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# Culture and Attitudes Regarding Physical Punishment of Children in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria

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Abstract

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

This study examined whether cultural factors could predict parents' attitudes toward the use of harsh physical punishment on their children in Akwa Ibom state in Nigeria. Presuming that most people disapprove of child abuse, different cultural groups may define the parental behaviors that constitute abuse differently, and such variances may result in a disparity of identification of parents from some cultures as more abusive than others. Four different independent cultural variables were measured: (a) conflict tactics, (b) nurturance, (c) drinking, and (d) valuing children. Form P, Part E of Dimension of Disciplinary Inventory (DDI) was used to measure parents' perception of physical punishment. Part C of Form P of DDI was used to measure Conflict tactics. Nurturance scale was used to measure the warmth patents display toward their children. Valuing Scale was used to measure the amount of value parents place on their children, while Heavy Drinking Scale measured parents' frequency of drinking. Random sampling approach was used to select 269 parents' who were administered the questionnaires. A multiple linear regression analysis was applied to examine the contributions of the independent variables with the dependent variable of parents' attitudes toward physical punishment of children The results of the multiple regression analysis showed that all 4 cultural variables predicted parental attitudes toward physical punishment. Results will provide greater understanding of the Nigerian attitudes toward physical punishment of children, and thus offer a foundation for future public education with the goal of reducing the use of physical punishment at the individual and community levels.

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# Chapter 1: Introduction

## Problem Statement

This study explored the perceptions and predictors of harsh forms of punishment of children in the Akwa Ibom state of Nigeria. African children, although cherished by their families, are often disciplined using life-threatening physical violence, such as severe beatings, burns, and strangulations, which are inflicted by the adult members of the community (Akpan & Oluwabamide, 2010). Childhood abuse and neglect violates the rights of the Nigerian citizens. Chapter 4, sections 30 and 40 of the 1997 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria guarantees every citizen's basic and fundamental rights (Constitution of Federal Republic of Nigerian, 1997). These rights should extend to children.

Parents' culture plays an important role in negating such harsh physical punishment. Harkness and Super (2006) and Keller et al. (2006) have shown that parents' belief systems are interpretative frameworks that guide perception and understanding of child development, child rearing, appropriate discipline, and goals and expectations for children. The idea of teaching children right and wrong is part of child-rearing, and parents/caregivers use different methods to accomplish this (Frankenberg, Holmqvist, & Rubenson, 2010). Therefore, researchers need to address the cultural predictors and perceptions that lead to such forms of physical punishment in order to affect change to improve the conditions for children.

The extent to which the physical punishment of children is understood in the African context in comparison to the United States and European countries has varied

between cultures. Ijaz, Yasin, and Zafar (2012) asserted that cultural values and norms were considered the standard patterns of human behavior which help to shape people's cognition and motivational variables. Because culture refers to an integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief, and behavior (Nduka, Mansor, & Talib, 2012), cultural beliefs can encourage the use of physical punishment during childrearing. The acceptance of physical punishment as a cultural entity can help explain the rampant high levels of physical punishment by parents in some countries. Uwaoma, Osita-Njoku, and Madukwe (2012), and Nuhu and Nuhu (2010) maintained that culture can be viewed as an important factor contributing to the incidences of child abuse, as cultural factors play an important role in determining child abuse in Nigeria.

Children must be protected from abuse stemming from severe physical punishment. I investigated physical punishment practices by examining the cultural predictors and perceptions of parents' attitudes toward use of harsh physical punishment in the state of Akwa Ibom in Nigeria. In this research study I aimed to clarify parents' attitudes toward child-rearing and punishment in Nigeria. Additionally, this study served as a vehicle in promoting structural and statutory intervention programs by the Akwa Ibom state government to provide professional and social work programs, as well as provide scientific baseline data on child physical discipline and abuse in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria.

This chapter provides some background on the scope of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, the conceptual framework, limitations, and significance of the study.

