



ANDROCENTRIC GENDER ROLE ORIENTATION OF MOTHERS AND ITS IMPACT ON FAMILY LIFE IN AN URBAN AREA OF BANGLADESH

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Abstract: The study mainly focused on the gender role orientation of mother in their early life and its impact on their family life. For this purpose, data were collected from 150 mothers of three distinct educational groups (Group1: Class I-V; Group 2: VI- SSC passed; Group 3: HSC passed and above), living in Khulna City Corporation of Bangladesh. Findings reveal that respondents' father had more significant role in household decisions (mean of Group-1; 19.60, Group-2; 19.48, and Group-3; 20) compared to respondents' mothers (mean of Group-1; 11.76, Group-2; 14.86, and Group-3; 15.72). Similar situation was observed between the respondents and their husbands in their family sphere. Consequently, low freedom was given to respondents' daughters to move outside or mobilize in social sphere compared to sons. Most of the mothers (Group-1; 84%, Group-2; 94%, and Group-3; 88%) expected their daughters to perform household chores after their marriage and they do the same (Group-1; 86%, Group-2; 94% and Group-3; 84%) from their daughter-in-laws. Findings also indicate that gender stereotypic socialization of mothers influenced their family life. Statistically significant correlation ($p < .000$) was found between the family decision making power of the respondents' mothers/fathers and the respondents/respondents' husbands. Likewise, it was explicit that with the educational variations of mothers, differences of response were found where the utmost educational group practiced somewhat better gender role anticipation compared to others.

Keywords: Mother, gender roles, socialization process, decision making power, freedom of movement

Introduction

Through the changes of society, culturally assembled socio-psychological learned behaviours and expectations associated with the two sexes is known as gender role (Jary and Jary, 2004). From the beginning of our life, we learn about the differences of men and women through different socialization inquiries. Different social agencies, like family, media and so on teach us about our expected gender roles (Giddens, 2006). Major theoretical approaches, such as, feminism, antifeminism, essentialism and sex role theory explain that the gender identity, a dynamic process, is constructed by the understandings of people in social relationships within family and society, and it is influenced by certain factors, *i.e.* social class, culture, ability, religion and so forth (AWE, 2010). The gender attributions and designations significantly depend on the mode of family socialization process, variation of places and the different forms of cultural practices.

Gender issues have been investigated in many domains, like workplace, marketplace, leisure activities, and schools and so on. But traditionally, the most basic form of gender construction is observed within the household, where the expectations for the fulfillment of various specialized household obligations are prominent (Gentry *et al.*, 2003). To process this socialization of gender,

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different roles of male and female are well-established in societies. Numerous societies perceive the same way of thinking about the differences of gender roles. Majority cultures of those societies value and reward male roles more often than those of the female (Giddens, 2006). Naturally, it is perceived that female is good in nurturing and teaching where male is considered the real bread winners. Thus, female is trained as wife to engage in home based nurturing and male is taught to be the outwards mobility based actor (Andersen, 1997).

As a human being and with different competitive capabilities, women should get similar evaluation from the culture and society compared to their men counterparts. Human rights also converse about the similar gender rights for both sexes in recent times (March *et al.*, 1999). Different segregations and stratified situations in household, in employment and in society at large are found among the two sexes and evidently women are the most vulnerable group compared to men (Marshall, 2002). Women are allotted less pleasant tasks, such as, always climb after male mountaineers, that definitely determine the limits and opportunities for women to chip into equal status with men (Sánchez, 2008). Root of these gender identifications and differences is found through the learning process of the family (Giddens, 2006). Thus, it is visible that family is the influential micro unit of the society from where this androcentric socialization of gender role is cultured. Associated to this socialization process, mothers are closely connected to their children. Gender-role stereotypic beliefs of mothers shape their children's ability, perceptions as well as differentiate their future expected roles within society. Mothers' perceptions about the sex of children have an important impact on the children's socio-psychological domain of stimulation (Jacobs and Eccles, 1992).

