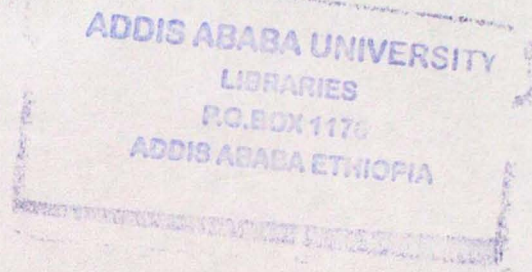


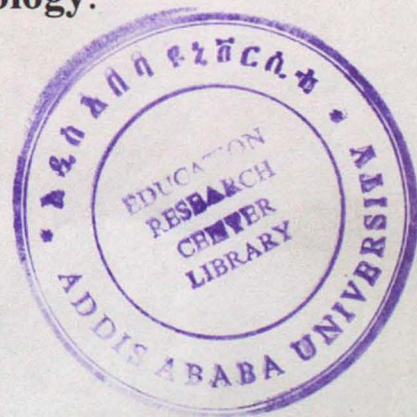
FACTORS AFFECTING SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION OF ADOLESCENTS IN ADDIS ABABA



**A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of
Addis Ababa University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of
Master of Arts in Developmental Psychology.**

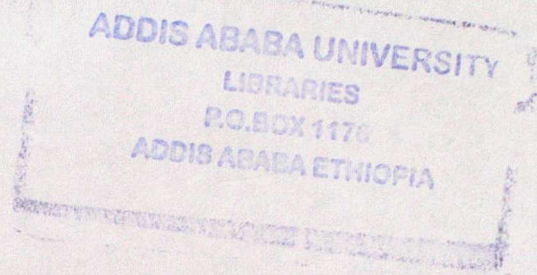
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WELDESENBET KASSA FENTAW



July, 2006

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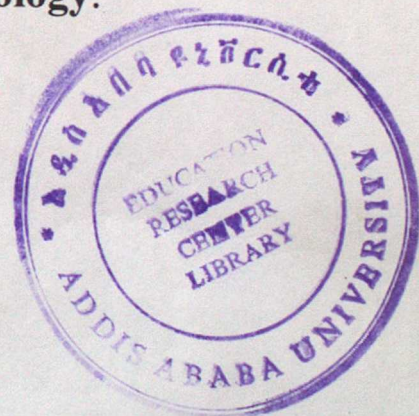
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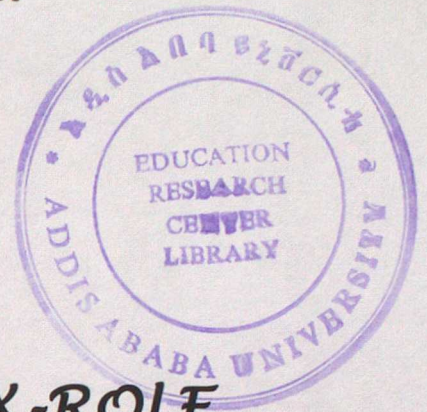
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List of Abbreviations

Educ. = Education

Inv't = Involvement

MES = Maternal Employment Status

MRC = Mothers Religious Commitment

SES = Socio Economic Status

SRO= Sex-Role Orientation

TrMJ = Traditionality of Mothers Job

TrIFM = Traditionality of Influential Family Member

TV = Television

YrSRP = Year when Separated From Parents

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between adolescents' sex-role development and cognitive factors such as age, grade level and academic ability, and socialization factors such as TV viewing, traditionality of influential family member, teachers influence, socio economic status, mothers' education, maternal involvement in traditional masculine home chores, mothers' sex-role orientation, mothers' age, maternal employment status, traditionality of mothers' job, mothers' religious commitment, fathers' education, paternal involvement in traditional feminine home chores, and fathers' sex-role orientation. Besides, their combined effects and their independent power to predict the sex-role development of adolescents were assessed.

To achieve these aims, 178 families (students and their fathers and mothers) participated. The required data were secured using questionnaires. Additionally, focus group discussion was employed. Then, the data collected were analyzed using Pearson's r , series of multiple regression analyses and regression coefficients.

The result obtained disclosed that academic ability, TV viewing, mothers' sex-role orientation, mothers' employment status, fathers' sex-role orientation, fathers education, and paternal involvement in feminine household chores were significantly related to the sex-role development of adolescents. In addition, the combined effects of all independent variables were found to significantly predict the sex-role development of adolescents. However, the most powerful predictors of adolescents' sex-role orientation were found to be TV viewing, followed by fathers' sex-role orientation and fathers' involvement.

The separate assessments for boys and girls revealed similar but some what different result. They showed that the most influential predictors of boys' sex-role orientation were TV viewing, fathers' sex-role orientation, paternal involvement and fathers' education, whereas girls' sex-role orientation was highly influenced by TV viewing, fathers' sex-role orientation, and mothers' sex-role orientation. (Details are presented in the result and discussion sections.)

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1.1.1. CONCEPTS OF SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION AND RELATED TERMS

The fact that males and females have different life experiences may explain the sex differences that are often observed. As a result, Coser, et al., (1991) noted that being female means playing a certain role, whereas being male means playing another. Such assignments force individuals to feel that a given role is more appropriate for one sex than the other. This difference is the result of differential treatments boys and girls received through the socialization process (Tsehi, 1991; Gardiner, Mutter & Kosmitzki, 1998). Therefore, *socialization* can be defined as the process by which individuals acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes that enable them to participate as more or less effective members of a group of a society (Gardiner, Mutter, Kosmitzki, 1998).

These differences in role and behavior between males and females are referred to as *gender*. *Gender* or *sex-role*, therefore, is denoted as a social category as well as a personal attribute and it constitutes the basis for delineating a status in which a person is masculine, feminine or androgynous (Trew & Kremer, 1998). In other words, this socially learned patterns of behavior that differentiate males from females in a given society are referred to as one's *sex- role*. Thus, sex-roles are learned personality and physiological traits that people learn to fit the societal expectations for each sex.

In the same way, sex-role is composed of several elements, depending on the community of agreement among members of the culture. These elements, according to Rosenberg and Kaplan (1982), can be seen in the form of the following three classes: physical attributes, overt behaviors and covert attributes.

Physical attributes are attributes such as large muscle mass, facial and body hair are among the most desirable physical characteristics for boys. Girls on the other hand, are expected to possess, such attractive face and hairless body. Even though, the *overt behaviors* are not as clearly seen as the physical attributes, we would expect more aggressive behavior from males, whereas a nurturant one from females. *Covert attributes*, on the other hand, include feelings, attitudes, motives, and beliefs. In most cases, females are supposed to maintain affective and submissive characters, whereas males are urged to be independent.

Sex-role identity (Gender identity) refers to the inner sense of self identification with male or female gender. In most cases, sex-role and gender identity may be harmonious with each other. For example, Golombok & Fivush (1994) suggested that a girl who demonstrates a feminine sex-role may develop female gender identity. However, there are also cases in which the two (sex-role and gender identity) are in dissent, for example, a person of one sex may experience him/herself as a member of opposite gender.

If one has very rigid views about how one should behave, feel and act, or how others should behave, feel and act, one is said to be highly stereotypical. *Sex-role stereotyping* (*Gender stereotyping*) then, refers to the broad category that reflects one's impression and beliefs about the socially designed normative behaviors appropriate to either the masculine or the feminine roles (Parke, 1996). In other words, stereotypes provide us with ways to categorize others and predict their behaviors based on their sex. In a survey study of college students in thirty countries, William and Best (as cited in Santrock, 1999) found that sex-role stereotyping of males and females is pervasive. Then, they noted that males were generally believed to be more dominant, independent, aggressive and achievement oriented. By contrary, females were widely supposed to be nurturant, affective, less esteemed and more helpful in times of distress.

However, In the process of becoming more aware of others and self, individuals may have the opportunity to explore the positive aspects of both sexes' roles. As a result, all males may not exhibit stereotypical masculine sex-roles and not all

females develop traditional feminine sex-roles. According to Bem (as cited in Coleman & Ganung, 1987; Santrock, 1999), a person may exhibit a masculine sex-role orientation, feminine sex-role orientation, a combination of both (i.e., androgynous), or neither strong masculine nor strong feminine (i.e., undifferentiated). The same category is expected in this study.

Sex-role orientation, therefore, refers to the degree that an individual associates oneself with gender specific sets of personality and psychological traits. Accordingly, an individual may be labeled as having masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated sex-role orientation. *Masculine* refers to personality traits that reflect the extent to which an individual's behaviors and activities have been seen as more typical of men than women. *Feminine*, on the other hand, is the extent to which one's personality reflects the characteristics possessed more often by women than men.

Earlier, it was assumed that masculinity and femininity are mutually exclusive so that a person who is feminine is by definition not masculine. This idea is changed by Constantinople (as cited in Varughese, 1998). Likewise, Bem, in 1974 (as cited in Santrock, 1999) revealed that masculinity and femininity are two separate orthogonal dimensions rather than opposite ends. Currently, this idea is widely accepted. Accordingly, masculinity and femininity are two dimensions which vary independently, so that an individual may have any combination of scores: high on both, low on both, or high on one and low on the other (Eleanor, 1987).

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), whereas *undifferentiated* refers to a person who has weak masculine and feminine characteristics.

Regarding the development of appropriate sex-role orientations, Shears (2002) argued that strict masculine and feminine sex-roles are dangerous, because they encourage risky behaviors among males and females. As a result, several researchers have agreed that androgynous people would be more adaptive and

healthy. For example Watson, Biderman & Sawrie (1994) suggested that to be androgynous is to be mentally healthy, which implies that the masculine and feminine persons' mental health is at risk. Similarly, Coleman & Ganung (1987) indicated that androgynous person would hold fewer irrational beliefs than either masculine or feminine persons. By the same token, Varughese (1998) found that androgynous children are less depressed than the sex-typed children.

1.1.2. THEORIES OF SEX-ROLE DEVELOPMENT

Historically, as Rekers (1995) generalized, person's sex was considered to be an important distinction in human personality. In other words, it was assumed that person's biological sex could account for all aspects of stereotypical sex-role behaviors (Masculinity exclusively for males and femininity for females). At that time, the term sex-role was confined to a set of behavioral norms allied with maleness and femaleness (Rekers, 1995; Fable as cited in Trew & Kremer, 1998). Moreover, sex-role attitude was considered as a continuum in which more of one means less of the other (Lips, 1997), which means the masculinity and femininity are at two opposite ends.

However, nowadays psychological and biological sexes are assumed to be distinct, because there are now female pilots, engineers, executives, cabinet officials, and doing other activities that were stereotypically males'. Similarly, men increasingly perform tasks that were once exclusively females': such as, infant care, child feeding, washing clothes, tidying and performing various home chores that were left to females. There are even a number of male nurses.

There is no doubt that women or at least some women can perform almost all tasks performed by men and vice versa, with the exception of childbearing. For this reason, "*one can be biologically male, yet masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated in endorsement of sex-role attitudes*" (Marcia, et al., 1993:39). Similarly, Spence (in Trew & Kremer, 1998: 4) argued that:

"The term gender identity has lost its biological connotations and is widely used to refer to the individual's fundamental sense of maleness and femaleness with few exceptions, complements, awareness, and acceptance of biological sex."

Likewise, Golombok and Fivush (1994: 34) summarized many studies and argued that *"there is a great deal of overlap between the sexes; some boys are not at all aggressive, and some girls frequently play with cars and trucks"* •

On the contrary, several individuals still accept that some behavioral differences exist between males and females. For example, Maccoby and Jacklin (as cited in Golombok & Fivush, 1994) argued that boys on the average are more aggressive and independent than girls.

Thus, one may ask why and how do individuals, particularly adolescents develop differences in sex-role attitudes, identities & behaviors? What are the roles of their environments in the sex-roles development? Do adolescents play actively for the development of their sex-role orientations?

To answer and explain such questions several theories have been developed including Bandura's and Mischel's social rearing theory; Kohlberg's cognitive developmental theory; Bem's gender schema theory; and the Freudian psychoanalytical theory. Considerable researches have been developed to test these various perspectives of sex-role development. As Jacklin (as cited in Yang, 2000) forecasted, new theories also continue to be proposed and tested.

Accordingly, brief reviews of the four theories of sex-role development are presented here under. Of course, it was better if these theories were able to be cited from the original works of the theorists. But, the student researcher could not find their original works. As a result, their works were cited from secondary sources.

Social Learning Theory

According to this theory, behaviors are acquired in two ways, by virtue of reward/punishment and modeling, which is conveyed by appropriate socialization

agents. As Bandura & Mischel (as cited in Golombok & Fivush, 1994) believed, sex-role behaviors are developed through the same process as all behaviors. Several researchers have supported this view (e.g., Block, as cited in Golombok & Fivush, 1994; Trew & Kremer, 1998; Santrock, 1999; Witt, 1997).

Basing the idea of this theory, Witt (1997) stated that as children move through childhood to adolescence, they will be exposed to many factors which influence their attitudes and behaviors regarding sex-roles. Witt added that these attitudes and behaviors are generally learned first in the home and then reinforced by the child's peers, school experience and television viewing.

Parents differently reinforce their sons and daughters various aspects of sex-typed behaviors such as aggressive, assertiveness and dependency. For example, Fogat (as cited in Trew & Kremer, 1998) found that parents typically promote assertiveness in boys by responding to their demands while ignoring and discouraging the same behaviors from girls.

Regarding this, Gardiner, Mutter, & Kosmitzki (1998: 139-140) noted that:

"girls are rewarded and praised for exhibiting behaviors considered desirable for a women in that culture and discouraged from showing undesirable or gender inappropriate behavior. In tern, boys are rewarded for male behaviors and ridiculed if they exhibit behavior reserved for girls or women".

In the same way, Golombok & Fivush (1994) stated that boys receive more freedom than girls, who are reared in more restrictive way, and they are not given the opportunity to learn about their physical environment as compared to boys. As a result, parents contribute to the development of traditional sex-role orientations of their children (Santrock, 1999).

Moreover, Witt (2000) noted that the behaviors and attitudes learned in the home are reinforced by pears, school teachers, and media, especially television. Since, children show a clear preference for being with and liking same sex peers so as to

establish gender identity, their sex-role attitude is influenced (Maccoby, as cited in Santrock, 1999).

School teachers, on the other hand, expect and encourage different behaviors and abilities (Santrock, 1999; Golombok & Fivush, 1994). In this regard, Golombok & Fivush (1994), and Sander and Sander (as cited in Witt, 2000) summarized several studies and concluded that classroom teachers encouraged boys more for intelligence quality of their work, but encouraged girls for the neatness of their work. Likewise, Brophy and Good (as cited in Workman & Johnson, 1994) suggested that boys received significantly more behavioral criticisms than did girls from their teachers. Such pattern of praise and criticism let boys perceive that they were smart but not well behaved and let girls perceive that they were not very smart but could receive reward for good behaving. As a result, we can say that teachers reinforce traditional aspects of sex-role orientations.

The messages carried out by the media, especially television are also other dominant factors for sex-role socialization (Ingham, 1997). According to Foubi and Lovich (1997), media has extraordinary power to communicate and lend authority to social stereotypes. Similarly, Golombok & Fivush (1994) and Meyer (1980) noted that television transmits social norms, particularly cultural stereotypical behaviors that will certainly teach traditional sex-role behaviors. Interestingly, Galambos, Almeida & Peters (1990) suggested that adolescents are highly influenced by sex-role representations of media.

