

**A CROSS - CULTURAL STUDY OF CHILD  
REARING PRACTICES AND THEIR EFFECT ON  
PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT.**

**Ph. D. Dissertation**

*SUBMITTED BY*

**NASEEM R. SAHIBZADA**



**DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY  
UNIVERSITY OF PESHAWAR**

**APRIL, 1991.**

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**IN THE NAME OF  
"ALLAH"  
The Most Merciful  
The Most Gracious**

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PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT.**

**Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the  
requirements for Ph. D. Degree:**

*SUBMITTED BY*

**NASEEM R. SAHIBZADA**



**DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY  
UNIVERSITY OF PESHAWAR**

**APRIL, 1991.**

Certificate of approval

This is to certify that the present research entitled  
"A cross-cultural study of child rearing practices and their  
effect on personality development", has been accepted by  
Mrs. Neema Kishor Sahasrabudhe under the supervision of the  
University, towards partial fulfillment of the degree of  
Ph.D. in psychology, from the University of Pune.

Dedicated to my mother , who  
always stood by me and gave me  
strength and hope whenever I  
needed it.

*[Signature]*  
Chairperson,  
Department of Psychology,  
University of Pune

Handwritten notes in the left margin, including a date "21/12/19" at the bottom.

Certificate of Approval

Acknowledgment

Abstract

This is to certify that the present research entitled "A cross-cultural study of child rearing practices and their effect on personality development", has been completed by Mrs. Naseem Riaz Sahibzada under the supervision of the undersigned, towards partial fulfilment of the degree of P h.D. in psychology, from the University of Peshawar.

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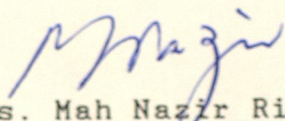
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Dated 30 April, 1991

  
(Dr. Mrs. Mah Nazir Riaz),  
Chairperson,  
Department of Psychology,  
University of Peshawar.

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Here, I would also like to thank my husband, Dr. Sahibzada Mohammad Riaz, who helped in the editing of this dissertation.

Thank you one and all!!

## Abstract

The main purpose of the present study was to find out the major difference in child rearing techniques, used by Pakistani and Kenyan mothers and to explore their effects on personality development. For this purpose, a total of 161 families were randomly drawn from a population of Peshawar (Pakistan) and Nairobi (Kenya). From each family, a mother and one child were included in the sample. The study was carried in two parts. In part A, the main difference in child rearing techniques were studied and an unstructured questionnaire on mothers, was administered. Part B explored the effects of child rearing techniques on personality dimensions. Here CAT was administered on their children.

The results revealed that Kenyan mothers preferred breast feeding more as compared to Pakistani mothers ( $P < .01$ ). Bottle feeding, on the other hand, was less preferred by Kenyan mothers as compared to Pakistani mothers ( $P < .01$ ). In both the cultural groups, a higher percentage of mothers belonging to joint family system preferred bottle feeding in contrast to the nucleus family system ( $P < 0.1$ ). The data further revealed that a high percentage of Pakistani mothers wean and toilet train their children earlier ( $P < .01$ ), as compared to Kenyan mothers. Moreover, mothers belonging to

the higher income groups in Pakistan as well as Kenya, toilet train their children earlier as compared to lower income group ( $P < .01$ ). In the case of punishment, as a mode of discipline, a higher percentage of Pakistani mothers punish their children for misbehaviour, as compared to Kenyan mothers ( $P < .05$ ). In joint family system, mothers of both the cultural groups, reward their children for good behaviour more, in contrast to nucleus family system ( $P < .05$ ). The results also revealed that mothers from both the cultures, belonging to higher income groups, reward good school work more as compared to lower to lower income groups ( $P < .05$ ).

The results of Part B revealed that independence was highly related to bottle feeding ( $P < .01$ ) whereas, breast feeding shows no such relationship. Furthermore, the sex of the child shows a significant relationship with aggressive behaviour ( $P < .05$ ). Thus, a high percentage of boys, of both the cultural, groups exhibit aggressive behaviour more frequently as compared to girls.

## HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

The present investigation seeks to explore the child rearing methods used by Pakistani and Egyptian mothers and their effects on personality development of the child.

It was felt necessary, that a child of today who is the builder of tomorrow, should be brought up with proper care and attention so that his skills, his abilities, his personality and social characteristics, should benefit his family.

### CHAPTER I

## HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

Psychologists of the twentieth century have reached the general conclusion that the early period of the child, is extremely important for his later social and psychological adjustments.

Personality of the child begins as early as neonatal period. Harlow (1971) reports that a disturbed prenatal environment can result if the mother is subjected to severe or prolonged stress. Caldwell (1973), Sontag (1966), suggests that such disturbances, if it occurs during the latter part of intrauterine life, may cause state of hyperactivity and irritability in the new born.

Many developmental psychologists agree that the ways in which the child is reared up is considered as foundation stone for later personality. Harlow (1971) is of the opinion

## HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

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It was felt necessary, that a child of today who is the builder of tomorrow, should be brought up with proper care and attention so that his skills, his abilities, his personality and, social characteristics, should benefit his family, his community and his country at large. The psychologists of the twentieth century have reached the general conclusion that the early period of the child, is extremely important for his later social and psychological adjustments.

Personality of the child begins as early as neonatal period. Hurlock (1976) reports that a disturbed prenatal environment can result if the mother is subjected to severe or prolonged stress. Caldwell (1926), Sontag (1966), suggests that such disturbances, if it occurs during the latter part of intrauterine life, may causes state of hyperactivity and irritability in the new born.

Many Developmental psychologists assume that the ways in which the child is reared up is considered as a foundation laid for later personality. Hurlock (1976) is of the opinion

that the parents, the siblings, the relatives, constitute the child's social world. They are important factors in the shaping of his self concept which is the core of personality development. Glasner (1961), reports that the Child's concept of himself as a person is "formed within the womb of family relationship."

Freud (1922) stresses the importance of oral experiences for all later social and emotional development. The theory assumes that the dominant motive during the first year of life is oral drive, i.e the instinctual impulse to gain pleasure through sucking. If the infant is satisfied by his feeding, then he is gratified and emotionally well set. Any interference with these activities is thought to lead to intense frustration. Excessive gratification of oral impulses, too, leads to intense frustration, or a combination of the two will lead to oral fixation, which is expressed in a variety of behavioral symptoms: thumb sucking, nail biting, over eating or excessive drinking. On the other hand, an infant whose sucking and other oral experiences are adequate and gratifying would develop personality traits of optimism, self confidence, sociability and receptivity.

In the later part of the oral period, the growth of teeth were thought to bring with it the impulse to bite and other manifestations of sadism. Freud, further adds, that these sadistic impulses might get intensified by

frustration and fixation at this stage of psychosexual development which might be expressed in later life by such traits as taking delight in verbal attack or in back biting gossip.

Erikson (1963) emphasizes that the neonate acquires a sense of trust during the first year through a sense of gratification received from earliest experiences and contacts with the mother, thus trust is related to the mother's ability to give her child a sense of familiarity, consistency, continuity and sameness of experience. On the other hand, unsatisfactory physical and psychological experiences gives rise to the sense of mistrust and fearful apprehension of future situation. Mistrust occurs when the mother turns from the baby, to other pursuits like: resuming her career, becoming pregnant again etc., the outcome is acute depression in infants and paranoia in adults. Erikson further adds, that if the child successfully resolves the stage than it gives rise to hope, which in turn, is the foundation of the adults faith in some form of institutionalized religion.

Sears (1957) in his learning theory states that "child rearing is a continuous process. Every moment of the child's life, which he spends in contact with his parents, has some effect on both his present behaviour and his potentialities for further action."

Sears emphasizes, that child development occurs with dyadic units of behaviour, rather than within monadic unit of a single individual. In any stimulus - response sequence, the response of one individual serves as a stimulus for another, therefore, each stimulus - response sequence can be studied with respect to the inter - related behaviour of two or more individuals.

The learning theorist believes that with proper reinforcement the infant of a few days can adapt to the schedule of the mother. Marquis (1941) experimentally investigated the problem of adaptation to a feeding schedule within the first ten days of life. She took two groups; one was scheduled after four hours for all ten days; another was on three hours, for first eight days subsequently being shifted to four hours schedule on the 9th day. Daily changes in restlessness were used as the criterion for adaptation.

After a few days of this schedule, the body activities of the first group rose sharply, immediately after their next schedule of feeding increase gradually enhanced, and was more abrupt in the 4 hour group. This group had learnt to wait four hours for food.

Marked changes in the activity pattern were observed in the second group, when they were shifted to a 4 hour

schedule. At the end of three hours, their habitual feeding time, body movements increased abruptly and reached the highest level recorded during the study. This group had learnt to respond to hunger cues after three hours. Failure to receive food at this time produced extreme restlessness and activity. As such it may be concluded, that the behaviour of a child, just a few days old, can be modified accordance with external demands, such as a feeding schedule.

In short, different theories of child development, such as psychoanalysis theory of Freud, psychosocial theory of Erikson, or learning theory of Sears-all stress that early child rearing techniques play an important role in the personality development of the child.

#### PART A

In this part, the investigator explored the main difference in child rearing techniques, across the cultural groups, religious groups, income groups, family system and mother's employment.

#### CHILD REARING TECHNIQUES

Child rearing techniques are hereby defined in operational terms as methods used for feeding, weaning toilet training and techniques of discipline. It refers

to what the mother actually practices, in rearing the child.

### FEEDING AND WEANING TECHNIQUES

Feeding and related activities have usually been considered the most important aspect of infant care in the early months, they help in the development of emotional relationship between mother and child.

Feeding refers to sucking responses in the infant to liquids either in the form of milk or water. These responses are well developed in the child's hierarchy of needs.

Dollard and Miller (1950) noted two general theoretical implications of infant feeding experience for later personality. It either sets a pattern towards self reliant independence or apathy. They quote "If the child is fed when hungry, it can learn that the one simple thing it can do to get results (Cry) can make a difference in what happens. Learning to cry as a signal for food is one small unit in its control of the world. Such a trait could be the basis of later tendency to be up and doing when it is in trouble, of a belief that there is always a way out of a painful situation." On the other hand, if the child is not fed when it is crying.... it can, similarly learn that there is nothing it can do at that time to change the painful circumstances. Such training may also lay the basis for

habit of apathy and not "trying something else" when in trouble.

The other theoretical implication is that the infant's experience with hunger and feeding situation can lay down the foundation for later social feelings. Dollard and Miller suggests the way a pattern learning toward generally positive or negative social feelings (extroversion vs introversion) can be set up.

When the hungry infant is fed, some of the wonderful relaxation responses which it experiences can be conditioned to the stimuli of those persons who are caring for the child. Thereafter, the mere appearance of the mother can produce a momentary feeling of well being....since the mother or care taker stands at the very head of the parade of persons who become "society" for the child. Thus, it is quite important that she evokes such benign and positive responses in the child.

If its food rewards are in various ways cut down and spoiled, it may not care much whether "the others" are there or not, tending to be low in social feeling.

Newton (1958) suggests that the interaction involved in nursing the baby maybe the most intimate and mutually satisfying that occurs between a mother and infant. The mother who is relaxed and comfortable while nursing, exhibits

a "let down reflex" which refers to a change in nipple position, that has the effect of allowing the baby to draw milk more easily. The infant's satisfied gurgles testify to the success of both the mother and child. The more upset the mother becomes, the harder it is for her to provide milk .

Sewell and Mussen (1952) collected 26 different adjustment scores from a large sample of five or six year olds. The sample was then divided according to whether their mothers has breast fed or bottle fed them. Comparisons showed no significant difference between the two groups on any of the twenty six measures. Breast or bottle as an apparatus are not psychologically important but the child's feeding experiences are important.

Odenwald (1958) considers the periods of feeding the most important moments of the infant's life. It helps to satisfy the sucking urge and offers pleasure and emotional gratification, for both the baby and the mother. The mother's holding the baby in her arms while he is taking nourishments, whether a breast or from a bottle, gives the body contact from which the child derives the sense of security that every infant needs.

Goldman and Eisler (1953) found that traits representing oral optimism (cheerfulness, generosity), tended to be characteristic of adult subjects who had experienced a relatively long period of breast feeding. Whereas, early weaning from breast, was related to oral pessimism.

Levy (1928) conducted a study on puppies and found that puppies who were artificially fed with fast - flowing nipples did more non-nutritive sucking, than those fed on nipples with small holes, which provided more opportunity for sucking, than those fed on nipples with small holes, which provided more opportunity for sucking along with the ingestion of milk. In a study of infants, he related limited opportunity to suck during nursing, to a greater incidence of thumb sucking later; demonstrating some relationship between thumb sucking and earlier oral frustration.

The child, satisfied and secure in his early feeding habits will probably accept weaning with less tension than the unsatisfied and insecure child. Rappaport (1972) suggests that the child who is generally confident about getting enough of the right foods to eat, will not be terribly threatened by the gradual introduction of some new foods. Weaning refers to the shift of milk to a relatively solid food. Dollard and Miller (1950) reports that if the child is suddenly changed from one type of food or mode, to another type, it may go on a hunger strike which the parents obstinately oppose and let the child eat when he gets hungry enough. The child will eat, but in the mean time, he may have learned some of the fears of apathy.

If the child is accustomed to drink water from a spoon during his earliest weeks, so that this become a part of loving attention given to him; the sensations and movements it involves become familiar in time for the weaning crisis is very sound; the graduation of the change by introducing one or two artificial feeds at first, and then by degree early increasing the number, will make the situation much easier for the child.

Whiting and Child (1953) wanted to see a relationship between early independence training and early weaning. They drew the conclusion that early independence training is significantly associated with early weaning. It was also found, that high protein content of the diet, facilitates the weaning process. The child seems to be no longer dependent on the protein supplied through the mother's milk.

Sears et al., (1948); Sears and Wise (1950), demonstrated that infants who were weaned later were more upset. The relationship of the age of weaning to thumb sucking was not large or significant with a small sample available, but it was in the direction predicted by their hypothesis that the oral drive is in part a learned or secondary drive which increases in strength with a greater amount of reinforced practice. This theory would predict that later weaning, after the infant has had more reinforced sucking experience should be more frustrating.

All of the infants in the Sears' studies were weaned relatively early, at about seven months on the average. Other data - from a study by Yarrow (1954) from Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957); and from Whiting and Child's (1953) cross-cultural comparisons (in which a greater range of ages of weaning is available than within the Sears and Levin early weaning culture, suggests that the amount of upset actually bears a curvilinear relationship to the age of weaning. More upset is shown by infants who are weaned at about a year, than by those weaned earlier or later. These findings suggest that both the learning theory and the psychoanalytic views are partially correct.

