CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION

8.1 INDULGENCE IN EVE TEASING BY MALES

The results indicate that the most frequent form of eve teasing, which the boys indulged in was unwanted attention seeking with a mean of 0.78 and standard deviation of 0.70. The least frequent form being severe eve teasing with the mean of 0.35 and standard deviation of 0.64, which included such behaviours as touching, pinching, pushing, etc. The mean and standard deviation of males on mild eve teasing were 0.74 and 0.71 respectively.

These results are in line with results of the study by the U.S. Merit System Protection Board (U.S. MSPB, 1988). According to this study, conducted on 8,523 federal male and female employees, the most frequently experienced type of sexual harassment was the "uninvited sexual attention" that includes unwanted sexual teasing, jokes, remarks, or questions. The least frequently experienced type of harassment was -- "actual or attempted rape or assault" – also arguably the most severe.

8.2 EXPERIENCE OF EVE TEASING BY FEMALES

The extent and intensity of various forms of eve teasing experienced by girls was analysed by computing means and standard deviations on the three sub-scales of the Experience of Eve Teasing Questionnaire (EETQ).
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The results reveal that the most frequently experienced form of eve teasing was mild eve teasing with a mean score of 1.47 and standard deviation of 0.67. Mild eve teasing included such behaviours as whistling, winking, receiving blank/crank phone calls, anonymous love letters/cards, chasing and following by boys, etc. The least frequent form of eve teasing was the severe eve teasing, with a mean score of 0.61 and standard deviation of 0.53. This included touching, pinching, exhibitionism, obscene gestures, etc. Attention seeking behaviour had a mean score of 1.20 and a standard deviation of 0.65.

These findings are consistent with some of the previous findings, which reported sexual coercion to be the least frequent, gender harassment as the most frequent, and unwanted sexual attention in the middle (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Terpstra & Baker, 1986; 1987).

The incidence of the three forms of eve teasing could be linked with the element of risk involved with each. It is obvious that risk of retaliation by the victim increases as the eve teasing moves from milder to severe forms.

It is interesting to note that the frequency of indulgence in eve teasing to which the males admitted was much less than that reportedly experienced by females. Hence the hypothesis that females’ experience of eve teasing is more than males’ admission to indulgence in eve teasing (H1) has been confirmed.

It might be noted here however that the scores of the males and females on IETQ and EETQ are not really comparable, as the females in the sample may not have experienced eve teasing by the same males who have been included in the sample for the present study. Moreover, the males may not have been truthful in admitting to the offence due to social desirability factor. Also, as reported in several studies, the perceptions of males and females are quite different with regard to the behaviours included in sexual harassment (Benson & Thomson, 1982; Gutek, 1985; Gutek et al., 1980;
Mohan & Priyadarshini, 1996; Popovich et al., 1986; 1992; Pryor & Day, 1988; Tata, 1993; Thacker & Gohmann, 1996; 1983; Terpstra & Baker, 1988). All these studies have reported that gender differences existed in perceptions of sexual harassment, regardless of the form of sexual harassment or the consequences of such behaviour, and women in general perceive more types of behaviours as sexual harassment than men do.

8.3 PERCEPTION OF FEMININE WORTH

It was hypothesised in the present study that females as compared to males would have a higher perception of feminine worth. For this purpose, t-ratios were computed to see whether or not there were significant gender differences in the perception of feminine worth, as measured by ATWS and its sub-scales.

The results show that there are significant differences in the scores of males and females on all sub-scales of ATWS, as well as in their total scores on ATWS. Gender differences on all but one sub-scale of ATWS are significant at .01 level. Males and females were found to differ significantly at .05 level on the sub-scale pertaining to the beliefs about the equality of males and females in their relationships to social groups and individuals, their behaviour in various social situations, and the use of language. In all the subscales of ATWS, scores of females were found to be higher than that of males indicating that females have a better perception of feminine worth than males. Hence the hypothesis that female’s perception of feminine worth is better than that of males (H2) has been substantiated. The gender differences in all the ten subscales of ATWS are discussed below.

Son Preference:

This sub-scale pertained to the beliefs about the importance of having a son in the family. There was a significant difference in the mean scores of
males and females on this sub-scale \((t = 10.98; p < .01)\), with females giving less importance to having a son in the family.

Hoffman (1977) has reported that although parents want to have children of both sexes, boys are still preferred more frequently than girls, especially by fathers. Contemporary studies from different parts of India indicate that the traditional preference for sons is very much prevalent (Aggarwal, 1971; Jacobson, 1970; Miller, 1997; Sen, 1990; UNICEF, 1997; Wadley, 1975). Due to this cultural devaluation, women develop a feeling of worthlessness and inferiority (Cormack, 1961; Kakar, 1981).

According to 2001 census, sex ratio in the country is 933 as against global sex ratio of 986. Sex ratio is an important indicator to measure the extent of prevailing equity between males and females in the society. Sex ratio in India has always remained unfavourable to females. Barring some exceptions, it has shown a long term declining trend. Sex ratio of 933 is a welcome improvement from the 1991 census, which had recorded 927 females for every 1000 males.

Mohan et al. (1998) and Mohan and Bali (1996) also found significant gender differences in the attitudes toward birth of a girl child, with females being more supportive than males. Chaudhary (1988) found similar results in her study on young women who strongly supported the birth of female children.

Parikh (1991) in a study of 30 educated pregnant women who had decided for abortion to avoid having a female child, found that the factors which led to their taking this decision were male dominated society, blind faith in religion, pressure from husband and in-laws, averting the same fate for their daughters and financial constraints. These women felt that it was better to abort the female foetus than to spend lakhs of money on their rearing and dowry.
Malhi, Jerath, and Puri (1991) pointed out that the low access of the women, particularly in the Northern states, to valued resources such as education and employment, and their low autonomy and decision-making power, have contributed to a large extent in the valuing of daughters vis-à-vis sons. This differential evaluation is translated into clear-cut differences in mortality rate of the two sexes.

Contrary to popular belief that it is the women who are responsible for the discrimination and biases against their own sex, the results of the present study reveal otherwise. One explanation for the present female sample according less importance to having a son in a family is that it comprises all unmarried girls who have yet to face the reality and pressures from the society.

**Child Rearing:**

This sub-scale of ATWS pertained to the beliefs towards equality in the rearing of son and daughter, and the responsibility of mother vis-à-vis the father in childcare. A significant mean difference was obtained (t = 14.39; p < .01) for the two genders, with females being more egalitarian than males in regard to the beliefs in rearing of sons and daughters.

The obtained results are in line with a large number of previous findings (Beere et al., 1984; Ashmore et al., 1995; Hoffman & Kloska, 1995; Gowan & Trevino, 1998). Sex discrimination by parents in favour of males also occurs in feeding, dispensation of medical care, and allocation of love and warmth (Miller, 1997).

Research has shown that attitudinal differences between males and females increase with age and may result from pressures to conform to traditional gender role expectations (Massad, 1981). Male adolescents are particularly susceptible to this pressure because a critical element in their self-development is the need to display traditionally masculine attitudes and behaviours (Galambos et al., 1990).
Some researchers have argued that the gender differences in attitudes are not because of the innate biological differences in the two sexes, but because of the differential rearing of the two (Lott, 1990; Ehrensaft, 1990; Hare-Mustin & Marecek, 1990).

