Exploring the Complexity of Feminist Beliefs: Gender, Education, and Mother's Work Status as Predictors

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Abstract

This study examines how age, education, gender, and mother's employment position affect feminist ideals, gender equality in political leadership, gender stereotypes, and women's political engagement. Higher education levels indicate stronger feminist views, indicating that education shapes feminist beliefs. Working mothers are more likely to support feminist principles than housewives. Moreover, the findings revealed that women are more likely than males to oppose gender conventions and pursue gender balance in political leadership and institutions. However, relationships may not always be statistically significant, therefore further study is needed to understand the reasons and frequency of these attitudes across both genders. This study illuminates feminist attitudes' complexity, impacted by education, gender, and the mother's job position. The findings highlight the need for further research into the relationship between gender norms, cultural expectations, and feminist ideas, as well as the potential influence of political motivations on individuals' engagement with feminist concepts.

Keywords: Feminist beliefs, mother's employment, women's political engagement, gender equality, political leadership.

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Introduction

Understanding and assessing political involvement and engagement is facilitated by the feminist viewpoint. It acknowledges that patriarchal mechanisms that impose gender norms and expectations (Butler, 1991; De Beauvoir, 1949) have a significant impact on the social standing of women, frequently to the detriment of both genders. De Beauvoir (1949), Fulenwider (1981), and Swank and Fahs (2017) all point to feminism as a theoretical paradigm with the goal of empowering women in different spheres of society, including politics. Understanding the effect of feminism on political involvement requires differentiating between a feminist mindset and a feminist identity.

An understanding of gender prejudice and a dedication to achieving feminist goals like gender equality in societal structures and practices are all part of a feminist mindset (Brush, Gold, & White, 1978; Eisele & Stake, 2008). In this way of thinking, gender is something to be addressed and contested in the realm of politics. When a person sees themselves as a feminist and a political subject, they develop a feminist identity (Szymanski, 2004; Weis, Redford, Zucker, & Ratliff, 2018). It incorporates one's own sense of responsibility for furthering feminism and has been shown to motivate people to take concrete steps toward achieving gender equality (Brush, Gold, & White, 1978). Therefore, having feminist views and identifying as a feminist are two separate occurrences, according to the research (Rhodebeck, 1996).

Gender stereotypes impact conservative women's political activity. Pharr (1981) separates conservative women into "neo traditionalists" and "new women." New women value the wife-mother role but encourage other pursuits (Pharr, 1981). For neo-traditionalists, this is so important that everything else

in life should take a back seat to it. He explains that conservative women know there are differences between men and women, but they want job equality based on ability. They think that men should work, and women should stay at home. This describes "radical egalitarians," who don't like gender-role practices but like having men and women do different kinds of family work (Pharr, 1981).

Althoughconservative gender norms urge women to do housework they also limit what they can do outside the home. However, gender roles may be more liberal for women who are not conservative (Yoshiyuki, Amano, & Nasu, 1995).

It's important to note that not everyone agrees that feminism is necessary in today's world. However, this viewpoint is fundamentally flawed (Youth Department of the Council of Europe, 2023). Throughout history, women have faced major hurdles in their quest for equality and opposition to various types of oppression. Despite achieving certain victories, such as the right to vote and equal educational opportunities, women continue to encounter disproportionate levels of discrimination in all aspects of life.

Council of Europe's Committee of Ministers in March 2019 defined sexism or sex discrimination as "any act, gesture, visual representation, spoken or written words, practice, or behavior that is based on the idea that a person or a group of persons is inferior because of their sex," and it can take place in the public or private domain, online or off.

The literature discusses three distinct forms of sexism (Nelson, 2002). Traditional sexism: Supporting outdated gender norms, seeing women as inferior to males, and perpetuating outdated preconceptions about women's

abilities are all examples of conventional sexism. Modern Sexism: Denial of discrimination based on gender ('it's not an issue anymore'), hostility against women's rights, and dismissal of women's demands all fall under the umbrella of "modern sexism."Neosexism": This concept alludes to ideas that justify discrimination against women based on competencies, such as the belief that "men are effectively better competent for some things," such as holding positions of management or leadership. Those who defend these views often fail to account for or downplay the impact of social pressures on women's competencies.