Coming to the second emphasis of this theory, children learn about male and female sex-role behaviors through observational learning (role modeling), which is more important during adolescence (Brotherson, Yamamoto & Acock, 2003). Regarding this, Santrock (1999) and Golombok & Fivush (1994) revised many studies and argued that children are more likely to imitate models of the same-sex as themselves. Conversely, there are evidences that parents tend to encourage their same-sex children join them in traditional sex-role altitudes (Lytton & Romney, as cited in Trew & Kremer, 1998). However, in the real world children do not simply

imitate behaviors of the same sex parents as themselves, instead, as Golombok & Fivush (1994: 85-84) suggested:

"They learn which behaviors are considered appropriate for males and which are for females by observing many men and women ... and by noticing which behaviors are performed frequently by females and rarely by males and vice versa. In other words, children imitate that they have observed to be typical of their own sex".

This idea was confirmed with the cases of androgynous children who were brought up in a social environment that do not encourage traditional sex-role behaviors. For example, Hoffman and Kloska (as cited in Trew & Kremer, 1998) found that parents who had less sex-typed attitude for sex-roles had daughters who were liberal in sex role orientations. Likewise, Golombok & Fivush (1994) stated that even if both parents are employed, the type of job is different: most mothers are secretaries and nurses while most fathers are managers and doctors.

All the same, children are continually exposed to observe their mother and father doing different activities. As a result, one can expect that the type of sex-role attitude of same-sex parent will typically influence the child's sex-role behaviors. Generally, social learning theory considers children as passive recipient of sex-role attitudes.

Cognitive Developmental Theory

Another dominant perspective is cognitive developmental theory, which advocates that the child is actively searching for cues as to how to behave correctly (Santrock, 1999; Lips, 1997).

Kohlberg (in Santrock, 1999) suggested that gender constancy is developed at about six or seven years of age. Accordingly, Santrock noted that after children develop a concept of gender, they begin to organize their world on the basis of sex-roles. As a result, as Kohlberg argued that the primary source of children's rigid sex-role is due to cognitive limitations (Marantz & Mansfield, 1997). In addition, Kohlberg blamed the immediate family for the formation of these rigid sex-roles

(Marantz & Mansfield, 1997). However, according to him, at later age or after a child secure his/her sex-role identity, the child will not be comfortable to stick to stereotypical sex-role behaviors (Lips, 1997).

Therefore, this theory considers that as a conceptual understanding of a child increases, he/she is able to seek out more information about details of sex-roles. For example, by looking for potential models of appropriate sex-role behaviors, a child then organizes his/her own behavior to master of his/her own sex-role (Trew & Kremer, 1998). In other words, children are seen engaging in their own sex-role socialization rather than being recipient of information, as social learning theory has claimed.

Many researchers have supported Kohlberg's theory, and have noted that due to more advanced thinking, older girls' and boys' sex-role attitudes are more flexible (e.g., Meyer, 1980). In other words, older children often demonstrate less strictly masculine and feminine behaviors.

Contrary to this, some researchers (e.g., Galambos, Almeida & Petersen, 1990; Raffaelli & Ontai, 2004) argued that in order to conform to the increased social pressures, adolescent boys and girls exhibit stereotyped sex-roles.

Gender-Schema Theory

Gender-schema theorists, such as Dr. Sandra Bem (in Lips, 1997; Santrock, 1999) stress the active process of gender-related information a child receives from time he/she discovers his/her own sex. According to this theory, children select information that is consistent with their schema – a cognitive structure that organizes and guides an individual's perception – and avoids information that is inconsistent to them.

As a result, the theory states that people's gender-typing behavior is the result of processing gender-related information along what is appropriate for females and males (Santrock, 1999). Besides, as Bem (in Lips, 1997) suggested, individuals differ in their degree to which they use gender-schema to process information. She

added that these differences reflect the degree to which the gender categories are emphasized during socialization process.

Thus, this theory builds on both cognitive developmental and social learning theories, and it considers the child as both actively constructing of gender categories and passive recipient of cultural information.

Freudian Psychoanalytical Theory

With regard to sex-role development, Freudian psychoanalytical theory focuses on the identification process with the same-sex parent (Yang, 2000). As Freud (in Lips 1997) stressed the importance of early experiences and thoughts in influencing later personality, it is during his third stage of psychosexual development (Phallic stage) that boys and girls diverge.

According to Freud, since the pressure to resolve Electra complex is weak, the super ego could not fully be formed in girls as in boys (Lips, 1997; Golombok & Fivush, 1994). Hence, Freud argued that females are inferior to males (Lips, 1997). This distinction seems to be based on biological aspects, because of the fact that the concept of Penis envy, which is the source of Electra complex, comes from nature.

Thus, this approach assumes that masculinity and femininity are opposite and that sexual polarization is the appropriate end point of sex-role development (Trew & Kremer, 1998). However, this theory is not compatible with empirical evidences (e.g., Santrock, 1999; Trew & Kremer, 1998; Golombok & Fivush, 1994).

1.1.3. PREVIOUS STUDIES RESULTS

Sex Difference in Sex-Role perception

Comparing males and females, Konrad and Harris (2002) showed that women hold higher modern view of sex-roles than men do. Likewise, Royse and Clawson (1988)

revealed that women's sex-role attitude seem to be shifting toward liberal view. This idea is also supported by Willetts, and Nock (1994), and Katz and Ksansk (1994).

Conversely, Carter and Patternson (as cited in Witt, 1997) found that adolescent boys have an increased preference for masculine activities, whereas girls did not show the same preference for feminine activities.

Contrary to this, Mensch (1998) and Galambos, Almeida, and Petersen (1990) argued that as girls grow-up, they become more influenced by culturally set roles. Consequently, adolescent girls show higher preference for stereotypical sex-roles than adolescent boys do.

Age Difference in Sex-Role Perception

Like that of cognitive theorists, Witt (1997) pointed out that children become less rigid in their sex-role stereotyped as they grow older. Similarly, Katz and Ksansk (1994) and Meyer (1980) found positive relationship between sex-role attitudes and age. Consequently, they noted that the flexibility increases from middle childhood to adolescents. These findings show that as individuals grow older, the gap in gender difference will be lesser.

Quite opposite to the above, Mensch (1998) and Galambos, Almeida & Petersen (1990) argued that during adolescence the behavioral, attitudinal and psychological differences between boys and girls become wider. In addition, they suggested that these differences are the result of increased socialization pressure to conform to the social norms.

The Role of Mothers

Since the participation of mothers in the paid labor force is increasing from time to time, most researches focus on the role of maternal employment on sex-role development of their children. Besides, it is believed to result in modification of traditional sex-role attitudes (Daly, 2004; Golombok & Fivush, 1994). This means, when a mother gets employed, her role at home will also definitely be changed,

childbearing orientation will be modified, and the adult roles for which children are being socialized can not be the same as previous. As Meyer (1980) found, working mothers develop less traditional sex-role attitudes than homemakers.

Many studies have compared the children of employed and non-employed mothers and revealed the positive effect of maternal employment. For example, a research by Daly (2004) revealed that sons and daughters of employed mothers have higher liberal career choice (he controlled the effect of mother's education). By the same token, Meyer (1980) noted that the middle class daughters of American working women exhibited less traditional sex-role attitudes than daughters of homemakers. Similarly, Hoffman (1993) found that daughter of employed mothers believed that women are competent in the traditionally male dominant activities than daughter of the homemakers.

In addition, he found that daughters of employed mothers are more likely to cite self-reliance as a goal for themselves as compared to daughters of non-employed mothers. Accordingly, he noted working mothers provide a very positive role model for their children where both parents are employed.

The Role of Fathers

In his review of literature, Yang (2000) concludes that most scholars have come to consensus that fathering is the key aspect of children sex-role development. Likewise, comparing to mothers, fathers are generally more sensitive to sex-role developments, specially the conventional one (Yang, 2000; Parke, 1996).

Regarding the fathers' role, most researches focus on the father's involvement in household chores. For example, Baruch and Barnett (1989) found that fathers who are more involved in family work play less sex-typed role model for their children than the less involved fathers. As a result, they concluded that children of more-involved fathers exhibited less traditional attitudes in sex-role orientations. Yang (2000) on the other hand, found that masculine fathers tended to have masculine boys and feminine daughters.

The Role of Religiosity

Researchers have believed that religiosity influences the sex-role orientation of a person. They argued that high level of religious commitment leads to more stereotypical sex-roles. For example, Herzong et al. (as cited in Willetts & Nock, 1994) suggested that more traditional gender attitudes are expressed among people who are more committed to their religious belief. Similarly, Tsehai (1991) noted that the Ethiopian Orthodox Church fosters conventional sex-role attitudes.

The Role of Peers

During adolescence, boys and girls establish deeper and more intimate relationships. As a result, peer relationship exerts greater influence on adolescents' attitudes and behaviors than the relationship with parents (Galambos, Almeida & Petersen, 1990). Besides, Santrock (1999) noted that peers demand for conformity to sex-roles become especially intense during adolescence. He added that peer pressure is stronger for an adolescent boy to be the very best man and for an adolescent girl to be the best woman.

The Role of Teachers

Several scholars indicated that school-teachers expect and encourage different behaviors from boys and girls. For example, Golombok and Fivush (1994) suggested that teachers give praise to boys for their intellectual quality, giving the right answer, whereas to girls for the neatness of their work and for their obedience. Likewise, Brophy and Good (as cited in Workman & Johnson, 1994) found that boys receive significantly more behavioral criticism than did girls from their teachers. From such patterns of reinforcement and punishment, Golombok and Fivush (1994) noted that boys may learn that they are smart, but not very behaved. Girls on the other hand, learn that they are not smart but they can get reward by being good.

The Role of Television

Television informs and entertains. Thus, it has a powerful influence in determining the role of males and females. In order to understand the nature of television on the sex-role acquisition, it is important to review the messages transmitted and what children watch on television. With this regard, many researchers found evidences that suggested that television programs in every place of the world are transmitting sex-roles in an extremely traditional manner (e.g., Ingham, 1997; Witt, 2001; Meyer, 1980). This is the same in Ethiopia (Rahel, in Tsehai, 1991).

As a result, Ingham (1997) and Meyer (1980) found that longer amount of hours of television viewing would lead to develop strong traditional sex-role orientations. Similarly, Fruch and McGhee (as cited in Davidson, Yasuna & Tower, 1979) found that heavy viewers (25 or more hours per week) showed more sex-role stereotyping than lighter viewers (10 hours or less per week).

1.1.5. CURRENT SITUATION AND PROSPECTS OF SEX-ROLES

Researchers have revealed that the existing traditional sex-roles restrict individual of both sexes from expressing their potentialities. This is because the stereotypical standards put pressures up on individuals to behave in what is the already prescribed way and prevent both men and women from expressing their full potentials.

However, the future can be better. It seems that many changes have been undergoing on peoples' traditional belief about the changes of masculine and feminine roles. Nowadays, there is a great involvement of males in fields which were traditionally believed to be feminine roles. Similarly a great number of women are being involved in activities which were traditionally set for males (Marcia, et al., 1993; Parke, 1996). This is an indication that men and women are breaking the traditional sex-role standards.

This according to Gardiner, Mutter, & Kosmitzki, (1998) and Konrad and Harris (2002) is the result of the ever increasing entry of females into colleges and universities and the world of work.

1.1.6. LOCAL STUDIES

Local studies have indicated that the prevalence of traditional sex-roles are very high and resulted in pervasive psychological, social and economical problems which put females in disadvantageous position.

They pointed out that our society socialized boys and girls for different roles, aspirations, and expectations starting from the moment of birth, when the baby is welcomed. For example, Messing (1960) observed that in Amhara region when a baby girl is delivered, she is welcomed coldly with few, three to five shouts (or '*illiltas*'), but a baby boy is received warmly by shouting seven to nine times.

These gender differences come out more clearly as children grow older and become increasingly influenced by the roles that the society set for each sex. As a result, Almaz (1991) found that in Western region of Ethiopia, boys were identified as adventurers, physically strong, motivated, friendly and helpful, whereas girls were considered as shy, timid, and passive. In the same way, Azeb (1996) revealed that parents encouraged their sons to develop strong academic personality.

Likewise, Levine (1966) indicated that male adolescents in Amhara region were believed to be aggressive and individualistic. Quite the opposite, Mulat (2005) found no gap in his survey study of adolescents in Awuramba community (which is found in Amhara region), and hence he noted that this community is unique in sex-role assignments.

As a result of role differentiation, CRDA (1993) reported that although Ethiopian women constitute about half of the general population, they adhere to the bottom of the social ladder in terms of education, employment, income and status. Likewise, Hirut (as cited in Feller, 2000) argued that the lower participation of females in

education make them to participate less in economic development. In a similar fashion, Genet (1991) argued that Ethiopian women do not occupy jobs of high statuses and positions. She added that those in managerial, administrative and science positions are insignificant.

Nonetheless, Dejene (1995), Genet (1991), and Messing (1960) showed that women are primarily engaged in household chores including food preparation, fetching water, washing, taking care of children etc. According to Dejene, women have less leisure time than men. He added that men are influential in decision makings. By the same token, CRDA (1993) revealed that although wives in rural areas are more involved in agriculture production, the control over the collection of benefits rests on the hands of husbands. The same situation exists in urban area that men control even the salaries of their wives.

1.2. GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Human beings are known to treat each other differently for a number of reasons: Race, ethnicity, and sex are some that play a great role in determining these differences. Researches have shown that sex-based discriminations affect the behaviors and the life choice of both males and females within the family and the society at large (e.g., Raffaelli & Ontai, 2004; Witt, 2000; Workman & Johnson, 1994).

If we see from the economic point of view, greater number of manpower is required for production. This means, production demands a great number of work forces (both men and women). The economic situation of our country needs women to work as equal as men. Moreover, participating in working force enables women not only to enjoy their financial independence but also to have individual freedom.

However, like most societies in the world, we expect different roles which activate and direct the behavior of males and females of all ages. These stereotypical sex-roles are reflected in more rigid manner in Ethiopia. For example, Tsehai (1991) noted that in our society men are expected to be aggressive, assertive, do the

heavy work, fight the war, dominate all spatial ability jobs, provide for the family, etc.. In other words, women are supposed to be passive, care for babies, work in or near the home, do the family cooking and other home chores etc.

Similarly, Genet (1991) suggested that Ethiopian society considers women as inferior to men. As a result, she argued that women's activities are limited within the home, involving cooking, raising children and taking care of the house hold. Besides, she argued that Ethiopian women do not occupy jobs of high statuses and positions; in labor force, men workers out number women, five to one.

In addition, Tsehai (1991) suggested that in every known culture including Ethiopia, women are considered in some degree to be inferior to men. In our country, this is evidenced through the explicit devaluing proverbs of women stated by the society. For instance the saying, "ሴት በማጅት፣ ወንድ በችቡት" or '*it is proper to evaluate a female in a kitchen, whereas a male in a court*', directly tells us that females are being shaped to perform activities at home, while boys to do activities out of the home. Tsehai on the other hand, noted that these differences are seen in the social arrangement that exclude women from participating. For example, the 'GEDA' system does not include females.

These assumed differences are the reasons used to justify gender inequalities. The argument for the revival of gender equality is, of course, in believing that human being by nature is androgynous, which is to mean that men and women have the same behaviors and emotions. However, their gender behaviors are shaped by social norms which vary from culture to culture (Gardiner, Mutter & Kosmitzki, 1998).

Rejecting these social norms, the Constitution of Federal Republic of Ethiopia stresses the equality of all people regardless of sex or other status. However, this provision is not being applied in practice. For example, Hirut (as cited in Feller, 2000) observed that women obtain lesser wage for equal work. This could be assumed to be the result of the social structure that provides discriminatory

treatments, opportunities, reward, and roles for males and females. In this regard Tsehai (1991: 2) suggested:

“Sex status does not necessarily determine our sex-roles. However, the differential treatment we receive through the socialization process because of the status of our sex lead to the development of real psychological and personality differences between males and females”.

