

**Study Guide**

# PSYCHOLOGY OF GENDER

**Code No: 4641/9151**

**Units: 1-9**



Department of Gender & Women Studies  
Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities  
Allama Iqbal Open University  
Islamabad

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**ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY**  
**DEPARTMENT OF GENDER & WOMEN STUDIES**

Dear Students,

Welcome to the course, “Psychology of Gender” C-9151 is being offered for BS programs in Gender & Women Studies. This book is the study guide for this three credit hours course.

**INTRODUCTION THE COURSE**

This course is designed to study the concept of gender from a bio-psycho-social perspective. The course is aimed to provide an understanding and appreciation of the biological, Psychological and sociocultural factors that are essential in the development of gender differences among men and women. The course will encompass topics related to distinction between sex and gender, development of gender identity, gender roles and stereotypes. It will highlight the differences in cognitive functions and social behaviors of men and women. The course will also discuss the roots of gender discrimination which perpetuates gender based violence in society.

**COURSE OBJECTIVE**

After completing this course you would be able to know about the:

- distinction between sex and gender,
- concepts of gender roles, gender stereotypes and gender discrimination
- role of biological, cognitive, social and cultural factors in the development of gender identity.
- sociological and psychological theories about gender development
- gender differences in cognitive abilities and social behaviors like communication and achievement motivation.
- cultural practices embedded in socially discriminatory attitudes against women.
- role of gender discrimination in promoting the gender based violence.

**How to Study:**

The study guide comprising of nine units, spreads over nine topics. Each unit or chapter provides a basic explanation of the topic as well as reading references for further detailed study. Each unit requires two week’s study. If you spend two hours daily to study your course, you can complete the course in eighteen weeks. In mid of the study period an online or face to face workshop will also be held

which is an effort to help you to prepare for examinations and interact with your peer group and listen to the subject experts and exchange knowledge. Please do not confine yourself to the materials, which are being uploaded by the university for your study on the AIOU's website. To enhance knowledge, the students are expected to extensively use library and the internet for latest educational resources.

### **Tutors Guidance:**

In distance learning system basically the students have to study on their own. However, the university does appoint a part-time or a correspondence tutor who not only evaluates your assignments but also provides guidance regarding the course. The university organizes online and face to face workshops which the students need to attend regularly to enhance their understanding of the subject and prepare for the final examination. You will be informed regarding the tutor allocation, courses workshops and course assignment submission by the university.

### **Assessment and Evaluation:**

According to university system your performance in the course will be evaluated through two modes that is: -

- Home Assignments
- Final Examination

You will be required to prepare two assignments for this course. The assignments are spread over course units and are to be submitted to the allocated tutor for checking according to the schedule provided by the university.

The main objective of the assignment is to encourage you to study and appraise your performance. The tutor's assessment will guide you for the preparation of your next assignment.

The marks obtained in assignments add up to the final examination. The papers for final examinations are prepared based on the complete course. The final examinations are held in specified examination centers. For passing a course one has to pass both components of assessment that are take home assignments and final examination.

Best of Luck with your studies!

**Maria Mustafa Malik**  
Course Coordinator

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**Unit – 1**

# **FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR SEX TYPING**

**Written By: Dr. Seema Pervez  
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## **INTRODUCTION**

Men and women are two essential characters of human life. Creation of Adam was not considered complete till the emergence of eve. The literature is filled with the cliches and proverbs which emphasize the significance of both the partners in life. It is interesting that this significance is interpreted differently by different groups of thoughts. Some groups want to believe that women and men have hierarchical positions, men being superior. The other extreme group wants to believe that men and women are absolutely equal, and this equality is misinterpreted as sameness.

I myself am a very strong advocate of the equality of men and women in the society. However, a strong belief that men and women should be equally treated does not indicate that they are identical. Rather, it means that they should have equal rights, equal opportunities, equal significance, equal benefits and equal share of responsibilities. One should not forget that equal is not synonymous of sameness. Men and women are different: biologically, and also to some extent socially and emotionally. Biological factors determine the physical differences between men and women, whereas, social, cultural and environmental factors give rise to personality differences, temperamental differences and the differences in the roles and expectations of the members of both sexes.

## **OBJECTIVES**

The main objective of the unit is to discuss the factors which influence the development of sex-typing. These factors can not be explained unless the concepts of sex-typing and sex-roles are understood. Therefore, this unit would aim to explain:

- the meaning of sex-typing and its development;
- the significance of sex-roles in a given society;
- the biological, psychological and sociological factors which influence the sex-typing.

## **1.1 Definition of Sex-Typing**

Sex-typing is the psychological make up of men and women. There are some traits which characterize women more than men and some traits are supposed to describe men more explicitly men than women. These traits have fairly strong cross cultural similarities (Williams & Best; 1990). Despite the fact that an average Pakistani woman is much different from American European or African women, the popular sex-typing stereotypes, contrasting women from men, would be more or less similar in various cultures. For instance in most of the cultures the words adventurous, autocratic, dominant, peaceful, independent are used for men, whereas, dependent, dreamy, emotional, sentimental submissive and weak are the stereotypes used for women. We may find, in our daily observations that some women are not submissive, are not sentimental, are not dependent and so on. Similarly, one can feel that American women are more independent than Pakistani women or American men are more adventurous than Pakistani men. However, the words describing genders while comparing within a specific culture remain almost similar.

In the forthcoming sections of this chapter the term sex and gender would be used interchangeably. However, it should be kept in mind that these days most of the social scientists prefer to use the term gender rather than sex. The term gender has more socio-psychological connotation, whereas, the term sex has more biological connotation.

## **1.2 Development of Sex-Typing**

It has been found that the child learns first about her own sex-identity, then develops the ability to generalize the gender constancy to other people and then to other situations. The question arises at what stage the child is able to differentiate the personality characteristics attributed to different genders.

A lot of evidence is available about the development of the sex typing behaviour. Studies were conducted to find out various constituents of the concept of gender identity (Intons-Peterson, 1988). Most of the studies concluded that the concept of sex identity changes with age and experience. With increasing age children would keep on adding and excluding some new constituents in sex-identity concept, and few would be assigned a changed significance.

The earliest indicator of sex typing expressed in children's drawings are hair cues. For young children most important in sex-typing are the hair cues. If you ask a pre-school child to draw her mother and father, the most prominent difference would

be in the style of the hair. The gender biased selection of toys and play activities was found more specific with six graders than pre-schoolers (Intons-Peterson, 1988). About 94% six graders assigned the toys stereotypically.

The gender concept in the later child hood is influenced by the knowledge and observations of the adult activities. At this stage it is mainly a socio-psychological phenomenon. It has been found that sex typing awareness is a later childhood phenomenon. In various studies it was found that children of 5 to 8 years were easily able to separate the tools, used by adults of both genders. Most of the five year olds were able to classify adult occupation in terms of predominating sex in that occupation ( Carter & Patterson, 1982 ).

Williams & Best (1982) found that children at the age of five could assign the traits such as aggressiveness, independence, and self confident to men and gentle, emotional and dreamy to women. The study was replicated in many cultures and the results were not much different.

Social scientists have been keen to find out the stages and sequence of the development of these gender-typed stereotypes. A controversy may arise on the issue whether they are just the observations or are part of their concept of gender identity. Generally . there are two models to resolve this controversy. Some are of the opinion that the gender constancies which do not involve perceptual variation are acquired earlier than the ones which are the result of the perceptual variation. In other words, gender constancies which involve perceptual variation are acquired later, and the ones which are result of the perceptual variation are acquired early. It is easier for the child to learn that certain personality traits are associated with each sex. Since it does not demand any perceptual transformation so are easily comprehended.. This model stresses that in the process of the development of gender identity the child develops the concept about gender biased personality characteristics first, then about activities, occupation etc.

Another model of thinking about the development of gender identity promotes the idea that more obvious salient features and cues are incorporated in the gender identity earliest. It assumes that personality traits are, subtle and abstract concepts than the other observable variation among the two sexes. Therefore, this model predicts that gender biased activities, occupations physical appearance etc., become the part of gender identity first.

Generally children model their own behaviour after adult sex-role. Children when asked to ascribe personality traits to self and peers exhibited gender biased stereotypes. Intons-Peterson, (1988 ) also concluded that for females the gender

biased stereotypes about physical characteristics traits activities and occupations were developed earlier and personality traits stereotypes were developed later. The similar pattern emerged for males. Subjects of all ages mentioned about their physical, occupational and activities, whereas, the personality traits such as decisive, confident competitive etc. were mentioned by children from 8th grade and above. Obvious external characteristics, activities, occupation become part of the gender concept before less obvious ones, i.e., personality traits.

In another sex-typing attributional study it was found that the older children attribute more number of traits than young children. Similarly, the older stimuli persons receive more number of responses than younger stimuli persons.

### **1.3 Sex-roles**

Sex-roles which are the result of sex typing, become significant from-the point of views of child development and also from the view of women's role in the development process of a society. Some consider sex-role as a desirable goal of socialization and crucial for social and emotional adjustment of the child. Whereas, another school of thought would consider the acquisition of sex-roles as a hurdle in the optimum attainment of developmental opportunities for both the genders, specially for women. The sex-typed stereotypes limit the possibilities of adopting various occupation, exploring various capabilities in which they would have been equally or may be better performing.

Sex-typing, which is expressed through sex-roles, is flexible or not, is a significant topic of discussion for those who are concerned with women issues. Some feel that women and men have been performing the same roles and functions within families and societies since ages. A woman living in New York, England, Africa, Asia or elsewhere would always be responsible for child care and household tasks. Women in developed countries may have various gadgets, helps and resources to make the tasks easy, complicated or to improve the quality of work, yet the object remains the same, i.e., to look after the children and to please the family. An average woman all over the world is least concerned about global issues and does not play any significant role in the economic and political -structure of the society. Even if she Contributes to the economic subsistence of her family, her role in decision making remains secondary.

However, in 1930's Mead studied three cultures in New Guinea, the Tchambuli Mundugumor and Arapesh which had very different sex-roles. These three cultures have entirely different sex-typed behaviour of women. This study has been cited again and again in support of the thesis that human sexual nature has plasticity and

is not innate or unchangeable. Nevertheless, the essential continuity in sex-roles across time and space suggests that a strong biological basis for sex-roles can not be ignored.

#### **1.4 Theories of Sex-Typing**

Various theories of gender development have stimulated researches on sex-typed behaviour and at the same time the results of these researches and the observations of the researchers have provided feed back to the academicians to modify the theoretical perspective. The question is still unresolved if these sex-roles are caused by socialization process or have biological foundations. Psycho-analytical approach (Freud, 1925, 1961) supported the idea that sex typing is the result of socialization process in which child identifies with the parent of the same sex. Freudian theory and its subsequent extensions view the sex typing as a natural and normal outcome of biological differences between male and females. Although, psycho-analytical theories of sex-roles have been under severe criticism yet, their influence and significance can not be ignored. Freud was the first one who made the topic of sex open for academic discussion and concerns. The psycho-analytical theories of gender development have stimulated a lot of researches with theoretical implications.

Freud attempted to explain the sex-typed behaviour stemming from the castration anxiety and penis envy. Girls feel seriously wronged due to the difference in the genitals and it leaves ineradicable traces if not dealt properly. Homey also believed that girl's biological conditions determine her nature of being desirous to receive, to take into herself. The biological difference between boys and girls produce anxieties located in quite different quarters. The sex-role identity develops as a result of the psycho sexual development.

The first six years, according to the psycho-analytical theory of Freud, determine the future make up of the personality. A healthy and proper handling of the complicated issues faced by the child during the various developmental stages result in healthy personality. The psycho-analytical theory assumes that certain gender characteristics are the result of the psycho sexual development. For instance passivity, masochism and narcissism. The earliest overruns of the genitals leads towards the identification of the same sex parent and as a consequence the sex-roles develop.

Child no matter boy or girl gets earliest contact with and caring by a mother or a female mother substitute. Therefore, the earliest emotional attachment is with

female. Chodorow (1976) infers from this the observation that young children have more female characteristics. As they grow they develop more contrast sex-roles. Social learning theorist regards the sex-typed behaviour result of the reward and punishment from the society which reinforces or condemns certain type of behaviour for a particular sex-typed behaviour develop also as a result of observational learning, generalization and discrimination processes. The social agents are considered the main source of sex-typed learning. The symbolic models projected through the mass media serve as the source of identification for the learning of sex-typed behaviour.

The social learning theory poses a big question mark i.e., if the sex-typed behaviour is totally learned, it must be similar and identical for most of the members of a society. It totally ignores the underlying cognitive mechanisms, biological determinants and developmental stages. It treats the child as an object which passively responds to the environment. It also emphasizes on the learning mechanism of modeling and reinforcement, whereas, cognitive theory highlights the significance of child's active initiative in manipulation of his social world, which results in the development of sex-typed behaviour.

The sex-roles are the results of social stereotypes which give rise to certain type of behaviour that are regarded culturally appropriate. These social stereotypes and sex-roles help developing sex-role identity which finally do the sex typing. It includes the self perception of the masculine or feminine characteristics and capabilities. Studies have emphasized (Deaux & Lewis, 1984; Williams & Best, 1982) that the sex stereotypes have constancy over time and also have cross cultural generality.

The process of identification is, basically a psychological concept, discussed extensively by Freudians and Neo-Freudians. Nevertheless, the social learning model of identification in the development of sex-typing can not be ignored. The rewards and punishment children get on learning or rejecting certain behaviour pattern is also a great source of the development of sex-typing. Many of the sex-typed behaviour are learned by the child because the child gets attracted by the goals possessed by the model. For example the child may like the teacher primarily due to her being good to her or because of being a good teacher and during this process of liking adopts many of the behaviour patterns exhibited by her.

Cognitive Developmental theory gives a balanced view of the interaction between heredity and environment. Children first learn to label their own sex then they adopt sex-typed behaviour. The sex identity is followed by sex constancy. They start valuing the sex-typed behaviour which is reinforced and facilitated by the

significant others and by imitation of the authority figures. But this imitation is not the exact reproduction of the irritant's behaviour. Rather, the child distorts it according to her own experience. This distortion gives the child individuality in the sex-roles.

This theory is being criticized by the opponents on the account that the concept of sex identity, which according to this theory occurs earliest, is doubtful. It is difficult to infer if the awareness of sex is real or they know it because they are told by the adults that you are a girl/boy. In reality children may not learn about the abstract concepts like sex identity at an early stage.

Cognitive Developmental Model believes that child makes an unalterable cognitive categorization of himself or herself as boy or girl and this judgment then organizes the subsequent development of behaviors (Weitz, 1977). The concept of being a boy -or a girl; a member of a permanent category; develops at the age of 4 to 6 years. The understanding of the sex-roles is limited to the cognitive abilities of the child. Child starts assigning positive value to the behaviour pattern of the same sex adults. It helps the child to develop a healthy sex identity.

An important view point to discuss the sex-typed behaviour is the theory of cerebral lateralization. Specific parts and areas are responsible for specific activities and capabilities. The cerebral hemispheres are asymmetrical. It has been found that left hemisphere which is responsible for language, functions earlier in girls than in boys. It makes the girls able to acquire the verbal capabilities earlier. Whereas, boys right hemisphere is developed earlier, which makes them better in mathematical and spatial abilities. (Buffery and Gray 1972).

This model of interpretation of sex-typed behaviour looks very insufficient since it totally ignores the environmental factors and cultural aspects of sex-typed behaviour. However, some people give it a considerable importance and are convinced that sex differentiating cortical structures determine the cognitive aspect of sex-typed behaviour.

Intons-Peterson (1988) has summarized the theoretical perspectives. It can be said:

- a. Psycho-analytical approach emphasizes the physical genitalia as the earliest marker for the sex-typed behaviour.
- b. At earlier stages mother identification is more salient marker of sex-typed behaviour but in boys it disappears with increasing age.
- c. Cerebral lateralization theory states that the difference in the cerebral hemispheres development may be responsible for specific characteristics which determine sex-typed behaviour in some specific areas.

- d. Social learning theory believes that children imitate sex. This appropriateness is assigned by the society.
- e. Cognitive developmental theory attributes the sex-typed behaviour to the interaction of heredity and environment. The sex identity is followed by sex constancy.

### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. What do you understand by gender equality? How is it different from gender similarity?
2. What do you understand by sex-roles?
3. Prepare a list of the stereotyped characteristics of males and females. Rate yourself for these characteristics on a five point. rating scale.
4. Discuss the process of the development of gender -identity.

## **1.5 Factors Influencing the Sex-Typing**

The following section Nvould deal with the factors which influence the sex-typing or are responsible for generating sex-typed behaviour. These factors influence the behaviour in a very subtle and indirect way so much so that one can hardly be aware of that. Some times the sex typing is intentional and some times it is not even been recognized by the parents or the agents who are the source of the typing of the behaviour. Some of the sex-typed behaviors are at very conscious level and the parents or the society label them as desirable characteristics for a specific gender but some of the gender characteristics are learned by the children unintentionally.

### **1.5.1 Biological Determinants of Sex Typing**

Although sex typing is a socio-psychological concept, which is determined by various psychological and social factors. However, significance of biological determinants, can not be ignored. Many studies have found that siblings from a controlled social environment have different sex-role preferences which could only be assigned to the biological determinants.

The biological difference is established right from the day one of the conception of life determined by genetic pattern. The genetic pattern is made of chromosomes. Chromosomes, when seen through a powerful microscope, look like a rod like structure in the nucleus. Chromosomes contain and transmit the genetic characteristics which play a very significant role in determining the personality characteristics. Human organism is made up of trillions of cells and each call has a nucleus containing chromosome. All organisms have chromosomes but their number varies. For example, chimpanzees have 48, horses 64, raise 40, and human beings have 23 pairs, i.e., 46 chromosomes. These chromosomes have long double

stranded molecules of a chemical substance called DNA, i.e., Deoxyribonucleic Acid. The DNA has a unique feature. It has the ability to duplicate itself; which is the source of keeping the genetic code and the number of chromosomes constant from cell to cell during the process of growth and development.

These tiny pairs of chromosomes, can be distinguished from one another. Among these chromosomes 22 pairs are autosomes and are numbered from longest to shortest and the 23rd pair is called sex chromosomes. Sex of the organism is determined by this chromosome. In females this chromosome is called XX and in males it is XY. The sex of the individual is determined by whether an X bearing or Y bearing sperm fertilizes the egg.

The biological fact that only women can bear children gives rise to many subsequent sex-typing. The implications deduced from this biological fact have become basis for many sex biased stereotypes and expectations.

## **1.5.2 Psycho-Social Determinants of Sex-Typing**

### **1.5.2.1 Socialization**

Socialization is a process by which members of a society learn the behaviour of immature individuals so that they grow into contributing participants. Family, community and peers are very significant agents in the process of socialization. Parents shape the sex-typed behaviour through extending the differential providing an opportunity for identification. (Weitz 1977) The parents and other adults behave differently with boys and girls. The child learns that and also has an identification. These two processes are inter linked. The sex can not be evolved with only any one of the mechanisms. These two reinforce each other. Only the differential behaviour cannot produce the sex-roles unless the child goes through the process of identification, which would provide a cognitive emotive bridge between the person and the perceived standard of social structure (Weitz, 1977).

Some type of behaviors are clearly labeled with gender specification. For example in Pakistani culture emotionality, specially weeping is considered a typical female characteristic. From the very beginning the male child is taught that he should not cry, because boys do not cry. If a baby boy gets hurt the mother would say oh do not cry you are a brave person. But in the same house the child sees that the mother cries while watching a sentimental movie on video or while having a quarrel with the father. It has the implication that the mother is not brave. Although the girl child is not being said directly that you can cry, however, through identification with the same sex parents the girl child learns that crying is not an undesirable act for females; but males should prove to be brave by not crying.

It is observed that during pre-school age the sex-typed expression and gender-biases are very rigid. These are influenced by social factors but at the same time the limited cognitive abilities are also responsible for their rigidity. It is interesting to note that as the child grows the knowledge about sex differences increases. They start learning about the temperamental differences and also about the flexibility of these differences. The child gradually learns that these sex-typed attributes may or may not be found in a person. This flexibility is the result of the varied experience and the influences of variety of observations.

### **1.5.2.2 Family**

Family is the primary institution which exerts a profound impact on the personality of the child. Family provides satisfaction of basic needs on one hand while on the other hand it influences the personality development, development of attitudes and value system. The family members are closely tied up by hereditary and legal emotional, social and affectual bonds. Family provides physical and psychological care. This care helps shaping the socialization process which provides an opportunity to the child to develop the sex typing behaviour and also ex-role stereotypes. The parents and other family members foster this behaviour by being sensitively responsive to infants' momentary behaviour and needs. They serve as models and reinforce the desirable behaviour.

Extended family and the family friends through sex-typed gifts and other suggestions also influence the development of sex-typing. In the cultures like Pakistan, where extended family have significant roles to play, the grand-parents, uncles and aunts have influence on the sex-typing; specially those who are better looking, better educated and more well off than the parents.

### **1.5.2.3 Parents**

Parents from the early childhood start transmitting their own stereotypes and sex-role expectations to their infants. Their value system and ideology about sex-roles is communicated through conscious and subconscious efforts - through verbal and non-verbal gestures and also through direct and indirect instructions. The child is made aware of the sex typing. Parents of an infant express the sex typing through selecting the colours for the new born. Generally, the clothes and other articles purchased for baby boys are blue and pink for baby girls. As the child grows the parents continue their sex typing through buying various toys, clothes, articles for the toddlers. Although in almost all cultures the infant of either sex wears frocks. But the parents gradually start discriminating the dresses first through colours then by styles. Boys are supposed to wear blue, green, brown colours, whereas, girls are provided red, pink, yellow and other reddish colours. This sort of discrimination continues till the child herself learns about the sex identity.

Parents start showing sex discrimination through the selection of toys, play activities., even as early when they buy a present for the first birthday of their child. They would prefer to get a doll for the girl and car for the boy. As the children grow, kitchen utensils for the girls, and a scientific kit or assembly toys for boys. This type of discrimination continues with variations.

Hassan (1982), found that in Pakistani villages, parents start sex segregation as early as ten years of age. The girl is supposed to identify with her mother, to take part in the house hold tasks and to adopt a secondary role in comparison of their male siblings. By the time she reaches at 15 years of age she is supposed to work under harsh and strict supervision of her adults. All the decisions are made by her parents or guardians.

Parental support plays a significant part in the development of the sex-typed behaviour. If a girl is able to get extra support and encouragement from the parents, especially from the father, she can learn to be more assertive, confident and strong-contrary to the popular stereotypes. Hafeez (1981) found a direct positive relationship between high self-rating and the supportive attitude of their parents towards their academic achievements.

#### **1.5.2.4 School**

The school influences the development of sex-typed behaviour in many ways. Many of the later life decisions, specially about profession and career are influenced by the early impressions made during the school years. The school provides training for specific sex-roles. The curriculum contains gender specific contents. The teachers attitude preferences and their own gender biased ideology leave impact on children.

Generally teachers have a tendency to behave differently with boys and girls in a class room with co-education. They differentiate both the sexes in the style of punishment, in the assignment of tasks in the classroom and also in appreciating for the looks and appearance. These type of remarks by the teacher facilitates the sex-typing. Similarly the personality of the teacher provides a significant source of identification and imitation for the children. Majority of the children consider the teachers as ideal role models. During early school years and in later school years they become selective in idealizing only one or two teachers.

School is a significant factor which is responsible for the sex typing behaviour and stereotypes. In most of the countries and to some extend in Pakistan also, nursery teaching or primary class teaching is generally considered a female profession. Schooling poses a great threat for the child as a source of weaning from the mother.

If the early encounter of the child in the school is with a female who can easily behave in a mother substitute manner, then this weaning process would be less threatening.

#### **1.5.2.5 Childhood Play**

Sex typing or sex-typed behaviour starts at very early age. The earliest expression of sex-typed behaviour is also noticed in pre-school or toddlers play. The labeling or classification of sex biased roles gets stronger and stronger as the child starts interacting with various social groups. A large number of researches in west on young children revealed that by the pre-school years children prefer playmates of the same sex. Bianch & Backman (1978) observed 50 children between 4 and 6 years of age. Half of them were enrolled in a traditional kindergarten and half of them were in an open school. The traditional school was based on a philosophy of stressing on acquisition of conventional values and standards of conduct including established sex-roles and sex-typed activities. In contrast the goal of open school was to respond to children on the basis of their unique characteristics, and the sex-typed expectations about children's interest abilities and personalities were consciously avoided. In the open school both male and female teachers were employed.

Observation of free play revealed that the pupils of the traditional school played in a sex segregated fashion while open school children boys and girls were playing together quite frequently.

Type of School	Same-Sex Play	Mixed-Sex Play
Traditional	70 %	30%
Open School	40%	60%

The study suggests that the school environment providing play opportunities can modify children's sex-typed behaviour. But at the same time the school totally, can not be made responsible for the learning of sex typing; since the children coming to these schools belonged to the families with various type of socialization practices and value systems.

The sex-typing manifest itself in the behaviour patterns of an early pre-school child. A child of two years expresses the concept of sex typing through her play the role playing, make believe play and interaction with the family members.

Kuhn, Nash & Brucken (1978) found in a study that children as young as 2.5 years of age expressed sex-typed attitude while responding to a series of pictures indicating children in various activities future roles, physical characteristics and

occupations. Fagot, Leinbach & Hagan (1986) found the sex stereotyped knowledge even at 1.5 years, while Fagot (1978), O'Brien (1986), during home observation, laboratory situation and free play sessions, found that children at the age of two start preferring sex-typed toys. O'Brien and Huston (1985) also found similar conclusions. Their study was based on the sample of one to three year olds. They showed consistent choice for sex-typed games and toys.

#### **1.5.2.6 Language**

The earliest levels of language acquisition gives the child an opportunity to use sex biased language. Parents put extra emphasis on using correct grammar in sex biased expressions. It can be considered a very significant step towards sex-typing. In Urdu and also in most of the regional languages sex discrimination is highlighted in the conversation of children at a very early stage.

#### **1.5.2.7 Peers**

Children learn to develop a peer group by the age of six and seven. This is the stage when the child gets a clear sex identity; and the preference is more for the same sex peer group.

It has been observed that a young school child spends most of the waking time with peer group at school or in the neighbors. In most of the cultures children prefer to have a same-sexed peer group. Generally speaking the cross-sex friendship is supposed to develop during later adolescent years as a one to one relationship.

The peer group pressure effects the style of conversation, dressing up, ideology, religious practices and also selection of leisure activities. Younger children learn about new toys, games, videos from the peers. Because of the tradition of moving in the same-sexed peer group their choices and other behaviour patterns are also strengthened on the lines of sex biases. Children want to behave in accordance with peer norms approval.

#### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. Highlight the significance of biological determinants of sex- typing.
2. 'Parents shape the sex-typing through differential treatment with their daughters and sons.' Comment.
3. 'Identification with same sex parents perpetuates the existing sex-roles.' Explain.
4. Give at least three influences which the school leaves on the development of sex-typed behaviour.

5. What are the influences of peer group which contribute in the development of sex-roles.

## **1.6 Social Discrimination**

In Pakistan children are brought up in a continued process of socialization in which sex discrimination is taught through social discrimination. It is negatively loaded for girls. Hafeez (1993), while discussing the factors influencing the socialization, assigned high significance to two social practices. The first is the singing of Lullabies and the other one is marriage practices.

The Lullabies, in all cultures are supposed to be highly loaded by cultural values and norms. They set limits and definitions for sex-roles. This not only reflects the attitude of the parents and the society, but also contributes in developing the sex-typing. The images in the lullabies are internalized by the children from the very beginning and they learn to behave accordingly. Hafeez (1993) mentioned that in the lullabies, popular in various ethnic groups of Pakistan, the boys are idealized and girls are portrayed as inferior. Hindko lullabies have the images in which boys are expected to enjoy high status in terms of personal glory and privileged treatment, whereas, the girls are not.

Pushto, Balochi and Brahvi lullabies also have images of boys who are brave, custodian of national pride, winners of war and pride of imperial ancestry, whereas, the girls are depicted as the custodian of family honour. These social discriminations contribute in the development of sex-typed behaviour. The children internalize the images and the mother's behaviour is also shaped according to what she keeps on singing. Ultimately it turns into popular stereotypes. Hafeez (1993), also lists the various marriage practices prevailing in Pakistan. These are responsible in shaping the sex identity of our women. These practices force the girls to develop an image in which she is a liability, a commodity or a tool for settling the family feuds. Some of the practices which contribute in her negative sex identity are, the dowry, Walwar, exchange marriage, child marriage, marriage for ending family feuds or to pay off the blood debts.

## **1.7 Mass Media**

One of the greatest influence on the sex-typed behaviour is from mass media. Many studies have been quoted by Pervez (1982) which high light the significant role of media agents in the development of personality and also in the sex specific behaviour.

Media should not only be taken as a source of entertainment rather, these are significant tools for the development and preservation of cultural values and norms.

They play a significant role in the development of cultural identity. Media is a very powerful agent which can be used as a source of bringing desirable change in the personality and also in the cognitive sphere.

Pakistani media projects a very specific image of women, (Pervez, 1982, 1992) which not only provide a guide line to the youths to adopt that specific life style but also helps in sustaining the status quo. The typical Pakistani female lead in our popular media was submissive economically dependent, in need of affiliation, looking forward for the support of her male counterparts. Although the 90's have brought some change in the images, however, this change is very little both in quality and quantity.

Such studies reveal that the model and ideal women roles projected through media provide an incentive to our youth to adopt a specific type of role. The women are shown in house hold environment with very limited interests in life. Her knowledge and concerns about global issues, professional issues and national issues are rarely shown.

These models serve as a source of identification and imitation for the youngs. The idealized image is internalized by them and they attempt to behave accordingly.

Our media project highly sex discriminated views about occupation, fashion, family roles, relationships and social life in general. The interesting aspect is that the sex-typed behaviour is more encouraged by women media agents. The popular women writers novelists and journalists project and encourage the sex biased contents (Pervez, 1982). The fact that the message is given by women makes it more effective and credible, hence is introjected more deeply and conveniently..

Sex-typed behaviour is influenced by the symbolically transmitted norms and values. These are transmitted through books, toys, fiction, movies, cartoons folk lores. In most of the cultures specially in Pakistan, all these means communicate highly sex biased images and the characters are portrayed in highly sex-typed roles. These values are introjected by the children.

Media projects more images of male celebrities than women. The scandals are publicized in a way which brings forth the worse image of females involved in that. Newspapers never miss an opportunity to highlight the juicy stories, in which by any chance, any known woman has been involved.

## **1.8 Community**

The society creates a threatening environment for those women who attempt to violate the traditional sex-typed behaviour. Women who become public figures due

to their struggles and achievement have to spend a lot of their energies in defending their positive social image. Career women, may be a stenotypist, receptionist, professor or the highest executive office, remains a woman first than any thing else for her colleagues. A traffic violation or an accident by a lady driver is always interpreted as a mistake committed by a woman not by a driver. The harassment she gets in university (Anila, 1992) and work places forces her to endorse the sex-typing and to refrain from aspiring for an equal opportunity world.

The community provides an environment in which children adolescents and even adults who accept the traditional sex-roles are respected, while those who try to violate get rejection.

### **1.9 Work Environment**

The work environment includes the occupation the women adopt and the attitude and working conditions in which women work. An additional thing which enhances the significance of work environment in the life style of women than man is the decision to enter in the work environment. For most men the choice is not between whether to enter into work environment or not; rather men have a direct task to select the work environment of their capabilities. Whereas, women first decide whether to include the work into their life plan, if yes, then which work and to what extent. In a way the more significant influence on her sex-typed behaviour is the decision to enter into work or career rather than the specific occupation.

When a woman enters into career the already existing work environment and the prevailing stereotypes influence her behaviour in a sex-typed manner. Studies have shown that men are expected to place higher value on the factors related to career advancement promotion, pay increase and recognition. Whereas, women are supposed to give more importance to the work environment and congenial work relationships.

It reflects the general expectation that if a woman decides to behave in a typical sex expected manner, she should not aspire for a highly professional career. The work should have lesser importance than other aspects of life. Therefore, most of the women prefer to adopt the profession which is less challenging as a result is less paid and less prestigious.

Some theorists believe that women have the personality characteristics which are responsible for the lesser worldly success. For example, women are more expressive and sensitive, lower in instrumental qualities, in reflecting self assertiveness and independence. All these things negatively effect the achievement behaviour. In early days sex differences were seen as logical sequences of physiological differences. However the feminist movements influenced the

psychologists also and they started perceiving the sex differences and sex-typing from various perspectives. Khan (1986) found no sex difference in psychological differentiation. The available difference was in the punishment styles which was physical for boys and verbal for girls. Girls were encouraged for house hold chores and boys for out door tasks.

I very strongly believe that the lesser worldly success affixed with women is not due to her personality characteristics rather it is the work environment and the social expectations in which she performs various conflicting roles with equal significance. In majority of the cases the occupation and career gets lowest priority in her life style. However, if women want to adopt a profession or career on equally challenging basis than a sacrifice of the sex-typed behaviour is demanded. It has been observed that women in non traditional occupation are not able to lead a life in which they perform sex-typed roles. Similarly if a woman, despite being in a woman exclusive profession, wants to attain high excellence, wants to reach on the top, has to sacrifice her sex-typed roles to a great extent. Thus it can be concluded that the occupation one joins and the environment in which one works, specially a lady, greatly influence the sex-typed behaviour.

#### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. Briefly describe the norms and values which are symbolically transmitted by various agents. Name those agents.
2. "Community gives a highly negative response to women who defy the traditional sex-typed behaviour". Discuss.

#### **1.10 Conclusion**

The general observation and research studies suggest that the sex-roles neither have only biological basis nor are totally imposed by the society. The existing biological system provides a basis for adopting certain sex-role and sex-typed behaviour and psychological and social factors provide the maintenance system. While discussing the factors influencing the sex-typed behaviour attempts should be made to see both the psychological and societal factor as an interlocking unit. The sex-typing can not be explained neither apart from the context of culture and society nor apart from the person. It is just not possible to provide the children and parents the environment in which a completely sex blind socialization would take place. After all the society expects certain specialized roles from the individuals. Each person can not perform all tasks by him/herself Learning of sex-typed behaviour is necessary. The specific sex-roles should not be perceived as inferior or superior. Set-roles adopted by men and women are equally essential for the development of a society. However, it

should not be so rigid that all the options of social change and development become redundant.

**Suggested Activities and Observations**

1. Interview some parents and list their expectations about the sex-typed behaviour of their daughters and sons.
2. Make an observational study of a group of pre-school age children to list their sex-typed behaviour during school hours.
3. Select one TV drama and content analyze it from the perspectives of the sex-typed behaviour exhibited by the portrayed male and female characters.

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**Unit – 2**

# **COGNITIVE SEX DIFFERENCES IN MEN AND WOMEN**

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## **INTRODUCTION**

Comparative study of the mental faculties of male and female has always been of great interest to the psychologists. Before 1900, the books on such issues presented theoretical discussion or general impressions some of which are still believed to be true. According to these ideas woman was considered all around weaker counterpart of man because of her physical weakness as compared to man.

## **OBJECTIVES**

It is expected that after reading this unit the students:

1. Will be able to create the concept of cognition and its component abilities in their minds
2. Can describe the sex based differences in intelligence in general and in intelligence at various age levels.
3. Can identify and describe the nature and extent of difference between the two sexes on various cognitive faculties/abilities.
4. Will compare the scholastic achievement of males and females. Comparisons between the nature and extent of differences regarding ability and achievement will also be made.
5. Will identify the strengths of each sex on various mental faculties
6. Will differentiate between sex-wise averages vs. variability regarding overall intelligence as well as in various cognitive abilities.
7. Can briefly describe the causes of sex based cognitive differences.
8. Will evaluate the myth of mental inferiority of females in the light of empirical research and formulate his/her own opinion.

## **2.1 What Is Cognition?**

Cognition is a generic term used to designate all mental processes involved in the act of knowing. It begins with immediate awareness of objects in perception extends to all forms of reasoning. In other words cognition includes perception, thinking, attention, language, reasoning, classifying, problem solving, memory and creativity cognitive processes are also referred to as intellectual processes. That is why, intelligence is sometimes considered synonymous with cognition.

## **2.2 Research in Cognitive Differences**

Quantitative research to study the differences in mental faculties began by the end of the 19th century and expanded very rapidly. Some quantitative research was limited to the count of eminent men and women in history and it is a fact that history has recorded the names and achievements of large number of men but only a small number of women. Ellis (1904) in his history of British geneses found only 55 women in his total group of 1030 persons. J. MckCattells' (1963) list of 1000 most eminent persons in the world lists only 32 women, and some of these were distinguished by circumstances such as royal birth rather than intellectual achievement of their own. In the 1927 edition of American Men of Science, only 725 women were listed out of 9785 entries and out of 250 names starred out of special eminence, only 3 were women. Even in fields traditionally assigned to women, the most eminently successful persons are likely to be men. For instance in dress, designing and interior decoration, the leaders in the field are men. Most of the world's cooking is done by women, but great chefs of all times have been men. Similar trends are observed in other fields.

Some explanation of such differences could be the cultural and sociological factors, and role sex typing which delimit and adversely affect the workings of women. For instance, due to men dominated social structures, women are not permitted to work long hours outside home in almost all societies of the world. Women's failure in making notable accomplishments is also due to child bearing. Due to these and similar other reasons women did not participate in the world of affairs, Therefore, all great doers and thinkers in history were men. By the end of last century women started participating in activities outside home and the views about women also started changing. Now the proportion of women in the list of 1000 eminent persons of the world is increasing.

Systematic research to ascertain the sex differences based on the measurement of various mental abilities, started in the early 20th century. Most of the research has

been conducted to understand the nature of differences, if any, and not to demonstrate general superiority or inferiority of the either sex.

In the proceeding sections, the comparisons in the mental and cognitive abilities of sexes are made along overall intelligence as well as achievement in scholastic abilities. Other than overall comparison various faculties of intelligence and achievement are compared separately.

### **2.3 Overall Intelligence**

Test of overall intelligence do not reveal consistent sex differences. Differences between the two sexes are in different direction for various age levels. Even within the same age level the differences reported are not consistent. The extent and direction of difference is, to a great extent, controlled by the type of content and material used in the tests and representativeness of the sample. However, a general conclusion is that girls score higher on intelligence tests during the early years and from high school onwards boys take the lead. Details for different age levels are given below:

#### **2.3.1 General Intelligence: Upto age 14**

Most of the early tests of general intelligence show a consistent tendency for girls to get slightly higher IQ's than boys, during pre-school years (Maccoby, Pressey, 1957). Even upto the age of fourteen, girls averaged higher scores than boys. The differences were small, seldom more than four IQ points, but always in the same direction.

In the later studies, analysis of results obtained with different types of problems and materials has led to an explanation of the superiority of girls under fourteen on the basis of their slight advantage in verbal expression. If *tests* having a large verbal content are used, girls surpass boys. But when a wide variety of content is used, there is usually no differences between boys and girls. The Scottish council for Research on Education conducted in 1939, a study on all thirteen years boys and girls of the country (born on February 1, May 1, August 1, November 1, 1926) regardless the grade they were attending. Stanford-Binet tests were given to them. The average IQ's for boys and girls were 100.51 and 99.7, respectively. The difference is minor and statistically insignificant.

A later study, again conducted by Scottish Council or Research in Education (1949) based on an equally good sample of thirteen years old children born in 1936) shows boys about 4 points higher on the individual test and girls about 2 point higher on

the group test. Both differences are statistically significant, but the fact that the differences are small and in opposite direction, fails to support the superiority of either sex

On Piagetian cognitive tests, hardly any difference between boys and girls have been observed. Pervez and Naeem (1989) developed a task battery based on theory and method developed by Jean Piaget. A sample of 360 children (180 boys and 180 girls) with equal number from Class 1, III and V was selected on the basis of performance on the test, children were placed into six general stages.