Studying approximately 1500 mothers and their 11 to 12 years children in urban areas, Jacobs and Eccles (1992) stated that mother strongly believes that one sex is better, which is son, therefore, favors his ability, as more efficient in math and more competitive in sports than daughter. Such stereotypic beliefs of mother subsequently affect the belief and behavior of the children, especially daughters, as they consider themselves inferior and submissive to their male-siblings in terms of intelligence, capacity, capability of doing math, participating in sports and so on. Patriarchal values of the society emphasize more on male, compared to female, in personal as well as in social circumstances (Alam, 2007). This patriarchal value oriented socialization process of gender roles creates an androcentric social structure, where female perspectives and contributions are neglected in the family as the mother experienced earlier in her childhood. Moreover, different male biased cultural ideas, embodied in different institutions, such as, family, school, religion and so on (Jary and Jary, 2004), subsequently result in women's low social mobility and low or no decisive roles within households. After entering into the family life, women are assigned to remain at home to function the traditional supportive roles, while men are responsible for outside tasks and to fulfill the instrumental family roles. The dynamic changes in family and economic life, triggered by industrialization and rapid urbanization, expected to shift in decisions and responsibilities of the family members (Gentry *et al.* 2003). In these perspectives, the main focus of this study is to find out the nature of androcentric gender role orientation of mothers and its impact on family life in an urban area of Bangladesh.

Methods and materials

The study was carried out following survey research design during November 2009 to February 2010. Mothers, with at least one brother, aged more than 20 years with two living children (one male child and one female child, aged 15 years or more) were selected as the unit of analysis from 5 distinct wards (No.1, 3, 10, 12 and 24) of Khulna City Corporation of Bangladesh. Respondents from three distinct educational group (*Group-1: Class I-V; Group-2: VI- SSC passed; Group-3: HSC passed and above*) were selected. A sample of 150 (*Confidence level 95%, confidence interval 6.6*) was selected randomly from a sampling frame, consisting of 453 census population conducted by the researchers (Survey System, 2010). Data were collected with regard to relevant

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variables through an interview schedule, containing both open and close ended items. Decision making process of the respondents' father, mother, husbands and the respondents themselves was measured on the basis of eight decision making related questions. Each question has four options, such as, 'High = 3', 'Medium = 2', 'Low = 1' and 'Not at All = 0'. The score of each respondent was cumulated and categorized roughly into low (<8), medium (9-16) and high (17>). The minimum score of each respondent was 0 and maximum was 24.

Results

Age structure: Among the respondents of Group-1, majority (34%) belonged to the group of 46-50 years of age, followed by 32 percent in the age group of 36-40 (Table 1). The average age of Group-1 was 44.94 years with the Standard Deviation of 6.08. Data of the Group-2 show that among the respondents, majority (38%) belonged to the group of 41-45 and 46-50 years of age respectively. Mean age of Group-2 was 45.94 years with the standard deviation of 5.08. Among the respondents of the Group-3, majority (40%) belonged to the group of 41-45 years of age and the mean age for the Group-3 was 44.84 years with the Standard Deviation of 5.71.

Table 1: Age structure of the respondents

	Age Levels (In Year)	Percent	Statistics
Group -1 (Class I-V)	36-40	32.0	Mean : 44.94 Years Std. Deviation: 6.08
	41-45	24.0	
	46-50	34.0	
	51-55	6.0	
	56-60	4.0	
	Total	100.0	
Group -2 (VI- SSC)	36-40	14.0	Mean : 45.94 Years Std. Deviation : 5.08
	41-45	38.0	
	46-50	38.0	
	51-55	4.0	
	56-60	4.0	
	Total	100.0	
Group -3 (HSC passed and above)	36-40	24.0	Mean : 44.84 Years Std. Deviation: 5.71
	41-45	40.0	
	46-50	28.0	
	51-55	2.0	
	56-60	6.0	
	Total	100.0	

Year of schooling: Table 2 signifies that 10.6 percent have the schooling of 1-4 years. Majority (42%) has the schooling of 9-12 years, while 32 percent of them have the schooling of 5-8 years and the rest 11.3 percent of them experienced 13-16 year of schooling. Mean years of schooling of the respondents was 8.71 with Standard Deviation of 4.26.