## Background

Recently, there has been a worldwide campaign to end physical punishment of children, and the momentum is growing. Article 19 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, as adopted in 1989 by the United Nations National Assembly, recommended the abolition of all physical punishment of children, and encouraged the development of positive, nonviolent childrearing and educational practices (Hinberg, 2001). This recommendation was upheld, as ratified by all countries, except in Somalia and the United States. Nonetheless, many communities, such as Nigerian indigenes, specifically in Akwa Ibom State, continue to utilize physical punishment as part of the child-rearing process, and strongly adhere to it (Twun-Danso, 2010).

### Physical Punishment in Nigeria

Physical punishment is prevalent in Nigeria and even condoned by the judicial system (Iguh & Nosike, 2011). Caning and whipping have been the most prevalent methods used to punish juveniles in court, and use of the ruler or a cane has been used in schools (Iguh & Nosike, 2011; Omoyemiju, Ojo, & Olatomide, 2014). Although corporal punishment was discouraged in the Child's Rights Act (CRA) of 2003, it has been documented through empirical research that secondary school students are punished by "caning or whipping, slapping with bare hands, hitting with objects, kneeling down for long period of time, raising up of both hands for long period of time (Egwunyenga, 2009; Omoyemiju, 2013)" (Omoyemiju et al., 2014, pp. 1-2).

**Perceptions of Physical Punishment**

Proponents of physical punishment for children believe that it is necessary for responsible child rearing to be able to physically discipline a child (Iguh & Nosike, 2011; Omoyemiju et al., 2014). It has also been expressed that the concept of banning corporal punishment is due to the outside influence of foreign nations (Iguh & Nosike, 2011; Nduka et al., 2012; Nuhu & Nuhu, 2010).

**Predictors of Physical Punishment**

Predictors of physical punishment have been uncovered in empirical research, including cultural factors (Cle'ment & Chamberland, 2008; Nduka et al., 2012; Nuhu & Nuhu, 2010; Tennfjord, 2006; Uwaoma et al., 2012), intergenerational use of physical discipline(Abrahams & Jewkes, 2005; Bower-Russa, Knutson, & Winebarger, 2001; Brookmeyer & Henrich, 2005), and parenting style. Culture is the predictor that will be further explored in this study.

Nduka et al. (2012) found that participation in cultural events correlated positively with Nigerian parents' use of physical punishment on their children. Ember and Ember (2005) concluded that several societal-level factors such as higher levels of social stratification and undemocratic political decision-making were related to the use of physical punishment by parents as a form of discipline. Additionally, this accepted norm of discipline in a pre-industrial country like Nigeria could be associated with lower literacy rates and lower gross domestic product (GDP) of the parents (Ember & Ember, 2005). No additional recent studies have analyzed the role of culture in the use of physical punishment in Nigeria.

**Gaps in knowledge.** Over the past five years, most researchers have concentrated on abuse and maltreatment of children in Nigeria, instead of corporal punishment (Afolabi, Onyinye, & Ifeyinwa, 2014; Akanji & Dada, 2012; Esere, Idowu, & Omotosho, 2009; Fakunmoju & Bammeke, 2013; Fakunmoju et al., 2013; Nwoke, 2010; Olawale, 2009; Omobola, 2012; Sossou & Yogtiba, 2009). Very few researchers have focused on corporal punishment or harsh physical discipline of children in Nigeria (Nduka et al., 2012; Omoyemijua et al., 2014).

While parenting styles, use of physical punishment, and attitudes toward physical punishment in Nigeria have been researched, they have been researched separately. Moreover, predictors of and perceptions of the use of harsh physical and emotional punishment have not been examined much in the Nigerian context. Nduka et al. (2012) examined whether there was a link between cultural identity and harsh forms of physical punishment and discovered a positive correlation. In this study I sought to expand on that study by examining whether specific dimensions of culture have more or less of an influence on Nigerian parents' use of harsh physical punishment on their children. In this study I measured the influence of the following four cultural variables on the attitudes of parents' use of different types of punishments: conflict tactics, valuing children, nurturance, and drinking behavior.