Therefore, sex-roles are learned personality and physiological traits that people learn to fit to the societal expectations from each sex. It is true that Parke (1996), and Witt (1997) argued that girls and boys in every culture throughout the world are treated differently from birth onwards. These differences emerge more clearly as children grow and become greatly influenced by the restricted roles that the society set for them. For example, in our country, usually girls are expected to stay at home, assist their mothers, and learn what their mothers are doing. Boys, on the other hand, are free to go and explore out side their homes or they may accompany their fathers. Likewise, Mensch (1998) stressed that theses differences become wider during puberty. And Mensch added that:

“During adolescence, the world expands for boys and contracts for girls. Boys enjoy new privileges reserved for men; girls endure new restrictions reserved for women. Boys gain authority, mobility, opportunity and power... Girls are systematically deprived of these aspects” (P- 2).

Hence, these stereotypical sex-roles provide barriers that interface with seeing the true nature and potential of individuals. This categorization is not only affecting the way others look at us but also the way we see our selves.

Surprisingly, studies have indicated that the existing sex-role standards restrict individuals of both sexes from expressing their full potentials. For example, Santrock (1999) noted that rigid sex-role stereotyping is not appropriate for the demands that will be made on children of either sex as adults. In addition, Bem and Spence (as cited in Foubi & Lovich, 1997) argued that individuals who develop conventional sex-role behaviors could suffer in their personal development as compared to modern people. Moreover, traditional sex-roles limit what both males

and females can do. Furthermore, Shears (2002) argued these traditional sex-roles are dangerous because they encourage risky behaviors among women and men.

Similarly, Witt (1997) noted that there are costs in retaining of sex-role stereotypes. These costs include the limiting of opportunities. Likewise, Shears added that many societies prepare girls to be good wives by socializing them to be submissive to men. According to him, stereotypical sex-roles dictate that women are inferior to men.

However, the right and well being of the child are best served when relationships between males and females in the household are based on mutual respect, equal right and shared responsibilities (Foumbi & Lovich, 1997), which is the modern view of sex-role attitudes.

Equally, as discussed earlier, developing androgynous (modern sex-role) behaviors has both psychological and economical benefits. An androgynous person is less depressed (Varughese, 1998), more adaptable (Bem, as cited in Golombok & Fivush, 1994), mentally healthier (Watson, Biderman & Sawrie, 1994) and display higher level of self-esteem (Whitty, as cited in Varughese, 1998).

In addition, it has a contribution on the economic development of a country as the modern view of sex-roles dictates that both males and females be engaged in behaviors that have traditionally been ascribed to either sex. This means, androgynous women could occupy leadership positions in the work place, be autonomous, and also be nurturant. Similarly, androgynous men may provide childcare at home and still remain achievement oriented.

As a result of its benefits, scholars have studied to reveal the factors that help develop androgynous sex-role orientation. However, most researchers stress on picking a particular factor and assess its effects, although, the aforementioned theories and most contemporary developmental psychologists believe that behaviors and attitudes are influenced by the combined effect of various factors.

Even so, the sex-role orientation of adolescents has not been widely studied. Adolescence, however, may be particularly important period to investigate because of the enhanced abstract cognitive capacity (Piaget, as cited in Santrock, 1999) and identity formation (Marcia et al. 1993) that all influence sex-role development (Katz & Ksansnak, 1994).

Therefore, this thesis is not only interested to show the existence of sex-role differences, but also to point out the responsible factors for these differences on sex-role orientations. With this in mind, the study has addressed the following research questions.

1. Which of the socialization agents (father, mother, peers, school teachers, siblings, aunts, uncles, grandfathers, and grandmothers) are factors for sex-role development of adolescents?
2. Which socialization agents are more influential for the development of sex-role orientation of adolescents?
3. What is the interaction effect of different attributes of mothers on children sex-role development?
4. What is the interaction effect of fathers' different attributes on children sex-role development?
5. Are parents the stronger socialization agents of adolescents' sex-role development than other factors? If so:
 - 5.1. Which attributes of fathers (involvement in home chores, educational level, degree of religious faith, traditionality of fathers' job, educational level, or sex-role orientations) are more influential?
 - 5.2. Which attributes of mothers (task share with husband, employment status educational level, degree of religious faith, traditionality of job, educational level, or sex-role orientations) are more influential?
6. Which attributes of socialization agents (father, mother, media, peers, school teachers, siblings, aunt, uncles, grandfathers, and grandmothers) are

responsible for the development of non traditional (Androgynous) sex-role orientation?

7. Which attribute of fathers (involvement in home chores, educational level, degree of religious faith, traditionality of job, or sex-role orientations) is responsible for the development of egalitarian sex-role orientation of adolescents?
8. Which attribute of mothers (task share with husband, employment status, educational level, degree of religious faith, traditionality of job, or sex-role orientations) is responsible for the development of egalitarian sex-role orientation of adolescents?
9. Do male and female adolescents differ in their egalitarianism with regard to sex-role orientation? If so, who is more egalitarian?

1.3. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

As discussed earlier, gender-role stereotypes demonstrate behaviors and appearances to which each sex is expected to conform. Moreover, the prevalence of stereotypical sex-roles is not difficult to understand in Ethiopia. It is also clear that traditional sex-roles lead both boys and girls to make constant strain so as to meet those stereotypical standards. Egalitarian sex-role attitudes, on the other hand, give freedom for both men and women.

Therefore, the result of this thesis revealed out powerful socialization agents that contribute to the development of liberal sex-role orientation of adolescents, as adolescents are the bases to develop egalitarian society, and hence pointed out the area that concerned agents need to work so as to revive gender equality, which in turn pave way for sustainable development.

1.4. DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The major interest of this study was to investigate what factors influence the sex-role development of adolescents. It is obvious that multiple factors influence the

development of one's behavior. However, it would be difficult to include all factors. Thus, the study is limited to include some cognitive as well as social factors, although the majority of them are socialization factors.

Moreover, the study was delimited to grade nine and ten students in Addis Ababa, assuming that these grade levels encompass adolescent students.

1.5. LIMITATIONS

The limitations of this study were:

1. As it was difficult to find all parents, their respective questionnaires were distributed via students. So, parents received the guide on how to fill the questionnaire from their children. As a result, parents might not get proper orientation as to how to answer the questionnaire. That is why some items were missing when the returned questionnaires were tallied.
2. The second limitation was related to the use of localized version of the BSRI. It could be assumed that employment of the BSRI with Ethiopian participants could have certain limitations, as the BSRI measures only common aspects of sex-role identity that was based on American norms. So, it excludes the culturally specific aspect of sex-role identity in Ethiopian society; such as being neat, polite, calm, gossipy etc. But, if they were included, they would have been very important for the outcome of the study.

1.6. OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF IMPORTANT TERMS

Adolescent: Although the concept of adolescence is difficult to define across different socio-cultural settings, for the purpose of this study, an adolescent refers to high school students between the age of 12 and 20 years.

Sex is usually defined as biological aspects of maleness and femaleness.

Sex-role is denoted as a set of expectations that are prescribed how females and males should feel, think, act and behave (Santrock, 1999)

Sex-role orientation is the extent to which one perceives him/herself as masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated according to the average score of BSRI.

Masculine refers to a person who scores the group median or above on masculine scores of BSRI but lower scores on feminine scales.

Feminine refers to an individual who obtain the group median or higher on feminine traits but lower scores on masculine scales.

Androgynous is a person who possesses high on both feminine and masculinity scores.

Undifferentiated person is an individual whose achieve lower than the median scores on both masculine and feminine scores.

Socio-economic status: Studies have utilized various indicators to determine one's socio economic positions. Thus, for the purpose of this study, it is defined as a comparative living status of a family as compared to the local community as perceived by parents.

Family-type is defined as whether a target participant was living with his/her both parents for the first five years of his life.

2. METHODOLOGY

In this section of the study, profile of participants, instruments used, procedure followed, and the method used to analyze the data are presented.

2.1. PARTICIPANTS

The study involved a total of 600 participants, which included 200 grade 9 and 10 students of three high schools and their parents (200 fathers and 200 mothers) in Addis Ababa.

Out of 27 government high schools, three of them were selected using simple random sampling technique (lottery method). Using the same method 6 sections (3 from each grade level) were identified from each selected school.

Stratified random sampling technique was employed to determine the proportion of participants to be selected from each school and section. The total number of students in each selected high schools were divided into grade & sex strata (grade 9 and 10, and female and male). Finally, systematic random sampling was used to select the desired number of sample from each section. Equal numbers of male and female adolescents were selected from the target sample schools. Thereafter, parents of the selected adolescents were included in the study.

2.2. INSTRUMENT

Three booklets of questionnaires (1 for student, 1 for mother and 1 for father) were used to collect relevant data. Part of the questionnaires, Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) developed by Dr. Sandra Bem and then localized, using the try out, by the student researcher, was used to classify participants according to their sex-role orientations. The original BSRI consists of 60 items. Of which 30 were selected using the try out.

For the purpose of this study, the participants were asked to rate themselves using five-point scale ranging from 1 (never applies to me) to 5 (extremely applies to me). The original seven-point scale was changed because the student researcher believed that a seven-point scale may be difficult for the participants.

In addition to the questionnaires, focus group discussion was held. The discussion with few target participants was used to collect data that would help to strength some data collected through the questionnaires.

2.2.1. MEASURES

Dependent variable

For the purpose of this study the dependent valuable, sex-role orientation is defined as to the degree to which an individual views of self as masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated in the endorsement of BSRI. This definition is a reformation of Lamke's (1982) views of sex-role orientation as a perception of self as masculine or feminine.

The scale consists of 30 items, of which 15 items are assumed to be more desirable for a male to possess than a female (Masculinity scale items); and the rest 15 are judged to be more appropriate for a woman to possess than a man (Femininity scale items).

A participant who scored above average group median on masculinity scores and below the median on femininity scores is termed as '*Masculine*' in sex- role orientation; respondents with a reverses pattern – high on femininity but low on masculinity scores are said to be '*Feminine*'.

Androgynous person is one who scored higher than the medians on both masculinity & femininity traits; whereas, those who scored lower on both masculinity and femininity traits are identified as *undifferentiated*.

Independent variables

Cognitive and socialization factors were obtained from the collected data, which comprise three booklets questionnaires, although the majority of the measures fell within the socialization categories.

1. Cognitive factors

Cognitive measures used were (I) chronological age (considered here as an index of cognitive development) and (II) self reported academic ability. It is believed that academic ability is correlated with cognitive ability. Since these students learned their 7th and 8th grades in different schools, it was not possible to obtain school data regarding their' previous grades scores. As a result, the student researcher assessed it by the participant's self report of his/her average grade points of three consecutive grade levels. To substantiate their report, the student researcher made few students to bring their grade report sheets and then compared that with their reports. Then, the mean of these average grade points were computed and categorized in ordinal scales: 5 = above 90%; 4 = 89% - 80%; 3 = 79% - 70% 2 = 69% - 60%; 1 = 59% - 50% and 0 = below 50%.

2. Socialization Factors

Information pertaining to socialization factors, (parents, peers, school teacher and media) was obtained from the target participants as well as from their parents.

The target group has completed his/her perceptions about:

(III) *Type of family* (single vs. two). It was measured whether the participant was living with his/her parent during his/her first five years. This was categorized as single-parent (0), and intact family (1).

(IV) *Peer influence*. Peer influence was measured according to the perception of the target participants. Each participant was asked to categorize the over all activities

and behaviors of his /her best friend(s) as extremely traditional (0), traditional (1), some what traditional (2), liberal (3), extremely liberal (4).

(V) *Television Influence*. The target participants were asked via questionnaire to estimate the number of hours that he/she is watching during the course of an average week. This, then, is grouped into number of hours of television watching, 0 to 7 (0), 8 to 14 (1), 15 to 21 (2), 22 or more (3). These were treated as ordinal scales.

(VI) *Teachers' influence*. It was measured on the extent to which he/she perceives what behavior most of his/her teachers encourage him to develop. It is then, categorized as traditional (0) and liberal (1); and

(VII) *Other extended family member's influence*. The participants were first asked to identify among their families who made an influence on their personality and then, to rate the traditionality of that person. This was categorized as follows: extremely traditional (0), traditional (1), some what traditional (2), liberal (3), extremely liberal (4).

Instead of trying to collect data as perceived by others, it was assumed to be better if the data were collected from the possessors themselves. Thus, factors related to family background were obtained from parents themselves.

Father's attributes were measured from various points of views:

(VIII) *Father's Involvement*. It was measured according to the number of activities a father would perform from the list of five traditional feminine chores (*i.e.*, washing dish, baking 'Injera', feeding children, tidying house, and preparing 'Wot'). Then the number of chores selected by a father was scored in ordinal manner.

(IX) *Father's educational level*. This was separated into illiterate (0), Read and write (1), elementary (2), Secondary (3), 12 + Certificate or College Diploma (4), and Degree and above (5) levels, as ordinal scales.

(X) *Father's religious commitment*. It was his perception on his level of commitment to religious rules. It was scored categorically as committed (0), somewhat committed (1), and not at all committed (2).

(XI) *Traditionality of father's job*. The job of the father was categorized as traditional (0) and liberal (1), and

(XII) *Father's Sex-Role Orientations*. Localized BSRI was used to categorize the father into sex-typed, androgyny, and undifferentiated.

Mother's attributes were collected from mothers themselves:

(XIII) *Mother's Involvement*. It was measured according to the number of activities a mother would perform from the list of five traditional masculine chores. (*i.e.*, *fencing, slaughtering sheep, cutting bread into pieces, repairing cupboard, bed etc., and ironing*). Then, the number of chores selected by a mother was scored in ordinal manner.

(XIV) *Maternal Employment Status*. It was defined as the number of hours worked per week out side home. Thus, we would have three statuses: Full-time employed (2) – working continually at least 30 hours per week for the past three years; Part-time employed (1) – working continually between 5 and 29 hours per week for the past three years; and Non-employed (0) – working fewer than 5 hours per week. These were entered as ordinal scales (Brotherson, Yamamoto, & Acock, 2003).

(XV) *Mother's Educational Level*. This was separated into illiterate (0), Read and write (1), elementary (2), Secondary (3), 12 + Certificate or College Diploma (4), and Degree and above (5) levels; as ordinal scores.

(XVI) *Mother's religious commitment*. It was her perception on her level of commitment to religious rules. It was, then categorized as committed (0), somewhat committed (1), and not at all committed (2).

(XVII) *Traditionality of mother's job*. The job of the mother was scored categorically as traditional (0), and liberal (1)

(XVIII) *Socio-economic status*: This was taken from mothers' perception as compared to the living status of the local community. They were asked to rate their family economic status in comparison with the local community as better than others (2), same as others (1), worse than others (0). These were treated as ordinal scales

(XX) *Mother's Sex-Role Orientations*. Localized BSRI was used to categorize the mother into sex-typed, androgynous, and undifferentiated.

2.3. DATA COLLECTING PROCEDURES

The items were translated in to Amharic in order to make them easily understandable by secondary school students as well as their parents. Before administering the questionnaire, the researcher invited three scholars so as to translate and evaluate the translation and for the presence of any ambiguity.

The Amharic version of the questionnaires including BSRI which consists of 30 items (15 in each subscale: feminine and masculine) were administered to 600 family members (200 adolescents, 200 fathers & 200 mothers) (see appendix B). After providing appropriate orientation and explaining that the information concerning participants was seriously important and would be kept confidentially, the three booklets questionnaires were distributed to the students and their parents - by the students. Additionally, students were oriented that if their parents were not able to read and write, they could assist them in reading their respective questionnaires and writing their responses. Each participant was asked to indicate, on a five-point scale (1= never applies to me, to 5 perfectly applies to me) the degree to which each items of the localized BSRI reflects his/her characteristics.