Table 2: Year of schooling of the respondents

Year of Schooling	Percent	Statistics
1-4	10.6	Mean : 8.71 Years Std. Deviation: 4.26
5-8	32.0	
9-12	42.0	
13-16	11.3	
Total	100.0	

Number of children: Table 3 depicts that among the respondents of the Group-1, majority (88%) had 2-4 children and only 4 percent had more than 7 children. Mean number of children of this group was 3.36 with the Standard Deviation of 1.50. Among the respondents of Group-2, only 4 percent had 5-7 children, while majority (96%) of them had 2-4 of children. Mean number of children of Group-2 was 2.92 with the Standard Deviation of 0.87. Data of the Group-3 expound that among the respondents of this group 36 percent had 3 children and 62 percent had 2 children. Here, the mean number of children of this group was 2.40 with the Standard Deviation of 0.53.

Table 3: Number of children of the respondents

	Number of Children	Percent	Statistics
Group -1	2-4	88.0	Mean : 3.36
	5-7	8.0	
	More than 7	4.0	Std. Deviation: 1.50
	Total	100.0	
Group -2	2-4	96.0	Mean: 2.92
	5-7	4.0	
	More than 7	0.0	Std. Deviation: 0.87
	Total	100.0	
Group -3	2	62.0	Mean : 2.40
	3	36.0	
	4	2.0	Std. Deviation: 0.53
	Total	100.0	

Playing with boys at the age of 15: Daughters are considered as submissive and nimble and are not allowed to play with boys. Findings indicate that (Table 4) majority of the respondents in all three education groups (94%, 92% and 96%, respectively) were not allowed to share or participate in games with boys. But, the interesting fact is that with the increase of level of education, together with ages of the respondents, the involvement of the respondents with their male peers decreased as much as 4 percent for Group-1 and Group-3 and 8 percent for Group-2.

Table 4: Respondents' playing with boys at the age of 15

Variable	Group -1		Group -2		Group -3	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Yes	3	6.0	4	8.0	2	4.0
No	47	94.0	46	92.0	48	96.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100.0

Early meal taking of respondents' mother: In society, where women/wives are considered as the tools of reproduction and amusement, they are not definitely allowed to eat before their husbands/male members. Table 5 reflects this predominant traditional practice among the mothers' of the respondents. Only 10 percent of the respondents, in Group-1, mentioned that their mothers were taking meal before their fathers did, which was only 4 percent in Group-2. However, one fifth of the respondents' mothers in Group-3 (20%), were more likely to eat before their husbands' do.

Table 5: Early meal taking of respondents' mothers

Variable	Group -1		Group -2		Group -3	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Yes	5	10.0	2	4.0	10	20.0
No	45	90.0	48	96.0	40	80.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0	50	100

Freedom of movement: Parents are not likely to allow their children to stay outside of home, particularly female children. Findings suggest that (Table 6) the respondents (100% in all three Groups), irrespective of their education, were not allowed to move out and move in at night, whereas their male siblings, to some extent, were allowed to leave the house and then chip in at night. Unlike the respondents, who were allowed to visit fair or festivals, a very few occasions (30%, 34% and 38%, respectively), their brothers were more often permitted to visit the fairs and festivals (86%, 84% and 68% in turn for Group-1, Group-2 and Group-3). The respondents, compared to their brothers, were less likely free to watch movie outside their home. Again, an insignificant percent of the respondents, especially in Group-2 (2%) and Group-3 (4%), were permitted to move outside alone, while their brothers were usually free to move alone outside their home. Though a marginal percent of the respondents, in Group-1 (14%) and Group-3 (4%), were allowed to travel long distance or stay outside home for night, majority were denied to have such privileges in their house, meanwhile, their brothers enjoyed such opportunities to a great extent.