An interesting trend has been seen to emerge in some of the recent studies measuring the attitudes of people towards issues relating to women. While the attitude of women is changing towards more egalitarianism between males and females, the attitude of men is showing a retrogressive trend (Mohan et al., 1991). Fisher-Thompson (1990) found that males sex-typed toys to a greater extent than did females.

Perhaps more resistance to change in males is due to the fact that in patriarchal societies, men have been enjoying higher status, authority and power vis-à-vis females. So they have a vested interest in maintaining the status quo. On the other hand, it is in the interest of women to reject the traditional sex roles – a reaction to the age-old exploitation by men. This explains the gap in the pace with which men and women are changing. As more and more women join the workforce, they logically expect their spouses to share responsibility of child rearing.

**Education:**

This sub-scale pertained to the beliefs about the equality of males and females in receiving education. Again, a significant mean difference was found in the scores of males and females on this scale ($t = 12.08; p < .01$). This indicates that females were more favourable to the issue of women’s education than were males.

The present results lend support to some of the earlier findings (Beere et al., 1984; Mohan & Bali, 1996; Mohan et al., 1998).

In terms of academic performance, girls fare better than boys in primary school and the early stages of secondary education (Giddens, 1989).
Thereafter, they tend to fall behind, and are disproportionately represented in some subject areas rather than others. Science, engineering and medicine at college and university level are still dominated by male students. The later poorer performance of girls and the disproportionate representation in some subject areas could be because of the inculcation of traditional attitudes in both males and females, which give less importance to the education of women. Traditionally, education of girls was considered to be a futile exercise as the ultimate goal used to be marriage of the girl and her role of homemaker. Higher education of the girl was considered a threat to her prospects of marriage and adjustment after marriage. Although over the decades, there has been enormous change in the thinking but still we are not totally out of shackles of patriarchy. This is more pertinent in case of males.

Literacy and education are reasonably good indicators of development in a society. Spread of literacy is generally associated with modernisation. According to the 2001 census, the literacy rate for males is 75.85% while that for females is 54.16%, thus showing a gap in male-female literacy rates of 21.70 percentage points, which however is an improvement over the 1991 census results. This improvement in bridging of the male female literacy rates is an indicator of the changing attitudes of people towards the need for educating women.

**Interpersonal and Social:**

This sub-scale measured the beliefs about the equality of males and females in their relationships to social groups and individuals, their behaviour in various social situations, and the use of language. A significant mean difference between the scores of males and females on this subscale was found (t = 1.77; p < .01) with females endorsing more egalitarian beliefs with respect to the male-female relationship.
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Previous research findings regarding the equality of men and women in their social and sexual relations have been inconsistent. Sheeran et al. (1996) did not find any gender differences in endorsement of the double standards. Results of some other researches have shown that different standards still operate for men and women (Spears et al., 1991; Sprecher et al., 1987).

de Klerk (1990, 1992) investigated gender differences in slang knowledge and its use and demonstrated that boys and girls did not differ significantly in the extent of their slang vocabulary. However, both sexes believed that the use of slang was more appropriate for males than females. Grossman and Tucker (1997) found no gender differences in the use of slang. Their results also suggested that gender differences in the knowledge and use of slang terms were narrowing down with time. Lack of gender differences in the use of obscene and gender-related slang may be reflective of the acceptance of changes in female roles in society.

Oliver and Hyde (1993) found that women were more likely to endorse the double standard than men. Oliver and Hyde reviewed seven studies of double standards and noted that the magnitude of gender differences with regard to double standards have reduced between the years 1966 and 1977. There is greater acceptance of the society in the recent years regarding equality of sexes with respect to social and interpersonal relationship. One can therefore anticipate that the gap must be further reduced over the years.

**Sexual Harassment:**

This sub-scale pertained to beliefs about the attribution of blame to women in instances of sexual harassment of women. A significant mean difference was found between the scores of males and females on this scale (t = 11.74; p < .01). A glance at the means indicates that females attributed less blame on the victim than the males.
Valentine-French and Radtke (1989) reported that male subjects attributed less responsibility to the perpetrator in sexual harassment, as compared to female subjects. Some other researchers have reported similar results (Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Deitz et al., 1984; Jensen & Gutek, 1982; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Luginbuhl & Mullin, 1981).

In a male dominated society, female is often held responsible for provoking sexually harassing behaviour towards her. There is a tendency to blame the innocent victims for their undeserved fate as a means of maintaining one’s belief that the world is fair and just (Lerner, 1965; Lerner & Mathews, 1967; Lerner & Simmons, 1966). Whenever there is an incident of eve teasing, people tend to justify the offender’s behaviour instead of condemning it. The people often blame the victim for her own suffering. This attitude of the people discourages the victims from reporting the matter to the appropriate authorities, because, for her, her reputation is at stake. This in turn encourages the perpetrators of this crime to indulge in it all the more. It is this fear of being blamed, which silences many women suffering sexual harassment. This may be the reason why a large number of cases go unreported. Adding to the females’ agony is the guilt feeling she carries along and a drop in her self-esteem and confidence. Ironically enough, this kind of blaming-the-victim-psychology or just world argument is not so rampant in other types of crime, i.e., burglary, murders, etc.

Marriage:

This sub-scale of ATWS pertained to the beliefs about the equality of husbands and wives regarding various aspects of their relationships to each other and the maintenance of their married life. A significant mean difference between the scores of males and females was found on this sub-scale ($t = 13.50; p < .01$). This indicates that females endorse more egalitarian or more liberal attitudes with regard to the marital roles of women.
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These results are in accordance with many of the earlier findings (Ashmore et al., 1995; Beere et al., 1984; Hoffman & Kloska, 1995; Mohan & Bali, 1996; Mohan et al., 1998). In all these studies, females have been found to be more liberal than males in their attitudes toward marital roles of men and women.

With women stepping out of the home boundary for work, they have become more liberal and assertive. They look for an egalitarian role in economic as well as social responsibilities of the family. They actively participate in all marital decisions like negotiations for marriage and adjustment in marriage. Men, while expecting the woman to share economic and social responsibilities, also expect a traditional bound role of woman in a marriage.

**Dowry:**

This sub-scale of ATWS pertained to the beliefs of giving dowry to the girl at the time of her marriage. Significant gender differences were found on the scores of this scale (t = 6.09; p < .01). Females were found to be less supportive of this custom than were males.

Vaz and Kanekar (1990) examined predictions and recommendations of 360 university students in India regarding a woman’s behaviour in the dowry predicaments. Female subjects gave a stronger recommendation against marrying under the dowry condition than did male subjects.

Leslie (1996) asked people as to who was to be blamed for dowry. According to him, 83% of the women respondents criticised the system of dowry, while men said that women were responsible for it.

Mohan et al. (1998) did not find any gender differences on the issue of dowry. However, they found gender differences regarding the attribution of relative importance to the issue of dowry vis-à-vis other issues.
concerning women. Males in comparison to females were found to view dowry as a more important issue relating to women’s emancipation.

The results of Krishnaswamy’s study (1995) refute the myth that increased education, income and employment of women can turn these women against dowry system at least in their attitude.