Try Out

Since this adopted instrument to assess sex-role orientation has been standardized by Dr. Sandra Bem based on American norms, it may include traits that are not culturally specific aspects of sex-role attitudes in Ethiopia. Thus, the student researcher believes that it is mandatory to try out the items here in our local context.

First, the 60 items of Bem Sex -Role Inventory (BSRI) were given to 20 Social Psychology post graduate students to rate as to the typicality of each BSRI's items in Ethiopian context. They were asked to rate whether or not each item was a desirable characteristic of males, females, both or neither with respect to our society.

The responses of the experts' rate were tallied and the frequency of each item, then were compared. The result revalidated most of the masculine and feminine descriptive words and phrases, but seven of Bem's original masculine and feminine adjectives: *strong personality, analytical, understanding, eager to soothe hurt feelings, warm, gentle, and childlike* were found to be unrelated. According to the result, to be analytical, understanding, eager to soothe hurt feelings, warm and gentle were rated as desirable characteristics for both males and females. Whereas, being childlike and having strong personality were desirable for neither.

As a result, 18 masculine and 15 feminine items of the original BSRI items were identified as they possessed the universal aspects of gender-related personality traits of our society.

Thereafter, the reliability of these 18 masculine and 15 feminine items was checked separately. The neutral items from the BSRI were not included because the study was designed to assess perceived sex-roles.

Forty post graduate Developmental Psychology students were involved for this part of the try out. Twenty of them were instructed to rate a given personality traits (masculine attributes) as to whether they are more appropriate for males in Ethiopian context. The rest half were asked to rate whether the feminine traits are more appropriate for female in our local context. Each item of the inventory is followed by 5 scales [from 1 (not at all typical) to 5 (extremely typical)]. Chronbach's Alpha was employed to check the reliability.

The reliability of both masculine and feminine scores was good. Chronbach's Alpha was .68 and .74 respectively.

Finally, in order to increase the reliability and to administer equal number of masculine and feminine items, the researcher reduced the masculine characteristics from 18 to 15. After the three masculine items have been reduced, the Chronbach's Alpha for masculine items was increased to .69. The study, therefore, used only 30 items of BSRI.

2.4. METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected were coded, analyzed, and interpreted, manually and computer assisted.

The median-split method was employed to classify adolescents into four sex-role orientation categories: masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated (Bem as cited in Kottke, 1988; Faulkender, 1987). As Faulkender (1987) argued, median-split is the most relevant method to a researcher conducted with grouping participants into sex-role categories.

Next, correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) was computed for the adolescents' sex-role orientation in terms of each independent variable. And then, multiple regression analyses were performed to examine the effect of the independent variables on adolescents' sex-role orientations both in group and separately for boys and girls. Moreover, multiple regression coefficient and stepwise regression analysis were employed to identify the most influential variables for the sex-role development of adolescents. Multiple regression analyses again were calculated to see the combined effect of the selected independent variables on adolescents' sex-role orientations.

3. RESULT

This part deals with the presentation and analysis of data. It consists of two sections. In the first section the characteristics of respondents in terms of age, sex, education, sex-sole orientation, maternal employment status, family-type and parents' religion are presented. Analyses of the major variables of interest are dealt within the second section.

3.1. CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

A total of 200 questionnaires were prepared and administered. Each questionnaire contained three booklets, one for each family member (child, mother and father). Of the 200 questionnaires, 181 (90.5%) were filled out and returned. From this, three were excluded for they were completed wrongly.

The information collected from 178 families, then, is presented in tables and a chart in the following manner.

Table 1. Distribution of Students According to Their Sex

Sex	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	91	51.1	51.1	51.1
Male	87	48.9	48.9	100.0
Total	178	100.0	100.0	

Almost equal numbers of male and female adolescents were included in the study. Table 1 presents the sex distribution of the target participants. The total number of students participated were 178, out of which 91(51.1%) were females, and 87 (48.9%) were male adolescents.

Table 2. Distribution of Students by Age

Sex	Mean Age	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Female	16.15	1.529	13	20
Male	16.33	1.248	13	19
Total	16.24	1.391	13	20

Regarding the age of the adolescents, table 2 shows that males ranged from 13 to 19 years old with mean of 16.33 and std. deviation of 1.248. The ages of female students were 13 to 20 years old. The mean and std. deviation of their age were 16.15 and 1.529 respectively. In sum, students ranged from 13 to 20 years old with mean value of 16.24 and std. deviation of 1.391 were participated.

Table 3. Distribution of Students by Their Grade Level

Sex	Grades	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	9	45	49.5	49.5	49.5
	10	46	50.5	50.5	100.0
Male	9	46	52.9	52.9	52.9
	10	41	47.1	47.14	100.0
Total	9	91	51.1	51.1	51.1
	10	87	48.9	48.9	100.0
	Total	178	100.0	100.0	

Of 91 female students, 45 (49.5%) were in grade nine, while 46 (50.5%) of them were in grade ten. On other hand, 46 (52.9%) male students were in grade nine whereas 41 (47.1%) of them were in grade ten. Totally, there were 91 (51.1%) grade nine and 87 (48.9%) grade ten students who responded to the questionnaires (see table 3).

The data were first examined to assess the distribution of the four sex-role orientations among the students (see table 4). The median of masculinity and femininity scores were 3.53 and 3.73 respectively. Using the median-split

method, the participants were classified into four sex-role groups. As expected males fell into the Bem's four groups whereas females did not show the sex-reversed sex-role orientation.

Table 4. Distribution of Students According to Their Sex-Role Orientations

Sex	Sex-Role Orientation	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	Androgynous	26	29.9	29.9	29.9
	Feminine	4	4.6	4.6	34.5
	Masculine	44	50.6	50.6	85.1
	Undifferentiated	13	14.9	14.9	100.0
	Total	87	100.0	100.0	
Female	Androgynous	25	27.5	27.5	27.5
	Feminine	50	54.9	54.9	82.4
	Masculine	0	0.0	0.0	82.4
	Undifferentiated	16	17.6	17.6	100.0
	Total	91	100.0	100.0	
Total	Androgynous	51	28.7	28.7	28.7
	Sex-typed	98	55.0	55.0	83.7
	Undifferentiated	29	16.3	16.3	100.0
	Total	178	100.0	100.0	

As table 4 shows the largest percentage of male students (50.6% or 44) was masculine. The next group about 26 (29.9%) were classified as androgynous. Undifferentiated students were 13 (14.9%). As expected, only very few male students (4 or 4.6%) were categorized as feminine.

Next, similar classification was made to female students. More than half (50 or 54.9%) of them were identified as feminine, while 25 (27.5%) as androgynous and 16 (17.6%) as undifferentiated. But, there were no masculine female students.

The third part of table 4 presents the categorization of all target participants in their sex-role orientations. Here, both feminine and masculine groups were classified in one as sex-typed category. Hence, this category is used for analysis and discussion purpose. As a result, the overriding number (98 or 55%) was grouped under sex-typed sex-role orientation. Lower percentages were classified as androgynous (51 or 23.7%) and undifferentiated (29 or 16.3%).

Table 5. Distribution of Students According to the Family-Type and Sex-Role Orientations

Sex-Role Orientation	Family-type					Total
	Intact Family	Single parent				
		Father only	Mother only	Foster parents which are not relatives	Relatives	
Androgynous	46	0	2	0	3	51
Set-typed	77	3	11	1	6	98
Undifferentiated	5	0	17	0	7	29
Total	128	3	30	1	16	178

One hundred twenty eight (71.9%) of the students were living with their both biological parents. Of which 46 (35.9%) were androgynous; this is 90% of the total androgynous students (51). Sex-typed adolescents who were living within intact families were 77 (60.1%) which is 78.6% of the total sex-typed students (98). Contrary to the above which is a very surprise result is that only 5 (17.2%) of undifferentiated students were from intact families. But, most of the undifferentiated (82.5%) were from single parent households. This percentage is big that it might bring differences on the result of the study. Therefore, the student researcher decided to exclude the undifferentiated group from the analysis part.

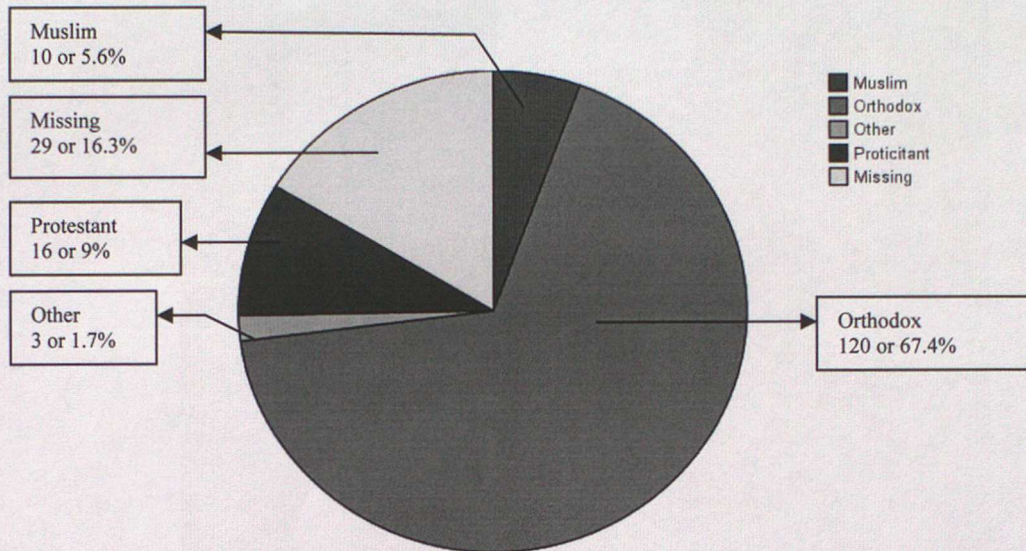
Table 6. Distribution of Parents by Age

Age	Frequency	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Father's Age	110	48.13	7.615	35	72
Mother's Age	144	41.97	6.131	32	63

During presenting family-type of adolescents, we have pointed out that 128 out of 178 students were living with intact families. These will definitely reduce the number of mothers and fathers who participated. Moreover, some questions of the booklets for mothers and for fathers were returned without being completed. As result, 144 mothers with age ranged from 32 to 63 and mean of 41.97 (Std. Deviation = 6.131) participated. The number of fathers who filled out their respective questionnaire was lesser. Only 110 fathers

participated. Their age ranged from 35 to 72 years old, with mean of 48.13 (Std. Deviation = 7.615).

Figure 1. Distribution of Families by Religion



Since both parents of all participants were found to be the followers of identical religion, it is presented as a family religion. As the pie chart presents, the number of Orthodox Christians was predominantly the biggest, constituting more than 120 (67.4%) families of the total respondent families. A share more than 9% (16) constituted the Protestant followers, while around 5.6% (10) belongs to Muslim religious groups, the remaining 3 (1.7%) were identified as 'others' such as Catholic and Seven-Day Adventist religion followers. But, the rest 29 (16.3%) were identified as missing.

Table 7. Distribution of Mothers by Their Employment Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not employed	94	52.8	65.3	65.3
	Part time Employee	4	2.2	2.8	68.1
	Full time Employee	46	25.8	31.9	100.0
	Total	144	80.9	100.0	
Missing	System	34	19.1		
Total		178	100.0		

Of 144 mothers (see table 7), only 46 (31.9%) were found to be full-time employed. But the largest percentage (65.3% or 94) mothers were homemakers. Part-time employed mothers were very few 4 (2.8%).

Table 8. Distribution of Mothers by Sex-Role Orientations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Undifferentiated	17	9.6	11.9	11.9
	Sex-typed	82	46.1	57.3	69.2
	Androgyny	44	24.7	30.8	100.0
	Total	143	80.3	100.0	
Missing	System	35	19.7		
Total		178	100.0		

Sex-typed mothers took the largest share (57% or 82), while about one third (30.8% or 44) were androgynous. Undifferentiated mothers were few in number (17 or 11.9%).

Table 9. Distribution of Mothers by Their Current Educational Levels

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Illiterate	7	3.9	4.9	4.9
	Read and Write	34	19.1	23.6	28.5
	Grade 1 to 6	33	18.5	22.9	51.4
	Grade 7 to 12	47	26.4	32.6	84.0
	12 + Certificate or College Diploma	17	9.6	11.8	95.8
	Degree or above	6	3.4	4.2	100.0
	Total	144	80.9	100.0	
Missing	System	34	19.1		
Total		178	100.0		

Regarding mothers' education (see table 9), most of them (47 or 32.6%) were between grades 7 to 12. Thirty four (23.6%) were able to read and write. Almost equal in number (33 or 22.9%) which occupy the third level were in grades 1 to 6. Seventeen mothers (11.8%) completed 12+ certificate or

3.2. ANALYSIS OF VARIABLES RELATED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF ADOLESCENTS' SEX-ROLE ORIENTATIONS.

In this study both categories: cognitive and socialization variables were attempted, although the majority of measures fell within the socialization category.

To make the examination of the study questions easy, the four types of sex-role orientations have been rearranged into three groups: Androgynous, Sex-typed and undifferentiated. Masculine and feminine sex-role orientations were measured as sex-typed.

Besides, as noted earlier, family-type would be expected to affect the sex-role development of children. As a result, about 83% of the undifferentiated students came from single parent households. Most of them were brought up in the absence of their fathers (see table 5). This was evidenced by many researchers that children from single-parent households would not develop proper sex-role orientations (e.g., Varughese, 1998; Witt, 1997).

Therefore, the student researcher decided to exclude the undifferentiated adolescents since they may distort the result of the study.

The first concern of the analysis was to test the existence of linear relationship between the adolescents' sex-role orientations and each independent variable: Age of target participants(I), grade level(II), academic ability(III), year when separated from parent(s)(IV), TV viewing(V), traditionality of peers(VI), traditionality of influential family member(VII), teachers influence(VIII), socio economic status(IX), mothers' education(X), maternal involvement on traditional masculine home chores(XI), mothers' sex-role orientation(XII), mothers' age(XIII), maternal employment status(XIV), traditionality of mothers' job(XV), mothers' religious

commitment(XVI), fathers' age(XVII), fathers religious commitment(XVIII), fathers' education level(XIX), traditionality of fathers job(XX), paternal involvement on traditional feminine home chores(XXI) and fathers' sex-role orientation.

The scatter plots were employed both in-group and separately for male and female adolescents. The result showed that six independent variables (traditionality of peers, mothers' education, maternal involvement, fathers' age, fathers' religious commitment, and traditionality of fathers' job) failed to have linear relationship with the sex-role development of adolescents. Hence, these variables were excluded from the analysis of the study.

Computation of Pearson product-moment correlations between adolescents' sex-role orientation and each of the selected predictors (Age, Grade, Academic ability, Year when Separated From Parent(s) (YrSFP), Television viewing (TV viewing), Traditionality of Influential Family Member (TrIFM), Teachers' Influence, Socio Economic Status (SES), Mothers' Sex-Role Orientation (Mothers' SRO), Mothers' Age, Maternal Employment Status (MES), Traditionality of Mothers' Job (TrMJ), Mothers' Religious Commitment (MRC), Fathers' Education (Fathers' Educ.), Paternal Involvement on traditional feminine chores (Paternal Inv't), and Fathers Sex-Role Orientation (Fathers' SRO) are presented in table 12.

The result showed that girls' SRO was significantly correlated with Academic Ability ($r = .243, p < 0.05$), YrSFP ($r = .360, p < 0.01$), TV viewing ($r = -.659, p < 0.01$), MES ($r = .339, p < 0.01$), Fathers' Educ. ($r = .285, p < 0.05$), Paternal Inv't ($r = .327, p < 0.05$), and Fathers' SRO ($r = .538, p < 0.01$). Whereas, Age ($r = -.013$), Grade ($r = .051$), TrIFM ($r = .073$), Teachers' Influence ($r = .121$), SES ($r = -.055$), Mothers' SRO ($r = .222$), Mothers' Age ($r = -.129$), and TrMJ ($r = .204$), did not have statistically significant correlation with female adolescents' SRO.