Table 1:  
Sex Differences in Cognitive Development Stages in Children of Primary Schools of Pakistan

Class	Sex	Number of Children-Stage					
		IA	1B	2A	2A/3B	2B	2B/3A
I	Boys	8	8	23	19	2	0
	Girls	8	10	21	20	1	0
II	Boys	0	0	8	48	3	1
	Girls	0	0	2	42	13	3
III	Boys	0	0	5	35	14	6
	Girls	0	0	4	34	14	8

Considering the marked differences in sex role in Pakistani society, one can expect differences between boys and girls. But the observed differences between boys and girls were not significant. If there were differences in one direction at one stage those were cancelled at another stage with a reverse direction of difference.

If we look at the sample and protocols selected by Piaget for the study of cognitive development, it will not be erroneous to say that Piagetian Tasks are less biased than traditional paper and pencil intelligence test items which heavily draw on the knowledge and experience of male population putting female respondent to disadvantage.

### 2.3.2 Overall Intelligence: High School Age Group

The earlier studies of overall intelligence have demonstrated consistent superiority of boys over girls during the high school years (Maccoby; Tyler, 1956) whereas girls got higher scores in primary grades. The superiority of boys increased from the first to the last year of high school. This variation could be due to accelerated growth of girls who mature faster than the boys and boys take additional two years to catch up and it is reflected in cognitive development also secondly there is a possibility that higher scores of boys during high school is due to differential school drop-out

rate in developed countries among boys and girls. In western societies more boys drop-out from school than girls. The individuals most likely to leave the school are those who make lower than average scores on intelligence tests leaving a more highly selected group of boys in high school. The removal of less able from the group automatically raise the boys average on intelligence tests. Girls on the other hand stay in school even if their mental level is limited. Different results might be expected if the sample is selected from the high school age group population of school goers and non-goers. But the longitudinal study method also reveal larger gain in scores during later adolescence and adulthood for males than that for females. Unfortunately there is no data available for Pakistan on cognitive differences amongst boys and girls for different age levels.

### **2.3.3 Overall Intelligence: Adults**

The tests of adult intelligence reveal small but positive sex differences in favour of males on full scale scores. For instance, on several administrations except one, of Wechsler Bullevard Intelligence Test, men, on the whole, performed better than women. The differences were not large but for the most part significant, (Wechsler, 1958).

Similarly the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale generally revealed differences in favour of men. The adult sample was divided into eleven age groups from age 16 to 64. Out of eleven age groups, men attained superiority in nine groups. The old age sample of 60-75+ was divided into four age groups. The Full Scale scores were in favour of men for three age groups.

All the above differences, generally in favour of men, were however, considered small enough o make separate sex norms (Wechsler, 1958). The differences between the cognitive performance of male and female were not consistent for various adult age levels as measured on Piagetian Formal Operations' tests. The differences were also insignificant (Mirza, 1975).

In follow up testing at both adolescent and adult level women showed a larger mean drop in IQ than men. It is possible that with increasing exposure to traditional activities and social pressures, the intellectually superior boy will continue to improve in intellectual functions. While the equally superior girls is more likely to enter into less intellectual pursuits. For example, in a survey it was found that two thirds of the women with IQ's of 170 or above were housewives or office worker where they find no opportunities to apply high intellectual functions.

## **Section Summary**

### **Overall Intelligence**

1. In the world of work there are fewer distinguished women as compared to men. But the underlying reasons are cultural, societal and some biological constraints which do not allow women to work as hard as men can.
2. Tests of overall intelligence reveal inconsistent sex differences. 3 Girls generally score higher than boys on tests of general intelligence upto adolescence. But there are a few tests that reveal either no sex differences or even a higher mean score for boys as compared to girls.
4. Cross-sectional as well as longitudinal studies have consistently concluded the male superiority regarding overall intelligence during the high school-age level. Studies also reveal higher gain scores for boys during late adolescence and early adulthood. This higher gain in scores bring a shift in overall intelligence from childhood to high school age level.
5. During adulthood males again have a slight edge over females regarding overall intelligence.

## **2.4 Ability-Wise Differences**

The exploration of differences is rather more beneficial for understanding both sexes studies have revealed no difference between sexes on many of the cognitive abilities; in some abilities women surpass men while in other favour of men.

### **2.4.1 Verbal Abilities**

Female superiority in verbal or linguistic functions has been noted from infancy to adulthood. The differences are in favour of female from infancy to adolescence. But during adulthood results are not consistently in favour of women.

Studies conducted in the western societies, based on observation of children during infancy and pre-school years have consistently reported that girls say their first word sooner (girls at 11.4 months and boys at the age of 12 months). The pronunciation of girls is also more clear. They begin to use sentences earlier than boys and tend to use longer and more mature sentences (Anastasi, 1958; Maccoby). In one study the percentage of comprehensible verbal responses was determined for children ageing 18 and 24 months. At 18 months the average percentage of comprehensible words was 14 for boys and 38 for girls; at 24 months, it was 49 words for boys and 78 for girls. Similarly, girls of pre-school age have a large vocabulary than boys (Anastasi, 1958).

In learning to read, girls also make more rapid progress than boys and there are more boys than girls who require special training in remedial reading programs. However, it is interesting to note that sex differences in reading are not found in many countries. In some countries the direction of difference becomes, even reverse. Cross (1978) found no sex differences in the frequency of reading disability in Israeli schools, because gender roles are too stressed to that extent in Israel. Johnson (1974) observed that in Nigeria boys scored higher than girls on most tests of reading. This evidence is, however, minor as compared to the previous studies showing superiority of females in reading.

The proportion of cases of stuttering, stammering and other speech disorders is higher among boys as compared to girls. The ratio of male to female stutters varies from 2:1 to 10:1 (Anastasi, 1958). In another survey of 17 groups of reading disability, the percentage of boys varied from 60 to 100.

In spite of the fact, that in western societies, more able boys stay in school, girls maintain their superiority in many aspects of verbal functioning throughout the elementary and high school level and obtain higher scores on verbal sections of intelligence. The differences become wider from adolescence onwards into high school.

Further analysis of verbal functions reveals that girls of all ages excel in verbal fluency, speed of reading and in other tasks involving mastery of the mechanism of language such as opposites, analogies, anagrams, sentence completion, story completion and dissected sentences. Girls between the ages of 5-11 were faster at naming colours, objects, letters, numbers and animals (Metlin, 1987).

Studies of high school age group with the Thurston tests of Primary Mental Abilities showed a significant differences in favour of girls in word fluency but to in verbal comprehension in which sex differences become negligible and inconsistent. For example in the normative sample of the Differential Aptitude Tests, girls excelled significantly in language Image, but the verbal Reasoning Test yielded small, negligible difference in favour of boys (Anastasi, 1958). In another study, Hobson (1947) and Havighurst and Breese found that girls of junior high school age were significantly higher on verbal fluency but not on verbal meaning on the Primary Mental Abilities Battery. Herzberg and Lepkin (1954) found senior high school girls (sixteen, seventeen, eighteen) to be significantly higher than boys on verbal comprehension.

In a study of language development of children in grades 4-12, 472 boys and 514 girls were asked to write a composition on a given topic of interest to both Sexes,

Within the same time limit, girls produced longer themes than boys. The elementary school boys used on the average 86 percent of as many words as the girls used, and the high school boys used 83 percent of as many words as used by girls.

Results of Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale reveal the superiority of women on vocabulary sub-test, The mean scores for women were higher than men for all fourteen age groups (16+75) selected for the study. But the scores on total verbal part of WATS demonstrated slight male superiority for thirteen out of all fourteen adult age groups (Wechsler, 1958).

Noh and Guilford (1930) conducted a study using the method of continuous lists with 25 men and 25 women. Subjects were asked to write 1000 words as quickly as possible. Women completed their list in less time on the average, again conforming to the conclusion of better speed of women in language matters. However nature words used by both sexes was different. Men predominate in verbs, implements and utensils,. abstract terms and occupations and women exceed in wearing apparel, building and building materials interior furnishing, education, art and amusement. Jastraw and Manchester (as quoted in Noh and Guilford, 1930) arrived at similar findings.

Manchester observed that Men's list refers to time, to the dynamic and the abstract and notion of static, space and the concrete are found in Women's list.

It is due to verbal fluency that a large proportion of women known for great achievements are writers (Castle, 1913).

#### **2.4.2 Memory**

Most studies agree that females excel in memory at all ages. Memory tests, in general, call for the exact repetition of group of digits immediately after presentation; for the production of geometrical figures that have been studied for a short time; or for the recitation of a story or paragraph that has been read aloud. In all these types of tests, except geometrical figures, female superiority' is the general rule. But the differences are not so large as they are on verbal tests and some of the results are also inconstant.

Burt, Moore, Gates, Shaw and Whipple (in Tyler, 1956) concluded the clear superiority of girls and women. In the standardization sample of the 1937 Stanford-Binet, a significantly greater percentage of girls passed the tests of picture memories and copying a bead chain from memory. Group test of intelligence also show superior female performance on sub-tests involving memory.

Lobsein, Lyon, Mulhall, Netschajeff and Schramm's studies reveal small sex differences. However, some superiority of women is still supported.

Women also perform better when social context is involved. For instance women remember more of their high school classmates' names and faces, long after graduation (Bahrick, Bahrick and Wittlinger as reported in Metlin Margert, 1987). Other than the picture memories and copying a bead chain from memory, Studies where the differences amongst boys and girls are negligible and inconsistent are the sub tests of Stanford-Binet. Similarly tests of digit span and of memory for geometric forms show negligible and inconsistent sex differences.

On digit span sub-test of WAIS, the mean scores of men and women were equal. However, for different age groups, there were slight insignificant and inconsistent differences between the mean scores of men and women. For instance out of seven age groups females obtained superiority in four groups.

In memory tests for narratives, the direction of sex differences often depend upon the relative appeal of the content for the two sexes. In general, however, when the content favours neither sex, girls tend to excel more consistently in logical reasoning tests than in rote memory.

Dietze (1932) conducted a study on factual memory with 661 pairs boys-girls. The pairs were selected to rule out the effect of age. The pairs were divided into 26 groups. A short article of approximately 1000 words followed by a comprehension test on facts containing the article was used. In 20 out of 26 comparisons the boys had the higher average, in 5 groups girls were superior, and in one group no sex was at advantage.

### **2.4.3 Number/Mathematics Ability**

On numerical tests, the difference are in favour of boys. However, at preschool age there are no sex differences in numerical ability. Girls rather learn to count at an earlier age. Maccoby and Jackline (1974) reviewed the sex differences in mathematics ability and concluded that differences appear from late childhood or early adolescence. Consistent sex differences do not appear until about the age of 15 (Meece, Etal, 1982). For example Gesell's observations on pre-school children show either negligible sex differences or slight superiority of girls in the early development of numerical concepts. Surveys on kindergarten and first grade children have also yielded no significant sex differences in overall arithmetic abilities including numerical and arithmetic reasoning. At the lower levels of the Stanford-Binet test, sex differences on tests involving counting and number concepts are also negligible or inconsistent.

Among elementary school children as well as older subjects, computation tests show either no sex difference or more often a difference in favour of girls. On test for all ages where only mechanical arithmetic involving speed and accuracy in mechanics of computations are measured, differences between the sexes do not appear. Some studies even, reveal the superiority of girls. However, in a longitudinal study, Hann (1963) found males accelerating more than females in arithmetical ability during early adulthood. Scores on WATS also reveal superiority of male in overall arithmetic ability for all age levels, 1664, included in the sample.

On problems involving numerical or arithmetic reasoning male superiority is rule. This superiority starts appearing from elementary grades onward. On Stanford-Binet, boys excel significantly on the tests of arithmetic reasoning, ingenuity, and induction. On most group tests of intelligence at the elementary, high school and college levels boys excel on tests of arithmetic reasoning and number series completion. In case of multiple factor batteries, girls tend to excel boys on tests of the number factor (speed and accuracy in the mechanics of computation) while boys usually score higher on numerical reasoning. The findings are further supported by the John Hopkins Regional talent search, of 1980, 1981 and 1982 in which 39,820 seventh graders selected for high intellectual ability were given the College Board Scholastic Aptitude Test. Test revealed that far more males than females scored extremely high on mathematical part of SAT. The test items of SAT-M require numerical judgement relational thinking and logical reasoning and the most who scored high did so because of extraordinary reasoning ability. The sex difference remained constant at 30 points favouring males for the three years (in Walsh, 1987).

#### **2.4.4 Creativity and Problem Solving**

When the ability to break, reset or restructure a problem is measured, there is a tendency for men and boys to be superior. Working with college students, Sweeney found males significantly superior on problems that called for "restructuring", that is, discarding the first approach and reorganizing facts in new ways. This sex difference remained even when groups were equated for general intelligence, verbal and mathematical aptitudes, relevant knowledge and a number of background factors.

Men also surpass women in their ability to transfer or apply skill and knowledge to new situations. Again relevant factors such as intelligence, previous knowledge, reading ability, practice effect and certain personality traits were controlled and still the superiority of males was retained. However, Kesler, Denney and Whitely (1976) in Margret (1987) have reported that elderly men and women did not differ on problem solving abilities as measured on the three given problems. It can be

suspected that subjects were not perhaps equated on other variables that could affect the problem solving ability.

Boys of elementary school age scored lower than girls on most tests of creativity (Torrance, 1961). Creativity can be bifurcated into divergent and convergent thinking. Females do better than boys on tasks of divergent thinking and males do better on convergent thinking *tasks*. Klausmeier and Wiersma (1964) selected equal number of girls and boys of IQ 115 or above from grade 5th and 7th. They administered five tests of divergent thinking— object uses, word uses, plot titles, expressional fluency, object improvement and sentence improvement and four tests of convergent thinking i.e. current events word study skills, problem solving judgement and analogies. On all tests of divergent thinking girls significantly surpassed boys. While on all tasks of convergent thinking boys were significantly higher than girls. Women also score better on tests of creativity based on verbal abilities and tasks while men show an edge when the task is spatial.

#### **2.4.5 Perceptual Processes**

Perceptual processes can be divided into two broad categories, i.e. perception of details and perceptual functions concerned with spatial orientation.

In tasks involving the rapid perception of details and frequent shifts of attention, women generally excel. Differences are large and significant. This is one of the principal abilities measured by clerical aptitude tests on which women make consistently a better score than men. In the norms reported for the Minnesota Clerical Test, only about 16 percent of male workers in the general population reached or exceeded the median of female workers in checking similarities or differences in lists of names and numbers. Overall comparisons on the test reveal that only 21 percent of employed men clerical workers. Schneider and Paterson have summarized data from several sources and concluded that at all ages and grade levels, only about 20 percent of the males exceed the median for females. Similar results have been obtained with other clerical tests such as Clerical Speed and Accuracy Test of the Differential Aptitude Tests.

In another type of perceptual function concerned with spatial orientation, the difference is in favour of males. The spatial orientation tasks require the ability to respond to one aspect of a stimulus situation without being greatly influenced by the background or field in which it is presented particularly disregarding the misleading visual cues. Witkin and his associates used tilting room-tilting chair test. They concluded more dependence of women upon the surrounding visual field. That women made more errors than men as a result of their inability to disregard the misleading cues. With eyes closed, however, women did as well as men in this

situation. Similarly, on the Rod and Frame Test and the Embedded Figures Test, which require locating a particular object that is hidden in a larger design, the performance of females was poorer than males.

In another study of spatial orientation conducted on Swedish University students, sex differences again in favour of males were observed. The task was to point to tiny illuminated spot in a dark room. Although all subjects experienced considerable difficulty in localizing the luminous point, women also proved less resistant to stimuli that disrupted their spatial orientation.

The sex differences, however, did not emerge when Embedded Figure Test was used with five year old (Sigel et al, 1963) and four year old children (Maccoby et al).

#### **2.4.6 Spatial and Mechanical Aptitude**

Tests of mechanical and spatial ability show consistent and pronounced differences in favour of males from school age onwards. the superiority of males is not evident at an early age. For example, Gessell and his associates, in their extensive observation, did not find any significant or consistent sex differences during the first five years of life in tests involving block building, from boards and form recognition. Maccoby has also reported that very young boys and girls do not differ on spatial tasks such as form boards and block design.

From early school years through high school, college and adult life, males are in general more successful than females on most of the tests of mechanical and spatial aptitude such as form board type tests, mazes, puzzle boxes and tests calling for the assembly of small objects. On tests of mechanical comprehension women score lower than men. The Mechanical Comprehension Test by Bannett, a test of mechanical relationship requires the observation of pictures to answer questions. Test includes sixty items. A total number of 390 females and 338 males of comparable age and education including highly significant differences were observed. The average score of men on all items was higher than women. Among high school students only one girl in twenty exceeded the average, On Stanford-Binet test boys significantly excelled in tests of spatial abilities such as block counting from pictures, directional orientation and plan of search. Boys also scored higher than girls on tests of form boards, puzzle boxes, assembling objects and slot mazes. Similarly, Porteus administered a graded paper and pencil maze test to girls and boys of same IQ and observed significant male superiority. Temian and Tyler (1954) have reported that males score higher on space factor or factors which seem to represent the most essential part of mechanical aptitude. On multiple aptitude batteries boys consistently excel on spatial factors.

In the standardization of Minnesota Mechanical Aptitude Tests, sex differences were investigated among 7th grade children and college sophomores. The test has five sub-tests; object assembly, Paper Form Board, Spatial Relations, Block Packing and Card Sorting. At 7th grade boys far exceeded in Object Assembly and excelled in Paper Form Board Test. At this level girls took a lead in other three sub-tests. But at college level boys well exceeded in all sub-tests except card sorting where slight difference was in favour of girls. The card sorting activity is more related to manual dexterity rather than mechanical ability.

The performance tests of intelligence' which depend largely on spatial aptitude, generally reveal male superiority. For example in a complete sampling of 11 years old children examined in one of the Scottish survey, a battery of eight performance tests selected from well known intelligence scale was administered in addition to the Stanford-Binet test. The Stanford-Binet IQ score were not much different for the sexes but they significantly differed on performance tests. The difference was in favour of boys. The Block Design and Object Assembly sub-test of WAIS also yielded male superiority. According to Hyde's (1981) estimate about 7 percent of males and three percent of females fall in the top 5 percent of the population regarding spatial ability. This means that approximately twice as many males as females are talented in this ability.

Many of the authors agree that male superiority in mechanical abilities is not inherent. It rather has cultural basis which is evident by the fact that boys and girls of young age do not differ in spatial ability tests. The mechanical information and greater experience of boys with mechanical objects gives them an advantage on all such tests.

#### **2.4.7 Artistic and Musical Aptitude**

Musical talent tests generally show female superiority. On simple tests of auditory discrimination and memory no sex differences are observed but on complex tests of art appreciation women exceed in average scores by small but significant difference. Some other tests reveal that sex differences are more evident and consistent with subjects who received training in music but to among untrained subjects. This indicates that women have more learning ability and make higher achievement than men in music.

#### **2.4.8 Manual Dexterity**

Females demonstrate more manual dexterity as compared to males. Girls are usually able to dress themselves at an earlier age and more efficiently than boys. Girls have superior control of fingers and wrists which is evident in such behaviour as hand washing and turning door knobs. In the standardization sample of Stanford-

Binet, more girls than boys passed the test on buttoning and tying bow-knot. On tests like the O'Connor Finger Dexterity Tests, O'Connor Tweezer Dexterity Test and Purdue Pegboard, the norm for adult women are consistently higher than those for men. The superiority of girls in manual dexterity gives them advantage in writing in the academic field.

#### **2.4.8.1 Analytic Ability**

Analytic ability is concerned with modes of grouping diverse arrays of objects or pictures. People who group "analytically" put objects together on the basis of some selected elements they have in common. Boys more commonly use analytic groupings than do girls. The difference is not prominent at an early age but it does appear among children in the second to fourth grade.

#### **2.4.8.2 Concept Attainment**

Sex difference in concept attainment activities, favour the females. Tagtz selected 20 subjects of each sex and administered four problems of concept attainment time to criterion. He found significant sex difference in favour of females.

### **Section Summary**

1. Sex differences are notable in mental faculties like verbal ability, memory, mathematics ability, spatial and mechanical ability. On tests of problem solving and perceptual processes the differences are more qualitative rather than quantitative.
2. Male and female differ on verbal ability with results favouring female from infancy to adulthood.
3. In the United States, girls are better in reading than boys but the sex differences are minimal or even reversed in some other countries.
4. Although female maintain their superiority over males in verbal ability throughout life span. Their superiority is mainly due to word fluency but not verbal comprehension in which sex differences are negligible and inconsistent.
5. Many of the memory tests yield results slightly favouring females, however, some of the test results are inconsistent in giving the direction of difference.
6. At early age, male and female are almost equal on tests of numerical and mathematical ability. From early adolescence onwards, males receive higher average scores on such tests, particularly tests of mathematical reasoning.
7. Males are found a little ahead of females in adopting innovative problem solving approaches. Further analysis of cognitive structure depicts qualitative difference with male superiority in convergent thinking and females taking lead in divergent thinking.

8. Tests of spatial and mechanical aptitude indicate results generally favouring males from school age onwards.
9. On perceptual processes involving the rapid perception of details and frequent shifts of attention, women generally excel but on perceptual functions concerted with spatial orientation, the difference is in favour of males.
10. Given training, females excel in music and artistic abilities, but untrained males and females do not differ on this ability.

## **2.5 Sex Differences in Scholastic Achievement**

Scholastic achievement is another indicator of intellectual abilities of an individual. Scholastic achievement is measured through school grades and standard achievement tests as well as public examinations.

Females generally excel in overall academic performance at elementary and secondary levels. At all levels, girls are less frequently retarded, more frequently accelerated and promoted in larger number than boys. The sex differences are more marked in school grades as compared with the scores on standardized achievement tests but are still in favour of girls. For example, the advantage enjoyed by girls in school grades was made particularly vivid in an investigation of 202 boys and 188 girls in grades 2 to 6 all of whom were given the Stanford Achievement Test. The girls excelled boys in school grades as well as in scores on Stanford Achievement Scores, but school grades revealed greater female superiority when compared with standardized achievement tests.

In high school, again girls achieve higher overall grades than boys, in spite of the fact that boys are more select groups and make better scores on standardized achievement tests. Similarly, there is evidence that at college level girls adjust better than boys to the academic environment. In an analysis of the records of 1818 students entering a co-educational college during a single year, women accounted for relatively small proportion of scholastic failures, and non participants in college activities. In Air Force, technical schools, women obtain better grades than men with the same Aptitude Index.

Results of public school examinations, in Pakistan, from secondary school level to M.Sc, reveal the similarly picture. Considerable greater percentage of females pass

each examination, i.e., Secondary School Certificate (Matriculation), higher secondary certificate, B.A./B.Sc, and M.A./M.Sc. The superiority of females was constant over the years. Not only that percentage of successful females was higher than males but, the quality of females passing the examinations was also much superior. the quality is evident by the distribution of successful candidates over first, second and third divisions or grades. More females were placed in first and second division whereas, more males obtained third division.

Table 2  
Pass Percentage of Candidates Appearing at Various Public Examinations in Pakistan, 1964-85

Year	Matriculation		Intermediate		BA		BSc		MA		M.Sc	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1964	53.4	57.3	41.6	47.7	40.7	59.6	57.6	75.0	69.3	78.5	83.9	88.6
1965	61.3	61.9	42.3	44.4	53.9	68.0	58.4	82.1	70.1	73.9	79.3	87.1
1966	56.4	61.3	34.4	38.3	40.3	49.2	46.9	9.5	67.5	79.5	82.9	85.7
1967	61.0	69.2	44.5	47.4	35.7	40.1	47.5	61.9	60.1	74.4	75.1	82.5
1968	56.0	58.9	38.	44.	28.2	45.1	40.2	58.9	56.5	74.4	82.6	88.4
1985	49.5	57.4	32.7	40.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source:

Mirza Munawar, "Analytical Study of the Outputs and Results of Public Examination" in *Supply System of Educated Manpower in Pakistan*, The National Commission on Manpower and Education, 1969.

\*Govt. of Pakistan, *Secondary Shaul Certificate and Higher Secondary School Certificate Examination, 1985*, Islamabad: Central Bureau of Education, 1989.

Table 3  
Sexwise And Division wise Percent Distribution of Candidates Passing Various Public Examinations in Pakistan.

Examination	First Division		Second Division		Third Division	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
Matriculation	15.4	15.7	38.6	45.0	45.7	39.3
Itermediate	4.4	4.7	31.3	40.0	64.4	55.3
BA	5.8	8.3	43.8	56.5	50.3	35.2
B.Sc	14.8	10.9	60.6	67.2	24.7	21.9
MA	7.8	13.8	53.2	59.0	39.0	27.2
M.Sc	20.9	20.4	68.1	72.3	11.0	7.3

Subjectwise comparison of school achievement in the light of school grades yield a general superiority of females. But performance on standardized achievement tests show small and varying direction of difference in the various subject matter fields. These differences correspond closely to those found on intelligence and aptitude tests. Girls generally surpass boys in those subjects depending largely upon verbal abilities . (spelling, writing), art, and less consistently on arithmetic computation. Boys score significantly higher in science, social studies and arithmetic reasoning. The sex difference in the quantitative and scientific thinking, however, do no emerge at the pre-school and primary school levels. At high schools and college level, wide differences on science tests have been observed. The Stanford Achievement Test yields similar results. The Science Search Test provides best evidence in this regard. Participation in this program is voluntary. Since each year two or three times as many boys as girls apply, one would expect the girls to be far more highly selected. In spite of this fact, highly significant differences in favour of boys have been obtained each year.

Mathematics, is traditionally regarded as a male subject and it is an accepted belief that males achieve better in mathematics than girls. Individual studies as well as reports concerning National Assessment of Educational Progress in Mathematics confirm the superiority of males. Some studies, however, found few sex related cognitive difference in this subject. Such as Fennema and Sherman (1977) investigated sex differences in mathematics cognitive achievement by selecting 589 females and 644 males of 9-12 grades from 4 schools. Subjects were equated on Mathematics background and general ability of the subjects was controlled. They found that 'males had significantly higher scores than females in only 2 of the four high schools.

The results of public examinations in Pakistan partially support the superiority of males in science related subjects - more boys obtained first division in B.Sc and M.Sc. examinations as compared with females but more girls were placed in second division. Again more boys in the third division.

### **2.5.1 Variability in Ability and Achievement**

The sex comparisons along ability and achievement have been discussed with reference to group means. It is easy to make comparisons on the basis of group averages but such comparisons do not give a picture about the variability may be greater than intergroup differences. It may happen that when one group excels another by a large and significant amount, individuals can be variability may be greater than intergroup differences. It may happen that when one group excels another by a large and significant amount, individuals can be found in the "inferior group", who will surpass certain individuals in the Superior group'. Therefore,

relationship found between group averages may not hold for individual cases. It can be further interpreted that on a cognitive quality where one sex is lower than the other, there might be certain individuals who score as high as the high scores in the other group or may score even better. That is why when Samuel Johnson was asked which is more intelligent, man or women. He replied, "which man, which worms"? It can be further elaborated by a hypothetical example, it is generally hold that men surpass women on mechanical ability, still there might be some women who may score as high as the high scoring man or may score even better on the mechanical aptitude test.

According to the theory of variability second important point is the clustering of women around the average with far fewer extremes whereas men show more variability or greater range. Considering the example of intelligence, the theory would assume more women of average intelligence with fewer feeble minded and fewer very shaper, men would have greater proportion of feeble minded as well as eminent persons.

The differences in the variability are, however, very small and sometimes inconsistent.

### **2.5.2 Causes of Cognitive Differences**

Preceding sections have revealed some consistent difference between the sexes in verbal memory, spatial and mathematical abilities. Even on these abilities, the differences are not marked to the extent of warranting the failure of either sex in a certain type of job. For instance, inspite of general male superiority in spatial abilities, women who are competent in spatial skills perform better than men. The proportion of women, equally competent in spatial abilities is, however, half of that for men (Metlin, 1987).

Whatever, the differences exist between the sex regarding cognitive abilities are attributed more to the social and environmental factors, sex role expectations and sex-typing. Differences due to the biological basis are minor. For instant, it is speculated that female superiority in verbal abilities is due to more talking of mothers to their daughters simply for the reason that girls spend more time at home. Moreover, in western societies, it is believed that reading and other verbal skills are feminine tasks. That is why females have superiority in verbal skills. In societies like Nigeria, where no such belief exists, boys have slight edge in reading skills. Similarly, the superiority of males in spatial and mechanical tasks is due to the cultural role expected by men in society.

Male children are provided 'masculine' toys that may be more spatially oriented than 'feminine toys'. Boys also do more spatially oriented activities in their spare time than girls do. That is why, researchers speculate that males have more practice than females on spatial ability tasks. Fennema and Sharman (1977) found that sex differences in spatial ability disappear if their data were corrected for the number of mathematical courses taken by the students. Studies by Stericker and Levesconte (1982) observed that just three hours of training for female students was enough to eliminate the sex differences on four standard tests of spatial skills. Like verbal tasks, the biological basis of difference between spatial tasks is also very weak.

Sex differences in mathematics ability, by some researchers, are traced to the sex differences in spatial ability. It is argued that tests of mathematical ability include a major proportion of problems which are spatial in nature. Meece et al (1982) found a great reduction or even elimination in sex differences in mathematical achievement scores, when spatial ability is controlled.

### **Section Summary**

1. Female generally excel in overall academic performance at elementary and secondary school stage.
2. Academic sex differences are more marked in school grades as compared with the scores on standardized achievement tests but are still in favour of girls.
3. Results of public examinations in Pakistan, from secondary school level to M.Sc. reveal, an overall better picture for females than that for males. Not only, that greater percentage of females pass the examination. They also obtain better grades/scores.
4. Analysis of subject-wise achievement scores yield results similar to ability tests; i.e. girls generally surpass boys in the subjects which depending largely upon verbal abilities and boys obtain higher scores in science and mathematics.
5. Girls obtain slightly better results in achievement tests than on ability tests. The difference is attributed to the superiority of females in verbal ability and most of the achievement tests are heavily based on verbal ability.
6. On abilities where one sex has marked superiority over the other, there might be some individuals in 'low scoring' group with as high or even higher scores than the high scorers in the 'superior group'.
7. It is a generally accepted theory that variability among males is greater than that compared with the variability among females on tests of all cognitive abilities.
8. The differences, if any, between the cognitive abilities of males and females, are attributed more to the social and environmental factors, sex role expectations, sex typing, difference in experience and sex differences in attitude.

## Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises

### Part-I: True/False Items

Encircle 'T' if the statement is true and 'F' if the statement is false.

- |   |   |    |   |
|---|---|----|---|
| T | F | 1  | More men than women become eminent persons due to their intellectual superiority.                                 |
| T | F | 2  | Men and women have equal opportunities to pursue career life.   |
| T | F | 3  | Average gain scores from early adolescence to adulthood is greater for as compared with that for women.           |
| T | F | 4  | Piagetian cognitive tests yield no sex difference.  |
| T | F | 5  | Performance of males and females is similar on all cognitive ability tests.                                       |
| T | F | 6  | Higher gain scores for boys from early adolescence to adulthood are due to biological factors.                    |
| T | F | 7  | Better reading abilities of women than men is a universal phenomena.  |
| T | F | 8  | NO women can score as higher as high scorer man on spatial and mechanical tests.                                  |
| T | F | 9  | Men adopt more creative approaches to problem solving.  |
| T | F | 10 | Differences on mathematical and mechanical aptitude tests are mainly due to differential experimental background. |

### Part B: Essay Type Experience

1. What conclusion can be inferred from the studies of adolescents' intelligence conducted by Scottish Council for Research in Education.
2. Due to high average scores of men than that for women, on mechanical and spatial ability, the profession of engineering should be banned for women. Do you agree with the statement. In either case support your answer with arguments.
3. Studies of sexwise differential analysis of various cognitive abilities conclude no such differences at early age. But differences start emerging from early adolescence onwards. What factors do you think contribute most to this difference.

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**Unit – 3**

**GENDER DIFFERENCES:  
PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL  
BEHAVIOR**

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2<sup>nd</sup> Reviewed By: Ms. Maria Malik**

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## INTRODUCTION

As discussed in the previous chapter, study of gender differences has always fascinated mankind. Interest in identifying these differences has been expressed in literature dating back at least to Plato and Aristotle. Surprisingly, to this date either gender has not been able to understand its counter-part fully. In this chapter the social perception of the gender differences will be reviewed in the areas of behaviour and personality characteristics of males and females.

Every society has special way of viewing the male and female regarding their personal and social behaviour. A Stereotype is a broad mental picture that a whole group holds in common. It usually represents an over-simplified picture ignoring important differences among individuals. For example, stereotypes attached to an ideal man are aggressive, independent, unemotional, dominant, active, competitive, logical, never cries, acts as a leader etc. Whereas stereotypes attached to a woman are polite, talkative, gentle, timid, emotional empathetic and that she expresses tender feelings.

Shaffer, 1988 has summarised the masculine and feminine stereotypes in a table form:

Table 1  
Common Stereotypes of Men and Women

Feminine Descriptions	Masculine Descriptions
Not at all aggressive	Very aggressive
Not at all independent	Very independent
Does not hide emotions at all	Almost always hides emotions
Very subjective	Very objective
Very submissive	Very dominant
Very passive	Very active
Not competitive	Very competitive
Very home oriented	Very worldly
Very sneaky	Very direct
Not adventurous	Very adventurous
Has difficulty making decisions	Can make decisions easily
Not at all self-confident	Very self-confident
Doesn't use harsh language	Uses very harsh language
Very tactful	Very blunt
Very gentle	Very rough

Very aware of others feelings	Not at all aware of others feelings
Very quiet	Very loud
Very neat	Very sloppy
Very strong need for security	Very little neat for security
Enjoys art and literature	Does not enjoy art and literature
Easily expresses tender feelings	Does not easily express tender feelings

In the coming sections differences in personality of male and female and the related stereotyped are reviewed in the light of empirical studies.

Before studying the gender differences in personality and behaviour, it is important to mention that there are certain problems and cautions in interpreting empirical studies of human behaviour. The foremost problem is the operational definitions of social and personality characteristics and the ways to measure such traits: two reasonably similar definitions may be used for measuring different behaviours or the same behaviour may differ in operational definitions by two researchers.

Secondly, studies mostly talk about, mean group differences which tell us nothing about individuals. Essentially we are comparing the "average man" against the "average woman". Moreover, the differences even when statistically significant are small and the overlap between male and female on any particular characteristic is large. We have pointed out to this fact in our study of cognitive abilities.

Third, sex differences are more likely to occur when people are in situations that encourage gender stereotypes. They report their behaviour to be more stereotype than it really is because they acknowledge the stereotype behaviour as more accepted socially.

## OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter you will be able to:

1. support or reject various myths/stereotypes about gender differences in various aspects of personality i.e.
  - i. communication styles.
  - ii. characteristics related to helping and caring.
  - iii. characteristics related to power.
  - iv. temperament.
  - v. other aspects like marriage, parenting etc.
2. identify areas where the research is not conclusive and need further investigation.
3. appraise that most of the gender differences in personality have origin in gender role training rather than biological.
4. appraise that most of the, research findings are based on comparing an average woman with an average man and ignoring the individual differences.
3. identify areas for research in personality gender differences in Pakistan and develop an interest to pursue such research.

### **3.1 Personality Traits Under Study**

In this chapter important personality traits like communication styles, helping and caring, socialization, power, self confidence and emotionality are discussed. Related subtraits are also discussed in detail in light of research data. However, work of these studies have been carried out in western culture and reject their view of gender.

About each aspect of personality, people have strong stereotypes. Empirical research support some of the stereotypes, show little evidence for some and demonstrate contrasting evidence about others.

### **3.2 Communication Styles**

People think that female and male differ in their communication styles, verbal and nonverbal, in a certain manner. For example women are believed to be more talkative and men are supposed to use more slang. Let us see what the studies reveal about communication styles of genders.

#### **3.2.1 Verbal Communication**

In the Chapter dealing with cognitive gender differences we have noticed that female excel in their verbal ability. In this section talking patterns, voice quality, specific words and phrases and content of the speech of two genders is examined:

##### **3.2.1.1 Talking Patterns**

According to the stereotype women talk more than men. In reality men talk more. Swaker (1975) conducted a study by asking men and women to describe three artistic words. The results show that men talked four times as long as the women. Frances (1979) also discovered men to be talking for longer periods. However, they use more "filled pauses" like un, er, ah etc. This means that even when men do not find suitable words to continue they are not willing to stop talking. In mixed groups of adults again men talk more than women.

Gender differences at various age levels indicate that young girls talk more than young boys. But as they grow up, they learn to be quiet and let the boys do the talking.

In mixed sex groups men interrupted women more than five times as often as women interrupted men. Similar conclusions were reported through observation in coffee shops, drug stores, other public places and graduate students' class rooms.

### **3.2.1.2 Words and Phrases**

Women in each society are supposed to be more polite in their speech. Hartman's (1976) study of elderly men and women seems to be the only one to investigate this issue systematically. This study supports the stereotype. On the other side men use more slang and dirty/profane language. These sex differences start emerging in the early school years.

In western societies women use more words like lovely, delightful, nice, cute, dearest, gentle, perfectly, wonderful etc. But the situation in our society can be expected to be different because women here are not expected to be very expressive.

### **3.2.1.3 The Content of Speech**

Minor differences in the conversational topics of males and females are observed. Levin and Arluke found that 71 percent of women's conversation and 64 percent of men's conversation could be categorised as gossip. But the nature of gossip was identical for the genders. Men and women both made positive comments 27 percent of the time and negative comments 25% of the time.

Women talk twice more than men about friends and relatives. They also discuss how people felt and why they acted in certain ways. Whereas, men talk more about objects, celebrities such as sports figures.

## **3.2.2 Non-Verbal Communication**

Non-verbal communication has the same importance, if not more, than the verbal communication. It is sometimes more important in interpreting the social aspects of conversation (Frances, 1979). It is observed that sex differences in non-verbal communication are larger than other kind of sex differences (Hall, 1984) Non-verbal communication composes of personal space, body posture, facial expression and decoding ability.

### **3.2.1 Personal Space**

The phrase personal space refers to the invisible "bubble" around each person that must not be invaded by other people.

Women generally have smaller personal space zones than men. Women who are talking to each other sit closer to each other than men do (Sussman and Rosenfeld, 1982). At public places, women stand close to other women whereas, men stand far from other men.

In case someone invades the personal space of another person, studies in the western societies demonstrate that fastest adjustment reaction comes from the male students. Different results in our society can be expected depending upon the gender. For example if a male invades the personal space of a woman, woman is expected to react and adjust fast by shrinking her personal space whereas men are generally not considerate of this fact e.g. rest while travelling in a bus or train. However, this speculation needs empirical support.

### **3.2.2 Body Posture**

Sex differences in body posture develop early in life see the given pictures of fifth grade boy and a girl. Females keep their legs together whether sitting or standing, their hands may be folded in front of them, clasped neatly or at their sides. On the other hand men sit and stand with their legs apart. Their hands may be on their hips or reaching out. Males generally adopt more asymmetrical position. Men look relaxed, women keep their postures more tensely contained.

Some of the gender differences in body postures are observed in all cultures showing that women frequently sit with their legs folded to one side.

The above findings indicate that body posture follows the same pattern as personal space. This means men occupy more space with their bodies as if they require more personal space. Women on the other hand seem to be requiring less space and are willing and expected to further relinquish their space if involved by a male.

### **3.2.3 Facial Expression:**

Studies reveal clear sex differences in facial expression. One important difference is that women smile more often than men. Frances (1979) inspected videotapes of graduate students getting acquainted with each other and she recorded seven different measures of smiling and laughter. Women were higher than men on all

seven measures. However, women smiles are not always a result of happy and friendly emotional states. They smile even when they do not feel like smiling. It is worth mentioning that in Pakistani and other Islamic societies women do not smile so frequently. They rather smile less than men. It will be interesting to study the smiling behaviour of both men and women in mixed groups and in same gender segregated meetings.

Another component of facial expression is eye contact. Frances (1975) found out that women spent more time gazing at their conversational partner than men did. Two women talking to each other are likely to look frequently into the eyes of their conversational partner. In contrast two men who are speaking to each other are likely to focus on a spot several inches above their partner's left ear. This topic again lacks cross cultural comparisons and studies of Asian societies.

### **3.2.4 Decoding Ability**

Decoding ability means the ability to figure out the feelings of another person from his/her non verbal behaviour.

