direction, Chinese college students develop gender role perceptual change in a traditional direction with increasing age.

Other researchers have postulated that gender role flexibility decreases in early adolescence as a function of biological and social changes, such as puberty and dating. Alfieri et al. (cited in Bartini, 2006) proposed the gender role intensification hypothesis which suggests that the onset of puberty stimulates an over identification with stereotypes as adolescents begin to consider their adult gender roles. Most of the evidence they cited, however, was behavioral (achievement behaviors and friendship quality, for example), and they did not address changes in attitudes or self-perceptions.

For researchers Balk, Richards & Larson (cited in Bartini, 2006) gender role intensification in early adolescence is more evident in girls because there is more pressure for them to conform to the adult feminine role. It is socially acceptable for young girls to be tomboy, but once they enter adolescence it is no longer appropriate for them to act more masculine than feminine (Hyde, Rosenberg & Behrman, 1977). Boys are not subject to greater pressure to conform to stereotypes in adolescence because it is rarely considered appropriate for boys to act more feminine than masculine (Martin, 1990), so
the pressure to conform is constant. In the same token, a study conducted by Cann, Garnett, Ruble & Stangor (1986) suggests that as children mature, their beliefs in traditional stereotypes strengthen. On the other hand, the study of McAninch, Milich, Crumbo and Funtowicz (1996) indicates that, age was not found as a significant determinant of children’s social-information processing.

2.7. Gender Differences in Gender Role Perception

2.7.1. Gender Differences in Gender Role Perception among Children

Evidence suggests that gender-role stereotyping begins quite early. As Maccoby (1988) has pointed out that, sex is a core category for perception. According to Maccoby, children as young as 5 months may distinguish between faces on the basis of sex. In addition, children’s judgments are influenced by gender role stereotyping. Cann & Garnett (1986) found that children rate gender role congruent dolls (e.g., a male doctor) as more competent than gender role incongruent dolls (e.g., a female doctor). The study of Mensch, Ibrahim, Lee and El-Gibaly (2003) also show, in Egypt both boys and girls support a traditional division of roles between males and females.

Several studies have suggested that male gender role behavior is perceived as more favorable by children of both sexes. Conner & Serbin (1978) examined children’s responses to stories with male and female protagonists. Both girls and boys approve more of the main character’s actions and express a greater desire to be the main character when the character is male.

The research findings reported by, Viorst (1986), revealed the extent to which sex role stereotypes influence the self-perception of girls and boys. She asked 2,000 children from grades three through twelve a simple question, “If you woke up tomorrow and discovered that you were a boy [for girls] and a girl [for
boys], how would your life be different?” The conclusion drawn from this study was both boys and girls have negative perception towards female gender. Albert & Porter (1983) documented that 4 to 6 years old children view males as strong, independent and active. In contrast, females are seen as expressive, dependent and passive. The tendency for preschool age boys to think and behave in a more strong sex-typed ways than girls have been documented repeatedly in developmental literature. As Larve et al. (cited in O'Brien et al., 2000) beginning in the second year of life, boys exhibit stronger preferences for same-gender-typed toys than girls do. Boys are also more rigid in their stereotypes than girls are, from the preschool years through middle childhood (Katz & Ksansnak, 1994). Similarly, Bartini (2006) indicated that boys showed consistent preferences for same gender items, but the girls showed only a slight trend towards gender-role intensification.

Williams and Best (cited in Gardner & Kosmitzki, 2002) also found fascinating evidence related to differences in the socialization of gender stereotypes among children 5 to 11 years age. For example, across all age groups, children, in most countries were more familiar with the male stereotypes than with the female, suggesting that male stereotypes are dominant in their lives and are learned earlier. Only in Brazil, Portugal and Germany did-five-year children clearly identify more items associated with the female stereotype. Overall, Williams and Best suggest that gender stereotypes are well established in children by the time they are 8 years old. After that age, they serve as powerful “blue prints” for behavior that are reinforced throughout life.

2.7.2. Gender Differences in Gender Role Perception among Adolescents

There is a considerable body of literature on the perceptions of adolescents and young adults towards the arrangement and division of labor within the family and paid employment. Studies in New Zealand by Pryor, Ashby and Blum (cited
in Tuck et al., 1994) have observed a similar trend to that observed in other Western countries, this is, young women have more egalitarian perceptions than do young men.

Sugihara & Katsurada (1999) conducted their study on the feminine and masculine self-perceived gender roles on Japanese students. As their study show, male and female participants’ scores were higher on the feminine scale than the masculinity gender roles. In connection to this, Shimonaka, Nakazato and Kawaai (1990) also reveals that a consistent finding with the Japanese elderly population.

2.7.3. Gender Differences in Gender Role Perception among Adults

One of the most exhaustive investigations of gender stereotypes and perception was conducted by Willimas & Best (cited in Gardner & Kosmitzki, 2002) who found significant differences between male and female stereotypes. According to them, passivity, submissiveness, affiliation and nurturance were seen as more typical in description of women, whereas activity, achievement, and aggressiveness were more typical of men.

Research has shown that women around the world are more liberal than men in their perceptions of gender roles, Gibbons et al., (cited in Konrad et al., 2002). At least two reasons exist for this difference. First, masculine roles are associated with greater power than feminine roles (Konard & Harris, 2002). For example, fulfilling the traditional masculine role of provider by earning more money is associated with greater power within the family and in decision making regarding the division of household labor. In addition, those individuals who show masculine traits generally receive more respect from others (Burnett, Anderson & Heppner, 1995). As women take on masculine roles, the balance of power shifts away from men, and it is typical for any group to resist erosion of
its power base. A second reason why women hold more liberal views of gender roles may be because women’s activities have been changed more dramatically in the last century than men’s have (Kagitcibasi & Sunar, 1992).