Table 12. Bivariate Correlation (Pearson's r) of Predictors and Adolescents' Sex-Role Orientations

Independent variables	Group		
	Boys' SRO ^b	Girls' SRO	SRO
Age	.258(*)	-.013	.115
Grade Level	.050	-.051	.004
Academic Ability	.314(**)	.243(*)	.293(**)
YrSFP	.332	.360(*)	.350(*)
TV Viewing	-.273(*)	-.659(**)	-.473(**)
TrIFM	.101	.073	.099
Teacher's influence	-.202	.121	.040
SES	.100	-.055	.028
Mothers' SRO	.480(**)	.222	.326(**)
Mother's Age	-.099	-.129	-.110
MES	.046	.336(**)	.203(*)
TrMJ	.192	.204	.194
MRC	.224	.121	.180
Father's Educ.	.655(**)	.285(*)	.483(**)
Paternal Inv't	.651(**)	.327(*)	.536(**)
Fathers' SRO	.747(**)	.538(**)	.618(**)

* $P < 0.05$ (2-tailed).

** $P < 0.01$ (2-tailed).

b = SRO = Sex-Role Orientation

In the case of boys, the following factors showed statistically significant relationship with the sex-role development of male adolescents: Age ($r = .258$, $p < 0.05$), Academic ability ($r = .314$, $p < 0.01$), TV viewing, ($r = -.273$, $p < 0.05$), Mothers' SRO ($r = .480$, $p < 0.01$), Fathers' Educ., ($r = .655$, $p < 0.01$), Paternal Inv't ($r = .651$, $p < 0.01$), and Fathers' SRO ($r = .747$, $p < 0.01$). However, grade ($r = .050$), YrSFP ($r = .232$), TrIFM ($r = .101$), teachers' influence ($r = -.202$), MES ($r = .046$), TrMJ ($r = .192$), and MRC ($r = .224$), failed to have significant correlation to boys' SRO.

Finally, Pearson's r was computed to see the relation of each independent variable to adolescents' SRO in-group. The group result indicated that Academic ability ($r = .293$, $p < 0.01$), TV viewing ($r = -.473$, $p < 0.01$), Mothers' SRO ($r = .326 < 0.01$), Fathers' SRO ($r = .618$, $p < 0.01$), Fathers' Educ. ($r = .483 < 0.01$), Paternal Inv't ($r = .536 < 0.01$), YrSFP ($r = .350$, $p < 0.05$), and MES ($r = .203$, $p < 0.05$), were

significantly related to adolescents' SRO. These correlations remained significant when the analysis was controlled for SES. But, the correlation coefficient between SRO of adolescents and Age ($r = .115$), Grade ($r = .004$), TrIFM ($r = .099$), Teachers' influence ($r = .040$), TrMJ ($r = .194$), and MRC ($r = .180$) were not statistically significant.

Analysis of Combined Effects of All Major Factors

Multiple regression analysis were, then, employed to examine the effect of cognitive factors (i.e., Age and Academic ability) and socialization agents (i.e., TV viewing, Mothers' SRO, MES, MRC, Fathers' Educ., Paternal Inv't and fathers' SRO) on the adolescents' SRO. Using the enter method of regression analysis as shown in table 13, these predictors explained 78.2% of the variances in adolescents' SRO. The ANOVA table 14 tested that this prediction is not due to chance ($F(9, 91) = 36.177, p < 0.001$).

Table 13. Regression Analysis (b)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.884(a)	.782	.760	.242

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, MRC, Age, Mothers' SRO, Academic Ability, Father's Educ., MES, TV viewing, and Paternal Inv't.

b = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

Table 14. ANOVA (b)

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	19.036	9	2.115	36.177	.000(a)
Residual	5.320	91	.058		
Total	24.356	100			

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, MRC, Age, Mothers' SRO, Academic Ability, Father's Educ., MES, TV viewing, and Paternal Inv't.

b = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

To identify the most predictors, multiple regression coefficient was applied. As it can be seen in table 15, more significantly adolescents' SRO is associated with TV viewing (Beta = $-.587$), Fathers SRO (Beta = $.260$) and Paternal Inv't (Beta = $.111$).

Table 15. Regression Coefficients (a)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.175	.379		3.102	.003
Age	.027	.020	.075	1.377	.172
Academic Ability	.021	.028	.040	.758	.451
TV viewing	-.337	.036	-.587	-9.282	.000
Mothers' SRO	-.017	.045	-.020	-.387	.699
MES	.003	.029	.006	.108	.914
MRC	-.065	.048	-.069	-1.356	.178
Father's Educ.	.030	.021	.081	1.425	.158
Paternal Involvement	.048	.028	.111	1.707	.091
Fathers' SRO	.225	.057	.260	3.942	.000

a = Dependent Variable: SRO

In order to assess their relative contribution of the predictors to R^2 , Stepwise Regression Analysis was used (see table 16).

Table 16. Regression Analysis - Stepwise method (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter $\leq .05$, Probability-of-F-to-remove $\geq .10$). (d)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.821(a)	.675***	.671	.283
2	.868 (b)	.753***	.748	.248
3	.876 (c)	.768*	.761	.241

***P < .001, * P < .05

a = Predictors: (Constant), TV viewing

b = Predictors: (Constant), TV viewing, FSRO

c = predictors: (Constant), TV viewing, FSRO, Paternal Inv't

d = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

The result of the stepwise regression analysis showed that three factors (TV viewing, Fathers' SRO and Paternal Inv't) are significant out of the nine predictors. They explained 76.8% of the variances in adolescents' SRO (which is less by only

1.4% from the total prediction). The most significant predictor is TV viewing (67.5%). Fathers' SRO, which is the second most significant predictor, added .078 to R^2 . (i.e., it predicted an additional 7.8% of the variances in the adolescents' SRO). Moreover, Paternal Inv't contributed a small (1.5%), but, still statistically significant level.

Multiple regression analyses were employed separately again to check if there are differences in predicting boys' and girls' SRO. The assessment began with analysis of boys' SRO.

Table 17. Regression Analysis (b)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.944(a)	.891	.867	.180

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, MRC, MES, Age, Academic Ability, Father's Educ., Mothers' SRO, TV viewing, and Paternal Inv't

b = Dependent Variable: Boys' SRO

Table 18. ANOVA (b)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	10.697	9	1.189	36.493	.000(a)
Residual	1.303	40	.033		
Total	12.000	49			

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, MRC, MES, Age, Academic Ability, Father's Educ., Mothers' SRO, TV viewing, and Paternal Inv't

b = Dependent Variable: Boys' SRO

In the case of boys' SRO, the predictors explained 89.1% of the variances (see, Table 17). The ANOVA table 18 shows that this explanation is statistically significant ($F(9, 40) = 36.493, p < 0.001$).

To see the most influential factors and their contribution to the prediction, the variables were entered in stepwise regression analysis system. The result is presented in table 19.

Table 19. Regression Analysis - Stepwise method (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter \leq .05, Probability-of-F-to-remove \geq .10). (e)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.829(a)	.688***	.681	.279
.897(b)	.805***	.796	.223
.920(c)	.847**	.837	.200
.937(d)	.878**	.867	.180

***P < .001, ** P = .01

a = Predictors: (Constant), TV viewing

b = Predictors: (Constant), TV viewing, Fathers 'SRO

c = Predictors: (Constant), TV viewing, Fathers 'SRO, Paternal Inv't

d = Predictors: (Constant), TV viewing, Fathers 'SRO, Paternal Inv't, Father's Educ.

e = Dependent Variable: Boys' SRO

Four predictors out of nine were found to be significant predictors (TV viewing, Fathers' SRO, Paternal Inv't and Fathers Educ.). Similar to the above, the strongest predictor is TV viewing, which could explain 68.8% of the variances. The second predictor, Fathers' SRO, explained an additional 11.7% when the effect of TV viewing has been controlled. The remaining two variables contributed small (4.2% & 3.1%) but still statistically significant portion.

Table 20. Regression Analysis

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.888(a)	.789	.742	.252

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, MRC, Age, Mothers' SRO, Academic Ability, Father's Educ., MES, TV viewing, and Paternal Inv't.

b = Dependent Variable: Girls' SRO

The result shows (see table 20) large figure of R^2 (.789), meaning this variables predicted 78.9% of the variances in girls' SRO. The F test in table 21 shows that the prediction is significant ($F(9, 41) = 16.987, p < 0.001$).

Table 21. ANOVA (b)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	9.741	9	1.082	16.987	.000(a)
Residual	2.612	41	.064		
Total	12.353	50			

a = Predictors: Fathers' SRO, MRC, Age, Mothers' SRO, Academic Ability, Father's Educ., MES, TV viewing, and Paternal Inv't.

b = Dependent Variable: Girl's SRO

Table 22. Regression Analysis - Stepwise method (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter \leq .05, Probability-of-F-to-remove \geq .10). (d)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.818(a)	.669***	.662	.289
2	.861(b)	.742***	.731	.258
3	.875(c)	.765*	.750	.248

***P < .001, * P < .05

a = Predictors: (Constant), TV viewing

b = Predictors: (Constant), TV viewing, Fathers' SRO

c = predictors: (Constant), TV viewing, Fathers' SRO, Mothers' SRO

d = Dependent Variable: Girls' SRO

The most influential predictors and their weight to the prediction were evaluated using the stepwise method of regression analysis. Table 22 shows that three out of nine possible measures significantly predicted SRO of female adolescents, yielding a multiple R of .875. Similar to that of the group analysis made before, TV viewing is the most significant predictor. After the TV viewing effects have been taken out, the next strong predictor is fathers' SRO. This variable predicted an additional 7.3% of the changes in daughters' SRO. Mothers' SRO is the least significant predictor, which contributed an additional of 2.3% to the prediction.

Separate Analysis of Parental Attributes

To assess the separate effects of fathers' and mothers' attributes, an enter method of regression analysis was used.

Table 23. Regression Analysis (b)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.309(a)	.096	.065	.470

a = Predictors: (Constant), MRC, Mother's Age, Mothers' SRO, TrMJ, and MES

b = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

Table 24. ANOVA (b)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	2.758	5	.689	3.125	.018(a)
Residual	26.039	118	.221		
Total	28.797	123			

a = Predictors: (Constant), MRC, Mother's Age, Mothers' SRO, TrMJ, and MES

b = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

The regression analysis and the ANOVA test of mothers' attribute (Mothers' Age, MES, MRC, TrMJ, and Mothers' SRO), are presented in tables 23 and 24 respectively. R^2 shows that they predicted only 9.6% of the variances in adolescents' SRO, but it is statistically significant ($F(5,118) = 3.125, p < 0.05$).

Table 25. Regression Coefficients (a)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.014	.321		3.162	.002
Mothers' SRO	.163	.071	.204	2.293	.024
Mother's Age	.002	.007	.020	.219	.827
TrMJ	.036	.015	.085	.721	.200
MES	.070	.047	.136	1.501	.136
MRC	.133	.081	.144	1.639	.104

a = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

Multiple regression coefficient used to evaluate the most influential attributes revealed that the strongest predictor was the mothers' SRO (Beta = .204), see table 25.

Table 26. Regression Analysis (b)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.648(a)	.420	.089	.498

a = Predictors: (Constant), MRC, Mother's Age, Mothers' SRO, TrMJ and MES

b = Dependent Variable: Girls' SRO

Table 27. ANOVA(b)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1.261	5	.315	1.269	.367(a)
Residual	1.739	7	.248		
Total	3.000	12			

a = Predictors: (Constant), MRC, Mother's Age, Mothers' SRO, TrMJ and MES

b = Dependent Variable: Girls' SRO

When the impacts of the mothers' attributes were assessed separately for boys and girls, the regression analysis for female adolescents' SRO revealed that they explained 42% of the variances; the explanation is statistically insignificant (see Tables 26 & 27).

Table 28. Regression Analysis (b)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.809(a)	.655	.540	.344

a = Predictors: (Constant), MRC, Mother's Age, Mothers' SRO, TrMJ and MES

b = Dependent Variable: Boys' SRO

Table 29. ANOVA (b)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	3.370	5	.674	5.702	.004(a)
Residual	1.773	15	.118		
Total	5.143	20			

a = Predictors: (Constant), MRC, Mother's Age, Mothers' SRO, TrMJ and MES

b = Dependent Variable: Boys' SRO

However, as tables 28 and 29 show, maternal attributes significantly predicted, 65.5% of the variances in boys' SRO ($F(5, 15) = 5.702, p < 0.01$).

As can be seen in table 30 below, the regression coefficient indicated that mothers' SRO is the strongest predictor (Beta = .758) of the mothers' attributes.

Table 30. Regression Coefficients (a)

	Unstandardized		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	Coefficients				
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.012	.766		1.322	.206
Mothers' SRO	.652	.139	.758	4.683	.000
Mothers' Age	-.023	.018	-.206	-1.262	.226
MES	.100	.238	.070	.419	.681
TrMJ	.187	.162	.187	1.152	.267
MRC	-.041	.145	-.048	-.286	.779

a = Dependent Variable: Boys' SRO

Next, the interaction effect of fathers' attributes (Fathers' Educ., Fathers' SRO, and Paternal Inv't) was assessed.

Table 31. Regression Analysis (b)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.747(a)	.558	.545	.331

a Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, Father's Educ., and Paternal Inv't

b = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

Table 32. ANOVA (b)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	14.159	3	4.720	42.981	.000(a)
Residual	11.200	102	.110		
Total	25.358	105			

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, Father's Educ., and Paternal Inv't

b = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

Table 31 shows that paternal attributes explained 55.8% of the variances in children's SRO development. The F test in ANOVA Table 32 examine that the explanation is statistically significant ($F(3, 102) = 42.981, p < 0.001$).

The multiple regression coefficient presented in table 33 revealed that the contribution of each of the three variables is statistically significant.

Table 33. Regression Coefficients (a)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.453	.097		4.671	.000
Father's Education level	.062	.028	.167	2.250	.027
Paternal Involvement	.123	.032	.291	3.781	.000
Fathers' SRO	.389	.069	.459	5.662	.000

a = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

Comparatively, the Fathers' SRO is the most significant predictor (Beta = .459). The contribution of Paternal Inv't with Beta value of .291 is the second. Fathers' Educ. stands last (Beta = .167), its contribution is still statistically significant.

Table 34. Regression Analysis - Stepwise method (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter \leq .05, Probability-of-F-to-remove \geq .10). (d)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.680(a)	.462***	.457	.362
2	.732(b)	.536***	.527	.338
3	.747(c)	.558*	.545	.331

***P < .001, * P < .05

a = Predictors: (Constant), FSRO

b = Predictors: (Constant), FSRO, and Paternal Inv't

c = Predictors: (Constant), FSRO, Paternal Inv't, and Father's Educ.

d = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

To assess the relative contribution of each paternal attribute, stepwise regression was computed. The result shown in table 34 revealed that 46.2% of the variances of the adolescents' SRO are accounted for Fathers' SRO. The second predictor,

Paternal Inv't contributed 7.4% to 55.8%. (i.e., it explained 7.4% of the variances in adolescents' SRO, when the effect of Fathers' SRO has been controlled). Fathers' Educ. added only .022 to the predictions.

To evaluate the relative impact of paternal attributes on each sex, separate multiple regression analyses were applied.

Table 35. Regression Analysis (b)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.894(a)	.799	.787	.226

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, Father's Educ., and Paternal Inv't

b = Dependent Variable: Boys' SRO

Table 36. ANOVA (b)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	10.376	3	3.459	67.693	.000(a)
Residual	2.606	51	.051		
Total	12.982	54			

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, Father's Educ., and Paternal Inv't

b = Dependent Variable: Boys' SRO

Table 35 presents that 79.9% of the variances on sons' SRO were accounted for the fathers' attributes. The F test in ANOVA table 36 shows that it is statistically significant ($F(3, 51) = 67.693, p < 0.001$).