Table 6: Freedom of movements of the respondents *

Groups		Levels of Freedom															
		Male Child							Female Child								
		Late night return at home	To move outside willingly at night	To move with boys freely	Visiting fair/festival	Watching cinema outside freely	To move outside alone	To travel long distance with friends for more than a single day	Staying outside home for night	Late night return at home	To move outside willingly at night	To move with boys freely	Visiting fair/festival	Watching cinema outside freely	To move outside alone	To travel long distance with friends for more than a single day	Staying outside home for night
Group 1	Yes	36%	36%	68%	86%	40%	60%	50%	14%	0%	0%	0%	30%	2%	0%	0%	14%
	No	64%	64%	32%	14%	60%	40%	50%	86%	100%	100%	100%	70%	98%	100%	100%	86%
Group 2	Yes	32%	36%	70%	84%	52%	72%	66%	18%	0%	0%	0%	34%	20%	2%	0%	0%
	No	68%	64%	30%	16%	48%	28%	34%	82%	100%	100%	100%	66%	80%	98%	100%	100%
Group 3	Yes	20%	18%	68%	76%	22%	46%	38%	16%	0%	0%	0%	38%	16%	4%	4%	0%
	No	80%	82%	32%	24%	78%	54%	62%	84%	100%	100%	100%	62%	84%	96%	96%	100%

*Multiple responses

Freedom of movement given to children by the respondents: The Respondents, as they were grown up by their parents, did not allow their children to stay outside of home, particularly female children. Findings suggest that (Table 7) all the respondents (in Group-1) did not allow their daughters (100%) to move out and move in at night, whereas their sons were allowed to leave the house and then chip in at night. The Respondents allowed their daughters to visit (46%) fair or

festivals, but not as much as their sons do (72%). The respondents literally did not allow their daughters to move alone (4%) outside either to watch movie (4%) or to travel long distance with friends for night, but permitted their sons to enjoy their lives by staying outside home for night (12%) to travel with friends (54%) or to watch movie (52%).

Table 7: Freedom of movement given to children*

		Levels of Freedom															
		Male Child								Female Child							
sdnoIG	Group	Late night return at home	To move outside willingly at night	To move with boys freely	Visiting fair/festival	Watching cinema outside freely	To move outside alone	To travel long distance with friends for more than a single day	Staying outside home for night	Late night return at home	To move outside willingly at night	To move with boys freely	Visiting fair/festival	Watching cinema outside freely	To move outside alone	To travel long distance with friends for more than a single day	Staying outside home for night
		Group 1	Yes	28%	18%	62%	72%	36%	52%	54%	12%	0%	0%	0%	46%	4%	4%
No	72%		82%	38%	28%	64%	48%	46%	88%	100%	100%	100%	54%	96%	96%	96%	100%
Group 2	Yes	22%	12%	68%	78%	24%	54%	38%	12%	4%	2%	6%	60%	10%	16%	8%	2%
	No	78%	88%	32%	22%	76%	46%	62%	88%	96%	98%	94%	40%	90%	84%	92%	98%
Group 3	Yes	30%	14%	74%	84%	42%	66%	62%	22%	8%	0%	4%	72%	20%	14%	10%	4%
	No	70%	86%	26%	16%	58%	34%	38%	78%	92%	100%	96%	28%	80%	86%	90%	96%

* Multiple responses

As the education of the respondents heightens, they were more likely become flexible with their children, especially with daughters. Depending on educational level, the respondents allowed them to move out (8%) and in home (2%) at night with boys (6%) and let them watch movie (16%) or to stay out at night (4%) or to travel long distances (10%) and visit fair or festivals (72%). Meanwhile, their sons were usually enjoying such opportunities to a great extent.

Playing kits of the respondents: From the very early age, children are cultured to take their future roles by imitating their family members or by playing with dolls/pistols (Mead, 1934). Findings suggest that (Table 8) majority of the respondents, at the age of 1-10 years, were more likely to play with dolls and cookeries, pretending to take care of children or to prepare foods. In the meantime, their brothers, at the same age group, were playing with toys, like pistols (44%), Marble (89%), Bi-cycle (64%), Cricket (63%) or Football (91), to become a police officer or footballer or cricketer or so on. At the age of 11-20 years, the respondents were playing games, including *Ludu* (81%), Badminton (92%), Hide and seek (81%), *Gollasut* (70%) and so on, that confined them within the boundary of their house, while their brothers were playing Cricket (62%), Football (93%), Carom (71%), Chess (55%), *Kabadi* (80%) and so many games that require strength or intelligence to deal with.