For the promotion of gender equality and inclusive political participation, it is essential to comprehend and evaluate attitudes toward women's political engagement. This study distinguishes between a feminist worldview and a feminist identity, casting light on the complexities of feminist beliefs and their relationship to political participation. It also accentuates the influence of societal conventions on conservative women's perceptions of gender roles and the effect of gender stereotypes on their political participation. By acknowledging the historical struggles for gender equality and the persistence of discrimination, we can challenge erroneous perspectives and advocate for women's equal rights and opportunities. The findings of this study have implications for policymakers, activists, and researchers who seek to nurture gender equality and create inclusive political environments.

Contextual Factors Influence the Development of Feminist Beliefs

Education is a key factor in the development of progressive mentalities and feminist values. It would suggest that receiving a higher education increases support for feminist causes. According to Kyoore and Sulemana

(2019), this phenomenon may be ascribed to an increase in mental horizons, critical thinking, and consciousness towards gender equality.

Whether or not mothers choose to work outside the home as opposed to staying at home with their children is another way in which feminist ideals are communicated. Researchers Yu and Lee (2013) found that mothers who had jobs outside the house were more likely to consider themselves to be feminists. This gives validity to the findings of a research done by Ben-Nun Bloom, Gilad, and Freedman (2017), which indicated that participants' perceptions regarding gender equality were impacted by being exposed to female role models and women in the workplace. According to the findings, there is a correlation between having a feminist viewpoint and being raised by a mother who had a job when they were growing up.

Researchers have discovered that having a working mother is linked to more progressive views on gender roles in both sons and daughters as adults (Farré & Vella, 2013; Fan & Marini, 2000; Davis, 2007). The work of women and the perspectives of their children have been linked through several different processes. Socialization, the process through which children are exposed to and replicate the actions and beliefs seen in the home of their parents (Cano & Hofmeister, 2023; Moen, Erickson, & Dempster-McClain, 1997), is an often-cited explanation. Children who are raised in less conventional family models, such as those in which the mother holds a job outside the home, may have views that are more positive toward these models and be less tolerant of gender stereotypes because of their upbringing (Cunningham, Beutel, Barber, & Thornton, 2005). This leads to the question that does the employment status of mothers and other individual and contextual

factors influence the development of feminist beliefs and attitudes toward gender roles in their adult children?

Significant predictors of feminist beliefs include level of education, mother's employment status, age, and mother's level of education. Higher levels of education and having a mother who works are hypothesized to be significant predictors of feminist beliefs and favorable attitudes toward gender roles.

H1: Feminist beliefs among the individuals regarding gender roles are positively associated with various contextual factors including age, gender, education, mother's education and employment status.

Methodology

An online survey was conducted to examine the attitudes of various university students studying at various levels. The questionnaire included the standard instrument was used Feminist Identity Composite (FIC) (Fischer, et al., 2000) to measure feminist ideas and women's political engagement

The descriptive statistics for the demographic variables of a sample of 200 individuals are presented in Table 1. The sample consisted of 87 males (44%) and 112 females (56%). In terms of age, the majority of the sample fell into the 15-24 age range, with 133 individuals (67%). The 25-34 age group accounted for 55 individuals (27%), while only 12 individuals (6%) were in the 35-44 age range.

Regarding qualification, 37 individuals (19%) had an intermediate level of education, while the majority of the sample, 121 individuals (61%), held a bachelor's degree or its equivalent. Additionally, 31 individuals (16%) had post-graduate qualifications or higher, and 11 individuals (6%) fell into the

"Other" category. In terms of mother's education, 144 individuals (72%) had educated mothers. Looking at mother occupation, 66 individuals (33%) had working mothers, while the remaining 134 individuals (67%) had mothers who were housewives.

Results

Table 1: Respondents' Attitudes toward Women

Sr.	Statement	SA	A	CS	D	SDA	M	SD
1	Women shouldn't be able to hold high-level government positions with a lot of responsibility.	10	29	20	22	20	2.88	1.30
2	Women who join the women's movement are usually angry, unpleasant people who feel like society is against them.	13	32	27	19	11	3.18	1.18
3	To be a real woman, a woman should be able to accept courteous attention from men with grace.	15	34	26	18	9	3.27	1.18
4	Realistically, men have made the most progress so far, and we can expect that to continue.	10	33	27	22	10	3.11	1.14
5	Never believe what a woman says about another woman.	11	35	33	15	7	3.29	1.06
6	In general, women are less dependable than men.	20	36	25	13	7	3.49	1.15
7	Women can work, but men will always be the main ones who bring in money.	17	39	19	21	6	3.41	1.15