#### TOILET TRAINING.

Elimination training constitute the other major area of socialization in infancy. When the child is toilet trained, he must learn to postpone the relief of an impelling set of urges, in order to perform the acts of urination and defecation at the time and place prescribed by his culture.

The child learns to control: he learn to refrain from soiling and wetting in immediate and automatic response to the tensions of full bowel and bladder. The child also learns some additional habits such as the use of toilet, removing and putting on clothing and clean himself. At first, these parts of the toileting sequence are all carried on for the child by the mother or the caretaker: he is a relatively

passive participant as he learns to recognize the times when he is likely to have a bowel movement and thus placed him on the potty to make sure that he doesn't dirty himself. Later, she ensures that he urinates first before bedtime, in an attempt for night time dryness. Gradually, the child is required to take more responsibility by himself, letting his mother know, in some ways, when he needs to be put on the potty. Thus the control of urination and defecation, which the mother at first attempts to impose on the child, must gradually be assumed by him.

Ferguson (1970) states that at this time, the mother enters into the child's world most sharply as a source of demand and prohibitions rather than as provider of comfort and gratification. If the child conforms to these demands and restrictions relatively easily, then the whole process may proceed quite smoothly. But if the child resists strenuously, the stage may be set for a power struggle.

Erik Erikson (1963) sees this early period as a critical one for the child's development of autonomy, of self reliance and of competence. This depends on his mastery of the physiological functions of elimination and his increased skills in manipulation locomotion and exploration. He further adds, that muscular maturation sets the stage for an ambivalent set of social modalities - holding on and letting go. To hold on can either become a destructive retaining,

restraining or a pattern of care - to have and to hold. To let go, too, can turn into either an inimical letting loose or a relaxed "letting be." This stage, therefore, becomes decisive for the ratio of good will and willfulness. A sense of self-control without loss; of self-esteem, the ontogenic source of confidence in free-will; a sense of over control and loss of self-control can give rise to a lasting propensity for doubt and shame.

Freud (1922) states that libidinal energy shifts from mouth to anal region, in the second and third year of life. Young children derive pleasure from the retention and expulsion of faeces; gradually learning to entrance their pleasure by delaying bowel movements. Freud was convinced that the way in which parents carry out toilet training has specific effects on later personality development.

He identified two types of parental strategies for dealing with the frustration of toilet training. If the parent is harsh and repressive, children may withhold their faeces and become constipated. If this tendency to "hold back" becomes excessive and generalizes to other modes of behaviour, the child will become anal - retentive personality. Adults presumably manifests strong anal-retentive fixation in character traits of obstinancy, stinginess, orderliness, punctuality and extreme cleanliness or extremely messy. This is also the proto-type for a variety of expulsive traits such

as ; the inability to make fine distinctions, or to tolerate confusion and ambiguity. See to what extent children who

On the other hand, if the parent pleads with the child to have regular bowel movements and shower the child with praise for so doing, the child will develop anal - aggression, destructiveness, disorderliness and hostility with respect to adult love relationships. These persons tend to perceive others primarily as objects to be possessed.

According to the principles of learning, a child may learn to inhibit a response such as evacuation, if he is rewarded frequently for inhibiting it successfully. It is possible for the child to become trained through consistent rewards for the responses of withholding elimination, until he is at toilet.

Sears et.al: (1957) concluded that severe training methods (defined by use of severe punishment for lapses, with the mother becoming angry) were likely to be used by mothers who were generally rigid, demanding and high in sex anxiety. If, in addition, the mother tended to be cold and rejecting in her feelings towards the child, severe training was then more likely to lead to emotional upset.

Hetherington and Brackbill (1963) administered to a sample of 35 kindergarten children, a series of behavioral

test design, to measure the traits of orderliness, parsimony and obstinacy. They wanted to see to what extent children who were high or low in one trait tended to be similar high or low in the others. They found some covariation in girls but not in boys. Hetherington and Brackbill also equated the degree of relationship of the children's behavioural traits with parent's reports of methods used by them in toilet training, as well as similarity of character traits in the parents. They found no relationship to toilet training; interestingly, however, they found a significant influence of parental character traits on the presence of similar behavioural disposition in their offspring. Thus one can deduce that a mother who is stubborn and values order and cleanliness will more than likely produce similar characteristics in her children.

Douglas and Blomfield (1958) reported that 60% of English mothers begin to potty train their children before they are one month old, at an age when voluntary control over elimination is physiologically not possible. Only 15% English mothers manoeuvre until their children are six months old. By the time they were six years old, 18% of the children studied were receiving laxatives, at least once a week.

Weiner and Elkind (1972) report that girls generally achieve toilet training earlier than boys: boys are particularly likely to continue to wet the bed for longer

time than girls. However both boys and girls may have accidents throughout the pre-school years.

Pediatricians and child psychologists generally agree, that training should be delayed until the child is "ready" for it, i.e; until his neuromuscular apparatus is mature.

Ferguson (1970) reports that over the last couple of generation educated mothers have been progressively postponing toilet training. Now many mothers do not start until the child is past 2 years.

Sears et.al; (1975) report that the average time for completing bowel training was 18 months: Training for urinary control generally started somewhat later; dryness at night being the last aspect to be completed. More than half of the sample were reported to have stopped wetting the bed by the time they were 3, but about 20% were still having at least occasional accidents at kindergarten age. They suggests that if the training is begun very early, before 5 months or between 15 and 19 months, it is likely to be fraught with more difficulties and will take longer. The period of peak disturbance at 15-19 months, may reflect its interference with the stage of maximum exploratory activity, or may suggest the nature of the specific phase of anal drives.

## TECHNIQUES OF DISCIPLINE.

Discipline comes from the word "disciple", the student who wants to learn from and thus voluntarily follows a leader. The parents and the teachers are the leaders; the child is the disciple, who learns from them the ways of life that lead to usefulness and happiness. Discipline, as Hoffman (1970) says, is society's way of teaching the child the moral behaviour approved by the group.

Essentials for discipline are rules which are prescribed in patterns set by teachers, parents and playmates. They provide guidelines for approved behaviour in a particular situation. Rules tell children what they must do, whether at home, in school or on the playgrounds. Kurtines (1974) suggests if the rules are broken then the children are punished, if the rules are obeyed the behaviour is rewarded. Rewards are essential to model behaviour along the approved lines.

According to Mussen, Conger and Kagan (1969) the 2 or 3 years old child's behaviour is based on external rather than internal sanctions. Gradually, as the child enters into 4 to 6 years and on into middle childhood, it determines more abstract standards, and it becomes less determined by external rewards and punishment but more by internal sanction.

The mother normally starts disciplining the child in babyhood. Hurlock (1976) suggests that during babyhood the emphasis should be on educational aspect of discipline ---- teaching the baby what is right and what is wrong. For that purpose a reward should be used.

Jones (1954) reports that praising or rewarding children for good behaviour will make them conceited, but it has been found that when positive techniques in the form of praise, encouragement or balanced criticism is used in school, desirable response out weigh the undersirable responses in the ratio 46 to 1. Even children who at first seem recalcitrant later show desirable responses.

Psychologists are of the opinion, that discipline should be instructive rather than punitive, and it should be directed towards the child's behaviour and not towards his essential worth as a person.

Hurlock (1978) stresses consistency in discipline, which means the tendency towards sameness or a degree of uniformity or stability. If for instance, the mother sets one rule for a specific act, the father another, and the grandmother or babysister yet another; it is impossible then for the child to learn what is right and what is wrong. She further adds, that instructive discipline foster, self-control and social judgement, whereas, punishment seldom contributes to it.

Moreover, the parents should tell their children that the punishment was given for his misbehaviour, rather than to himself, whom they love. This way the child learns, without suffering damage to his initiative and self-confidence, and, with minimal anger or rebelliousness.

Eysneck (1960) reports that the kind of discipline used by parents plays an important role in the development of conscience. The child develops responses to certain kind of situations and actions built up by associating certain acts with punishment. As such, the conscience acts as an "internalized policeman" which motivates the child to do what he knows is right and thus avoid punishment.

Eysneck argues that guilt, in his opinion, is a "special kind of negative self-evaluation, occurring when an individual acknowledges that his behaviour is at variance with a given moral value, to which he feels obligated to conform." Whereas, shame is an unpleasant emotional reaction of an individual, to an actual or presumed negative judgement of himself by others; resulting in self - depreciation vis-a-vis the group. "Shame relies on the external sanctions alone: guilt relies on both external and internal sanctions.

Hurlock (1978) differentiating between the authoritarian and permissive parents in disciplining a child says; authoritarian discipline is more damaging to the child

because it involves power assertive discipline, where as, children trained by permissive techniques become confused and insecure because of their limited experience and mental immaturity which makes it impossible for them to make decisions about behaviour which will conform to social expectations. Their parents care too little for them to guide and help them in avoiding mistakes. Democratic discipline develops inner control, therefore, it leads to good personal and social adjustment, because it results in independence in thinking, initiative in action, and a healthy, positive, confident self concept; which is reflected in active, outgoing and spontaneous behaviour.

A brief review of cross-cultural researches in child rearing techniques is presented.

#### CROSS - CULTURAL STUDIES.

Since the present research is a cross-cultural study, therefore, it is necessary to throw some light on this method.

Weiner and Elkind (1972) say, that the term as used by anthropologists means, the totality of practices, implements, customs, taboos, and mores, that characterize a given group living in a more or less circumscribed place. In isolated aboriginal tribes the culture is relatively easy

to describe. As a society grows more sophisticated and worldly, however, any, description of its culture become increasingly complex.

The cross-cultural method was first used by E.B. Taylor (1889) who presented at the meetings of the Royal Anthropological Institute of Great Britain a paper entitled "On a method of investigating the development of institutions; applied to laws of marriage and descent." The first study to be published which was concerned with the testing of hypothesis derived from behaviour science was of D.G.Horton (1943). He used cross-cultural method to investigate the relationship between the drinking of alcoholic beverages and anxiety; showing that alcohol reduced inhibition in all societies, unless special measures were taken.

B.B. Whiting (1950) studied the relation between sorcery and social control. McClelland and Friedman (1964) studied the relationship between child training practices and achievement motivation. They demonstrated, that the amount of Achievement imagery in Coyote folk tales told in various American Indian tribes, is significantly associated with stress in the tribe on early independence training.

Whiting and Child (1953) analyzed data for over fifty different cultures. Among other findings, they discovered a

relationship between the age at which weaning, modesty training, sex-training and independence training were initiated, and the prevalence of feelings of guilt among adults. Very early socialization of these behaviours were correlated with strong guilt feelings.

Candill and Weinstein (1966) compared 30 Japanese and 30 American mothers and their 3 to 4 month-old first born babies. The Japanese child sleeps with mother and father, the American child sleeps alone in his room. When the Japanese infant cries, the mother responds immediately and feed him; soon after he begins to fret. In contrast, the American child cries for a few minutes before the mother comes to feed him. The Japanese mother soothes and quiets her baby, whereas, the American mother stimulates him through vocalizing or smiling. The Japanese baby is less active and vocal than the American. The difference in maternal behaviour seems to derive from different philosophies or attitudes about the infant. The American mother believes that the child is basically passive and it is her job to mould him --- to make him into an active, independent and achieving child, therefore, she stimulates him. The Japanese mother believes her infant is basically independent and active, therefore, she wants to soothe him and make him dependent upon her and the family; she sees, " the infant as a separate biological organism, which from the beginning, in order to develop, needs to be drawn into interdependent relations with others.

Whiting and Child (1960) have reported that there is association between a prolonged period of exclusive contact between the infant and his mother and severe male initiation rites at puberty. They suggest that this prolonged and exclusive maternal care may lead to strong tendencies for boys to identify with the female role, and that severe initiation rite, maybe a device for breaking this feminine identification. However, their conclusions have been disputed by other anthropologists, who may not disagree with the findings but suggests other possible interpretations. Thus, it is quite difficult to demonstrate that a particular personality trait or cultural pattern can be attributed to a specific child-care practice.

Whiting and Child (1953) found a wide variety of feeding practices in fifty one cultural groups. The Marquesans, for example, do not indulge their children, and nurse them only a short time. Marquesan mothers fearing disfigurement of their breasts generally wean their infants within the first years. At the other extreme, the Chenchu tribe of India allow their children to nurse until they are of 5 or 6 years of age. The Lepcha of India ordinarily wean their children by the age of three, but the youngest children are occasionally allowed to nurse until puberty.

Whiting (1954) suggests that the advantages of the

cross-cultural method are two fold. First, it ensures that one's findings to human behaviour is general rather than being bound to a single culture. Secondly, it increases the variation range of many of the variables. Here, we must keep in mind that the present study is designed to see the cross-cultural differences between Pakistan and Kenya in terms of their child-rearing practices. Moreover, the study also sought to find the effect of child rearing techniques on personality variables of aggression, fear, dependency and independence.

#### SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL OR SOCIAL CLASS DIFFERENCE

We know that in each culture there are a number of class groups which differ in many of their values, beliefs and practices.

Pikunas (1976) refers to social class as an aggregation of persons, families having approximately the same social status in a society. It denotes a basic stratification of a society in term of similarities along the continuum of the economy. Basically, class levels are defined in terms of variation in economic assets, education, employment and residence.

Pervin (1970) suggests that social class determinants emphasize the patterns of behaviour that are class related.

Havighurst (1946) studied child rearing practices of lower and middle class white and Negro mothers. They interviewed 200 women. The result showed that permissive feeding and weaning treatment was more characteristic of lower class than of middle class mothers. More lower class mothers breast fed their children, nursed them for longer periods of time on self-demand schedules and also allowed pacifiers. Negro mothers tended to be more lenient than whites in their feeding procedures, nursing their children longer, feeding on demand and weaning more gradually.

A more recent study by Littman (1957), Maccaboy (1954), and White & Martha (1957) in the Boston area, found considerable differences between the social classes in infant feeding practices. Middle class mothers breast fed somewhat more frequently and scheduled feedings slightly more rigidly, but neither of these differences were significant.

More recent studies in Boston area suggests that the well - educated middle class mother is more likely to breast feed than the lower-class poorly educated one. Mussen, Conger and Kagan (1969) concludes that between the period of these investigations there seems to be a complete reversal in the ratio of middle class to lower class mothers choosing to nurse their babies.

Bronfenbrenner (1958) reports white lower middle class American mothers tend to begin toilet training early, middle

class mothers begin this training during the second year - at the same time they are trying to socialize his strong needs for autonomy and exploration as well as his seemingly irrepressible curiosity. significantly higher than those for the lower class counterparts.