Few recent researchers have examined physical discipline through a cultural lens. Nduka et al. (2012) examined the correlation between participation in cultural events to the use of harsh physical punishment in parents in Nigeria. Others examined relationships in other countries: O'Neil, Killian, and Hough (2009) examined the role of history and

culture on physical punishment for children in South Africa; Eugene (2011), Lau (2010), and Renteln (2010) examined the role of culture in the disciplinary practices of families in U.S. and other countries' immigrant populations; others compared different U.S. cultural groups (Castelli, 2009; Lorber, O'Leary, & Smith Slep, 2011; Thomas & Dettlaff, 2011). Castelli (2009) compared Black and White U.S. families' perceptions of appropriate use of corporal punishment and found corporal punishment to not only be a more accepted form of discipline in African American families, but also resulted in different outcomes for both groups. Thomas and Dettlaff (2011) also examined African Americans, and asserted that physical punishment was necessary in order to protect children from the larger threat of racism within America. Lorber et al. (2011) compared physical discipline motivations in White, Black, White Latino, and Black Latino families in the United States, concluding that there was no difference, which ran counter to their hypothesis.

An influential study for this research was a1999 study by Anne Ferrari. She examined the perceived definitions of maltreatment, and the predictors of this maltreatment in three different cultures. She examined characteristics of parents that could be tied to culture: (a) strong family ties, or familism, (b) attitudes that parents hold toward their children, and (c) gender role attitudes among African American, Hispanic, and Caucasian groups (Ferrari, 1999, pp. 9-10). She found all three to be predictive of parenting styles and definitions of child maltreatment, but she also found that "African American and Hispanic parents are not more likely to abuse their children than are Anglo or European American parents" and that "parents of African American and Hispanic

backgrounds are not more tolerant of child mistreatment, and do not have a higher threshold for identifying certain parental actions as abusive" (Ferrari, 1999, p. 147). She suggested that future research "continue to discover the ingredients of ethnicity" by investigating other characteristics (Ferrari, 1999, p. 145).

Studies on physical abuse of children in Nigeria have also been conducted and appeared to be more common than those examining physical punishment. Uwaoma et al. (2012) and Esere, Idowu, and Omotosho (2009) showed that female children in Nigeria were abused at a higher rate than male children, due to the cultural recognition of male children as more important than females. Akpan and Oluwabamide (2010) defined forced child labor as abuse and explored the use of it in Akwa Ibom state. These studies and more were explored in the literature review section. However, they indicated a prevalence of child abuse in Nigeria (Afolabi et al., 2014), which some connected to the acceptance of harsh forms of physical punishment (Nduka et al., 2012).

**Why is This Study Needed?**

Udoh and Edem (2011) explored the implementation of the Child Rights Law in Nigeria, specifically how it differed in the eyes of different populations in key sectors of the country. They did not specifically mention child discipline in their analysis. However, they concluded that only "68.75% of the Child Rights Law had been implemented" in Nigeria (Udoh & Edem, 2011, p. 129) and recommended that "the provision of the laws that protect children from abuse should be strictly enforced" and that "there must be stiffer penalties for parents and guardians that break the Child Rights Law" (Udoh & Edem, 2011, p. 135). This warranted further exploration that specifically examined

disciplinary tactics used by Nigerian parents. Nduka et al. (2012) indicated that there was a "cultural belief … in Nigeria that parents should use harsh punishments…. The parents who fail to use harsh punishments in their families were seen as negating the child-rearing processes in Nigeria (Mejiuni, 1991)" (p. 1568). However, so far, no research has explored specific cultural dimensions that may influence parents' perceptions on which physical punishments are acceptable to use and which are not.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to examine whether cultural factors can predict parents' attitudes about the use of harsh physical punishment in Akwa Ibom Sate of Nigeria. The study is quantitative in nature, and will explore four different independent cultural variables: (a) conflict tactics, (b) nurturance, (c) drinking, and (d) valuing children. A multiple linear regression analysis was applied to examine the contributions of the independent variables with the dependent variable of (a) parents' attitudes toward physical punishment of children.

Presuming that most people disapprove of child abuse, different cultural groups may define the parental behaviors that constitute abuse differently, and such variances may result in a disparity of identification of parents from some cultures as more abusive than others. The intent of the study was to examine cultural variables influence on specific physical punishments considered to be appropriate.