Table 8: Playing kits of the respondents*

Playing Kits		Respondents Playing Kits Comparison to Their Brothers			
		Respondents Brothers (N=150)		Respondents (N=150)	
		Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent
Age level 1-10	Pistol	66	44	6	4
	Dolls	12	8	143	95
	Cookeries	12	8	147	98
	Marble	133	89	6	4
	Bicycle	96	64	5	3
	Bat/Ball	95	63	8	5
	Football	136	91	8	5
Age level 11-20	Cricket	93	62	4	3
	Football	140	93	8	5
	Carom	106	71	50	33
	Ludu	66	44	121	81
	Chess	82	55	28	19
	Badminton	72	48	17	11
	Skipping	15	10	138	92
	Hide and Seek	23	15	121	81
	Volleyball	53	35	0	0
	Hadudu	120	80	2	1
Gollasut	54	36	105	70	

* Multiple responses

Playing kits of the respondents' children: Individuals develop and modify their sense of self by social interaction and discourse and tend to act according to their molded personality, shaped up by the society. Findings suggest that (Table 9) the respondents' daughters, at the age of 1-10 years, were playing with dolls (99%) and cookeries (96%). On the other hand, the respondents' sons were playing with Pistols (75%), Marble (66%), Bi-cycle (75%), Cricket (93%) and Football (94%) to be physically strong and competitive for future roles. The masculine toys, such as guns, trucks, adventure figures and so forth, provoke more physical and sometimes aggressive behavior among boys, whereas feminine type toys, like dolls, kitchen sets, and so on, stimulate the nurturance, soft and social caring role among girls within the family (Sánchez, 2005).

Table 9: Playing kits of the respondents' children*

Playing Kits		Playing Kits of the Respondents Children			
		Boys (N=150)		Girls (N=150)	
		Responses	Percent	Responses	Percent
Age level 1-10	Pistol	112	75	10	7
	Dolls	12	8	148	99
	Cookeries	11	7	144	96
	Marble	99	66	4	3
	Bicycle	113	75	10	7
	Bat/Ball	139	93	16	11
	Football	141	94	13	9

* Multiple responses

Attitudes towards daughters' participation in household chores: Table 10 identifies that different groups of respondents have different perception regarding their daughters to perform household chores after marriage. Among the respondents of Group-1, majority (84%) believed that daughters should perform the household chores as assigned by the society, while only 16 percent answered opposite to those. In Group-2, only 6 percent believed that daughter shouldn't involve in the assigned household chores as they did. Among the respondents of Group-3, most of them (88 percent) expected their daughters to involve in household chores after their marriage.

Table 10: Attitudes towards daughters' participation in household chores

Responses	Group- 1 (Percent)	Group- 2 (Percent)	Group- 3 (Percent)
Yes	84.0	94.0	88.0
No	16.0	6.0	12.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Attitudes towards daughter-in-laws' participation in household chores: Data of the Table 11 expound that the respondents replied differently regarding their expectations about their daughter-in-law's household responsibilities. Among the respondents of the Group-1, 86 percent expected their daughter-in-laws to perform household chores. In Group-2, 94 percent expected their daughter-in-laws to work at home. Similar trends also observed in Group-3 where majority (84%) expected their daughter-in-laws to perform household chores as they were doing for a long time.

Table 11: Attitudes towards daughter-in-laws' participation in household chores

Responses	Group- 1 (Percent)	Group- 2 (Percent)	Group- 3 (Percent)
Yes	86.0	94.0	84.0
No	14.0	6.0	16.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Participation in decision making process of the respondents' parents: Parents' decisions, especially fathers' decision making power, within family often influence the socialization process of the children. It is evident that (Table 12) the respondents' fathers were making mediocre household decisions (92%) in Group-1 and Group-2. Unlikely, a significant percent of the respondents' fathers (46%) were dominating household decisions by making all the crucial decisions within their respective households.