As Chang et al. (cited in Konrad et al., 2002) although male’s perceptions of gender roles are more conservative than women’s, a number of studies have indicated that men’s view has become more liberal between the 1970s and 1990s.

Despite evidence that current gender role perceptions are more liberal, recent studies by Garovich-Szabo & Lueptow (cited in Konard et al., 2002) have found that complete equality in perceptions has not been attained and that young people still view women and men in stereotypical ways.

2.8. Local Empirical Studies on Gender Roles

The perception of gender roles is widely and extensively studied abroad. But it would be difficult to generalize the findings of those different studies to the Ethiopian context, because the nature of gender roles and the extent of their enforcement differ from culture to culture. However, there are some investigations that have been done on such a topic in Ethiopia in different places, different times and among different participants.

The previous studies focused on Ethiopian culture have shown that as in most traditional societies of the world, gender role perception in most ethnic cultures of Ethiopia is characterized by male dominance. As Asfaw and Mena’s study (cited in Tesfaye, 1997) culturally men are thought as paradigms of courage, heroism and other “positive” qualities. On the contrary, women are thought as jealous, mischievous and wicked one. Similarly, Seyoum (1986) states that, traditionally the female exists to please men, and from this idea comes the
perception that women should be dependent on men for everything, especially their identities, the social definitions of who they are.

Yalew’s (1997) study on the attitude of Amhara society towards females as leaders shows that the society irrespective of differences in age, educational levels, sex and religion has traditional stereotypic attitudes towards women’s leading and decision making abilities. In the same way, Wendmagegn (2008) explained that the “Bati” community assumed that man is strong in his work performance or labor than women. The society perceived women as inferior, because they are not literate or lack knowledge.

In general, an examination of gender role perception of a community is important for several reasons, especially for what current views may foretell about later behavior. The gender roles adopted by children and adolescents (both sexes) today will affect adult decisions regarding access to and control over resources, particularly as related to investments in children’s health and schooling, the physical mobility and the labor force participation of women, the reproductive behavior and the family relationship they will eventually form. Studies that have been conducted abroad may not be applicable to the Ethiopian context due to a great deal of cultural differences. Furthermore, local studies on the issue are not adequate enough and limited in their scope. Therefore, the present study attempts to emphasize on the perception of gender roles in the Awra Amba community taking age and sex as the major variables.
CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Study Context

The source of data for this study is the Awra Amba community. The community is found in the Amhara National Regional State, Fogera Woreda, Woji-Arba kebele, “Turegn Got Village.” It is located 70 km on the Woreta-Debretabor road, North of Bahir Dar-capital of Amhara National Regional State. The neighbouring villages of the Awra Amba are Tizab and Maksegn on the East, jib Gudguad on the North, Arba Chan on the West, and Dokmit on the South. According to Solomon (cited in Abebaw, 2007) and Organization for Rehabilitation and Development of Amhara Region (ORDA) the total land area owned by the Awra Amba community is about 43 hectares. Out of these, they have settled on 2.5 hectares land.

The community has two establishment phases. First, in 1972 it was established as community membership, in which people share norms, principles and values, but live individually in different places. Second, in 1986 it was established as union membership. In this community, there are 119 household heads and a total of 403 people. The community, with Muslim as well as Christian background is said to be from “Estie woreda” and the “Amed Ber” communities of South Gonder.

The Awra Amba community has a different culture from its surrounding communities. Basically their perception towards religion, marriage, age, work and some other life principles make them unique from the rest of the surrounding communities.
Despite the Awra Amba community believes in the existence of God, they do not have any kind of religion. As a result, there is no religious ceremony and celebration throughout the year.

The way marriage takes place in Awra Amaba community also differs from the rest of the surrounding communities. Unlike the long existed Amhara tradition where parents have a great role in choosing a wife or a husband to their sons or daughters, in Awra Amba community marriage takes place only if the couples love each other and agree to get married. Parents have no role in choosing a husband or a wife to their daughters or sons. The age at which members can get married, has been discussed and agreed upon by all the community members, that is for females 19 and above and for males 20 and above.

The attitude they have toward funeral is quite different from the rest communities. Only a 'reasonable' number of people go to bury the dead. The number varies according to the age of the dead person. If it is a child, three or four people would be sufficient. If it is an adult person, six or seven may be enough, but there is no agreed up on number. They also never drink coffee and alcohol, because they think all these are addictives that restrain people from doing their activities with their full natural potential.

3.2. Participants and Sampling Method

The target population of this study was children whose age range is between 8 and 12, adolescents whose age range is between 13 and 20 and adults whose age range is between 21 and 65. Older children were selected for the purpose of this study than younger ones; this is primarily because older children start to understand that there could be different reasons for gender differences. Moreover, the reason why the three major age groups have been selected was,
there is a tremendous physical, emotional and psychosocial changes when one transit from childhood to adolescence and from adolescence to adulthood than changes within one stage (for instance, early, middle and late adulthood). Permission has also been asked from the community leader and from parents to conduct the structured interview with children participants.

In relation to the sampling method, stratified random sampling has been employed. The strata were based on age and sex of the participants. Therefore, a total of 180 participants 60 children (30 from each sex), 60 adolescents (30 from each sex) and 60 adults (30 from each sex) were drawn. As mentioned above, the total population of the Awra Amba community is 403. While 119 of them are household heads, 165 of them are children, adolescents and other young and aging people. Due to lack of recorded information, the total number of child, adolescent and adult population in the three strata is not defined in terms of numbers. However, since sample sizes 30 and above are often referred to as large in statistical language and the total sample size (180) is almost half of the total population (403), the present researcher strongly believe that, the inferences that would be made at the end of the study would apply to Awra Amba.