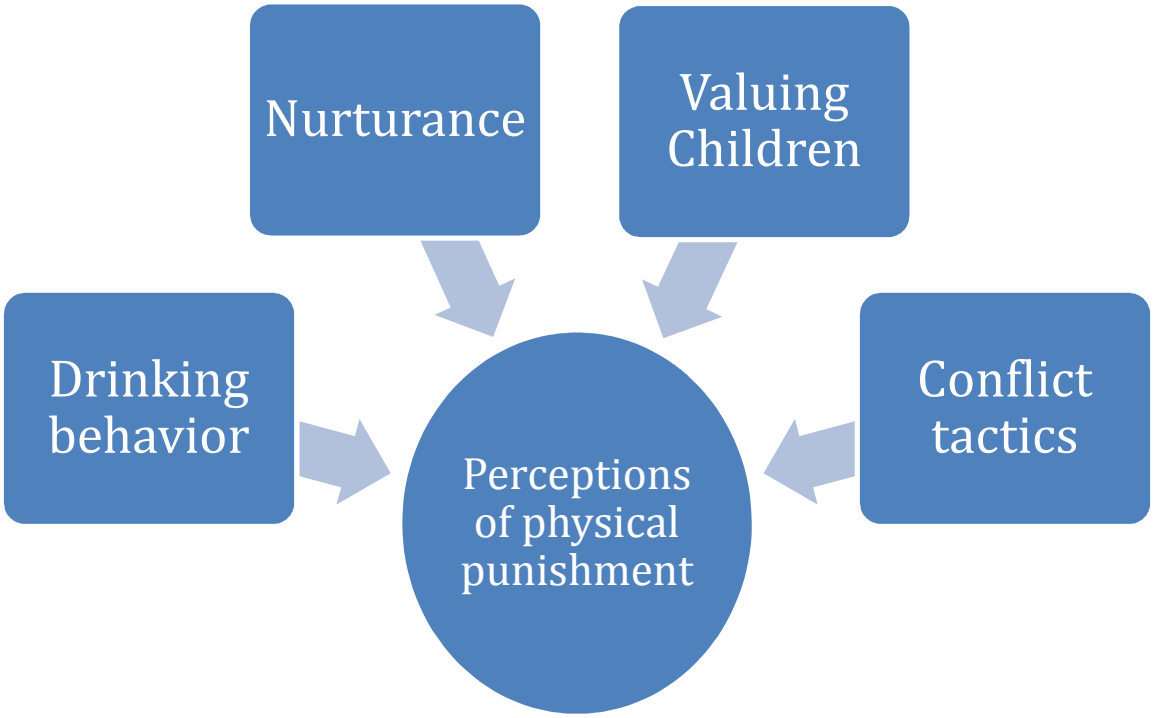


*Figure 1.* Independent and dependent study variables.

**Research Questions and Hypotheses**

This study examined the following research questions using the ecological-transactional model, drawing the research question at the macrosystem level of the environment.

Research Question 1: What, if any, is the influence of conflict tactics in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment?

$H_0$1: There is no statistically significant influence of conflict tactics in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment.

$H_a$1: There is a statistically significant influence of conflict tactics in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment.

Research Question 2: What, if any, is the influence of valuing children in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment?

$H_0$2: There is no statistically significant influence of valuing children in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment.

$H_a$2: There is a statistically significant influence of valuing children in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment.

Research Question 3: What, if any, is the influence of nurturance in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment?

$H_0$3: There is no statistically significant influence of nurturance in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment.

$H_a$3: There is a statistically significant influence of nurturance in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment.

Research Question 4: What, if any, is the influence of drinking behavior in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment?

$H_0$4:There is no statistically significant influence of drinking behavior in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment.

$H_a$4: There is a statistically significant influence of drinking behavior in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment.

**Theoretical Framework: Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model**

In this study, I utilized Urie Bronfenbrenner's (1974, 1977) ecological model as its theoretical basis. In what ways do cultural variables influence the level of disciplinary parenting practices that are viewed to be appropriate? The ecological model asserts that

cultural beliefs influence parenting methods, including disciplinary tactics. Bronfenbrenner's model asserts that individuals are part of a series of nested systems – the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem, and the macrosystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). Although a large part of Bronfenbrenner's theory emphasized the reciprocal interrelationships between these systems, the scope of this study only examined one – the macrosystem. This study investigated empirically selected features of the human ecology, principally, characteristics of the macrosystem, and thus assessed the relation of parent culture to their attitudes about harsh forms of physical punishment of their children.