According to Hall (1978, 1984) women are more accurate than men in decoding nonverbal signals. Their advantage over male is more marked in decoding facial expression and minimum in judging emotions from voice cues. Hall examined studies conducted in U.S.A., Greece, New Guinea, Singapore and number of other countries. The conclusion of better decoding ability among women was supported by most of these studies. In a meta-analysis of studies in this area, she found that overall the female mean exceeded the male mean in decoding ability by about 0.4 of a standard deviation. This social sensitivity may be traced to cultural expectations and training.

### **3.2.5 Plausible Causes Of Gender Differences In Communication Styles:**

Causes of gender differences in communication styles have not been explored. However, some theoretical/logical explanations are given. One popular explanation for nonverbal sex differences is that it is due to women's subordinate social position. Because women have less social power, they are particularly alert to the moods of the more powerful others that is men. Powerless people smile more in an effort to please- and take up less room in comparison to powerful people.

Hall rejects the argument of polite communication style of women on account of less social power. She explains that women generally occupy a smaller space, smile and gaze at a partner when they are in interaction with other women rather than

men. Why should they be particularly likely to show these feminine nonverbal behaviours when they are with other powerless people, women? Hall presents social learning theory approach to explain this difference. This means that women learn such behaviour as conformity to gender-role stereotypes. Thus women get more practice in observing such behaviour than men.

Explanation given by Hall is apparently in contradiction to the first explanation. But a thorough analysis poses the question of development of stereotype gender - roles. Why a different gender based role emerged is again to be found to have roots in the unbalanced social power of the genders?

### **3.3 Helping and Caring**

Women are generally believed to be more helping and caring but the research studies do not provide a clear cut support to this belief. Caring can be viewed as a combination of characteristics like altruism, nurturance, empathy and friendship.

#### **3.3.1 Altruism**

Altruism means unselfish concern for the welfare of others and is expressed by helping others who are in need. Research has no consistent evidence to support the belief of women being more altruistic. Maccoby and Jacklin found many studies that support no sex differences in altruism. However, sex differences emerge when two kinds of altruism is studied separately. Men are likely to help more than women if the task requires initiative, physical strength or competence in male areas. If the task is such that favours neither men nor women, and if assistance is directly requested, the sex differences are minimal and there may be instances in which women are more helpful than men.

#### **3.3.2 Nurturance**

Nurturance consists in the provision of help, physical care and emotional support to others. Usually the term is used in reference to caring for children. In this regard, it is widely assumed that women are predisposed to be nurturant whereas men are not. In other words women are thought to have maternal instinct. The assumption about maternal 'instinct' is so strong that very few studies have been conducted in this area. Whatever the studies available, do not provide sufficient evidence about whether women are more nurturant than men (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974). However, Berman (1976) used three kinds of measures of responsiveness in her examination of sex differences and concluded that women were significantly more

responsive to children than males. The self assessment of women and men about responsiveness yielded widest sex difference. Women perceive themselves to be more nurturant. In another study Berman asked men and women to judge the attractiveness of babies when they were alone and when they were with people. Women reported greater attraction in the public than in the private condition. The men showed exactly the opposite pattern. The reason is that women are assigned more responsibility for nurturance in the society and people, in the group situation, act according to the predictions from stereotypes.

At the end it is emphasized that present research does not provide conclusive answer to this question inspite of the fact that 85 of the 100 societies have more socialization pressure on girls to be nurturant (Shaffer, 1988).

### **3.3.3 Empathy**

Empathy is also a form of social sensitivity. It is the ability to experience another person's emotional state vicariously. The stereotype again suggests that women have more empathy than men. But research studies do not provide categorical support. Recent surveys and quantitative data analysis (Eisenberg and Lennon, 1983) measured empathy using three different measures, i.e. physical measures, nonverbal measures and self report measures. On first two measures no sex differences were observed. Physical measures included heart rate, pulse rate and blood pressure. Non-verbal measures were facial, vocal and gestural measures. Third measure was self-report by adults. Female subjects rated themselves much more empathic than males. This self report may be affected by the stereotypical beliefs.

The compilers and critics of literature on gender differences point out that it is difficult to conclude about empathy because no standardized or agreed upon measures of empathy are available and also the reported differences are only as reported by the subjects and not demonstrated in any laboratory situation.

### **3.3.4 Socialization**

Sociability has not been defined in a uniform way by the researchers. However sociability when defined as the responsiveness to social stimuli and social reinforcement and the time spent with friends, male and female show no sex differences. Shaffer (1988) from a review of research on sociability concluded that difference in sociability of male and female appears to be mythical. Similarly Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) had also arrived at the same conclusion earlier of no

difference between men and women in social interests, time devoted to socialization and responsiveness to social re-enforcement.

However, some qualitative differences were observed by some researchers in the pattern and type of friendship relations of men and women.

1. Women remain more satisfied with their friendship for a longer time than men do. The conclusion is derived on the basis of a study conducted by Wheeler and Nexlek (1977). They asked beginning college students to keep records of their social interaction with their three best friends.
2. Women's friendship with women is more intimate: Hill and Stull (1981) found that female roommate pairs reported more intimate friendship than was the case with males. Study by Wright (1982) reveal the same result of higher self-disclosure by women to their friends as compared with men.
3. Women and men differ in the type of activities performed together by friends. Caldwell and Peplau (1982) found that women like to get together just to talk and share emotions but men prefer to get together to do specific activities.
4. Friendship pattern of women and men differ with age. In a study conducted by Fisher (reported by Caldwell and Peplau) found that among young married people, husbands report having more friends than wives do. However, among older married people, this tendency is reversed, and wives having more friends than their husbands do.

It can be hypothesized that this difference is due to the amount of free time available to men and women at different ages. At younger age, women are, perhaps, more busy in household chores. Second reason could be the basis of friendship which among young men can be assumed to be of business relationships type. Whereas women are generally confined to home. Such difference between men and women would dissipate at older age.

The differences reported above are based on a very few studies and most of the authors conclude that if larger number of cases are examined on a sufficient number of dimensions, more similarity than dissimilarity would be found in the manner of conducting friendship by men and women.

## 3.4 Power

The areas of behaviour involving power are aggression, assertiveness, competition, leadership, persuasion and influenceability.

### 3.4.1 Aggression

This term is defined many ways by the researchers. But in the study of gender differences aggression include physical battering and psychological torture.

- a Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) concluded that aggression was the only area within personality and social behaviour for which sex differences are fairly well established that boys are more aggressive. This is true for both physical and verbal aggression.
- b This disparity between genders shows up early in childhood. A meta-analysis of study of children below 6 years of age shows the overall difference to be highly significant (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1980). A naturalistic observation study of elementary school aged children in school playground has found more boys at the high end of the aggression spectrum. More than 100 cross cultural studies also support this finding.  
One of the important reason for boys' more aggressive behaviour is that boys are expected to be more aggressive and to some extent they are rewarded for aggressiveness and punished for passivity. The opposite pattern is applied to girls.
- c Not only are males more aggressive, they also receive aggression. Edmiston (1970) states that men kill and are killed four to five times more frequently than women.
- d Greater male aggression has been found consistently in different cultural sub-groups as well as cross-culturally in different western societies, and in non industrial societies.
- e Within women differences study show that traditional women are more aggressive than the liberal women.
- f In spite of general pattern of more aggression in males than females, there are exceptions, and the differences in aggression among various cultures are generally greater than the sex differences that are observed.
- g If anger is taken as an indicator of aggression studies dating back to 1931 conclude more expression of anger among males than among females. But when measured anger on the Irritability Scale of Buss-Durke Inventory (a reasonable measure of temper), no gender differences were observed. These findings suggest that women become as angry as men, but women do not express their anger as frequently in aggression.

All researchers agree to the socialization factors and situational as the major plausible cause of gender difference in aggression. They do not ignore biological factors altogether but suggest that biological social factors increase male tendency to be aggressive. It is clear from research that situational factor can modify any inborn sex differences (Block, 1984; Deux, 1985).

### 3.4.2 Assertiveness

Assertiveness is the ability to stand up for your own rights without denying the rights of others. It is important to understand the difference between assertiveness and aggressiveness. Aggressions, infringes upon the rights of other people. Assertiveness can also be imagined by contrasting it with passive behaviour or passivity which involves self denial or not standing up for one's own rights.

In spite of a general framework, the operational definition of assertiveness varies with the investigators. It is due to this reason that various people writers who have reviewed research on assertiveness have concluded differently regarding gender differences in this trait. For example Wayne Weits has concluded that empirical evidence, in general, supports the stereotype of men as more assertive and domineering. The studies reported in this favour were those cited by O' Leary (1977) showing that in mixed groups women talk less than men and are less likely to influence group processes and leadership roles. Similarly, Block (1976), after reviewing the evidence concluded that males make more effort at dominance than women.

But Matlin (1987) after reviewing a larger amount of literature inferred that the issue of difference in assertiveness among genders is controversial. She has cited the work of many investigators in support and rejection of the general belief of men being more assertive.

Her conclusions were:

- a) At younger age girls generally like passive approach and boys like aggressive approach. However, the older children - both boys and girls liked the assertive approach better than the younger children. The basis of conclusion is the study by Canner and her colleagues. They investigated boys and girls preferences for dealing with conflicts. Preferences were aggressive, assertive and passive illustrated with speech sentences related to a situation given in the table.

Aggressive	Assertive	Passive
Mr. Kate you graded my paper unfairly and you better change	Excuse me, Mr. Kate, I would like to discuss my grade with you.	Un. Excuse me Mr. Kate, if you are busy, I'll sit down. It is not that important.

- b Studies on actual assertive behaviour in the classroom conclude that above average children were equally assertive. Sex differences appeared only for the average ability children where the girls were less assertive than boys.
- c Syme and Wine (1980) reported in Matlin (1977) that high school female were more appropriately assertive than boys in their behaviour when they role-played responses to a dilemma presented on video tape. In this situation boys were rather aggressive. Although Matlin has not commented on the situation, it certainly shows more extreme responses on the part of boys, i.e. in a situation where girls become only assertive boys become aggressive.
- d For adults, some research indicate that men are more assertive (Morgan, 1974; Orenstein, and Carr, 1975). On the other hand one standardized test of assertiveness demonstrated that women are more assertive than men (Tolor, Kelly and Stebbins, 1976). some other measures of assertiveness show that women and men are equally assertive.

To sum up we can say that boys and girls do differ in their attitude towards aggressive and passive approaches. But consistent and marked differences are not observed in the assertive behaviours of males and females throughout the life span.

### **3.4.3 Leadership**

Leadership characteristics are associated more with men as compared to women. The research studies also indicate that in mixed sex groups more male become leaders than women even if they are matched on ability, training and experience. Lockhead and Hall assigned pupil teachers to group of four — two males and two females matched on the basis of experience and training. They found that males were four times as likely as females to emerge as leaders. Replication of the study with high school students boys were seven times as likely to become leaders.

Males are more likely to be seen as leaders than females. In a research study (Geis) people were shown slides of various groups with women and men as leader. People made their responses more in favour of men even ignoring the important leadership cues like seating. Similarly men are received as more visible when people are looking for leader.

Some brief experimental studies show that women, when really demonstrate all leadership behaviour, people do identify them as leader.

Wiley (1976), found that the leadership styles of the gender differed even when women performed leadership role for the same duration and same work output was yielded by the groups. Men spent more time in leaderlike behaviour like giving advice whereas female leaders spent more time praising other group members and

supporting their morale. Elkinson and Wiley also found that the women who thought they had been appointed leaders because of their personal achievement, rather than by chance, tended to become super woman and demonstrated both leaderlike and supportive behaviour.

#### **3.4.4 Persuasion**

Persuasion is the ability of a person to persuade others to do something that they would not ordinarily do and also to convince people to believe something contrary to their original beliefs. According to stereotype men have better persuasion power than women. Moreover, the strategies used by men and women differed on following aspects.

- a. Indirect versus Direct power. Women are believed to be indirect and manipulative whereas men use direct, bilateral strategies.
- b. Personal versus concrete power. Women mostly use personal power such as liking, affection and approval. men use concrete Power, such as money, knowledge and physical strength.
- c. Helplessness versus competence. Women use showing helplessness as a device to persuade others. Men use competence as a persuasion strategy.

#### **3.4.5 Influenceability and Conformity**

It is commonly believed that women are highly susceptible to persuasion, conforming and compliant. Analysis of the review (F-agly and Carli) of 148 studies conducted in this area from 1949 to 1977 revealed that:

- a. Women are somewhat more easily influenced than men, particularly in situation where other group members exert pressure on women to change their minds.
- b. The difference was, however, small and only one percent of the variability in influencibility can be accounted for by gender. That is people differ so much in influencibility that only one percent of all that variation can be traced to sex and the authors conclude "A sex difference as small as this may have few implications for social interaction".

Young girls, however, comply with adults requests more readily than young boys (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974).

### **3.4.6 Dominance**

Another indicator of power is the ability to dominate. Dominance is slightly different from influencibility. One may influence other person by crying and requesting and showing helplessness. But dominance is the characteristic of directing and organizing the activities of others through proving better in some ability. The literature up to 1974, cited in Maccoby and Jacklin, overall indicates that in almost all studies which reported a sex difference, using observation, report, self report, or personality scales, males turn out to be the dominant sex. This is so in the younger age group, as well as in the samples over 18. A male dominance effect has been observed as early as 33 months of age (Jacklin and Maccoby 1978). When unacquainted pairs of children were brought together in a play room and girls were paired with boys, girls tended to stand passively watching their partners. When boys said 'no' or don't they withdrew to stand near their mothers or cried.

One cross-cultural study (Whiting and Pope, 1974) cited by Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974), however, indicates that in most cultures young girls are more likely than boys to try to control others in a pro-social direction - they offer more responsible suggestions such as not to go near the fire. This finding along with the emergence of several female heads of government around the globe suggests that ability to dominate may change with the environment.

### **3.5 Play and Activity**

Research studies clearly indicate that boys and girls play in separate groups and often in different ways with different toys. Starting in pre-school boys tend to be more active physically than girls. In nursery school they spend more time outdoors. Boys engage more in physical play in the sand, on climbing structures while girls spend more time indoor at craft tables and in kitchen. Males are generally more willing to take risks, more receptive to rough and tumble play.

A preference for sex-typed toys can be seen in boys as early as age 2, even before they have realized the traditional sex-appropriateness of the toys.

Between the ages 4-8 boys preference for physical activities increases greatly. With girls there is no increase by age in sex typed preferences during elementary school years.

Boys and girls tend to prefer interacting and playing with members of their own sex rather than with those of the other sex and this tendency has been observed from age 2

onward at least up to grade 6 (Strays and Pilon, 1985; Luria and Herzog, 1985 cited in Grusec, 1988). In an examination of this process of sex segregation in nursery school Maccoby and Jacklin (1985) found that it was girls who initiated segregation perhaps due to the dominance of boys as explained above. By age 5, they found that three fourth of the children were playing in same sex group, although there was no teacher pressure for same sex-play. It is the girls and boys themselves who establish the segregation spontaneously, probably they find the manner of playing and interests of same sex children more compatible with their own.

### **3.6 Emotionality**

One popularly accepted belief is that women are more emotional than men. Supposedly, men are more likely to remain cool and calm. But research suggests that there is no difference in level of emotional arousal between men and women. Male and females, however, do differ in expression of emotions. Female give more facial expressions and are willing to openly acknowledge their emotions. Men on the other hand exceed females on physical reactions of emotional situations. Physical reactions may include Galvanic Skin Response (GSR). In general it is true that low external expression of emotions is associated with high physiological reaction. Moreover, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) have noted that in reacting to frustration males are more emotionally volatile than females. The whole discussion concluded that there was no differences in the emotional arousal among males and females.

However, the role expectations from the genders in various cultures affect the emotional expression. In many cultures men are required to keep their emotions under control and women are allowed and even encouraged to be more affectionate or to cry when unhappy or when sympathizing with one another in misery. In France, Italy and some other countries men hug and kiss one another and they are not ashamed to weep openly. Thus the emotional expression is also result of gender role training of every society and culture.

### **3.7 Fear**

Cultural Stereotype generally depicts females as more fearful than males. Studies based on self reports and teacher ratings consistently rate girls and women as more anxious but Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) conclude that this might be due to the fact that boys and men are, simply less willing to admit to anxiety, since this is thought a feminine characteristic.

Observational studies of timidity show no gender differences. Gender differences during pre-school years are not evident except for fear of strangers (Jersild and Holmes, 1953 in Buss, 1975).

During the school years and into adulthood the pattern is mixed. There is some research supporting that girls are more fearful but the results are far from conclusive (Buss, 1975).

College level and older women have a greater number and greater intensity of fears than do men. Women show greater galvanic skin response than men to the threat of shock. Admas and Rothstein's (1971) study concluded that women have higher scores on all 16 fear factors under study and that results are consistent with previous studies.

Increase in fear with age among females clearly indicates that it is a result of gender role training. Differences in fear do not emerge until role training proceeds far enough.

### **3.8 Marriage**

Married life is more rewarding to men as compared to women. The conclusion is inferred in the light of studies on explanations of higher mental illness among married woman that among men in contrast to the never married, widowed and divorced women (Gove 1972, 1973, 1979 reported in walsh, 1987). The assumption is that majority of the wives do not hold jobs and are restrited to one major societal role, that of housewife, where as men occupy two such roles, that of household head and worker. Thus a man has two sources of gratification, his family and his work, whereas a woman has only one. Children, particularly when they are young, channel women into situations of instrumental, increassant demands.

Even when a woman works, she typically occupies a less satisfying position that the married man. Working wives are under a greater strain than instrumental activities frustrating because these are of low status, routine, boring and require little skill.

In the absence of research in our society we have grounds to expect similar results but empirical research can only test any such theorizing.

### **3.9 Parenting Activities**

Traditionally, mother has to play the major role of child raring and child care. In traditional and less industrialized societies the same is true today, without any change. But in western societies change started taking place particularly after Wold War II.

Kotelchuck (1972), Newson and Newson (1965, 1970) and Lumb (1981) reported in Grusec and Lytton, 1988 conclude a modern trend of greater participation in child rearing by fathers. The participation rate in general increases with higher social status, reflecting greater equality and convergence of maternal and paternal roles at higher social class levels. But still the following differences exist between the paternal and maternal child care:

- a. Mothers perform more of the physical care of their infants and they hold them more for care giving whereas fathers hold them for play (Lamb, 1977).
- b. In the socialization process, mothers play games which centre more on toys, or are traditional interchange such as peek a book. They are fair more engaged in verbal interchanges of all kinds with their children. Father more than mothers engage in physically stimulating, rough and tumble play, composed of vigorous, abrupt, swiftly changing movements sometimes accompanied by negative effect.
- c. Mother interacts more with the child and intervenes more in his doings, whereas father gives fewer directions to the child, relative to the time he spends with the child.
- d. Overall, mother is the primary care giver and comforter. This role does not change even if she is working.

### **3.10 Gender Differences and Similarities in Pakistan**

Due to lack of research evidence the discussion so far has been with reference to foreign researches. However, there are a few researches carried out in Pakistan also. The Hassan study of Psychological Profile of rural Women published in 1982 developed a developmental social stereotype scale which was based on responses of two thousand subjects. Later on this scale was used in the above national study along with other scales of self concept and achievement motivation.

These developmental social stereotypes refer to the stereotypes of various personal and social qualities expected to be present at various ages amongst its members. These stereotypes act as norms against which each child or adult is evaluated by the society and in turn every person strives hard to achieve these tasks in order to satisfy the cultural expectations or to win the approval of the family and community. In this way social stereotypes act as identification models and behaviour guides for members of the community.

Theories of social learning indicate that most of our behaviour is guided by the expectations of the important others. The human infant being helpless physically

learns to please others early in life. Most of a child's actions are guided by the expectations of the people around him

The data on developmental social stereotypes of Pakistani girls and women can provide us a basic outline of the type of behavioral norms which are enforced on girls to develop them into the type of young adults which are desirable in Pakistani society. The age levels for which the stereotypes were established for this study are ages five, ten, fifteen and twenty years. Most of the questions relate to the two main categories, i.e., the outer appearance and motor behaviour and the inner control or personality traits. Although the present data relates to women only, the social stereotypes have been confirmed by men and women of rural and urban population before administration to the subjects.

### **3.11 Brief Description of Personality Correlates of Social Stereotypes**

The personality correlates of developmental social stereotypes of 5 year old girls in Pakistan reveal discriminatory treatment in two areas. The first relates to the outer behaviour, clothes and manner of speech, etc. The parents are particular about the girls' dress, speech and play behaviour and reinforce them differently than the boys. The toys purchased for the girls and the games in which the girls are inducted are different from the games of the boys of the same age. The second more important area is that of developing inner control by reinforcing certain personality traits amongst girls. The girls at age five are trained to be quiet, less demanding, sacrificing and nurturing towards others, specially male members of the family. They are trained from this tender age to restrict their activities to a limited geographic space.

The developmental social stereotypes of 10 year old girls are similar to the five year old girls. They are also trained differently from the boys with the difference that the standards become more clear and the expected behaviour patterns become more universal both on negative and positive qualities. In addition to dressing and speaking in a feminine gender, the girls are inducted to take over the work of their brothers and fathers and help the mothers more than sons. As far as their emotional expression is concerned, the girls are not allowed to be angry, jubilant, naughty or boisterous in their games. They are expected to behave in a subdued and mature form than the boys of the same age. The parents discriminate in their behaviour towards meeting the demands of their daughters to get a material object, attention or pocket money. It is felt that this discrimination is extended also to the amount of food they get and girls get less to eat than boys. In short, their status becomes secondary from this age onward.

The stereotypes of 15 years old girls are rather pathetic. The girls are put under strict control of their parents and they have to seek permission even to meet their girl friends, move out of the blouse, choice of a subject in school or doing anything. They are expected to have developed inner control in large number of areas. They are expected to be prudent in spending money, abstain from expressing any desires to purchase any article they may fancy, and are encouraged to serve the men. There is more emphasis on girls religious education and they are expected not only to understand the economic situation of the family but also to supplement the income by either participation in the economic activities of the family or by generating income through such home-based activities like sewing and embroidery, etc. If a girl is very good on weak in her studies nobody pays attention. However, girls are expected to be inferior in intelligence than their male counterparts.

At the age of 20 the majority of girls/women are married especially in lower income classes and are playing the role of a young house-wife and a daughter-in-law. In this status they are expected to be subservient to the wishes of their husbands and in-laws. When they want to go out of the house they need the permission of the men in the family. If the girl is not married at this age, she considers herself a burden on her parents and inspite of the fact that she would have liked to participate in some job or work activities to lighten the economic burden she feels that she cannot do so unless her family approves of it.

As a wife she is expected to be the party to be blamed for any unhappy situation in the married life or if any of her children not being according to the expectations of her husband or his family. If she resorts to getting a divorce she is likely to be blamed by the community at large and would rather continue with the unhappy situation than have the stigma of being a divorce.

As concerns her right to property, she is expected to give up her share in favour of her brothers. Concerning her civic rights, she is not aware of her right to vote and in case of ever having to exercise it, she will do as she is told by men. The researcher observed that these social norms are so well established in twenty year olds that they themselves start condemning those women who are non conformists.

### **Self-assessment Question and Activities**

1. Name the stereotypes about men and women which are supported research studies. Explain the extent and causes of these difference.
2. Which one of the stereotypes about men and women are not supported by research. What implications do these researches have for women's role in the society.
3. Observe Pakistani women (may be your class fellows) and men (if possible) with reference to personal space, body posture and facial expression and report the results. Compare if the results are different or not from those in western societies.
4. Select at least 10 men and 10 women and get their opinion about the characteristics of an average man and average women. Then develop Pakistani stereotypes and compare it with the western stereotypes.
5. Develop a list of leadership qualities. Ask 5 women and 5 men to mark the qualities they think are a must for a good leader. Compare their responses for gender differences.

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**Unit – 4**

# **GENDER ROLES AND GENDER STEREOTYPES**

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## **INTRODUCTION**

In our daily experience we observe masculine dominance over feminine gender where the importance of men and boys are over emphasized and the worth of women and girls are either underestimated or denied. This trend prevails in all walks of life. Jobs are made specific for specific sexes. Men are considered as bread winners for the family, women look after the children and do the household chores. Women can work only in 'women jobs' of secretarial, school teachers, auxiliary nurses or social workers, etc, Different roles have been set up for child-rearing practices of girls and boys. It is permissible that boys may have cognitive leaps, May violate the rules, are treated as clever but if girls display such behaviour it is not tolerated and is labelled as naughty or interrupters. Girls are hard workers and intelligent in schools but these qualities are over looked by teachers (Biseria; Anderson). Instead of the fact that boys are generally shirker and come at the bottom are considered falsely as courageous, intelligent, self-confident, initiators, efficient and hard-working. The games and dresses of both sexes are segregated and they do not want to look different from its lot so that their behaviour may be seen similar to their role models. Such discriminatory practices, and ideologies that threat one sex as inferior to the other in worth and status favours one gender over other lacking any scientific proof is turned as 'Sexism'.

## **OBJECTIVES**

After studying the unit you will be able to:-

1. Investigate the causes, nature and importance of 'Sexism' prevalent among the various countries of the world.
2. Study the evolution of 'Sex-Role Development' and formation of 'Gender Stereotyping'.
3. Cognize with various roles of Pakistani women performing in everyday life situations like "games", "household chores", "at home", and "at work".
4. Study 'sexism' in literature, media and textbooks in various countries of world and Pakistan.
5. Relate the content of Gender Stereotypes.
6. Study the 'alternatives' which may be helpful in the reduction of Gender-stereotyping in Pakistan.

#### **4.1 A Heritage of Gender Bias**

Sexism is universal in nature. It is one of the most serious ills which degrades, downplays one sex (usually women) and deprives all societies of a vast intellectual and human potential that has hitherto been ignored or deprived. If the thoughts and behaviour patterns are to some degree consciously infused with specific sex, is called 'Sexist'. It produces gender-disparity and entails the practices of various forms of discrimination based on gender due to biological reasons.

Sexism when extensifies propagates inflexible, rigid, illogical and factually incorrect attitudes towards one gender or an object or group which is known as 'Stereotypes'. It is a rigid and personal model on the basis of which images or behaviour are automatically reproduced. Any socially identifiable group may be characterized in an almost infinite number of ways. It reflects an unduly general and oversimplified view point which distorts reality. It is generally impossible for us to know that individual differences of a group but on the basis of general characteristics we assume that whole of the group is alike having identical values, perceptual styles, attitudes and aspirations. They thus establish role (slightly or wrongly) to the specific group. They led to the development of roles for genders. When the emphasis is placed on the activities of specific gender or group is known as 'Sex-role Stereotype'. In Psychology this term is very much in vogue. Society impels that role of its members, groups or sex should necessarily be normal. For instance role of father, mother, teacher, student, boy, girl, friend, ethnic groups, religious groups, business community, workers community, white collar people are universally defined by their respective societies. Such roles provide frame of reference and enable the members to follow the norms.

Sex-role-stereotypes regard the set of attributes as rules and apply them to almost all females, males, ethnic groups and specific people.

After going through the preliminary explanation of terms 'Sexism', 'Stereotypes' and 'Sex-role Stereotypes' let us study how these concepts were emerged.

If we peep into the historical evolution of mankind we will notice that its utmost problem was 'survival' who tried utmost to fetch out the food in order to keep body and soul together. Life in mankind as well as in animals, birds, plants etc. has a common pattern of evolutionary descent. Life always changed, and this change is usually for the better. The environmental forces control the direction in which this change may be evolved. The primitive living beings tended to increase because of reproduction in 'Geometrical Progression' from one to two, two to four, four to eight, eight to sixteen etc. It is obvious that if no check is imposed over the increase

of population, the available food and other sources could not be accommodated. Therefore, members of living beings must have to compete for food, light, water, shelter and whatever else for survival known as 'Survival for Existence' which means only those living objects will have a right to survive who possess the valuable characteristics and decrease the number of individuals that possess less valuable characteristics. If we go back to about 10,000 years back we will observe that bipeds (mankind) has no exception to this rule. From one's birth onward throughout one's life it *has* to struggle for food, safety from enemies, catastrophes, strong winds, terrible winds, thunder storms, hurricanes, tornadoes, lightning bolts, abundant rains, solar radiations, volcanic eruptions, floods, droughts, and other climatic conditions. These survival problems made it active all the time.

It is difficult to explain how progress originated. At a remote period dating back 10,000 BC. or so, traces have been found and pursued HUNTING MODE OF LIFE'. Their culture is revealed by their pictorial art and pre-historic cave-developing of France and Spain, and their decorative art by their finely engraved implements and weapons. This mode of life prevailed among the Pro-Egyptians in the Nile valley; Pro-Romans - Babylonians in the river Euphrates; in ancient India the river Ganges etc.

According to Mackenzie Egypt was pioneer in introducing AGRICULTURAL MODE OF LIFE around 3000 B.C. Some one discovered how to make use of the barley that grew wild in the Nile valley and *Western* Asia. Intelligent observers perceived that if the process of water-fertilization were maintained, they could extend the little farms and form new ones. Millet, corn, rice and fruits were found to be cultivated and improved by them.

When this mode of life was introduced, and an abundant supply of food was assured, new laws became a necessity so that the growing communities might be kept under control. These laws were given a religious significance.. Since then the possession of property prevailed and the women started getting discriminatory treatment: They were considered as personal property and were confined to household chores. The agriculture, trade, medicine, religion etc. was taken over by the men whereas women were made personal property to the men.

Existing mythologies and religions around the globe still hold the status and positions of women prevalent in the remote past which may be ratified through studying the folk-ways, folk-tales, folk-songs, totems, taboos, superstitious, customs, rituals and mores.

## **4.2 Gender Stereotyping and Social Cognition**

'Gender stereotyping' is sexism which suggests that sex-stereotyping is a process of practising discriminations towards one sex on the basis of socially toned values. This awareness is perceived at intellectual level where the individual has to follow up the roles imposed upon by the society. These have been dealt with psychologically which may be studied under major categories given as under:-

- a. Traditional Theories
- b. Authoritarian Model
- c. Feministic Approach

### **4.2.1 Traditional Theories**

These theories evaluate people on the basis of norms established through studies of developmental stages. These studies stress upon need fulfilment of learning certain characteristics of a particular stage. Major stages of growth and development are infancy, early childhood, later childhood, adolescence, youth, middle-age and old age. At every stage norms of physical, intellectual, social, emotional and moral development have been formed and if the child acts upon these norms, he is treated as normal. Since these roles are culturally and traditionally defined so these are treated in a stereotype manner by the society.

Two traditional theories are of paramount importance

- (i) Psychoanalytical and
- (ii) Behaviorism.

#### **a) Psychoanalytical View Point**

This theory of personality was proposed by Sigmund Freud. It is the theory of psycho sexual genesis. IV tried to show how the structure of normal adult personality arises. It includes his ideas about the nature of the human mind and psycho-sexual stage of development. It studies how unconscious motivational forces develop stereotypes in boys and girls. According to Bronfenbrenner (1960) it presents the child's defensive identification with the same sex parent was the primary factor in sex role development. This identification is motivated through fear of castration for boys and loss of love for girls as well as for boys. On the basis of unconscious impulses the stereotypes are developed and maintained.

#### **b) Behaviouristic View Point**

These theories (Watson, Skinner, Thorndike, Pavlov tend to emphasize that stereotypes are caused by incentives, rewards, and punishments. Primary and Secondary reinforces play a vital role in it. It stresses upon the passive

acquisition of a behavioural repertoire via the reinforcement processes of others. The conditional worth produces the stereotypes and obliges them to stick to these stereotypes.

#### **4.2.2 Authoritarian Model**

This model stresses upon firm demand and control of the children but does not necessarily mean a non loving and non-communicative parenting. Child is expected to follow the social norms and sex-role stereotypes whole heartedly. Otherwise these children would be given negative reinforcements. Since authoritarian attitude damages the formation of independent thinking therefore such stereotypes is not very helpful in bringing up of the child. This model is popularly known as 'Patriarchal Model'.

#### **4.2.3 Feministic Approach**

This is the latest approach which stresses that gender-stereotyping is a social phenomena. Its theoretical framework is based on 'social learning theories' (Bandura, 1969, Mischal 1970). This theory stresses upon the physical and social properties of the parent and the nature. of reinforcement processes in children's acquisition of sex-roles. Children are assumed to use same-sex parent as a model because of his or her similarity to themselves. Parents are also utilized as models because of their availability, nurturant qualities, and power over resources. Parents and other important individuals in the child's environment reinforce the modelled behaviour when it is considered sex-appropriate and ignore or punish it when it is not.

According to Corsini Encyclopedia (1986) this approach has grown since about 1970, and incorporates understandings about women's development and mental health arising from the women's movement. It deals with a feminist understanding of the ways in which women's position in society influences their psychological development and is a source of distress. This approach underlies main principle that (1) "the person is political" (Lerman 1976). Seemingly individual problems are often the result of the social position of women as a group. Women's identification both at social and personal sources of problems are streamlined alongwith the solutions which do not involve adjustment to oppressive situations. The focus on the interface between society and individual is important and purely intrapsychic focus is not accounted for. (2) The other principle of feminist model is that relationship between male, female be developed at equal power. Experience of subordination provides an important source of many women's problems (Maraeck 1976). It helps them to examine objective power relationships in other areas of her

life as well, (3) Particular attention to the potential for abuse of the power of expertise is observed. Validation of the women's experiences are made. (4) The values of women are tried to make explicit and they are encouraged to do it. Values are manipulated with personal beliefs and values presented as faces sex-role exceptions, sexual orientation or behaviour, anger, and dependency are the basic problems of a woman and there is a need to reduce and clarify them (Bart, 1971). Acceptance of various life choices and willingness to pursue those choices is another important area. The cluster of emotional problems, arising out of social position of women, awareness of anger and its direct expression, learned helplessness and depression, self-nurturance, dependency and autonomy may be observed.

More concrete issues frequently include financial independence, clothes and appropriate sex roles in structuring relationship, work and family choices. These life choices may not be consistent with societal expectations (e.g. remaining child-free, choosing non-traditional work, living in a lesbian relationship), and challenging common assumptions that they have no alternative but to fit into traditional sex roles. Ravings and Carter (1977) point out that it is not sufficient to simply encourage women to develop themselves, they also need support in overcoming the very real barriers to that development.

A feminist approach allows women to see commonalities in their experiences, and to discuss social causes of what they had initially perceived as purely individual problems. The feminists encourage each woman's experience to serve as an opportunity for other women to gain strength and support and to clarify her own feelings about herself as a woman. The support of other women is often crucial in enabling a woman to make the changes she desires in the face of societal, emotional, and interpersonal barriers for accomplishing her goals (Kaschak 1981). Feminist Psychologists believe that women's problems can be neither explained nor helped without reference to the role society which contributes to them by maintaining women in a second-class position. They share a commitment to an egalitarian approach as the only one which is ethically responsible, because it is the only one which is fully respectful of women clients. They respond to this problem by taking care to make their values and belief explicit, without imposing them on their clients.

Feminist psychologists see it as their responsibility to engage in social action on behalf of women generally, believing that this is the only way of achieving the fundamental changes in society that are necessary for the well-being of all women. Thus the understanding that the person is political' has implications for both personal professional practice and political action.

Both feminist model and aspects of cognitive development reduce sex-appropriate roles. For example, there is considerable cross-cultural evidence that there are consistent and persistent differences in the ways in which mothers and fathers treat their sons and daughters to enhance autonomy in the former and affective relationships in the latter (Block 1978). The impact of parental socialization practices may be modified by such variables as the physical characteristics of the child, his or her birth position, and the sex of siblings. Racial, ethnic and social-class differences in parental behaviours have also been found, as well as differences in terms of the task investigated and the context in which it is studied (Unger 1979). A major issue not resolved by cognitive and feminist psychologists is the differential impact of sex-role socialization on girls and boys in our society. Although girls and boys may acquire concepts related to their own gender identity at about the same age, throughout childhood many more girls than boys show a preference for aspects of the role of the opposite sex (Hyde et al 1977; Nash 1975). It is difficult to eliminate non-sexist gender stereotypes. Society tends to place restrictions and tries to maintain the traditional roles. There are several possible explanations for this sex-symmetry. One is that masculine characteristics are considered more useful and desirable to society as a whole. It would not be surprising, therefore, if females preferred characteristics and behaviours productive of more social esteem than accrues to the usual feminine role.

Parents do put restrictions on their children like they impose kind of books they read, or T,V. programs they watch. There have been some attempts to write non-sexist books but these books are not encouraged by children because they are not very exciting. If the books excite the children like talc stories, comics, puzzles and so on they take a lot of interest. In nonsexist literature the images, activities have to be presented collectively.

It is relatively easy to assign male roles to girls than other way around. Girls do not appear to be penalized as much as males for deviating from their traditional sex roles. It is quite acceptable for girls to engage in masculine activities but it is not acceptable for boys to accept activities which are feminine in nature. Persuading girls for high status acts in different thing as compared to persuading boys to engage with things which are down-graded, downplayed to the society at large. The differential penalties for deviation by males as compared with females may be attributable to the higher status of male role (Feinrnan 1981, Unger 1976, 1978).

Sandra Bern (1981) talks of the cognitive aspect in sex-role development. She suggests that persons active search for meaning, understanding and competence alongwith power of beliefs and interpretations helps one in the cognizance of sex-roles and gender-stereotypes. The experiences when assimilate, form person's self-

concept into the gender scheme that provides a cognitive readiness to perceive information in sex-related ways.

Thus 'Gender Stereotyping' starts in childhood. It is established through games, household chores, at home, at work etc. Let us review the nature of these. In 'games', girls have different sports and toys. It had been observed that nonsexist games may be played upto the age of eight but afterwards segregation in sports occur. Girls play with girls and boys with boys. Girl play with dolls, boys with ball and bat or building blocks, girls watch boys climbing the trees, skip the rope. The boys row the boats and girls gaze around, boys play kabbadi, football, hockey etc. and girls are confined to indoor games.

Gender stereotype is also found in 'household chores'. The girls and women are expected to cook, wash and sweep in the house whereas boys and men are expected to stay away from household chores. The girls and women are expected to cook and serve the meals whereas boys and men are expected to be the guests in their own houses; girls and women are supposed to look after the children and men whereas boys and men are expected to remain aloof from such affairs etc.

Gender stereotypes prevalent in society are also present 'at home'. The family is expected to teach the child the desired gender appropriate roles through every day living like language, dress and daily activities besides sports and games.

Gender stereotypes prevalent for work are that men are supposed to be authoritative whereas women as submissive; men are the bosses whereas women are he subordinate, women work only in 'women jobs' of typist, teaching, auxiliary nurse and services whereas men are expected to work in almost every walk of life.

### **4.3 The Representation of Women in Literature, Media and Textbooks**

Gender disparity on sexism entails the practice of various forms of discrimination based on sex. A person can be called 'SEXIT' in his or her thoughts and behaviour patterns are to some degree consciously infused with sexism. Even more explicitly! Gender disparity is an attitude which demeans, excludes, under-represents and stereotypes people on the basis of gender. In an even broader sense, gender disparity or sexism is a course of action which favours one sex over another. Sex-related stereotypes are, for example favourable to men.

Sex-role stereotypes of male and female tend too deny the worth of women and girls and to over-emphasize the importance of men and boys. Moreover, a certain uniformity in the presentation of male and female characteristics is noticeably

creating a sort of barrier between the two groups which results in the characteristics peculiar to one being criticized by the other. In other words, male and female characters are stereotyped to such an extent that the glorification of man inevitably implies the degradation of women.

Sex-role stereotyping of the men and women, favouring men is found in virtually all societies today. The basis behind this discrimination treatment is biological. Although these differences do occur between men and women, these can't be generalized to every walk of life. Aggressiveness, dominance, distraction, persistency, weak, strong, have more tendency to care for the children or having less nurturant or caring for the children etc. are base on pseudo-scientific facts.

#### **4.3.1 Stereotypes Based on biological Facts**

Biological facts which segregate sexes are that males have genitals but females have not. Men cannot bear children because they lack womb. Women cannot determine sex of the child as it does not have sperms. Men's sperms can only impregnate a woman because only men produce sperms. But on the basis of this fact, stereotype that women cannot be surgeons, mild in nature, lack manual dexterity, can be very good artists, poets, nurses etc. are half-true information. If a woman has the manual dexterity for sewing, why she lacks in surgery? Is it a fact that all women have no aggression? Are all men always taller, have broader shoulders than women? These are the questions which nullify these stereotypes. Let us discuss stereotypes found in literature, media and textbooks.