Table 12: Decision making power of the respondents' father

	Decision Making Power	Number	Percent	Statistics
Group -1	Low	3	6.0	Mean: 19.60 Std. Deviation : 2.619
	Medium	46	92.0	
	High	1	2.0	
	Total	50	100.0	
Group -2	Low	3	6.0	Mean: 19.48 Std. Deviation: 2.261
	Medium	46	92.0	
	High	1	2.0	
	Total	50	100.0	
Group -3	Low	2	4.0	Mean: 20.0 Std. Deviation: 2.195
	Medium	25	50.0	
	High	23	46.0	
	Total	50	100.0	

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Unlike fathers, mothers, in general, do not make decisions in family, because of their relatively subjugated status compared to fathers within family. Table 13 indicates that the respondents' mothers (80%) had low decision making power within family in the Group-1. In Contrast, 42 percent of the respondents' mothers, in Group-2 followed by 30 percent in Group-3 were making mediocre decisions.

Table 13: Decision making power of the respondents' mother

	Decision Making Power	Number	Percent	Statistics
Group -1	Low	40	80.0	Mean: 11.76 Std. Deviation: 4.897
	Medium	8	16.0	
	High	2	4.0	
	Total	50	100.0	
Group -2	Low	25	50.0	Mean: 14.86 Std. Deviation: 4.798
	Medium	21	42.0	
	High	4	8.0	
	Total	50	100.0	
Group -3	Low	26	52.0	Mean: 15.72 Std. Deviation: 4.22
	Medium	15	30.0	
	High	9	18.0	
	Total	50	100.0	

Decision making of the respondents' family: In family, male members are the chief decision makers. The data (Table 14) indicate that the respondents' husbands were no exception. In Group-1, most of the husbands were making mediocre (56%) as well as high decision (36%). Husbands dominating role in household decisions tend to decline as the respondents' level of education increased. In Group-2 and Group-3, only 16 percent and 20 percent of the respondents' husbands were taking the final decisions, respectively.

Table 14: Family decision making of the respondents' husband

	Family Decision Making	Number	Percent	Statistics
Group-1	Low	4	8.0	Mean:18.88 Std. Deviation:4.35
	Medium	28	56.0	
	High	18	36.0	
	Total	50	100.0	
Group-2	Low	11	22.0	Mean:17.24 Std. Deviation:4.62
	Medium	31	62.0	
	High	8	16.0	
	Total	50	100.0	
Group-3	Low	10	20.0	Mean:17.86 Std. Deviation:3.86
	Medium	30	60.0	
	High	10	20.0	
	Total	50	100.0	

As mentioned earlier in the Table 15, the educational status affect the decision making power of the respondents. In Group 1, only 3 percent of the respondents had decisive roles in household decisions. In Group-2 and Group-3, the respondents began to make crucial decisions within their families (26% and 40% respectively).

Table 15: Family decision making of the respondents

	Family Decision Making	Number	Percent	Statistics
Group-1	Low	29	58.0	Mean:13.66 Std. Deviation:4.75
	Medium	18	36.0	
	High	3	6.0	
	Total	50	100.0	
Group-2	Low	13	26.0	Mean:18.06 Std. Deviation:3.34
	Medium	24	48.0	
	High	13	26.0	
	Total	50	100.0	
Group-3	Low	7	14.0	Mean:19.24 Std. Deviation:2.89
	Medium	23	46.0	
	High	20	40.0	
	Total	50	100.0	

Relationship between respondents’ father and respondents’ husband’s family decision making:

Table 16 elucidates that the respondents’ fathers’ low decision making definitely affect their husbands participation in family decisions. Half of the respondents’ fathers (50%) were taking minimal decisions in the family. As the respondents’ fathers’ decision making progressed from low to mediocre, the change in their husbands’ decision making was visible as 64.1 percent were taking mediocre decisions within their households. And when the fathers’ of respondents’ decision making were elevated from mediocre to high, about three fourth of the respondents’ husbands (44% mediocre and 28% high) were partaking in greater decisions within the households. The findings, hence, indicate that the decisions of the respondents’ husbands are significantly associated with the nature of the respondents’ fathers’ in their parental house. Pearson’s Chi-square indicates a significant relationship between the decision making of the respondents’ father and their husbands.