Most of the evidence indicates that middle class mothers are more affectionate and less punitive than those of the lower classes. Jersild (1933) interviewed 198 white upper-middle and 178 upper lower class mothers of kindergarten children. The results indicated that upper middle class mothers are warmer and more demonstrative than upper lower mothers. Moreover, upper lower mothers employed physical punishment, deprivation of privileges and ridicule as techniques of controlling their children more commonly than did upper middle mothers. It appeared that upper middle class parents used reasoning and praise more often. behaviour

Weiner and Elkind (1972) talk about hygiene in social class level. By the age of 4 a child can do the basic physical cleaning without minimal help. Lower class parents do not have access to private bathrooms, washing machinery or enough clothing. Therefore, parents may not be able to approach hygiene as vigorously as they may wish. Personal hygiene is poor in lower class families, which is determined by the economic circumstances of the parents. verbal

creative production than the children of less educated  
 Ros en (1964) replicated McClelland, Rindlisbacher and

deCharms (1955) study. The conclusion drawn were that middle class parents, as compared to the lower classes, place greater stress upon independence training. On the average, achievement scores were significantly higher than those for the lower class counterparts.

Miller and Swanson (1960) reports that physical punishments of children is more often condoned among lower class than among middle class parent and therefore, is used more. The reward of artistic interests, on the other hand, is more frequent among middle than among the lower class families. Honesty, however, is less clearly related to social class values, being reared in all social class groups. The child's tendency to adopt honesty as a value is, therefore, more dependent upon the degree of honest displayd by the same sex parent and the parental encouragement of his behaviour.

Sheldon (1968) reports that the upper class parents engage in more leisure activities, have been educated in college of high reputation, and have usually developed their aesthetic appreciation to a higher level than the other classes. The children are usually encouraged to be self reliant and to assume a manipulative stance towards all aspects of reality: children of college educated parents tend to show greater originality and higher scores in verbal creative production than the children of less educated parents.

Weiner and Elkind (1972) report that lower income parents on the average have large families as compared to parents with higher income. Family sizes affect children in various ways. Large families provide a child with more of a sense of community and more opportunities for social learning and awareness of individual and sex differences than is possible in smaller families. Smaller families generate closer, more intense and less flexible emotional ties among their members, hence, can be the scene of more intrafamilial tension and anxiety, than large families in which there is more opportunity for multiple attachments and shifting allegiances.

#### THE INFLUENCES OF FAMILY STRUCTURE

The family, according to Pickunas (1976), is an enduring social group based on marriage and blood relationship, exercising hereditary and environmental influences of prime dimensions on the offspring. Two parents and their dependent children constitute the nucleus family. As a primary group, the family with children is bound together by kinship and intimate relations marked by care, affection and support, as well as mutual sharing in various activities and concerns. Father and mother, are crucial members of the family, and the family is considered incomplete, or "broken", when either of them is absent. Pickunas further adds, that the

function of the family is:

- (a) To provide affection, support and companionship.
- (b) Raising children.
- (c) Teaching and transmitting culture, economics and morals to the young.
- (d) Developing personalities .
- (e) Dividing and discharging labour within the family and outside.

In the present research joint family is operationally defined as that family in which the child's grand parents and paternal aunts and uncles live. The presence of other members influence the child's life. Murdock (1958) collected a sample of 565 societies, representing a sample of world cultures. It indicates that only slightly more than a quarter of them have nuclear family arrangement. Various forms of extended family is, in which either the married sons or married daughters remain living in the house of their parents are more common; the mother child household, in which the father sleeps either in the hut or at the men's clubhouse is nearly as common. The following table indicates the distribution of household arrangements in the world sample.

Extended 161

Nuclear 141

Mother child 123

Polygamous 89

Communal 11

This includes large extended families with three generations of nuclear families, lineal households with two generations, and stem family household, in which only the oldest or youngest married son or daughter lives in the household.

The infant's world and its effect on socialization should be profoundly different for households to which he belongs. The childhood training method used in family is important in shaping the young child's developing concept of self. According to Hurlock (1976) strict authoritarian discipline, accompanied by frequent and harsh corporal punishment, tends to build up resentment against all persons in authority. She further adds, that the aspirations parents have for the child, play an important role in developing his self concept. When these are unrealistically very high, the child is doomed to failure, leaving an indelible mark on their self-concept laying the foundation for feeling of inferiority and ineqquacy.

Brown, Moris and Couch (1947) found a general tendency for such traits as honesty, friendliness, and responsibility, to be associated with children who are permitted

opportunities for democratic participation in the home, and who are given a measure of confidence and support by parents.

Weiner and Elkind (1972) report that joint family system has an effect on a child's behaviour. The presence of aging, active, and energetic grandparents in the home, may provide a young child an additional source of affection, companionship, and stimulation in the home and may at times be a helpful buffer between him and his parents.

On the other hand, an ailing or bed ridden grand parent may curtail a child's self expression in the house. In addition, the grand parent's presence may cause a wide range of reactions in the parents, which may in turn affect their behaviour towards their children. When the parents and the grand parents do not get along and there is much friction in the home, the resulting tension of the adults is sure to be expressed in many different ways, including displacement of anger on to the children.

A child who is living alone with his parents has quite a different experience than a child who lives in extended family.

Roberts (1956) studied a Zuni culture where the child lives with his parents married sisters and their children. He calls his maternal aunts by the same term as he calls his

mother and since they share with the real mother the responsibility of care and discipline, therefore, it is thought that a Zuni child is brought up by many mothers. Whiting (1959), reports that in the houses where mother and child lives alone, the mother become a sole identification and a sole object of cathexis. The problem of cross sex identification for a male brought up in this kind of household is great, and these societies find it necessary to develop techniques for changing the boy's object of identification before adulthood. Dobbly et al; (1958) reports

The household arrangements influence the age and severity of aggression training and the techniques parents employ in training for control. Murdock and Whiting (1951) reports that apparently hostilities must be controlled in extended families when so many peoples are living under one roof; and it is disruptive if the mother is expressive in her efforts to teach the child control. More indirect methods are used in the extended families. A Zuni mother will ignore an aggressive child or threaten him with a supernatural agent. In contrast, the use of physical punishment occurs most frequently in societies with mother child households, in which the mother can get angry without disturbing any one else.

#### WORKING MOTHERS.

The role of a mother includes nurturing and care,

affection and protection, stimulation and tutoring. Pickunas (1976) says that the child sees his mother as a gratifier of his needs. Infancy is a period of nearly total dependency on the mother. Emotionally and socially the child remains dependent during the preschool and early school years.

For short intervals the mothers maybe substituted for by the father and also by nursery personal and baby sitters. However, much substitution for longer intervals readily produced maternal deprivation. Bowlby et.al; (1956) reports that working mothers providing substitutes for longer intervals will produce maternal deprivation with many detrimental effects on the child's adjustment, including developmental retardation and regression.

There is evidence as Yarrow (1963) reports, that infants who are separated from their mothers after birth do not make as good an adjustment to postnatal life as who remain with their mothers.

Biller (1971) reports that when a mother works outside the house, and the children are cared for by relatives, neighbours or child care centers; the relationship of the children with the mother will be different from those children brought up in homes with a house oriented mother.

David Elkind (1972) reports that mostly lower class mothers, work because of their economic difficulties. As a result, infants of a lower class spend most of their working hours in either the neighbour's house or a daycare center. When the working mother comes home she is tired and not in a mood to play. For this reason the quality of mothering recieved by these infants are different. On the otherhand, a middle class mother affords a good daycare center with ample facilities and a small teacher-child ratio. Therefore, there are major differences in the amount and quality of caretaking received by lower class as compared to middle class working mothers, which effects the children in different ways.

Schwartz, Strickland and Krolick (1947) report, that those children who recieved a daycare since infancy were more aggressive and motorically activate (for example, running around, using their bodies) then the children who had previously been cared for at home . The "old times" in day care were less cooperative with adults.

Hurlock (1978) is of the opinion, that if the mother begins to work before the child becomes accustomed to spending most of the time with her - before any definate relationship is formed, the effect will be minimal. If strong attachments are formed the child will suffer from maternal deprivation, unless a satisfactory mother substitute is provided. A substitute whom the child likes and whose

method of child training will not cause confusion or resentment on the child's part.

On the other hand, Siegal (1961) has critically reviewed the studies of maternal employment which are discussed by Clausen and Williams (1963). These authors find no consistent evidence of the deleterious effect on development and emotional adjustment attributed to working mothers.

Hoffman (1947) hypothesizes that working mothers provide a different role model than do non-working mothers. The children develop different ideas of the role played by members of the the female sex. Both sons and daughters of working mothers are more likely to approve of women working, have less traditional sex-role stereotypes, and are likely to evaluate woman's competence more highly than from children whose mothers do not work. In addition, daughters of working mothers show more independence and have higher achievement aspiration, than do daughters of non-working women.

## PART B

The second part of the study explored the effect of child rearing techniques on some dimensions of personality development. The personality variables were fear, aggression, dependence and independence.

## FEAR

Fear is an emotional experience in babies, caused by stimuli that startle them. For example, sudden loud noises, unexpected surprise and pain. A baby reacts to fear by crying, withdrawing or seeking refuge in the arms of the mother.

During a twenty one day observation period, Jersila (1935) observed 136 children, ranging in age from 3 to 97 months for 21 days. He recorded all the situations in which children displayed fear. He found that during the first year, fear occurred most frequently in response to noises and events previously associated with them; falling or displacement, sudden or unexpected movement, flashes of light, persons or objects previously associated with pain, as well as animals and strange persons, objects and events.

In the second year, fear reactions were elicited by noises, strange events falling or danger of falling, sudden movements and flashes of light; were less frightening than they were previously, but fears of animals and persons or objects associated with pain increased. Some children in the second year were afraid of the dark, or of being alone, although, they had not shown these fears earlier.

Mussen, Conger and Kagan (1969) report that in pre-

school year, fear stems from anticipated, imaginary or supernatural dangers (possibility of accidents, darkness, dreams, ghosts etc.). Apparently, the child's continued development, his increased understanding of the world and greater use of representations and symbols - influence his emotional reactions. In general, the frequency and intensity of the overt signs of fear, ( i.e., crying, panic, withdrawl) decreased with age between 2 and 5 years.

Watson and Rayner (1920) conducted an experimental study on fear, believing that it is a learned response that can be generalised to other similar stimuli. Albert, an eleventh months old child was exposed to a furry animal. As he approached the animal, at that time, the experimenter made a loud noise behind him. This sequence of events was repeated several times and each time the baby showed greater signs of fear. Once the fear is learned, it is further transferred to the other furry animals. Learning theorists believes that fear can be extinguished successfully to reduce the child's fear.

Holmes (1936) applied the same principle of Learning theory to overcome children's fear of dark rooms. A friendly adult accompanied youngsters and ecourage the children to become active explorersin the dark places where they found valuable prizes. Thus their fear reponses were weakened and finally eliminated.

Mothers can reduce their children's fear most effectively by techniques of explaining, plus gradually encouraging the child to confront the situation he fears.

Jersiled (1935) conducted a study, in which he concludes, that there is a positive correlation between fears displayed and IQ. Apparently, intelligent children are able to recognize "potential danger" more readily, than duller ones, have livelier imaginations, and probably think and reflect more about dangers.

Most children adopt their mother's fears. This is most clear in the cases of fears of dogs, insects and storms. Hagen (1932) says that parents fears are acquired by the child through identification or observational learning.

All childhood fears anxieties and troublesome feelings are not manifested, directly during the child's waking state. Some may remain repressed during the day, only to emerge in nightmares.

Kessler (1966) states that nightmares tend to reach to a peak at the age of 4 and 6 years. The nightmares indicate the presence of at least transient anxiety and conflict in a child. They are repressed during the day, but at night, when the child's defences are lowered by sleep; they come to the

forefront. However, when nightmares become frequent, severe, and recurrent, efforts should be made through psychotherapy to determine the source of a child's anxiety and to ameliorate it. The extreme form of nightmare is night terrors or pavor nocturnus, following which the child has great difficulty in reorienting to reality. Kessler (1966), says "in such night terrors, the child is often reliving a traumatic event."

There is another most common childhood fear, which is called school phobia, a fear which may approach panic, of leaving home and going to school. Kessler (1966) reports that the majority of clinicians suggest that school phobias are common among girls. This is because of the greater social acceptability of dependency in girls.

Clinicians report "8-year anxiety", is a death phobia, it tends to occur fairly common at this age. Anthony (1967) refers to this age period as "existential crisis". The child becomes increasingly preoccupied with ideas that either he or his parents will die. The child's concept of death, like many of his other ideas, develops gradually during the whole period of growth. This is because of preexisting conflicts frequently involving anxiety about separation from parents or fear of punishment and retribution are usually present. As the condition improves, the sense of personal immunity to death reasserts itself.

English (1954) points out that tic is a most common symptom of middle childhood psychological tension. It involves repeated motor responses of face, neck and head of which the child is largely unaware. The action may include blinking of the eyes, nose-wrinkling, throat clearing, yawning, shoulder-shrugging, head shaking etc. They are symptoms of repressed needs and conflicts. English further adds, the children should not be scolded or corrected for these actions, because they are involuntary. Efforts should be made to make the child's life at home as relaxed and agreeable as possible and his school and social life should be reasonable satisfying - not over strenuous.

#### AGGRESSION

Aggressive responses are intended to harm others. Freud (1922), termed this motive as the "death instinct". It turns into destruction of self as well as others.

According to Ferguson (1970) if we look back into the history of aggression, we find that rage, as a recognizable pattern of emotional response begins sometimes during the first year. Rage occurs because of physical restraints or the interruption of an outgoing sequence of pleasurable activity.

Goodenough (1931) found that anger outbursts increased in frequency upto 18 months and then decreased at a differential

rate in boys and girls: by the age of 3 it is significantly more frequent in boys.

Among children under 2 years of age, anger outbursts are because of being forced to remain on the toilet, restrictive clothing, and being put to bed frequently. Denial of permission to carry out some desirable activity, verbal and physical restraints on such activities are the causes of anger.

Most psychologists are of the opinion, that aggression can be eliminated by the removal of interference with motivated activities. For e.g., granting the child's desire, removing the source of trouble, diverting the child's attention, ignoring the outburst.