8	A woman shouldn't think she can go to the same places and do the same things as a man.	16	24	23	21	17	3.01	1.32
9	Most of the time, swearing sounds worse when it comes from a woman.	19	19	38	16	9	3.23	1.19
10	No woman is too educated to do all the housework on her own.	16	26	19	33	7	3.11	1.23
11	Even if they don't realize it, most men are sexist.	20	33	27	15	7	3.44	1.15
12	Women are fine, but men can only truly relax when they're with other men.	14	36	21	21	9	3.26	1.19
13	It's not fair to say that women think more about themselves than guys do.	29	67	50	37	17	2.73	1.17
14	As the head of the family, the father should have the final say over what his kids do.	22	31	20	21	7	3.39	1.23
15	Men and women should get the same pay for the same work, no matter if they have a family to take care of or not.	36	40	10	10	6	3.90	1.16
16	It would be good if women could join the police force and do the same jobs as men.	18	46	15	16	6	3.53	1.13
17	Women should be able to compete with guys in every field.	36	50	4	8	4	4.07	1.00
18	Most women are used by men, whether they know it or not.	14	36	32	16	3	3.43	1.01

Note. SA = strongly agree, A = agree, CS = can't say, D = disagree, SDA = strongly disagree, M = mean, SD = standard deviation.

The participants' responses to statements about their attitudes toward women are presented in Table 1. On a scale from 1 (strongly concur) to 5 (strongly disagree), each statement was rated. For each statement, the mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) are provided.

Participants displayed a range of attitudes toward women. Some comments showed more agreement with typical gender roles and stereotypes, while others showed more progressive views. For example, Statement 1 ("Women shouldn't be able to hold high-level government positions with a lot of responsibility.") received a mean score of 2.88, indicating a moderate level of opposition to women in positions of political power. In contrast, Statement 15 ("Men and women should get the same pay for the same work, no matter if they have a family to take care of or not.") received a mean score of 3.90, indicating strong support for the principle of equal pay. Statement 18 ("Most women are used by men, whether they know it or not.") received a mean score of 3.43, indicating moderate agreement with the perception that women are exploited by men. These results demonstrate the complexity of attitudes toward women, as they reflect a combination of traditional and progressive perspectives among the surveyed population.

The results of each question were combined into a single variable known as "Feminist beliefs," which had a reliability coefficient $\alpha = 0.77$. The purpose of this study is to analyze the elements that impact individuals' feminist ideas.

Regression Analysis

In a regression analysis, factors such as age, level of education, gender, mother's education, and whether the mother is a working woman, or a homemaker are investigated as potential predictors. The purpose of this exercise is to gain an understanding of the links that exist between these independent factors and the feminist notions that serve as the dependent variable. Several significant results emerged from the regression analysis. Overall, the model fit was statistically significant (F (5, 194) = 6.414, p .001), suggesting that the variables account for a 14 percent, (R^2= 14.2) a sizeable amount of the variation in feminist worldviews.

Feminist beliefs were shown to be significantly predicted by level of education (β =.178, p =.027). When controlling for other factors, the average score for feminist ideals rose by 0.126 points for every additional year of study.

Another significant effect was found for the variable mother's work status (β = -.187, p =.007). When adjusting for other factors, participants whose mothers work had an average of 0.210 fewer feminist beliefs than those whose mothers did not work outside the home.

There were no statistically significant differences in Feminist beliefs based on age, or mother's level of education. Nonetheless, gender showed a minimal degree of significance (β =.133, p =.050), with a higher average score for feminist beliefs among women compared to men.

Table 2: Regression Results for Predicting Feminist Beliefs

Hypotheses	b	β	t-value	p-value	Result
Age ----→ FB	.099	.112	1.416	.158	Not supported
Education ----→ FB	.126	.178	2.224	.027*	Supported
Gender ----→ FB	.141	.133	1.971	.050*	Supported
Mother's Education ---→ FB	.072	.061	.897	.371	Not supported
Mother's Work Status-→ FB	-.210	-.187	-2.715	.007**	Not supported

The education-feminism hypothesis was thus confirmed. However, neither age nor mother's education appear to have a significant impact on a person's feminist beliefs. Similarly, the hypothesis that employed mothers are more likely to hold feminist views was not supported, and a negative association was observed. More women than males are feminists.