3.3. Instrument

Two instruments were adopted for this study. The purpose of these instruments was to collect information about the influence of age and sex on the perceptions of gender roles in the Awra Amba community.

The first instrument is the Personal Attribute Questionnaire (PAQ) which was developed by Spence and Helmreich (1978). While a total of 16 items are incorporated in this instrument, no modifications were made this is primarily because no culturally unfit items have been found. This instrument has two
parts. In the first part, background information of the respondents has been asked. This background section includes information like age and sex of the participants. In the second part, respondents to the PAQ rate themselves on a 5-point, Likert-type scale (0 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree). Each item is scored 0-4 with a possible range of 0-28 for each subscale that would assess masculinity and femininity in terms of respondents' self-perceived possession of various traits that are stereotypically believed to differentiate the sexes. Moreover, PAQ has four alternative interpretations (Androgynous\(^4\), Undifferentiated\(^5\), Feminine and Masculine). If the participants' score is high both on feminine (21-28) and masculine (19-28) then, it would be interpreted as androgynous. Conversely, if the participants' score is low both on feminine (below 21) and masculine (below 19) then, it would be interpreted as undifferentiated. When participants' score is high on feminine (21-28) and low on masculine (below 19) then, the participants' self-perceived sex role is understood as feminine. Finally, if participants' score is high on masculine (19-28) and low on feminine (below 21), the individual's score could be interpreted as stereotypic masculine sex role.

The second instrument is the Social Role Questionnaire (SRQ) developed by Baber and Tucker (2006). This instrument measures gender role perception not in a dichotomous approach in which traits or behaviors are assumed to be "appropriate" to females and males. Unlike the PAQ, the SRQ has been modified in some way. For instance, originally, SRQ contains 13 items, but for the purpose of this study, one culturally unfit item has been deleted. Moreover, according to Baber and Tucker, respondents are required to indicate how much they agreed with each of the 13 items by circling a percentage (ranges: 0-100% with increments of 10%). Thus, since some of the participants of the present

\(^4\) Androgynous is a Greek word that composes "andro" (stands for man), and "gyne" (stands for woman), which refers to individuals who show both masculine and feminine traits (Eleanor, 1987).

\(^5\) Undifferentiated refers a person who scores low on both masculinity and femininity.
study were not literate and some of them were children, it would have been necessary to narrow the degree of responses to avoid confusions and make it to have straight forward responses as agree, undecided and disagree (2= agree to 0= disagree).

3.3.1. Pilot Test

The instruments have been pilot tested on 30 individuals in Awra Amba. The purpose of the test was to find out if the instructions, wording and response categories of the instruments as a whole are clear and comprehensible to the respondents and to find out the reliability of the instruments. For this purpose, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 15 has been used and by using Cronbach alpha, the reliability of the instruments has been assessed. Based on the result of the pilot test, two vague items have been discarded from the personal attribute questionnaire. These are item number 1 from feminine and item number 7 from masculine sub-scale. After their removal, the reliability indices of the feminine and masculine sub-scales in the PAQ massively increased and have been found .65 and .69 respectively. Originally, while the reliability index of feminine was .77, the masculine sub-scale's was .72. As it has been seen in the present pilot test, there seems a reduction of the reliability indices in relation to the original reliability indices. But this reduction could be due to the elimination of the two items, one from each sub-scale.

On the other hand, the SRQ was employed to measure the general6 gender role perception than the dichotomies stereotypic gender role perception. Originally, the reliability index of the 13 items was .91. But, one culturally unfit item has

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6 General gender role perception refers viewing or thinking about gender that transcends dichotomous categories (Baber & Tucker, 2006)
been removed before the pilot test and only 12 items were pilot tested. Thus its reliability index became .85, which is almost closer to the original reliability.

The original language of the two instruments was English. Since the participants’ mother tongue is Amharic, the instruments were translated from English to Amharic language. For this purpose, back and forward translation has been made by two language experts to maintain the semantic equivalence between the two languages.

3.3.2. Administration

During the administration phase, the first important thing was informing participants that their responses would be kept confidential and would not be used in any way that could harm them. Moreover, they have been informed that, they were not required to tell the researcher anything that will disclose their identity such as their names.

The administration procedure has been made face-to-face between the researcher including (assistant data collectors) and the participants. The two assistant data collectors were members of the Awra Amba community. Both of them are high school preparatory students in the near by Woreda, Woreta High School. After looking at their academic background and achievements, they were selected as assistant data collectors. After they agreed to collect data along with the present researcher, they were given orientation on how to collect the data, from whom they would collect the data (for instance, age limitation, sex of the participants and the like), how they would clarify statements, etc.

When participants were found to be able to fill the questionnaires by themselves without any assistance, they were asked to fill them out. But, when they displayed some confusion, clarifications were made by the present
researcher and the two assistant data collectors. On the other hand, there were some participants (especially elderly participants) who could not fill the questionnaire by themselves. In this regard, the data were collected through an interview approach (each and every question was read by the researcher and responses were provided by the participants). Therefore, data that were collected from children and adults (who can not read and write) were entirely gathered by the researcher. This is mainly because, the process required a great deal of care in clarification of statements, ideas and other relevant information.