Lorenz (1966) reports that aggressive expression has a biological basis. The male young of many animal species (e.g., Rats, Guinea pigs, Monkeys) are much more aggressive than their female siblings. Experimental administration of male hormones of these species make them much more aggressive in their approach to others. Most studies of young children shows that aggressive behaviour in form of physical aggression is found in greater amount in boys as compared to girls. Whereas, girls are generally found to have higher aggression anxiety than boys Sears (1961). He further adds, that 12 year old girls with the highest aggression anxiety,

were those who had been the most aggressive in early childhood.

Feshbach (1964) postulated that aggression stems from the child's frequent exposures to behaviours and cultural norms, which indicate that injuring others is an appropriate response when the individual is frustrated or in pain - that is the association between frustration and aggression behaviour is a kind of internalized cultural standard. Mussen *et.al*; (1969) reports that both these explanation about frustration aggression hypotheses " are largely speculative, there being little evidence that directly bear on this issue".

Bandura (1961), suggests that aggression increases if demonstrated by aggressive models as children mostly learn through imitation. In a study of a doll play fantasy in preschool children, he observed, that children displayed similar aggressive behaviour towards dolls as their models did in the situation.

If the child is rewarded for aggressive behaviour then it increases the overt expression of aggression and generalization of aggressive responses also takes place in other situations. Bandura (1969), in an experimental study, gave trinkets as a reward for verbal aggression while playing with dolls (calling dolls dirty, bad). A control group was

rewarded for non aggressive verbal responses. Following this training period children were taken to another similar situation. The experimental group children made significantly more aggressive responses than the controlled group.

Studies of parental socialization practices have often focused on the methods of discipline used in the shaping of aggressive behaviour. There has been special interest in punishment, especially physical punishment. Sears *et al.* (1969) have pointed out that physical punishment for aggressive behaviour maybe expected to have contradictory effects. It leads to displacement either towards another, safer object or into more indirect form. Sears (1969), Bandura and Walters (1969), suggests that children who are highly aggressive towards peers, or who engage in antisocial aggression in the community, have experienced both high instigation and non - permissiveness for aggression at home.

Aronfreed (1963) has demonstrated the effectiveness of verbal labelling, combined with the appropriate timing of mild punishment (removing a reward) in teaching both to refrain from response that the experimenter labels as unacceptable and to produce self critical response. Aronfreed believes that the timing of punishment is a crucial variable in the establishment of internal control. Punishment that precedes the consummation of deviant act (that is administered first as a child is reaching for a forbidden

object) is much more effective in producing inhibition than punishment administered after the act.

Parental use of reasoning has generally been found to be related to a greater degree of internal control rather than punishment.

Sears *et.al*, (1957) report that mothers who are inconsistent about aggression, sometimes punishing a child for his behaviour and sometimes ignoring it, had as a result higher aggressive children.

Koch (1960) indicated that boys with older brothers are generally more aggressive than those without siblings.

Gessel (1946) suggests that the period between 5 and 6 years of age is a transitional one in which children go from a state of relatively calm emotional expression to extremely aggressive behaviour. As they reach school age, there are fewer tantrums and less physical aggressiveness. From 8 or 9 years of age criticism and teasing become increasingly important as a source of anger.

Mussen *et.al*, (1969) suggests that with increasing age and experience, the child learns to express his aggression in culturally acceptable ways and to inhibit socially unacceptable responses. Boys are more likely than girls to receive strong reinforcement for aggression, and it becomes a

fairly stable characteristic - that is, boys who are highly aggressive during the preschool period are likely to be highly aggressive in adolescence.

### INDEPENDENCE

Independence is the wish to reach mastery and obtain the goals which the child has set for himself, without seeking much assistance from the adults. It is the child's motivation to deal effectively with his environment. White (1959) describes effective motivation, as the development of competence as an attribute of personality which is closely linked to the basic and pervasive motives for mastery and achievement - that is, the child's desire to master problems and increase his skills and abilities: gross motor tasks, reading, writing, painting etc. David Levy (1962) says when the child has grown up and can make choices, this behaviour is part of the general movement towards autonomy of the whole person, the first stage of self determination, and it should be regarded as one of the protective and self propelling functions that enables the child to overcome infantile dependency. They show signs of independence. The child shows preference for friends of similar socio-economic, racial and religious backgrounds.

Bernard and D'Andrade (1964) in their study, made a distinction between achievement training and independence

training. Achievement training lay stress on doing things "well"; whereas independence training aimed at performance "by himself".

In achievement training, as Child, Storm and Veroff (1958) report, the stress is made on competition in situations involving standards of excellence, whereas, independence training involves putting the child on his own. Independence training largely excludes achievement training; it is normally concerned with developing self-reliance in the areas involving self-care taking (e.g. cleaning, dressing, amusing or defending oneself). Bernard and D'Andrade further adds that both kind of training practice occur together but achievement training is more effective in generating Achievement.

Fales (1944) studied 2 and 3 years olds in nursery school. He first recorded how many of these children insisted on struggling in to their coats everyday without any help. Then one group of the children was given special training in this activity. As they became more skillful, they began to reject help with putting on their coats. The study seems to suggest that increased skill results in a higher level of aspiration. The children became more ambitious setting higher standards in doing things for themselves.

Crandall, Preston and Robson (1960) concluded after studying school children showing high achievement-oriented behaviours, that these children whose mothers made a point of rewarding them for achievement at home, displayed strong and

frequent achievement efforts outside the home.

In American culture, as in most societies, achievement is more strongly stressed and reinforced in the training of boys than of girls. Therefore, Sears et.al, (1957), after an investigation, reported that in the primary grades boys manifest more achievement motivation than girls on many criteria (e.g., interest in solving a puzzle they had previously failed), although these sex differences are not so evident during the preschool years.

Winterbottom (1958) contrasted early child training procedures used by mothers of preadolescent (8-10 years old) boys high in achievement motivation (as revealed in projective tests), with those used by mothers of boys low in achievement motivation. The former expected self-reliant and independent behaviour at earlier ages, from nursery school age onwards and from the earliest years gave frequent and substantial rewards for independent accomplishment. Reinforcement for early accomplishment seems to facilitate the development of general motive for achievement and the desire to learn new intellectual skills and to perform well in school. Early training in independence and mastery contributes to the development of achievement motivation in preadolescent.

Moss and Kagan (1950) reported that girls whose mothers rewarded their intellectual accomplishment during the first three years gained substantially in IQ between the ages of 6 and 10; personality tests showing that they

were highly concerned with mastery and competition. For e.g., a girl with an achievement rewarding mothers responded to a picture of a boy with a violin by telling a story in which a boy is "practicing the violin and wants to be good so he can play in Carneige Hall". In contrast, a girl with a non achievement - rewarding mother would reply, " The boy doesn't want to practice and wants to go out and play."

### DEPENDENCE

Dependence motive is the wish to be nurtured, aided, comforted and protected by others. It also includes seeking attention, assistance, approval, recognition, contact and clinging.

Mussan, Conger and Kagan (1969), report that there is no one-to-one relationship between dependency motivation and dependent behaviour. It is not necessary that a child with high dependency motivation will manifest dependent behaviour. If, in the child's experience, the dependence motive is rewarded and not associated with punishment, anxiety, or conflict, the child will develop dependence motive. On the other hand, if the parents discourage dependent behaviour by telling him it is "babyish": the child feels inadequate and anxious and does not exhibit such behaviour.

Sears et.al., (1957) found that the most dependent children in their sample come from homes where the mother

punished the child for dependence but ultimately gave the child the attention or help he was demanding.

Heathers (1955) introduced distinction between emotional and instrumental dependence. Emotional dependence refers to such behaviour as friendly approaches to others, wanting to be physically near, or in contact with others; seeking attention, comfort or approval from others and being distressed by separation. On the other hand, instrumental dependence involves seeking the intervention of another person in order to accomplish some ulterior goals. Its most obvious manifestation is help seeking. This is opposite to self sufficiency.

A given behaviour may serve several motives or goals. The child who asks for help may feel incompetent in accomplishing the task at hand, or, he maybe using the request to secure attention, or both. Thus the various kind of dependency have sometimes been found to intercorrelate.

Emmerich (1966) reports that during early childhood, manifestation of dependency are more frequent and intense among girls than boys. Nursery school teachers rate girls higher in dependency throughout the nursery school years.

Another study by Crandall (1960) reports, that in a free play settings, girls 3 to 8 years of age, show more dependent overtures to adults than do boys. Perhaps, this is because girls have less intense anxiety over expressing dependency, which is an accepted component of traditional feminine

behaviour. *Other dependent solicitations.*

Otis (1955) shows that frustration has a differential effect on the child, depending on his initial level of dependency. Highly dependent preschool children (as measured by affection-seeking and clinging to teacher), have been found to be less aggressive than non dependent children. It is because they are anxious about possible rejection, loss of love, and nurturance, if he behaves in prohibited and aggressive ways.

Stendler (1954) reports that inconsistent nurturance, whether brought about through separation or through erratic maternal behaviour, leads to extreme emotional dependences. Stendler selected a group of first graders who were judged according to a number of criteria for over dependence. They recieved extreme scores on a number of teacher ratings, of both help seeking and contact seeking behaviours, especially on their reluctance to be separated from their mothers. The mothers of 6 out of 20 cases were rated as over protective. They encouraged the child's dependence on them and thwarted any attempts at self sufficiency. These children tended to be physically dependent and low in self reliance. The other 14 children presented a different pattern of high emotional dependency. They had experienced serious discontinuities in care, in the period between 6 months and 3 years (a critical period for development of attachment). This inconsistency increased anxiety, and the tendency to seek reassurance,

through further dependent solicitations.

Dependency on adults maybe useful in teaching. Those children who are highly dependent on adults, appear to be highly motivated to learn, when rewarded with adult approval. Hartup (1958) conducted a study on 2 preschool groups of children. One group was consistently nurtured by a female experimenter who played and talked with each child individually. In the second group, each child was first nurtured and then suddenly withdrawn. As a second step, each child was asked to learn a simple task and was verbally praised by the experimenter for a good performance. The group that experienced nurturance withdrawal learnt the task more rapidly with adult approval than the first group. They had a strong need for adult approved and attention.

## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

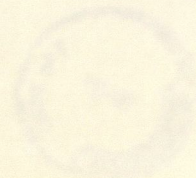
The main purpose of the present study is to find out the differences in child rearing practices used by Pakistani and Kenyan mothers and to explore their effects on personality development of the child. It is assumed that the early training which the mother gives her child, has a significant effect in the personality development. This persistence of behavioural patterns set up during childhood, throughout the life of the individual, is

## CHAPTER II

## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The rationale of such a study is, that if a mother is aware and she is aware of the importance of child rearing practices, she can shape her child's personality in the best possible way. According to Hurlock (1978), if the infant's physical, psychological, and cognitive needs are satisfied according to the child's requirements, and if, the care and attention given to the child is based on affection and sensitivity, the parents will be able to promote the child's development, by providing appropriate stimulation for developing qualities and traits.

The present study includes a hundred and sixty one mothers, selected at random, representing two different cultural groups i.e. Pakistan and Kenya. Its aim is to explore the cultural differences, if any exist, between the prevalent child-rearing practices.



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## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The main purpose of the present study is to find out the differences in child rearing practices used by Pakistani and Kenyan mothers and to explore their effects on personality development of the child. It is assumed that the early training which the mother gives her child, has a significant effect in the offspring's personality development. This persistence of behavioral patterns set up in early childhood, throughout the life of the individual, is one that is adhered to by most psychologists.

The rationale of such a study is, that if a mother is educated and she is aware of the importance of child rearing practices, she can shape her child's personality in the best possible way. According to Hurlock (1976), if the infant's somatic, psychological, and cognitive needs are satisfied according to the child's requirement, and if, the care and guidance given to the child is based on affection and gentleness; the parents would be able to promote the child's development, by providing appropriate stimulation for emerging qualities and traits.

The present study includes a hundred and sixty one families, selected at random, representing two different cultural groups i.e Pakistan and Kenya. Its aim is to explore the cultural differences, if any exist, between the prevalent child-rearing practices.



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Furthermore, the study seeks to show, how these different methods of child training affect the growing individual within the two aforementioned cultural contexts.

### CHAPTER III

## METHOD AND PROCEDURE

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## Design

The present study explored child rearing practices in India and Pakistan, and their effect on some personality dimensions. It was administered in two parts. In part A, mothers were taken as the subjects, and a questionnaire was administered. In part B, children were given a CAT, in which they involuntarily project their hidden motives.

## CHAPTER III

## METHOD AND PROCEDURE

## Part A

In this part, the main differences in child rearing practices across the two national groups were studied. Here, the independent variables were cultural background, religious beliefs, income group, family system and mother's employment. On the other hand, the dependent variables were feeding and weaning practices, practices in toilet training, and techniques of discipline.

## Part B

The second part of the study explored the effect of child rearing behaviour on personality. Here, the independent variables were child rearing techniques as split into feeding, toilet training and discipline. The dependent variables were aggression, dependency, and self-esteem. Furthermore, the study also explored the effect of gender

## METHOD AND PROCEDURE

### Design

The present study explored Child rearing practises in Kenya and Pakistan, and their effect on some personality dimensions. It was administered in two parts. In part A, mothers were taken as the subjects, and a questionnaire was administered. In part B, children were given a CAT, in which they involuntarily project their hidden motives.

#### Part A

In this part, the main differences in child rearing techniques across the two cultural groups were studied. Here, the independent variables were cultural background, religious groups, income groups, family system and mothers employment. On the other hand, the dependent variables were feeding and weaning practices, practices in toilet training, and techniques of discipline.

#### Part B

The second part of the study explored the effect of child rearing techniques on personality dimensions. Here, the independent variables were child rearing techniques as spelt out earlier, and the dependent variables were aggression, fear, dependency, and independence.

Furthermore, the study also aimed to investigate gender

differences, if any, on the above mentioned behavioural patterns.

### Subject

A sample of one hundred and sixty one families were randomly drawn from a population of Peshawar (Pakistan) and Nairobi (Kenya). Every fourth house was selected in the city, cantonment, University Town and Peshawar University campus. From each area, twenty five families were chosen. Similarly, fifteen families were randomly drawn from Kwangware, Lavington, Pangani and East Leigh.

From each family a mother and a child were included in a sample. Out of one hundred and sixty one families, one hundred belonged to Peshawar (Pakistan) and sixty one to Nairobi (Kenya). A further classification, according to religion, family system, mother's employment and a male and female child were also done, which is shown in Table 1.

The ages of the mothers ranged from nineteen to fifty three, whereas, the children sample were from the ages of three to ten. If, for instance, there was more than one child within this age range, in any particular family, than the oldest child was included in the study. The logic behind this selection was that he or she could better express themselves.