The relative contribution of each paternal attributes on the development of sons' SRO was assessed using stepwise regression analysis method (see table 37). It was found that all fathers' attributes contributed significant level to the predictions (R^2). They are presented in table 37 according to their contribution in descending order. It shows that Fathers' SRO was the most contributor to the predictions. Then, the Fathers' Educ. is followed by adding .143 to R^2 when the impact of Fathers' SRO has been controlled. Parental Inv't made the least contribution, .064 to R^2 (i.e., it predicted an additional 6.4% to the variances of sons' SRO).

Table 37. Regression Analysis - Stepwise method (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter \leq .05, Probability-of-F-to-remove \geq .10). (d)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.769(a)	.592***	.584	.316
2	.857(b)	.735***	.725	.257
3	.894(c)	.799**	.787	.226

***P < .001, ** P \leq .01

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO

b = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, and Fathers' Educ.

c = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, Father's Educ., and Paternal Involvement

d = Dependent Variable: Boy's SRO

The regression analysis table 38 shows that fathers' attributes explained 42.6% of the variance in daughters' SRO. The ANOVA table 39 checks that this explanation is statistically significant ($F(3, 48) = 11.880, p < 0.001$).

Table38. Regression Analysis (b)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.653(a)	.426	.390	.387

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, Father's Educ., and Paternal Inv't

b = Dependent Variable: Girls' SRO

Table 39. ANOVA (b)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	5.335	3	1.778	11.880	.000(a)
Residual	7.185	48	.150		
Total	12.519	51			

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO, Father's Educ., and Paternal Inv't

b = Dependent Variable: Girls' SRO

However, the stepwise regression analysis (see table 40 below) revealed that the Fathers' SRO is the only significant predictor, which explained 40% of the variances

in daughters' sex-role orientation. This means, the contributions of Paternal Inv't and Fathers' Educ. to total R^2 is only 2.6% which is statistically insignificant for the development of daughters' SRO.

Table 40. Regression Analysis - Stepwise method (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter \leq .05, Probability-of-F-to-remove \geq .10). (d)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.633(a)	.400***	.388	.388

***p < .001

a = Predictors: (Constant), Fathers' SRO

b = Dependent Variable: Girls' SRO

Combined Effects of Parents' Attributes

To assess the interaction effects of parents' attributes, five maternal attributes (mothers SRO, MRC, MES, TrMJ and mothers' Age), and three paternal attributes (Fathers' SRO, Fathers Educ. and Paternal Inv't) were used.

Table 41. Regression Analysis (b)

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.822(a)	.675	.531	.347

a = Predictors: (Constant), MRC, Mothers' SRO, MES, Paternal Inv't, Mother's Age, TrMJ, Father's Educ., and Fathers' SRO

b = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

Table 42. ANOVA (b)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	4.503	8	.563	4.684	.003(a)
Residual	2.163	18	.120		
Total	6.667	26			

A = Predictors: (Constant), MRC, Mothers' SRO, MES, Paternal Inv't, Mother's Age, TrMJ, Father's Educ., and Fathers' SRO

b = Dependent Variable: GRO

Table 41 shows that the regression analysis yielded multiple R of .822 and that 67.5% of the variances in the children's SRO is accounted for parents' attributes. This is statistically significant ($F(8, 18) = 4.684, P < 0.01$) (see, table 42).

Combined Effects of Factors Other Than Parents

TV viewing, YrSFP, Academic ability and Age were entered using enter method of regression analysis. They yielded multiple R of .760, which explained 57.8% of the variances in adolescent' SRO (see table 43). The ANOVA table 44 tested that it is statistically significant ($F(4, 22) = 7.524, P < 0.01$).

Table 43. Regression Analysis

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.760(a)	.578	.501	.280

a = Predictors: (Constant), TV viewing, Year when separate from Parent(s) (YrSFP), Academic Ability, Age

b = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

Table 44. ANOVA (b)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	2.354	4	.588	7.524	.001(a)
Residual	1.720	22	.078		
Total	4.074	26			

a = Predictors: (Constant), TV viewing, Year when separate from Parent(s) (YrSFP), Academic Ability, Age

b = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

A comparison of regression analysis of parents and others factor indicated in table 40 and table 42 shows that the predicting power of parents' attributes was higher (multiple R of .822) than other factors (multiple R of .670).

Thus, to evaluate which of maternal attribute and paternal attribute are more influential predictors, regression coefficient analysis were made (see table 45). Of the paternal attributes, the Fathers' SRO is the most influential predator (Beta =

.370), while the Mothers' Age is the most influential (Beta = $-.346$) of maternal attributes.

Table 45. Regression Coefficients (a)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.250	.652		1.916	.071
FSRSO	.323	.172	.370	1.872	.077
Paternal Involvement	.116	.081	.265	1.435	.168
Father's Education level	-.014	.054	-.042	-.261	.797
TrMJ	.164	.154	.165	1.068	.299
MES	.172	.124	.223	1.384	.183
Mother's Age	-.035	.016	-.348	-2.252	.037
Mothers' SRO	.328	.158	.330	2.075	.053
MRC	-.147	.135	-.166	-1.089	.291

a = Dependent Variable: Adolescents' SRO

As a final point, the presence of difference in egalitarianism of boys and girls were compared. But, as it can be seen in table 4, 27.5% of girls were found to be androgynous, while androgynous boys were 29.9%. These percentages do not show big difference.

4. DISCUSSION

The result of the study is believed to increase our understanding of the influential factors by which adolescents acquire their sex-role orientations. Several independent variables were studied in relation to the adolescents' sex-role orientations hoping that some insights can be brought to light for the process of sex-role socializations. This is because, examining a number of different variables enabled to obtain broader perspectives on the development of sex-role orientations of adolescents.

Moreover, the results of this study provided evidences to support both social learning and cognitive theories. However, they questioned psychoanalytic theory.

According to the results, adolescents' sex-role orientation was found to be significantly related to the major fathers' attributes, such as fathers' sex-role orientation, fathers' education and paternal involvement in traditional feminine household chores (see table 12). The result is the same, even when computed separately for boys and girls. This shows fathers' sex-role orientation is positively related to their children's sex-role orientation. In other words, androgynous fathers tended to have androgynous children. Besides, fathers who attained higher education level would have liberal children. Equally, fathers who were involved more in traditional feminine home chores tended to have egalitarian children. The reverse is also true that adolescents with traditional fathers would demonstrate sex-typed behaviors. Similarly, fathers who were less educated and less involved in feminine home chores would be the model of traditional sex-role orientation. This result is consistent with previous study by Yang (2000) which showed that fathers' with masculine sex-role orientation had feminine daughters. It is again consistent with the research made by Raffaelli and Ontai (2004) which found that adolescents' sex-role stereotyping occurred when parents hold traditional sex-roles. Moreover, it has got support from the study by Baruch and Barnelt (1989), which revealed that fathers who were more participatory in home chores played less traditional role-

model than those who involved less. Yang's (2000) result is, however, quite the opposite. He revealed that boys' masculinity was related neither to fathers' masculinity nor to paternal involvement in household chores, which is inconsistent to this study.

In this study, however, only two of the maternal attributes (mothers' sex-role orientation and mothers' employment status) were found to be significantly related to adolescents' sex-role orientation, though inconstant, when they were evaluated separately for boys and girls: Boys' sex-role orientation was significantly correlated to mothers' sex-role orientation, whereas girls' sex-role orientation was correlated to mothers' employment status. These results are consistent with the research by Raffaelli & Ontai (2004) which found that traditional mothers tend to have traditional children. And again, it is consistent with Willetts and Nock's (1994) study, which found evidence that the effect of maternal employment on boys' sex-role development was insignificant. Moreover, Manatz & Mansfield (1977), Gilroy & Talierco (1981), Gardner & LaBrecque (1986) and Witt (1997) found evidences to support such result. Their study revealed that daughters of employed mothers demonstrated androgynous sex-role orientation. In contrast, Meyer (1980) found that mothers' employment status did not have any effect on girls' sex-role attitudes, which is inconsistent with the result of this study.

Additionally, adolescents' sex-role orientation was negatively correlated with their length of television viewing. This was also significantly correlated when tested separately for boys and girls. This means, those who watched television for longer hours exhibited traditional sex-role orientation. This result is similar to researches made by Ingham (1997), and McGhee (as cited in Davidson, Yasuna and Tower, 1979) which concluded that children who viewed television for longer hours developed traditional sex-role orientation. Besides, the result is consistent with the information obtained during focus group discussion. Most of the participants in focus group discussion agreed that ETV (Ethiopian Television) transmits gender stereotypical information.

As cognitive developmental theorists believe, academic ability was found to be significantly correlated to adolescents' sex-role development. The result was the same when evaluated separately for boys and girls. But, the other cognitive factor, age, was not found to have significant relationship with adolescents' sex-role orientation. The separate computation for boys and girls, however, showed that boys' sex-role orientation was found to be significantly related to their ages. Katz and Ksiansak (1994) found evidences to support this result. They found that sex-role attitudes have positive relationship with age, which indicated that the flexibility of sex-role orientation increased with age. However, the result revealed that girls' sex-role orientation was not significantly related to their age. The result is inconsistent with research by Manatz and Mansfield (1977), which found that older girls show egalitarian sex-role choices than younger ones. It is also inconsistent with the result of the study made by Meyer (1980), which revealed that girls' sex-role attitude is more stereotypical at age 7 than at age 11.

However, the result revealed that mothers' age, traditionality of mothers' job, and mothers' religious commitment were insignificantly related to the development of adolescents' sex-role orientations. These results say the opposite to psychoanalytical theory, as it believes that children initially identify with their same-sex parents.

In addition, the correlations between teachers' influences and boys' and girls' sex-role orientations were found insignificant to explain the link. This result is inconsistent with the study by Workman and Johnson (1994) and Witt (2000) which found that teachers fostered traditional sex-role orientations on their students and they expected these gendered behaviors from their students. The result is also inconsistent with the information collected during the focused group discussion. This implies that there are gaps in the expectations and practical accomplishment of these adolescents.

During the focus group discussion, it was found that teachers encouraged traditional sex-role attitudes in boys and girls by treating them differently both in classrooms and in school compounds. Most teachers tended to encourage boys to be

competitive, self sufficient, athletic, and forceful. On the contrary, they encouraged girls to be shy, nonassertive and dependent. One of the fascinating stories found during the focus group discussion was told by a female student. *She was the highest scorer in physics exam in her class. But, her teacher (who was male) hesitated to accept the result, and then, he warned her that it was not her work and asked her to tell him where she got the answers.*

By and large, the multiple regression analysis employed to evaluate the interaction effect of the selected independent variables revealed that they significantly predicted the variances in adolescents' sex-role orientations (see tables 13 and 14). This was the same when assessed separately for boys and girls (see tables 17 and 20). Again, assessments were made to identify the influential predictors and to find their relative contribution to the predictions. The results showed that (see table 15) television viewing, fathers' sex-role orientation and paternal involvement in feminine home chores were found to be the most influential factors in predicting the adolescents' (both boys and girls) sex-role orientations. With regard to their relative contribution (see table 16), television viewing was the strongest influential predictor, followed by fathers' sex-role orientation and then, by the fathers' involvement in feminine household chores.

These three strong predictors were still influential for the development of boys' sex-role orientations (see table 19). Additionally, the contribution of fathers' educational level was found to be strong on the development of boys' sex-role orientations. As to the weight of their contribution, the stepwise multiple regression analysis showed that television viewing is still the most influential. This result is consistent with the idea suggested by Fombi and Lovich (1997). They proposed that media has extraordinary power to communicate and lend authority to social stereotypes. Next to television viewing, the contribution of fathers' sex-role orientation is powerful. This was followed by paternal involvement and then, by the level of fathers' education. These results indicated that, as social learning theory dictated, the contribution of paternal attributes are influential for their sons' sex role development, but not the primary influential as psychoanalytical theorists have argued. This is

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consistent with the idea of Parke (1996) who suggested that fathers are relatively more sensitive to sex-role development of their children.

But, girls' sex-role orientation was found to be highly influenced by television viewing, fathers' sex-role orientation, and mothers' sex-role orientations. Here also, the contribution of television viewing was the most dominant. The least but, powerful influential is the mothers' sex-role orientation. This result does not seem natural, as one can expect that the primary influential socialization agent for a child's sex-role development is his/her same sex parent (i.e., the mother). The possible explanation for this deviation could be derived from that the conceptual understandings of children to become broader during adolescence.

When the maternal' attributes (mothers' religious commitment, mothers' age, mothers' sex-role orientation, traditionality of mothers' job, and maternal employment status) and paternal attributes (fathers' sex-role orientation, fathers' involvement in feminine household chores and fathers' educational level) were analyzed independently. The results revealed that both of them could explain the variances in sex-role orientation of their children (see tables 23 and 31).

The separate analyses for boys and girls, however, showed that the independent contributions of maternal attributes were insignificant to the development of daughters' sex-role orientations (see tables 26 and 27). But, it was found that they could predict the sex-role orientation of their sons. Of course, independently only the mothers' sex-role orientation was found to be influential on the development of sons' sex-role orientation (see table 30). The effects of paternal attributes were found to be strong for their sons (see tables 35 and 36) and their girls (see tables 38 and 39).

The relative contribution of each paternal attributes, on the other hand, was found to be significantly influential for their sons' sex-role development. Fathers' sex-role orientation, however, are the only influential contributor to the predictions. These results indicated that the effects of maternal attributes on the development of their children's sex-role orientations are minimal.

One of the possible interpretations points to the fact that in our culture fathers are more dominant in most of family relations than mothers. Consequently, the influence of mothers might be less even in sex-role orientations of their children. Conversely, this has got support from Parke (1996:139) who noted that "*in families where mothers generally make the decisions, while fathers were passive, boys are less likely to use their fathers as a role model*".

Another possible reason for the lack of effects of mothers' attributes could be that adolescents are bombarded daily with gender-oriented messages from wide variety of the community in general and peers in particular. Yet, fathers are still dominant in the community.

A comparison between parents' attributes and other factors were made to identify the stronger predictors of the development of adolescents' sex-role orientations. The results revealed that the predicting power of parents' attributes was higher (see tables 41 & 43). The results support the social learning theory which emphasize that children's behavior and attitudes are first influenced at home and then reinforced by factors out side the home like peers, media etc. Witt (1997) and Lips (1997) found evidences to support such a result. They noted that parents are the first source of children's sex-role socialization.

As a final point, the study tried to check if there was a difference between boys and girls in holding egalitarianism (androgynous) sex-role perception, but no difference was found. The result is consistent with Mensch (1998) and Galambos, Almeida, and Petersen (1990). However, it is inconsistent with researches by Konrad and Harris (2002), Royse and Clawson (1988), and Katz and ksansank (1994) which indicated that women's sex-role attitudes are more liberal than men's. This may be because of that these girls were highly influence by culturally set roles.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study that examined the contribution of the socialization and cognitive factors to the development of adolescents' sex-role orientation, the following conclusions could be made.

- I. Cognitive factors such as age and academic ability were tested. But, academic ability of adolescents was positively related to the sex-role orientations. Consequently, adolescents with high cognitive ability are expected to display egalitarian sex-role behaviors.
- II. Adolescents who have fathers with flexible sex-role attitudes are supposed to exhibit liberal sex-role orientation. Therefore, fathers are influential role model for the socialization of sex-roles.
- III. The contribution of mothers in the sex-role development of their children is found to be minimal. But, their employment status seems to be important for their daughters than for their sons. As a result, full time employed mothers are more likely to have androgynous daughters.
- IV. Messages transmitted via television are predominantly gender-biased social norms. As a result, adolescents who have watched television for longer hours tend to demonstrate traditional sex-roles.
- V. Even though the power of teachers appeared to be influential, as found during discussion and in the literature part, the result of this study showed that their role is insignificant to the development of adolescents' sex-role orientations.
- VI. Most literature noted that there are sex differences in exhibiting androgynous sex-role orientation. That is, females are predisposed to be more androgynous than males. But, these adolescents did not display such a difference. Thus, there is no sex difference in being androgynous person.