#### **4.3.2 Stereotypes In Literature**

It is well-established fact that literature is regarded as important source of identifying the problems of the society and points out the remedies to these problems. It is a cultural force which reflects reality and intends to repeat or modify it according to the demands of society. It depicts the roles, statuses, values, rituals, mores, taboos of a sect appropriate to the culture. After going through it one becomes aware of the environmental forces that influence the situations and the people at large. One can easily evaluate the role and status of specific environmental forces, institutions and inhabitants through it. Nevertheless, the role and status of women in any given society may be analyzed through the images of women which the popular literature reflects.

Literature includes fiction, magazines, digests, poetry and newspapers. Various studies have been conducted on Pakistani culture by Women's Division of Pakistan. The Pacific and Asian Women's Forums, UNESCO and so on reveal that the

portrayal of women in our literature is depicted in the traditional way. The roles of males and females are portrayed, in the established way. The contribution of women whether it be in the economic, political, social or religious spheres is marginalized.

SIMORGH's study on the portrayal of women in the media in Pakistan suggests Pakistani literature designate female as the focus of male desire and see her as a threat to male rationality and subsequently, to the greater good of community. She has been kept as the passive recipient of the male seed, which is shown to be the active principle, she is granted little choice of action within the social order, and her distance from the circuits of legislation and power is built into the terminology and myths our system has given rise to.

Pakistani culture attempts to contain the feminine within its structures by setting up its own categories of the good and bad women. The 'good woman' in this case is the one who suppresses her primitive urge until appropriate time specified by the society and that woman who violates it, is a 'bad woman' who is termed as 'fitna' and is blamed to threaten male strength and rationality, in the interests of her own desires which are always depicted as being antagonistic to the interest of the community as a whole.

Woman's place in society is portrayed and reinforced at subordinate positions within the value system and within the familial and social units. The concept and practice of imparting education, the importance of opinion in family affairs, the custom of dowry as a condition for the woman's acceptability in marriage and the stabilizing preferred value of married woman over the above, the single woman and widow and so on is reinforced by the Pakistani literature.

Pakistani literature represents women in socio-economic structures to restrict it to definitive division of labour and reinforce the image as excluded from the public spheres of life. The woman is dependent on him materially and emotionally and is shown to control her behaviour, thoughts, feelings with regard to the man, whether he is father, the husband, the son or the brother. She is represented both historically and culturally and legitimised on the basis of the premise that the woman is his inferior, both in terms of physical strength, and in terms of mental capability.

Pakistani literature legitimises the inferiority of women in the realms of religion, philosophy, morality, art, language, and in daily living.

In a study the image of woman in the Lebanese Press between 1935-75, M. Richard Allouche (1981) found from six daily papers and three magazines indicate that

weekly magazines thought they give woman more space than dailies, restrict her sphere, to feminine activities and keep her away from man's world, i.e. from the area of leadership and major decisions. As an argument for women's sexual discrimination, her biological functions and emotional nature is over emphasized. This natural difference is the arm they use to legitimize for men polygamy and other privileges. While women are called upon to vow eternal faithfulness to their husbands, and to consider love and devotion to them, as a duty.

Seema Pervaiz's 'Analysis of Mass Media Appealing to Women' revealed the hierarchy of needs of women characters from five most popular Urdu novels, five most popular Urdu magazines, five most popular Urdu feature films, five most popular T.V. Urdu drama serials and five most popular radio Urdu dramas during late 70's that the most prevailing themes in all the five media are:

1. Marriage and romance is the vital landmark of woman's life (96%).
2. She behaves on emotional level (96%).
3. She needs social and emotional support to lead a good life (80%).
4. Failure in love destroys the whole life and mental peace (68%).
5. Significant turn in life are brought by chance (64%).
6. She accepts being tortured as her fate (56%).
7. She does not take initiative in the expression of love (52%).
8. She takes some steps to satisfy her ego (52%).
9. The counterpart decides for her on important occasions (48%).
10. She is being deprived of her rights forcefully (48%).
11. Misunderstandings create bitterness in life (48%).
12. Her honesty and sincerity open new channels of life for her (44%).

#### **4.3.3 Stereotypes in Media**

Portrayal of women in mass media is discriminatory in Pakistan. Generally a patriarchal order is portrayed where the male is dominant both in 'sex-class' system and a symbolic order based on male-supremacist social arguments. A survey of recurrent male/female images in T.V. drama during the period May 1985 - January 1986 revealed the trend of the society towards women. This was conducted by Pacific Asian Women's Forum (1986).

In media and literature the quality of good woman has no separate identity of her own. She may come in any one or more of the following roles:

##### **a) Mother**

She is characterized by self sacrificing quality. The betrayed wife accepts husbands infidelities and gives up all possibility of salvaging her own life in order to look after her children.

**b) Sister**

Characterized by her devotion to her brother whom she looks after in the home e.g. mending his clothes, serving his food etc. even though she may be equally hungry or tired etc. or who gives up her suit if the brother does not approve of him. It is depicted by the that brother's decision is always better than the decision of the sister.

**c) The Wife**

Submissive, good housekeeper, careful with money, devoted to the interests of the family and suppliant for the husband's love, attention and obedient.

**i) Widow**

She is often the mother of dependent children or is herself dependent on some male relative viz the father or brother for her livelihood. If she belongs to first category, then her capacity for self-sacrifice and the air of prefectural sorrow counterbalances her ability to support her family through work. If she is dependent on a male relative, then she emerges as a figure of pity who can weep away her life in the service of others. She is virtuous, modest, religious, honest in poverty and if she has children, then she also has a strong maternal instinct.

**ii) The Deserted Wife**

She is represented as masochistic acceptance of suffering, She suffers all forms of degradation and deprivation while she continues to hope for her husband's live in some distant and unforseeable future. If, at all, she rebels she is rejected altogether and waits mindlessly for the man to return to her.

**d) Daughter**

Obedient, loving, shy, modest, sometimes rebellious in that she might want to go to college or work etc. but the test of her goodness lies in her ability to capitulate.

**e) The daughter-in-law, the Sister-in-law and the Mother-in-law**

These are three other roles which enable the woman to give play to her subordinate and supportive role in society. In all three cases, the emphasis is on service and a devotion to the cause of family and the interests of the father/husband and/or son. Identifying totally with the norms of a male oriented symbolic order, these women are the jealous and acclaimed guardians of the status quo. As such they chalk out the roles and functions of women in a given patriarchal system.

**f) The Grandmother**

She fulfils the function already being performed by the other women in the family. Her position of power within the family hierarchy coupled with the

fact of her dependency on the husband or son, enables her to endorse the authoritarian structure of the family, in that she is often the mouthpiece of established opinions and received ideas etc.

#### **4.3.4 The Bad Woman**

The 'bad woman', as projected in media comes in all the above roles. She differs from her good sister because she lacks the qualities, of submissiveness and sacrifice.

The bad wife, mother and female characteristics often overlap. All are selfish and egoistical, is a male preserve as it provides the man with the motor energy so necessary for him to succeed in public life. Bad wife and mother alienates both husband and son in her bid to realize her material ambitions. She is the cause of moral corruption and/or unhappiness in the male.

She is biased and arrogant in her manner. She is considered hasty and insensitive. She wears inappropriate dresses.

She is not a traditional woman. She has the absence of qualities of submission and obedience and is monster who is a threat to male virtue and to the sanctity of the home. She neglects her home and child. She takes risk for family harmony. She is portrayed as temptress. She is home-wrecker, either because she is the cause of male defection or because she is a bad influence on the good life.

Bad woman works for herself. She is responsible for home's disintegration. In January, 1986 a government directive was sent to PTV and Broadcasting stations, Press and NGO's, recommending a positive approach towards women's issues. This directive is based on the Pakistan Commission on the Status of Women. Since, then there has been a slight thought uneven change in the quality and focus of the portrayal of women telecast by these.

This brief analysis brings us to the conclusion that media is one of the means employed to fabricate myths which reinforce the women's subjection in our society.

#### **4.3.5 Sexism in Schools and Textbooks**

Various forms of sexism is found at school. The school is by no means an institution cut off from society; rather, it forms an integral part of it, having the power to instil in children the social values and norms of the period and the society in which they live. Consequently, even when government have subscribed to the principle of

sexual equality, schools continue to convey sexist stereotypes and practise discrimination against women. This contradiction appears particularly striking when we examine the 'Images of men and women in textbooks'. For example, despite the humanistic ideals of equality upheld by the Zambian government, Tembo' points out that in Zambia, textbooks contain stereotypes, false images, content combinations and so on. Parents for example, continue to give their sons education prior over that of daughters.

'School hierarchy' also creates stereotypes. The manner in which the men and women influence them in decision-making. Andrae Michel. (1986) in his book 'Down with Stereotypes!' mentions that commission on European communities show that in 1976, in France, 67.7% of primary school teachers were women, while only 41% of primary school principals were women. For Italy, these figures were 68 and 31 percent respectively; in the U.K. 76.5 and 42.9. percent, and in Ireland 71.8 and 52 percent (heads and deputy heads included). In secondary schools this proportion is even smaller. In addition, the majority of schools inspectors are men. This is bound to build up the stereotype of the man in control; and seemingly women are capable of occupying only subordinate positions, both in education system and society.

Biseria (1989) conducted a survey for UNESCO points out the existence of sexist stereotypes in 'Indian formal education system', from early childhood education to university and higher education. He points out that 'sexist stereotypes in Indian formal education should be weeded out from the planning stage to the classroom. Moreover, close scrutiny of Indian culture soon reveals obstacles which either keep girls from attending schools in the first place or induce them sooner or later, to drop out, for example, the distance between home and school, whether the teacher is a man or woman, the time table, the curriculum, or an early marriage.

'*Sexism in the teacher/pupil relationship*', also occurs. In Lima study (1983) teachers were found more attentive to boys and more strict to girls (Anderson).

Sexism in '*pupil interaction and games*' are also found. Mollo (1970) studied suburban French school and found that boys refused to play football with girls as it was not proper whereas girls happily agreed to play football with boys.

Studies also indicate '*sexism in school textbooks*' also exist all over the world. Norwegian study conducted by UNESCO (1983) indicate that in fourth to seventh grades male and female stereotypes persist in virtually all of these textbooks. Discriminatory attitudes towards girls and women are manifested in the following ways: (a) boys frequently appear with frequent illustrations. The choice of models

is unlimited, varied. The examples and subject matter selected all indicate a prejudice in favour of boys. In its science' subjects physics, chemistry and biology it is found that there are far more pictures of boys/men than of girls/women in them for both the lower and upper secondary schools.

World Federation of Teachers Union (1983) in a study of the portrayal of women and men in school textbooks and children's literature in France,. study that textbooks at best, reflect the prevailing ideology and illustrate the general atmosphere of sexism at all levels of schooling. Survey conducted by Agency Femme Information (AFI-1982) of male and female in seventy-nine Arabic textbooks, being used in seven Arab *ktates* Egypt, Kuwait, Lebanon, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Tunisia, Democratic Yemen bear the same stereotypes of modern countries. These textbooks describe women dependent on men for economic Welfare and status. They are depicted as weak, sensitive, submissive, dependent, self-sacrificing with no identity of their own as persons.

The former Soviet Socialist Republic State of Ukraine' conducted by UNESCO (1982) study sorts the sexist stereotypes into three categories.

- a) Emphasize personality traits ostensibly in one sex (68%). According to such stereotypes men are efficient, courageous, reasonable, stubborn etc. whereas women are under the predominance of emotive traits, tenderness and solicitude:
- b) Emphasize stereotype of family and occupational roles, traditionally associated with one sex. Women are home keepers, nurses, teachers etc. while men are breadwinners, managers of family etc.
- c) Stress the difference in the social political activities of men and women respectively (women are passive, men are active).

In U.S., '*the effects of sexist stereotypes*' instilled by both the society and the school, in pupils of both the sexes, have been studied in great detail. Baruch (1974) studied phenomenon of '*fear of success*' among American girls. He discovered that their fear of success increases as the age increases reaching its highest point at the age of fifteen as a result of rising social pressure to conform.

Pakistan has no exception to it. Studies conducted by Mohammad Anwar (1982) on behalf of Women's Division of Pakistan on '*Images of Male and Female Roles in School and College Textbooks*' discovered from 105 textbooks for various grades found that 78% were authored by males, 6% by females and remaining had joint authorship.

The greatest number of characters belonging to any group was that of adults. However, the proportion of female characters was the loosest in this age (adults), compared with other age groups in primary, secondary and college prescribed textbooks. Of the three types of books, supplemental books were, by and large, dominated by male characters. Between textbooks and popular books there was not much difference in the proportion and pattern of female character portrayal.

In each one of the *seven most frequently occurring activities in the textbooks* the sexwise proportion of characters was highly weighted in favour of males. The six activities in which more than one half of the characters happened to be females were: cooking, cleaning, child rearing and caring, domestic helper, cotton/frit picking, and non-occupational skills. In the supplementary books domestic help and cleaning were quite common where female characters were found to be engaged. Cleaning and child rearing figured prominent activities performed by female characters in the popular books.

Pakistani textbooks of English, Urdu, Islamiyat, Social Studies, History, Home Economics, Persian, Punjabi, Arabic and Education from class one to class twelve Anwar (1984) analysis indicate that:

- a) *'Images by Ethnic Background'* in these books indicate that the greatest number of characters portrayed in the textbooks had their origin in the Western society, followed by those having Middle Eastern background and then those who belonged to Pakistani society.
- b) *'The Images by rural and Urban Background'* indicate that a big proportion of the characters representing urban areas in the study is suggestive of the fact that the authors are trying to transmit primarily an urban oriented way of life to the students.
- c) *'Images by Age'* indicate that mostly adults were portrayed playing various roles in the textbooks. The proportion of adult females was substantially low - rather it was the lowest compared with their corresponding proportions in other age categories.
- d) *'Images by Social Class'* indicated by these books are in favour of upper class character model presentation. Nevertheless, upper class female characters were least represented in the write up. Character proportions were biased in favour of males, and more lower class than the upper class females characters were portrayed.
- e) *'Images by Occupations'* depicted in these books male youth have been provided with a wide choice of occupational avenues to exhibit their potentialities, their writers have discriminated against the females by underplaying their creative and intellectual capabilities. Only 'service workers' was the occupation in which females were portrayed with such a high proportion.

- f) *'Images by Activities'* portrayed of both the characters was quite a reflection of traditional images of males and females in the cultural milieu of Pakistani society. Cleaning, child-rearing were mostly performed by the females.
- g) *'Images by Attributes'* indicate that the intellectual and personal qualities like 'learned', 'rational', 'leader', 'progressive', and 'genius' possessed by females have been dawn played in textbooks. On the other hand males have been portrayed as 'high achievers' on a variety of criteria. Both textbooks as well as popular books emphasized two distinct types of female images" "traditionally domesticated" and "domestically egoistic". The former category allude to the traditionally submissive status of women. The later category is in a way reflective of the female individuality but the authors do not seem to portray radically different from the perceived tamed nature of an average female. These books followed a rather guarded approach by preserving the submissive qualities of females and at the same time portraying their egoistic characteristics, by presenting them as 'founders', 'imperialists', 'outspoken' and 'genius'.

Study conducted by Najma, Mohyuddin and Aliya (1992) indicate that customary representative system still prevails in prescribed textbooks. Class one to three books on Urdu and Social studies portray the conventional roles of boys, girls, men, women, occupational activities, social and political activities leisure, sports, games and character traits already described.

#### **4.4 Content of Stereotypes**

Every object covers certain subject matter which is meaningful in nature. The amount of which something contain in it is called 'content'. Whereas the material which is more or less rigid, impersonal model towards the physical, intellectual, emotional or intentional qualities of a group (women or men) or certain aspects of its position in society is termed as 'content of stereotypes'.

The content of stereotypes may be of two types:

4.4.1 Explicit Stereotypes

4.4.2 Latent Stereotypes

##### **4.4.1 Explicit Stereotypes**

Any stereotype which is direct, clearly specified and the person is aware of using it in every day life situations is known as 'Explicit Stereotypes'. These are written and spoken which duly discriminate between boys and girls activities. Girls are studied towards arts and crafts work and boys to wood-work classes, is evidence of an explicit sexist stereotype, as this educational dichotomy amounts to denying both sexes a free choice of practical work. These do exist in daily customs too which

discriminate between boys and girls. For example, although there is no law to that effect, parents are frequently heard telling their sons, 'big boys don't cry'. Such stereotypes judgements are designed to train the boys to repress his feelings, whereas the expression of the same emotions by a girl is discouraged.

#### **4.4.2 Implicit (Latent) Stereotypes**

Stereotype which is not directly observable, does not occur so much in speech or writing as in social attitudes and behaviour that differ according to the sex of the individual is called '*Implicit Stereotypes*'. So a girl can be complimented on her pretty dress, while praise for doing well at school is reserved for minatory. The assumption is that girls should be prepared for social success.

Hiding discrimination consists of providing girls with only one role model (home maker), while a much wider range is also be observed in the different attitudes that parents in low-income countries adopt towards their sons and daughters. The girl is obviously already conditioned to help the parents when she leaves school, while greater freedom of choice is given to boys. Parents attitudes, whether or not accompanied by sex-stereotyped comments, make it obvious to boys that they are the superior sex, and to girls that they are somehow inferior.

Latent sexism is conveyed by omission, that is, when the portrayal of one sex is confined to specific qualities and roles. Hidden (sexist) messages may be conveyed in disguised manner e.g. Motherhood is honoured and respected but is the only option for girls.

This example seems to be most prevalent illustration of implicit sexism in the media, textbooks and children's literature: Women and girls are represented and valued only in their emotional, maternal and domestic roles, which by implication means that all other social roles (professional and political) are closed to them.

In some cases girls are openly encouraged to believe that goals of their adult lives will be marriage and motherhood, while boys have a much wider variety of role models, and their roles as husbands and fathers is treated as an irrelevant detail.

Now that you have gone through the 'Explicit' and 'Latent' contents of stereotypes. Find out from the given list of statements the 'Explicit' and 'Latent' stereotypes. mark 'Yes' or 'No'

1. It is not considered attitude for the female be the head of family.
2. Men are more aggressive as compared to women.
3. Women are seen soft hearted as compared to men.

4. Men are incapable of looking after children and behaving lovingly towards them.
5. There are typical professions for boys and girls.
6. Boys and girls have different sports.
7. Boys are more courageous, intelligent, self-confident, professionally competent, efficient than girls.

#### **4.5 How Stereotypes Effect Behaviour?**

As we have already studied that stereotypes emerged out of the necessity of understanding the nature but these persisted as they served the - cause 'f the ruling class and influential people. Stereotypes are prevalent now-a-days in all walks of life from superstitious, rituals, ceremonies, to ethnic, racial and sexist stereotypes. Everybody has to adapt it otherwise he will have to suffer a threat of boycott. These are the product of society which are acquired through conditional worth. Every action when positively reinforced results in associative learning that ultimately leads to the habit formation and vice versa.

No society is spared from stereotypes. These effect the individual at micro (individual) and macro (large/society) level. Nevertheless these have two main aspects.

4.5.1 Regulatory effects.

4.5.2 Derogatory effects.

##### **4.5.1 Regulatory Effect**

Stereotypes are major source of keeping discipline and maintaining it. Through this aspect rights and duties of individuals have been determined. If somebody violates these rules, he or she gets punishment which may occur at ethical level, social level or legal level. Formal and informational institutions have been created by the society to educate people to act according to norms of the society. These agencies form the personality and 'self and the preservers and transmitters of cultural patterns thus creating these everybody has to acquire stereotypes because they are important for us.

##### **Importance**

- a) Mankind is purely rational being who is motivated by its economic interests. Statutory laws, and social norms provide facilities to all human beings but it is another story that these are determined in favour of one over the other but basically these are meant for the welfare of human beings.

- b) Human beings are provided with sex-role-norms. When everybody behaves according to the standards and values laid down by the society, all things occur smoothly without causing any trouble. This is another fact that these standards are determined by oppressed class who have downplayed the other one. If judicious standards were formed then all people have the equal opportunity of proving its worth in nation-building process through joining all types of occupations on the basis of intelligence, education, skill etc.
- c) Responsible for imparting the purpose and philosophy of life to every individual. Agents of socialization in which family, peer group, teacher (educational institutions) and mass media plays a vital role in perpetuating it.
- d) May help in the social and economic uplift of the country. Since it strives for the creation of uniformity and similarity of roles in society so everybody tries to put up its energies in its own fields, if he or she violates then it not only effects the person itself whose efficiency will not be properly recognized by others but the whole set of norms will be disturbed. On the other hand these appreciate human beings to work according to sex-roles assigned to them by male-dominated society.
- e) Promote contentment among its members. Human beings regard it as inevitable to follow these and it is written in their fortunes so they do not go against them. Such feelings provide satisfaction to them. They limit their desires and are prepared mentally and physically to accept the injustices created by so called norms of the society. If somebody intends to dissipate then it will plunge into a hell of problems to them.
- f) Since these are duly recognized by society and government so its blind followers are protected legally. If somebody . outbreaks these provisions of life, property and honour, the accused are taken to the task through government agencies. It is another aspect that culprits are often escaped and innocent people are apprehended on one pretext or the other. Similarly these formal and informal agencies protect its human beings from outside damages or aggressions and calamities through diplomacy, war or any other method.
- g) They orient mankind. They give an idea of self-respect for an individual and meaning to its life. They certainly contribute to lessen the degree of lawlessness, disorder and disorganization at the individual, group, institution and the social level. They provide awareness among other sects, how they are discriminately treated upon from others which may result in the form of movements.

#### 4.5.2 Derogatory Effects

Stereotypes are based on irrational, illogical, unjudicious and ulteriorly motivated facts offered by the dominating class. These leaves some bad effects upon human beings. For instance,

- a) One of the negative impact it leaves on people is that it influences people to believe in superstitions in everyday life matters e.g. women are incompetent to run the state; the crowing of crow on the roof top or the splashing of floor during downing are considered as if some guest is being expected; or that certain races are superior and other are inferior; or amulets asking favours against enemies or asking destruction of the enemies as well as getting fortune; or sacrifice having recourse to deity etc.
- b) Stereotypes are the outcome of a situation of oppression and exploitation, with its roots in history which has already been discussed in Section 11:1. Hence may create racial stereotypes of sexist stereotypes.

In 'racial stereotypes', the prejudgment is made towards race, colour, cast, creed, religion, community so on without cogent reasons or through isolated experiences. For example, when blacks were taken as slaves following the white colonial conquest, prejudices and racial stereotypes had to be invented in order to justify the oppression and domination exercised by white slaveholders. This historical precedent and the persistence of the pattern of discrimination thus established account for the fact that 'ethnic' and racial stereotypes conveying the ideas that blacks are inferior to whites have survived to this day. History reveals that in 1670 the Virginia Assembly (USA) made it illegal for blacks to own white servants.

- Discriminate between 'racial' and 'ethnic stereotypes' from the following examples.
- I believe in white supremacy until the blacks are educated to a point of responsibility. (John Wayne)
- The Americans ought to be ashamed of themselves for letting their medals be won by Negroes. (Adolt Hitler).
- No other factor in history, not-even in religion, has produced so many wars as has the clash of national egotism sanctified by the name of patriotism. (Prescrred Smith)
- National pride is the modem form of tribalism.
- Every nation ridicules other nations, and each is right. What is the use of being kind to a poor man?
- All who are not of good race in this world are chaff (straw of fodder).

- For others a knowledge of the history their people is a civic duty, while Jews it is a sacred duty.
  - If my theory of relativity is proven successful, Germany will claim me as German should my theory prove Germany will declare that I am a Jew - (Albert Stein).
  - Cobblers, tillers, dooms, mussalis, working class (Arzals) possess less qualities as compared to the middle classes (Ajlaf) of Rajputs, Jata, Fujjars, businessmen, government officials etc. whereas some races possess superior qualities like Syeds, Moghals, Pathans.
- c) Stereotypes result in development of Sexism which stresses upon women's position of dependence, subordination and inequality in society. These are used as an excuse for maintaining this group in a position of inferiority (economic, cultural, social, political etc.).

Sexist stereotyping of the behaviour of men and women, favouring men to the detriment of women, is to be found in virtually all societies today. A striking example is furnished of Jan Morris who, after a sex-change operation, noticed a dramatic change in her own attitudes Mischel quotes Jan Morris:

"We are told that the social gap between the sexes is narrowing, but I can only report that having, in the second half of the twentieth century, experienced life in both roles, there seems to be no aspect of existence, no moment of the day, no contact, no arrangement, no response, which is not different for men and for women... (everything) constantly emphasized my change of status the more I was treated as a woman, the more woman I became. I adapted willingly. If I was assumed to be incompetent I found myself becoming".

In other words, all stereotypes, even those that seem harmless exert a considerable influence on those whom they label.

- d) They develop 'folkways', 'mores', 'codes', 'traditions' in a particular social situation. These folkways and mores being group habits have also force of individuals and group behind them. Because once the norms become the habits of individual it is difficult to change them in a short time. The mores are must behaviours and are regarded essential for the welfare of human beings and their violation is likely to endanger the group life. Thus these have greater hold and control over the activities of individual and group.
- e) Since stereotypes form attitudes. The existing stereotypes usurp the particular class in community. As the existing stereotypes are meant for the dominance of one sex over others and fulfil the ulterior motives of oppressed class so

they serve no good to the society as the majority class people rights are usurped by them.

- f) Stereotypes produce institutionalized misinformation, present unrealistic and imitated ideas of people, objects, places, things etc. so it retards the creativity among the sufferers and pampers the ways of the progress for oppressed class.

#### **4.6 Alternatives to Stereotypes**

As we have discussed thoroughly that relatively fixed simplest over generalizations about a group or class of people where the negative, unfavourable, characteristics are emphasized, and are omnipresent in society. These have resulted in giving one importance to the oppressors and down playing the oppressed class. Therefore it becomes imperative to adopt measures suitable to eradicate such misconceptions which are absurd, false and degraded one sex, race, ethnic group or other class on accounts of pseudoscientific beliefs. Two categories against the eradication of stereotypes e.g.

- i) Reduction of Stereotypes
- ii) Alternatives to Stereotypes (Existing nature of stereotypes along with proposed sex-role stereotypes are given at the end of unit 1:2)

##### **4.6.1 Reduction of Stereotypes**

Reduction of stereotypes may be initiated from imparting the proper facts through proper information techniques. If actual message is transmitted to the public it may help to take full benefit of most than half population of the world which is stereotyped as 'weaker sex' or 'inferior sex' and who has been debarred to participate activity in the affairs of everyday life on the pretext of biological differences. Other qualities of 'women' are not dealt with an discriminatory treatment is offered only on one fact (i.e. biological). Thus it is important that actual facts may be transmitted from location to another through written, oral, pictorial gestural and other modes of communication.

Michael (1986) has rightly indicates that another most appropriate course of action for reducing an evil has an attacking right at its routes which may be done through taking:

- a) Action from Government Agencies.
- b) Action for awareness of public against stereotypes.

**a) Action for Government Agencies**

Stereotypes can not be eliminated until unless it is patronized by government who runs the affairs of state in organized way. She possesses the resources and collects revenues and is responsible for the welfare of the society. Therefore, it becomes one of the important duty to provide public with actual information about the racial, ethnic and sexist concepts prevalent in the society. For this purpose, she should first of all, launch a scientific research programme to discover the facts and then take appropriate steps as per recommendation of studies.

Government may take actions against stereotypes through the following agencies:

- i) Law making agencies
- ii) Law enforcing agencies
- iii) Legal decision pronouncing agencies

**i) Law Making Agencies**

What type of government may be, she can have a set up system of law making. In our country, these laws can be initiated in the parliament either in the 'National Assembly' or 'Senate' at federal level. President may issue 'ordinances' which have decrease having the force of law and circumventing the need to seek the legislature's approval so the government can make law against discrimination of sexism, racial and ethnic groups.

**ii) Law Enforcing Agencies**

Each government is provided with many agencies which act under the constitution and enforce statutory laws. District administration, police, army and other departments enforce the laws, and apprehend the violators. If the laws against apartheid are made, it will arrest those who do not follow them.

**iii) Legal Decision Pronouncing Agencies**

The violators are taken to the court of laws and judgement is passed by them whether the cases registered against them are justified or not. So judiciary will take care of the laws.

**b) Action for the Awareness of Public Against Stereotypes**

Mass media is an important source of imparting information to the people at large. Newspapers, magazines, broadcasts by radio, or television are most important communicative channels., mass media is responsible for constructing specific attitudes. If policies are made by the authorities that no prejudice producing information should be projected through it, then stereotypes may be eliminated.

Actions towards publishers, authors and illustrators may be taken if these violate the policies. Awareness of the public can be produced by two ways:

- i) In School System
- ii) Outside School System

***i) In School System***

Work of awareness development may be carried out towards the school system will help in the elimination of stereotypes. This may be taken in the following ways:

- (1) Action by ministries
- (2) Action towards administrators
- (3) Action towards educators
- (4) Action towards guidance counsellors
- (5) Action towards pupils

***(1) Action by Ministries***

If actions by education culture ministries are taken, stereotypes may disappear from school textbooks as well as from other areas. Since these ministries are responsible for planning, designing and illustrating the situations and school textbooks, the action to be taken will differ from action towards the private sector, when the latter has those responsibilities. If government agree about the priority, the ministries concerned will confer with the relevant social agents, publishing houses, authors, illustrators

***(2) Action Towards Administrators***

Actions if initiated against various administrators promoting and suggesting stereotypes, it may be eliminated. If the teachers, parents, parent associations, head teachers, inspectors, local councillors, and other administrators are giving directions and asked to pursue the policies of producing non-stereotypes in education curricula or social set up, it may stereotype behaviour.

***(3) Action Towards Educators***

Seminars and workshops are important sources to foster awareness among inservice and future teachers. These seminars and workshops promote the 'Born Free Programme on the basis of equal status. Similarly voluntary organizations may help out in the introduction of training programmes. Again training programmes for teachers must be assertive about anti-sexism. The curricula of teacher-training institutions must be carefully examined, and any persistent sexist tendencies weeded out.

**(4) Action towards Guidance Counsellors**

The counsellors and educational advisors may also be invited to seminars and workshops so that they may be able to find out the latest developments going on and become aware of the policies to be introduced. As people come to them for guidance so proper assistance may be provided to the clients in a non-stereotype manner.

**(5) Action Towards Pupils**

Teachers should endeavour in their classes to awaken the pupils critical faculties, in particular with respect of the content of school textbooks so that they come to reject stereotypes. They should be made to understand that it is natural for people, irrespective of sex, to share work and responsibility in all areas of society.

**ii) Outside School System**

In order to eliminate stereotypes action outside school system is essential. This action is towards the public, society and community. Following measures if adopted, eliminate stereotypes:

- (1) Action towards persons responsible for publications promoting stereotypes.
- (2) Action towards consumers.
- (3) Action towards associations.
- (4) Action towards employers.

**(1) Action towards Persons Responsible for Publications Producing Stereotypes:**

All the publishers, authors and illustrators should be provided with guidelines of writing non-stereotypic books. Any work which is inconsistent with the policy is advised to revise and eliminate the materials which may cause stereotypes before it is published.

The pressure groups such as lawyers, religious scholars, philosophers, women associations, labour associations, welfare associations, chamber of commerce, scientists etc. may mobilize the government machinery and community against stereotypes. They should conduct research at their own and should project these through press conferences, meetings, seminars, workshops, and mass-media.

**(2) Action, towards Consumers:**

The consumers of the stereotypes are the community, parents, and the relevant local authorities. If these be allowed to inspect the materials published or to be published and sought their opinion regarding the content of material, and their advises are

properly given weightage would help in the elimination of sexism, racial prejudices and ethnic stereotypes.

**(3) Action towards Associations:**

The associations if wage campaign to inform the public of the biases prevailed by mass media, magazine strips, cartoons, cassettes, caricature, jokes about various racial and ethnic groups and provide with them the alternatives to these stereotypes in everyday life situations, it may eliminate stereotypes.

**(4) Action towards Employers:**

If employers are directed to make a policy toward hire and fire of employee. based on principles of non stereotypes, it may eliminate stereotyping. All the members of the society irrespective of caste, creed, sex, religion, ethnic group if given equal chances of education, selection of professions, incentives and facilities, it will promote non-stereotyping in the community.

#### **4.6.2 Alternatives to Stereotypes**

As stereotypes endangers the progress of the states produces hatred among races, create and promote ethnic groups and sexism, there must be an end to these. Various sexist stereotypes have illustrated in this section which are duly modified and a proposed pattern is always suggested through illustrations.

Since these illustrations are about sexism which imprison men and women in sex-based role, it is therefore, assigned that you on your make a list of stereotypes that portray racial prejudices, and ethnic biases, then suggest how these stereotypes can be eliminated in everyday life situations. This should be done through proper illustrations (drawings) which are given at the margin lives of 1:2.

#### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. Observe the nature of 'Sexism', 'Stereotypes' and 'Sex-role Stereotypes' have experienced in your community. Enlist them and try to find out the rules that underline these. sets.
2. Observe the child-rearing practices and notice the difference among rural, urban and male, female stereotypes produced by them.
3. Now that you have read the extract, pause for a moment and make a list of what traditional gender-stereotypes you have experienced in daily life situations.
4. \*On the basis of biological difference, what would you include in the list of the stereotypic characteristics of women and men? State why?

5. Recall T.V. 1993's Urdu Dramas Garift, Nangay Paon and Shchbaz. Compare stereotypes of Women and Men in the Religion, Philosophy and Profession.
6. As described by the Stereotypes of ('Good' and 'Bad') women does it differ from the actual picture? Discuss.
7. From your personal experience state what positive and negative effects stereotypes had upon you? Think how these undesirable effects may be remedied?

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**Unit – 5**

# **ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND ACHIEVEMENT ATTITUDES**

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## INTRODUCTION

In studying the actions of individuals in interpersonal behaviour the question of why an individual does what he or she does is in fact one which refers to the driving forces that motivate people to either want something or fear something. The individual wants power, status, or fears social ostracism or threats to his self esteem. The driving dynamic of purpose is inferred from a person's goal seeking behaviour. The study of the direction and persistence of action is the study of motivation. It can distinguish two types of driving forces, positive and negative. The positive forces impel a person towards certain objects or conditions whereas the negative ones repel a person away from certain objects or conditions.

The thought and action of an individual thus reflect his wants and goals. In fact, the wants of an individual integrate and organize all of one's psychological activities in directing and sustaining action towards a goal-ones perception, feelings, reactivation of old habits and acquisition of new-ones - all these activities are influenced by the wants which impel us and the goals which we strive to secure. However, behaviour is not determined by these factors alone. Situational conditions, cognition, social habits and attitudes also contribute towards determination of behaviour. Moreover, the motives and goals of a person continuously develop and change as they are products of an individual's physiological state and his interactions with objects and persons. Old wants give way to new ones with changes that occur in any of these conditions. Also, motives vary in the extent to which they are related to tissue need, to internal sensitizing agents, namely hormones, to perception of the external world — to individual experiences. It must, however, be kept in view that each motive is unique in this respect. There are no neat pigeon holes for each type of motive. The study of motivation is complex as any set of phenomena can be studied from a number of points of view and at different levels of complexity. Human behaviour can be studied as a function of its:

- a) Physical, chemical or biological sub-strata.
- b) as an aspect of a man's environment system.
- c) as an integral component of a social complex.

Man has more wants than any other animal, largely because of his more highly differentiated nervous system. The energy arising from unfulfillment of goals is directed towards gratification. Learning plays a directing role in this process. Facts of choice, preference or decision indicate the selective and directed character of behaviour. Man is not just the product but the architect of his environment. Environmental conditions that lead to any reward or gratification act as a

reinforcement thereby strengthening a response sequence and making it more liable to be learned and repeated. Also when aversive stimulation (or punishment) is presented this also acts as a motivation to avoid the given unpleasant situation. This explains, to a large extent, the development and change of the wants of an individual which reflect his experiences of want fulfilment and frustration. In fact, wants and goals are interdependent and form indissoluble parts of a single complex.

The motives of an individual form an organized and unified system so it is important to understand not only the growth and change of a person's wants and goals but also the nature and the development of the self in defence and enhancement of which much energies are expended. This is because we respond not only to objects and persons in the outer environment but to our inner thoughts and feelings. In so doing we develop cognition about the self as a central and valued object around which many diverse wants and goals become organized. The self is a product of social interaction when the individual becomes a social object in experience to himself. It tends to be defined in terms of group membership and a comparison of oneself with reference groups, groups to which one belongs or aspires to belong. The self concept of an individual is shaped largely through the feedback he receives from others with respect to himself. The feeling of group belongingness importantly determines the individual's feeling of self worth. One's conception of oneself also serves to render certain specific wants more dominant than others.

Achievement motive is a widely generalized "wish to master" or "wish to do well" -- an attempt to compete with a standard of excellence for obtaining something. One may be involved in a competition with others or with ones self imposed requirements for good performance. The other form which achievement attitudes may take is avoidance of failure. In order to understand the nature of the development of achievement motivation amongst males and females it would be helpful to understand some of the factors that give rise to the nature and extent of differentiations in their behaviour with particular reference to biological as well as social psychological and cultural expectations. Biological explanations of differences in health patterns, life expectancies, evolutionary pressures, metabolic, and hormonal influences have been advanced by social-biologist scientists. While recognizing the fact that men and women do differ genetically, physiologically and in many important ways psychologically for purpose of this chapter, however, our interests will be focused more on differentiation related to social behaviour and also on cultural variations which have a bearing on such behaviour. In any case, biological explanation of male-female differences need not contradict a social psychological explanation. Biology has certain differences while culture develops them. Interaction of biology and culture is evident amongst human beings. It is now

being increasingly recognized that eventually researchers interested in sex roles and sex differences will have to find a way of integrating biological as well as social and political considerations into a unified analysis of the psychology of men and women as neither the social context nor the biological approach can sufficiently explain sex differences.

## **OBJECTIVES**

After reading this unit you will be able:

- To relate the connotation of motivation and attitudes.
- To explain the process of attitude formation.
- To identify the role of motivation in achievement.
- To comprehend the role of culture and environment in development of self concept.
- To appreciate gender differences in socialization process.
- To practice the process of bringing about desirable changes in the gender specific roles.

## 5.1 Culture

Does culture contribute to or just mirror male-female differences? The evidence here is clear. The impact of culture is enormous. An individual's culture reflects his environment--both physical and social--and in turn shapes it. As man forms and reforms his society in his cultural image he can also become an agent of social change. However, the relation between culture and the individual is not a one-way affair. The influence runs both ways. Culture also contributes to the stability of a society by influencing the person in a pervasive way. The regulatory beliefs, values, norms and premises lend continuity to their patterns of behaviour. These are, however, not static. The culture of a society is subject to change as its members question traditional solutions and invent new solutions to problems of living which they and their fellows face. In studying these variations, however, it is necessary to keep in mind both the core culture of a society which is shared by all members and also the sub-culture which is distinctive of a segment of the society e.g., an ethnic group, a social class group, a regional group.

## 5.2 Gender-Role Socialization

Socialization refers generally to all of the processes by which individuals are shaped by their social system as they grow and develop. One aspect in which psychologists have recently directed their interests is how children develop ideas and schemata about their social world and how this knowledge affects their behaviour. One of the important lines of investigation relates to gender which refers to one's personal, social and legal status as male or female, or mixed, on the basis of somatic or behavioural criteria. Gender role socialization is responsible for children learning about the appropriate behaviours for men and for women. Gender identity is also developed during this process resulting in one's secure and unquestioned knowledge of people regarding themselves as males or females. The labels which parents and significant others ascribe to a newborn may well affect subsequent expectations about how the infant should behave as well as their behaviour towards the infant. In course of time with the rapid unfolding of the infant's own behaviour repertoire may well lead to a modification of parental and other behaviour in the first place. Both parents and child thus start influencing each other's perception and behaviour. Sex appropriate behaviour is encouraged and rewarded based on cultural norms. Norms restrain and control us but they also lubricate the social machinery. Rules or standards are accepted by the members of society and by typical occupants of a position violations of approved behaviour lead to punishment either in the form of legal action or social sanction. Norms are divided into folkways and mores. In folkways the means of conformity are not clearly defined while in mores they are more actively enforced. In case a woman

decides to differ in her behaviour from the socially dictated roles considered appropriate for her sex she is liable to experience role conflict. Women who achieve independence or aspire to achieve high levels of performance in specialized fields are often considered unsuited for playing feminine roles.