3.3.3. Analysis

Different statistical methods have been utilized (ranging from simple descriptive ones to more complex statistical procedures) in order to carry out the analysis depending on the nature of data available and the type of research questions set in the study. In the present study there are two major variables—sex and age. Age has been categorized into three basic groups; children (8-12), adolescents (13-20) and adults (21-65). Under each age category there is sex category too. Therefore, One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) has been employed to compare mean difference in terms of gender role perceptions among children, adolescents and adults. After significant differences have been found in the masculine self-perceived gender role perception and general gender role perception, post hoc multiple comparisons, especially LSD (List Significant Difference) have been made to show which age group possesses conservative, traditional or liberal gender role views. LSD test is used to make all pair wise comparisons of the group means. By pair wise comparison, it is to mean that making all possible comparisons between groups by looking at one pair of groups at a time. The LSD multiple mean comparisons is often considered the most powerful test. Because, researchers are more likely to be able to reject the null hypothesis with it than with other post hoc tests.
including the Tukey HSD (Honestly Significantly Difference) test. As Thorne and Giesen (2000) clearly explained, in research, researchers would rather reject a few true nulls than fail to reject false hypothesis. In other words, the type II ($\beta$) error (failure of detection) is considered to be more serious than the type I ($\alpha$) error (false alarm).

The Spence and Helmreich’s (1978) chart and score interpretation manual has been used to interpret the PAQ in terms of androgynous, undifferentiated, feminine and masculine gender roles. Mean plots on the feminine, masculine and general gender role perception also done to observe whether gender role perceptual flexibility could occur when one grows older in the Awra Amba community.

Apart from the one-way ANOVA and the mean plots, an independent t-test has also been employed to compare the mean differences in terms of gender role perception between the Awra Amba male and female participants. While the analysis results of the ANOVA provided information for research question number one (i.e. whether gender role perception is significantly different across the three age groups or not), the mean plot indicates the progress or regress of gender role perception with age. Finally, the independent t-test also provided information about the significant differences between the two sexes in terms of their gender role perception.
CHAPTER FOUR

4. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Analysis

This section presents the analysis and discussion of the study. To examine score similarities and variations across the three age groups on feminine and masculine self-perceived gender role perceptions, descriptive statistics were used. The summary of means and standard deviations are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Feminine and Masculine Stereotypic Gender Role Perception

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Gender Roles</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>24.40</td>
<td>3.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>18.75</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescents</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>24.45</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>23.37</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>24.50</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>23.77</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 1 points out that the mean score of participants in the three age groups seem somehow similar, particularly on the feminine gender roles. That is, 24.40, 24.45 and 24.50 among children, adolescents and adults respectively. While the standard deviation of children on feminine gender role is 3.45, adolescents’ 2.79 and adults’ is 1.99. This shows that, the score variation among children (3.45) is relatively high in relation to adolescents’ (2.79) and adults’ (1.99).

On the other hand, the masculine gender role mean scores are 18.78 with a standard deviation of 2.62, 23.37 with a standard deviation of 3.63, and 23.77
with a standard deviation of 3.62 among children, adolescents and adults respectively. Although, the mean score of feminine gender role is closer to each other across the three age groups, the mean score of masculine gender role seems a little bit different. Especially, children’s masculine mean score is much lower than that of their adolescent and adult counterparts.

It has been observed earlier that the descriptive summary results have uncovered some differences in terms of mean and standard deviation among the three age groups. This difference alone, however, does not confirm whether statistically significant difference exists or not in order to give answers to the research questions. Therefore, it is worthwhile to test the mean differences with one-way ANOVA. Table 2 summarizes the ANOVA results on the feminine and masculine stereotypic gender role perception among children, adolescents and adults.

Table 2: Summary of ANOVA on Feminine and Masculine Stereotypic Gender Role Perception among Children, Adolescents and Adults

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender Roles</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>.981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1394.25</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>7.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1394.55</td>
<td>179</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>920.00</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>460.01</td>
<td>41.61**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1956.85</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>11.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2876.86</td>
<td>179</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the results of ANOVA displayed in Table 2 it appears that there is no statistically significant difference among children, adolescents and adults on feminine gender role perception. It is to mean that the mean score of the three age groups on the self-perceived stereotypic feminine gender role is somehow similar rather than different. On the other hand, ANOVA summary Table 2
gives the overall F ratio yielding evidences of significant difference among the
three age groups on masculine gender role perception, F (2,177) = 41.61, P<.01.
This means that the three age groups are not the same in terms of the mean
score results on masculine gender role perception, and the differences are
statistically significant. Generally, as the result of ANOVA summary in Table 3
there is no statistically significant difference among children, adolescents and
adults on feminine gender role perception. On the contrary, statistically
significant difference has been exhibited among children, adolescents and
adults on masculine gender role perception. Even though, multiple
comparisons test is necessary to determine which groups are different and
where the difference lies, it is possible to infer that age has an effect on the
variations of masculine gender role perception.

Since statistically significant difference has been found among the three age
groups on masculine gender role perception, multiple comparisons is required
to show which group is responsible for the difference. Table 3 presents the
summary of LSD pair wise mean comparison matrix.

Table 3: LSD Multiple Comparisons on Stereotypic Masculine Gender Role
Perception among Children, Adolescents and Adults

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine Gender Role Perception</td>
<td>(I) age</td>
<td>(J) age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>Adolescents</td>
<td>-4.58**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adults</td>
<td>-4.98**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescents</td>
<td>Children</td>
<td>4.58**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adults</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
<td>.511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults</td>
<td>Children</td>
<td>4.98**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adolescents</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
<td>.511</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the outcome of the LSD pair wise multiple comparison in Table 3 shows that
there is a statistically significant mean difference (4.58) P<.01 between children
and adolescents and (4.98) P<.01 between children and adults. It is clearly observed in Table 3 that, the difference lies between children and adolescents and between children and adults. As the children’s group have smaller mean, it could be deduced from the finding that they have lower stereotypic self-perceived masculine gender role perception compared to adolescents and adults. But adolescents’ self-perceived masculine gender role perception is not significantly lower than that of adults’ perception.