- VII. Finally, it was found that children from single parent household lean to develop undifferentiated sex-role orientation. As a result, the finding showed that intact families are very crucial for the development of sex-role orientations of adolescents.

5.2. Recommendations

Based on the outcome of the findings, the researcher would like to suggest the following recommendations for concerned bodies.

- I. Concerned bodies working on gender issues seem to concentrate on women. However, the outcome of this research revealed that fathers are more influential than mothers in the socialization of children's sex-role orientations. Therefore, the researcher suggests that their programs should incorporate fathers so as to achieve gender equality.
- II. It was clearly indicated in the study that the messages of television are leading adolescents to develop traditional sex-roles. The outcome of this research also shows that viewing television for long hour lead to develop sex-typed behaviors. Thus, the researcher recommends that concerned bodies particularly the officials of Ethiopian television should give high attention to their special programs that display gender difference information.
- III. Although it was clearly mentioned that some of the findings coincide with previous research findings, there were some differences. Besides, some of the variables failed to have linear relationship with the sex-role orientation of adolescents. For that reason, the researcher suggests further study on the area.
- IV. At last, even though the study did not focus on the issue, it has hinted that single-parent family structure of child upbringing is problematic for the development of proper sex-role orientation, and hence needs further investigation.

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APPENDICES

- A. Both my parents
 - B. Only my father
 - C. Only my mother
 - D. My mother and step father
 - E. My father and step mother
 - F. Other relatives (Grand parent, aunt, uncle etc.)
 - G. Foster parents which are not relatives
 - H. If other, specify _____
7. If your answer for Q '6' is not 'A', what was your age when you separate from your parent/s/?
- A. Below five year
 - B. Five to ten year
 - C. Above ten year
8. During the course of an average week, for how long hours you watch Television?
- A. Zero to 7 hours
 - B. Eight to 14 hours
 - C. Fifteen to 21 hours
 - D. More than 22 hours
9. Which sex peer is your best friend?
- A. Same sex
 - B. Opposite sex
 - C. Both
 - D. Have no friend (peer)
10. How do your rate your best friend in terms of his/her activities and behaviors with regard to gender?
- A. Extremely traditional
 - B. Traditional
 - C. Some what Traditional
 - D. Liberal
 - E. Extremely liberal

11. Among your families, who do you think made an influence on your personality?

- A. My father
- B. My mother
- C. My brother
- D. My aunt
- E. My uncle
- F. My grand father
- G. My grand mother
- H. If other, specify _____

12. In your view the sex-role of the person you mention in Q '10' is

- A. Extremely traditional
- B. Traditional
- C. Some what Traditional
- D. Liberal
- E. Extremely liberal

13. Among the following characteristics, which behavior (s) do you think that your teachers have encouraged you to develop? **Most of my teachers ...**

- | | | |
|---|--------|-------|
| 13.1. ...make me feel free to ask and answer questions in class. | A. Yes | B. No |
| 13.2. ...encourage me to actively participate in class. | A. Yes | B. No |
| 13.3. ...encourage me to work hard and achieve in my school work. | A. Yes | B. No |
| 13.4. ...do not discriminate me against. | A. Yes | B. No |
| 13.2. ...violet my rights of asserting in class. | A. Yes | B. No |

PART II

Below you will find a list of personality characteristics. Thus, you are required to rate how much each trait apply to you in five point scale.

Theses are your choices.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Never applies to me | 4. Mostly applies to me |
| 2. Slightly applies to me | 5. Perfectly applies to me |
| 3. Somewhat applies to me | |

		Never applies to me	Slightly applies to me	Somewhat applies to me	Mostly applies to me	Perfectly applies to me
		1	2	3	4	5
1	self-reliant	1	2	3	4	5
2	yielding	1	2	3	4	5
3	defends my own beliefs	1	2	3	4	5
4	cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
5	independent	1	2	3	4	5
6	shy	1	2	3	4	5
7	athletic	1	2	3	4	5
8	affectionate	1	2	3	4	5
9	assertive	1	2	3	4	5
10	flatterable	1	2	3	4	5
11	forceful	1	2	3	4	5
12	loyal	1	2	3	4	5
13	self-sufficient	1	2	3	4	5
14	feminine	1	2	3	4	5
15	to have leadership abilities	1	2	3	4	5
16	sensitive to the needs of others	1	2	3	4	5
17	willing to take risks	1	2	3	4	5
18	soft-spoken	1	2	3	4	5
19	make decisions easily	1	2	3	4	5
20	compassionate	1	2	3	4	5
21	dominant	1	2	3	4	5
22	tender	1	2	3	4	5
23	masculine	1	2	3	4	5
24	not use harsh language	1	2	3	4	5
25	ambitious	1	2	3	4	5
26	sympathetic	1	2	3	4	5
27	aggressive	1	2	3	4	5
28	gullible	1	2	3	4	5
29	individualistic	1	2	3	4	5
30	love children	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much again

Booklet II

To Be Filled By Mothers

Dear Mother

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information for my study leading to M.A. degree in Developmental Psychology. The information you provide is very crucial for the success of the study. Therefore, you are kindly requested to be honest towards all the items in this questionnaire.

The information you supply will be kept confidentially. Thus, you are not required to write your name.

Thank you for your kind cooperation!

Part I

1. Age _____
2. Your level of education:
 - A. Illiterate
 - B. Up to grade six
 - C. Grade 7 to grade 12
 - D. 12 + Certificate or College Diploma
 - E. Degree or above
3. As compared to your community, how do you rate your family economic status?
 - A. Better than others (high)
 - B. Same as others (medium)
 - C. Worse than others (low)
4. Are you employed?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
5. If employed, please write the name of the job _____
6. If employed, what is your weekly total working hour?
 - A. Less than 5 hours
 - B. From 5 to 30 hours
 - C. More than 30 hours
7. If employed, how long you stayed at work?
 - A. For less than one year
 - B. From 1 to 3 years
 - C. More than 3 years

8. The religion you follow is:
- A. Orthodox C. Protestant
 B. Muslim D. If other, specify _____
9. Are you committed to the rules and dogmas of your religion?
- A. Committed B. Some what committed C. Not at all committed
10. Among the following home chores, which activities you perform.
- | | | | |
|-------|-----------------------------|--------|-------|
| 10.1. | Fencing | A. Yes | B. No |
| 10.2. | Slaughtering Sheep | A. Yes | B. No |
| 10.3. | Cutting bread into pieces | A. Yes | B. No |
| 10.4. | Repairing cupboard bed etc. | A. Yes | B. No |
| 10.5. | Ironing | A. Yes | B. No |

PART II

Below you will find a list of personality characteristics. Thus, you are required to rate how much each trait apply to you in five point scale.

Theses are your choices.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 4. Never applies to me | 4. Mostly applies to me |
| 5. Slightly applies to me | 5. Perfectly applies to me |
| 6. Somewhat applies to me | |

		Never applies to me	Slightly applies to me	Somewhat applies to me	Mostly applies to me	Perfectly applies to me
1	self-reliant	1	2	3	4	5
2	yielding	1	2	3	4	5
3	defends my own beliefs	1	2	3	4	5
4	cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
5	independent	1	2	3	4	5
6	shy	1	2	3	4	5
7	athletic	1	2	3	4	5
8	affectionate	1	2	3	4	5
9	assertive	1	2	3	4	5
10	flatterable	1	2	3	4	5
11	forceful	1	2	3	4	5
12	loyal	1	2	3	4	5
13	self-sufficient	1	2	3	4	5
14	feminine	1	2	3	4	5
15	to have leadership abilities	1	2	3	4	5
16	sensitive to the needs of others	1	2	3	4	5
17	willing to take risks	1	2	3	4	5
18	soft-spoken	1	2	3	4	5
19	make decisions easily	1	2	3	4	5
20	compassionate	1	2	3	4	5
21	dominant	1	2	3	4	5
22	tender	1	2	3	4	5
23	masculine	1	2	3	4	5
24	not use harsh language	1	2	3	4	5
25	ambitious	1	2	3	4	5
26	sympathetic	1	2	3	4	5
27	aggressive	1	2	3	4	5
28	gullible	1	2	3	4	5
29	individualistic	1	2	3	4	5
30	love children	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much again

Booklet III
To Be Filled By Fathers

Dear Father

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information for my study leading to M.A. degree in Developmental Psychology. The information you provide is very crucial for the success of the study. Therefore, you are kindly requested to be honest towards all the items in this questionnaire.

The information you supply will be kept confidentially. Thus, you are not required to write your name.

Thank you for your kind cooperation!

Part I

1. Age _____
2. Your level of education:
 - a. Illiterate
 - b. Up to grade six
 - c. Grade 7 to grade 12
 - d. TTI certificate or College Diploma
 - e. Degree or above
3. As compared to your community, how do you rate your family economic status?
 - a. Better than others (high)
 - b. Same as others (medium)
 - c. Worse than others (low)
4. Are you employed?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
5. If employed, please write the name of the job _____
6. The religion you follow:

a. Orthodox	C. Protestant
b. Muslim	D. If other, specify _____
7. Are you committed to the rules and dogmas of your religion?
 - a. committed
 - b. Some what committed
 - c. Not at all committed

8. Have you ever accomplish the following household chores?

- | | | |
|-----------------------|--------|-------|
| 8.1. Washing dish | A. Yes | B. No |
| 8.2. Baking 'Injera' | A. Yes | B. No |
| 8.3. Feeding children | A. Yes | B. No |
| 8.4. Tidying house | A. Yes | B. No |
| 8.5. Preparing 'wot' | A. Yes | B. No |

PART II

Below you will find a list of personality characteristics. Thus, you are required to rate how much each trait apply to you in five point scale.

These are your choices.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 7. Never applies to me | 4. Mostly applies to me |
| 8. Slightly applies to me | 5. Perfectly applies to me |
| 9. Somewhat applies to me | |

		Never applies to me	Slightly applies to me	Somewhat applies to me	Mostly applies to me	Perfectly applies to me
		1	2	3	4	5
1	self-reliant	1	2	3	4	5
2	yielding	1	2	3	4	5
3	defends my own beliefs	1	2	3	4	5
4	cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
5	independent	1	2	3	4	5
6	shy	1	2	3	4	5
7	athletic	1	2	3	4	5
8	affectionate	1	2	3	4	5
9	assertive	1	2	3	4	5
10	flatterable	1	2	3	4	5
11	forceful	1	2	3	4	5
12	loyal	1	2	3	4	5
13	self-sufficient	1	2	3	4	5
14	feminine	1	2	3	4	5
15	to have leadership abilities	1	2	3	4	5
16	sensitive to the needs of others	1	2	3	4	5
17	willing to take risks	1	2	3	4	5
18	soft-spoken	1	2	3	4	5
19	make decisions easily	1	2	3	4	5
20	compassionate	1	2	3	4	5
21	dominant	1	2	3	4	5
22	tender	1	2	3	4	5
23	masculine	1	2	3	4	5
24	not use harsh language	1	2	3	4	5
25	ambitious	1	2	3	4	5
26	sympathetic	1	2	3	4	5
27	aggressive	1	2	3	4	5
28	gullible	1	2	3	4	5
29	individualistic	1	2	3	4	5
30	love children	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much again

Appendix B

አዲስ አበባ ዩንቨርሲቲ የድህረ ምረቃ ትምህርት ቤት የሳይኮሎጅ ትምህርት ክፍል

ጥራዝ - 1

በተማሪዎች የሚሞላ መጠይቅ

ውድ ተማሪዎች

የዚህ መጠይቅ ዋና ዓላማ ለድህረ ምረቃ ማሟያ ለሚደረግ ጥናት ይረዳኝ ዘንድ ነው። ስለዚህ እያንዳንዱን መጠይቅ በጥሞና በማንበብ ተገቢውን ምላሽ ትሰጥ/ጭ/ ዘንድ በትህትና እጠይቃለሁ። በመጠይቁ የሚገኘው መረጃ ለጥናቱ ተግባር ብቻ የሚውል እና በሚስጢር የሚያዝ መሆኑን ላረጋግጥልህ/ሽ/ እወዳለሁ። በመሆኑም ስም መፃፍ አያስፈልግም።

ስለትብብርህ /ሽ/ በቅድሚያ አመሰግናለሁ።

ክፍል አንድ

1. ያታ ሀ. ወንድ ለ. ሴት
2. እድሜ _____
3. የትምህርት ደረጃ ሀ. 9ኛ ለ. 10ኛ
4. ባለፉት የትምህርት ደረጃዎች ያስመዘገብከው/ሽው/ አማካይ ውጤት ስንት ነበር?

የ6ኛ ክፍል አማካይ ውጤት	የ7ኛ ክፍል አማካይ ውጤት	የ8ኛ ክፍል አማካይ ውጤት	የ9ኛ ክፍል አማካይ ውጤት
ሀ. 90 እና ከዚያ በላይ	ሀ. 90 እና ከዚያ በላይ	ሀ. 90 እና ከዚያ በላይ	ሀ. 90 እና ከዚያ በላይ
ለ. ከ 80 - 89	ለ. ከ 80 - 89	ለ. ከ 80 - 89	ለ. ከ 80 - 89
ሐ. ከ 70 - 79	ሐ. ከ 70 - 79	ሐ. ከ 70 - 79	ሐ. ከ 70 - 79
መ. ከ 60 - 69	መ. ከ 60 - 69	መ. ከ 60 - 69	መ. ከ 60 - 69
ሠ. ከ 50 - 59	ሠ. ከ 50 - 59	ሠ. ከ 50 - 59	ሠ. ከ 50 - 59
ረ. ከ 50 በታች	ረ. ከ 50 በታች	ረ. ከ 50 በታች	ረ. ከ 50 በታች

5. የአንተ/ች/ እድገት

ሀ. በከተማ ነው።
ለ. በገጠር ነው።
6. በአሁኑ ወቅት ከማን ጋር ነው የምትኖረው/ሪው/?

ሀ. ከሁለቱ ወላጆቼ ጋር
ለ. ከአባቴ ጋር ብቻ

ሐ. ከእናቴ ጋር ብቻ
መ. ከእናቴ እና ከእንጆራ አባቴ ጋር

ሠ. ከአባቴ እና ከእንጀራ እናቴ ጋር ረ. ከዘመዶቼ /አክስት፣ አጎት፣ አያት ወዘተ.../ ጋር

ሸ. ዘመድ ካልሆኑ አሳዳጊዎቼ ጋር

ቀ. ሌላ ከሆነ ይጠቀስ _____

7. ለጥያቄ «6» መልስህ/ሽ/ «ሀ» ካልሆነ፣ ከወላጆችህ/ሽ/ ስትለይ እድሜህ/ሽ/ ስንት ነበር?

ሀ. ከአምስት ዓመት በታች ለ. ከ5 እስከ 10 ዓመት ሐ. ከ10 ዓመት በላይ

8. በሣምንት ውስጥ በአማካይ ለስንት ሰዓት ያክል ቴሌቪዥን ታያለህ /ሽ/?

ሀ. ከ 0 እስከ 7 ሰዓት ለ. ከ 8 እስከ 14 ሰዓት
ሐ. ከ 15 እስከ 21 ሰዓት መ. ከ 22 ሰዓት በላይ

9. በጣም የምትቀርበው /ቢው/ ጓደኛ /የፍቅር ያልሆነ/ የትኛው ነው?