In gender socialization the implicit patterns of behaviour which are assumed to underlie and determine the observed regularities in the way we react to persons and situations are of significance. These include cultural beliefs, values and premises.

### **5.2.1 Gender Roles**

A role is a set of norms associated with a position. These are subject to the impact of culture. There are a few cultural universals in these areas: Virtually all societies are patriarchal —ruled by men. Men fight wars and had large game, women gather food and tend the children (a division of labour that makes evolutionary sense to a psychobiologist). However, there are also cultural differences in gender roles. In non-westernized regions agricultural food accumulating societies tend to restrict women to child related activities whereas in more nomadic hunting-gathering societies, women have greater freedom and gender role distinctions are not so sharp. In industrialized nations such as the United States and Russia, gender roles are converging. People are beginning to accept similar roles for men and women. As traditional gender roles wane, a new generation of children is now being socialized to the new roles they are observing. However, in no culture have gender roles been eliminated. In day to day life as well as in media, gender-role stereotypes are promoted. These often tend to be self fulfilling. According to Hassan (1982) different ways of bringing up sons and daughters prepare girls for taking up a secondary role later on without protest. The assimilation of particular gender roles help create more female differences. Expectations associated with a role at times conflict. If one's personality or attitude clashes with the role one must play, the result is the conflict of person and role. Intra role conflict arises when there is disagreement about how a given role should be played and inter-role conflict occurs when there is incompatibility between requirements of two different roles. Men and women by and large assimilate gender roles tending to create differences: Considerable consensus has emerged that men behave more aggressively than women, tend to have keener visual spatial skills, to be less empathic and less sensitive to non-verbal cues, to exert more social power. By and large they tend to conform to gender-role stereotypes which are beliefs regarding the characteristics that are perceived to be generally true of men and women. It has also been observed that our social ideas are often self-confirming. People expected to exhibit certain behaviour may actively adapt their actions to fit this image. As a matter of fact, however, basically, these differences are generally small, and are outnumbered by the ways the two sexes are alike. But differences, not similarities provoke the mind. Moreover, individual differences tend to be ignored and generalizations based on averages in gender differences often become the basis for assumptions regarding

characteristics of persons. This approach ignore the fact that in considering psychological rather than physical differences, the overlap between the sexes is generally far greater and the variation within each sex far exceeds the difference between the sexes. It is little wonder that when the scholar and critic Samuel Johnson was asked whether man or woman was more intelligent he replied "which man? which women?. According to different approaches to socialization there are three major theories in relation to which social development of gender roles may be considered. These three theoretical systems will be considered in the light of research or observations by psychologists.

### **5.3 Psychodynamic Identification Theories**

Sigmund Freud suggested that children's relationship with their parents had a tremendous impact on their developing personalities through the process of identification. Through this a person internalizes a set of behaviours, attitudes and characteristics exhibited by someone very close to the individual. Freud suggested that as children usually identify with the same sex parent so incorporation of appropriate gender role behaviours into their own identity systems take place. That is why girls generally come to model their mothers. Girls with employed mothers typically have higher and more non-traditional occupations than girls with unemployed mothers (Elder & MacInnis, 1983). Education of mothers and their attitudes and behaviour regarding gender appropriate functioning are reinforced through media and books. Exposure to gender-role stereotyped models both within and outside the family, in schools and amongst peers are also important sources of identification which provide a source of motivation leading to make gender-role identity a central aspect of self-schemata.

Over the last few decades theorists subsequent to Freud have reworked and modified the identification theories with respect of their assumed origins but have shared an acceptance of the concept of identification as a critical building block of social development.

#### **5.3.1 Social Learning Theories**

According to a social learning theory, imitation of same-sex individuals, through observational learning and role-modelling can better explain gender-role acquisition than an assumed process of identification. This approach also suggests that reinforcement histories (the pattern of rewards and punishments) one has encountered in the past in response to one's behaviour are adequate explanations of the gender-role. Parents and society reward children for exhibiting behaviour appropriate to their gender and are not rewarded or punished for engaging in behaviour stereotyped as more appropriate for members of the opposite sex. Anticipated rewards and punishments in turn, also shape behaviour. This is generally geared to the social context. Patterns of interpersonal behaviour and

attitudes are also influenced by rewards and punishments. For instance, one potential behaviour learned by traditional women is that we should not be too assertive in interactions with men. Also, some studies have suggested that reinforcements in early childhood have shaped an attitude or a fear which characterizes the adult female in her interaction with the opportunities in her life. Empirical findings suggest sex differences in competence and independence training resulting in lowered self confidence and dependence on others by the girl child which may continue into adulthood. (Haffinan, 1974).

### **5.3.2 Social/Cognitive Development Theories**

Drawing upon the work of cognitive psychology and social cognition some psychologists have become interested in ways in which children guide their own social development, through active involvement in learning. They also refer to the process of self-socialization whereby an individual seeks to become like some ideal person. This active process is also the basis for creation of gender-role stereotypes, and scripts (beliefs regarding the appropriate sequences of actions for men and women in a setting requiring gender-role stereotyped behaviour). These concepts, once formed, provide a framework for interpreting what they see and for predicting future behaviour. Understanding of these scripts, however, is tempered by their overall level of cognitive development as well as availability of appropriate social stimuli. Social cognitive structures will change only when the social context supplies information that is incompatible with the existing social schemata.

### **5.4 Changing Gender Role.**

The culture of a society consists, in part, of a particular set of arrangements for solving the problems of the members of the society. This culture is also influenced by the changing needs of the society and is also subject to influences through contacts with other cultural groups. The borrowing of one society from the culture of another are not, however, blind. Only those aspects are adopted which help members of a society as a means of reaching their goals. Gender roles are also subject to change due to variations in life styles resulting from changed requirements in day-by-day business of living and working together in society. Once a group accepts the change it is transmitted to the younger generation as the "approved" way. Some of the factors that have been found to diminish sex differences thereby fostering a convergence of gender roles are fewer children, longer life; educational and economic status of women and working mothers. Socialization practices also accommodate to the reality of the new adult roles adopted by males and females to suit the new demands. With respect to the changes in traditional roles brought about in America the 1980 president of the American Psychological Association had stated that the psychology of women was attempting to undo the sex-role stereotypes which affects expectations, self esteem and behaviours. However, the description and explanation of traditional gender roles

does not necessarily imply a social prescription of what ought to be. Each society determines its ideological underlying beliefs, norms, and values with respect to gender roles which are compatible with practical realities. Such arrangements, however, are not consciously and systematically sought. It is important to recognize the diverse ways in which various subcultures and sections of society try to cope with their problems, question traditional solutions and invent new modes of dealing with them. The culture of a society is not a static construction in time and space, it is rather, in a state of constant change. For example, a study by Franz and McClelland (1979) suggested that in USA during 1960s, the women's movement may have both empowered and provided opportunities and satisfactions, for women who had been activists. This implies that the effect that social attitudes and society's general acceptance of women's being in the workplace is likely to be related non-traditional women's occupational status, job satisfaction, and adjustment.

Change in gender roles amongst various regions and sub-cultures in urban and rural differentials are partly attributable to cultural factors, urbanization, industrialization, spiralling cost of living, encouraging greater participation of women in economic activities other than in the agricultural field, increased opportunities for female education and technical or vocational training. While the impact of these changes in the life styles of men and women is evident the world over the pace and form they have taken have not been identical in each developing country or for that matter in all areas or classes within the same country. While changes are more evident in the urban area, it cannot be said that the rural areas have remained untouched. Even in the same geographically defined area, the changes are uneven amongst the different strata of society. For example, in a field research on developmental social stereotypes (Hassan 1982) a comparison in relation to Pakistani rural woman from four provinces divided into five subgroups comprising landlords, farmers, poor, service and overseas workers groups was made. It was noted that the last two were more positive towards women than the rest. This related to status and behavioural norms of girls, their education and rights to take up jobs, political and marital expectations. The overseas workers were found to have radically higher achievement orientation. It was observed that the composition of this group indicated that there was a predominance of a younger age group of relatively higher income level amongst them and their wives had also a much higher educational level than the national average in both urban and rural areas. The influence of these sociological factors on attitudes towards women's social and educational development points towards their significance in planning special programmes. Failure to take these into account may influence their outcomes in a negative direction. In a research conducted to study the personality dynamics of Pakistani women in general and rural women in particular (Hassan 1982). Achievement motivation as well as problems and aspiration levels were assessed in addition to developmental social stereotypes, aspiration levels and self concepts. Achievement data were analyzed in relation to provincial differences as well as village strata. Sindhi women had the highest mean scores and Baluchi women had the lowest while NWFP and Punjab were found to be in the middle.

The Balochi women were also found to have a substantially low level of aspiration and were living in the bliss of ignorance and apathy, Seema Pervez (1985) also confirmed that in the text-books of Baluchistan the Achievement motive was lowest. As compared to landlords, farmers, the poor group, and the service group scored higher on Achievement but the overseas workers group was the highest amongst the subgroups. Further analysis of this group indicated that number of literate amongst them was 75 % with those above secondary level education being 50%. The educational level amongst their women was also high. Their average income was slightly lower than the income of the landlords but exceeded those in the other categories. Also a very high percentage (about 73% of them belonged to the ages 15-35 years. They were holding positive attitudes-towards women as were the service group when compared with the rest of the three groups. It was interesting to note that while the workers were from varied socio-economic backgrounds they had one unique distinction that they were highly achievement oriented. The factor of overseas workers represented a new phenomenon in the village community so it turned out to be a good example of how as a result of changing demands and cultural exposures concomitant changes take place in the form of new gender and family roles, new socialization patterns and a decrease in the gender gap.

Another study by Meher Bano (1990) was conducted to evaluate sex differences in achievement motivation of Pakistan male and female students with the specific objective of assessing female motivation to avoid success. According to Horner (1969), in women the desire to achieve is often contaminated by "the motive to avoid success" based on their fear that success in competitive achievement situations will lead to negative consequences, such as unpopularity and loss of femininity. Replication by Meher Bano of Homers study through content analysis of stories, however, did not support this hypothesis. This was constrained to reflect the changing expectations about women's role in our society. However, this trend needs to be substantiated by further research covering different strata of our society. In fact, in no culture have gender roles been eliminated altogether. Whether or not they should be eliminated, modified or retained is an ideological rather than a scientific question which should be determined by each culture, keeping in view the interaction between biological and cultural contexts that are suited to its societal needs and values. These are intimately linked to the doctrines of equal rights of women in enjoying the opportunities, vocational training and development of ones potential for self fulfilment. Although these philosophic positions and aspirations of women's equality are important background factors in a society, their full expression in action is a more complex phenomenon entailing reconciliation of incompatible social, economic and religious traditions. For instance the Asian tradition subscribes to a very sharp division of labour amongst sexes giving rise to disparities in educational standards, training, employment opportunities and the

patterns of social approval and disapproval for various forms of self expression and self fulfilment enjoyed by men and women.

There is a great deal of evidence that females have greater affiliative needs than males and therefore the conflict between affiliation and achievement will probably occur more often for women. Moreover, professional women generally allow their concern with affective relationships to interfere with full use of their cognitive capabilities. This affiliative need may be particularly related to achievement patterns rooted in early experiences when little girls are learning that effectiveness —and even safety — lie in their affectional relationships (Hoffman, 1972):

## **5.5 Role of Media**

In the development of attitudes and Gender Role, media is a very effective agent and catalyst for change. It has a built-in appeal to change and preserve certain cultural aspects. It is a cultural force which not only reflects the social reality but also modifies it to suit the demands of the age. The contents of the media act as a model and source for identification with certain role models as well as gratification of certain psychological needs. The appeal of certain types of media contents for specific segments of society reflects the psychological needs and the social demands of that particular group. The acceptance and popularity of certain contents of the - media is based on the process of identification which refers to "a persons involvement in the depicted events, through a psychological relationship with one or another of the participants" (Weiss 1968). The person starts participating, at imagination level, in the event, feelings and behaviour that relate to the object of identifications. This process also provides one an opportunity for imitating or modelling the behaviour of the portrayed characters, or acting as a source of confirmation or reinforcement for his own behaviour.

As the individual develops, his cognition, feelings and action tendencies with respect to various objects in his world become organized into enduring systems called attitudes. These three components of attitudes, in fact, become interrelated and mutually interdependent. The cognitions regarding an object are influenced by his feelings and action tendencies towards that object and, in turn, any changes in his feelings and action tendencies. The object of an attitude may be anything that exists in his psychological world. The cognitive component of an attitude consists of the beliefs of the individual about the object. The most critical cognitions incorporated in the attitude system are evaluative beliefs which involve the attribution of favourable or unfavourable, desirable or undesirable, "good" or "bad" qualities to the object.

The feeling component of an attitude refers to the emotions connected with the object. The object is either pleasing or displeasing, liked or disliked. These emotional loadings give attitudes their insistent, stirred up, motivating character.

The action tendency component of an attitude includes all the behavioural readiness associated with it either in a positive or in a negative direction.

Since media are a significant source of identification and psychological gratification the nature of images of women projected through the characters depicted through them is a good source of gaining psychological insights into the kind of influences society promotes through these means. Social scientists, researchers and international agencies working for the emancipation and welfare of women recognize that the media constitute a major factor in preserving the traditional sexist attitude towards them. This stereotyped image promotes concepts which are prejudicial to aspirations of women for improved status, rights and participation in society.

There have been a number of studies in the world both in Western and Eastern countries using content analytical research of television, radio, films, novels, and text books. They have found certain commonality in the themes portrayed in them which emphasise women's interests and functions as revolving around traditional spheres of home, and family romantic conflicts. McNeil (1975) in a content analysis study "Femininity and Television Series" found women depicted in traditionally female occupations and men were shown in high prestige fields. No women in the sample exercised direct authority over an adult man and they were shown as far more personally and less professionally oriented. Also, the major issues of feminism were generally absent in the dramatic programmes.

Gallagher (1979) quotes Kuchenhoffs study who analyzed the dramatic programmes in German TV and found them as corresponding highly with the images portrayed in American programmes. Also women's physical attractiveness was overemphasized.

E.R Bhatt and the women's group (1976) explored "The Image of the Women in India (Gujrati and Hindi) Films" Their findings revealed that women were portrayed as utterly dumb or incapable of having any independent opinion. Women's helplessness and timidity is portrayed in a salient way shown and their main interest has been shown to be the marriage only. Contemporary women's potential is not focused.

Similarly, the print and broadcasting advertisements in USA have revealed that working women were under represented. Women were-mostly used to sell products to both sexes on the basis of their sex appeal.

In the developing countries, because of limited physical reach of television, radio has been the only medium for illiterate masses. In India radio programmes stress was on entertainments items for women-folk rather than on educational contents.

An analysis of mass media appealing to women by Seema Pervez (1984) explored the psychological needs and environmental factors contributing to the central characters in selected novels, magazines, radio and TV plays and feature films popular in urban middle class Pakistani women. The image and the personality dynamics of women which emerged as a result of the Murray's Need Press analysis of the theme and the outcome of the popular media suggest a picture with the following characteristics: She is economically unproductive and is not expected to take work for its own sake. She is docile, helpless, indecisive, fatalistic and is liable to act according to social expectations. Romance and marriage are primary concerns for her and beauty rather than rationality are projected as her main qualities. A comparative analysis of the images of women which emerged through the hierarchical interaction of Needs and Press in different media suggested that the final average rank of Achievement need is fifteenth out of twenty psychological needs and the Affiliation press ranks highest in the different media.

It may be noted that the interplay of strong Needs and environmental Press determine the patterns of personality dynamics. The concept of Press represents the effective or significant determinants of behaviour in the environment which facilitate or imbeds the efforts of an individual to reach a given goal. For understanding an individual's behaviour it is necessary to know not only their motives or directional tendencies but also a picture of how he views or interprets the environment.

Seema Pervez (1968) in content analysis of fictional stories included in secondary school Urdu and English textbooks also concluded that the Achievement motive was set at a lower level in this material. In most of the stories the goals attained are considered as due to outside help or chance rather than to personal capabilities. This type of fiction is considered to be conducive to fatalistic attitudes which further lower down the achievement level.

There have been several attempts by researchers to analyze the imaginative contents of folk tales children's stories and other written material through the technique of content analysis. This enables one to look at various aspects of human motivation

as indicated in such material. McClelland in his famous book *The Achieving Society* (1961) has summarized the findings of researches conducted by him and his group. They concluded that the Achievement motive expressed by pre-literate and contemporary societies correlated positively with the rate of economic growth of these societies. A study by Seam Pervez (1983-84) using content analysis of textbooks and fiction popular among secondary school students strongly supported the hypothesis generated by McClelland. Another interesting aspect of Achievement motivation found in children's fiction was that in one third of the Achievement oriented stories the personal capabilities were considered helpful in the process of good achievement.

## **5.6 Evaluation of One's Capabilities, Successes and Failures by Self and Others**

Every person growing up in his society necessarily passes through a variety of group pressures which play a major role in shaping his or her habits of conforming or of resisting. As part of our cultural conditioning and learning process we may come to accept the idea that conforming is appropriate or otherwise to a given social role. In our culture, and in many others there is a marked difference in the definition of gender roles with respect to conformity. Femininity is associated with promulgation of the conventional values of the culture, dependence on the group, submissiveness to the male, avoidance of disagreement with others for the sake of avoiding group disharmony. Conversely the typical masculine role stresses independence, self sufficiency, self assertion and decisiveness. It may be noted, however, that though males and females do differ on the average in conformity proneness, there are still very large individual differences in conformity in both groups. While research evidence offers support for the proposition that conformity tendencies are significantly related to enduring personality factors in the individual similar to the "Persuasible personality", their influence may be considerably modulated by variations in specific situations in which such behaviour is elicited.

One of the major influences in the assessments we make of ourselves is the feedback provided by others. The aspirations, achievement and performance of women are also very much responsive to the standards of stereotyped expectations encountered by them in the familiar, educational and societal setting. Learning to fulfil these expectations is considered good and violating them is deemed as bad.

Parents often have different aspirations for sons and daughters, with respect to personal characteristics, educational attainment, and occupational roles. For instance parents generally stress the importance of educating their sons rather than their daughters and would be more willing to make family sacrifices for this purpose. These differential parental behaviours and expectations are likely to affect

the performance and the duration of schooling children receive well as the encouragement they get for taking up different academic courses.

Traditionally, women have been discouraged to achieve success in Professions. By and large they perceive their own success as a function of their husband's achievements, consequently they are very much under represented in high status jobs. One of the most important variables responsible for differences between sexes in achievement related activities seems to relate to the way in which the social environment has been structured. The generally accepted expectations about what men and women are supposed to achieve affect their self concept and performance.

Motivational approach to account for sex differences suggests a personality difference particularly prevalent in women whereby they tend to avoid success and, therefore, miss out or delimit opportunities for achievement. On the other hand a cognitive approach accounts for some of the differences in attributions that are made by men and women in terms of gender schema theory. A schema is a set of cognitive structures that help us make sense out of events and stimuli that exist in the environment. Gender is a salient and constant feature in the child's life and is interpreted by him in terms of appropriate behaviour. Numerous qualities are associated with each gender. For example "strength" is applied to boys and "nurturant" to girls. Opportunities for success and failure and therefore, likely to be interpreted in terms of male or female schema. Since success is part of the male schema they are likely to seize opportunities that lead toward it while women may "strive" for failure.

The Situational approach has argued for a Situational interpretation which emphasizes the demands of the immediate 'situation that force males and females to choose the most appropriate behaviour. Cultural expectations provide the feedback to individuals which in turn help shape behaviour. Social comparison considerations imply that conforming to what we have been told to expect is the surest way of receiving the feedback we seek. Everyday observations as well as research studies indicate differential attributions of success and failure in performance by men and Women. In general, women appear to be the victims of a "worst of both worlds" arrangement. When they do well, their success tends to be explained (by both men and Women) as due primarily to things beyond their control, such as luck or an easy task and when women do poorly their failure is explained in terms of an underlying lack of ability. Men on the other hand, seem to get the best of both the world's: their success is due to talent, their failure due to circumstances beyond their control. Most of these attributions can be related to stereotypic expectations. We have seen how the individual tends to accept the values of his reference groups as his goals and judges himself in terms of his success

in achieving them. Krech et al (1962) suggest four sets of factors which determine the acceptable level of achievement of these goals.

- i) understanding of his capacities and limitations help set these levels.
- ii) the awareness of what levels of achievement are possible.
- iii) the individual's own history of success or failure.
- iv) the status of the individual in the group.

In the light of the above mentioned factors we can now see more distinctly how specific characteristics of females self conception and self evaluation help account for the particular goals they develop. There is generally a selection of and emphasis on such goals that have relevance for a particular self picture. Self evaluation consists mainly of comparisons with reference groups, groups to which one belongs or those to which one aspires to belong. Self evaluation depends heavily upon achievement of goals reflecting group values and is liable to have bearing on one's feelings of self esteem. A great deal of thought and action is driven by the desire to enhance self esteem and to remove, threats to self esteem. Also, the self image of a person is chiefly founded upon the perception of how others react towards him. The process of self appraisal is affected not only by this factor but also by his relative status—higher status leads to higher levels of aspiration and is further encouraged towards making a high self evaluation.

## **5.7 Summing up and Conclusions**

In studying the actions and behaviour of people it is important to understand that their wants integrate and organize all the psychological activities in directing and sustaining it towards a goal. The degree to which wants are regularly satisfied or frustrated helps determine their strength and primacy. Man is not just the product but the architect of his environment and the self plays a crucial role in motivation. However, the self is also a product of social interaction and tends to be defined in terms of group membership. Self evaluation depends heavily on achievement of goals which reflect group values.

The impact of culture is enormous. It reflects his environment, both physical and social and in turn shapes it. The regulatory beliefs, values norms and premises are, however, not static as the culture of a society is subject to change as traditional solutions to problems of living are no longer effective in meeting changing needs of society. Attitudes which are enduring systems of cognitions, feelings and action tendencies are also subject to cultural influences and Situational variables.

Socialization which refers to all of the processes by which individuals are shaped by their social system is of crucial importance in this regard.

Achievement motivation and attitudes amongst females have been explored in relation to gender--the transformation of sex through the prism of society as these are subject to the impact of culture. Gender role stereotypes which are beliefs regarding the characteristics that are generally perceived to be true of men and women have a significant effect in promoting differences amongst sexes. Through processes of identification with parents of the same sex and other role models projected through the media they act as critical building blocks of social development. These concepts, once formed often help in process of self socialization and also provide a framework for interpreting what they see and of predicting future behaviour. Gender role acquisition also takes place through observational learning and role modelling. Rewards and punishments are also geared to the social context. Roles prescribe the behaviour expected of people in standard situations. Differential attributions of success and failure by oneself and others are also explained by gender related preconceived notions.

Changes in gender-role can take place as a result of availability of appropriate social stimuli and context to promote change and cognitive skills to imagine different roles. Opportunities to observe examples of gender-role transcendence especially through family, school, peer and media can also influence such change. Differential treatment and opportunities by parents, teachers and society play a major role in creation of differences in skills, personality characteristics and interest patterns. Changes taking place in societal structure and opportunities bring about differences in the way men and women are treated and also in the subjective psychological states of women i.e., their self evaluations, self esteem, aspirations, beliefs, life goals, values and norms. All these factors contribute towards development of achievement motivation and attitudes. Traditional gender-role stereotyped occupations and life styles are subject to change as power resides both in persons and situations. We create and are created by our social worlds. It is high time that sex stereotyping is reduced by learning to deal with others as individuals, with their own unique personalities and qualities. The social and cultural context must provide equal opportunities to all human beings, irrespective of sex, for development of their qualities in a manner that promotes the individual as well as societal needs. Unless all members of, a community actively participate in social

development efforts they cannot contribute significantly towards bringing about social change in keeping with national goals.

### **Self Assessment Questions**

- 1 What are the ways through which motivation can be inferred?
- 2 What role does learning play in goal seeking behaviour?
- 3 How does the nature of self determine the organization of the individuals wants, goals and concerns?
- 4 Illustrate how is it possible that a given attitude may:
  - a) give meaning to an individual's world
  - b) may serve various goals
  - c) may arise as a result of different wants
  - d) is responsive to information that is given out.
- 5 How is achievement motivation subject to the influences of cultural pressures? Exemplify this with reference to females in primary group situations.
- 6 Does culture contribute to or just mirror male-female differences? Explain and exemplify.
- 7 Explain how our social ideas regarding women's characteristics and potentialities become-self-confirming.
- 8 Do you support the view that mass media 'helps promote traditional stereotypes regarding women? Give examples.
- 9 Explain the development of gender roles in the light of major theoretical systems. What are the critical similarities and differences amongst them in the variables they consider important in socialization.
- 10 Can gender roles be transcended? Suggest some practical measures for bringing about positive changes in keeping with Pakistani sociocultural and economic goals.
- 11 Illustrate and explain which factors are liable to influence.
  - a) One's level of aspiration for achievement.
  - b) One's assessment of one's own performance.
- 12 Describe some of the sex-trait stereotypes associated with male female characteristics. How can they be eliminated through family and educational settings?
- 13 Is there a sex difference in achievement related characteristics? If so, in which respects has it been found and what could this be attributed to?

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**Unit – 6**

## **PERCEPTION OF SELF**

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## **INTRODUCTION**

The word perception comes from a Latin root which means "to take", or "grasp", or "seize". It is used in every day language to mean recognition, awareness, or understanding.

Perception is a process that give coherence and unity to sensory input. This is the most general sense of the term and covers the entire sequence of events from the presentation of a physical stimulus to the phenomenological experiencing of it. Included here are physical, physiological, neurological, sensory, cognitive and affective components. The study of perception always begins with recognition of the fact that what is perceived is not uniquely determined by physical stimulation but, rather, is an organized complex, dependent upon a host of other factors.

Self perception is a theoretical point of view which argues that people's attitudes, beliefs and self-characterizations are, to a considerable degree, determined by observation of their own behaviours. The underlying principle is simple: just as we tend to judge the feelings of others by what we see them do, so we infer our own attitudes by self-observation.

## **OBJECTIVES**

In this unit on self perception, you will start understanding the question like "Where does an individual acquire a sense of self? How do we know what we believe? How well we can perform?, and, generally speaking, what kind of person we are? Social psychologists have discovered a great deal about the ways we know ourselves and how we evaluate ourselves. We will begin by considering how our self-concept emerges from our interactions with other people. Then we will consider the way we make attributions about ourselves based on our behaviour and the ways in which our self-perception can be biased. We will also study the application of perception and attributions in the social behaviour especially with reference to females and males achievement, such as, attributions of success and failure, different environmental opportunities for females and males, social approval and social rewards, etc.

When you have finished studying this unit you should be able to know:

1. How self concept develops through interaction with others.
2. How certain beliefs about self are formed.
3. The implication of attribution and perception in every day life of the individuals.
4. How biases are formed in a society.
5. The implication of social approval and rewards on the growing child.

## **6.1 Perception of Self: Understanding and Judging One's Own Behaviour**

Who is the person you think about most? If modesty were to be cast aside, most of us would have to admit that it is in thinking about ourselves that we invest the most time and cognitive energy. Following are the processes involved in stepping back and viewing ourselves as social objects.

### **6.1.1 Using Others to Understand Oneself**

When a politician travels around the city meeting his workers, he often asks, "how am I doing"? While this question might be dismissed as campaign rhetoric, it illustrates an important constant in human curiosity: The need to evaluate one's own abilities, opinions, and emotions.

According to an early theorizing by Leon Festinger (1954), there is a basic drive to evaluate one's opinions and abilities, that is, a "need for social comparison". In many cases, there is objective, physical evidence which can provide us with answers. For instance, if I think my route from home to the center of town is shorter than the route my neighbor takes, I can objectively determine whether my opinion is correct by using my car odometer and measuring the two routes. But suppose I want to find out how good a singer I am. Here objective means are lacking.

According to Festinger, I will probably turn to "social reality" to satisfy my needs for evaluating my ability. Social reality refers to understanding that is derived from how other people generally think, feel, and view the world. Hence, if I turn to social reality to discern my performance, I will examine how others sing. But who is included in an individual's social reality? It would not help me very much to compare myself to a very dissimilar other. I already know I don't sing as well as Mehdi Hasan. For me the most relevant information would come from similar others, that is, people who have taken lessons for about the same amount of time, who are adults, and so forth. Thus, Festinger suggests that the people with whom we compare ourselves will be similar to us.

The fundamental propositions of the theory that people have basic drive to evaluate their opinions and abilities and that they use the social reality provided by similar others have stood up well over time (e.g., Goethals & Darley, 1977, Olson, Ellis, & Zanna, 1983, Trope, 1980). For instance, Zanna, Goethals, and Hill (1975) led men and women to compete on tasks that were supposedly related to the sex of the person carrying out the task. As would be expected from social comparison theory, both the men and women tried to learn how others have done to determine how well they had performed. But men were most interested in finding out how other men

had performed, while women wanted to know how other women had performed. Hence, similarity of others was an important factor in who was used as a comparison person.

### **6.1.2 Perception of Ones Emotions**

One important outgrowth of the notion that we evaluate our abilities and opinions by comparing them with those of others is the idea that the way we identify our emotional states might also be influenced by comparison with others. The basic procedure is to present a subject with a stimulus representing another person and ask the subject to identify the other's emotion. A number of studies have generally agree on finding people expressing seven categories of emotion. These are: (i) happiness, joy; (ii) surprise, amazement; (iii) fear; (iv) sadness; (v) anger; (vi) disgust, contempt; and (vii) interest, attentiveness. Usually in others perception, the positive emotions, such as, happiness are easily distinguished from negative ones, such as fear, anger, and disgust. The other categories are difficult to perceive. While in self perception all the categories are easily perceived.

### **6.1.3 Self Attributions: Bern's Self-Perception Theory**

Attribution is a process by which people make inferences about the causes of behaviour or attitudes. According to Bem (1972) people come to be aware of their own dispositions, emotions, attitudes, and other internal states in the same way they learn about other people, that is, through observation of behaviour. The theory suggests to the extent that situational cues or past experience is irrelevant, weak, or ambiguous, that after viewing one's own behaviour, a person applies the same attributional principles that are used in attributions of others to identify the causes of the behaviour one has observed in oneself.

A few examples may clarify Bem's theory. If you saw someone patiently helping an old lady cross a busy road, it would be reasonable to infer that the helper has regards, or perhaps is favourably disposed toward the elderly. But suppose that the person is you, and at an intersection you find yourself helping an old woman cross the road. When you look back to analyze your own behaviour, Bem's theory suggests that you would make the same kind of attributions about your own behaviour that you did about other's behaviour i.e., you have regards, and hold positive attitudes towards the elderly.

In sum, Bem's theory of self perception indicates that people apply the same sort of attributional principles to their own behaviour that they use with others.

Through this process, they are able to understand and infer how they feel and why they have carried out certain actions.

## 6.2 Attributions for Ones Own Success Or Failure

One of the most frequently heard complaints made by college students to their professors is that a given test was "too hard", and that the student did poorly because the test was not properly written. Professors commonly respond, that students had not studied hard enough, or (in a view that they may keep to themselves) that the students just weren't smart enough:

If we analyze the two sets of reasons for the students poor performance, we can see that they are based on two kinds of attributional explanations. The students' explanation is based on the situation (an external cause), whereas the professor's explanation is based on factors that are dispositional (or internal) to the students. Bernard Weiner who explained the causes of success and failure, suggests that the internal-external dimension is a crucial one for understanding causal attributions (Weiner, 1974; Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, & Rosenbaum, 1972). Weiner also adds a second dimension: The stability of a given cause. He suggests that causes are either viewed as stable or unstable.

If we chart the two dimensions, which are considered independent of each other, we come up with the model shown in figure 1.

Figure. 1

*Weiner's Model of Casual Attributions of Ability*

	Unstable	Stable
Internal	Effort	Ability
External	Luck	Task Difficulty

Source: Adopted from *Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Read, Rest, & Rosenbaum (1972)*.

As can be seen in the model, when performance is due to stable and internal causes, it is attributed to ability; when it is due to stable and external causes, it is attributed to task difficulty, when it is unstable and internal, the attribution is made to effort, and when it is unstable and external, it is made to luck.

What is of particular importance about this model is that feelings of pride and shame over one's performance are influenced by whether one attributes

performance to internal or external causes. Pride over successful performance is enhanced when people perceive of their success as due to internal qualities (ability and/or effort) but undermine it, if it is attributed to external events (luck and/or task difficulty). On the other hand, feelings of shame increase when people perceive the cause of failure to be internal, but decrease if they attribute their failure to external causes.

While the internal-external dimension is particularly influential in terms of people's feelings of pride or shame regarding their performance, the stability dimension is related closely to a person's expectations regarding his or her future performance. For instance, if performance is attributed to stable causes (ability and/or task difficulty), people will tend to hold the expectation of similar performance in future, where it is good or bad. On the other hand, attributions based upon unstable factors (effort and/or luck) are apt to indicate that future performance is likely to vary from earlier success or failure.

If we integrate these predictions, we come up with the model shown in figure 2. The figure shows the two sorts of reactions that follow from a given attribution for success or failure.

Figure 2:  
*Affective and cognitive reactions to success and failure*

	Source		Failure	
	Affective Reaction	Cognitive Reaction	Affective Reaction	Cognitive Reaction
Ability	Increased pride	Expectation of similar performance in future	Increased shame	Expectation of similar performance in future
Effort	Increased pride	Expectation of possible changing in future performance	Increased shame	Expectation of possible changing in future performance
Task difficulty	Decreased pride	Expectation of similar performance in future	Decreased shame	Expectation of similar performance in future
Luck	Decreased pride	Expectation possible changing in future performance	Decreased shame	Expectation possible changing in future performance

Source: Bar-Tal (1978)

The figure 2 illustrates the emotional reactions and expectations that would be indicated as a function of the kind of attributions that are made to success and failure. For instance, a person who attributes successful performance to efforts is likely to experience pride (since effort is internal), but is also likely to expect the possibility of change in the future (since effort is an unstable cause.).

This model has been verified in a number of studies (Bar-Tal, 1978). Moreover, and perhaps most importantly, the kinds of expectations that people have as a result of their attributions are reflected in the success of their future performance. For example, Dweck (1975) found that students who tended to attribute their successful performance on a task to effort were apt to work longer and harder on a future task than those who attributed their success to ability. Analogously, those who attributed failure to lack of ability were likely to spend less time at future tasks than those who attributed their failure to lack of effort.

Weiner has also expanded his model to include a third dimension "controllability". According to Weiner (1982), we perceive some causes as within the individual's control and others as beyond their control. Perceived controllability or uncontrollability can coexist with any combination of locus of control and stability e.g., an unstable internal cause like effort is controllable i.e., a student can try to work hard, or can decide not to. A stable internal cause like ability is often perceived as within the person's control e.g., a born genius. Sometimes, though, ability is perceived as controllable. Some highly successful people are perceived as having developed their abilities through long and patient hardwork.

### **6.2.1 The Stability of Attributions**

One important outgrowth of work on attribution of success and failure is proof that people have stable patterns regarding which factor they use to explain their performance. For instance, some people tend to attribute success to internal causes while others habitually attribute success to external causes. Moreover, the kind of attributions one tends to make influences one's preference for different kind of tasks. Thus students who characteristically attribute their performance to ability prefer tasks in which competence is necessary to succeed, while those who ,characteristically attribute their performance to external factors such as luck prefer tasks in which chance plays an important role (Fyans & Maehr, 1979). These choices have a perpetuating quality to them. If people prefer ability oriented tasks and choose to perform them more frequently, they are likely to do better on those tasks, given their greater practice and motivation. Conversely, those who prefer and choose tasks in which luck plays an important role may eventually perform more poorly in ability oriented tasks, given their lower practice and motivation levels

regularities related to membership in particular demographic groups, most likely due to difference in socialization and family rearing practices. For instance, attributional styles have been found to differ across sexes. Females tend to attribute poor performance to low ability, although interestingly, they do not attribute good performance to high ability, but rather to external causes (Dweck & Bush, 1976; Frieze, Whiteley, Hansua, & McHugh, 1982). Such attributional patterns clearly are maladaptive, since they suggest that poor performance cannot be improved in the future. Therefore, women might tend to foster a more negative self-image with regards to their own skills and self-confidence in using them. After all, if people assume they have low ability, they will feel even future hard work is not going to ensure success. Thus, people who characteristically attribute their failures to low ability are unlikely to be particularly motivated to improve their performance through greater effort in the future.

### **6.3 Acting on Perception and Attributions: Application to Social Behaviour**

The decisions that people make to form impressions of others and attributions regarding their behaviour, sometimes there is a possibility of bias inherent in such decisions. These bias affect the way in which people interact with others.

#### **6.3.1 Expecting Much or Little of Others**

Teachers' attributions and perceptions regarding student can lead to the formation of differential expectations. Teacher treat their students according to these expectations. What happens next is obvious. The students respond differently to the teacher because of the treatment they have received. They do better when they are treated as bright pupils, and worse when they are not. Their performance is thereby brought about because of their teachers behaviour.

The transmission of expectation is not a one-way street; it is not just a matter of teachers communicating their expectations to students. Researches also shows that students transmit their expectations about teacher competence. or incompetence to teacher, and actually make teachers they think are competent appear more competent and those they think are incompetent act accordingly (Feldman & Prohaska, 1979; Feldman & Thesis, 1982).

Expectation effects are not limited to the classroom, but can also be found in other everyday contexts. For example, in a study by Snyder and Swann (1978) subjects were told that a partner with whom they would be holding a discussion was either hostile or non-hostile. In reality, this label was assigned randomly and bore no relation to what the person was like. But assigning the label did have an effect upon

the people who were told about it. They acted in accordance with the label, speaking more loudly to the supposedly hostile partner and how did the partner respond? As you might have guessed, he actually began to act hostile as the discussion proceeded.

What happened next was even more startling. The partner who had the "hostile" or "non-hostile" label unknowingly planted upon him was introduced to a third party, who also knew nothing about the label. At this stage in the experiment, the partner actually acted hostile to the new person. Thus, the chain that had been started with the initial labeling was complete. The first person acted as if the partner were hostile, which led the partner to act congruently with the expectation. And this behaviour continued, even when the original holder of the expectation was no longer present.

In sum, the impressions and attributions that people form and believe about others can have important consequences on the nature of subsequent social interaction. Similarly, the nature of our self-attributions can be an important determinant of even our own future behaviour.

### **6.3.2 Self-Handicapping: Protecting Ourselves from our Failings**

Most of us experience anxiety and insecurity about the extent of our own abilities from time to time. One way of dealing with this uncertainty is to develop what Edward Jones has called a "self-handicapping strategy" (Jones & Berglas, 1978). To use this strategy, we try to set up circumstances in which we can blame future failures on external causes, as opposed to our own internal lack of ability. For example, consider the student who says, "I don't think I'm going to do very well on today's test; I was up all night feeling upset". If, in fact, he doesn't do well, he will be quick to attribute his failure to being up all night and not to any internal shortcomings.

An interesting point about self-handicapping strategies is that they - seem to prevent the negative attributions that we have formed about ourselves from making us feel bad. Paradoxically, they may also lead us to continuing, unending failure since we are always setting up conditions under which it is nearly impossible to succeed.

There are two versions of the self-handicapping strategy: (1) behavioural self-handicapping, in which people actively contract genuine handicaps, such as, fatigue, alcohol, drugs, lack of punctuality, inattention, etc., and (ii) self-reported handicaps, in which people simply claim to be ill, anxious, shy or victim of traumatic incidents, when such states might excuse poor performance. In both

cases, the key motive is the self-protective or ego-defensive one of avoiding a stable, uncontrollable, internal attribution for failure, such as inherent lack of ability.