As it has been mentioned in the methodology section (Chapter Three) PAQ is an instrument used to assess masculinity and femininity in terms of respondents’ self-perceived possession of various traits that are stereotypically believed to differentiate the sexes. Thus, participants who scored high on the feminine items (21-28) and high on the masculine items (19-28) are considered to be androgynous. If the participants’ score is low both on feminine and masculine, below 21 and 19 respectively, then, the individuals’ gender role perception is undifferentiated. When the participants’ score is high on feminine items (21-28) and low on masculine items (below 19) it would be interpreted as feminine. Finally, high scores on masculine items (19-28) may associate with low feminine scores (below 21) then, this could be interpreted as stereotypic masculine gender role perception. Therefore, the feminine and masculine gender role interpretation would be meaningful, when the feminine and masculine scores of the participants are presented in pair as mentioned above. Accordingly, as (Table 1 page 35) shows while children’s feminine gender role perception mean score is 24.40 their masculine gender role perception mean score is 18.78. These scores could be interpreted as high feminine and low masculine. Based on this analysis, children’s self-perceived gender role perception seems feminine. However, since children’s masculine gender role perception mean score (18.78) is very close to the cutoff point to the high score (19-28), it would be preferable to be cautious in interpreting the result.
On the other hand, adolescents' and adults' scores both on feminine and masculine gender roles are high. As Table 2 shows, while adolescents' feminine gender roles mean score is 24.45, their masculine gender role mean score is 23.37. Similarly, adults' feminine gender roles mean score is 24.50 and their masculine gender role mean score is 23.77. These mean scores both on feminine and masculine gender role are considered high. Therefore, from this one can tentatively infer that both adolescents' and adults' self-perceived gender role perception is androgynous.

In order to see whether there exists a statistically significant difference among children, adolescents and adults on the general gender role perception, one-way ANOVA was computed. The result of this analysis is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Summary of ANOVA on the General Gender Role Perception among Children, Adolescents and Adults

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Group</td>
<td>2410.88</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1205.44</td>
<td>36.83 **</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Group</td>
<td>5793.37</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>32.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8204.24</td>
<td>179</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 is about the perception of general gender role perception among children, adolescents and adults. As the ANOVA summary in Table 4 displayed, there is a statistically significant difference among the three age groups F (2,177) =36.83, P<.01. Therefore, this implies that there is a statistically significant difference among children, adolescents and adults in their general gender role perception.
Although statistically significant difference exists among children, adolescents and adults on the general gender role perception, it would be difficult to put each age group in order as egalitarian, non-traditional or traditional based on the ANOVA results only. Thus, LSD multiple comparisons were run and the summary is presented in a praise matrix in Table 5.

**Table 5: LSD Multiple Comparisons on the General Gender Role Perception among Children, Adolescents and Adults**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(I)age</td>
<td>(J)age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Gender Role Perception</td>
<td>Children</td>
<td>Adolescents</td>
<td>8.3**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Adults</td>
<td>7.08**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adolescents</td>
<td>Children</td>
<td>-8.3**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Adults</td>
<td>-1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adults</td>
<td>Children</td>
<td>-7.08**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Adolescents</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As observed in the summary of pairwise mean comparisons in Table 5, statistically significant mean difference were exhibited (8.3) $P<.01$ between children and adolescents and (7.08) $P<.01$ between children and adults. As these data clearly shows, the significant difference lies between children and the rest two groups (adolescents and adults). In turn, this implies that children hold traditional gender role view than their adolescent and adult counterparts. But adolescents’ general gender role perception is not significantly lower than adults’. Therefore, from these analyses, it is possible to deduct that age is a factor that affect general gender role perception in Awra Amba Community.

Apart from the one-way ANOVA and multiple post hoc comparisons, the mean plots of the data could also provide an understanding of the gender role
perceptual flexibilities with age. As a result, the mean plots of the feminine, masculine and general gender role perception are presented in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Mean Plot on the Perception of Stereotypic Feminine Gender Roles among Children, Adolescents and Adults

Figure 1 shows the mean plot on the stereotypic feminine gender role perception among children, adolescents and adults. This linear mean plot indicates that an increase in stereotypic perception of the feminine gender roles as one’s age increases from childhood via adolescence to adulthood. However, this increment of perception of the feminine gender roles is not found as significant across the three age groups according to the ANOVA results (see Table 2 page 36).
To show whether masculine gender role perception is flexible or not with age, mean plot has been employed. In Figure 2 the plot is presented with the mean scores on the vertical axis and the age groups on the horizontal axis.

Figure 2: Mean Plot on the Perception of Stereotypic Masculine Gender Roles among Children, Adolescents and Adults

![Figure 2: Mean Plot on the Perception of Stereotypic Masculine Gender Roles among Children, Adolescents and Adults](image)

As Figure 2 depicts stereotypic masculine gender role perception increases with age. Although, age and stereotypic masculine gender role perception do not have linear relationship in Figure 2, the perceptual change from childhood to adolescence is noticeable while the change from adolescence to adulthood is not significant. In connection to this, ANOVA summary Table 2 confirms that there is a statistically significant difference among children, adolescents and adults on stereotypic masculine gender role perception. The post hoc multiple comparisons also indicates that, children hold lower stereotypic masculine
gender role perception than adolescents and adults. But, all in all, as Figure 2 shows, stereotypic masculine gender role perception increases with age.

Finally, the mean plot of the three age groups on the general gender role perception is presented below in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Mean Plot on the General Gender Role Perception among Children, Adolescents and Adults.