## INSTRUMENT

An Unstructured questionnaire consisting of two parts was administered on each mother. The first part of the questionnaire provided the personal information schedule of the subject. The subject had to fill the columns and provide the information about her name, religion, their monthly family income, her being employed and whether living in the joint family system or nucleus system.

The second part of the questionnaire included fifteen items about child rearing practices i.e., feeding, weaning, toilet training and techniques of discipline.

## FEEDING AND WEANING TECHNIQUES.

Feeding and weaning techniques includes food in liquid form. All eating in infantile refers to sucking and swallowing. It is either in form of breast feeding or bottle feeding. When breast or bottle is replaced by relatively solid food weaning has started. In other words weaning is a shift to a new form of nourishment.

## Practices in Toilet Training.

This category includes the habits of control and

elimination of urination & bowel movements. The mother either uses traditional ways or else modern ways for training the child. The traditional ways includes holding the child upon their feet or holding them in arms etc. whereas modern ways includes using a baby pot etc. The child is given learning for regularity and timing, for being clean and avoid spreading dirt.

### Techniques of Discipline.

The questions asked about the discipline included the teachings of moral codes to the child. The child must learn to behave in socially approved way. he is taught to distinguish between right and wrong and for this purpose, usually various forms of reward and punishment are used to enforce discipline.

The responses on which a child is rewarded are mostly on being obedient, respect elders, well behaved does not fight with siblings, helps mother in cleaning, being honest, resisting temptation to cheat, lie or steal, making moral judgement in which justice is tempered with mercy.

Act which are wrong and unapproved socially and religiously are punished like misbehaving, annoying and irritating the elders, being rude, crying for nothing, refusing to do what is asked for, obstinate, stealing, lying

cheating etc.

All mothers were required to first fill the personal information schedule and then write down her own views and practices in the spaces provided on the questionnaire.

The second part of the study includes Children Apperceptive Test (Bellak, 1975). The test being a projective method was considered best for assessing some dimensions of personality.

It is used for children from 3-10 years of age. The items included in CAT are ten pictures depicting animals in various situations. These pictures are designed to elicit responses to feeding problems specifically and oral problems generally, to investigate problems of sibling rivalry and to illuminate attitude towards parental figure. It also elicits the child's fantasies about aggression, about acceptance by the adult world and his fears of being lonely at night. It provides the examiner a dynamic method to study the child as he is reacting to and handling his problems. Because of the design of the present study, the investigator felt to develop certain techniques for coding the material. These codes were based on frequencies of occurrence of a given behavioural manifestation. At the end of the test all the frequencies were counted which gave the dominant behavioural pattern, followed by other variables in varying degrees. These codes of personality variables along with their operational

definition are given below.

### Aggression

It includes behaviour aimed at hurting other people; also applies to feeling of anger or hostility. Common forms of aggression are insulting, threatening by gestures or by verbal statements, challenging, frightening, chasing, taking or attempting to take property against the desire of others, destroying or attempt to destroy property.

### Fear

For young children fear which is an emotional response can be unexpected noise, strange objects, falling objects, sudden movement and threats of bodily harm or pain. Visual and spatial fears include dark rooms, large objects, fear of being lost, shadows, ghosts, burglars. Personal fear includes mother's departure, separation from mother at bed time, sleeping alone, being only one in the house, fear of someone hiding under the bed or hiding in the woods. Sounds: Fear of sound includes rain, wind, thunder, fire at night, animal noises at night. Injury to self includes fear of splinters, little cuts, blood etc.



## Dependence.

The dependence motive is the wish to be nurtured, aided, comforted and protected by others, or to be emotionally close to or accepted by others. There are numerous forms of dependent behaviour as seeking assistance, attention, recognition, approval, reassurance, contact, clinging to adults or other children, resisting separation from adults, soliciting affection and support.

The mother was assured that there was no right and wrong and that she should answer the questions without

In this category the child actively tries to look after his own needs and requirements on his own without seeking help or guidance of others. He accomplishes tasks like riding a bicycle, leading others and asserts himself in children's groups, making his own way in the market, choosing his own clothes, making his own friends, staying alone in the house and trying to undress himself and go to bed by himself.

The following instructions were given to the

## Procedure

As explained earlier, the study was carried in two parts and therefore, two subjects were used in either part. In the first part the mother was asked to fill the questionnaire, whereas, in the second part the child was asked to write stories for CAT cards.

## PART A

The investigator first approached the mother who was given a questionnaire. She was asked to read each item carefully and fill in all the blanks to collect demographic data. After completing the first part of the questionnaire, the subject was requested to turn to the next page for answering the questions concerning child rearing techniques. The mother was assured that there was no right and wrong responses, and that she should answer the questions without any hesitation.

## PART B

The child was taken as a subject. To establish a rapport with the child the researcher asked a few questions concerning his/her school work, hobbies, friends etc. As the subject overcomes the initial shyness, the actual test was carried out. The following instructions were given to the child:

"This is a story telling test. I have some pictures here that I am going to show you, and for each picture I want you to make up a story. Tell what has happened before and what is happening now. Say what the people are feeling and thinking and how it will come out."

out. You can make up any kind of story you please. Do you understand ?

Well then, here is the first picture. You have five minutes to make up a story. See how well you can do."

After the instructions, card I was shown to the subject for five minutes and then he/she was asked to write a story about it. After Card I, Card II was shown till all the ten cards. A set of ten stories written by the child and a questionnaire filled by the mother was gathered. The same procedure was followed for the sample drawn from Nairobi. The following illustrations will show how the different behavioural patterns were scored.

#### A Story for Card 8

One day there was a party in the mother monkey's house and a number of guests had come. The monkey had a very illmannered child. He mostly fought and snatched things from other children of his age. All the guests were sitting. He walked into the room and addressed his mother loudly complaining that he was being punished by the neighbours. The mother tried to calm him down but he was determined not to listen to her. The guests were slowly discussing the misbehaviour of the child. when the mother realised that the child was bent upon creating a problem, she slapped him

and ordered him to leave the house forever, until he learnt to behave himself.

On realising his fault, the baby monkey apologised to his mother and promised not to misbehave again. These lines have a powerful imagery of discipline. They are scored for punishment which clearly points out unapproved actions which are punished.

#### A Story for Card 7

The cheetah who is extremely strong is also very cruel. He always teases his fellow animals and hurts them. One day he was roaming aimlessly, when at a distance he saw a baby monkey playing innocently. He decided to chase him and attack him. He killed the monkey, but at the same time, without realising it he fell into a ditch, badly injuring both his legs. He cried to his fellow animals for help but no one came to his assistance.

He died without food and water in that ditch, and no one came to help him.

This story is marked for aggression, which shows the act of hurting and injuring others.

## A Story for Card 4

The mother kangaroo has got her son a bicycle on coming first in his class. He is trying to learn to ride it by himself. He has requested his mother to go out with him to the park, where he can practice his riding. The mother agrees and takes her children to the park. The boy is concentrating on his riding and is very carefully watching the park.

The child is trying to learn without seeking help or guidance from others. Moreover, the child has got the bicycle on coming first, which is his achievement. This indicates the imagery of independence for which it is marked.

## A Story for Card 5

After the mother had ensured that the baby had gone to sleep, she decided to go out and hunt, to bring some food for her family. When the mother left, a little while later, the baby woke up, and on not finding his mother close to him, he started crying. The room being dark, added to his misery. The mother returned soon not finding any game. She entered the room to find her child crying. The baby had swollen eyes, red face and on seeing his mother, he clung to her. The mother embraced him and made him sleep in her arms. He was still sobbing in his sleep. The mother decided that she would never leave her child alone and go hunting.

The above lines contain the imagery of dependance, the child on seperation from his mother started crying. Moreover, he clings to her when she comes home. He relies on her. Since the story contains dependance, it is scored for this imagery.

elder chicks to the market and got them some low cream, for  
 hand banners, whereas A Story for Card 6 adds to stay at home.  
 The reward characteristic of these lines clearly show the set

All these bears live in this cave. The father and having  
 mother, after a long and hectic day of hunting, have gone of  
 to sleep. The child cannot go to sleep: he has spent the  
 entire day in playing and has not done his homework. He is  
 scared that the teacher will punish him.

He is imagining the painful punishment, which his data  
 teacher will give him the following day. As a result, he  
 won't be able to sleep all night.

This story contains the imagery of fear of not  
 completing the homework as well as fear of punishment. Since  
 it contains both the imageries, therefore, it is maked as +1  
 for fear, and +1 for punishment.

#### A Story for Card 1

The mother hen is standing to one side, while the chicks  
 are having soup. The two elder chicks have washed their hands  
 and put their napkins around their necks, before starting on

their soup, whereas the young chick, inspite of mother's scolding, did not put on his napkin and sat to his food.

After finishing their soup, the mother took the two elder chicks to the market and got them some ice cream, for good manners, whereas, the youngest was made to stay at home. The reward characteristic of these lines clearly show the act of the mother taking her children to the market for behaving well. Thus it is scored for reward as +1.

When all the demographic data, covering child rearing practices and their effect on personality variables of the child was gathered, it was tabulated in the form of raw scores. An analysis of variance was then applied on the data.



## RESULTS

The major aim of the present study was to find out the differences in child rearing techniques used by Pakistani and Kenyan mothers, and to explore their effects on personality development of the child. Table 1, reveals a comparison between Pakistani and Kenyan samples in terms of demographic characteristics.

## CHAPTER IV

## RESULTS

Table 2 illustrates the frequency and percentage of income groups calculated by percentage (Pakistani income is given in terms of rupees and Kenyan in terms of Kenyan shillings).

Comparison between Pakistani and Kenyan sample regarding child rearing techniques i.e. feeding, weaning, toilet training and discipline are presented in tables 3-6. Whereas, Table 7 shows the frequencies and percentages of certain personality variables like aggression, fear, dependence and independence.

## Part A

In order to find out the significance of difference between culture, religion, income, family system and mother's employment on breast feeding and bottle feeding, analysis of variance was carried out. In contrast to 26.5% Kenyan

## RESULTS

The major aim of the present study was to find out the differences in child rearing techniques used by Pakistani and Kenyan mothers, and to explore their effects on personality development of the child. Table I, reveals a comparison between Pakistani and Kenyan samples in terms of demographic characteristics.

Table 2 illustrates the frequencies and percentage of income groups calculated by percentiles. (Pakistani income is shown in terms of rupees and Kenyan in terms of Kenyan shillings).

Comparison between Pakistani and Kenyan sample regarding child rearing techniques i.e. feeding, weaning, toilet training and discipline are presented in tables 3-6. Whereas, table 7 shows the frequencies and percentages of certain personality variables like aggression, fear, dependence and independence.

## Part A

In order to find out the significance of difference between culture, religion, income, family system and mother's employment on breast feeding and bottle feeding, analysis of variance was carried out. In contrast to 96.6% Kenyan

mothers, only 70.8% Pakistani mothers use breast feeding (Table 8). On the other hand, 61.85% Pakistani mothers use bottle feeding as opposed to 11.5% Kenyan mothers (Table 9). These results clearly indicate that the two groups significantly differ in their preference for feeding ( $P < .01$ ). However, no such difference seems to exist between various groups, when compared on the basis of religion, income, family system and mother's employment in terms of breast feeding. On the other hand, the findings reveal, (Table 9), that in both the cultural groups a higher percentage of mothers belonging to joint family system prefer bottle feeding. ( $P < .01$ ). Religious groups, income groups and mother's employments, however, does not seem to bear any significant relationship on the above mentioned practice.

Table 10 shows that the two cultural groups differ significantly as far as weaning age is concerned. Most Pakistani mothers wean their children between the ages of 2 to 3 years, whereas, Kenyan mothers wean their offsprings from 2 1/2, years to 4 years. These finding demonstrate that weaning occurs earlier in Pakistan as compared to Kenya ( $P < .01$ ). The results further reveal a significant interaction existing between cultural and income groups, on the one hand ( $P < .01$ ), and religious and income group, on the other hand ( $P < .05$ ).

An examination of Table 11 shows that there is a

considerable difference in Kenya and Pakistan regarding the toilet training age. Pakistani mothers start toilet training earlier i.e from age 4 to 6 months, whereas Kenyan mothers are late toilet trainers (10 to 12 months). The results further show a significant difference ( $P < .01$ ) which exists between the five income groups in the age of toilet training.

Sanitation and aggression: Although the difference is not

In both the cultures, it seems, that higher percentage of mothers belonging to higher income group (group 4 and 5) toilet train their children early (from 6 months - till 1 year) in contrast to lower income groups (group 2-3) where toilet training starts late from (1 1/2 years - 2 years).

Table 12 and 13 shows the effect of different groups on punishment as a form of discipline. Punishment has no bearing on the family system or mother's employment, as well as, the religious, cultural and income groups (Table 12).

Both Pakistani and Kenyan mothers punish their children for misbehaviour as a form of deterrent. Results reveal (Table 13) that Pakistani mothers (40.21%) seem to be more concerned about their children's misbehaviour as compared to Kenyan mothers (38.33%) and punish their children for eliminating such a behaviour ( $P < .05$ ).

Concerning disobedience as a form of punishment, in both the cultural groups, there is a trend of punishing disobedience more frequently in joint family system, as

compared to nucleus system. The results (Table 13) bear no significant difference at the desired level, but the marginal difference demonstrates a relationship between the two techniques variables. Development of certain personality variables such as, aggression, fear, dependence and independence.

In like manner, similar finding can be drawn for immorality and aggression. Although the difference is not significant, yet the marginal relationship show, that Kenyan mothers punish their children for immorality as compared to Pakistani mothers. Where as, a higher percentage of Pakistani mothers punish aggressive behaviour in contrast to a lower percentage of Kenyan mothers.

Table 14 shows praise as a mode of discipline. There is a significant difference ( $P < .05$ ) which exists between good behaviour of the children and the family system. In both the cultural groups, mothers of joint family system use rewards for inculcating good behaviour in their children as compared to nucleus family system, where the percentage is low. Difference is significant, yet it does suggest to some extent, that

Moreover, the same table reveals a significant relationship between different income groups and good school work ( $P < .05$ ). It seems that mothers belonging to higher income groups reward good school work more frequently, as compared to lower income groups, where no such attention is paid. Expression of anger is exhibited more in boys of both the cultures as compared to girls (Table 15). Pakistani

as well as Indian boys (Part B) exhibit aggressive behaviour, which seems to be accepted as a socially approved

Table 15-22 shows the effect of child rearing techniques on the development of certain personality variables such as, aggression, fear, dependence and independence. where there is

The results (Tables 15,17,19) reveal no significant effect of breast / bottle feeding on learning of fear, aggression and dependence.