Nduka et al. (2012) declared that the results of their study confirmed that culture is the driving force behind the use of harsh forms of physical punishment in Nigerian parenting. Culture, as one of the components of the macrosystem, was shown to encourage the use of physical punishment in Nigeria (Mejiuni, 1991; Nduka et al., 2012; Nuhu & Nuhu, 2010). Culture also determines what constitutes abuse, as opposed to non-abusive punishment, in the eyes of a parent. As Nduka et al. (2012) discovered in their literature review, "behaviors viewed as acceptable by one culture can be viewed as abusive in another culture as cultural norms vary widely in what constitutes child abuse" (Alokan & Bimbola 'Kemi, 2010; Madu, 2003, as cited in Nduka et al., 2012).

**Methods**

The variables were measured through the use of the Dimensions of Discipline Inventory (Appendix A; Straus & Fauchier, 2011), the Nurturance Scale (Appendix B; Rickel & Biasatti, 1982), Valuing Children Scale (Appendix C; Ferrari, 1997), and the Heavy Drinking Measure (Appendix D; King, Murt, Malone, McGue, &Iacono, 2005b).

**Dimensions of Discipline Inventory (DDI).**The DDI (Straus & Fauchier, 2011) consisted of three forms: the parent form (Form P), the adult recall of their parents' disciplining of them (Form A), and the child questionnaire form (Form C). Only Form P, the parent form, will be used in this research. I did not examine intergenerational transmission of punishment methods, which was measured with Form A. This research did not involve children directly as participants, which was measured with Form C.

Within Form P of the DDI, there are five parts. I used four of the five parts. Part A requested demographic information about the parents. Part B requested demographic information about the child and misbehavior by the child. Part C requested information about discipline behaviors used with a specific child. Part D requested information about the mode of implementation or the context of the discipline. Part E asked participants about their cognitive appraisal of each discipline behavior. This research utilized parts A, B, C, and E only. Part D was not used for this research, because the researcher was mostly interested in parents' opinions about discipline behavior, not the context in which discipline is used. The removal of Part D shortened the length of this instrument. The authors of the instrument approved eliminating specific parts of the instrument:

> A user who is interested only in the frequency with which parents use different discipline behaviors can ask only Part C (together with Parts A and B which provide the demographic information and child misbehavior). Similarly, a user interested only in the context/mode of implementation scales can ask only Part D; and a user whose interest is only in attitudes about different discipline behaviors

> can ask only Part E. Or, C and D, or C and E could be asked. (Strauss & Fauchier, 2011, p. 8)

In this research, Part C of the Parent Form in the DDI was used to measure the independent variable of conflict tactics. Results showed that the beta coefficient for CTS is.482, indicating that the direction of influence of conflict tactics on parental attitudes toward physical punishment was positive (see Table 10). Part E of the Parent Form in the DDI was used to measure the dependent variable of perceptions of physical punishment.

The DDI in its entirety is a lengthy instrument. The use of Form P, Parts A, B, C, and E took 10-15 minutes to administer. The authors of the scale ensured its brevity by only asking two to four questions for each of the scales (Straus & Fauchier, 2011). Originally, the authors wanted to create an increasingly lengthy instrument, but abandoned that plan (Straus & Fauchier, 2011, p. 28). Instead they designed DDI in a way that permitted expansion and modifications. In their manual, they encouraged taking parts that are necessary to the specific targeted research: “For example researchers interested in one or two specific discipline behaviors, such as time out or corporal punishment, could easily create an instrument containing the questions necessary to do this” (Straus & Fauchier, 2011, p. 28).