ሀ. ከኔ ጋር ተመሳሳይ ያታ ለ. ከኔ ጋር ተቃራኒ ያታ
ሐ. ሁለቱም ያታዎች መ. ምንም ጓደኛ የለኝም

10. በተራ ቁጥር «9» / የጠቀስከው/ሽው/ ጓደኛ በአንተ አመለካከት ባህሪውና ተግባሩ/ሯ/

ሀ. እጅግ በጣም ለዘልማዳዊ ስርዓት ተገኝ ነው
ለ. በጣም ለዘልማዳዊ ስርዓት ተገኝ ነው
ሐ. በመጠኑ ለዘልማዳዊ ስርዓት ተገኝ ነው
መ. ዘልማዳዊ ስርዓት ተገኝ ያልሆነ ነው
ሠ. ሙሉ በሙሉ ለዘልማዳዊ ስርዓት ተገኝ ያልሆነ ነው

11. ከቤተሠቦችህ /ሽ/ መካከል በአንተ/ች/ ማንነት ላይ ተፅዕኖ አሳድሮብኛል የምትለው/ይው/ ማን ነው /ናት/::

ሀ. ወንድሜ ለ. እህቴ
ሐ. አክስቴ መ. አጎቴ
ሠ. የወንድ አያቴ ረ. የሴት አያቴ
ሸ. ሌላ ከሆነ ይጠቀስ _____

12. በተራ ቁጥር «11» ላይ የጠቀስከው/ሽው/ በአንተ/ች/ አመለካከት ባህሪውናሽ ተግባሩ/ሯ/

ሀ. እጅግ በጣም ለዘልማዳዊ ስርዓት ተገኝ ነው
ለ. በጣም ለዘልማዳዊ ስርዓት ተገኝ ነው
ሐ. በመጠኑ ለዘልማዳዊ ስርዓት ተገኝ ነው
መ. ለዘልማዳዊ ስርዓት ተገኝ ያልሆነ ነው
ሠ. ሙሉ በሙሉ ለዘልማዳዊ ስርዓት ተገኝ ያልሆነ ነው

13. ከሚከተሉት ባህሪያት ውስጥ በአንተ/ች/ ግምት አስተማሪዎችህ/ሽ/ የትኛውን ባህሪ እንድታሳለብ/ች/ አድርገውኛል በለህ/ሽ/ ታምናለህ /ታምኛለሽ/?
አብዛኛዎቹ አስተማሪዎቹ ...

- | | | | |
|-------|--|-------|----------|
| 13.1. | ክፍል ውስጥ በጥያቄና መልስ እንድሳተፍ ያበረታቱኛል። | ሀ/ አዎ | ለ/ አይደለም |
| 13.2. | ክፍል ውስጥ ንቁ ተሳትፎ እንዳደርግ ያበረታቱኛል። | ሀ/ አዎ | ለ/ አይደለም |
| 13.3. | ጠንክራ እንዳጠና እና በትምህርቱ ውጤታማ እንድሆን ያበረታቱኛል። | ሀ/ አዎ | ለ/ አይደለም |
| 13.4. | በየታዩ መክንያት አድልዎ አይፈፀሙብኝም። | ሀ/ አዎ | ለ/ አይደለም |
| 13.5. | የሚገባኝን ነገር እንዳልጠይቅ ይጫኑኛል። | ሀ/ አዎ | ለ/ አይደለም |

ክፍል ሁለት

ከዚህ በታች ለተዘረዘሩት እያንዳንዱ ባህሪ አምስት አማራጮች ቀርበዋል። ከእነዚህ ውስጥ አንተን /አንችን/ በትክክል የሚገልፀውን ቁጥር አክብብ /ቢ/።

አማራጮቹ የሚከተሉት ናቸው።

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| 1. በጭራሽ እኔን አይገልፀኝም | 4. በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል |
| 2. በጥቂቱ እኔን ይገልፀኛል | 5. እጅግ በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል |
| 3. በመጠኑ እኔን ይገልፀኛል | |

	በጭራሽ እኔን አይገልፀኝም	በጥቂቱ እኔን ይገልፀኛል	በመጠኑ እኔን ይገልፀኛል	በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል	እጅግ በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል	
	1	2	3	4	5	
1	በራስ የሚተማመን /የምትተማመን/	1	2	3	4	5
2	ግትር ያልሆነ /ያልሆነች/	1	2	3	4	5
3	ላመነበት /ላመነችበት/ በፅናት መከራከር	1	2	3	4	5
4	በፈገግታ የተሞላ /የተመላች/	1	2	3	4	5
5	በራስ ሀሳብ የሚመራ/የምትመራ/	1	2	3	4	5
6	አይን አፋር	1	2	3	4	5
7	ለማደግ ወይም ለመብለጥ የሚጥር፣ የሚፎካከር	1	2	3	4	5
8	ማፍቀርን ማሳየት የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
9	ችሎታን ወይም ማንነትን ማሳየት የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
10	በከንቱ ማወደስ፣ መሸንግል የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
11	ሀይልን ወይም ጉልበትን መጠቀም	1	2	3	4	5
12	ታማኝ	1	2	3	4	5
13	ራስን መቻል	1	2	3	4	5
14	ሴታሴትነት ባህሪ ያለው	1	2	3	4	5
15	የመምራት ችሎታ ያለው /ያላት/	1	2	3	4	5
16	ለሌሎች ፍላጎት መጨነቅ	1	2	3	4	5
17	ችግሮችን ለመጋፈጥ ዝግጁ የሆነ	1	2	3	4	5
18	ተለሳልሶ መናገር የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
19	በቀላሉ መወሰን የሚችል /የምትችል/	1	2	3	4	5
20	ርህሩህ	1	2	3	4	5
21	የበላይነትን የሚያሳይ	1	2	3	4	5
22	በሰው የማይጨክን	1	2	3	4	5
23	ወንድነት /ወንዳወንድነት/ ባህሪ ያለው /ያላት/	1	2	3	4	5
24	የሚያስቀይም ቃላት የማይጠቀም	1	2	3	4	5
25	ታላቅነትን ለማግኘት የሚጓጓ፣ የሚጥር	1	2	3	4	5
26	አዛኝ	1	2	3	4	5
27	ቁጡ	1	2	3	4	5
28	በሰዎች ሀሳብ በቀላሉ የሚነዳ /የምትነዳ/	1	2	3	4	5
29	ግላዊነት በሀሪ ያለው /ያላት/	1	2	3	4	5
30	ሀፃናትን የሚወድ /የምትወድ/	1	2	3	4	5

በድጋሚ እጅግ በጣም አመሠግናለሁ።:

10. ከሚከተሉት የቤት ውስጥ ሥራዎች እርስዎ የሚያከናውኗቸው የትኞቹ ናቸው?

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| 10.1 አጥር ማጠር | ሀ. አዎ አከናውናለሁ | ለ. አላከናውንም |
| 10.2 በግ ማረድ | ሀ. አዎ አከናውናለሁ | ለ. አላከናውንም |
| 10.3 ዳቦ መቁረስ | ሀ. አዎ አከናውናለሁ | ለ. አላከናውንም |
| 10.4 ቁም ሣጥን፣ አልጋ የመሳሰሉትን መጠገን | ሀ. አዎ አከናውናለሁ | ለ. አላከናውንም |
| 10.5 ልብስ መተኮስ | ሀ. አዎ አከናውናለሁ | ለ. አላከናውንም |

ክፍል ሁለት

ከዚህ በታች ለተዘረዘሩት እያንዳንዱ ባህሪ አምስት አማራጮች ቀርበዋል። ከእነዚህ ውስጥ እርስዎን በትክክል የሚገልፀውን ቁጥር ያክቡ።

አማራጮቹ የሚከተሉት ናቸው።

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| 1. በጭራሽ እኔን አይገልፀኝም | 4. በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል |
| 2. በጥቂቱ እኔን ይገልፀኛል እጅግ | 5. እጅግ በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል |
| 3. በመጠኑ እኔን ይገልፀኛል | |

		በጭራሽ እኔን አይገልፀኝም	በጥቂቱ እኔን ይገልፀኛል	በመጠኑ እኔን ይገልፀኛል	በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል	እጅግ በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል
		1	2	3	4	5
1	በራስ የሚተማመን	1	2	3	4	5
2	ግትር ያልሆነ	1	2	3	4	5
3	ለሚያምንበት በፅናት የሚከራከር	1	2	3	4	5
4	በፈገግታ የተሞላ	1	2	3	4	5
5	በራስ ሀሳብ የሚመራ	1	2	3	4	5
6	አይን አፋር	1	2	3	4	5
7	ለማደግ ወይም ለመብለጥ የሚጥር፣ የሚፎካከር	1	2	3	4	5
8	ማፍቀርን ማሳየት የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
9	ችሎታን ወይም ማንነትን ማሳየት የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
10	በከንቱ ማወደስ፣ መሸንግል የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
11	ሀይልን ወይም ጉልበትን መጠቀም	1	2	3	4	5
12	ታማኝ	1	2	3	4	5
13	ራስን መቻል	1	2	3	4	5
14	ሴታሴትነት ባህሪ ያለው	1	2	3	4	5
15	የመምራት ችሎታ ያለው /ያላት/	1	2	3	4	5
16	ለሌሎች ፍላጎት መጨነቅ	1	2	3	4	5
17	ችግሮችን ለመጋፈጥ ዝግጁ የሆነ	1	2	3	4	5
18	ተለሳልሶ መናገር የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
19	በቀላሉ መወሰን የሚችል /የምትችል/	1	2	3	4	5
20	ርህሩህ	1	2	3	4	5
21	የበላይነትን የሚያሳይ	1	2	3	4	5
22	በሰው የማይጨክን	1	2	3	4	5
23	ወንድነት /ወንዳወንድነት/ ባህሪ ያለው /ያላት/	1	2	3	4	5
24	የሚያስቀይም ቃላት የማይጠቀም	1	2	3	4	5
25	ታላቅነትን ለማግኘት የሚጓጓ፣ የሚጥር	1	2	3	4	5
26	አዛኝ	1	2	3	4	5
27	ቁጡ	1	2	3	4	5
28	በሰዎች ሀሳብ በቀላሉ የሚነዳ /የምትነዳ/	1	2	3	4	5
29	ግላዊነት በሀሪ ያለው /ያላት/	1	2	3	4	5
30	ህፃናትን የሚወድ /የምትወድ/	1	2	3	4	5

በድጋሚ እጅግ በጣም አመሠግናለሁ።

ክፍል ሁለት

ከዚህ በታች ለተዘረዘሩት እያንዳንዱ ባህሪ አምስት አማራጮች ቀርበዋል። ከእነዚህ ውስጥ እርሶዎን በትክክል የሚገልፀውን ቁጥር ያክቡ።

አማራጮቹ የሚከተሉት ናቸው።

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| 1. በጭራሽ እኔን አይገልፅኝም | 4. በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል |
| 2. በጥቂቱ እኔን ይገልፀኛል | 5. እጅግ በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል |
| 3. በመጠኑ እኔን ይገልፀኛል | |

	በጭራሽ እኔን አይገልፅኝም	በጥቂቱ እኔን ይገልፀኛል	በመጠኑ እኔን ይገልፀኛል	በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል	እጅግ በጣም እኔን ይገልፀኛል
	1	2	3	4	5
1 በራስ የሚተማመን	1	2	3	4	5
2 ግትር ያልሆነ	1	2	3	4	5
3 ለሚያምንበት በፅናት የሚከራከር	1	2	3	4	5
4 በፈገግታ የተሞላ	1	2	3	4	5
5 በራስ ሀሳብ የሚመራ	1	2	3	4	5
6 አይን አፋር	1	2	3	4	5
7 ለማደግ ወይም ለመብለጥ የሚጥር፣ የሚፎካከር	1	2	3	4	5
8 ማፍቀርን ማሳየት የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
9 ችሎታን ወይም ማንነትን ማሳየት የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
10 በከንቱ ማወደስ፣ መሸንግል የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
11 ሀይልን ወይም ጉልበትን መጠቀም	1	2	3	4	5
12 ታማኝ	1	2	3	4	5
13 ራስን መቻል	1	2	3	4	5
14 ሴታሴትነት ባህሪ ያለው	1	2	3	4	5
15 የመምራት ችሎታ ያለው /ያላት/	1	2	3	4	5
16 ለሌሎች ፍላጎት መጨነቅ	1	2	3	4	5
17 ችግሮችን ለመጋፈጥ ዝግጁ የሆነ	1	2	3	4	5
18 ተለሳልሶ መናገር የሚችል	1	2	3	4	5
19 በቀላሉ መወሰን የሚችል /የምትችል/	1	2	3	4	5
20 ርህራሄ	1	2	3	4	5
21 የበላይነትን የሚያሳይ	1	2	3	4	5
22 በሰው የማይጨክን	1	2	3	4	5
23 ወንድነት /ወንዳወንድነት/ ባህሪ ያለው /ያላት/	1	2	3	4	5
24 የሚያስቀይም ቃላት የማይጠቀም	1	2	3	4	5
25 ታላቅነትን ለማግኘት የሚጓጓ፣ የሚጥር	1	2	3	4	5
26 አዛኝ	1	2	3	4	5
27 ቁጡ	1	2	3	4	5
28 በሰዎች ሀሳብ በቀላሉ የሚነዳ /የምትነዳ/	1	2	3	4	5
29 ግላዊነት በሀሪ ያለው /ያላት/	1	2	3	4	5
30 ህፃናትን የሚወድ /የምትወድ/	1	2	3	4	5

በድጋሚ እጅግ በጣም አመሠግናለሁ።

Appendix C

The 60 items of Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI)

The choices (from the very left to the very right):

1	Not at all typical
2	Slightly typical
3	Somewhat typical
4	Moderately typical
5	Quite typical
6	Very typical
7	Extremely typical

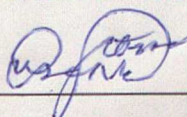
In our society, how typical is it for a man to be ...	Not at all typical				Extremely typical
1. ... self-reliant					
2. ... yielding					
3. ... helpful					
4. ... to defend his own beliefs					
5. ... cheerful					
6. ... moody					
7. ... independent					
8. ... shy					
9. ... conscientious					
10. ... athletic					
11. ... affectionate					
12. ... theatrical					
13. ... assertive					
14. ... flatterable					
15. ... happy					
16. ... to have a strong personality					
17. ... loyal					
18. ... unpredictable					
19. ... forceful					
20. ... feminine					
21. ... reliable					
22. ... analytical					
23. ... sympathetic					
24. ... jealous					
25. ... to have leadership abilities					
26. ... sensitive to the needs of others					

27. ... truthful						
28. ... willing to take risks						
29. ... understanding						
30. ... secretive						
31. ... to make decisions easily						
32. ... compassionate						
33. ... sincere						
34. ... self-sufficient						
35. ... eager to soothe hurt feelings						
36. ... conceited						
37. ... dominant						
38. ... soft-spoken						
39. ... likable						
40. ... masculine						
41. ... warm						
42. ... solemn						
43. ... willing to take a stand						
44. ... tender						
45. ... friendly						
46. ... aggressive						
47. ... gullible						
48. ... inefficient						
49. ... to act as a leader						
50. ... childlike						
51. ... adaptable						
52. ... individualistic						
53. ... to not use harsh language						
54. ... unsystematic						
55. ... competitive						
56. ... to love children						
57. ... tactful						
58. ... ambitious						
59. ... gentle						
60. ... conventional						

DECLARATION

I, the under signed, declare that this thesis is my work, and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been acknowledged.

Name: Weldesenbet Kassa

Signature:  _____

A. A. U. June, 2006.

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

Name: Teka Zewdie (Dr.)

Signature: _____

Date: _____