These inconsistent results may be because of some degree of social desirability factor. The attitude that one holds has the cognitive, affective, conative components. It is the cognitive element of the attitude that is measured through most of the attitude scales including the present one. The major limitation in all studies on attitudes is that they are based on self-report. Anderson (1981) described the major problem in measuring attitude through these self-reporting instruments as being that the subjects may provide misinformation because of social desirability and acquiescence. Social desirability means that people respond to a question/statement/adjective in ways that they believe to be socially acceptable rather than in a way consistent with their true beliefs and feelings. Acquiescence refers to the tendency of a person to agree with a statement when he or she is unsure or ambivalent.

The conative and affective elements are difficult to measure. Thus, a certain amount of social desirability can come in the responses. There has been considerable dispute among specialists as to the degree of correspondence between the assessment of people’s attitudes using these scales and the ways in which they actually behave in real-world circumstances. There are a large number of studies highlighting the inconsistency between attitudes and behaviour (Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Anderson, 1981; Brehm & Kessin, 1994; Fishbein, 1975;).

And this gap is explained by factors like competing motives, social pressures and other unforeseen factors.
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**Wife Beating:**

This scale pertained to the beliefs about husbands beating their wives. Again, a significant gender difference was found on the scores of this sub-scale ($t = 6.88; p < .01$). The result suggested that males were more supportive of husbands beating their wives.

Legal and cultural traditions the world over have historically granted men permission to beat their wives or even kill them in certain circumstances. Blackstone (cf. Saxena, 1995) has stated that the husband is empowered to correct his wife in the same moderation as a man is allowed to correct his apprentice or children. His approval limited a man's right to chastise his wife with a stick no thicker in circumference than his thumb, so his right came to be known in popular parlance as the 'rule of the thumb'.

Several western and eastern cultural sayings in context to wife beating are still prevalent.

- "Wives and rugs should be beaten regularly'.
- "Women should be struck regularly, like gongs".
- "The horse that I bought and the woman I married shall ride when I wish; shall beat when I wish".

The wife's position in India is no different. According to Manu, a wife should be considered of no more importance than a chattel of her husband. Ancient Hindu Law permitted a husband to correct his wife by beating her with a rope or split bamboo ensuring that no bones broke. Such sayings and writings do legitimize wife beating. It is directly linked with the inferior status and economic dependence of women in the society.

This attitude seems to have undergone change in recent years, but all the same, the brutality of man in behaving harshly with his wife, for no fault of hers, is still not very uncommon. For a man, beating his wife is a private privilege of marriage without any fear of reprimand. For a woman
battering by a husband is regarded like a concomitant of marriage. The abuse of women is effectively condoned in most of the societies. WHO (2000) reported that at least one in five of the world’s female population has been physically or sexually abused by a man or men at some time in their life. In a study on Indian men aged 15-65, 18-45% of the respondents acknowledged physical abuse of their wives (cited in WHO Report, 2000). Just as nations are expected to avoid interfering in the internal affairs of other nations, friends, neighbours, and relatives are reluctant to intervene in domestic conflicts.

The results of the present study are in line with the study by Kristiansen and Giulietti (1990). They reported gender differences in the attitudes toward women battering. Males with more traditional attitudes toward women also blamed the victim of wife beating more than the perpetrator, and their belief in a just world tended to be stronger than the men with less traditional attitudes. A belief in a just world implies a notion that whatever happens in an individual’s life, he/she deserves it.

Vaz and Kanekar (1990) examined predictions and recommendations of 360 university students in India regarding a woman’s behaviour in the wife beating predicaments. Female subjects gave a stronger recommendation in favour of leaving the husband than did male subjects.

A survey of violence against women in India revealed that in almost 94 per cent of the cases the victim and the offender were members of the same family; in 90 per cent of these cases the wife was the victim of the husband. Furthermore, nine out of ten murders of women were incidents of husbands killing their wives.

**Employment:**

This sub-scale covered beliefs about equality of men and women with regard to the issue of paid employment. A significant gender difference was obtained on the scores on this sub-scale ($t = 15.01; p < .01$). The
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results revealed that females were more in favour of employment of women than men.

Similar results have been obtained by some earlier researchers (Ashmore et al., 1995; Beere et al., 1984; Dwivedi, 2001; Frieze et al., 1990; Gowan & Trevino, 1998; Leong & Hayes, 1990; Mohan et al., 1998; Palmer & Lee, 1990; Ridgeway, 2001;) also found significant gender differences, with males being more supportive of differential work roles for males and females.

Stereotypes of working women are that they work for a pocket money or to meet other women, gossip and have a lack of commitment. The work of a woman is usually considered secondary compared to men. Studies in the United States, Germany, the United Kingdom, China and Japan, reveal that men are perceived to be more qualified as managers than women are, especially by men (Schein, 2001). There have been many investigations in organisational psychology that attest to the fact that unless the quality of the work product is incontrovertible, women’s accomplishments are undervalued as compared to those of men (Heilman, 1983; 1995; and Nieva & Gutek, 1980). In work settings, the same behaviour from a man and a woman, draws different implications. A frequent phone conversation is seen as slacking off for a woman but productive for a man. Similarly, waiting to make a decision rather than acting immediately may seem indecisive coming from a woman but productive coming from a man. On average, women are paid 30-40% less than men for comparable work (WHO, 2000). The concept of glass ceiling has been acknowledged as an invisible but powerful barrier that allows women to advance only to a certain level. As a consequence of biases against women, people devalue the work of female employees. Though now this attitude is changing, it will take a long time till the work of a woman is given importance equal to that of a man's.
**Political:**

This sub-scale of ATWS pertained to the beliefs about the equality of men and women with respect to their participation in politics. The mean difference between the scores of males and females was found to be significant ($t = 14.13; p < .01$). Females were found to be more supportive to the issue of participation of women in politics.

Previous research findings which lend support to the present findings include those by Ashmore *et al.*, 1995; Ellis & Bentler, 1973; McEwen, 1990; Yoder, 2001. Because social status and power are confounded with gender, the playing field is tilted for women leaders before they even begin to act as leaders. Gender differences in influence and leadership occur because people presume that men are more competent and legitimate as leaders than women are. These beliefs foster hierarchical patterns of social interaction through which men exert more influence and exercise more leadership.

It is possible that the individuals who adhere to a traditional gender role ideology perceive exaggerated personality differences between the sexes as justification for their beliefs.) report that those who are more traditional in their gender role attitudes tend to be more conservative in their general political outlook too. One plausible explanation for this could be that those who adhere and justify traditional sex roles would find a clash between the woman as homemakers and women as political leaders as both roles require different skills. People endorsing traditional attitudes would tend to think that one role would be assumed at the cost of the other.

In history only 42 women have ever served as presidents or prime ministers, and 25 of these have come to office in 1990s. Although women’s status has risen substantially in the 20th century in many societies, women’s subordination remains apparent in their lack of access to positions of power.
The idea that women hold high political positions and the suspicion that they might exercise power somewhat differently than men no longer seems as alarming to the people as in the past. People are receptive to the idea that different might be better or at least not worse. In a Gallup Poll in the United States, 57% respondents indicated that their country would be governed better if more women were in political office. Research on leadership has very favourable implications for women’s increasing representation in the ranks of leaders.