As Figure 3 indicates general gender role perception noticeably declined from high mean scores to low mean scores when age increases from childhood to adolescence and a little bit increases from adolescence to adulthood. This implies that when age increases from childhood to adolescence, stereotypic and traditional gender role perception declines. But when age increases from adolescence to adulthood the perceptual change is negligible. In relation to this (Table 4 page 39) shows that there is a statistically significant difference among
children, adolescents and adults on the general gender role perception. The post hoc multiple comparison results also implied that children hold the traditional gender role perception than adolescents and adults. However, the change that existed from adolescence to adulthood is not significant.

So far age has been analyzed using one-way ANOVA, post hoc multiple comparisons and mean plots, to see its effect on the perception of gender roles. In the next section, sex will be included as a variable to see whether it has a significant impact on the perception of gender roles. Table 6 summarizes the mean and standard deviation of participants’ feminine and masculine gender role perception scores.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of the Stereotypic Feminine and Masculine Gender Role Perception

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Total No</th>
<th>Gender Roles</th>
<th>Mean Scores</th>
<th>Standard Deviations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>25.07</td>
<td>2.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>21.84</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>23.83</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>22.10</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be seen in Table 6 the 90 female participants’ feminine gender role mean score is 25.07 with a standard deviation of 2.29. Similarly, their masculine gender role mean score is 21.84 with a standard deviation of 3.92. On the contrary, the 90 male participants’ feminine gender role mean score is 23.83 with 3.11 standard deviations. Their masculine gender role mean score is 22.10 with a standard deviation of 4.10. Table 6 also shows that females’ feminine gender role mean score variation or standard deviation (2.29) is relatively less than that of their male counterparts (3.11). In the same way,
females’ masculine gender role standard deviation (3.92) is still less than that of male participants’ (4.10).

As it has been mentioned in the previous sections, the feminine and masculine gender role score interpretation would be meaningful when the two gender roles’ scores are presented together. Female participants’ feminine gender role mean score (25.07) and masculine gender role mean score (21.84) are considered to be high. Therefore, females’ self-perceived gender role perception is androgynous.

Similarly, male participants’ feminine gender role mean score (23.83) and masculine gender role mean score (22.10) are still considered as high. This indicates that, male participants’ self-perceived gender role perception is androgynous like those of the female participants.

Apart from the descriptive summary results, T-test was employed to test whether there exists a statistically significant difference between female and male participants on the general gender role perception. The summary of this T-test is presented in Table 7.

Table 7: T-test on the General Gender Role Perception between Male and Female Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>11.21</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>.930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows the independent t-test between male and female participants on the general gender role perception. As can be seen from Table 7 there is no
statistically significant difference between male and female participants in their general gender role perception. This implies that males’ and females’ gender role perception seems similar than different. From this, it is possible to derive the inference that perception of gender role in Awra Amba community could not be determined by one’s own sex.
4.2. Discussion

In this section, the findings of the present study will be discussed in comparison to the findings of the previous studies.

4.2.1. Gender Role Perception as a Function of Age

As the present study shows, age has been found a significant factor for the stereotypic self-perceived and general gender role perception in the Awra Amba community. Even though, the perceptual difference between adolescents and adults is not significant, the difference is significant between children and adolescents, and children and adults. For instance, while children's self-perceived gender role perception is feminine, their general gender role perception is traditional and stereotypic. In this regard, the present study is in harmony with the study conducted by Mead (cited in Schaefer, 2005) among the Arapesh community in Papua New Guinea. According to Mead's findings, the Arapesh children hold stereotypic feminine gender role which is characterized by warm, nurturant and cooperative traits. Similarly, Kering et al. (1983) study also shows that since the Russian culture strongly disapproves aggression and other stereotypic masculine gender roles, children are socialized to grow up with stereotypic feminine gender roles. As a result, Russian children's perception on the self-perceived gender role is feminine. In relation to children's general gender role perception, Mensch et al. (2003) point out that Egyptian children hold a traditional perception on the division of roles between males and females.

On the contrary, the finding of the present study is not consistent with many other previous findings. For instance, the research finding reported by, Viorest (1986) shows that, children of both sexes hold stereotypic masculine gender role perception. Similarly, Conner and Serbin (1978) also revealed findings that
indicate stereotypic masculine gender role is children’s favorite traits. According to them, when children are exposed to certain stories with male and female protagonists, both boys and girls approve more of the main character’s actions and express a greater desire to be the main character when the character is male. Moreover, Williams & Best (cited in Gardener & Kosmitzki, 1990) findings indicate that children are more familiar with the masculine stereotype than with the feminine and suggested that masculine stereotypes are dominant in their lives and are learned earlier.

The present research revealed that adolescents’ and adults’ self-perceived and general gender role perception is androgynous and egalitarian or non traditional. Androgynous and non traditionallity show that the Awra Amba adolescents and adults perceive different kinds of duties, responsibilities, traits and behaviors not linked with one’s biological destiny—the sex. In relation to this finding, there are some previous studies which are consistent to it. For instance the early findings by Cheling et al. (cited in Zhang, 2006) show, when people grow older their gender role perception change from stereotypic to egalitarian and non traditional. However, the study conducted by Sugihara and katsurada (1999) show deviation from the finding of the present study. According to these researchers, Japanese students’ scores were higher on the feminine scale than the masculine gender role. Similarly, Shimonaka et al. (1990) also found consistent findings with the Japanese elderly population.

4.2.2. Gender Role Perceptual Flexibility with Age

Gender role perceptual flexibility across different age groups was one of the research questions in this study. Thus, as the present study shows, gender role perceptual flexibility increases with age. As the mean plots in the analysis section shows, when one’s age increases from childhood to adolescence and adulthood, their perception changes from feminine to androgynous and from
stereotypic and traditional to egalitarian and non traditional. Therefore, this implies that, in Awra Amba community when one grows older, his or her sex role perceptual flexibility increases too. In this regard, there are considerable bodies of literature which are consistent with the present findings. Conversely, there are also several previous studies which significantly differ from the present study.