A study by Smith, Snyder, and Handelsman (1982) provides a clear example of how psychological symptoms may serve as part of a self-handicapping strategy. These researchers hypothesize that highly test-anxious people who report chronic anxiety whenever they take a test may use their symptoms in a self-protective fashion. In support of this logic, highly test-anxious people tended to exaggerate their reports of how anxious they felt when taking a test on which they were told that anxiety could adversely effect performance. On the other hand, reports of anxiety were considerably lower when they were told that anxiety had not effect.

Interestingly, when subjects were not allowed to use anxiety as a self-handicapping strategy (i.e., they were told anxiety would not have an effect), subjects employed another self-handicapping strategy: they reported putting in lower effort than when they were told anxiety could have a deleterious effect. It appears, then, that they may have substituted one handicap for another.

The work on self-handicapping provides a good example of how work on attribution theory can help us understand people's behaviour in a variety of situations. Moreover, it is clear in indicating that the kind of attributions we make about others' past behaviour can shape how we behave toward them.

#### **6.4 Achievement of Women and Men**

There is an accurate picture of the way in which we have structured our society, with women as keepers of the house, and men as bread winner and the head of the household. There have been a thousand varieties of these demands of the society e.g., wives should stay modestly within doors. The other ranges from the way a tea cup was balanced to the prohibition on a wife's smoking or on daughter's cutting her hair. It also happens that girls attempting to plan their lives may stop every other moment to say, "But men don't like women who ...". However, these phrasings are cultural devices which maintain a working equilibrium between male and female roles. In a study of adolescent girls from a variety of backgrounds, it was found that many struggled with the concept of combining marriage and career. In the absence of social supports, it is often the latter that is compromised. For example, a girl of 15 years old from lower middle class spoke of her career plans:

May be a school teacher or something like that. Hopefully I will be married with some children. That's what I want to do, I guess that's the way I've been brought up. I don't want to have any career.

It was because of this young women's early socialization to domestic life plan. One of the first suggestions put forward to explain the apparent discrepancies between the sexes in achievement arousal was that perhaps women and men had the same amount of achievement motivation but that this motivation required different forms of arousal for men and women. Perhaps women's achievement motivation could be more easily aroused in areas that were stereotypically feminine. It has been observed that men, but not women, responded to the achievement involving instructions stressing leadership ability. Researchers reasoned that leadership was often thought of as a masculine prerogative.

It has also been suggested that males are task oriented and females are person oriented: that males tend to be intrinsically interested in the task at hand, whereas, females tend to focus on the praise and approval for doing well that they obtained from others. Such a hypothesis would explain the apparent male female discrepancies in achievement motivation and behaviour by saying that females simply find ways to gain approval and praise that do not necessitate engaging in achievement oriented behaviour.

A review of studies on the socialization of the achievement motives in females (Stein & Bailey, 1973) casts a new light on the issue of affiliation versus achievement. These authors point out that females attach higher value to performing well in sex role appropriate than in sex role inappropriate areas of achievement. They argued that in contrast to intellectual, artistic, mechanical, and athletic skills, social skills are somewhat unique in being viewed as appropriately feminine in our culture and suggest that this fact, rather than the presence of an overpowering affiliation motive, is the factor that underlies women's responsiveness to achievement arousal instructions emphasizing social skills. This argument is supported by Stein and Bailey (1973) in their study. Although they agree that achievement striving and social activity appear to be more closely related for females than for males, they take issue with the interpretation of this relationship that states that females' achievement behaviour is motivated by a desire to be liked, accepted or praised rather than by an internal desire to meet some standard of excellence. Instead they suggest that attainment of excellence is often a goal of both males' and females' achievement efforts but that the particular areas in which these efforts are directed are determined to some extent by cultural sex roles. For women, one of the Most important area of achievement is social skill.

#### **6.4.1 Self-confidence in Achievement and Fear of Success**

Horner (1970) tries to explain the phenomenon that women do tend to inhibit their achievement strivings in sex inappropriate areas by focusing on the anticipated consequences of success. It should perhaps be pointed out here that men may also shy away from achievement in sex inappropriate areas. However most areas that are considered "achievement" areas in our culture seem to be defined as appropriately masculine. Men, therefore, are less likely than women to find themselves in a situation where high achievement is sex inappropriate.

According to a widely accepted analysis of achievement motivation (Atkinson & Feather, 1966), the motivation to achieve that is aroused in a given situation depends on three things: the strength of the person's achievement motive (a personality disposition that, according to Atkinson and Feather, is comprised of both "hope of success" and "fear of failure"); the probability of success; and the incentive or reward value of success in that situation. Using this approach, it can be seen that even if a person has a very strong motive to achieve, s/he may not be motivated to achieve in a particular situation if, for example, s/he perceives that the consequences of such success would be negative (i.e., if the incentive value of success is low).

Horner (1968) hypothesized that since achievement in many areas is considered sex inappropriate for women, a woman achieving in one of these areas might feel she was losing some aspect of her femininity. Thus, success for a woman would be an ambivalent experience, having both the positive consequences of self respect and external recognition and the negative consequences of feeling untrue to one's "womanly" nature and smarting under the real or imagined disapproval of others for being "unfeminine". if the negative consequences appeared to outweigh the positive ones, motivation to achieve in a given situation would be low. It should be noted that here again is a theory that, to some extent, pits a woman's desire for love and approval against her need to achieve excellence.

Horner's theory arose from her own observations that successful career women often seemed to feel a need to demonstrate that beside being successful in their vocational sphere, they were also successful as "real" women, that they were loving mother devoted wives, marvelous cooks, and good house keepers. It seemed, somehow, that society in general and even women themselves found it unacceptable for a woman to be outstandingly successful at her career if that led to the slightest suspicion that she was giving short shrift to her "proper" feminine role. These observations led Horner to postulate that for women, the negative consequences of success in terms of loss of femininity would often outweighs the

positive consequences, leading to a situation where the women developed a motive to avoid success. (This does not imply that the woman would be motivated to fail, just that she would avoid being outstandingly successful.) Since success for a man rarely implies any loss of masculinity, Horner predicted that a motive to avoid success would appear much less frequently in men than in women (although in certain situations, men too may anticipate negative consequences of success and therefore avoid succeeding).

Satisfaction in roles depends in part on the congruence of the role with social norms. Helson and Picano (1990) examined the effects of traditionality of role on the women in a longitudinal sample. The findings indicated that acceptance of traditional values was socially rewarded, especially for women, that resourceful people tend to work for, and to gain social rewards; and that people who receive support tend to be optimistic and well regarded. When wives approved of their present roles, and perceived that their husbands also approved, they tended to plan to continue in these roles (see also Anila, 1992).

In Pakistan Hassan (1982) carried out a study on the rural women. It was aimed to find out what are their expectations of themselves as compared to men and whether or not they have a desire to achieve better life for themselves. The subjects were administered a set of story type problem. Each problem had two possible solutions. One which was affiliation oriented and the other which was achievement oriented. As it was the first study of its kind, therefore in the absence of any norms the subjects were compared amongst each others. The provincial data indicated that Sindhi women had the highest mean scores on Achievement test and the Baluchi women received the lowest scores. There was significant difference in the scores of Sindh from NWFP and Baluchistan, Sindh being high on achievement score. Punjab and NWFP were found to be in the middle. Whereas Baluchistan differed from all the rest of the provinces by scoring lowest score and this difference was statistically significant. When the data were compared with overseas workers. It was found that the wives of overseas workers are also highly achievement oriented.

#### **6.4.2 Origins and Maintenance of Differing Patterns of Achievement: Sex Role Socialization**

Different theoretical perspectives provide various explanations for the patterns of achievement followed by women and men. The Freudian perspective might say, for example that women are oriented toward producing and rearing babies of an unconscious need to make up for their anatomical "inferiority" to men. Horney's

version of the psychoanalytic perspective, on the other hand, suggests that men pour their energy into achievement and creativity as a way of sublimating their own unconscious envy of women's ability to bear children.

One biological perspective suggests that men and women develop different cognitive styles and that sex differences in some cognitive abilities can be traced to the influence of genes or to the sex differences in the brain. It also suggest that there may be physiological reasons why men tend to accomplish more than women in fields such as engineering and mathematics, whereas women cluster in fields that require verbal and/or social skills. But we have noted that men and women would not vary in their achievement patterns as widely as they do unless some other powerful factors were at work. These are (i) the socialization of children and young adults into sex roles and, (ii) the social structure in which women and men live out their lives.

Much of the work on socialization and achievement emphasizes the importance of the parent-child relationship in the development of the achievement motive. The conclusions of these studies about the best way to socialize a child to be achievement oriented differ for boys and girls. One child-rearing dimension in which this seems to be particularly true is that of parental warmth versus hostility. The warmth end of this dimension refers to the behaviour that can be characterized as accepting, affectionate, approving, understanding, child centered, and the like, whereas the hostility end is characterized by the opposite type of behaviour. In his review of studies in this area, Manley (1977) concludes that parental warmth appears to operate differently on the achievement orientation of boys and girls. In general, studies showed that parental warmth was more often positively related to males achievement orientation than to that of females. Whereas high levels of maternal Warmth and affection were associated with strong achievement orientation in boys, moderate warmth and slight hostility related most strongly to girls' achievement orientation. A number of explanations for this paradoxical situation have been offered. It has been suggested (Crandall et al., 1960) that girls who do not receive as much maternal affection turn to achievement as an alternate source of satisfaction (again, the suggestion that girls' achievement motives comes out only when not in conflict with the affiliation motive). These authors have also suggested that the less nurturant mother may be more involved with her own achievement and thus be providing her daughter with a female achieving role model. Hoffman (1972), on the other hand points out that some of the research results themselves may be suspect on the grounds that behaviour labeled "hostility" when directed toward girls might not be so labeled when directed toward boys. Finally, it must be pointed out that if parental warmth does relate differently to girls' and boys' achievement orientation, the existence of relationship does not specify causality. It is just possible that whereas parents who see a daughter becoming

independent and achievement oriented may withdraw a small portion of warmth from her, a son exhibiting similar behaviour may be the recipient of extra praise and approval. In other words, nurturant parents may be reinforcing accepted cultural definitions of "healthy" behaviour for girls and boys.

An important factor in the socialization of achievement, which touches on the child's relationship with parents as well as other adults is the presence of models. It cannot be denied that in our culture, there are fewer female than male role models in many areas of achievement, and this fact may be crucial in producing some of the apparent sex differences in achievement orientation. Where females are provided with achieving female models, their attitudes toward careers, success, and so on seem to be favourably affected. Stein and Bailey (1973) suggest that maternal employment in middle class families is associated with high educational and occupational aspirations for daughters. Baruch (1972) showed that daughters of working mothers regarded the professional competence of women more highly than did those of non-working mothers. A study of college women by Stein (1973) found that maternal employment was correlated with high achievement motivation, dominance, and endurance.

A number of studies carried out in Pakistan also found that the students whose mothers are educated have more modern sex role attitudes. (Anila, 1992b; Anila, Tariq, & Ansari, 1995).

The net effect of current "normal" sex-role socialization practices seems to have been the creation and maintenance of a stereotype that views men as more achieving, active, striving, intelligent, powerful, and independent than women (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972). While Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) suggest that both men and women who deviate from accepted sex roles in their interests are devalued.

What effect does the presence of these stereotypes have on the way women and men react to their own achievement? First of all, it seems to have a differential effect on the two sexes' expectations for success. A series of studies by Crandall (1969) provides ample evidence that females from childhood to adulthood have lower expectancies for success in a variety of tasks than do males. The studies also showed that males tended to overestimate their future performance, whereas females underestimate how successful they would be. Stein, Pohly, and Mueller (1971) found that presented with the same tasks girls predicted better performance for themselves when the task was labeled "girls generally do better", and boys expected more success when the task was labeled "boys do better".

If sex-role stereotypes help to create different expectancies of success for males and females, just how do these differing expectations relate to actual achievement? In the first place, a number of studies have shown that people who expect to do better on an achievement task actually do perform at a higher level (Battle, 1965; Feather, 1966, cited in Frieze, 1975). In the second place, a person's performance expectations probably influence the way s/he assigns causality in trying to explain success and failure. For example, an unexpected outcome is perhaps more likely to be attributed to luck. Such attributions, in turn, seem to influence the individual's response to success or failure, will s/he, for instance, try extra hard next time or give up?

From the review of different studies, it is evident that socialization into sex roles is an important factor in determining the achievement orientations of females and males. Let us assume for a moment that these socialization variables could be controlled so that females and males in our culture received equal parental, peer, teacher, and even media approval and encouragement for success. Would sex differences in achievement pattern quickly disappear? We think not. The basis for this conclusion lies in the way our society is structured, and this issue is explored in the following section.

Properly motivated, prepared, and socialized though an individual may be to succeed in a given area, there are many external obstacles that can prevent or slow down that success. Years ago Woolf (1929) suggested that great women writers would remain a rare breed until women were routinely granted "room of their own" in which to work, and Nochlin (1973) argued that any person who has tried to complete a major intellectual or creative task while keeping an eye on two small children will immediately understand how much it is difficult to accomplish anything worthwhile without a minimum of privacy and an interrupted time, commodities that are in short supply for the average family women.

It can be seen that families, business and other institutions have been structured to support male but not female achievement patterns. Traditionally, the successful male has had a supportive wife who was largely responsible for details such as laundry, meals, baby-sitters, and keeping the house clean while he focused his energy on his career. Today, even the extremely rare career woman who should find herself the lucky participant in a role reversal by her relatives, colleagues, and acquaintances.

The dual career couple quickly finds that society is reluctant to make adjustments for it. Large companies routinely transfer their employees with the expectation that their families will automatically be able to follow them. Career women are also asked quite oftenly that why she wants to work anyway and is even scolded for

neglecting her children and husband. No wonder so many women decide to set career ambitions aside and stay at home with their children.

On the whole, it seems that even if a woman is very achievement oriented and has the advantage of a good education, she is still likely to meet more obstacles in her quest for success than does the average man.

### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. What is a perception of self?
2. How can a person perceive his own emotions?.
3. Describe Bem's self-perception theory.
4. What is the stability of attribution?
5. How a person determine the responsibility for success and failure?
6. What is the Weiner's Model of Causal Attributions of Ability?
7. How our perceptions and attributions determine our social behaviour?
8. Why there are so few successful women?
9. How do different expectancies of success for males and females are related to actual achievement?
10. What effect does the presence of sex-stereotypes have on the way women and men react to their own achievement?
11. What are the factors that contribute in the different achievement patterns for males and females?
12. Are there any sex differences in the drive to achieve?
13. Is it true that two sexes have a natural tendency to pour their energies into different enterprises, women into child rearing and men into achieving mastery, success and recognition in the world outside of home and family.
14. What is sex-role socialization?
15. Explain fear of success.
16. Describe external obstacles with reference to women's achievement.

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**Unit – 7**

# **FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION**

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## **INTRODUCTION**

In proceeding units, you have gone through with the various aspects regarding the 'Psychology of Women' such as evolutionary phases, genetic composition, influences of family, group, teachers and mass media in the development of the personality. It would be appropriate to discuss the trends and practices employed by the family in connection with the imparting of the education to the off-springs.

## **OBJECTIVES**

This unit covers the following purposes:

1. To explain the importance of family life education to pupils and people at large.
2. To distinguish between similarities and differences in physical growth of girls and boys
3. To point out the similarities and differences in the sexual development and response cycle.
4. To reflect the significance of sex education and access to information regarding one's bodies, moods and urges.
5. To consider and analyze the fears regarding growing up apprehensions and taboos.

## **Introduction**

Today's children are tomorrow's citizens if brought up properly by the family and society they may be creative, inventors, artists, scientists, historians, scholars, parliamentarians, engineers, doctors, skilled workers but on the other hand they may turn out to be non-social, anti-social or psychopaths if handled carelessly. It becomes imperative to know for the interested people about what child/children are? How imaginative they are? What leads them to happiness and what makes them angry? What steps should be taken to make them the best person according to the norms of morality, society and legality.

Definition of family life and its developmental pattern "He that hath wife and children hath given hostages to fortune" Francis Bacon.

"The ancient trinity of father, mother and child has survived more than any other human relationship. It is the bedrock underlying all other family structure" Ralph Linton.

The family may be defined as a marriage with the addition of pregnancy, in other words family refers to a limited social system composed of two individuals and their offspring. Family constitutes of persons united by ties of marriage, blood adoption, who generally share a household, interact with each other and maintain a common culture.

"The actual unity of family life has its existence not in any legal conception, not in any formal contract, but in the interaction of its members"

"The family lives as interaction is taking place only does when it ceases" Burgess  
It is important to note that one day children shall follow examples instead of their advices. As the gardener is responsible for the products of his garden, so the family is responsible for the character and conduct building of its children.

The offspring of any species is not as helpless at birth as the child of mankind. It is noted that the offspring of most species mature physically within twenty four hours of their birth but it takes many years for the offspring of human being to take a start. After birth, he/she is helpless lot who is completely at the mercy of his/her family. Family, if proper care is adopted to handle the child, he/she is turned to be well groomed but if he/she falls the victim of meagre environment, malnutrition, abuse, neglect, battering, ill-health, illiteracy, bad temperaments of the family, split-up homes etc. then no good is expected from him/her

Every child has a right to be both well fed and well guided? You handle the child until the age of ten after that you only influence him. Therefore one important way for you to help your child grow up is for you to grow up first which may be obtained if you have the knowledge of how to bring up child effectively.

'Family life education' is a process of providing awareness to the significant members of the family (who are responsible for bringing up the child and to whom the child is fully dependent) about the various aspects of growth, development and characteristics, during the various stages of development.

### **7.1 The Similarities and Differences in Physical Growth of Girls and Boys**

Since this unit is about family life education and growth patterns it is expedient to briefly describe the various terms used in this unit such as (a) family, (b) education, (c) growth and development.

#### **Family**

As you all know that in its strictest sense it refers to the fundamental kinship unit. In its minimal or nuclear form the family consists of mother, father and offspring. In broader usage it may refer to the extended family which may include grand parents, cousins, adapted children. etc. all operating as a recognized social unit. It is fully responsible to look after the affairs of the child in all spheres of life.

Family in some form or another is a universal institution and is the nucleus of civilization. At the micro-level nothing is so soothing to develop self- esteem of mankind as that of family whereas at the macro level the strength of a nation is derived from the integrity of its families.

The family is the most important institution in the socialization of the child. Awareness of cultural patterns of a society are imparted through the family to the child family relations is imparted to the family and child, this not only alleviates problems confronted by the society but also facilitate and strengthen the cohesiveness of society.

It would be appropriate to touch the concepts of 'growth and development' so that you may be able to consider their significance with reference to family life education.

#### **Growth**

Refers to those structural and physiological changes that take place within the individual during the process of development. It makes out differentiation and refinements of parts and functions as organism matures.

## **Development**

Refers to the maturation of the organism. It deals with any changes in a person's physical and non-logical structures behaviour and traits that, emerge in orderly ways and are reasonably enduring. It is biological in nature and largely dictated by genetic process.

In general practice, 'Growth' and 'Development' concepts are treated synonymously. In this unit term 'development' would be used for both. Human development may be divided in the following categories:

*Physical Development:* This deals with the changes in body structure and function over time.

*Personality-Development:* Refers to the development of personality.

*Social Development:* Refers to change over time in the way an individual relates to others.

*Cognitive Development:* Refers to gradual, orderly changes by which mental processes become more complex and sophisticated.

If parents are able to study these aspects of development they would be able to understand and analyze the growth patterns of their children.

## **Self Assessment Questions**

1. From personal experience, defend the thesis that an individual may possess different "ages".
2. Cite cases to illustrate the fact that children respond differently to similar situations in the same family, state, why?
3. What would be your recommendations to improve human race?
4. List the important community agencies that influence family life education. Cite examples of cases in which environment influences (a) hinders (b) helps growth.
5. What is needed to ensure that a child should be born healthy?

After brief introduction of the important concepts, let us discuss similarities and differences among boys and girls at different ages/group. The broad definition of a child ranges from birth upto approximately 15 years, covering the developmental stages upto the "Adolescent" period. We would consider the physiological and behavioral changes as well as the proper steps to be adopted for psychological guidance, keeping and maintaining wholesome family relations.

## 7.2 Similarities and Differences Among Boys and Girls

### Infancy (Birth to 1 year)

The period starts at birth and ends at 1 year. According to Vangham III and Behrman M.D's (1983) the various characteristics of an infant girls and boys are cited hereunder.

#### Physical Development

1. Dramatic & marked between birth 2 years
2. Immediate physical adjustment after birth is ensure the neonate's survival
3. Resumption of the developmental and growth processes, begun prior to birth, that follow this initial adjustment period these include (a) the establishment of respiration & circulatory changes (b) stabilization of body temperature (c) initiation of organ-system functioning (d) taking nourishment.

#### Characteristics of Neonate

*Length and Weight:* Males weigh more and have greater body length than female neonates. They are expected to loose 6 to 10 ozs and gain starts in about 10 days.

*Appearance:* Not very attractive, wrinkled and covered with verix, a cream like substance skin is loose & in folds. It is soft and covered with down like hair.

*Eyes:* New borns sometimes seem to be squinting Eye movements are slow and uncoordinated. Tear glands are non-functional at birth. Eyes seem greyish blue final eye colour emerges later.

*Physiological Adjustment, Respiration, Circulation., Temperature, Regularation, Digestion and Elimination:* An average new-born infant whether girl's or boy's weight is approximately 3.4 kg (7 1/2 pounds) in western countries and 3 1/4 kg (6 1/2 pounds) approximately in Pakistan, boys being slightly heavier than girls. Approximately 95% of full term new-born infants weight between 2.5 kg to 4.6 kg (5 1/2 pounds). The length averages are about 50 cm (20 inches) approximately, 95% of infants being between 45-55 cm (18 to 20 inches). The head circumference average about 35 cm (14 inches) both in girls and boys. This knowledge will help family to keep the norms in mind while, evaluating their babies.

*Behaviour:* The new-born infant has an unexpected capacity for interaction with the environment and a complex neurologic organization.

*Social and Mental Development:* Critical periods, — attachment, according to Harry Hallow; Establishing basic trust, Establishing independent functioning, Autonomy, Toilet training conflicts.

*Cognitive Skills.* Sensorimotor., object permanence using existing reflexes, communication skill, language development, and. visual differences. Six levels of arousal may be produced among new-born infants both boys and girls which are: (a) deep sleep; (b) sleep with rapid eye movements REM); (c) drowsy state; (d) a quiet, alert state; (e) an awake and active state; (f) and a state in which the infant is crying intensely. It is in the quiet and alert state that new-born girls and boys are capable of their most complex interactions with the environment.

*The auditory behaviour:* of the infants (both boys and girls) is also complex. They give attention preferably to high pitched or fernak voices and can be shown within the first week of life to turn their heads more readily towards the sounds of their own mothers voices than to voices not previously heard, and even to be able to distinguish a familiar sound in that maternal voice.

*Loss of weight immediately after birth:* The most fullterm infants begin their birth weight within 10 days. The full term neonate will generally double the birth weight by 5 months and triple it in I year This is applicable both to girls and boys and family should be aware of these changes for better rearing.

*Length:* The normal infant increases during the first year by 25-30 cm or 10-12 inches. (The average length at birth is 45 cm or 19 inches). Any deviation from such norms may affect the healthy development of the child.

*Psychology:* The most critical need of the new-born infant (both boys and girls) is for the establishment of adequate respiratory activity with effective exchange of gases. The rate of established respiration varies from 35-50 per minute with brief excursions outside this range relatively common.

*The Cardiac Adjustments:* The neonatal period are often associated with transient cardiac murmurs. The heart rate ranges from 120 to 160 per minute. The heart of the new-born boys and girls often seems large with respect to the size of the chest when measured by 'adult standards.

The activity of new-born boys and girls directed toward meeting their nutritional needs includes, crying when hungry, the child, is known to turn his heads towards the stimulus and to 'root' about for the nipple or other stimulus placed close to the

oral area (rooting reflex) and sucking, gagging, and swallowing reflexes. He/She is capable of manifesting nausea and of vomiting.

The infant (both boys and girls initially expresses hunger at irregular intervals, but during the first week will fall, reasonably comfortably, into patterns of feeding intervals ranging from 2-5 hours. No schedule of feedings will meet the demands or needs of all infants. If infant and mother are close to each other during the immediate postnatal period, as in rooming-in arrangement the opportunities for comfortable meeting of the baby needs are optimal.

The circumference of the head, which is 34-35 cm at birth increases to approximately 44 cm by 6 months and to 47 cm by 1 year. The circumference of the head is somewhat larger than that of the chest at birth, but the two become approximately equal at 1 year. There seems to be no difference in size of head between girls and boys during this period.

Baby teeth appear in most infants between 5-9 months. The first to erupt are the lower central incisors, followed by the upper central and then the upper lateral incisors. The lower lateral incisors follow, the first baby teeth molars, cuspids, and 2nd molars appearing in that order. By the age of 1 year most children have 6-8 teeth. Occasionally an infant has as few as 2 teeth at 1 year without other evidence of growth disturbance. Family is responsible to handle them if it has proper information about these developments.

The Psycho-Social Development refers the personal, social and moral development of the individual. The salient features of an infant (both boys and girls) may be studied through the positive as well as negative outcomes. Infant's needs for nourishment, care, familiarity are met; parental responsive-ness and consistency are the positive elements which will develop a sense of trust if his needs for food and care are met with comforting regularity. Closeness and responsiveness on the part of the parents at this stage contributes greatly to infants sense of trust (Limb 1982, Bretherton and Waters 1985).

If, at all, family is ignorant of psychological needs of an infant the sense of mistrust, lack of self confidence and suspicion will develop which would be carried to the next stage.

### **7.2.1 Family Life Education During Infancy Stage**

As you know that although human development in general shows a higher degree of consistency there exist wide differences among the children towards these

characteristics. The child whose physical development is slow, his intellectual, social, personal and moral development will also face a set back, resulting in the deterioration of self-image, lack of realistic thinking and so on; and vice versa who seems to be physically developed beyond his years also needs special attention.

At birth the mother is the first person to have contact with the infant or neonate, the neonate is totally dependant on the mother. It would be a good idea to state facts based on real life situations not on abstract ideologies, thus applies both for the role of mother and father. Parents are the primary agent of socialization. The idea of parent-child relation is called a unidirectional model of socialization. That is the parent is the model for the child to copy.

Michael Lamb indicates that:

- 1) infants are attached to both mother and father initially,
- 2) mother approaches the infant differently from father. She is more tender to infant than father,
- 3) mother holds the child more than the father in care giving activities.

Therefore, mother role is to:

- 1) look after the infant with great care and interest,
- 2) provide love and affection to infants, this is the expressive role,
- 3) to care for the petty needs of the infant. She should feed the child on time. Fixed quantity of milk preferably her own should be given at fixed intervals. If on health grounds she has to abandon for breast feeding, she should feed the child with sterilized bottle and then to shift him on to cup feeding at the age of four months. She should start introducing solid food after mashing them properly,
- 4) to handle the infant with care as the bones are delicate, a mother should dress him/her loose and comfortable clothes so that the infant can move freely,
- 5) to observe the actions of the infant minutely in order to find how he/she expresses various needs,
- 6) to vaccinate him/her on scheduled time,
- 7) to show great love, affection and concern for the infant constantly, and never give the impression that child he/she is unwanted
- 8) to provide the infant with ample rest and sleep,
- 9) to cover her/him with appropriate dresses according to the climatic conditions,
- 10) infants nappies should be changed as soon as it gets wet,
- 11) to take infant for outing daily for sometime, as it is necessary for the normal healthy development,

- 12) to start toilet training during this stage. This is a controversial issue.

The role of 'father' is also important. He is the person who is most significant to the infant after the role of his mother. He has a significant role to play in the psychosocial development of the infant.

He is the symbol of power in power in Pakistan.

According to Gelinas (1979), and Sena (1969), father is expected:

- 1) to help the mother of the infant in all the affairs,
- 2) to apt due love, respect and affection to infant's mother,
- 3) to cooperate with her in handling the child,
- 4) to be concerned about the Welfare of the infant and jointly reach decision concerning the child,
- 5) to help the infant's mother and to accompany her for physical checkups of the infant if so required,
- 6) to provide love & affection to the infant,
- 7) to spend sufficient time in the home with the family, the infant, and to have physical contact with child,
- 8) to avoid disputes and quarrels if possible,
- 9) not perform any acts that are hazardous to the child's health.

According to studies by Ribble, Spitz and Gold, Bowlby, it is found that father is:

- 1) Bonding between mother and child,
- 2) invokes security in the family being supportive to wife,
- 3) helps in the preparation for the child's birth,
- 4) provides assistance to wife in deciding whether to have a child and to accept the role,
- 5) includes new born into family group,
- 6) establishes family boundaries to building a coherent life style,
- 7) decides whether to play the role of authoritarian, democratic or permissive parent.

After you have read about the various characteristics of infant's life his needs, and roles of parents, let's us have an exercise on it.

### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. Describe what you consider to be an optimum environment for an infant's physical development?
2. How do emotionally maladjusted adults affect the emotional life of an infant?

3. When do you not know the cause, to what extent can you judge the emotions experienced by an infant from observing his expressive behaviour?

Let us switch over to the next stage that is Toddler and study its characteristics as well as the role of parents to be offered for his brought up.

### **7.3 Toddler (1-2 Year)**

The 'toddler' is a child who is older than one year and lesser than 2 years. The height of the child during 2<sup>nd</sup> year is four fifth of its adult size. Formula of weight is age (months) plus 9 kilograms divided by 2 or age (month) + 11 pounds.

During the 2nd year 8 more teeth erupt, making a total of 14-16, including the first baby molars and the cuspids. The order of eruption may be irregular; the cuspids commonly appear after the first molars have erupted.

During the 2nd year the infant moves from an awkward upright stance in which he or she could walk with support to a high degree of locomotor control.

By 15 months infants are generally able to walk alone, and by 18 months may run stiffly.

At 18 months the infant can climb stairs, with one hand held, going one step at a time, and by 20 months he or she is able to go downstairs, one hand held, and may be able to climb stairs holding to the stair railing. By 24 months the child is able to run well and has generally outgrown the tendency to fall. Between 18-24 months children normally enter the 'run about' age. They are able to move quickly from a safe environment into danger and will need constant surveillance.

With the 2nd year infants enter a period when they will vigorously explore environment. They can empty wastebaskets drawers, and shelves and may try to examine everything within reach. Above all, household poisons, drugs, and chemicals must be kept in place inaccessible to them.

The normal children have a vocabulary of 10 words by 18 months and at 24 months they are able to put 3 words together.

During the 2nd year the child becomes highly imitative and increasingly aware of and responsive to other persons including siblings. Until the end of the 2nd year, however, play is generally solitary and consists in active manipulation of available objects.

By 18-24 months most children are able to verbalize their toilet needs and can be helped at this time to follow acceptable social patterns in meeting them.

The need for children to submit growing control of their bodies and of their environments to social and cultural pressures often produces frustration and anger. Temper tantrums, breath holding spells, and less drastic outbursts are common consequences. These episodes respond best to management by a firm and loving parent who is able to set the necessary limits for the child.

The psycho-social development of toddler marks the beginning of self-control and self-confidence. Young children are capable of doing more and more on their own. They must begin to assume important responsibilities for self-care like feeding, toileting, and dressing. They strive towards 'autonomy'.

### **7.3.1 Family Life Education During Toddler Stage (1-2 Years)**

Male toddlers get more attention in Pakistan, they become more autonomous dominant, confident, win more favour of others whereby girls get less attention by family members and become shy and submissive, lacks self confidence and self control.

Parents should take full care of their children. They should be protective but not overprotective. If parent do not maintain a reassuring confident attitude and do not reinforce the child's efforts to master basic motor and cognitive skills, children may begin to feel shame; they may learn to doubt their abilities to manage the world on their own terms. Those children who experience too much doubt at this stage seem to lack confidence in their on powers throughout life.

The role of infant's mother is to cover the switches with tape; to keep the domestic and other utensils out of the reach of infant; to protect them from injuries as these may lead to permanent damages to the body; be cautious during insecticide sprays; to provide them with non-hazardous plastic material games; in case of delayed speed, the experts to be consulted.

Gelinas (1979) and Senn (1966), suggest that during toddler stage, the role of 'Father' would be to assist mother in such a way which would promote love, to think of the toddler in such a way as if he is the integral part of the family, to behave in a polite manner and not to reinforce the unwanted habits like unnecessary weeping, naughty attitude etc., to behave open-mindedly, in a sincere way. Parents should adopt the preventive measures and in the case of some sort of disease, rush him to the experts for treatment, to remove everything that may cause harm to the child,

to avoid domestic strifes and keep the home atmosphere pleasant, otherwise it would be likely to create restlessness and suffocation in the child, who in turn, would fall prey to emotional instability, the roles of parents may be changed from time to time or both can participate fully in performing a task for the child. After the description of roles of the parents let's have some questions on it.

### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. It is true that children are unpredictable. You never know why they are going to catch you by the hair? Comment with the help of experiences you have had with them in an around.
2. A child's ear is a delicate instrument that can't hear a parents shout from the next room, but picks up the faintest tingle of the ice-cream man's bell. If this statement is true, quote examples after observations from daily life.
3. Name some of the ways in which a toddler may express his/her anger at mother, father, siblings and other's who are insignificant.
4. Show by examples that children may be forced to engage in activities for which they are not yet physically ready.

Now we study the various characteristics of Elementary School childhood or Early childhood (2 to 6 years). The characteristic during this stage needs the attention of parents. In case of unawareness, parents may spoil the child.

### **7.4 Early Childhood (2 - 6 Years)**

This, period starts at 2 and ends at 6 years. Until the end of the 2nd year, however, play is generally solitary and consists in active manipulation of available object. During the 3rd year of life children move increasingly into play activity with other children in which other children are involved. By the end of the 4th year the child is increasingly engaged in activity with other children in which the group begins to enact imaginative roles and activities. This is the age in which boys and girls learn about gender differences and difference sex-roles.

According to Nelson, in the cases of weight and height during 3rd, 4th and 4th year of life, these are relatively steady at approximately 2 kg (4.5 lbs) and about 6-8 cm (2 1/2 - 3 1/2 inches) per year, respectively. Most children are lean relative to their earlier body configuration.

By 2 1/2 year the 20 baby teeth have usually erupted. During the rest of the pre-school period the face tends to grow proportionately more than the cranial cavity and the jaw to widen preparatory to the eruption of permanent teeth.

The refinement of motor skills includes alternation of the feet in ascending stairs by 3 year and alteration in descending stairs by 4 years. By 3 year most children can stand for a short period on 1 foot; by 5 year they are generally able to hop on one foot and soon to skip.

By 3 years a child may be able to imitate crudely the drawing of a cross:

By 4 years the cross figure may be copied without previous demonstration, possibly as a copied without previous demonstration, possibly as a 4-element figure. A 4 to 10 year old child can make correctly proportionate copies of the figures and for the first time becomes able to handle figures with slanting lines, such as triangles. A diamond-shaped figure may not be accurately and proportionately reproduced until the 6th year.

By the age of 3 years, the child is able to count 3 objects correctly; a 4 year old, 4; a 5 year old, 10 or more.

By 3 years most children can state their ages and also whether they are boys or girls. With the increasing awareness that they are destined to become larger children and adults, children in the later pre-school period begin to seek adequate models from whom to learn. The most accessible models are, of course, the parents and other members of the immediate family. The child's imperfect perception of the realities of the future often engenders conflicting pressures and anxieties. A child of 4, 5 or 6 year assumes those habits of thought, feeling and action that surround his or her growing perception or fantasy as to the future. Inside the home the child; fantasies about the future roles include playing the part of the parent of the same sex, and there may be increasing curiosity and concern as to what the realities of this role may be.

Nelson's Encyclopaedia of Paediatrics further states that outside the home, concerns and fantasies about future roles are likely to be expressed in dramatic play. The interest of children of this age in sex differences which often appears as questions inside the home, may commonly appear in the form of sex play among children of each sex, which is entirely normal.

During this age the girl and boys learn sex-role norms. Boys immitate their fathers and girls their mothers. The games of girls are different which are related to dolls, or indoor, they try to copy the mothers in all spheres of life such as in household chores, social activities, dresses, whereas, boys copy their fathers. They play outdoor games, follow the footsteps of fathers, household chores are different where they do not help in cooking like girls or serve food. The social activities of

boys become wider and wider. They don't confine themselves to walled homes but take refuge in the company of friends, play outdoor games, and so on.

Changing patterns of parent-child interaction and of other relations in and out of the home often leave elements of hostility or aggression in the child's behaviour, thoughts and fantasies. Anxieties may be expressed as nightmares or as fears of separation, death or bodily injury. Children with serious problems may display bed-wetting or thumb-sucking, speech or learning difficulties, inability to enter into a comfortable sharing relation, temper tantrums, or other behaviour appropriate to earlier developmental levels.

By the age of 6 the child begins to develop the ability to translate abstract conceptions into figures and structures e.g. the sound of T into the letter T, the idea of two into the figure 2 etc.

As concerned with psycho-social development, Erikson states that Initiativeness' is the basic character trait of the child which adds to autonomy, the quality of undertaking, planning, and attacking a task for the sake of being active and on the move. But with 'initiative' comes the realization that some activities are forbidden. At times children may feel torn between what they want to do and what should (or should not) be done. The challenge of this period is to maintain a zest for activity and at the same time to understand that every impulse can not be acted upon.

Children in early childhood can imagine themselves playing various adult roles and begin to test their powers as a boys 'grown up' tasks. The 4 year-old girls perched on a chair stirring cookie batter or solemnly passing tools to a parent who is fixing a broken bicycle is involved in important work. Children at this stage imagine what the future might hold for them. Play is an important form of initiative, and pretend games are common.

Children at this stage require confirmation from adults that their initiative is accepted and that their contributions, no matter how small, are truly valued. These children are eager for responsibility. Successful growth during this period rests upon the sense that they are accepted for themselves. Again, adults must tread a fine line, this time in providing supervision without interference. If children are not allowed to do things on their own, a sense of guilt may develop; they may come to believe that what they want to do is always 'wrong'.

### **7.4.1 Family Life Education During Early Childhood Stage (2-6)**

It is hard, if not impossible to get a child to pay attention to you, especially when you are talking to him of something for his own good. The child normally pays attention to parents while they are whispering. In order to catch the attentioner to arouse the curiosity of the child, parents may use indirect techniques. According to Gelinas role of extended family and family are:

- 1) Children love to break things - especially rules. Reasoning with them may help in the conformity.
- 2) Provide your child with religious education.
- 3) Children at this stage ask odd questions. An unusual child is one who asks his parents questions they can answer. Otherwise consult the counsellor.
- 4) Treat children as an individual with respect and love.
- 5) Parents are embarrassed when their children tell lies, but some times its even worse when they tell the truth. So avoid such behaviour before the children that you would want to hide from others.
- 6) Positive reinforcements should be given. Parents should avoid punishments.
- 7) All children do not disobey their parents. Some are never told what to do. Therefore it is expected that parents should provide them an ample knowledge and guidance of "do's" and "don'ts" through logical arguments.
- 8) It is appropriate to teach children the dignity of labour. Let them handle the sharing of responsibility in the household chores.
- 9) It is duty of parents to avoid tension - provoking atmosphere in the family. To be brought up in a tension - free environment improves self confidence.
- 10) Parents should not snub their children even if they reputedly ask questions on the same issue. It should be kept in mind that the children of this age have short-term-memory.
- 11) Schooling is the basic right of every child. Children should be provided with formal education, because that is their basic human right.
- 12) If a child asks questions about life or death the answers given should be realistic.
- 13) Avoid discriminating between girls and boys.
- 14) Adopted children should be dealt with great care such children should be reassured of that fact they are very special.

#### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. Using specific examples trace the growth of social awareness from birth to the age of six.
2. What are some of the specific functions that must mature before a child is ready for reading?

3. Team up with another person to observe the same child for at least 20 minutes. Then, without conferring with each other, prepare a detail written report of your observations separately. What differences are noted?

After this we study the various aspects of Elementary and Middle School years (6-12 years).