ATWS:

The total scores on ATWS indicated the overall perception of feminine worth. A significant mean difference was found between the scores of males and females on their total scores on ATWS (t = 15.62; p < .01). It was seen that the overall perception of feminine worth by girls was higher than that of boys.

A plethora of research studies have shown that women’s attitudes toward women are less traditional than men’s (e.g., Albright & Chang, 1976; Beere et al., 1984; Fine-Davis, 1989; Gowan & Trevino, 1998; King & King, 1990; Lottes & Kuriloff, 1992; Mason & Lu, 1988; McKinney, 1987; Parker & Chusmir, 1990; Spence & Helmreich, 1972). This belies the very frequent accusation that women are their own enemies.

The preceding discussion clearly points out that women have a better perception of feminine worth than that of males.

8.3.1 Males’ Perception of feminine Worth as a function of demographic variables.

a. Family Income

A significant positive correlation (r = 0.31; p < .01) between family income and the scores of boys on ATWS was found, implying that boys coming from homes with high income were more likely to endorse non-
traditional attitude toward women in general. Hence, the hypothesis that the perception of feminine worth is positively correlated with the individual’s family income (H₃) has been confirmed in case of males. The results of the regression analysis have further confirmed this hypothesis.

b. **Type of School**

A significant positive correlation (r = 0.26; p < .01) was also found between the type of school that the males attended and their ATWS scores. This indicates that males who had attended co-ed schools were more likely to hold a positive attitude toward women. Hence, the hypothesis that individuals who have studied in coeducational schools have a better perception of feminine worth than those who have studied in segregated schools (H₇) has been substantiated. This is further strengthened by the results of the regression analysis which reveals that an additional 4% of the variance in the ATWS scores of males has been contributed by the type of school that they attended.

c. **Mother’s education**

A significant positive correlation between scores of males on ATWS and mother’s educational level (r = 0.32; p < .01) was found. This implies that higher the level of education of parents better is the perception of feminine worth. Thus, the results confirm the hypothesis that the individual’s perception of feminine worth is positively correlated with the mother’s educational level. Regression analysis further strengthens this relationship as 3% of the variance in the ATWS scores of males has been contributed by their mother’s educational level.

d. **Father’s education**

A significant positive correlation was found between scores of males on ATWS and father’s educational level (r = 0.24; p < .01). However, father’s educational level was not found to be contributing significantly towards
the males’ perception of feminine worth in the regression analysis. This may be due to the fact that there is high level of multicollinearity amongst the demographic variables which have been entered as independent variables in the regression analysis.

e. Gender of the sibling

A significant negative correlation ($r = -0.19; p < .01$) was found between having a brother and ATWS scores of males. The relationship between having a sister and ATWS was not significant. Regression analysis results also indicated the same. This suggests that having a male sibling strengthened the traditional thinking in the boys. Having a female sibling did not contribute significantly to the ATWS scores of males. In case of males, the hypothesis that perception of feminine worth of individuals having cross-gender siblings is better than that of those having same-gender sibling ($H_4$) has not been substantiated.

f. Mother’s employment status

A significant positive correlation ($r = 0.16; p < .01$) between mother’s employment status and scores of males on ATWS was found. This indicates that males having working mothers have a better perception of feminine worth than those having non-working mothers. Thus, in case of males, the hypothesis that perception of feminine worth of individuals having working mothers is better than those having non-working mothers is confirmed. However, in the regression analysis this variable failed to contribute significantly to the males’ scores on ATWS because of the high multicollinearity amongst the predictors entered in the regression equation.

g. Type of family

The relationship between type of family and males’ scores on ATWS was not found to be statistically significant. Thus, the hypothesis that
perception of feminine worth of individuals from nuclear family would be better than that of individuals from joint family was not confirmed.

8.3.2 Females’ Perception of Feminine Worth as a function of Demographic variables.

a. Family income

A positive correlation was found between family income of females and their scores on ATWS. Girls belonging to high-income families were found to hold more egalitarian views regarding various women issues. Family income accounted for additional 2% of the variance in the scores of females on ATWS further confirming the hypothesis that perception of feminine worth is positively correlated to the individual’s family income (H3).

b. Type of school

The type of school attended by females and the type of family that they belonged were not found to have a significant relationship with the girls’ scores on ATWS. Thus, the hypothesis that individuals who have studied in coeducational schools have a better perception of feminine worth than those who have studied in segregated schools failed to be confirmed for females in the present study.

c. Mother’s education

A significant positive correlation \( r = 0.23; \ p < .01 \) was found between mother’s education level and females’ scores on ATWS. The level of mother’s education accounted for 5% of the variance in the ATWS scores of girls, suggesting that higher the level of education of mothers, more egalitarian the attitude of the females towards various women issues. Thus, the hypothesis that individual’s perception of feminine worth is positively correlated with the mother’s education level \( (H_5) \) is confirmed for females.
d. Father's education

A positive correlation was also found between father's education level and females' scores on ATWS. The regression analysis also revealed that level of father's education explained an additional 1% of the variation in ATWS scores of girls. Hence, the hypothesis that individual's perception of feminine worth is positively correlated with the father's education level (H₆) is confirmed for females.

e. Gender of the sibling

A negative correlation was found between the presence of brother and the scores of females on ATWS. Having a male sibling accounted for additional 2% of the variance in the scores of females on ATWS. The presence of the male sibling contributed significantly to the endorsement of traditional attitude towards women issues by girls. Presence of sister did not have any significant effect on the scores of females on ATWS. Thus, the hypothesis that perception of feminine worth of individuals having cross-gender sibling(s) would be better than those having same-gender sibling(s) (H₄) failed to be substantiated. In fact, the obtained results were opposite to the predicted direction.

f. Mother’s employment status

Mother’s employment status explained an additional 1% of variance in ATWS scores of females. There was a positive correlation (r = 0.17; p < .01) between the working status of mothers and the scores of females on ATWS implying that the girls having employed mothers had a better perception of feminine worth than those having non-employed mothers. Thus, the hypothesis that perception of feminine worth of individuals having employed mothers would be better than those having non-employed mothers (H₇) was substantiated in case of females.
g. **Type of Family**

The relationship between type of family and males' scores on ATWS was not found to be statistically significant. Thus, the hypothesis that perception of feminine worth of individuals from nuclear families would be better than that of individuals from joint families ($H_0$), failed to be confirmed for females in the present study.

8.4 **FEMININE WORTH AND EVE TEASING**

8.4.1 **Feminine Worth and the Indulgence of males in Eve Teasing.**

The results showed that coefficients of correlation between the various sub scales of ATWS [except for the sub scale pertaining to the interpersonal and social beliefs (S)] and the sub scales of IETQ are highly significant ($p < .01$). The statistically significant coefficients of correlation ranged from $-0.14$ to $-0.44$. The correlation between sub scale on interpersonal and social beliefs and all the other sub scales of IETQ were found to be statistically insignificant.