To begin with, studies conducted by Walters et al. (cited in Zhang, 2006) show that gender role perceptual flexibility increases with age. Kohlberg’s (1966) cognitive developmental theory also states that adolescents become increasingly flexible as they mature. According to this theory, as children are able to reason and consider multiple perspectives in formal operations, cognition usually becomes more flexible. Moreover, Katz & Ksansnak (1994) demonstrate, perceptual flexibility is highest in the late adolescent age group. Similarly, according to Katz (1997) since rebelling against social conventions is an important means of achieving independence during adolescence, it predicts that adolescents would be less likely to adhere to gender role stereotypes and would become more flexible.

On the contrary, the present study deviated from some early findings. Zhang’s (2006) finding in China shows that younger Chinese students were more egalitarian and non-traditional than their older counterparts. Similarly, Tu & Liao (2005) points out that younger Taiwanese and Chinese are more egalitarian than are older Taiwanese and Chinese in terms of gender role perceptual flexibility. The other finding which is quite different from the present study is the study conducted by Fan & Marini (2000). According to Fan & Marini, instead of moving in an egalitarian direction, Chinese students experience gender role perceptual change in a traditional direction with increasing age.
In general, as age is seen as an independent variable, it has its own contribution for gender role perception in an egalitarian or non-traditional direction. In the present study, the Awra Amba children hold stereotypic and traditional gender role perception than the adolescent and adult participants. It is evident in many developmental literatures and theories that socialization is a fundamental process for the enormous behaviors and traits that children would possess. For example, Santrock (1994) points out that information that surrounds the child and which is internalized comes into the child within the family arena through parent-child interactions, role modeling, and reinforcement for desired behaviors and parental approval or disapproval. Laver et al. (cited in Witt, 1997) also argue that a child’s earliest exposure to what it means to be male or female comes from parents. Researchers Miller and Lane (cited in Berryman-Fink et al., 1993) share the ideas of Santrock and Laver et al. That is, parental influence on socialization is strong.

Apart from those of the developmental literatures, some developmental theories also argue about the importance of child socialization for later adult behavior. Among other theories, the social learning theory states that children have a multitude of experiences through which they learn behaviors, beliefs, and values considered by their family to be “desirable” or “appropriate” for their sex. Similarly, Freud’s psychoanalysis theory proposes that sex differences in perception and behavior originates in children’s identification with their same sex parent. Along with this, according to the Gender Schema theory, young children begin with a simple in-group and out-group gender schema that they use to classify other people as being either, “the same as me” or not, and act accordingly.

Even though, parents are considered as the main agents for child socialization in several literatures, the Awra Amba children fail to adhere with such findings. Of course, there are literatures which argue that socialization is the product of
parents, schools, peers and media influences. As Bronfenbrenner, Alvarez and Henderson (1984), development is influenced by many social factors, and children may best be understood in terms of their environment. These environments include schools, peers and media.

According to close observation of this researcher during data collection, there is no formal school7 (primary-tertiary) which serves exclusively the Awra Amba children. Rather, the Awra Amba children are supposed to go 6 kilometers per day (round trip) from their home to the “Woji”8 primary school which serves other surrounding communities. As a result, the Awra Amba children could be influenced by their peers and age mates, teachers and pictures of the stereotypic gender roles on their text books.

4.2.3. Gender Role Perception as a Function of Sex

Despite, age being a significant variable for gender role perception among the Awra Amba community, sex has not been found significant. As the present finding indicates, being a male or a female does not cause differences in gender role perception. For instance, both the Awra Amba females and males have androgynous and non-traditional gender role perception. In connection to this, the reviewed literatures show that noticeable deviation from the present finding. For example, the study in New Zealand by Pryor et al. (cited in Tuck et al., 1994) indicates, females have more egalitarian perception than do males. The study of Williams and Best (cited in Gardner & Kosmitzki, 2002) also revealed that there is a significant difference between females and males in their gender role perception. Moreover, Gibbons et al. (cited in Konard et al., 2002) found that women are more liberal than men in their perception of

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7 There is school under construction which is intended to serve the Awra Amba community only. Its service would be started by 2002 e.c.

8 The name of the primary school which serves the Awra Amba children and the other surrounding communities' children.
gender roles. Kagitcibasi and Sunar (1992) attribute such liberal view of women to the dramatic changes of women’s activities than men’s. Similarly, research findings conducted by Lueptow et al. (cited in Konard et al., 2002) indicate that despite current gender role perceptions being more liberal, recent studies have found that complete equality in perception has not been attained and that young people still view women and men in stereotypical ways. A local study conducted by Yalew (1997) also shows that the Amhara society regardless of their sexes, have traditional and stereotypic attitudes on women’s leading and decision making abilities.
CHAPTER FIVE

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary

The present study is intended to investigate three basic research questions. The first one is to find out whether there exists a significant difference on gender role perception among the Awra Amba children, adolescents and adults. The second research question is about the flexibility of gender role perception with age. The last question is to find out whether there exists a significant difference on gender role perception among the Awra Amba males and females.

For these purposes, from 403 total Awra Amba Population, 180 participants, 60 from each age group (children, adolescents and adults) and 30 from each sex groups (male and females) were selected using stratified random sampling method.

In order to see whether there is a significant difference on the perception of gender roles among the Awra Amba children, adolescents and adults, one-way ANOVA has been employed. As the ANOVA results indicate there is a statistically significant difference among the three age groups on gender role perception. LSD post hoc multiple comparisons have also been made. The result revealed that the Awra Amba children hold stereotypic and traditional gender role perception than their adolescent and adult counterparts. But, Awra Amba adolescents and adults did not show significant difference and their gender role perception was egalitarian and non-traditional.