> In their Limitations section, Straus and Fauchier (2011) mentioned that the 10 to 20 minute administration time is both a main advantage and also a limitation of the DDI because each scale has only two to four items. However, important as are the scales, a central feature of the DDI is that it identifies 26 different discipline behaviors, each of which has significance by itself rather than

> as items that have significance primarily for their contribution to a scale. Thus, the DDI probably measures more aspects of discipline than any other instrument.
>
> The decision to measuring [*sic*] each discipline behavior by a single question in order to cover as many discipline behaviors as possible within a brief instrument, means that when there is a focus on a particular discipline behavior such as spanking, or a specific context or mode of implementation such as parenting stress, additional measures will be needed to obtain more detailed data on those issues. For example, if additional data on stress is needed, the Parenting Stress Index (Abidin, 1995) can be used. (p. 28)

**Nurturance Scale.** The Nurturance Scale (Rickel & Biasatti, 1982) was used to measure the amount of warmth parents' display toward their children. This scale listed 18 behaviors and requested parents to indicate the frequency in which they engage in such acts on a scale of 0 to 5. The scale was modified from Block's (1980) Child-Rearing Practices Report. Sample questions included "My child and I have warm intimate moments together" and "I express my affection by hugging, kissing, and holding my child." The test-retest reliability for the Nurturance Scale was found to be an average of 0.71 and the Chronbach's alpha was an average of 0.8 (Rickel & Biasatti, 1982).). Results showed that the beta coefficient for NUR is .134, indicating that the direction of influence of conflict tactics on parental attitudes toward physical punishment is positive (see Table 12)

**Valuing Children Scale.** To measure the amount of value parents place on their children, the researcher modified Ferrari's (1997) Valuing Children Scale for use with the

Akwa Ibom area participants. The Valuing Children Scale is a 15-item scale that asks parents to rate, from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree," statements that addressed acceptance of children in various venues of the family and community, such as restaurants, and adult conversation. Examples of items on the scale were "Young children who interrupt adult conversation need to learn manners," and "Churches should have rooms where tired, grumpy children can go and be noisy and still hear the services through speakers." Scores ranged from 0 – 75, with higher scores indicating a stronger valuing of children. Ferrari found the Chronbach's alpha to be .68 in her 2002 study. Results showed that the beta coefficient for VAL is .175, indicating that the direction of influence of conflict tactics on parental attitudes toward physical punishment is positive (see Table 11)

**Heavy Drinking Measure.** To measure the frequency of drinking, King et al.'s (2005b) Heavy Drinking Measure was used. This measure asked three questions in order to gather information on the frequency of drinking in the past 12 months, rated on a five-point scale from 0 ("never or less than once a month") to 4 ("three times a week or more"), the amount of drinks consumed, from 0 ("0 to 1 drink") to 4 ("eight or more drinks"), and the number of times the participant drank to a level of drunkenness, from 0 ("never or nearly never") to 4 ("every time or nearly every time that I drank"; King et al., 2005b). According to King, Murt, Malone, McGue, and Iacono (2005a), the measure was modified from the Substance Abuse Module, a component of the Composite International Diagnostic Interview for the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Third Edition, Revised.* The authors found alpha reliability estimates for the three item

scale to be high, at .82 (King et al., 2005a, p. 589).). Results showed that the beta coefficient for DRK is .025, indicating that the direction of influence of conflict tactics on parental attitudes toward physical punishment is positive (see Table 13)

**Definitions**

Terms related to physical punishment for clarity purpose in this study are defined as follows:

*Physical punishment*: The term physical punishment is used interchangeably with the term corporal punishment in this study. *Black's Law Dictionary* defines corporal punishment as "any kind of punishment of or inflicted on the body, such as whipping or the pillory" ("Corporal punishment," 1995, para. 1).

*Spanking***:** Spank, as a verb, is defined as the use of open hand to strike a child on the lower extremities of the body such as buttocks ("Spank," 2003, para. 1). It is a form of physical or corporal punishment.

*Child abuse***:** Child abuse is used interchangeably with the term child maltreatment. It is a broad concept with many definitions, some of which incorporate physical or corporal punishment. *Black's Law Dictionary* defines child abuse as "the often violent and inhumane behavior that an adult shows toward a child" ("Child abuse," 1995, para. 1). It normally is separated into physical, sexual, emotional, and neglectful abuse, but it can also include child labor and child marriage. In this research, potential physical abuse is the form of abuse that is of most concern. It is difficult and controversial to define. Research has found that corporal punishment can escalate into serious physical child abuse, and such acts have been defined as "deliberate acts resulting

in physical harm to a child, such as when … a parent hits, shakes, burns, or throws a child" (Bottoms et al., 2008, p. 74).