The hypothesis that males with traditional attitude toward women indulge in eve teasing more than the males with liberal attitude towards women is supported by the results. Earlier studies have revealed that people with more traditional gender-role orientations have higher acceptance of physical sexual coercion (Coller & Resick, 1987; Davis & Lee, 1996; Driscoll *et al.*, 1998; Foulis and McCabe, 1997; Gerett-Gooding & Senter, 1987; Lackie & de Man, 1997; Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987; Koss & Oros, 1982; Morrison *et al.*, 1997; Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987; Pryor, 1987; Pryor *et al.*, 1995; Siegelman *et al.*, 1984).

The views held by men do not recognise their behaviour as harassment but as normal, justifiable and perhaps inherent in men. Briere *et al.* (1985) opine that those who endorse such traditional attitudes toward women may perpetuate and reinforce violence against women. Such individuals often regard sexual harassment as normative, rather than an anomalous
component of interaction between men and women. Boys who indulge in such behaviour may consider it the responsibility of the girls to control the sexuality of the boys.

Males with a traditional gender role ideology are less likely to realise the feminine worth. They would indulge in sexually harassing behaviour to assert their dominance over women. Some men view women as a commodity, which can be exploited without any serious consequences. Males with traditional gender role orientation are likely to view females as weaker sex, submissive, and vulnerable. They might not anticipate any retaliation from women when they indulge in acts of harassment.

Pryor’s (1992) person-environment interaction model provides explanation for the behaviour of males indulging in eve teasing. According to this model, the interaction of the situational and personal factors can be used to explain the behaviour of men who harass sexually. The situational factors include the norms of the culture, acceptance of such behaviour in the family of the perpetrators, lack of social support for the victim, lenient and condoning attitude of the various law enforcing agencies towards the crime, and high probability of getting away with the crime. The personal characters, which Pryor has designated as “proclivities”, are the tendencies in some males, which make them more likely to indulge in harassing behaviours. If the boys with proclivities to indulge in eve teasing are placed in a social situation that is conducive to such behaviour, it is most likely to occur. In India, the offenders of eve teasing are generally not booked. Even if they are, they generally get away with the crime after a warning. Girls in India are usually trained to ignore or curtail moving out without an escort.

The law enforcing authorities do not take this crime seriously and let go the offender(s). Some of the high profiled offenders who have come to light in the recent past have also been let off. These cases are usually
hushed up. Such an environment is conducive to crime and condones such behaviour.

The experience of sexual harassment degrades and humiliates the victim and diminishes the victim’s value as a productive human being in the perception of the perpetrator. The perpetrator enhances his personal image of relative power and efficacy because his actions have the effect of diminishing the worth of another person (and possibly, of an entire class of people) in the mind of the perpetrator. It further encourages the perpetrator to indulge more in such behaviour because it gives him a sense of power. The harassing behaviour of the perpetrator may be an attempt to overcome his own inferiority. The perpetrator satisfies a deep emotional need to alleviate his feelings of inferiority and frustration by acting out these feelings on the victim.

Russell (1984) opines that sexual harassment is an extreme way of acting out of qualities that are considered to be masculine in the society – aggression, force, power, strength, toughness, dominance, and competitiveness. Thus, sexual harassment is, more of a conforming act than a deviant one. Boys must prove to be ‘macho’ and ‘superior’ by indulging in sexual harassment just to conform to the existing social norms. This is especially true if the anonymity of the offender can be maintained (e.g., making crank and obscene phone calls, dark or crowded places, etc.).

The problem of sexual harassment can also be attributed to the socialisation of males. Right from childhood, children associate aggressiveness and independence with males, and dependence and passivity with females. In most homes, right from childhood, girls get the message from different socialisation agents that they are inferior in status as compared to males. This enhances the lack of assertiveness in girls and they become more and more dependant on the males in the family. On the
other hand, males uncritically follow their fathers and other males in the family, who get a higher status than the females in the family.

8.4.2 Feminine Worth and the Experience of Eve Teasing by Females.

A positive correlation exists between the perception of feminine worth as measured by ATWS and the experience of some forms of eve teasing by girls. This indicates that girls with non-traditional attitudes towards women experience a greater degree of eve teasing than the ones who endorse traditional attitudes. The results also point out that the relationship between the perception of feminine worth and experience of attention seeking behaviour and severe forms of eve teasing by girls is not as strong as the relationship between feminine worth and the indulgence in similar forms of eve teasing by boys.

Although the correlation between the scores of girls on the various sub scales of ATWS and Attention Seeking behaviour and Severe Eve Teasing are not significant, the correlation between ATWS subscales and Mild Eve Teasing are highly significant. A number of studies support these results (Dall’Ara & Maass, 1999; Fiske & Glick, 1995; Koss et al., 1988; Muehlehard & Linton, 1997). According to the landmark study by the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (1980), the most frequently experienced type of uninvited sexual attention is "unwanted sexual teasing, jokes, remarks, or questions." The least frequently experienced type of harassment-- "actual or attempted rape or assault" being the most severe. According to the follow up study by U.S. M. S. P. B. in 1987, some individuals are more likely than others to be victims of sexual harassment. These included women who: are single or divorced; are between the ages of 20 and 44; have some college education; have a non-traditional job; or work in a predominantly male environment or for a male supervisor have the greatest chance of being sexually harassed.
The results of the present study also point out that there is a positive significant (p < .01) correlation of the scores of girls on S sub-scale of ATWS and all the three sub-scales of EETQ. This suggests that that the females who believe in the equality of males and females in social and interpersonal relationship are more likely to be the victims of eve teasing. These women pose a threat to men as they challenge the male superiority, which the men want to maintain. The existing situation is favourable to men as it gives them more sense of power and control. Moreover, these women are more likely to face such situations, as they would dare to do things, which are traditionally considered to be domain of male behaviour. Women with traditional attitudes, on the other hand, would be cautious in their behaviour, appearance and their movements so as not to provoke any kind of misbehaviour by men.

Abbey (1982) has suggested that men perceive the world in more sexual terms than do women, and consequently tend to interpret ambiguous behaviour as being sexual. Non-traditional behaviour of women is likely to provoke men. Actions such as going to a pub alone, use of swear words, smoking and drinking in public may invite attention.

Clothing of the victim is another factor that reflects their attitudes (Freitas et al., 1994; Haworth-Hoeppner, 1998). Parks and Scheidt (2001) found in their study that women who dress in a sexually provocative manner or get drunk are more likely to be perceived as “loose” or sexually “easy” by men in general. Males are likely to judge some clothing as indicative of sexual interest and may behave in a manner that females consider harassment.

Men might perceive mannerism and appearance of non-traditional women as provocation. Moreover, females high on feminine worth, being more egalitarian, are likely to be bolder and reporting experience of eve teasing than women with lower perception of feminine worth. Due to gender
sensitisation, former may be more prone to interpreting certain behaviours as eve teasing.

8.4.3 Relationship of Indulgence in Eve Teasing by males with Perception of Feminine Worth and Demographic variables.

a. Type of School, ATWS and IETS

The correlations between the various demographic variables and the scores of males on ATWS and IETQ reveal some interesting trends. Firstly, the type of school that the males attended is positively related to their score on ATWS (r = 0.26; p < .01) indicating that those who attended co-ed schools had a better perception of feminine worth than the ones who attended the single sex schools. Also, the correlations between the type of school and the scores on all the three IETQ sub scales were found to be negative (p < .01) implying that respondents who attended co-ed schools indulged in eve teasing to a lesser extent than their counterparts from single sex schools.