### **7.5 Elementary and Middle School Years (6-12 Years)**

This stage covers age between 6 and 12 years. This is a period of early and middle school. The early school years are a period of relatively steady growth ending in a preadolescent growth spurt at about the age of 10 in girls and about 12 in boys. The average gain during these years is about 3 - 3.5 kg (7 lbs) per year and in height about 6 cm (2 1/2 inch) per year. Growth in head circumference is slowed, the circumference increasing from about 51 cm (20 inches) to 53-54 cm (21 inches) between the ages of 5-12 years. At the end of this period the brain has reached virtually adult size.

The school years are a time of vigorous physical activity. The spine becomes straighter, but the child's body is flexible, and postures may be assumed that are often disturbing to parents and to teachers. Mild degrees of knock-knee or flat-foot which may be apparent in the late pre-school years tend to correct during 6th or 7th years of age. The motor activities of the earlier years, such as running and climbing, become increasingly directed to more specialized activities and games requiring particular motor and muscular skills.

The development of the facial bones continues actively during the school years, particularly with enlargement of the air-cavity bone (sinuses).

The first permanent teeth, the first molars, most often erupt during the 7th year of life. With these so-called 6 year molars in place, the shedding of baby (deciduous) teeth begins, following approximately the same sequence as their acquisition. They are replaced at a rate of about 4 teeth per year over the next 5 years. The second permanent molars commonly erupt by the 14th year. The third molars may not appear until the early 20's. Parents should know about these physical, physiological and social changes so that they may guide them properly.

With the removal of a large portion of the child's life from the home to the school environment, children begin increasingly to live independently and to look outside the home for goals and for standards of behaviour. This shifting of interests is often anxiety - provoking for parents, and if earlier problems between parent and child

have not been adequately resolved, adjustment to forces outside the home are apt to be difficult.

A large responsibility of the school years is the creation in the child of the sense of duty, of responsibility, and of realistic accomplishment. There is a possibility of great frustration for parents and children when the child's achievement does not measure up to parents hopes. The child unable to meet adequate standards may learn for the first time the sense of failure and may react with anxiety and hostility. Anti-social behaviour may develop through which the child attempts to gain recognition which he or she cannot attain otherwise.

In the early school years, students are developing what Erikson calls a sense of 'industry'. they are beginning to see the relationship between, perseverance (keep safe for future) and the pleasure of a job completed. The crisis at this stage is industry vs inferiority. For children in modern societies the school and the neighbour-hood offer a new set of challenges that must be balanced with those at home. Interaction with peer becomes increasingly important as well. The child's ability to move between those worlds and to cope with academics, group activities, and friends will lead to a growing sense of competence. Difficulty with these challenges can result in the feelings of inferiority.

Girls and boys start learning their traditional roles. Girls follow the footsteps of their mothers and boys imitate their fathers. The discrimination is found in home, work, sports, selection of professions, social and political activities.

Girls are conditioned to help family after school hours, show devotion to her family in general and to brothers in special. She is supposed to assist mother in cooking, serving food, suppressing her desires even if she may be equally hungry or tired, to please the brothers, mend their clothes, iron their clothes, does not wear dress if her brother does not approve it. She is likely to become weak, sensitive, submissive, dependent, self-sacrificing with no identity of her own as a person. Girls develop interest in tale stories, comics, and puzzles, whereas, boys are treated in a different way. They enjoy greater freedom of choice in and outside house. They are treated as a superior persons, efficient, courageous, reasonable and stubborn. There is encouragement to play outdoor games.

### **7.5.1 Family Life Education During Elementary Middle Childhood Stage (6-12)**

- 1) To discipline the children at home, it is necessary for both the children and the parents to spend some time together and teach them rules and regulations. When parents 'won't' or 'can't' control their children in the home, it is

extremely difficult for the school and later on for the government, to control them on the streets.

- 2) One reason too many children are seen on the streets at night is because they are afraid to stay home alone, since both parent may be out looking. Thus, parents should provide the child with love, warmth, security and time.
- 3) To help child in the participation of those activities which promote skills in the physical, social, emotional, moral and personal developmental areas. The skills attained during 'this period would help the child in the better adjustment at later stages. Neglect, abuse, pampering or rejection destroys the child.
- 4) To provide religious education - logically with translation and illustration will help him to develop morality in him/her.
- 5) To provide facilities that strengthens the foundations of formal education. It provides the bases of later scholastic learnings so proper attention in this regard should be given.
- 6) To help control the personal and mutual problems of 'parents themselves, in case of failure, children would suffer from insecurity.
- 7) To provide sufficient approval for anything done well by the child, as it is likely enhance the self-esteem of the child.
- 8) To help reduce restlessness, jealousy, aggressive tendencies, lack of social contact and fears of the child, through giving love, attention and any other help which can provide satisfaction and security.
- 9) To help the child in the selection of adventurous, moral stories.
- 10) To help the child to select valuable T.V. programmes, or any other programmes that do not glorify crimes.

Now, let us have some questions on this topic. Answer them.

### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. Describe a situation in which you observed an individual or group experience great emotional excitement. What stimuli aroused the reactions?
2. Explain the cause of temper tantrums. Describe the different forms that they might take at respective ages.
3. Distinguish between gregariousness and socially stimulated behaviour.
4. What physical conditions might cause a young person to be embarrassed among children of his own age?

Now we move on to XIV. 2 topic that is 'Sex Differences in the Sexual Development and Response Cycle'.

## **7.6 Sex Differences and Similarities in The Sexual Development and Response Cycle**

You have already studied in Chapter IV a good deal of physical, physiological and psycho-social aspects of adolescence. As you know 'adolescence' is a stormy age. It is a time of major physical, cognitive, psycho-social growth and change. They are inexperienced in their new roles as potential adults, and their behaviour tends to be extreme and irritating. They are fascinated with their changing bodies, sensitive to the length, size, attraction or repulsion of their bodies. Search for new avenues that may satisfy their physical and psycho-social urges and get themselves involved in some hobbies, adventures, fashions etc. Sexual matters becomes vital, and much information and misinformation is obtained and shared about sexual matters. Association with a peer group increases or the group influence may temporarily become greater than that of parents. Cognitive growth progresses and there is a greater ability to think for career-building. Ego-identity is attained to some extent. Develop a strong urge for autonomy, and independence.

Pakistani adolescents roles are like social norms, whereby discriminatory treatment is given to female adolescents. They are conditioned to develop 'fear of success'. It has been observed that this fear increases with the increase of age of the girl who does not want to achieve success over opposite sex because he will not approve it. As a result of this social pressure she has to control her abilities, depriving her to learn to trust her talents and potentialities and to break easily in face of stress.

Discrimination is also shown towards the selection of male. She is taught the marriage and romance is vital landmark of girl's life. Failure in love destroys the whole life and mental peace of the girl. It has been observed that strict restraints are imposed upon adolescent girls. Adolescent girl is expected not to go to school alone, choose her own girl/boy friends, buy the clothes or other things of her choice and consider herself equal to boys.

In Pakistani society, it has been observed that, on the average political and professional roles of high status are closed to them. Marriage and motherhood is the only role. It has also been an expectation by the family that adolescent girl should assist in the generation of family income through participating in family trades, handicrafts or so on.

It is recommended that for the healthy grooming of adolescents, the expected role of the family consisting of parents and other influential members of extended family should be similar to role mentioned hereunder.

You have read in Unit 3 by Dr. I. N. Hassan that major differences in sexual development appears at the age of early adolescence. Adolescence is a time of major physical, cognitive, on psycho-social growth, and change. It composes nearly half the growing period in a person and is the only period of life after birth in which the velocity of growth normally increases. It begins approximately about the age of 10 year in girls and 12 in boys. The end of adolescence varies with physical, mental, emotional, social or cultural criteria which characterize the adult. Puberty has been defined as that time when one becomes capable of producing children. The menarche (starting of menstruation) in girls, or a less clearly defined milestone 1.5 - 2 year later in boys. Pubescence, the time during which secondary sex changes occur, is not sharply demarcated in length, but is generally about 2-3 year. Pubescent changes precede theist secondary sex changes of adolescence.

At about 7 year of age the earliest changes occur that will culminate in adolescence; a gradual increase in production of adrenal steroid occurs in both sexes, and some what later there is a gradual prepubertal increase in production of oestrogen and a little later of androgen in each sex. These are hormones which fertilize egg in female and spermatozoa in male. At about the age of 9-11 year in girls oestrogen production increases greatly, attaining the levels for normal adults; a comparable increase in androgen production occurs in boys at a somewhat later age.

Fulginiti's handbook of paediatrics (1987) describes sexual development and response cycles under three headings (a) Early Adolescence, (b) Middle Adolescence (c) Late Adolescence. Let's find his point of view on them.

### **Early Adolescence**

After the comparative calm of late childhood, early adolescence is a period of upheaval. With the great changes in body size and configuration comes a new confusion about the physical self (the 'body image'). Sexual maturation brings with it a rising again of the strong instinctual drives that have been successfully repressed of several years. In Islamic culture, in contrast to primitive culture, inspite of physical readiness, sexual drive is not permitted direct expression. We would discuss how these repressions can be handled in a healthy way in the 'Role of Parents'.

The calm emotional expression is disrupted. Again the child has to learn to control strong feelings, love, hate, and aggression. The relationship with parents is disturbed. The former easily controlled expression is replaced by rebellion. They develop a strong tendency to get rid of dependence and parental care and insist on independence.

The adolescent's position as an individual must again be realigned, not in relation to the family circle but in relation to society. Adolescents are constantly pre-occupied with how they appear in the eyes of others as compared with their own conceptions of themselves. They find comfort in conformity with their own age group, and fads in clothing and manners reach a peak during early adolescence.

Adolescents are in-experienced in their new roles as potential adults, and their behaviour tends to be extreme and irritating. Calm and stability provided by the parents can do much to keep them in equilibrium.

Early adolescents are fascinated with their changing bodies, wonder if they will be tall or short, fat or lean, attractive or ugly, and spend much time thinking about bodily parts and comparing themselves with age-mates or older members of the same sex. They have an ideal image of the body and often feel that their own bodies are out of control.

Increasing physical size, increased geographic mobility, and associations with a larger number of persons not only heighten the desire for freedom of action but also for money and material possessions. Teenagers often become adventurous and long for personal pleasures or clothes or in some instances added to family income. work becomes an expected and accepted means of obtaining money, though few types of jobs are available. Most adolescents work with the knowledge that they must eventually become self-supporting. There is a stage when adolescents become more aware of the past, of successes and failures, and whether they are accepted, admired or rejected by others of the same age and sex. They come to a new recognition of parental status, and perhaps for the first time realize whether their parents are well educated, respected, rich or poor, or desirable models to imitate. At this time, the parents and their values may be rejected. Temporarily or from time to time, other adults serving as candidates and advisors.

### **Middle Adolescence**

Middle adolescence is reached about a year and a half after the time of maximal growth, at approximately 13-15 year of age for girls and 16 for boys.

By this time there is again a feeling of being in control of the body, a realistic body image is held, and there is less concern about physical changes. With a greater sense of competence, demands emerge for more freedom of action and self-responsibility and there is usually far more mobility than during earlier puberty. Sexual matters still receive much thought; desires become generally directed toward a particular member of the opposite sex, and much information and misinformation is obtained and shared about sexual matters. Association with a peer group has increased, and

the group's influence may temporarily become greater than that of parents, though parental views are usually not completely rejected. Cognitive growth progresses, and there is greater ability to think in abstract terms, to form hypotheses, to evaluate plans of action, and to consider the future role is desired, or what is expected of adulthood. On the other hand few mid adolescents have attained ego-identity.

### **Late Adolescence**

This is a period between 16 years to maturity. By age 16 years, most adolescents have again reached comparative equilibrium. They observe that their body growth has slowed somewhat, and they have had time to adapt to the changes. They have acquired sufficient mastery over biological drives. These drives can now be channelled into more constructive patterns and the beginning of heterosexual social activity, eventually leading to the choice of a companion or marital partner.

The relationship to the parents is now more mature. With the discovery that responsible independence is neither frightening nor overwhelming but a position possible to maintain, the adolescent can cease to rebel and can accept the parents, help in planning constructively for adulthood.

Learning is again rapid, particularly for the intelligent youth, who can absorb much more information than the conventional secondary school education offers.

Though some ambivalence persists during late adolescence the desire to leave home and family increases. The adolescent looks forward to higher education or to a job with separate living quarters, with some reluctance to leave the security of the home and parents and to separate from peers. More thinking is directed towards future education or a job. Uncertainty can be frightening for the youngster who feels inadequate to select a specific vocations, and this uneasiness often affects decisions regarding additional years of study or training. Most late adolescents have established a moral code and feel relatively comfortable with sexual relationship and decisions, some are still uncertain about themselves or their beliefs. Cognitive growth has usually continued with the future. Ego-identity may not be achieved until a few more years have passed, but late adolescents are comfortable with their bodies, know what they wish to achieve, can commit their energies towards achieving a goal, and believe they are competent to function as adults.

For some boys or girls one or more of the major psychological tasks of adolescents remain unsolved or not yet integrated into the personality, and the state that Erikson calls 'ego-diffusion' may continue until each task has been completed. Adults who never achieve ego-identity remain inadequate, feel inferior, and have many failures in their lives.

### **7.6.1 Family Life Education During Sexual Development and Response Cycle**

The following steps help male and female adolescents for healthy personality development:

- 1) This is period when the intellectual and cognitive development of the child is complete. If proper knowledge about the sexual and response cycle development is imparted by mothers to girls and fathers to boys, it would help their better adjustment.
- 2) They explore as many options as possible to make wise decisions so parents should stimulate creative and novel ideas through reinforcements.
- 3) To help promote the a positive self-concept among adolescent by establishing a rapport. The girls adolescents should be taken into confidence and boost up her image so that she may be able to handle the causes of her problems by herself.
- 4) To train them to know themselves, and help them overcome their weaknesses, and also guide them to a adopt a realistic and positive usage of themselves.
- 5) To emphasise moral development through mutual discussions. Self-control techniques should be introduced to adolescents so that they may not deviate from norms set by the society *in* which they live.
- 6) To provide them with information concerning selection of a work profession. Lower status jobs for girls should not be recommended and they may be provided with an open choice to choose careers that are befitting their abilities.
- 7) To provide healthy, normal, information about sex without guilt through discussion stating that channel for the outlet should be legal and ethical.
- 8) To have contacts with their friends.
- 9) To provide independence in the social land political activities.
- 10) To provide a balanced diet to meet their growth demands.
- 11) To provide an ideal and pleasant home atmosphere. They will also learn the role of fathers and mothers and would follow them afterwards.
- 12) To provide guidance in personal grooming.
- 13) To provide opportunities so that they can spend their extra energies in indoor and outdoor games etc. For this purpose girls should be furnished with necessary infrastructure for spending her energies inside the home.

#### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. Report on the significance of sex differences and similarities in sexual development and response cycle.
2. What were your social experiences as an adolescent? How have they influenced your present social attitudes?

3. What specific improvements are needed in school procedures to provide ways of helping the adolescents in imparting information towards sex differences and similarities in sexual development and response cycle?

Now we skip to XIV.3 'Sex Education and Access to Information regarding one's bodies, moods and urges'.

### **7.7 Sex Education and Access to Information Regarding One's Bodies, Moods and Urges**

In the limited sense, education in only the physiological and reproductive aspects of sex is known as 'Sex Education'. But the broader term is used for imparting information to all aspects of sex and sexuality including physiological, reproductive, performative, emotional and interpersonal.

Sex education for adolescents (boys and girls) is essential as it is a stormy age where on the one hand they get physically mature, intend to become independent, to perform great works of chivalry, enjoy sex, but on the other hand they are confused about how to achieve those objectives according to the norms of society, law and religion. Such people also suffer from Role-conflict and wonder when where to behave like an adult, and when to behave like a child. If no sex education is provided, there are chances that children will gather misinformation from friends, which maybe harmful.

**Information Regarding Bodies and Physiology of Sex Glands of Boys and Girls**  
Information regarding the weight, height, filling out the body, arms, legs, face and complexion during the various stages of development have already been discussed in detail in unit 2. Since this unit is concerned about teenagers and adolescents so relevant issues could be discussed.

The most serious problem for the adolescent concerns his sexuality and how that need is to be met. The sex drive is so powerful and so persistent that it generally must find an outlet in a variety of ways. Among these are nocturnal emissions (wet dreams), homosexuality, masturbation, heterosexual petting, reading pornographic literature or movies and premarital relations etc. The point to be emphasized is that the peak of the sex drive occurs in adolescence, at the time when the religion, society, law, school and other institutions frown on sex activities which creates frequent conflicts and maladjustment in young people.

The average teenager needs above all else a feeling and self-worth found in real affection, the knowledge that his sexual needs can be satisfied without sacrificing

his self-respect. The adolescent can indeed profit from sound sex education that will provide him with scientific, physiological and ethical knowledge. This guidance must be related to the world as it exists for young people, not as it is conceived to be by their elders who often are impelled by out-of-date orthodoxy.

After studying the physiology of sex organs of boys and girls, let us discuss some other issues which an adolescent suffers.

### **7.7.1 Family Life Education Regarding Urges, Moods and Sex Education**

There are many important factors that contribute psychologically for the achievement of maturity in all walks of life:

- 1) In it the parents and significant members should provide the adolescent with informations necessary for their personal, moral, intellectual and social development in a cordial atmosphere.
- 2) They should help them to avoid from early appropriation of sex by providing with the religious education. The moral values should not only be taught but parents should also actively believe and practice those values. As girl or boy adolescence follow the models of parents so they will adopt their values
- 3) To help the adolescents to develop 'self-understanding' and self-esteem which describes what sort of a person you are and the person you would like to be can easily be done by parents and significant members directly or indirectly.
- 4) To help them in the formation of realistic goals, these objectives must be achieved. At one time the adolescent is asked to form three 'objectives simultaneously and they should be assisted to achieve those goals. Three goals if formulated may lessen to severity of tension in case a goal not achieved or thwarted.
- 5) To introduce them to the concept of how to have balance way of life. Enrichment experience be provided work, play and love. They spoiled encouraged to spend their energy wisely in studies and social activities. Importance and proper time should be given to each of these, so as to broaden the outlook of adolescents. The girls adolescents should be given some creative tasks so that they should keep themselves busy and their energy should be used in a constructive manner.
- 6) Help them to maintain harmony not only with their own lives but also among citizens of the community. This flexibility of attitudes helps in better adjustment. Girl adolescents should be allowed to participate in social work programmes.

- 7) To provide information about the sense of values in a rational way. The adolescent should be guided so that they are able to define their goal that can be obtained through the use of constructive intelligence instead of impulsive behaviour. Thrills are not always in their best interests. It should be told that their decisions should effect long-term satisfaction rather than temporary 'highs'.
- 8) To provide information that their happiness is closely tied to happiness of others. The reciprocity must always be kept in mind. This does not mean that girl adolescents should be asked to suppress their real feelings against wrongdoing of others.
- 9) If adolescents are not intellectually mature, they may not be able to relate to their families and maintain a happy family life. Maturity among girl adolescents may be enhanced if free hand may be given to sort out their problems.
- 10) Whenever an adolescent intends to marry or adopts illicit measures to satisfy sex, there is a need for a regular income, however, at this stage they are not economically settled. This can lead to a lot of unhappiness.

Some of the consequences of illicit sex relationships may be listed as follows:

- i) That it is forbidden by the law and society and whenever it is performed, such acts result in a feeling of guilt and shame. If caught up by law enforcing agencies the result could lead to punishment.
- ii) If the girl has the baby without being married she faces many problems as the child in our society will not be accepted. The mother may face a so1/4 s.,1 boycott. she would face many other problems in making a home and caring for her child without a husband and father, and such a situation brings great sufferings and heartache to the child, as well as to the mother herself.
- iii) In some cases, the pregnant girl seeks help from persons or goes to someone who performs illegal 'abortions' (an operation in which the unborn baby is taken from the uterus and dies), not only the unborn baby is killed, but the girls own life is in danger, because such secret operations are often performed carelessly. If the girl survives, she may not be able to have babies in the future as a result of the careless operation:
- iv) The sisters of that girl who has got into trouble also become unacceptable for marriage if they are already married, they are given tough time by their husbands, in-laws and the society at large.
- v) The boy can also brings worries upon himself. For example, if he goes with a crowd of young people who have a reputation of loose sex conduct, he is likely to share that reputation, and may be considered responsible when a girl has a baby, even if he was not the child's father.
- vi) The possibility of getting venereal disease is still another\_ danger. These are diseases that are contracted through sexual contact with an infected

person. The common diseases may be syphilis, gonorrhoea (urine diseases), Aids etc. They cause serious illness in both men and women, and if the mother has either disease while she is pregnant, the baby can suffer a lot, which may transfer to next generation.

- vii) It should be noted that immediate gratification of sex provides a momentary thrill, without emotional attachment, usually conditions a person towards superficial social relations. The average adolescent needs above all also a feeling of security and self-worth found in real affection, the knowledge that his sexual needs can be satisfied without sacrificing his self-respect.
- viii) Illicit affairs often lose their attractiveness because of the necessity of concealment.
- ix) People reacting to the sex impulsively without psychological attachments form unhappy families. They loose interest in them abruptly. They will be separated, their personalities would become disturbed, antisocial, or psychopathic etc.
- x) Sex tensions are not likely to be a serious problem for adolescents when life is full and satisfying, and when most problems can be met fairly, their tension *finds* socially acceptable outlet. According to the personal observations and insight, the following steps may be opted, for the betterment of sex education. This can be done through the improvement of their friendships, recreations, personalities and avoiding and checking pitfalls.

According to the personal observations of the author, improvements in various aspects such as recreation, personality and ways of solving problems which are discussed hereunder:

#### **Improvement of Friendship**

The friendship can be improved by

- 1) Being more thoughtful about giving their friends (boys and girls) a square deal by being sincere, and by treating them as they would like to be treated.
- 2) Seeing more friends who like to do some of the same things they do, and who have a personality which they like and respect.

#### **Improvement of Recreation**

The recreation of adolescents may be improved to give a social touch to the urges and moods. They can:

- 1) Give their physical energies plenty of outlets by taking more part in active sports, such as hiking, climbing, swimming, tennis by boys, and badminton, baseball, athletics, sewing, household chores, and so on by girls
- 2) Developing more special interests and hobbies such as photography, stamp collecting, book collecting, coin collecting, or record collecting and so on,

These hobbies make them more interesting persons, and then provide means to enjoy themselves during their spare time.

- 3) Avoiding reading sensational sex publications as these provide just momentary satisfaction but great and permanent damage to the moral values, character and spoil the personality.

### **Improvement of Personality**

It may be made through

- 1) Learning to understand why they act the way they do?
- 2) Learning to be skillful in something that is worthwhile doing, and that makes them feel they are a worthwhile person? Many creative hobbies are helpful along this line.

### **Improvement of Ways of Solving Problems**

Problems may be solved through:

- 1) Learning to talk over their disagreements with their parents in a calm and reasonable way. If their relationship with their parents is such that they feel it is quite impossible to open a discussion about their problems with either one of them, then they should try consulting some older person at school or *inside* their homes other than the parents.
- 2) Getting together with a group of their friends and parents and then to agree on a code which both parents and young people accept.
- 3) Learning to talk about school problems with teachers or special school advisors who know how to help.

### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. Describe what you would consider to constitute excellent biological inheritance and rich environment?
2. What physical conditions might cause a young person to be embarrassed among children of his own age?
3. What is the relationship between social consciousness and the attitude of unselfishness? Illustrate your opinions by examples taken from (a) early childhood, (b) elementary school childhood, (c) adolescence.
4. Recall the child and adolescent leaders whom you have known. What were some of their outstanding characteristics?
5. Review the various cultural and historical attitudes towards adolescents and discuss the possible relationship between childbearing and moral development.

Let's move on to the last section XIV.4 which is about 'The Fears Regarding Growing up - Phobias and Taboos'.

## **7.8 The Fears Regarding Growing up, Apprehensions, and Taboos**

Fears, phobias and taboos are the necessary part of psychological development of an adolescent. They are more common in girls adolescents as compared to boys.

### **Normal Fears of Children**

An emotional state in the presence of anticipation of a dangerous or noxious stimulus is termed as 'fear'. It is usually characterized by an internal, subjective experience of extreme agitation, a desire to flee or to attack and by a variety of sympathetic reactions.

Fear is often differentiated from 'anxiety' on one (or both) of two grounds.

- a) Fear is treated as involving specific objects or events while anxiety is regarded as a more general emotional state.
- b) Fear is a reaction to a present danger, anxiety to an anticipated or margined one.

Since fears are normal and are useful to avoid real danger, and to take steps to minimize its effects for adaptation and survival. Fear is the perception of an external threat, real or possible. anxiety implies the feelings, associated with fear in the absence of any immediate perception of external threat.

Fear may be the result of fantasies reflecting internal conflicts. Though the object of fear or anxiety may be imaginary or fictitious, the sensation itself, of course, is not and has familiar physiological components.

The things children are likely to fear change with age, becoming more specific to their environment and experience as they grow older. The younger child's fears are centred on basic conditions or situations such as darkness, or being left alone or abandoned, or upon cultural stereotypes of fear inducing objects, such as animals, monsters, ghosts and goblins.

School age children do not necessarily have fears that correspond to the concerns adults may have for them or may try to inculcate. They may not, for example, be concerned about fire, traffic, or the friendly stranger who may spirit them away. At the age of adolescents years, their fears become more oriented towards specific culturally appropriate threats in the environment and towards specific past experiences of their own. They may generalize isolated experiences of their own that were threatening or fear inducing. sometimes appropriately, sometimes not.

The cosmologic threats adults fear, such as of destruction from nuclear weapons, war, flood or hurricane, are not particularly fearful for the preadolescent child and may be of no major concern even to the adolescent.

Children's and adolescents fears may readily reflect those of their parents, and these fears may be transmitted from parents to child explicitly, or more often implicitly. Among the common fears of pre-school and young school-age children are those of thunder and lightning, punishment, pain, hospitals, etc. Parents also may be feared. Even when parents are not punitive, cruel, or harsh, most children are afraid of them under some situations. The anger of a parent is particularly frightening for the child, even when the parent refrains from physical contact with the child. Adolescents fear from snakes, poisonous insects, wild animals, lizards, cockroaches, etc.

Children manifest their fears in various ways, depending upon age and sophistication and upon ability to verbalize and willingness to do so. The pre-verbal child may cling, cry, scream and try to escape from situations that frighten, and it may be difficult to identify the fear provoking stimulus. The older child may be reluctant to discuss or even name what he or she is afraid of, because of fantasy and fear that talking about it will make it come true, the words being given magical powers.

It should be noted that even intense fears may not necessarily be a sign-of emotional disturbance, still less of a cowardice.

For child of school age and older verbal reassurance should supplement physical and emotional support, for the child can respond to it in terms both of its tone and its realism. Simple, direct explanations often require repetition each time the feared situation or object is encountered; the child may again strengthen and support even as the logical and reasonable explanation is repeated in the same way each time. After a while the child may internalize the formula and he heard saying it to himself and others when they show concern with the SP"1C object or situation. The child becomes able to distinguish the feeling of fear from the fact that the feared situation, object, or condition has no real power to do harm. Parents should be advised neither to shame nor to demean fearful children, nor to try to force them into feared situations hoping that, in surviving them without support or in crying it out, they will overcome fear. This procedure may induce terror and complicate subsequent management of fears.

The unrealistically feared situation needs eventually to be faced by the child, and parents may need advice in devising appropriate ways to help children to master

specific fears. Children. fear to be separated from their parents at night may be allowed to stay outside their bedroom sleeping on the hall floor, to be moved into their own bedroom or into the bedroom of siblings as they become more secure. It helps if they can be given some power over the situation, such as being able to turn on or keep a light on if they are afraid of the dark, to reach their parents by telephone when they have been left for an evening, or to have contact with a non-threatening puppy or kitten if fears centre on dogs or cats. Each time a child masters even in a slight way the fearful situation, he or she should be given encouragement. This depends essentially on the parents own capacities to be calm, reassuring, encouraging and supportive.

When fears last an inordinately long time, when one set of fears is replaced by another, or when fears become increasingly incapacitating to the child or to parental or family function, a more definitive psychological and psychiatric evaluation will be needed.

The adolescents also suffer from apprehensions related to their growth given hereunder: (a) they are afraid of separation from the parents; (b) apprehension that they may not be in a position or able to develop intimacy with others as they are dependent on parents in every matter; (c) they don't have the skills to handle the bodily changes effectively; (d) they are unable to develop sexual relationships; (e) they think they are incompetent; they are physically disabled, obese, thin, ugly, have pimples, tall, thin, short, plump, ugly lips, teeth, stuttering, stammering, etc. Siblings rivalry may exist in many situations.

These apprehensions and fears are normal, but if they persist, prolong and intensified they turn into phobias. These may be handled carefully if they are provided with sufficient social skills, self-assertive training, technique reinforcements procedures, and cognitive awareness about their pitfalls.

### **Taboos**

Any banned or prohibited act, object or behaviour is known as 'Taboo'. It is the act of prohibition. The term comes from the Polynesian 'taboos' meaning sacred, inviolable and was originally associated with object set aside for religious practices and customs and forbidden for general use.

Theories of conscience formation have thought to identify factors that cause children to learn approved behaviour and to resist temptations to transgress against rules, first of parents and later of society.

### **Family Life Education for the Reduction of Fears and Taboos**

The training for a good life and reduction of fears, phobias and taboos include:

1. *The Need for Security:* Every person if he learns to trust his environment and to a great extent control it, would be provided security. Parents can help to develop this sort of confidence by not deceiving the child with false promises. If child learns greater confidence, he develops faith in others which eliminates fear, phobia and taboos.
2. *Self-discipline:* One should learn to seek long-range objectives. It implies the will to meet obligations even under difficult circumstances. The most valuable part of education is to learn the habit of doing things he has to do whether he like to do or not. Many people fail to acquire this habit, to their disadvantage and the weakening of their personality.
3. *Level of Aspiration:* Satisfaction in life work comes from a realistic evaluation of personal assets. Happiness is more easily attained if one concentrates on improvement rather than on perfection. Keeping an eye on today's progress in comparison with yesterday's instead of measuring how far one still has to go will benefit. Intermediate goal, give a sense of progress. The successful person sets each objective a little beyond his last achievement.
4. *Practical Standards:* One should temper one's moral aspirations, the strictness of one's conscience, within limits set by one and not by those whose moral values may be outmoded. Therefore impossible goals produce fears, phobias, taboos and are frequent cause of disappointment.
5. *Distinguishing real from unreal:* The objectives must be realistic, wishing does motivate one's actions, but mere wishing is unrealistic. One's problems if dealt with realistically, the life will become easier to accept.
6. *How much can be tolerated:* Life is not necessarily designed for human comfort. One must learn to withstand frustration and avoid certain people and situations. Everyone can raise his ability to withstand frustration by developing a 'thicker skin'. The secret of tolerance is to get accustomed to irritations as a habit, to desensitize one's reaction to the disappointments that are inevitable in the routine of living. For example, a child can get rid of his fear of darkness by playing a fascinating game with a person he can trust.

### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. What guidance could you give to the adolescent to help him rid himself of undesirable fear? How would you prevent others from developing such fears?
2. What is an isolate? Discuss the factors that may cause a young person to become an isolate.
3. Select an attitude or conviction that has undergone fundamental revision in your own life. What experiences, facts and thought processes went into this decision or insight?

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**Unit – 8**

# **CULTURE SPECIFIC PRACTICES AND GENDER PSYCHE**

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## INTRODUCTION

One can witness a general awareness taking place in the whole world as regards the women's rights. Protest against the violation of these rights has also become increasingly vocal. Since the celebration of decade of women by United Nations and Nairobi Conference in 1985, the women of the developing countries have also started questioning their secondary status by challenging some of the social and cultural customs which are instrumental in keeping them subservient to men. Following the methods of feminists the world over, the women of Pakistan have also started to at least listen to each other as regards their due rights as equal partners of men in life. They are striving to identify issues of male excesses against women, to provide services to the women and children victimized by men's excesses and to fight to change the social, legal, economic and ideological anomalies which allow such behaviour to occur. The awareness is becoming increasingly focused on issues of social injustice to women.

Listening to women living in different circumstances, researchers find that wife battering is much more wide spread than what is generally guessed about it. It is found in all strata of society and is a serious crime against women. It is also observed that men frequently abandon their wives and children without any financial support only because they want to marry another woman. Out of her love for children wife is unable to abandon them like her husband does and has to make a living either by taking up a menial job or being an unwanted guest at her parental home or remain dependent on her relatives.

A cursory glance at the power structure of Pakistani society reveals most women having very little or no say in the way of life which they are offered to lead in accordance with the consent of their parents, in-laws and husband. The social customs demand that parents should give up all claims on their daughter after marriage and give a blank cheque to the in-laws to "use" the daughter-in-law in whatever way they like. The physical abuse of women in rural areas is so prevalent that women have learned to accept it as their fate. The worst examples are found in the northern areas of Pakistan where due to the weather conditions, the land becomes very hard to plough so the wife along with the yawk has to plough the land and do the planting while the husband sits indoors.

How women got relegated to such low status and inhuman treatment is a good question for the psychologists to explore. The causes lie in the grossly unfavourable balance of power which is being perpetuated by the society through such harmless practices like keeping the girls illiterate, not allowing the women to take up a job and limiting their mobility etc.

## **OBJECTIVES**

In order to understand the developmental process of female children in Pakistan it is necessary to identify some special events which are usually not mentioned or described when one is writing general development yet these events occur so frequently in a specific culture that they deserve special mention. This unit is devoted to these events. More specifically, after having read the unit the students will understand the following developmental aspects of female children in our society:

1. The events in female life like social attitude at birth, childhood, married life and old age.
2. The secondary position of women and their weak position in family situation.
3. The implication of these events for the child rearing practices and mental health of the growing female child and young women.

## 8.1 Birth of a Girl Child

The most important event in the life of a child is the way she/he is received by his parents and family. The birth of a girl child is not welcomed even in our educated middle class families contrary to their public stance. It should be noted that it is not the biological parents who form the immediate environment of a child but it is also the grand parents, relatives, neighbours and friends who jointly influence the climate of a home in which a child feels welcomed or otherwise. The tradition of male children supporting the old parents is decreasing rapidly in present day Pakistan. (Migration patterns of Pakistan, by Afzal PIDE). One unit families are on the increase even in rural areas due to mass migration from rural to urban and even out of the country. However, the unfavourable attitude to female child persists. Secondly, the girls are considered an economic liability due to parents obligation to find a suitable match for the daughters and the custom of daughters joining the in-laws family. Thirdly, the dowry to be given to the daughters is such a cultural practice that it could be considered as one of the biggest factor to unwelcoming attitude of family to the birth of a female child.

The birth of a son on the other hand is celebrated with distribution of sweets and gifts for the relatives whereas the birth of the daughter is under played. Every body keeps silent and no greetings are exchanged. A study of Punjabi Folk Songs carried out in 1995 by the present writer revealed that there were no lullabies for baby girls whereas there were whole collections of them for baby boys. After much search, the lullabies collected for girls were in single digit and the theme of these lullabies were more an expression of apprehension about the future life of the girls and prayers for their safety and better life. The lullabies for the boys on the other hand, were full of joy and spontaneous expressions of pleasure on their birth. The limited research studies carried out mostly as part of Masters and M. Phil thesis at various universities of Pakistan specifically the departments of Psychology, University of Peshawar and Applied Psychology University of Punjab confirm that:

- a. The birth of a girl child born at the hospital is not welcomed even by the medical and para-medical staff.
- b. The length of breast feeding for girl babies is much shorter than for the male children.
- c. The hospital records indicate that fewer girl children are brought to the hospital than the boys for medical treatment. The girls are brought only in serious conditions.
- d. The immunization campaign noted male child preference on the part of rural parents who said that girls children are hardy and don't need immunization. This reflects the low importance given to girl babies.

- e. The neglect of nutrition and health of female child is reflected in very high mortality rates amongst female children which has resulted in an unfavourable female male ratio from-ages 5 years and above over the years.
- f. Finally the education of female is dismally low as compared to male. The average literacy percentage for 1991 recorded in the eighth plan document is 34 percent. However, for male subjects it is 45.5 whereas for female it is 21.3 percent only. The worst hit are rural females amongst whom the literacy rate varies from 2.8 percent in Baluchistan to 16 percent in Punjab (Education Statistics Report, 1994).

Thus the girl child is a victim of deprivation. Her basic human rights of being loved, nourished and protected unconditionally by her own family are denied mainly because of being a female.

### **8.1.1 Physical Security of Girl Child**

The girl children being neglected by their parents are easy victims of street violence and social crimes like assault, molestation and kidnapping. Added to this vulnerability is a strange value of family honour which dictates that the violence against the girl child is not to be reported to police to avoid shame and dishonour :and to protect the name 'of the victim's family. This non- reporting behavior encourages the criminal attacks on girls as criminals know that they have more chances of not being apprehended or/and reported.

Here a very important psychological point should be noted. The society suffers from a collective guilt of neglecting its female children. This is reflected in overprotection of the girl child to the extent of damaging her development. This begins early in childhood limiting her geographic space and curbing many of her natural talents and expression of normal feelings. She is not allowed to play outside her "home, she can not visit her friends house without shaperon, and can not take part in any vigorous physical games essential for development of a young body. This is more to compensate for the guilt we are talking about rather than to "protect" the female child or to safeguard her well-being.

## **8.2 Child Marriages**

The subcontinent had been subjected to constant invasion from the West in the past and its people had to protect their women from the outsiders. This led to keeping the women confined to home and marrying them off early to free the parents from the duty of safety of the young girls. Later this became part of the local traditions of the pre-dominantly agrarian society of that time. The daughters were not only

married off early they were 'also taught to sever all connections with their parental family which is reflected in the folk songs of marriage and married life. Islam which is the religion of the majority in Pakistan does not allow child marriage and there are clear injunctions which say that parents should wait till the girl reaches the age of adulthood for getting her married off. Of course it is this word adulthood (Balughat) which gives a leeway to different groups some consider adulthood as pre-puberty (9-10). Some onset of menstruation (11-14) and so on. Whereas scientifically a woman has to be at least 21 years of age to be able to enter the responsibility of motherhood as has been discussed in detail in chapter on adolescence. The Holy book also elaborates Balughat (adulthood) as the age of understanding and ability to make a decision. This does not employ the onset of menstruation to be age of physical, social and intellectual maturity.

The Pakistan Marriage Act has fixed the age of marriage of a girl as 16 years and that of a boy as 18 years. But we know that whereas in cities the girls marriage's may take place at the age much later than age 16 years but in the rural areas the marriages take place much earlier than 16 years. There is no effective system of checking this practice due to shortage of females in the rural area (100 male 91 female) and lack of birth record of children. The confusion in interpretation of Quranic injunctions by semi-educated scholars is an additional factor.

When a girl child is pushed into marriage with a man who is 10 to 30 years older than her one can imagine the physical and psychological abuse of the child. Ironically not even the child protection laws can help because the whole community including the girls parents are party to the crime. These early marriages may result into stunting of physical emotional and intellectual growth of girls. There are many ways in which these child brides deal with the situation such as:

1. Committing suicide.
2. Running away from home generally with a paramour.
3. Murdering their husbands.
4. Murdering their in-laws.

The last two statements appear very radical but these are statements taken from the study carried out by Tariq, and Tariq and Anila (8). These studies were carried out on convicted females serving sentence of imprisonment in different prisons of the country. The data on relationship of the victim of their crimes of murder are most revealing (see Table1).

Table 1  
*Victims of Female Murderers*

Relationship with the victim	<i>f</i>	%
Husbands	12	28.5
Parents in law	4	9.6
Husbands illegal issue	1	2.4
Husbands second wife	1	2.4
Parents/real brother/sister	3	7.1
Step parents _	1	2.4
Daughter in law	1	2.4
Own child	2	4.6
Relatives other than above	14	33.3
Non relatives	3	7.1
Total	42	100.0

The researchers of the above quoted studies state that the most serious crime committed by female originate from marital mal-adjustment arising out of a mismatch of the marriage partners. Some of the crimes were committed by wives when they were less than 18 years of age. This may indicate a violent reaction of a young girl to get out of a difficult situation. However, the number of actually convicted females in Pakistani prisons is much less as it takes years for a criminal to get convicted. Similarly a large number of cases do not get registered because female murderers or criminals of other forms of offences are protected by their parents from the police and the law for a number of reasons.