*Culture*: Culture is an integral part of every living organism, often characterized by language, religion, ideas, beliefs, behaviors, values, cuisine, and social habits (Eric, 2004). Culture also constitutes a pattern that makes up humans' way of life and thought process (Nduka, Mansor, & Talib, 2009).

*Parents***:** In this study, parents are considered to be the mothers and fathers of children.

*Family***:** In its broadest sense, family refers to a basic social unit consisting of parents, children, blood-relatives, or the members of the domestic circle, often considered as a group whether dwelling together or not ("Family," 1995).

*Socioeconomic status***:** Socioeconomic status (SES) is a measure of an individual or family's economic and social position, sometimes based on education. Thus SES comprises social and economic factors as they relate to a person or household.

**Assumptions**

The assumptions made in this study were as follows:(a) Parents are classified as the main disciplinarians who believe that using punitive strategies to train their children can make them behave well; (b) parents' beliefs and assumptions on the methods of discipline vary and influence their decision to use physical punishment; (c) cultural values and the community in which they live play important roles in shaping the behaviors of parents toward the way they discipline their children; (d) parents' forms of physical punishment on their children could be influenced by their parents' choices of

punishment types (intergenerational transmission), as well as the acceptance and use of physical punishment by other family members during their childhood.

**Limitations**

In this study, I examined the relationship between parents' cultural values and their opinions on various forms of punishment in the Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria. There are a number of possible limitations in this study.

First, because the subject of the study was sensitive; accurate and honest responses from the participants may not be forthcoming. In some instances, participants may refuse to respond to the items in the questionnaire, which could impact the findings. In some situations, where Akwa Ibom parents use physical punishment and believe that this punishment was abusive, they may not wish to admit to it. Second, respondents are limited to Akwa Ibom state indigenes. Sampling bias could exist, as the study may not be generalized to other states in Nigeria. Third, the study focused only on cultural characteristics of Akwa Ibom parents. However, other factors could affect their attitudes toward child physical punishment, such as their own experiences as a child and their parents' use of physical punishment. Thus, this study may not be generalized to all Akwa Ibom parents. Fourth, the gender of an interviewer could have a substantial effect on response level. If participants are embarrassed about a topic, they could be less likely to participate. It has been indicated that male interviewers gain fewer responses to female interviewers, and most of the participants are female (Johnson & Delamater, 1976).

**Significance**

In this study I aimed to provide greater understanding of the Nigerian attitudes toward physical punishment of children, and thus offered a foundation for future public education with the goal of reducing the use of physical punishment at the individual and community levels. Studies have shown that harsh methods of physical punishment of children puts them at higher risks for the development of many social and psychological problems (Bailey, Hill, Oesterle, & Hawkins, 2009; Choe, Olson, & Sameroff, 2013; Coley, Kull, & Carrano, 2014; MacKinnon-Lewis, Lindsey, Frabutt, & Chambers, 2014). Muela et al. (2012) recognized child maltreatment as a psychological risk factor often associated with poor psychological function prevalent in childhood, adolescence, and adulthood. Cassels (2010) and Springer (2010) described physical punishment as a risk factor for various antisocial outcomes including emotional distress, depression, low self-esteem, dependency, scholastic underachievement, and risky sexual behavior. Additionally, Gilbert et al. (2008) contended that child maltreatment is associated with a number of negative outcomes such as substance use, violence, risky sex behaviors, depression, internalizing problems, and academic underachievement.

Results of the study could assist Nigerian human and social services in understanding the adverse effect of applying physical punishment on children. Understanding the adverse effects could promulgate the proper assessment of the problem and could enable social services officers to provide parents and caregivers with nonviolent disciplinary alternatives. Additionally, results could serve as a vehicle in promoting structural and statutory intervention programs by the Akwa Ibom state

government to provide professional and social work programs that go beyond the provisions outlined in the constitution.