These findings are in line with some previous studies (Dale, 1969; 1971; Feather, 1974; Jones et al., 1972; Scneider & Coutts, 1982). Single sex schools are perceived to impose stricter discipline, while co-ed schools are perceived to have a more congenial atmosphere.

Moreton (1946) in a comparative study of coeducational and single-sex schools found that 72 per cent of the subjects who were educated in the coeducational schools felt that it had helped in their relations with the opposite sex.

An earlier study by the researcher (Mohan & Priyadarshini, 1996) also reported that boys felt that the coeducational schools help in better socialisation of boys and girls, and discourage the boys from indulging in improper behaviours such as eve teasing.

Studying and competing with boys in co-educational institutions, girls are likely to develop confidence and learn to be assertive. This perhaps leads
to a higher perception of feminine worth by males studying in coeducational schools as they interact with girls who are confident.

Thus, all these studies and the results of the present study suggest that the co-educational schools provide a better atmosphere for a healthy interaction amongst males and females, which helps them in a better understanding and respect for each other. Atmosphere in the coeducational schools is less traditional and more egalitarian. Many myths and stereotypes with regard to the opposite sex vanish after a close interaction amongst boys and girls.

On the other hand, the single-sex schools are not able to provide any such ground for boys and girls. If the home environment is also strict, boys may get frustrated, and indulge in unhealthy behaviour such as eve teasing.

b. Type of family, ATWS, and IETQ

The type of family – nuclear or joint – did not have any significant relationship with the scores of the individual on ATWS and IETQ according to the correlation analysis. However, the regression analysis predicting the mild eve teasing by males revealed that an additional 1% of the variance in the scores of males on mild eve teasing was explained by the type of family that he belonged to. Thus, indicating that the males from nuclear families were more likely to indulge in this form of eve teasing than those belonging to joint families.

With the passage of time, the joint family system is withering away and is being replaced by nuclear families. They are more modern in their outlook. There are more pressures of conformity to traditional gender roles in joint families than in nuclear families.

In the present study almost 80% of the male respondents came from a nuclear family and the number of respondents who came from joint families was very small. This could be one of the reasons why the
relationship between the type of family with ATWS and IETQ has not come out to be significant.

c. **Family Income, ATWS, and IETQ**

The family income of the males had a positive correlation with their scores on ATWS ($p < .01$) suggesting that higher income group had a better perception of feminine worth than the lower income group. A negative correlation was found between the family income and score on severe eve teasing. This implies that males who indulged in severe type of eve teasing came from lower income group.

Some of the previous researches evince gender-role traditionalism negatively related to social class. Schaininger and Buss (1986) found that the high social status predicted non-traditional family views. Hoffman and Kloska (1995) also found a negative relation between social status and stereotyped attitudes.

Spence and Helmreich (1978) found class effects on the attitude toward women, with more traditional attitudes in lower classes. Galambos et al. (1985) also found that male adolescents from lower social class endorsed significantly more traditional attitudes than the ones from the upper social class. Class effects are also moderately affecting the factor of education. As one is likely to find lesser-educated people in the lower classes and vice-versa, so income should not be treated per se.

d. **Parents' Education, ATWS and IETQ:**

Parent’s education was found to have a positive relationship with the perception of feminine worth. Father’s education had a positive correlation of 0.24 ($p < .01$) and mother’s education of 0.32 ($p < .01$) with the scores on ATWS of male respondents. This suggests that the education of the parents has a positive effect on the attitudes of males towards women. Also, father’s education had a significant negative relation with the
indulgence of the males in severe and mild eve teasing with a correlation of \(-0.12\) (\(p < .01\)) and \(-0.10\) (\(p < .05\)) respectively. The results thus, suggest that males whose parents are less educated indulge in eve teasing more than the males whose parents are more educated.

Educational and occupational level of parents significantly influences children’s gender-role attitudes. Previous research has found gender-role traditionalism negatively related to education with considerable consistency (Ahrens & O’Brien, 1996; Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Eccles et al., 1990; Hoffman & Kloska, 1995; Schaninger & Buss, 1986; Scanzoni, 1975 Thornton, Alwin & Campurn, 1983;). Dreyer et al. (1981) also found that women with the strong feminist attitudes were highly educated.

Some developmental psychologists focus on cognitive process in which the child learns about his or her own gender and its permanence and adopts the gender appropriate self-concepts and behaviours (Kohlberg, 1966). Others focus on the impact of rewards and punishments in shaping the child along gender-typed lines (Fagot, 1978). Still others focus on the direct teaching and verbalised attitudes of parents about what males and females are like or should be like (Hoffman, Paris & Hall, 1994). For all these theories, the key elements in the process are the behaviour and attitudes of the parents. Child rearing by the parents and the roles each parent enacts lead to differences in the self-concepts and behaviours that children take on. Parents communicate overtly and covertly their own gender stereotyped attitudes, influencing their children’s self-concept, motivation, and behaviour.

Fathers with a higher education are better models for their children and also provide valuable guidance to them. Boys learn to respect and have a favourable attitude towards women when they have highly educated mothers who are likely to be more emancipated and more egalitarian in their child rearing. Besides, education widens horizon of individuals and
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one is likely to be less prejudiced and more rational. Such parents are good role models for the children to develop respect for the opposite gender.

The results of the previous studies as also of the present study, suggest a positive relationship between educational level of parents and gender-role attitudes of the children. Behaviour is thought to be the result of continual dynamic interaction between self-perception and environment. Attitudes of an individual influence his or her actual behaviour. Since the educational level of parents influences the attitude of males towards women, it can be stated that their behaviour in turn is influenced by their attitude.

e. Mother’s Employment, ATWS, and IETQ

Mother’s working status also had positive relation with the perception of feminine worth of males ($r = 0.16, p < .01$). Sons of working mothers have a better perception of feminine worth than that of the sons of non-working mothers.

Previous studies show a negative relationship of mother’s employment status with her children’s traditionalism. These studies have demonstrated that children of employed mothers, from pre-school age to adulthood, hold less gender-stereotyped views (Ahrens & O’Brien, 1996; Hoffman, 1989; Huston, 1983). It has also been found that the employed women themselves as well as their husbands hold more liberal views toward gender roles (Scanzoni, 1975; Greenberger et al., 1988; Hoffman, 1960; 1995; Smith, 1985).

Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) found that children of employed mothers are less gender-role stereotyped. Additionally mothers who had liberal attitudes toward gender roles had children who viewed themselves as more independent, active, aggressive, strong, unafraid, and less gender-role stereotyped (Bliss, 1988).
With a strong image of mother, children do not see women as weaker sex. Employed mothers have their individual identities, exude confidence and command respect. Therefore, their children are likely to have a positive image of women as a class. Children also see a respectful attitude of father towards an employed wife. They witness egalitarian child rearing practices. All this generates respect for women in general in the minds of children.

An interesting finding in the present study was a positive relation between the employment status of mothers and indulgence of males in attention seeking behaviour \((r = 0.12, p < .01)\). The indulgence in the other two forms of eve teasing had no significant relationship with the mother’s employment status.