Table 16: Family decision making power of the respondents’ father and family decision making power of their husbands

Family Decision Making Power of Father	Family Decision Making of Husband			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
Low	4 50.0%	3 37.5%	1 12.5%	8 100.0%
Medium	13 11.1%	75 64.1%	29 24.8%	117 100.0%
High	7 28.0%	11 44.0%	7 28.0%	25 100.0%
Total	24 16.0%	89 59.3%	37 24.7%	150 100.0%

Pearson’s chi-square = 12.453; Df=4; Sig. 0.05

Relationship between respondents’ mother and respondents’ family decision making: Table 17 represents that the low decision making power of the respondents’ mother was inevitably resulted in low decision making power of the respondents within their households (46.2%). Mothers, playing mediocre decision making role, resulted in increased mediocre decisions by the

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respondents (63.6%) and as the mothers were playing strong role in family decisions, their daughters were undoubtedly dominated the decisions of their households (53.3%). The discussion conclusively portrays that as the respondents' mothers' role in decision making were increased, so did the dominant role of the respondents (20.9% up to 53.3%), as they were following the footsteps of their mothers. Pearson's Chi-square indicates a significant association between the decision making power of mothers and their daughters in the household.

Table 17: Family decision making power of the respondent's mother and family decision making of the respondents

Family Decision Making of the Respondent's Mother	Family Decision Making of Respondents'			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
Low	42	30	19	91
	46.2%	33.0%	20.9%	100.0%
Medium	7	28	9	44
	15.9%	63.6%	20.5%	100.0%
High	0	7	8	15
	0.0%	46.7%	53.3%	100.0%
Total	49	65	36	150
	32.7%	43.3%	24.0%	100.0%

Pearson's chi-square = 26.208; Df=4; Sig. 0.01

Discussion

The study represents three groups of respondents, where most of them were above 40 years of age with a clear variation in the year of schooling. The findings suggest that female children are kept within the houses, not because to ensure security, but to confirm the traditional values which do not allow female children to enjoy freedom. This despotic attitude of patriarchal society subsequently affects the socialization of the children. Female children were kept within the houses by the respondents, as they were by their parents. The respondents supported their daughters to involve in household chores to prepare for future roles as in-laws and expected their daughter-in-laws to do the same. Besides, fathers were playing more dominant role in decision making process than did the mothers did. But, in highly educated family, mothers were playing a considerably important role in household decisions. The education of the respondents proved to be a crucial determinant of the transformative attitude of their parents. So, respondents can play the dominant role as their husbands do, if they had greater years of schooling or higher education. Findings reveal that the decisions of the respondents' husbands were significantly associated with the nature of the respondents' fathers in their houses. Significant association were also found between the decision making power of mothers and their daughters in the household. Thus, it is proved that the respondents are socialized by their parents to be nimble, soft, emotional, and dependent to play the expressive roles, devised by the society and they execute the same socialization process to model the stereotypic gender roles for their children.

Conclusion

Socialization is a process which starts from the very moment of birth and it is anticipated from generation to generation through the cultural practices. As a continuing process, socialization of male and female advances with the practice of different social responses, preferred activities, dressing, linguistic communication and so on from the very beginning of their lives, such as, the dressing and playing fragmentation between male and female began at early childhood. The family plays the most crucial role to model stereotypic gender orientation of children for the long

run. Difference of decision making process between mother and father appears to the children as usual task which motivates them to continue with same decision making preferences later on their own lives. Moreover, the practice of male biased gender role, anticipated by family and society, establishes the boys as the 'strong', while the girls are admired to their "sweetness". All these associated factors shape the mind of the children to discover themselves differently, not only in their physical entity but also in their social recognitions. Interestingly, female child is grown up with this gendered ideology, practice of male domination, and when she becomes mother, she also holds the biased gender roles as a learned behavior. So, the same gender roles are disseminated to the male and female where the cultural bias is given to the male. Though a few numbers of variations are found with the educational attainment of female, the androcentric gender role circulation is processed from one generation to another through diverse social practices.

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