However independence seems to be highly related with bottle feeding ( $P < .01$ ) whereas breast feeding shows no such relationship (Table 22).

Moreover, Table 18, 20 and 22 reveal that punishment does not affect significantly the acquisition of fear, (Table 18), dependence (Table 20) and independence (Table 22).

However, (Table 16) suggests some marginal relationship between punishment and aggression. Although the difference is not significant, yet it does suggest to some extent, that using punishment as a disciplining strategy leads to aggression.

Table 23-26 show the relationship of sex differences to aggression, fear, dependence and independence. The data shows that expression of anger is exhibited more in boys of both the cultures as compared to girls (Table 23). Pakistani

(77%) as well as Kenyan boys (70.49%) exhibit aggressive behaviour, which seems to be accepted as a socially approved behaviour in both cultures, for male children ( $P < .05$ ).

The same trend can be traced in Table 24, where there is a marginal difference between sex differences and fear, but the result are not significant at the desired level.

## CHAPTER V

## TABLES

TABLE I

Comparison between Pudukkottai and Kanyakumari Sample in terms of demographic characteristics.

| S. No. | Variables             | Pudukkottai<br>(N=20) |                  | Kanya<br>(N=43) |                  |
|--------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|
|        |                       | Frequency             | Valid Percentage | Frequency       | Valid Percentage |
| 1      | Cultural groups       | 10                    | 50               | 43              | 100              |
| 2      | Muslim groups         | 0                     | 0                | 35              | 81.1             |
| 3      | Christian group       | 22                    | 100              | 8               | 18.1             |
| 4      | Employed worker       | 75                    | 74.5             | 41              | 67.2             |
| 5      | Non Employed worker   | 25                    | 25.5             | 20              | 32.8             |
| 6      | Joint family system   | 51                    | 61.8             | 32              | 52.3             |
| 7      | Nuclear family system | 39                    | 39.4             | 29              | 47.7             |
| 8      | Male Children         | 33                    | 51.4             | 32              | 52.3             |
| 9      | Female Children       | 47                    | 47.4             | 29              | 47.7             |

## CHAPTER V

## TABLES

TABLE 1

Comparison between Pakistani and Kenyan Sample in terms  
of demographic characteristics.

| S. No. | Variables             | Pakistan<br>( $n_1 = 100$ ) |                     | Kenya<br>( $n_2 = 61$ ) |                     |
|--------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
|        |                       | Frequencies                 | Valid<br>Percentage | Frequencies             | Valid<br>Percentage |
| 1      | Cultural groups       | 100                         | 100                 | 61                      | 100                 |
| 2      | Muslim groups         | 78                          | 78.0                | 53                      | 86.9                |
| 3      | Christian group       | 22                          | 22.0                | 8                       | 13.1                |
| 4      | Employed mother       | 73                          | 74.5                | 41                      | 67.2                |
| 5      | Non Employed m        | 25                          | 25.5                | 20                      | 32.8                |
| 6      | Joint family system   | 61                          | 61.0                | 32                      | 52.5                |
| 7      | Nucleus family system | 39                          | 39.0                | 29                      | 47.5                |
| 8      | Male Childen          | 53                          | 53.0                | 32                      | 52.5                |
| 9      | Female Children       | 47                          | 47.0                | 29                      | 47.5                |

TABLE 2

Frequencies and Percentage of Pakistani and Kenyan income groups.

| Income Percentiles group |   | Pakistan<br>( $n_1 = 100$ ) |            | Monthly<br>Income<br>in Rs. | Kenya<br>( $n_2 = 61$ ) |            | Monthly<br>Income<br>in Rs. |
|--------------------------|---|-----------------------------|------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|------------|-----------------------------|
|                          |   | Freq.                       | Percentage |                             | Freq.                   | Percentage |                             |
| 1                        | P | 18                          | 18.00      | 1800.00                     | 7                       | 11.50      | 800                         |
| 2                        | P | 22                          | 22.00      | 2700.00                     | 8                       | 13.10      | 1000                        |
| 3                        | P | 17                          | 17.00      | 4000.00                     | 22                      | 36.10      | 1600                        |
| 4                        | P | 21                          | 21.00      | 6000.00                     | 10                      | 16.40      | 2500                        |
| 5                        | P | 22                          | 22.00      | 34950.00                    | 14                      | 23.00      | 2500.+ above                |

TABLE 3

Comparison between Pakistani and Kenyan mothers in terms of feeding techniques.

| Response | Pakistan<br>(n <sub>1</sub> = 100) |                              | Kenya<br>(n <sub>2</sub> = 61) |                              |
|----------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
|          | Breast feeding<br>Freq.            | Bottle feeding<br>Percentage | Breast feeding<br>Freq.        | Bottle feeding<br>Percentage |
| No       | 28                                 | 29.2                         | 37                             | 38.14                        |
| Yes      | 68                                 | 70.8                         | 60                             | 61.85                        |
| Missing  | 4                                  | missing                      | 3                              | missing                      |

\* After 18 months age are reported only in years (2.3-4 years).

TABLE 5

Comparison between 2 cultural groups using punishment as a technique of discipline.

| Responses | Pakistani<br>(n1=100) |             | Kenya<br>(n2=61) |             |
|-----------|-----------------------|-------------|------------------|-------------|
|           | frequencies           | percentages | frequencies      | percentages |
| No        | 14                    | 14.7        | 13               | 21.3        |
| Yes       | 81                    | 85.3        | 48               | 78.7        |
| Missing   | 5                     | Missing     | -                | -           |

TABLE 7

Frequencies and Percentage scores of personality variables studied among two cultural groups

| Resp.   | Aggression |         | Fear  |         | Dependence |         | Independence |         |    |         |    |         |    |         |    |         |
|---------|------------|---------|-------|---------|------------|---------|--------------|---------|----|---------|----|---------|----|---------|----|---------|
|         | Freq.      | Percent | Freq. | Percent | Freq.      | Percent | Freq.        | Percent |    |         |    |         |    |         |    |         |
| 1       | 31         | 40.25   | 37    | 86.05   | 26         | 57.8    | 16           | 66.66   | 19 | 63.33   | 2  | 100     | 31 | 53.44   | 23 | 95.83   |
| 2       | 18         | 23.98   | 5     | 11.63   | 12         | 26.66   | 6            | 25.00   | 5  | 16.66   | -  | -       | 14 | 24.13   | 1  | 4.16    |
| 3       | 10         | 12.98   | 1     | 2.32    | 3          | 6.66    | 2            | 8.33    | 4  | 13.33   | -  | -       | 12 | 28.57   | -  | -       |
| 4       | 10         | 12.98   | -     | -       | 3          | 6.66    | -            | -       | 1  | 3.33    | -  | -       | -  | -       | -  | -       |
| 5       | 4          | 5.19    | -     | -       | 1          | 2.22    | -            | -       | -  | -       | -  | -       | 1  | 1.72    | -  | -       |
| 8       | 1          | 1.29    | -     | -       | -          | -       | -            | -       | 1  | 3.33    | -  | -       | -  | -       | -  | -       |
| 9       | 1          | 1.29    | -     | -       | -          | -       | -            | -       | -  | -       | -  | -       | -  | -       | -  | -       |
| 10      | 2          | 2.59    | -     | -       | -          | -       | -            | -       | -  | -       | -  | -       | -  | -       | -  | -       |
| Missing | 23         | missing | 18    | missing | 55         | missing | 37           | missing | 70 | missing | 59 | missing | 42 | missing | 37 | missing |

TABLE 8

Comparison between various groups in terms of breast feeding.

A. Comparison between various groups in terms of breast feeding.

|                          | Breast feeding |     |       |        |      |
|--------------------------|----------------|-----|-------|--------|------|
|                          | Ss             | DF  | MS    | F      | P    |
| <b>Main effects</b>      |                |     |       |        |      |
| Cultural groups          | 2.586          | 1   | 2.586 | 16.683 | P<01 |
| Religious groups         | 0.036          | 1   | 0.036 | 0.234  | N.S  |
| Income groups            | 0.164          | 4   | 0.041 | 0.264  | N.S  |
| Family system            | 0.367          | 1   | 0.367 | 2.37   | N.S  |
| Mothers employment       | 0.45           | 1   | 0.45  | 2.90   | N.S  |
| Total                    | 4.155          | 8   | 0.519 | 3      | P<01 |
| <b>2-way interaction</b> |                |     |       |        |      |
| <b>Cultural group</b>    |                |     |       |        |      |
| Religious group          | 0.019          | 1   | 0.019 | 0.125  | N.S  |
| Income group             | 0.435          | 4   | 0.109 | 0.701  | N.S  |
| family system            | 0.031          | 1   | 0.198 | 0.198  | N.S  |
| Mother's employment      | 0.033          | 1   | 0.33  | 2.127  | N.S  |
| <b>Religious</b>         |                |     |       |        |      |
| Income group             | 0.491          | 4   | 0.123 | 0.792  | N.S  |
| Family system            | 0.008          | 1   | 0.008 | 0.051  | N.S  |
| Mother employment        | 0.103          | 1   | 0.103 | 0.663  | N.S  |
| <b>Income group</b>      |                |     |       |        |      |
| Family system            | 0.622          | 4   | 0.155 | 1.003  | N.S  |
| Mother's employment      | 0.245          | 4   | 0.061 | 0.396  | N.S  |
| <b>Family system</b>     |                |     |       |        |      |
| Mother's employment      | 0.001          | 1   | 0.001 | 0.005  | N.S  |
| Explained                | 6.351          | 30  | 0.212 | 1.366  | N.S  |
| Residual                 | 19.223         | 124 | 0.155 |        |      |
| Total                    | 25.574         | 154 | 0.154 |        |      |

TABLE 8

Comparison between various groups in terms of breast feeding.

## Breast feeding

|                     | Ss     | DF  | MS    | F      | P    |
|---------------------|--------|-----|-------|--------|------|
| Main effects        |        |     |       |        |      |
| Cultural groups     | 2.586  | 1   | 2.586 | 16.683 | P<01 |
| Religious groups    | 0.036  | 1   | 0.036 | 0.234  | N.S  |
| Income groups       | 0.164  | 4   | 0.041 | 0.264  | N.S  |
| Family system       | 0.367  | 1   | 0.367 | 2.37   | N.S  |
| Mothers employment  | 0.45   | 1   | 0.45  | 2.90   | N.S  |
| Total               | 4.155  | 8   | 0.519 | 3      | P<01 |
| 2-way interaction   |        |     |       |        |      |
| Cultural group      |        |     |       |        |      |
| Religious group     | 0.019  | 1   | 0.019 | 0.125  | N.S  |
| Income group        | 0.435  | 4   | 0.109 | 0.701  | N.S  |
| family system       | 0.031  | 1   | 0.198 | 0.198  | N.S  |
| Mother's employment | 0.033  | 1   | 0.33  | 2.127  | N.S  |
| Religious           |        |     |       |        |      |
| Income group        | 0.491  | 4   | 0.123 | 0.792  | N.S  |
| Family system       | 0.008  | 1   | 0.008 | 0.051  | N.S  |
| Mother employment   | 0.103  | 1   | 0.103 | 0.663  | N.S  |
| Income group        |        |     |       |        |      |
| Family system       | 0.622  | 4   | 0.155 | 1.003  | N.S  |
| Mother's employment | 0.245  | 4   | 0.061 | 0.396  | N.S  |
| Family system       |        |     |       |        |      |
| Mother's employment | 0.001  | 1   | 0.001 | 0.005  | N.S  |
| Explained           | 6.351  | 30  | 0.212 | 1.366  | N.S  |
| Residual            | 19.223 | 124 | 0.155 |        |      |
| Total               | 25.574 | 154 | 0.154 |        |      |

TABLE 9

A Comparison between various groups in terms of bottle feeding.

|                     | Ss      | DF  | MS     | F      | P     |
|---------------------|---------|-----|--------|--------|-------|
| Main effect         |         |     |        |        |       |
| Cultural groups     | 10.507  | 1   | 10.507 | 39.396 | P<.01 |
| Religious groups    | 0.308   | 1   | 0.308  | 1.155  | N.S   |
| Income groups       | 1.996   | 4   | 0.499  | 1.87   | N.S   |
| Family system       | 0.558   | 1   | 0.558  | 2.091  | P<.01 |
| Mother's employment | 0.212   | 1   | 0.212  | 0.797  | N.S   |
|                     | 14.7777 | 8   | 11.847 | 6.925  | P<.01 |
| Two-way interaction |         |     |        |        |       |
| Cultural group      |         |     |        |        |       |
| Religious group     | 0.502   | 1   | 0.502  | 1.882  | N.S   |
| Income group        | 0.858   | 4   | 0.215  | 0.805  | N.S   |
| Family system       | 0.28    | 1   | 0.28   | 1.051  | N.S   |
| Mother employment   | 0.03    | 1   | 0.03   | 0.113  | N.S   |
| Religious group     |         |     |        |        |       |
| Income group        | 0.543   | 4   | 0.136  | 0.509  | N.S   |
| Family system       | 0.061   | 1   | 0.061  | 0.229  | N.S   |
| Mother employment   | 0.142   | 1   | 0.142  | 0.531  | N.S   |
| Income group        |         |     |        |        |       |
| Family system       | 1.299   | 4   | 0.325  | 1.218  | N.S   |
| Mother employment   | 0.281   | 4   | 0.07   | 0.264  | N.S   |
| Family system       |         |     |        |        |       |
| Mother employment   | 0.028   | 1   | 0.028  | 0.104  | N.S   |
|                     | 4.568   | 22  | 0.208  | 0.779  | N.S   |
| Explained           | 19.345  | 30  | 0.645  | 2.418  | P<.01 |
| Residual            | 34.139  | 128 | 0.267  | -      | -     |
| Total               | 53.484  | 158 | 0.339  | -      | -     |

Table No 11

Table 10

A comparison of different variable in terms of weaning age.