One possible reason for this may be that the sons of working mothers get to spend more time with their peers in the absence of mothers. Since most attention seeking behaviour by boys takes place when they are in a group. Moreover, children of working mothers have an opportunity to watch films and television programmes in the absence of any parental control or supervision. Children obtain information about sex roles from television and model their behaviour based on TV characters. Exposure to music videos has also been shown to have a powerful influence on acceptance of violence and antisocial behaviours (Durkin’s, 1985; Hansen & Hansen, 1990; Strouse et al., 1994). These children tend to get influenced by all this exposure from the television programmes and indulge in the attention seeking behaviour. Perhaps, they do not perceive this behaviour as harassment at all.

\textbf{f. Having a Sibling, ATWS, and IETQ.}

The results revealed that having a sister did not have any significant relationship with the perception of feminine worth or the indulgence in eve teasing by the boys. However, there was a significant negative relation
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between having a brother and the perception of feminine worth. A correlation of -0.19 (p < .01) was found between having a brother and the scores of the males on ATWS. This implies that having a male sibling lowers the perception of feminine worth.

The results of the present study are partially in line with the results of some previous studies which report that children having a sibling of the same sex were the most stereotypically sex typed, while children from cross-sibling constellations were found to be more androgynous (Brim, 1958; Bigner, 1972; Lamke et al., 1980; Rosenberg & Sutton-Smith, 1964) who conducted a study on college undergraduates. Based on the evidence from the earlier studies, it was expected that the males who have one or more sisters become more gender sensitised because of more opportunity for healthy interaction with their sister and her friends. But the results of the present study imply that having a female sibling does not influence the males as much as having male sibling in developing an attitude towards women.

The results of the regression analysis predicting attention seeking behaviour indicated that perception of feminine worth as measured by the scores of boys on ATWS, mother’s employment status, socio-economic status, and type of school attended by male respondents contributed significantly to the prediction of Attention Seeking Behaviour of males. The perception of feminine worth and the employment status of the mother accounted for an additional 6% and 3% of the variance, respectively. The family income and the type of school attended both accounted for an additional 1% variance each. Together, these four independent variables explained 12% of the variance at .02 level of significance in attention seeking behaviour of boys. None of the other demographic variables were found to contribute significantly in the prediction of the scores on unwanted attention seeking behaviour.
It is clear from the results that there is a significant negative correlation between the scores of males on ATWS and their scores on Attention Seeking Behaviour indicating that the boys who have a positive image of women do not indulge in this behaviour. Results of regression analysis indicate that a negative attitude of males toward women causes them to indulge in this behaviour.

As discussed earlier, males with working mothers are likely to be indulging in attention seeking behaviour. The regression analysis found that the employment status of the mother accounted for 3% of the variance. It is thus a major contributing factor in the attention seeking behaviour of males.

A positive correlation between family income and indulgence in attention seeking behaviour of males was obtained. The regression analysis shows that family income accounted for 1% variance in the indulgence of males in this behaviour.

Type of school attended by males was another factor contributing to the variance in the attention seeking behaviour of boys. The males from only boys’ schools, were more likely to indulge in attention seeking behaviour.

The results of the regression analysis predicting Severe Eve Teasing revealed that the perception of feminine worth as measured by the scores of boys on ATWS, and the type of school attended by the male respondents contributed significantly to the prediction of indulgence in severe forms of eve teasing by males. The perception of feminine worth and the type of school attended accounted for 13% and 5% of the variance, respectively. Taken together, these two independent variables explained 18% of the variance in indulgence in severe eve teasing by boys. None of the other demographic variables were found to contribute significantly in the prediction of the scores on severe eve teasing.
The major factor, which predicted whether a male would indulge in severe forms of harassment, was his perception of feminine worth. Out of the total variance, 13% was due to this factor. As discussed previously, males with an egalitarian attitude were less likely to indulge in severe forms of eve teasing.

The type of school that the males had attended also accounted for 5% variance in their indulgence in severe forms of eve teasing. It was found that boys from coeducational schools were restraining from this kind of behaviour.

The results of the regression analysis predicting the indulgence of males in mild forms of eve teasing indicated that the perception of feminine worth as measured by the scores of boys on ATWS, the type of school attended by the male respondents, and the type of family contributed significantly to the prediction of this construct. The perception of feminine worth explained for 8% of the variation, while the type of school attended, and the type of family accounted for 1% of the variance each. Altogether these three independent variables explained 10% of the variance in indulgence in mild forms of eve teasing by boys. None of the other demographic variables were found to contribute significantly in the prediction of the scores on mild eve teasing.

A negative correlation between the scores of males on ATWS and their scores on mild forms of eve teasing was found, indicating that the boys with a non-traditional attitude toward women were less likely to indulge in this behaviour. A positive correlation was found between the type of family and scores of boys on mild forms of eve teasing, indicating that the boys from nuclear families were more likely to indulge in this behaviour.

The results of multiple regression analysis very strongly indicate that perception of feminine worth is a major contributing factor in the indulgence of males in the three forms of eve teasing.
8.4.4 Relationship of Experience of Eve Teasing by females with Feminine Worth and Demographic variables.

a. Type of School, ATWS, and EETQ

Results reveal that there is a significant positive correlation between type of school attended by female respondents and (a) attention seeking behaviour experienced by them (0.14, p < .01); and (b) their total scores on EETQ (0.09, p < .05). The correlation between type of school and the other two forms of eve teasing were not significant. The results reveal that girls who attended co-ed schools were experiencing more attention seeking behaviour from boys.

One reason, which explains this relationship, is that girls coming from co-ed schools may be having more exposure to boys than the other girls to be in such situations where they experience attention-seeking behaviour. If they see a minor deviation from such behaviour, they identify it as eve teasing and deal with accordingly. The girls from single-sex schools may not recognise the attention seeking behaviour as eve teasing, and in fact may recognise it as a normal male behaviour. They might not be recognising it as harassment at all. Gender segregated schooling can cause stereotypes about the opposite sex because of lack of casual relationships and real world experience on a day to day basis. A single-sex school provides an environment where students interact with their own gender, and does not prepare them for the real world. The atmosphere in co-ed schools equips the children to adapt to the adult world beyond school better than the children from sex-segregated schools.

b. Type of Family, ATWS, and EETQ

The relation between type of family and the scores of females on EETQ, its sub-scales, and their scores on ATWS were not found to be significant. This implies that neither the type of family affects the perception of feminine worth of females nor does it affect their experience of eve teasing.
In the present study, most girls included in the sample belonged to nuclear families. There were very few (17%) who were from joint families. A very interesting trend emerged from the results was that the distribution of the ATWS scores of females was negatively skewed, meaning that most females had a high perception of feminine worth. Thus, even those females who belonged to joint families endorsed more individualism and liberal attitudes, therefore, less of conformity. As far as the experience of eve teasing by girls is concerned, again the type of family did not seem to play any role.

c. **Family Income, ATWS, EETQ**

The correlation between family income and experience of attention seeking behaviour (0.10, p < .05), mild eve teasing (0.09, p < .05), and the perception of feminine worth (0.22, p < .01) were found to be significantly positive. This suggests that females from higher income family have more egalitarian attitude toward women and they also experience more attention seeking behaviour, and mild forms of eve teasing from boys.