In addition, the influence of age on the flexibility of gender role perception has also been analyzed. As mean plots of the present study shows, when the Awra
Amba community’s age increases, their gender role perception moves from stereotypic and traditional towards egalitarian and non-traditional.

In addition to age, sex of the participants has been analyzed to see its influence on gender role perception. For this purpose, an independent t-test has been made, and found that there is no statistically significant difference between Awra Amba females and males in their gender role perception. While the Awra Amba females hold androgynous and non-traditional gender role perception, males also have a similar (androgynous and non-traditional) gender role views.

Generally, while age is a factor that potentially affects gender role perception in the Awra Amba community, sex is not found as a significant factor. Gender role perceptual flexibility has also been displayed with age increments in this community.
5.2. Conclusion

It would be impossible to say that this study is virtually free from limitation. Since the study used a kind of cross sectional method, it incorporates all the drawbacks of the cross sectional approach. Of these limitations, one is the cohort effect. Thus, by taking such limitation into account the following conclusions have been made.

➢ There is a statistically significant difference among the Awra Amba children, adolescents and adults in their gender role perception. This in turn implies that, age is a significant factor for the Awra Amba community to determine their gender role perception. In other words, while children hold stereotypic feminine and traditional gender role perception, adolescents and adults have androgynous and non-traditional gender role perception.

➢ Egalitarian and non-traditional gender role perception increases with age in the Awra Amba community. When one grows older from childhood to adolescence and adulthood, gender role perception changes from stereotypic or traditional to non-traditional and egalitarian.

➢ There is no statistically significant difference between the Awra Amba females and males in their gender role perception. That is, sex does not determine the perception of gender roles in Awra Amba community. As the finding shows, both the Awra Amba females’ and males’ gender role perception is androgynous and egalitarian or non-traditional.
5.3. Recommendations

On the basis of the present research findings, the following possible recommendations have been made.

➢ Despite the social relations are in a continual progress, changing gender roles and traditional beliefs on gender are difficult tasks, especially in the traditional society like Ethiopia, where significant portion of the society are illiterate, less communicative and resistant to new things. But the Awra Amba adolescents and adults displayed a great deal of progress in this perspective. Thus it would be worthwhile if the Ethiopian government and different concerned Non Governmental Organizations should lend their ears and hands for this community to encourage and widen their philosophical horizon and to make them as role models for the rest of Ethiopian communities who hold stereotypic gender role perceptions.

➢ Even though, parents are the basic important figures to socialize their children to have a non-traditional gender role perception, schools and teachers are also significant socializing bodies. As a result, the Awra Amba children need to have teachers, textbooks, and related educational materials that demonstrate their parental values, norms and attitudes. For its accomplishments, the Ministry of Education, curriculum and textbook designers are responsible agents.

➢ The present finding is not ultimate by itself. As it has been introduced at the very beginning of the conclusion section, it is not totally free from limitation. Thus, in order to come up with consistent conclusions, further investigations are necessary and recommended. To this end, interested researchers are warmly invited to fill the gap using a different developmental approach.
REFERENCES


Objective of the study:

The ultimate objective of this study is to investigate the perceptions of gender roles in your community-Awra Amba. The responses that you give will be used for academic purpose only and will not be transferred for any individuals or organizations. Since it is irrelevant for the purpose of this study, you are not recommended to say anything that could disclose your identity like your name. The reliability, validity and truthfulness of this study are highly dependent on your responses. Hence, you are strongly encouraged to give responses that really reflect your genuine feelings and understanding.

Thank you for your cooperation!!

Part One: Background information

Sex       Female_________ Male_________
Age___________ years

Part Two: Below, there are a variety of questions that are intended to measure your perception of gender roles. Thus you are required to express freely your level of agreement.
### 2.1. Personal Attribute Questionnaire

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Level of Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am independent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I am emotional</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I am active</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I can devote my self completely to others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I am gentle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am helpful to others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I am competitive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I am kind</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I am aware of feelings of others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I have difficulties to make decisions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Never gives up easily</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I am self confident</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I feel superior</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I do have the ability to understand others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I am warm in relation to others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I can stand up well under pressure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Item 10 must be reverse coded*
2.2. Social Role Questionnaire

<table>
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<tr>
<th>S.No</th>
<th>Items</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>People can be both aggressive and nurturing regardless of sex</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>People should be treated the same regardless of their sex</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The freedom that children are given should be determined by their age and maturity level and not by their sex</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Tasks around the house should not be assigned by sex</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>We should stop thinking about whether people are male or female and focus on other characteristics</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Fathers’ major responsibility is to provide financially for their children</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Some types of work are just not appropriate for women</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Mothers should make most decisions about how children are brought up</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Mothers should work only if necessary</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Girls should be protected and watched over more than boys</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Only some types of works are appropriate for both men and women</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>For many important jobs, it is better to choose men instead of women</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Items should be reverse coded
Appendix B

አንድ ከወ የታሰብ

ልተራን ያርዎ ገብያ

ስርተት እንታወንት

ክርስት ይታወንት ከሌለ
### 2.1. እን ዋስ ያደሩ ድርጉት ከላሸው ወለስት ውጪታቸው መልስ

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2.2. ከመፋለ የተማ ዲን ከፋና ይገዛት የጉር በማወቅ መንገድ

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<td>የሚያስገኝ ሳይንፋት ርወን ይታይ ከፋና ይገዛት የጉር በማወቅ መንገድ ይገزةት</td>
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DECLARATION

The thesis, my original work, has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Seid Ebrice
Signature: ______________________
Date: 03/07/2009

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as a university advisor.

Name: ____________________________
Signature: ____________________________
Date: _____________________________