|                     | Ss        | DF  | MS      | F     | P     |
|---------------------|-----------|-----|---------|-------|-------|
| Main effects        |           |     |         |       |       |
| Cultural groups     | 399.225   | 1   | 399.225 | 6.407 | P<.01 |
| Religious groups    | 115.64    | 1   | 115.64  | 1.856 | N.S   |
| Income groups       | 297.983   | 4   | 74.496  | 1.196 | N.S   |
| Family system       | 0.161     | 1   | 0.161   | 0.003 | N.S   |
| Mother's employment | 11.964    | 1   | 11.964  | 0.192 | N.S   |
|                     | 942.169   | 8   | 117.771 | 1.89  | N.S   |
| Two-way interaction |           |     |         |       |       |
| Cultural group      |           |     |         |       |       |
| Religious group     | 57.139    | 1   | 57.139  | 0.917 | N.S   |
| Income group        | 1179.474  | 4   | 294.868 | 4.732 | P<.01 |
| Family system       | 18.606    | 1   | 18.606  | 0.299 | N.S   |
| Mother employment   | 1.793     | 1   | 1.793   | 0.029 | N.S   |
| Religious group     |           |     |         |       |       |
| Income group        | 620.633   | 4   | 155.158 | 2.49  | P<.05 |
| Family system       | 1.453     | 1   | 1.453   | 0.023 | N.S   |
| Mother employment   | 57.072    | 1   | 57.072  | 0.916 | N.S   |
| Income group        |           |     |         |       |       |
| Family system       | 325.63    | 4   | 81.407  | 1.306 | N.S   |
| Mother employment   | 452.455   | 4   | 113.114 | 1.815 | N.S   |
| Family system       |           |     |         |       |       |
| Mother employment   | 9.31      | 1   | 9.31    | 0.149 | N.S   |
|                     | 2618.861  | 22  | 119.039 | 1.91  |       |
| Explained           | 3561.03   | 30  | 118.701 | 1.905 |       |
| Residual            | 7975.926  | 128 | 62.312  |       |       |
| Total               | 11536.956 | 158 | 73.019  |       |       |

Table No 11

A comparison of various group in terms of toilet training.

|                     | Ss        | DF  | MS       | F      | P     |
|---------------------|-----------|-----|----------|--------|-------|
| Main effects        |           |     |          |        |       |
| Cultural groups     | 1148.974  | 1   | 1148.974 | 18.889 | P<.01 |
| Religious groups    | 68.564    | 1   | 68.564   | 1.127  | N.S   |
| Income group        | 843.25    | 4   | 210.812  | 3.466  | P<.01 |
| Family system       | 0.523     | 1   | 0.523    | 0.009  | N.S   |
| Mother's employment | 38.649    | 1   | 38.649   | 0.635  | N.S   |
|                     | 2213.138  | 8   | 276.642  | 4.548  | P<.01 |
| 2-Way interactions. |           |     |          |        |       |
| Cultural group      |           |     |          |        |       |
| Religious group     | 486.877   | 1   | 468.877  | 8.004  | P<.01 |
| Income group        | 170.687   | 4   | 42.672   | 0.702  | N.S   |
| Family system       | 68.299    | 1   | 68.299   | 1.123  | N.S   |
| Mother employment   | 0.001     | 1   | 0.001    | .000   | N.S   |
| Religious group     |           |     |          |        |       |
| Income group        | 621.27    | 4   | 155.318  | 2.553  | P<.05 |
| Family system       | 131.256   | 1   | 131.256  | 2.158  | N.S   |
| Mother employment   | 6.418     | 1   | 6.418    | 0.106  | N.S   |
| Income group        |           |     |          |        |       |
| Family system       | 69.194    | 4   | 17.298   | 0.284  | N.S   |
| Mother's employment | 149.143   | 4   | 37.286   | 0.613  | N.S   |
| Family system       |           |     |          |        |       |
| Mother's employment | 53.035    | 1   | 53.035   | 0.872  | N.S   |
|                     | 1902.093  | 22  | 86.459   | 1.421  | N.S   |
| Explained           | 4115.23   | 30  | 137.174  | 2.255  | P<.01 |
| Residual            | 7785.763  | 128 | 60.826   |        |       |
| Total               | 11900.994 | 158 | 75.323   |        |       |

Table 12

The effect of different variables on punishment, as a form of discipline.

|                     | SS     | DF | MS    | F     | P   |
|---------------------|--------|----|-------|-------|-----|
| Main effects        |        |    |       |       |     |
| Cultural groups     | 0.75   | 1  | 0.75  | 0.492 | N.S |
| Religious groups    | .000   | 1  | .000  | .000  | N.S |
| Income groups       | 4.742  | 4  | 1.186 | 0.778 | N.S |
| Family system       | 3.000  | 1  | 3.000 | 1.969 | N.S |
| Mother's employment | 1.143  | 1  | 1.143 | 0.75  | N.S |
| Explained           | 10.271 | 8  | 1.284 | 0.843 | N.S |
| Residual            | 10.667 | 7  | 1.524 |       |     |
| Total               | 20.938 | 15 | 1.396 |       |     |

Table 13

F values for misbehaviour, disobedience, immorality and aggression as a form of punishment among different groups

|                 | Misbehaviour | Disobedience | Immorality | Aggression |
|-----------------|--------------|--------------|------------|------------|
| Main effects    |              |              |            |            |
| Cultural group  | 6.136 *      | 0.043        | 3.605      | 4.113      |
| Religious group | 0.341        | 0.215        | 0.204      | 0.077      |
| Income group    | 0.829        | 0.581        | 1.909      | 0.09       |
| Family system   | 0.65         | 3.97         | 0.579      | 0.142      |
| Mother          | 0.469        | 0.61         | 4.16       | 1.970      |
| Employment      | 0.53         | 1.174        | 0.245      | 2.27       |

\* denotes  $P < .05$  level.

Table 14

F Values for reward in the form of obedience, morality, independence, good behaviour school work.

|                   | Obed  | Morality | independence | good. beh | gd.sc.work |
|-------------------|-------|----------|--------------|-----------|------------|
| Cultural groups   | 1.206 | 3.866    | 1.6          | 0.111     | 1.067      |
| Religious group   | 0.095 | 0.007    | 3.657        | 0.006     | 0.649      |
| Income group      | 0.469 | 0.61     | 4.16         | 1.929     | 2.586 *    |
| Family system     | 0.155 | 1.779    | 2.133        | 8.689 *   | 0.67       |
| Mother Employment | 0.002 | 2.6      | 5.12         | 0.055     | 0.023      |

\* denotes  $P < .05$  level.

Table 16

The effect of punishment on Aggression in two cultural groups.

|             | Ss      | DF  | MS     | MS   | F | P   |
|-------------|---------|-----|--------|------|---|-----|
| Main effect |         |     |        |      |   |     |
| Punishment  | 11.056  | 1   | 11.056 | 3.58 |   | N.S |
| Explained   | 11.056  | 1   | 11.056 | 3.58 |   | N.S |
| Residual    | 475.63  | 154 | 3.089  |      |   |     |
| Total       | 486.686 | 154 | 3.14   |      |   |     |

Table 17

The effects of child rearing techniques on fear in two cultural groups.

|                | Ss      | DF  | MS    | F     | P   |
|----------------|---------|-----|-------|-------|-----|
| Main effects   |         |     |       |       |     |
| Breast feeding | 1.5     | 2   | 0.75  | 0.744 | N.S |
| Bottle feeding | 0.913   | 2   | 0.457 | 0.453 | N.S |
| Explained      | 1.676   | 4   | 0.419 | 0.416 | N.S |
| Residual       | 153.254 | 152 | 1.008 |       |     |
| Total          | 154.93  | 156 | 0.993 |       |     |

Table 18

The effect of punishment on fear in two cultural groups.

|              | Ss      | DF  | MS    | F     | P  |
|--------------|---------|-----|-------|-------|----|
| Main effects |         |     |       |       |    |
| Punishment   | 0.414   | 1   | 0.414 | 0.413 | NS |
| Explained    | 0.414   | 1   | 0.414 | 0.413 | NS |
| Residual     | 154.022 | 154 | 1.00  |       |    |
| Total        | 154.436 | 155 | 0.996 |       |    |

Table 19

The effects of child rearing techniques on Dependence in two cultural groups.

|               | Ss      | DF  | MS    | F     | P   |
|---------------|---------|-----|-------|-------|-----|
| Main effects  |         |     |       |       |     |
| Breast feedin | 0.333   | 2   | 0.166 | 0.232 | N.S |
| Bottle feedin | 0.716   | 2   | 0.358 | 0.5   | N.S |
| Explained     | 2.223   | 4   | 0.556 | 0.776 | N.S |
| Residual      | 108.886 | 152 | 0.716 |       |     |
| Total         | 111.108 | 156 | 0.712 |       |     |

Table 20

The effect of punishment on dependence in two cultural groups

|              | Ss      | DF  | MS    | F    | P  |
|--------------|---------|-----|-------|------|----|
| Main effects |         |     |       |      |    |
| Punishment   | 0.78    | 1   | 0.7   | 1.09 | NS |
| Explained    | 0.78    | 1   | 0.7   | 1.09 | NS |
| Residual     | 110.214 | 154 | 0.716 |      |    |
| Total        | 110.994 | 155 | 0.716 |      |    |

Table 21

The effects of child rearing techniques on independence in two cultural groups.

|               | Ss      | DF  | MS    | F     | P     |
|---------------|---------|-----|-------|-------|-------|
| Main effects  |         |     |       |       |       |
| Breast feedin | 0.355   | 2   | 0.177 | 0.199 | NS    |
| Bottle feedin | 11.67   | 2   | 5.835 | 6.54  | P<.01 |
| Explained     | 14.137  | 4   | 3.534 | 3.962 | P<.01 |
| Residual      | 135.608 | 152 | 0.892 |       |       |
| Total         | 149.745 | 156 |       |       |       |

Table 22

The effect of punishment on independence in two cultural group.

|              | Ss      | DF  | MS    | F     | P   |
|--------------|---------|-----|-------|-------|-----|
| Main effects |         |     |       |       |     |
| Punishment   | 1.582   | 1   | 1.582 | 1.651 | N.S |
| Explained    | 1.582   | 1   | 1.582 | 1.651 | N.S |
| Residual     | 147.566 | 154 | 0.958 |       |     |
| Total        | 149.147 | 155 | 0.962 |       |     |

Table 23

Sex differences and aggression in two cultural groups.

|               | Ss      | DF  | MS     | F     | P     |
|---------------|---------|-----|--------|-------|-------|
| Main effects  |         |     |        |       |       |
| Sex differenc | 12.261  | 1   | 12.261 | 4.045 | P<.05 |
| Explained     | 12.261  | 1   | 12.261 | 4.045 | P<.05 |
| Residual      | 481.95  | 159 | 3.031  |       |       |
| Total         | 494.211 | 160 | 3.089  |       |       |

Table 24

Sex differences and fear in two cultural groups.

|              | Ss      | DF  | MS    | F     | P   |
|--------------|---------|-----|-------|-------|-----|
| Main effects |         |     |       |       |     |
| Sex          | 3.544   | 1   | 3.544 | 3.676 | N.S |
| Explained    | 3.544   | 1   | 3.544 | 3.676 | N.S |
| Residual     | 153.3   | 159 | 0.964 |       |     |
| Total        | 156.845 | 160 | 0.98  |       |     |

Table 25

Sex difference and Dependence in two cultural groups.

|              | Ss      | DF  | MS    | F     | P   |
|--------------|---------|-----|-------|-------|-----|
| Main effects |         |     |       |       |     |
| Sex          | 0.402   | 1   | 0.402 | 0.576 | N.S |
| Explained    | 0.402   | 1   | 0.402 | 0.576 | N.S |
| Residual     | 111.15  | 59  | 0.699 |       |     |
| Total        | 111.553 | 160 | 0.697 |       |     |

Table 26

Sex difference and Independence in two cultural groups.

|             | Ss      | DF  | MS    | F     | P   |
|-------------|---------|-----|-------|-------|-----|
| Main effect |         |     |       |       |     |
| Sex         | 0.899   | 1   | 0.899 | 0.959 | N.S |
| Explained   | 0.899   | 1   | 0.899 | 0.959 | N.S |
| Residual    | 149.051 | 159 | 0.937 |       |     |
| Total       | 149.95  | 160 | 0.937 |       |     |

DISCUSSION

... results show significant differences in  
... feeding and rearing practices. Kenyan  
... nurse their children for a longer  
... compared to Pakistani mothers ( Table 8 ).  
... to this, Pakistani mothers use bottle

CHAPTER VI

... stay in Kenya, noted that the poverty  
... appear to be far greater than that of

DISCUSSION

... goods of industry,  
... Over the years,  
... the spectre of shortage of goods in  
... inflation and an erosion of the  
... are considerably affected by  
... Kenyan people tend to breast feed  
... these children later. On the  
... leading to less reliance  
... of goods at comparatively  
... economically feasible for  
... bottle feeding. However, having  
... to observe that in both  
... was preferred mostly by  
... (Table 8). The  
... reasons for this are, in the main, too  
... due to the helping behaviour of other  
... which facilitates bottle  
... social norms mothers have

## DISCUSSION

The tabulated results show significant differences in cultural groups regarding child rearing practices. Kenyan mothers, for example, nurse their children for a longer period of time as compared to Pakistani mothers ( Table 8 ). Diametrically opposed to this, Pakistani mothers use bottle feeding more frequently than Kenyan mothers ( Table 9 ). The author, during her stay in Kenya, noted that the poverty level in Kenya would appear to be far greater than that of Pakistan. This can be vouched by the slow pace of industry, resulting in greater importation of goods. Over the years, this policy has increased the spectre of shortage of goods in the market, spiralling inflation and an erosion of the shilling. Since cultural mores are considerably affected by economic conditions, Kenyan people tend to breast feed longer; wean and toilet train their children later. On the other hand, higher industrialisation leading to less reliance on imports; greater availability of goods at comparatively lower prices, in Pakistan, makes it economically feasible for Pakistani mothers to advocate bottle feeding. However, having said that, it was interesting to observe that in both cultural groups, bottle feeding was preferred mostly by mothers belonging to joint family systems (Table 9). The author feels that the reasons for this are, in the main, two fold. Firstly, it may be due to the helping behaviour of other family members who live with them which facilitates bottle feeding. Secondly, that due to social norms mothers may be

reluctant to breast feed.

Pakistani mother, on the other hand, as already pointed out, have a tendency to wean and toilet train early ( Table 10 and 11). One of the major factors for this phenomenon could be because of greater degree of education among Pakistani mothers. Since education plays a primary role in awareness and response to society, resulting in greater status consciousness. The natural corollary of this is that Pakistani mothers, because of peer pressure from society pay greater attention to hygiene and early toilet training as opposed to Kenyan mothers . This can be supported by the fact that Pakistani mother wean their children between the ages of 2 to 3 years. Whereas, kenyan mothers wean their offspring from 2 1/2 years to 4 years. This again shows the same trends mentioned earlier. Since Kenyan mothers have a meagre means of living and comparatively less education, the race to keep their heads above water, becomes the sole focus of attention. As such, mothers of necessity, are prevented from giving the required amount of attention to their children. On the other hand, the sample of Pakistani mothers, being higher educated, showed better awareness of societal dictates. They thus, were well informed in child care, introduction of new kinds of foods gradually and alternating it with prevalent feeding practices.