Various previous studies point out that there is a negative relationship between gender-role traditionalism and social class, such that more traditional attitudes were found in lower classes (Galambos *et al.*, 1985; Hoffman & Klosska, 1995; Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

The results of some earlier studies as well as the present study have revealed that females with non-traditional attitudes toward women are more likely to experience sexually harassing behaviour than the women with traditional attitudes toward women (Fiske & Glick, 1995; Gutek & Morasch, 1982). Since the girls from high-income group family endorse significantly more liberal attitudes toward women, they also experience more eve teasing.

There was no significant correlation found between the family income and the scores of females on severe forms of eve teasing. This may be so
because in attention seeking behaviour, and milder forms of eve teasing, the anonymity of the offender can be maintained. However, in case of severe forms of eve teasing, where a closer contact with the victim is required, the offenders must be seeking those types of girls who seem to be submissive rather than confident. Thus, girls from lower income group are more vulnerable for severe forms of eve teasing. Since the girls from higher income families also have a liberal gender role ideology, which must be reflected in their mannerism, the offenders would be more cautious lest there is retaliation. Moreover, indulging in severe forms of eve teasing involving girls from upper income groups entails more risk. Due to power, contacts, it may be difficult for boys to go scot-free.

d. Parents’ Education, ATWS, EETQ

While a highly significant correlation of 0.20 (p < .01) between father’s educational level and the scores of females on ATWS was found, none of the EETQ sub-scales had a significant relationship with the educational level of the fathers. The correlation between mother’s education level and the scores of females on ATWS was also found to be highly significant (r = 0.23, p < .01). This implies that the education of parents has a positive effect on the perception of feminine worth of females.

Parents’ attitudes and behaviour greatly influence children’s self-concept and their behaviour. Hoffman and Kloska (1995) and Bliss (1988) have reported that the children of parents endorsing non-traditional gender-attitudes also hold non-traditional gender-based attitudes. Moreover, gender-role traditionalism has been found to be negatively related to education with considerable consistency (Mohan & Sethi, 1997; Scanzoni, 1975; Schaninger & Buss, 1986; Thornton et al., 1983). Since, more educated parents are also likely to have non-traditional gender-role attitudes, their children in turn also acquire non-traditional gender-based attitudes.
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A significant negative correlation was also found between mother’s educational level and the scores of females on severe eve teasing sub-scale of EETQ. Perhaps the girls with more educated mothers develop in themselves the skills of being independent, assertive and strong, which may reflect in their behaviour.

The results are in line with some previous studies that have reported that mothers who held more feminist ideals had children who viewed themselves as more independent, active, aggressive, strong, fearless, and less gender-role stereotyped (Bliss, 1988; Galambos et al., 1985; Mohan & Priyadarshini, 1998; Simmons & Rosenberg, 1975).

The daughters of more educated women are more likely to have non-traditional and egalitarian attitudes toward women. It is possible that these girls may be giving some non-verbal cues to the males of being assertive, independent, bold, so that the males get the message that if they victimise them, they would not be able to get away; rather they would have to face retaliation. On the other hand, girls with traditional attitudes toward women would not be that confident and this would be reflected in their behaviour. Probably this makes them more vulnerable to severe forms of eve teasing by males.

e.  Mother’s Employment, ATWS, and EETQ

The correlation between mother’s employment and the perception of feminine worth of females was found to be positive and was statistically significant ($r = 0.17, p < .01$). This result indicated that daughters of working women had more egalitarian attitudes toward women.

Mother’s employment status has also shown a relationship to her children’s sex-role traditionalism across measures. Studies have demonstrated that children of employed mothers, from pre-school age through adulthood, hold less gender stereotyped views, with the finding somewhat more consistent for daughters than for sons (Ahrens & O’Brien, 1988).
Mothers project onto their daughters their own self-perceptions; those who see themselves as assertive expect their daughters to imbibe these traits, and expect them to be self-reliant at a relatively younger age. Moreover, there is also effect of modelling.

The relation between mother’s employment and none of the EETQ sub-scales was found to be significant.

e. **Sibling’s gender, ATWS, EETQ**

There was a significant negative correlation between having a brother and the scores of girls on ATWS (r = -0.18, p < .01). This suggests that having brother(s) lowers the perception of feminine worth in girls. There was no relation found between having brother(s) and the scores of girls on any of the EETQ sub-scales. Having sister(s) had no significant relation with the scores of girls on ATWS or any of the sub-scales of EETQ.

Brothers and sisters exert influences on each other that are different from the influences exerted by other socialisation agents, such as parents and peers. The results of the present research are contrary to the previous research findings, which suggest that the cross-sex sibling constellations have a less gender-stereotyped attitudes (Brim, 1958; Stoneman et al., 1986).

Attitudes that an individual acquires are linked to the differential socialisation that boys and girls experience in the family. Parents who express an egalitarian view toward gender may nevertheless treat sons and daughters differently because of their own internalised and unconscious views or because of the different stimuli children of each gender present evoking different reactions in the parent. Parents are more concerned over the physical well being of daughters than sons. This differential treatment
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at home may influence the daughters to inculcate in them a general belief that females are inferior to males in general. This is especially true in most of the Indian homes where a son is treated as superior and more important than daughters. There is preference for sons and girls are considered as burden and liability by parents. This differential treatment of children may have a part to play in the lowering of the perception of feminine worth in girls.

The hypotheses for the present study were further tested using four hierarchical multiple regression analyses predicting Attention Seeking Behaviour, Severe Eve Teasing, Mild Eve Teasing, and total Eve Teasing scores of girls respectively. For each analysis, demographic variables of interest as discussed above, and the perception of feminine worth as measured by the scores on ATWS were entered as the independent variables.

The results of the regression analysis predicting attention-seeking behaviour experienced by girls indicated that the type of school attended by the female respondents and their total family income contributed significantly to its prediction, accounting for 2% and 1% of the variance respectively. Taken together these two independent variables explained 3% of the variance in attention seeking behaviour that the girls experienced. As mentioned earlier also, the girls who had attended coeducational schools and who belonged to higher income family were found to have experienced more of attention seeking behaviour than those who had attended single sex schools and who were from lower and middle income families. None of the other demographic variables were found to contribute significantly in the prediction of the scores on severe eve teasing.

The results of the regression analysis predicting the experience of Severe Eve Teasing by girls indicated that the only factor, which contributed significantly to its prediction, was mother’s education. Higher level of
mother’s education probably makes the daughters more confident and less vulnerable to severe forms of eve teasing. This factor accounted for 1% of the variance in the girls’ experience of severe forms of eve teasing. None of the other demographic variables or the scores of girls on ATWS was found to significantly contribute in the prediction of the scores on severe eve teasing.

The results of the regression analysis predicting girls’ experience of mild forms of eve teasing indicated that the perception of feminine worth as measured by the scores of girls on ATWS, was the only factor that contributed significantly to the prediction of this construct. The perception of feminine worth explained for 2% of the variation in girls’ experience of mild forms of eve teasing by boys. The obtained results suggest that the girls with a liberal attitude towards women issues experience milder forms of eve teasing more than those who endorse traditional attitudes. None of the demographic variables were found to contribute significantly in the prediction of the scores on severe eve teasing.