Factor Analysis

Further, this study explores the underlying factors that influence attitudes towards women's political participation. The research focuses on a range of survey questions related to various aspects of women's involvement in politics, including their eligibility for top political positions, participation in political campaigns and decision-making committees, voting rights, support for women candidates, and the need for policies promoting gender equality. A principal component analysis with oblique rotation was conducted to identify the underlying dimensions and their associations with these survey questions.

Table 3: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.770
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	477.700
	df	78
	Sig.	0.000

The sample size is sufficient to undertake the factor analysis, as measured by the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic of.770. KMO values above.6 are often accepted.

Bartlett's test of sphericity examines the possibility that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix (which would indicate that the variables are unrelated). With 78 degrees of freedom and a p-value far below.000, the calculated chi-square value in this case is 477.700. The substantial relationships between the variables in the factor analysis are indicated by the fact that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. In sum, the data appears to be acceptable for a factor analysis, since both the KMO measure and the Bartlett's test show the presence of significant correlations between the variables.

Table 4: Exploratory Factor Analysis for Attitudes toward Women's Political Participation

Structure Matrix	Component				α	M	SD
	1	2	3	4			
Is it appropriate for a woman to hold the office	0.751				.73	1.20	0.32

of president or prime minister of the country?							
Should women participate in political campaigns and public gatherings?	0.721						
Should women be included in party decision-making committees?	0.671						
Do you think that elections are only men's job?		0.466					
If given the opportunity in politics, for whom would you prioritize your work? Female, male, or both genders.		0.723					
Was gender your reason for not polling vote?		0.708					
Should women obtain consent from male family members prior to exercising their right to vote?		0.67			.55	2.35	0.53
Will you receive the support of male members (if you are a woman running for office) or female members (if you are a man running for office) if you take part in politics?		0.483					
Should there be quotas or other legislation requiring a certain			0.724		.40	1.17	0.29

percentage of cabinet members or political party members to be women?						
Should women serve as political workers for political parties?			0.569			
Should those responsible for closing voting stations for women be held accountable?			0.764			
Do you believe it is necessary for women to engage with political leaders or representatives in their communities to address community issues?			0.642	.50	1.22	0.26
If from your community /area a female is nominated for local elections, will you vote for her?			0.568			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Note: Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the factor reliability in the exploratory factor analysis. However, Cronbach's alpha values for three of the components were below .60, indicating that they lacked internal consistency. The exploratory nature of the research, the specifics of the sample, and the possible multidimensionality of the covariates (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2019; DeVellis, 2017) should all be considered despite these caveats. Further research and refinement of the factors are required to enhance their reliability and ensure accurate measurement of the constructs.

The component analysis yielded four distinct factors that capture different dimensions of attitudes towards women's political participation. Each factor represents a specific theme.

Factor 1: Gender Equality in Political Leadership

This factor includes concerns about the suitability of women holding the office of president or prime minister, their participation in decision-making committees, and participation in political campaigns and public gatherings. It reflects attitudes regarding the promotion of gender equality in positions of political leadership (see Table 4).

This variable accounts for opinions on whether women should hold political office. It includes how people feel about women participating in political campaigns, public meetings, and decision-making bodies inside political parties, as well as whether they think women should hold the role of president or prime minister. The importance of women's representation and involvement in shaping political processes and choices is shown in how strongly people hold this value and work to promote it among political leaders. It's a statement of intent to advance gender parity and eliminate discrimination at all levels of political power.

Factor 2: Gender Stereotypes and Voting Autonomy

This factor comprises questions concerning the support received by women in politics, prioritization of work for different genders, and the necessity of engaging with political leaders and representatives to address community issues. It reflects attitudes towards ensuring support and representation for women in political processes (see Table 4).

Consequently, this variable indicates opinions on gender roles and women's right to vote. It encapsulates ideas including the necessity of male family members' permission for women to utilize their voting rights, the importance of maintaining conventional gender roles in politics, and the reasons for not voting based on gender. This element illustrates the cultural prejudices, social conventions, and difficulties connected with gender roles and women's political agency.

Factor 3: Voting Rights and Gender Representation in Political Institutions

This factor encompasses questions regarding the impact of gender on voting decisions, the requirement of consent from male family members for women's voting rights, and the need for quotas or legislation promoting women's representation in cabinets and political parties. It reflects attitudes towards ensuring equal voting rights and promoting gender-balanced representation in political institutions.