The study by Tariq (1980) had concluded that majority of the female convicts were under age at the time of committing the murder of their husbands.

### **8.2.1 Responsibility and Power in Marriage**

Pakistan has very old traditions and cultural values evolved through a history extending several thousand years. The society has survived many systems and ideologies and what has emerged is a highly oppressive patriarchal system in which men enjoy absolute power over women and children for a long period. However the winds of change are blowing across the world and women of Pakistan are also awakening to learn about the realities of their secondary status and the struggle to change is starting in urban centers at least.

Pakistan is an ideological state and Islam which is the religion of the majority gives equal rights to women in the areas of choice of life partner, holding property in their names, getting an education and entering into business or earning a living. However,

being in close proximity with Hindu religion for hundreds of years in the Pakistan-India sub continent under Muslim rulers and later British occupation quite a few customs have made inroads into Muslim society. This is evident from certain beliefs and customs which are so firmly established in Pakistani culture that one is likely to associate it with Islamic ideology. For example the stigma attached to divorce.

### **Divorce**

In Pakistan a man is free to divorce his wife but a woman is not so free to get a Khulah. The Pakistani women prefer to stay within the marriage bond no matter how unkind and unpleasant their husbands are because of several reasons. If a woman seeks dissolution of marriage she has to go to court and generally has to face long drawn out litigation due to hostile attitude of judiciary and legal authorities. Secondly a woman divorce has very slim chance of remarriage due to the negative attitude of society which puts the blame of marriage not working on wife inspite of the fact that she may be totally justified in seeking a divorce. When one compares this tradition of divorce and remarriage with other Muslim countries like Saudi Arabia, Egypt or Iran one finds that both men and women are free to Marry or divorce each other. Secondly there is no stigma attached to a divorced women. What is more father is the provider of children and the incident of leaving the wife and children without economic assistance is non-existent.

## **8.3 The Factors Responsible for Power Imbalance in Family Life**

### **8.3.1 Authority of Husband**

#### **8.3.1.1 Economic Factor**

The men are traditionally economic providers of the family and women carry on the role of a home maker and child bearer. This division of labour has not changed in Pakistan and men continue to act as the provider of the family. A few cases in which women also work outside the home their average salaries are much less than the average salaries of men. Similarly, although hundred percent of rural women work on the farm, the type of work they are assigned to in fanning is less income generating than men's. Why women have secondary status in Pakistan is attributed to their low economic status by the experts as like it or not in the ultimate analysis it is the size of the purse which decides who is more important or powerful in a family. The sociologist attribute this phenomenon of relegating women to low paid chores; as, an outcome of feudal system in which men have more importance due to their muscle power consequently they choose economically more rewarding tasks and give less paying activities to women. For example men are more involved in harvesting and selling of grain whereas women are limited to selling of eggs and

chicken. If it is a question of buying or selling of land, taking a loan etc. a man is preferred to a woman who needs a man to stand surety for her for any such activity. The allocation of lower jobs is not particularly a phenomenon of third world only but gender orientation of jobs is more rigid in Pakistan and Asian region as a whole. In order to understand this situation let us look around in the cities and see what kind of jobs are offered to women. The lowest job in the informal sector are jobs of sweepers and house maids. Almost hundred percent of these jobs are held by women. What is more is that if the same work is done by a man he is likely to be paid a higher salary by the same employer e.g. cook. Secondly the wages are less in the non formal sector therefore, more women work in this sector than men. When it comes to the job of a sweeper employed by the local administration may it be C.D.A. or L.D.A. or K.D.A. the majority will be men because it is better paying job than cleaning job in a private home.

In Pakistan there are only two professions which are considered respectable for women. These are teaching and medicine. Both these areas are service areas and notoriously low paid. With the exception of private practitioners the doctors salaries are also quite low.

Economically more lucrative areas like federal and provincial services, business and commerce have banned women entry for years. (Pakistan society has very rigid gender orientation in labour activities). Thus men have an advantage over women because they are better paid and physically more fit to be dependable sources of income than women who have to take days off to bear or rear children or provide nursing care to sick or elderly. Due to increasing economic pressures more and more women are entering into formal labour force but no provision for their special needs like Day Care Centers for children, transportation and special leave rules have been worked out.

### **8.3.1.2 Educational Factor**

The men outnumber women at all level of education from literacy to higher and tertiary education. Women's ratio is roughly one third of male as far as literacy is concerned. More or less same situation prevails at primary school level. The condition is far worse at higher levels because this ratio becomes one fourth at high school level and 15 to 10 percent at college and university levels. This lower status in education is an important factor in lowering the status of women even in their own eyes. The illiterate wives have very low self esteem and in spite of being more effective in social relations and group dynamics they do not insist on their views to be adopted when an important family decision is to be taken. The continuing gender disparity in education in spite of tall promises by successive governments is

perhaps the single most oppressive instrument of women's suppression being practiced since fifty years by the rulers of Pakistan. However, the women voices are too weak against them.

### **8.3.1.3 Legal Factor**

In Pakistan men have legal advantage over women. This advantage is not only due to some Islamic injunctions which give to men the right to divorce and have more than one wife but also a customary advantage in which a powerful male lobby in police, judiciary and other civil bodies sides with the husband. More recently the two controversial legislations were passed during the martial law regime in 1987 namely, the law of Evidence and the law of Compensation which have seriously jeopardized the already weak status of women. Since the enactment of these laws the number of women convicted and imprisoned has increased many fold and is still rising. However as a back wash more women are becoming aware of their low status and many women groups have become active to fight for their rights.

There are quite a few people who do not agree with these arguments and feel that the husband and wife relationship can not be measured in terms of money or power as it is based on mutual trust and love rather than money. The young people believe that it is wiser amongst the two who generally rules the roost and wives can be just as dominant as husbands. Let us look at a practical life situation and see if financial position does matter or not. Suppose Mr. A is a business executive or senior bureaucrat with a monthly income of ten thousands. His wives a lecturer in a local college with a monthly salary of five thousands a month. In case of transfer of one of the spouse one of them has to give up job or get leave without pay who do you think is likely to give up the job husband or wife.

If the same or similar family wants to buy a house or a car whose word will be final in this transaction. The answer is obviously that of husbands. The similar is the situation in more personal decision- making like marriage of the children where men dominate due to being considered more worldly wise and having social contacts. In fact due to their advantageous position in some areas, they dominate in all areas of personal, social and family life.

### **8.3.1.4 Cultural Factor**

There is a saying in local tradition that after God it is the husband who is god on earth (Majazi Khuda) for the women. This idea could not be Islamic as Islam does not allow Muslims to believe in any demi gods and the status of prophet Mohammad (Peace be upon him) is that of a man and messenger. Unlike other religions where prophets are considered divine Islam is very clear about the concept of God. Therefore, it is the basic principle of Islam to believe in one God and every muslim has to believe in no other gods but God. Who is one and only and no one shares his divinity not even Prophets. Thus the concept of husband being a demi god is totally

un-Islamic yet this unIslamic cultural value is widely believed by the masses in Pakistan. In fact, God is not visible but a dominant husband is physically present to dictate every action of the wife. Historically this absolute authority of men over women so prevalent in Asia is based on the Philosophy of Manoo a Hindu thinker born around 400 B.C. He was a very influential person which had a great impact on the feudal society of that era but he really despised women and his teachings, especially his doctrine of Tutelage of Women, has adversely affected the status of women in South Asia. He stated in his philosophy that "every woman should worship her husband no matter how bad or evil her husband is". He also instructed his followers not to teach Sanskrit to women as they (women) are evil and too inferior to learn the language of gods and religion. As his philosophy suited the local feudals it was widely accepted. The historians state that Manoo's philosophy was so detrimental to the status of women that in few hundred years the custom of "Sati" that is burning alive of wife or wives along with the dead body of the husband emerged. It is further stated that life of a widow was made so miserable as she was blamed for the death of her husband that women preferred to die a painful death than lead a life of a condemned women, It was during the rule of Moghal kings that "Sati" was checked and later during the British rule that it was completely abolished. However, the spirit still prevails. The classical literature produced by the Muslim writers of nineteenth century like Deputy Nazir Ahmad, Moulana Hali and their contemporaries in their advice to young girls direct them to be obedient, sacrificing and always give preference to the needs of the husband and in-laws over their personal needs. The two books written by Deputy Nazir Ahmed had been classic for more than hundred years which every mother has been giving to her daughter in her dowry. Thus the social values of Muslim Pakistan are more social and customary than based on Islamic ideology.

### **8.3.2 Polygamy**

All the religions in the sub-continent i.e. Hinduism, Buddhism and Islam allow polygamy. Besides there is a tradition of having more than one wife as a sign of prosperity. Just like "Rajas" (the rulers) in the old time the tribal chiefs and big land lords are expected by their "Harries" (labourers at farms) and tenants to have more than one wife and a larger number of sons as a symbol of power and masculinity.

Islam allows more than one wife under very special circumstances and conditions which are so rigid that it is stated in the Holy Quran itself that it will not be possible for a human being to do justice to two wives and, therefore, they should avoid it. However, due to lack of understanding of Quranic injunctions on the part of general masses including semi-literate Mullahs, the special permission to have more than one wife is interpreted as a general permission with a lot of negative implications for first wife and the children from the first marriage. Following are some of the conditions under which a man generally marries the second time:

**a. No Issue from the First Marriage**

Having a large number of children is the norm in Pakistani culture. The family and friends expect that a newly married couple should produce a child within the first year of married life and most of them do. A few who don't become a target for their well wishers advising them to consult some good doctors or visit some shrines for prayers of fertility. It is interesting to note that the infertility is always blamed on the women. It is rarely that husband is taken to the doctor, it is always the wife who is assumed to have some defect for not being able to give birth to a child. Thus making it a genuine ground for the husband for second marriage.

**b. Having only Female Children**

As we all know sex is always determined by the sperm donated by the father at the time of conception and mother has no part to play in it. However, the blame of giving birth to female children is also placed on women in our society and it is considered a legitimate ground for the second marriage. It is no wonder that many couples go through the ordeal of having seven or eight daughters in their quest for male off springs. This not only speaks volumes about the ignorance of our society but also sheds lights on the relative status of female in our society. As mentioned earlier, on the birth of a baby girl there is lot of pity expressed for the parents, and on the birth of a son a lot of rejoicing takes place. What is sad about the situation is that women themselves believe that in the case of giving birth to a daughter they are to be held responsible and one comes across many instances in which the first wife herself helped the husband in marrying second wife to have a male issue.

**c. Husbands Prerogative to like or dislike his wife**

The third reason is when husband does not like the first wife due to one or the other odd reason, he marries a second wife. It was as late as in 1958 that Pakistani women succeeded to get family laws enacted according to which a husband was bound to seek permission of the first wife before marrying second time whatever the reason could be. However, the rural areas of Pakistan where literacy rate among the masses is less than twenty percent and women are too suppressed to raise their voice to get their legitimate rights the laws do not operate. The husband on the other hand has the backing of traditions and the economic and emotional clout of turning the first wife out by pronouncing divorce (Talaq) and taking away the children. Majority of women thus are made to put up with a second wife and ascort secondary role in their own home. A few may go to their paternal homes and be at the mercy of their own/brothers (and-sisters-in- laws) who usually continue living with their parents even after the marriage.

**d. Social Attitude Towards Second Marriage**

Pakistani society, which is a patriarchal society, male actions have a high degree of approval and several justification are offered for the defense of husband as regards the second marriage.

The incident of polygamy is found more in rural areas where more wives means more labour force to work in the field amongst tenants class or amongst the very rich feudal or tribal lords for whom having a large number of sons and more than one wife is a symbol of power and virility in the patriarchal value system.

The Family Law was enacted in 1958 which gives some protection to women against a husband who wants to take a second wife without having a demonstrable cause to do so. Although the incidence of polygamy is not very wide spread especially in the educated and the urban population its practice is present.

According to the Family Law 1958 it is mandatory on the husband to have some demonstrable reason for remarriage and the consent of the wife for his second marriage but there are many violations especially in the situation where wife is not educated or does not have a supportive parental family.

Generally the second wife takes over everything along with the husband and the first wife has to live either as subservient to second wife or return to her parental family along with the children. It is very rare case in which husband continues giving financial support to the first wife. This obviously is basically against the Islamic injunctions where the equal treatment to all the wives is greatly stressed.

The attitude of relatives, friends and people at large is that the first wife must not have been a good wife otherwise the husband would not have resorted to the other woman. The reality might be radically different but the blame is always on the women. What is worst is that the first wife generally starts blaming herself. She feels that she has failed as being a good wife and has caused misery to the children, and unhappiness to her husband.

#### **8.4 Women and Old Age**

Pakistan is considered a heaven for older people due to tradition of younger generation looking after the old parents instead of being shifted to an old people's home. Islam which is the religion of the majority eulogizes the status of mother by stating that "Heaven is under the feet of the mother". The faithful are advised to respect and look after their old parents especially the mother as their duty.

However, we also have the influence of feudal culture in which older person don't let go their hold on the tribe. Similarly the mother-in-laws rule all the daughter-in-laws with an iron hand.

The position of older women is quite paradoxical in Pakistani society. On the one hand she occupies the lowest status as a daughter-in-law in her in-laws family when she was young but when she becomes a mother-in-law herself she subjects the younger women to same treatment which she herself received from her mother in-law. The mother in-law has a lot of authority in a farming family till her husband is living and the agriculture land is not divided. If she survives her husband which is rare she become dispossessed immediately. Her share is one eighth of what her husband has left and the rest is to be divided amongst the children. What is more

she is considered too weak to live independently. She has to live with some one especially if she has a son which is not easy as she has to relinquish the control of the house hold to her daughter- in-law which is emotionally not an easy task to achieve. In economically poor families widows have hard time as the daughter in laws are not favourably inclined towards an extra person to feed especially when she was a tyrant when she had a chance.

### **8.5 Destitute Women**

There is no provision by the State to have any kind of old age pension or benefit scheme to look after the older persons in our country except for the government servants who become eligible for pension after serving minimum of 25 years. As women generally work in the non formal sector or are member of the family work team in case of small family based enterprise their only provision for old age is support of the children. The story of women's life cycle was summed up beautifully in a powerful teleplay entitled "I don't have a home". The heroin of the play loved her parental home as a child but had to leave everything behind as she was told that this was her father's house and her real home will be her husband's house. Together they build a home, raise the children and when her husband dies she is told that it is her son who is the real heir to the house but she is welcome to stay in the guest room, So she realizes that women are only home makers they do not own a home. It is either fathers home, husbands home or son's home.

Thus, it is quite evident that a women is quite powerless and low status member of the family from cradle to grave. The earlier she accepts this subservient role the better it is for her own good in the words of social lords. The extended family influences are responsible for slower progress rate on the part of girl children on every indices of development like health, education and employment. Handful of "aware" population is also not concerned enough to bring about any change in the state s quo. Thus, it is safe to say that unless some radical structural change: take place in government machineries the human resource development especially the female sources of power the politics, the bureau acracy and the army all are predominantly feudal and patriarchal since inception of Pakistan which leave hardly any space for weaker groups in the society namely women.

#### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. Can we say that girls are neglected children in our society? Give five reasons.
2. What are various factors responsible for determining the secondary status of women in Pakistani Society?
3. Differentiate traditions from religious or ideological values by giving concrete examples.
4. The threat of second wife is worse than the second wife. Explain.
5. What is the attitude of society towards a man marrying second time?

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**Unit – 9**

# **GENDER BASED VIOLENCE**

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## INTRODUCTION

The later half of the present century has seen resurgence of violence in all societies around the world. The violent behavior is becoming not only more vicious and bloody due to easy availability of lethal tools of torture but also because of the increasing confusion of values in the minds of people. The personal fights of older times now appear very logical and understandable acts of release of anger when compared to syndicate murders committed by hired killers today. Similarly the terrorizing behaviour of anti- social elements and drug paddlers against the unarmed civilians is on the increase. The present day bullies use very sophisticated armaments and do large scale destruction than was the case with traditional crime. Thus the history of violence is becoming voluminous over time by adding newer varieties of violence and torture. On the political front, besides the physical wars the world is experiencing cold wars, economic wars and psychological wars etc.

Some people believe that violence is part of human nature and wherever there are people there will be violences and they quote the story of two sons of Adam, one Habet killing the other, Kobel, due to envy.

Violence is defined as a willful action on the part of a person or party or nation taken with an intention to physically harm the other person or party or ethnic group. It is an act of commission and not of omission.

The violent behaviour as a social phenomenon was first studied by Margaret Mead who observed some primitive cultures to learn about the natural ways of reacting by various groups of people. For this purpose she studied some contrasting cultures of isolated islands like Samova and others and found that there are some cultures which are very peace loving, non aggressive and non violent, whereas there are other cultures all of whose members are aggressive and violent. She concluded that it is the social environment of a society which molds the character of its members. Thus social characteristics like violence according to Margaret Mead are learned by the members of every society from elder members who encourage certain personality traits in its young. However, the development of culture is more complex than what has been just stated especially of the older cultures like that of Pakistan.

## **OBJECTIVES**

1. To make students aware of different forms of violence.
2. To understand gender based harassment, particularly why girls and women have to face this form of violence.
3. To become aware of the phenomena of physical violence and wife battering.
4. To understand the situation in which sexual violence is likely to take place.
5. To know various forms of sexual violence.

## **9.1 The Patriarchal Parameters of Violence**

As patriarchy operates through the premise of women's subordination and male domination, women (i) lack access to decision making and civic and economic resources (ii) patriarchy structures are founded on the false dichotomy of private and public space. The private sphere is traditionally allocated to the women and is associated with reproductive and nurturing activities which are seen to be women's exclusive responsibilities. The public sphere of economic productivity belongs to men. Male and female social roles are defined according to this scheme and women are reduced to their reproductive 'sexual role alone. Any break with this pattern is seen as a form of dangerous dissent.

Due to secondary position of women in society, the forms of violence to which they are vulnerable cut across all classes and socio-economic groups and in most cases are bound up with issues of their sexuality.

There is fundamental link between violence and power. The violence against women is systemic and is not limited to sporadic acts of physical abuse or barbarity perpetrated by anti-social elements. Instead it is articulated through a whole range of behavioral and conceptual norms and incorporates the most extreme forms of violence resulting in physical mutilation and or loss of life to the most subtle and invisible forms of psychological violence which cripples and limits an individual's human potential, It needs to be understood therefore that unless and until radical changes are affected in the power bases of the social formation attempts to address the problem of violence against women will continue to have a limited and short term impact.

## **9.2 The Pakistan Context**

In Pakistan patriarchal socio-economic arrangements have come into play across the two major discourses of feudalism and fundamentalism. While the two systems represent conflicting class interests and the emergence of fundamentalism as a major contender in the class struggle since 1977 reflects changes within the political and economic power hierarchy, there is no conflict between the two in so far as women's status is concerned.

The promulgation of state backed discriminatory legislation from 1978 onwards and a systematic media campaign that focused on the women's reproductive role simultaneously reinforced the male bias in society, led to an increase in the incidence of violence against women and encouraged the erosion of their rights.

It is generally stated that Pakistani culture is very discriminatory towards women. It is also said that there is a lot of violence committed against girls and women. However, an ordinary citizen may deny it strongly and say that Pakistani women are very well protected and well cared of. He/she is likely to quote the Islamic injunctions which underscore the protection of females and is the first religion which advocated the doctrine of basic human rights.

Women are not intentionally made victims of violence because they are women. Rather they are targeted because they are weaker or have secondary status in the society. If by the same token we think about the children, they are also weak and are made victims. From amongst children, girl children are victimized the most being lowest in the hierarchy. Study of violence towards females is important because it is more wide spread than commonly thought of and causes untold suffering to women and girl children. Whether or not we think that women should be able to protect themselves the fact is that most of them can not. Whether it is due to being weaker as a species or ill prepared for main-stream street culture, ineptitude, of individual females or discriminatory child rearing practices in which girls are brought up in our society that they do not learn to defend themselves, are some of the questions which can not be generalized nor do they lend itself to specific answers. It is because of these reasons that a special unit on violence against girls and women is being included in the course for a deeper understanding of the re-action of the society towards women.

In this unit we will identify those social reactions to certain events' which are discriminatory and are considered violent and non supportive of women concerned. Secondly, we will try to identify the social reactions and cultural values related to these events and finally we will discuss the various old theories which explain this behavior:

In the absence of local researches, an effort has been made to use as much local information as is available at present to support the arguments being presented.

### **9.3 The Characteristics of Violence**

Violence is not an easy concept to define. It is generally perceived as "An act carried out with the intentions of physically hurting a person" (Genes and Stians, 1979). This definition excludes other forms of violence which may or may not include physical violence and pertains to mental torture, harassment and excessive emotional stress to the victim. The seriousness of the violence can not be judged from the act of violence as its impact on different victims is likely to be different. Therefore there is very little agreement on what is meant by violence unless one

learns what behaviour was committed under what circumstances. To illustrate this, we would like you to read the following statements and request you to tick mark it if you think it is violent behaviour:

1. Angry father hit the daughter with a stick and broke her leg.
2. Angry husband beat his wife and later cut her nose.
3. Wife threatened her husband with the kitchen knife.
4. The girl at the bus stop beat up the boy.
5. The scooter rider ran away with the dopatta of a girl student.

Now let us look at the same statements in the following context:

1. Angry father beat up the daughter with a stick and broke her leg because he caught her talking to a boy in the park.
2. Angry husband beat up his wife and cut her nose because she refused to hand over her jewelry to him for gambling.
3. The enraged husband was trying to strangulate his wife because she had burned the food and she got hold of the knife and threatened him to save herself.
4. The girl at the bus stop got so sick of being harassed by the men that she beat one of the innocent passengers while the culprits ran away.
5. The scooter rider ran away with the dopatta of a very fashionable girl on way to a college party.

You will notice that some of your tick marking will change or at least you will consider some act of violence as more tolerable than others. For example some consider that father did well in beating the daughter to teach her a lesson. However, if the same situation is narrated to a Westerner, he/she will be horrified at the brutality of the father. To them talking to a boy is not at all a bad act. So one can see that the difference in evaluation of the event depends on the cultural values of the individuals. It is especially so because if this case is reversed the reaction of the outsiders will be different. The father will not beat up (instead of a daughter) the son if he is caught talking to a girl. Similarly, the people may not react the same way if the wife beats up her husband and cuts his nose. When a society has a lenient attitude towards certain members and strict attitudes towards others than this is called discrimination and it causes frustration and feeling of deprivation in those members who are subjected to this discriminatory attitude.

### **9.3.1 Neglect of the Female Children**

According to UNICEF Board paper, "child abuse or neglect is that portion of harm to children that results from human action-or inaction that is prohibited (or is

against law), preventable and involves actions of the immediate' caretakers and those in the child's immediate environment".

This means that child abuse is not simply any harm that befalls children. It has a focus on the cause and cause is related to action or inaction. Inherent in the notion of child abuse is the idea that some alternative course of human action was potentially available, that would have avoided the harm. Another aspect of child abuse is that only those forms are considered child abuse which differ from the local norm radically. Child beating for instance by the parents and the teachers is not considered child abuse in Pakistan whereas in developed countries parents can go to prison for physical abuse of the child.

Every culture has certain norms of behaviour which are expressed in words of wisdom and folk lores. In Pakistani folk lore there are sayings which state that girls are hardier than boys and don't need much care. "Girls grow like weeds which doesn't need much water. Feed less to the girls or else they will grow too fast. If you love your daughters they will start arriving (more girls will be born). When a daughter is born, the foundation of the house trembles" etc. (2 & 3).

These quotes about the girl child reflect the social ways of caring of a girl child. It is no wonder that this attitude of neglect and ignorance has resulted in men outnumbering women according to National Census Reports at each age level after age five. The number of female babies in the age bracket 0-4 years is more than boys according to national census data but a much higher number of girl babies die in infancy than boy babies simply because they are not given the same attention and care as is given to boy babies. A few studies carried out on Pakistani children indicate that female children are breast fed for much shorter period than male children, brought to the hospital only when they are seriously ill and the immunization data revealed that parents tend to get their sons immunized while they feel that girls don't need it, although these services are provided free of charge for both male and female children.

### **9.3.2 Sexual Harassment**

Sexual harassment involves unwanted sexual attention that may include staring, passing remarks, following a girl or women in public places, touching, trying to coerce a woman into sexual behaviour. The harassment is an offence which is punishable under law but many cultures do not take any notice unless a formal complaint is lodged with the police.

The harassment of girls and women in public places is such a common occurrence that public has stopped to take notice of it. Take the example of female children

playing in the street. The girl children being unwanted are an easy target of physical and sexual abuse by members of the household as well as outsiders. No sooner the girl baby is able to walk and go out in the street her personal security becomes a big problem for the family. The case of child molestation, kidnapping and murder after molestation involves more female children than male because the culprits know that their chances of getting punished are less in the case of a girl than a boy.

Due to the concept of family honour attached with females, the instances of sexual assault and harassment are not reported to police which in turn encourages the anti-social elements to harass women on the street, at places of work and even on way to school and college.

### **9.3.3 Eve Teasing**

Eve teasing exists in every society but in conservative societies like Pakistan where segregation of the sexes is a norm it is a common thing. Every female from a toddler to a grand mother becomes a target the moment she steps out of the house. All kind of unparliamentary remarks are passed on them by the people on streets, bus stops, market places, etc. This harassment is considered legitimate by the society which a female should face if she chooses to come out of the house or seclusion. Eve teasing is not limited to girls who are not observing purdha, women with Purdha face the same situation. This is mainly because of the society's belief that the right place of girls and women is inside the home. This attitude has serious implication for girls' education and employment opportunities. The writer can not help to quote a joke which illustrates the situation of women in our society so well. "there was a young woman in police uniform walking with a young boy of six or seven years old. Upon query, the boy said this lady in uniform is my sister and I am escorting her to the police station where she works".

The girls have to be escorted to school etc. whereas no such need is felt for the boys of the same age. As the girls grow older the sense of insecurity of the parents of the girls increases. A recent feasibility study carried out by Asian Development Bank of Lower Secondary School Project in 1993 of the three provinces Sindh, N.W.F.P. and Baluchistan indicated that the parents, teachers and the students all listed threat to personal security of the girl student as the biggest hurdle for middle school education. This threat was higher in urban schools as the parents felt that the law and order situation in the cities has worsened with deterioration in values and possession of arms by the young offenders. It is easier for the parents to withdraw the daughter from the school if any instance of teasing occurs rather than taking risk about her security or family honour. Incidentally eve teasing is not an offence according to the Pakistani law a fact which leaves little option for the guardians of

the girls to take the law in their own hands to punish The offenders. The eve teasing at all public places, on roads in markets at bus stops is a commonly observed phenomenon in the highly segregated society of Pakistan where women of all ages are targeted and men of all ages indulge in it.

### **9.3.4 Attitudes Towards Sexual Harassment**

The general public adopts a very non-involved attitude towards eve teasers and other public acts of sexual harassment. It is common phenomena to observe the school going girls being chased by unwanted males to and from school or college, passing remarks or singing embarrassing songs but nobody cares to intervene. Some educational institutions post police guards at their gates but this does not deter the spirits of anti-social elements from harassing the girls. Now and then one reads about some individual action in which a woman beats up the teaser but it is so rare that it is a news if it happens so. The general attitude of our society, both of men and women, is that the girls deserve it. Read the following statements:

- If these girls will not get themselves, so dressed up no body will tease them.
- Unless women themselves encourage the men they don't tease any one.
- The women should not come out of the house unescorted if they can not stand a little bit of teasing.
- The women who take up a job along with men do not have a good moral character.
- Do not appear friendly on work places or men will make advances.

You will notice that all the statements put blame on the victim rather than the aggressor. This type of thinking is so wide spread in our society that women have started to blame themselves for being harassed. If one looks at the situation described above it will become evident that the school girls have to go to school in school uniforms and there is no question of being dressed up in party clothes. Similarly women work to support their children or family. However, the solution at times adopted by some parents is to stop sending their daughters from going to school and not allowing the women to move out of the house and this vicious cycle continues.

### **9.3.5 Harassment at the Workplaces**

Social discourse in patriarchal societies like Pakistan continues to uphold not only the false division of social space into the domestic as reproductive area which is the woman's legitimate space and the economically productive public space which belong to men, women who step outside the home are immediately suspect

according to this schema, good women stay non-productively at home and the only women who step into the public world are either prostitutes or rebels. As a result women are subjected to:

- i) Sexual harassment at the workplace. The assumption being that if they are working outside their home then they are sexually promiscuous.
- ii) Harassment in the offices expressed verbally in the form of catcalls, sexist remarks, obscene remarks or gestures, unwanted sexual overtures etc.
- iii) Lack of facilities e.g. separate toilets and rest rooms for women employees working in the offices, organizations and factories etc.
- iv) Promotions, job security offered or withheld on the basis of sexual favours.
- v) No provision for the special needs of women employees like child care facilities at the institutions employing 10 or more women and non enforcement of factory laws regarding women employees at places of work.
- vi) Last but not the least non recognition of women's work may it be paid or unpaid leads to double burden of women and neglect of their needs.

On a more positive note Pakistan is not the only country where sexual harassment exists. However, one may say that it is the only country which has jeopardized its social and economic development by keeping fifty percent of its population confined to the four walls disallowing women to get education or even medical help on the pre-text of protecting them from other men's advances. Most of these social customs and traditions are a product of hundreds of years of occupation by foreign rule and patriarchal culture which has not only confined women to homes but has evolved very strong tradition of gender biased behaviour norms in every aspect of life and these norms do not allow a woman to lead an independent life.

### **9.3.6 Battered Women**

According to one definition, a battered woman is a woman who is seriously battered, either psychologically or physically, at least twice by a man to whom she is married or with whom she has an intimate marriage-like relationship (Walker 1980). According to a more limited definition, the battering must be physical, rather than psychological. However, others acknowledge that intense fear, guilt and damage to self esteem that comes from psychological abuse can be just as damaging as physical abuse.

If we accept the first definition given by Walker almost all wives in Pakistani society are abused at some stage in their married lives. The physical battering although considered more of a phenomenon in lower socio-economic classes is not very uncommon amongst the educated and well to do families as well. The struggle

for supremacy begins with the marriage vows and unless the wife accepts the secondary position voluntarily, she is the target of not only the husband but all the family of the husband.

The research study of 'Domestic Physical Violence Against Women: Psychological Aspect' was carried out by Ms. Anwar Shaheen (1990). She states that physical violence is more common in lower socio-economic classes than educated middle and upper classes which use more of psychological violence expressed both verbally and non-verbally. However, according to her findings physical violence exists in all strata of society and the main target are wives. The ratio of sisters, mothers and other females in the family is much less.

The attitude of other adults, friends and neighbours is that of silent spectators, whereas the children are frightened observers.

### **9.3.7 Attitude towards Battering**

Coming to the common attitudes towards wife battering in rural areas, it is accepted as a fact of life. In many social groups in Pakistan it is considered more manly if husband beats up his wife as a routine, The society approves of such behaviour to the extent that extreme physical violence like chopping of the nose of one's wife or even killing her at the slightest suspicion of infidelity is not questioned.

Mr. and Mrs. Bashir were an educated young couple. Mr. Bashir had a well established business and *Mrs.* Bashir was an attractive young woman. They had three children and according to every standard they were leading a normal happy life. However the neighbour heard strange noises quite often till one day when Mr. Bashir beat his wife very mercilessly. She fell down and banged her head against some furniture and died of head injury. The neighbours and the parents of the wife felt very sorry for the dead woman and for her small children. The parents of the dead woman did not sue Mr. Bashir in the court and the death was listed as an accident inspite of the evident bruises on the body of the deceased. Bashir's case is an extreme case but the attitude of the common person towards wife battering is that it is a personal matter between husband and wife and nobody should interfere. In other words, wife is perceived to be a possession of the husband and he is free to treat her which ever way he wants to.

### **9.4 The Battering Cycle**

The battered women are not continuously abused. Instead, there appears to be a cyclical pattern to battering. According to Walker there are three distinct phases in

battering cycle. At the first stage the tension starts building and there are small incidents of battering. The wife generally tries to ward off using the calming techniques which have been successful in the past, anticipating his whims and abstaining from the things which irritate like keeping the children quiet, etc. However, tension ultimately builds up and the battered responds by an acute battering incident. In the second phase both the batterer and victim agree that his anger was out of control and he could not help it. In the third phase all-the tension is gone from the batterer and he becomes a changed person. He feels sorry at getting out of control and tries to make up for this violent behaviour by showering gifts or doing other nice things which would please his wife.

### **The Batterer**

The men who batter are likely to be low in self-esteem. The battering behaviour is more evident in such marriages where wife has some edge over her husband either in family back ground, money or education. The battering behaviour occurs more often when husband is short of money or unemployed and unable to fulfill his bread winners' role. But it is not necessary to have a reason for battering. There are many husbands who beat up the entire family when in a fit of rage (Dr. Naeem and Anila). The people seem to be more tolerant of men beating their wives than any other woman in the family. Sometimes, parents just feel helpless and cannot do much to save their daughter from the husband because they are afraid of what the neighbour will say or in very poor families they may have accepted some money from him before marrying her off and now they cannot claim her back. Besides there is unwritten law in our society which gives sole authority to husband and the in-laws to treat the daughter-in-law in whatever way they like.

### **Attitude Towards Battered Women**

The general social attitude towards a battered woman is that "she deserves it". "She must be doing something to provoke his anger"; "it takes two to have a fight", etc. etc. It is also said that these women who get battered frequently and still choose to stay with the same men are perhaps masochists or the persons who enjoy pain. In fact, the masochists are supposed to get sexual pleasure through pain. However, there is no evidence to prove this theory and when one talks about leaving the husband it is not a socially approved step. Moreover, it renders the woman helpless and without means to live and support her children. If one takes the case of Mr. Bashir the wife's parents were not very well off and she apparently was putting up with this battering because of the need of living or perhaps because of a better status for herself and her children. The general attitude towards wife battering in Pakistan is that it is between husband and wife and no third party even the parents of the wife should interfere. It is said that once a daughter is married off, she becomes the property of in-laws and they are free to treat whatever they deem fit to her. The folk

songs of women reveal that the daughter in-law being an outsider is traditionally maltreated by her in-laws. She has to do the major part of the household work, eat less and get used to verbal and physical maltreatment. In lower income classes the wife battering is a matter of routine as it is a sign of male dominance and supremacy. More recently the media have been pointing out the cases of physical violence, even murders of wives, through physical torture and burning.

### **Death Through Burning**

The cases of wife burning with alleged bursting of oil stove were first reported in India where frequent incidents of burning the wife were reported. A wife was burned to death because she did not bring enough dowry. Use of oil stove instead of wood and coal is more recent in Pakistan and, the accidents of bursting of oil stove have started to occur. However, the intriguing increase in women's deaths most of them being daughters-in-laws through burning needs serious consideration. Due to Islamic tradition which gives a man right to divorce his wife through an easy procedure, a husband does not have to resort to killing of wife but there is no denying the fact that cases of wife getting burned to death with oil stove are on the increase. The women organizations blame such deaths on husband or in-laws and the courts have started punishing the husbands and in-laws in such cases but the wife's physical security remains at high risk especially in the early period of her married life.

## **9.5 Sexual Offences**

### ***Incest***

Incest is a sexual assault on a child by a member of the family generally father, brother or a male relative living with the family. In the middle and upper class families of Pakistan male servants are frequently involved. The child being frightened, ashamed and unable to express does not complain. In a situation where a child is old enough to complain she is unable to understand whether it is some kind of punishment for her bad behaviour as the person involved is some one very close to the child. In case of the person being a relative or servant the child is generally threatened for life if she told about it. The children being physically no match to the aggressor have no alternative but to continue to submit to the inhuman treatment over a long period. This results in deep emotional scares on their mental health.

The survivors generally develop deep sense of inferiority and guilt as they feel that this inhuman treatment had been meted out to them as punishment for being bad or naughty. In western countries the research indicates that as adults the incest survivors became aloof and mistrusting of their marriage partners.

### ***Child Molestation and Sexual Assault***

The, child molestation and sexual abuse of children have always been there but it is a topic which is generally not discussed publically. With eroding social values due to social, economic and political turmoil, the street crime has increased manifold. Moreover, there is not only a higher frequency of these instances, there is also an increasing tendency to report these crimes. Still it is anticipated that a much larger number of cases of child molestation and abuse take place than what is reported to the police or comes in the press. According to an interim report of Human Rights Commission of Pakistan (1993), a woman was raped every three hours during 1993. Two were gang raped every day and half of those assaulted were minors or teenagers. Rape victims are often murdered after the crime. The report also mentions young victims being in age range of 5 to 15 years. A study conducted by Shazreh Hussain for Simorgh in 1989 and published in "Nation" revealed that the official figure of rape cases in Punjab province alone for 1989 was fifteen thousands. The cases which were not reported are not included in these figures.

### ***Prostitution***

Prostitution is the worst kind of crime in which some women are forced to trade sex for a living. Enforced prostitution and trafficking in women are two forms of violence for profit to which women are subjected since time immemorial. With passage of time and widening of economic gap between the developed and developing world its scale and forms have expended many fold. The women from disadvantaged classes and economically poorer countries are exploited for maximum profit reducing the women's body to a commodity. The incidence of child prostitution and global net work of women traffickers has been reported in the Time magazine's special issue on child prostitution in 1993 which is simply horrifying. There are very few women who would adopt prostitution willingly. In developing countries it is poverty which forces some women into this way of making a living which although condemned by the society also has the approval of male community. During the colonial time in each city some area was specified as the 'red light area' where prostitution was allowed under government sanctions. These brothel houses are run by the persons involved in trafficking of women, kidnapping and similar crimes under the patronage of influential members of the society. Once a girl or woman ends up there she has no way to return as her family will not own her and she will be condemned to lead a life worse than a slave. There is tot of literature about the return of red light area girls back into the main stream but it is no more than wishful thinking. The actual plight of women relegated to the status of a prostitute is generally unknown. However, due to lack of social security services in Pakistan, these women are in much worse situation than ordinary older women as their productive period is very short and very soon they become destitute.

### ***Rape and Political Violence***

Rape has been used effectively as a means to silence political dissent or opposition by those in power. The fact that little effective action has been taken in the few cases of political rape that have been publicized is indicative both of women's low status in Pakistani society and of the power wielded by those who instigate such violence.

### ***State Violence***

As at other levels of the social formation, the institutions of the State also use violence as a power strategy and as an end in itself. This is done through:

Discriminatory legislation which does not ensure the right of all its members. Delaying the goals of achieving parity in providing access to services like health, education and employment to all members of its society. Negatively targeting a certain sections of the society as a scapegoat to distract the attentions of the general public from serious issues as was done during General Zia-ul-Haq's regime.

### ***Violence in Police Stations***

The violation of women's human rights through custodial violence and rape is a common feature of citizen/police relationship. The recent amendment not to detain a woman alone in the police station is a testimony to the fact that police stations are not safe places for women suspected of crime.

### ***Violence in state run 'Dar al Amans'***

Ostensibly set up to help women facing violence or other forms of coercion at the hands of the family or kin group, these Dar ul Amans are virtual prisons for women who seek shelter there.

The marginalization of women within the social, economic and political mainstream through non-representation or exclusion on the basis of government policy.

### **Self Assessment Questions**

1. Define violence. Is it possible that parents also can commit violence against daughters?
2. What is meant by incest? Can you describe a case incest which might be in your knowledge?
3. What is the social attitude towards wife battering in Pakistan?
4. Marrying one's daughter off to a person she does not like comes under violence of her rights, discuss giving your argument.

5. According to the textbook, enactment of discriminatory law is an act of violence. Do you agree?
6. Harassment is a general term which means unnecessary interfering in some ones activities against their wishes.
7. Making observe remarks at bus stops and public places comes under harassment. Give your comment.
8. Women in our society are deprived because they do not have equal excess to services like education, health, employment etc. Is it true?

**Activity**

1. Interview a victim of sexual harassment e.g., girls walking to store.
2. Write a case study of violence against a women reported in the press.

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