As far as toilet training in concerned, the results

reveal that Pakistani mothers start weaning their children at a very early age, generally from 4 to 6 months, re. no doubt, comparatively, Kenyan mothers start as late as 1 year. Early toilet training leads towards cleanliness. Most psychologists are of the opinion that such children develop tiny habits: keeping themselves clean, toys are in order, sheets are creaseless etc.

They are extra particular in ensuring that their hands are clean before partaking of meals.

Furthermore, the results show that in both the cultural groups, a high percentage of mothers belonging to higher income groups, toilet train their children early, as opposed to lower income groups (Table 11). Mothers of higher income groups, by and large, are most particular about clean babies, bedding and the house in general. Therefore, the children are made to eliminate at regular intervals.

In order to inculcate discipline in a child, the mother normally uses punishment and reward for learning socially accepted behaviour. The results, concerning punishment as a mode of discipline (Table 13), reveal that Pakistani mothers tend to punish their children for misbehaviour. Thus, children are punished when they annoy and irritate the elders, rudeness, crying for no rhyme or reason or when they remain out of the house without permission of the parents.

As compared to this, data concerning immorality shows a difference between the two cultural groups. Here, no doubt, the difference is only marginal, yet, it suggests a difference between Pakistani and Kenyan mothers. The emphasis on morality may be closely linked with the economic conditions. There is no doubt that by and large depressed economic conditions lead to a greater crime rate. This is the natural outcome of mans need to survive in a hostile atmosphere, added to which is peer pressure which ultimately lands members of such a society on the wrong side of the law. From petty crimes such as pilferage, lying, cheating etc. To major crimes such as grand larceny, homicide, forgery etc., highly depressed social areas becoming the breeding grounds for the criminal of tomorrow. To combat this vicious cycle, mothers rearing children in such a society would, I feel, lay greater emphasis on morality. The results, here, maybe marginal because Pakistani society is not all that better off, I feel that if a like study were done between Kenyan society and a highly advanced society in Europe or the United States the probability is that the significance may, indeed be greater.

Our findings also reveal that disobedience is punished mostly in joint family system of both the cultural groups. However, the data shows only a marginal difference between the two groups. Disobedience here, means refusing to do what is asked for. The mothers of joint family system, since

living together, do not approve of the child to be disobediant, naughty or obstinate. The mother not only wants to eliminate this behaviour but also wants the child to learn to obey and respect its elders, since this is the approved mode of behaviour. Similarly, a high percentage of Pakistani mothers punish their children for exhibiting aggressive behaviour: fighting, screaming at younger siblings. Moreover, breaking things, getting angry and generally being irritable are punished. However, although discipline in most under-developed countries means establishing who the boss is by not sparing the rod, in most developed countries emphasis is layed on reasoning. Thus, if more emphasis is laid on reason and explanation by the parents, the chances are much greater responsible citizens of society. On the other hand, the constant use of heavy handed authority would ultimately be detrimental, for it only makes the child obstinate. This obstinacy is by and large carried out into their mature life: the individual becoming a smouldering malcontent in society, carrying a grudge against the society. This they tend to show in their total lack of respect for law and order. A prime example of this is the child raised in the ghetto areas of the United States.

In contrast to punishment, praise can achieve the same result if not better where discipline is concerned. The results reveal a significant relationship between good behaviour and family system (Table 14). In both the cultural

groups mothers from joint family system rewards their children for good behaviour as compared to nucleus family system. Good behaviour includes being friendly with siblings, helping the mother in cleaning, running small errands and generally pleasing mother. Thus, disobedience is punished in both the cultural groups. Here, the child is rewarded for obedience and punished for disobedience. The main reason for this is, that since in this system the family lives together, therefore, for the peace and tranquility of everyone's mind, a well behaved child is praised. Moreover, the data also reveals (Table 14), between income groups and good school work. Those children who pass and get good results in their examination, who perform well in their class work are encouraged and rewarded by the mothers of higher income groups: mothers who seem to be concerned with achievement orientation of their children, in contrast to mothers belonging to lower income groups.

#### Part B

Regarding the effects of child rearing techniques on personality development of children, the results reveal that there is no significant relationship between breast feeding/ bottle feeding and aggression, fear and dependence (Table 15, 17 and 19). The main reason for this is, according to Sewell and Mussen (1952), that breast or bottle as an apparatus are not psychologically important, although the child's feeding

experiences are important. This can be seen from the fact that the child closer to the mother's body, feels the psychological warmth, feels wanted, resulting in a sound personality.

Our findings demonstrate no significant relationship between child rearing techniques and aggression (Table 15). The author feels that maybe this is because the mothers satisfy the children, whether by breast or by bottle. It is assumed that they get enough nourishment as well as mothering. Therefore they do not exhibit overly aggressive behaviour. Freud observed that infants are totally reliant upon others for survival. A cultural task of the infant is to establish, during this oral dependant period, general attitude of dependence / independence and trust / reliance on other people. Lack of maternal care is translated in the form of thumb sucking, in order to lessen the tension created by lack of maternal care. Erickson (1963) talks about the importance of the first year of a child's life. If the mother is closer to the child, a sense of trust is developed, which is the cornerstone of a healthy, confident personality. If on the other hand, the parent turns away from the child and gives greater attention to her job or other pursuits, at the cost of the child's much needed yearning for love and warmth; the child develops insecurity and lack of confidence. Subsequently, this insecurity is quantified in terms of a value system which is opposed to the dominant life style of

culture. This in turn, may create an atmosphere of ambiguity for the child resulting in a feeling of distrust. However, independence seems to be highly related with bottle feeding (Table 21), whereas, breast feedings shows no such relationship. Those children who are bottle fed are more independent in their later life. This may be because the act of bottle feeding is a sort of distancing, as it were from an early age. Subconsciously, the child being better able to look after and does his work without the assistance of others. They go to market alone, fetch water, answer the door, achieve personal accomplishments early, and the girls especially, take the responsibility of household works. Here, one thing must be borne in mind, that of course, all these independent actions are to some extent moulded by society. If the political conditions, particularly where law and order is concerned, is considerably curtailed. Thus, in Pakistan, where law and order is definitely on the down side, parents as a rule, unless in dire necessity, will not allow their children to go to market on their own or do other acts which might under such conditions be thought to bring danger to their heads.

The other important finding is a relationship between sex difference and aggression (Table 23). In both the cultural groups, boys exhibit more aggression than girls; being the accepted norm in both the cultures.

Whiting (1941) reports adult male fights and frees

expression of hostility towards many people. For early childhood the male is being consciously or unconsciously prepared for his role as an adult, largely through direct rewards for aggression.

In table 17, the results show no relationship between child rearing techniques i.e., feeding practices and, the results again show no relationship between child rearing techniques i.e., feedings practices and, the learning of fearful responses, this again could be as a result of the close affinity which the child has to the mother most of the time. In these cultural set ups the child sleeping with the mother (as opposed to European mothers who put the child in a cot), thus the child does not develop nightmares as a result of bogey men or other night time ogres from fearful dreams.

Table 19 bears no relationship between feeding practices and dependence. The child, unlike occidental children, does not depend upon a particular parent because he is brought up mostly in a joint family system. Thus a child, in such a system, is exposed to the love and care of a number of various members of his family. These close ties help to offset any loss of attention by the mother. It also makes him much more of an extrovert, because he is not only exposed to loving adults but loving members of the family who are in his own age group.

Table 19 bears no relationship between feeding practices and dependence. The child, unlike occidental children does not depend on a particular parent, because he is brought up in a joint family system. Thus a child in such a system is exposed to the love and the care of a number of the various members of his family. These close ties help to offset any loss of attention of the member. It also makes him much more of an extrovert, because he is not only exposed to loving adults but also loving members of the family who are in his age group.

In addition to the above results, our findings bear no relationship between punishment and aggression fear, dependence and independence (Tables 16, 18, 20, 22).

Table 16 shows no relationship between punishment and aggression. The author feels that mostly the mothers do not allow the exhibition of aggressive behaviour, which is considered as unapproved behaviour. The children belonging to the east mostly live in joint family system, if and when they are punished by the elders, they are taught to be quiet and not answer back. It may be one of the reasons for bearing no relationship between the two variables.

Punishment and fear would appear to have no relationship. Here, it can be observed that punishment used for eliminating bad behaviour has not necessarily led to the development of

fear emotion. The argument one can advance is that maybe mothers are not using physical punishment which damages children psychologically. Punishment may, here, be verbal or other forms of admonishment such as having ones privilage revoked, thus helping to alleviate the development of fear.

Punishment and Dependance, however, bear no relationship. Children in Pakistani as well as Kenyan cultural are not punished if they are dependant: the parents being under a natural obligation to provide all the basic necessities. Indeed, they feel it their duty to help them even after they have achieved adulthood. Thus dependance is not frowned upon in both the cultures. In addition to this our findings show no significance between punishment and independence. The author thinks that both in Pakistan as well as Kenyan mothers do not encourage independence in children. This, as already mentioned, could be because of the breakdown of law and order which is very apparent in the two cities polled - Peshawar and Nairobi. The mothers polled may encourage independence in self accomplishment, good school work etc., but as far as outside errands are concerned, they are definately discouraged (Table 22).

Tables 25 -26 again reveal no significant difference between sex of the child and dependence as well as independence. Whether boys or girls, as far as dependence or independence is concerned it is not found in excess in any

one of the genders. Though psychologists are of the opinion that girls are more dependant than boys, particularly in our culture. This is because of the factor of femininity and other risks and social taboos inherent in both cultures. Boys on the other hand are trained for future responsibilities based on a masculine role in a male dominated society. They are bold enough in their behaviour yet the results show no relationship between these variables.

Table 24 shows a marginal relationship in sex difference and fear: boys exhibit fear more than girls. Traditionally speaking this is the girls trait but here, the boys exhibit fear. This fear may be as a result of societal pressure to be successful in their goals rather than physical fears. Furthermore, there is the interaction world outside: a world of car thieves, robbers, murderers etc., which is completely different to the sheltered lives of the girls in such a society.

CHAPTER VI

The study of the child's behavior in the home and in the school is of great importance in the development of personality.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The study of the child's behavior in the home and in the school is of great importance in the development of personality. The study of the child's behavior in the home and in the school is of great importance in the development of personality.

## SOME GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS.

The main purpose of the study was to find out the relationship among different groups in terms of child rearing practices and their effect on the development of personality.

The following are the main findings of the present research:

- a) In Pakistan and Kenya mothers differ in their feeding practices. Kenyan mothers use more breast feeding and less bottle feeding.
- b) Mothers in joint family system of both the cultural groups prefer bottle feeding.
- c) Pakistani mothers are early weaners and early toilet trainers.
- d) In both the cultural groups, mothers belonging to the higher income group, start their toilet training early.
- e) Most Pakistani mothers punish their children for misbehaviour to show their disapproval.
- f) Mothers from joint family system of both cultural groups reward their children for good behaviour.
- g) Mother's belonging to higher income group, in both the cultural groups, reward their children for good school work.
- h) Independence is highly related to bottle feeding in both the cultural groups.

- i) Boys are more aggressive than girls in both the cultures.
- 1) For new mothers, the first born is always experience. They should be given some literature which gives them insight into the care and handling of a child. As it is most mothers rely on the elder of the family system. These may have simply inherited some truths, some half truths and some total myths. Thus right from the start these mothers may be responsible for the flaws in the personality of the child.
- 2) Mothers, while rearing up the children, should rarely use physical punishment for eliminating undesired behaviour. She should either reason with the child or else she should divert the attention of the child, if the child is too young to reason with.
- 3) Democratic environment should be fostered at home: authority means too much rules to be followed, which leads to obstinacy.
- 4) The mothers should help in building a realistic self concept of the child by giving them proper attention and therefore develop self confidence in them.
- 5) Using the principles of learning, the approved behaviour should be rewarded and disapproved behaviour punished. However, the punishment should

not take the shape of physical abuse but other forms, such as; revoking of privileges, being sent to bed early, admonishment through raised eyebrows etc.,.

- 6) Home environment plays an important role in the development of a healthy personality in the child. Numerous studies have shown that psychologically disturbed or disrupted homes have far more detrimental effect on the young than a physically broken home.

Inorder for the child to develop into a well adjusted adult, rather than a social outcaste or a rebel with a grudge against society; he must have the essentials to happiness. These, according to Hurlock (1976) are: acceptance, affection and achievement, often reffered to as " the three A's of happiness. If they are present, the individual can accept himself, makes reasonably good adjustment to life and is satisfied and contented.

## APPENDIX

Personal Information Schedule (PIS)

We appreciate your agreeing to complete this questionnaire.  
Please read each item carefully and fill in all the columns.

## Part I

S.No. \_\_\_\_\_

Name : \_\_\_\_\_ Religion : \_\_\_\_\_

Approx. age : \_\_\_\_\_ Education: \_\_\_\_\_

Husband's / Wife's monthly income : \_\_\_\_\_

How many children : \_\_\_\_\_

Children's grand parents live with you. Yes/No

Are you employed Yes No

Please now turn to the next page.

## Part II

This section present a series of questions related to those practices which you frequently employ during early periods of the child's training, (i.e., from the first day of birth to 10 years of age. ). Please read carefully each question and give answer to the concerned items. Remember, there is no right or wrong answer.

- Q1. When did you start toilet training your child ?
- Q2. Have you ever punished your child ? State your answer in yes or no.
- Q3. At what age did you start your child on soild food ?  
e.g. Cereal, fruit, vegetables, meat ... etc.
- Q4. What type of toilet training did you give your child ?
- Q5. At what age did you stop your child from breast feeding/  
bottle feeding ?.
- Q6. State the reason for punishing your child ?
- Q7. Who took care of the child when he was a baby ?
- Q8. Write down the feeding techniques which you preferred to  
use for your child ?
- Q9. Have you ever assign any work to your child ? (If yes)  
please name a few of them. ?
- Q10. When do you praise your child ? state the reason ?
- Q11. Do you play with your children. ? (If yes)  
approximately for how much time. ?
- Q12. Do the children fight amongst each others ?

Q13. Would you prefer to have a son or a daughter. ?

Q14. Do the children share their items with each other ? like  
toys, dress, stationary etc.

Q15. Does your child often get into mischief, when in the  
company of others of the same age group. ?

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