Beliefs and opinions on issues like voting and gender parity in government are captured by this component. It includes arguments for and against laws or quotas that mandate a particular number of female cabinet ministers or political party members to advance the cause of gender parity in political power. In addition, opinions on women's roles as political party workers are covered. This criterion represents a dedication to promoting gender equality in political institutions and securing equal voting rights and opportunities for women. It stresses the significance of inclusive representation and women's involvement in political decision-making (see Table 4).

Factor 4: Women's Participation and Accountability in Political Parties

This factor includes questions related to women's participation as political workers for political parties and voting preferences for female candidates from one's community. It reflects attitudes towards the active engagement and involvement of women within political parties.

Attitudes and ideas towards women's participation and leadership within political parties are included in this category. It covers topics such as voting preferences for female candidates in one's local elections, the accountability of those responsible for closing voting stations for women, and the necessity of women engaging with political leaders or representatives in their communities to address community issues. The realization that decision-making processes and community problems may be improved by including more voices, including women's voices, inside political parties is reflected in this aspect. Women's participation in political parties and their acceptance as serious contenders for public office are emphasized (see Table 4).

We hypothesize that feminist mindset will be positively associated with the all the political engagement dimensions reflected in the four factors. Therefore, the second hypothesis of the study is as follows:

H2: A feminist beliefs has a significant positive effect on political engagement factors.

Table 5: Correlation between Feminist Beliefs and Political Engagement Factors

Gender	Male (N = 87)				Female (N = 113)			
Value	r	p	Mean	SD	r	p	Mean	SD
Gender Equality in Political Leadership	0.145	0.181	1.22	0.34	0.132	0.165	1.17	0.31
Gender Stereotypes and Voting Autonomy	-0.151	0.162	2.51	0.49	-.288**	0.002	2.23	0.53
Voting Rights and Gender Representation in Political Institutions	-.287**	0.007	1.19	0.29	0.107	0.259	1.16	0.3
Women's Participation and Accountability in Political Parties	-0.204	0.59	1.26	0.27	0.094	0.32	1.19	0.26

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .0$

Feminist beliefs Male (M=3.25, SD = .48) and Female (M = 3.42, SD = .26)

Table 6 displays the correlation matrix and descriptive statistics for the relationship between feminist beliefs and political engagement factors.

A weak positive correlation was found between feminist beliefs and gender equality in political leadership among male participants (N = 87) (r = 0.145, p = 0.181). There was however a faint negative correlation between

feminist beliefs and Gender Stereotypes and Voting Autonomy (r = -0.151, p = 0.162). There was also a significant negative correlation (r = -0.287, p = 0.007**) between feminist beliefs and Voting Rights and Gender Representation in Political Institutions. A negative but non-significant correlation was observed between Women's Participation and Accountability in Political Parties (r = -0.204, p = 0.59).

A positive but moderate correlation was found between feminist beliefs and gender equality in political leadership among 113 female participants (r = 0.132, p = 0.165). Nonetheless, a significant inverse correlation was found between feminist beliefs and Gender Stereotypes and Voting Autonomy (r = -0.288, p = 0.005**). There were no significant correlations between feminist beliefs and Voting Rights and Gender Representation in Political Institutions (r = 0.107, p = 0.259) or Women's Participation and Accountability in Political Parties (r = 0.09, p = 0.32).

For the variable "Gender Stereotypes and Voting Autonomy," there was a nonsignificant negative correlation (r = -0.151, p = 0.162) among male participants, indicating a weak tendency for individuals with stronger feminist beliefs to endorse slightly fewer gender stereotypes regarding voting autonomy. The mean score for this factor among men was 2.51 (SD = 0.49), indicating a moderate level of support for voting autonomy-related gender stereotypes.

There was a significant inverse relationship between feminist beliefs and gender stereotypes and voting autonomy among female participants (r = -0.288, p = 0.001**). This suggests that feminist women are more likely to oppose gender stereotypes associated with voting autonomy. The negative correlation indicates that as feminist beliefs increase, support for gender

stereotypes pertaining to voting autonomy decreases. This factor's mean score among women was 2.23 (SD = 0.53), indicating a moderate level of support for gender stereotypes regarding voting autonomy.

These findings suggest that feminist beliefs are positively correlated with gender equality in political leadership among both male and female participants. Nonetheless, significant negative correlations are observed between Gender Stereotypes and Voting Autonomy for both men and women. This suggests that individuals with stronger feminist beliefs are more likely to reject gender stereotypes regarding voting autonomy. In addition, a significant negative correlation was found between male participants' feminist beliefs and their views on Voting Rights and Gender Representation in Political Institutions. For either gender, there were no correlations between feminist beliefs and Women's Participation and Accountability in Political Parties.

These findings demonstrate the significance of feminist beliefs in influencing attitudes toward gender equality in political leadership and in combating gender stereotypes. In addition, they indicate the need for additional research into the factors that influence Voting Rights and Gender Representation in Political Institutions, particularly among male participants. Understanding the intricate connection between feminist beliefs and political participation can inform efforts to promote gender equality and increase women's political participation.

Discussion

Age, education, gender, and mother's work and education position were hypothesised to all have a role in shaping participants' feminism beliefs. Feminist values, as represented through education, were clear. Previous studies have shown that education promotes liberal values and feminist goals. Feminist

activism appears to grow at universities. Reasons for this include learning to think critically and consciously about issues of gender equality (Kyoore & Sulemana, 2019).

A mother's employment status was found to be a more accurate predictor of an individual's feminism than the mother's in a traditional role of a housewife. The findings may lend credence to the claim made by Yu and Lee (2013) as well as Ben-Nun Bloom, Gilad, and Freedman (2017), namely, that having a mother who works outside the home makes one more likely to embrace feminist ideals. It was also discovered that women, in comparison to males, are more likely to hold a feminist worldview. Nonetheless, both sexes shared some feminist beliefs and values. However, there was no correlation between age, mother's education, and feminism.

These findings further, suggest that feminist beliefs are positively correlated with gender equality in political leadership among both male and female participants. As for the second factor, Men and women agree on gender stereotypes and voting autonomy. Both men and women exhibit a modest inverse relationship, showing they want to defy gender stereotypes and encourage independent voting. The male respondents revealed a small but negative connection between "Gender Stereotypes and Voting Autonomy," suggesting that feminists are more likely to support voting freedom. The average male score implies weak adherence to stereotypes about women and the franchise. However, the association is not statistically significant for men, so it's possible that other influences are also at play in shaping these opinions.

Males and females share different views on whether women should be held accountable for their actions within political parties. Weakly negative correlations of the male responses suggest that men tend to see women's

participation and accountability less favorably in this setting. The association is not statistically significant, though, therefore more research into the variables driving these opinions is required.

Different points of view are held by men and women regarding the subject of equal voting rights and the representation of women in politics. Although there is a slight positive correlation between women's opinions and support for gender parity in political institutions, men's attitudes reveal a considerable negative correlation. On the other hand, strongly negative correlations between the sexes show that people tend to perceive women's participation and accountability in this situation less positively than they do in other circumstances. For instance, males and females often hold divergent views on the question of whether those who are responsible for preventing women from exercising their right to vote should be held accountable for their activities inside political parties.

These findings suggest that there may be a discrepancy between men's general support for feminist ideas and their attitudes towards women's political engagement. It implies that men's beliefs about gender equality and feminism may not necessarily translate into strong support for women's active involvement in political leadership, challenging gender stereotypes in voting, advocating for gender representation in political institutions, or promoting women's participation and accountability in political parties.

The difference between men and women's views relating to the political participation of women may be explained by their religious disposition. Many believe Islam subjugates women. Islamic feminists may argue that Islam inherently opposes feminism. Progressive Islamists agree that women in Islam have equal political rights, but this does not undermine their

essential obligation as mothers (Iqtidar, 2011; Noreen, 2019). Nevertheless, Islam is a comprehensive religious system that assigns significant importance to women. However, religious conservatives with limited perspectives and biases often misinterpret Islam, distorting its true essence and disregarding the inherent principles that grant women equal rights in all aspects of life. The deliberate characterization of feminism as "vulgarity and obscenity" is observed (Rakhshani, 2021; Zia A. S., 2020). However, statistics indicate that gender disparities exist globally in the political sphere. Women entering politics face numerous social and institutional obstacles worldwide. Misunderstanding of women's rights is exacerbated by the overlap between Islam and Pakistan's male-dominated society (Zia A. S., 2018). This misunderstanding does more harm to the cause of feminism than good because it prevents people from learning the truth about Islam's position on gender equality. To advance the rights of women and combat prejudice against them, it is necessary to distinguish between cultural norms and Islam's actual teachings (Rakhshani, 2021).

The results largely show that men and women think about feminist concepts and gender roles differently. Stronger connections between the variables are shown among women, suggesting that they are more likely to question gender norms, promote gender parity among political leaders, and appreciate diversity in political institutions. This intricacy of gender views and the effect of other factors is shown by the fact that the correlations may not be statistically significant in some circumstances. Further research is required to determine the causes of these perspectives and their prevalence among both genders.

The most important takeaway from this research is that people with conservative political ideologies and gender norms are influenced by political motivations. There is a possibility that traditional women and their more liberal counterparts share certain qualities, such as an emphasis on motherhood as a foundation for political activity (Zucker & Bay-Cheng, 2010). In addition, women who hold intellectually conservative views see feminists as threats to the traditional gender roles that have been established, which in turn inspires them to participate in political activities (Osawa, 2015; Saigol & Chaudhary, 2020). These political activities, which are based in support for traditional gender roles are often supported by men, since men are observed to feel threatened by progressive ideas about gender roles. Since these women have certain political convictions, it is crucial to investigate the roles that gender norms play in women's political engagement in the contexts in which they are active.

The findings of this study are thought provoking that seemingly very weak feminist tendencies especially among young women, however, suggest that traditional women are more complex than generally perceived or the media's stereotyped representation of them suggests they are. Within the confines of their conventional conception of what it is to be a woman, they subtly create a secure environment in which political action may take place. It is, of course, a question of perspective as to whether the "breaking of silence" among traditional women is perceived as negative or progressive (Osawa, 2015).

It's worth noting that Feminist ideas on how gender roles and economic inequality are socialized imply that shifting perspectives might significantly lessen gender disparities. However, it appears that integrating these viewpoints

did not help close the gender disparity in political participation. Nevertheless, studying these connections allows us to categorize people's political involvement according to their concerns. Women take part in activities when they feel compelled to. The sex of protestors, for instance, might differ substantially depending on the issue at hand, as shown by studies from Belgium's van Aelst and Walgrave (2001). A growing body of work recognizes the legitimacy and potency of non-institutional forms of political engagement in changing (formal) political outcomes (Dalton, 2008; Pattie, Seyd, & Whiteley, 2003)(Dalton 2008; Pattie et al. 2003), while more study is needed to establish the theoretical underpinnings of these varied types of action.

Conclusions

This research examined the influence of factors such as age, education, gender, and the work status of the mother on feminist beliefs. The findings demonstrates that increase in education level predicted feminist mindset, with higher education developing feminist beliefs may be due to gender equality awareness. Moreover, the employment status of mothers also predicted feminist notions, with working mothers being more feminist than mothers who did not work. There was no correlation between age and mother's education and feminism, but similar feminist attitudes existed between both genders, with males scoring higher. This conclusion necessitates further research and reveals complex relationships between gender identity, cultural expectations, and feminist ideas.

Moreover, the value of women in political leadership is held in equal esteem by both genders. When it comes to breaking down gender norms and enabling individuals to use their right to vote independently without being

dictated to, both men and women have a modest inverse link on gender roles and the voting autonomy.

In addition, a significant negative correlation was found between male participants' feminist beliefs and their views on Voting Rights and Gender Representation in Political Institutions. For either gender, there were no correlations between feminist beliefs and Women's Participation and Accountability in Political Parties.

Limitations

It is important to consider the limitations of the study, such as the specific sample and potential biases in participants' responses. The study's sample may not be representative, influencing generalizability. Self-report evaluations risk social desirability bias and subjective feminist interpretations. It provides valuable insights into prevailing attitudes about women, highlighting areas where societal attitudes may still need to progress towards greater gender equality.

This research explains feminist beliefs, education and mother's occupation predicted progressive gender equality views. These findings illuminate the complicated processes of building feminist principles and can inform gender equality efforts. However, to gain a deeper understanding of feminist attitudes, it is necessary to examine additional factors and their interactions.

Additionally, the exploratory nature of the research, along with small and demographically similar sample, which may account for the low Cronbach's alpha value of the factor reliability within the framework of the exploratory factor analysis. This indicates a lack of internal consistency.

Therefore, the components need more research and improvement to enable accurate evaluation of the structures and increase their dependability.

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