**Summary**

It is common custom to use harsh physical forms of discipline on Nigerian children (Adaora & Nosike, 2011; Afoha & Saidu, 2014; Nduka et al., 2012; Omoyemiju et al., 2014). The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child has recommended the abolition of all physical punishment of children, and the Nigerian CRA of 2003 asserted that no child should be subjected to corporal punishment by the state. Despite this, "physical punishment remains one of the most commonly used techniques to discipline children in many Nigerian homes" (Ofoha & Saidu, 2014, p. 137). Children should be guaranteed rights to not suffer such violence. Culture has been found to play a large role in determining what methods parents will use to raise their children. This research aimed to examine the cultural predictors and perceptions of forms of physical punishment in order to affect change to improve the conditions for Nigerian children. The following section elaborates on the background of various aspects of the subject through a review of the relevant literature.

# Chapter 2: Literature Review

## Introduction

This study explored the perceptions and predictors of harsh forms of punishment of children in the Akwa Ibom state of Nigeria. African children, although cherished by their families, are often disciplined using life-threatening physical violence, such as severe beatings, burns, and strangulations, which are inflicted by the adult members of the community (Akpan & Oluwabamide, 2010). Childhood abuse and neglect violates the rights of the Nigerian citizens. Chapter 4, sections 30 and 40 of the 1997 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria guarantees every citizen's basic and fundamental rights (Constitution of Federal Republic of Nigerian, 1997). These rights should extend to children. The purpose of this study was to examine whether cultural variables: (a) conflict tactics, (b) nurturance, (c) drinking, and (d) valuing children can predict parents' attitudes on the use of harsh physical punishment in Akwa Ibom Sate of Nigeria.

In spite of the fact that many empirical research have focused on maltreatment of children in Nigeria, instead of corporal punishment (Afolabi, Onyinye, & Ifeyinwa, 2014; Akanji & Dada, 2012; Esere, Idowu, & Omotosho, 2009; Fakunmoju & Bammeke, 2013; Fakunmoju et al., 2013; Nwoke, 2010; Olawale, 2009; Omobola, 2012; Sossou & Yogtiba, 2009). Notably, few researchers have focused on corporal punishment or harsh physical discipline of children in Nigeria (Iguh & Nosike, 2011; Omoyemiju, Ojo, & Olatomide, 2014; Nduka et al., 2012;Egwunyenga, 2009; Omoyemiju, 2013;Omoyemiju et al., 2014, pp. 1-2).While there are worldwide empirical studies conducted on corporal punishment and maltreatment (Alhassan, 2000; Mundy-Castle, 1976; Ermertcan & Ertan,

2010;Durrant & Ensom, 2012;Brownlie and Anderson 2006;Dekker, 2012;O'Neil, Killian, & Hough, 2009; Eugene, 2011; Lau, 2010; Renteln, 2010;Castelli, 2009; Lorber, O'Leary, & Smith Slep, 2011; Thomas & Dettlaff, 2011). Several researchers have focused on the negative outcome of the use of physical punishment on children (Gershoff,2010; Korb & Danga, 2013;Tenkorang & Gyimah, 2012; Durrant & Ensom, 2012;Laventhal & Krugman 2012;Gilbert et al. 2008;Teicher, Anderson, Polcari, Anderson, &Navalta , 2003;Nolin & Ethier, 2007; Savitz et al., 2007; Ritchie et al., 2011;Wilson &Scarpa, 2013; & Landsford, 2010).

Researchers have shown that predictors of physical punishment were uncovered in empirical research, including cultural factors (Cle'ment & Chamberland, 2008; Nduka et al., 2012; Nuhu & Nuhu, 2010; Tennfjord, 2006; Uwaoma et al., 2012; Ferrarri, 1999) intergenerational use of physical discipline(Abrahams & Jewkes, 2005; Bower-Russa, Knutson, & Winebarger, 2001; Brookmeyer & Henrich, 2005). Culture is the predictor that was explored in this study.

## Literature Research Strategy

The literature search strategy for this study was concentrated oncurrent peer-reviewed articles.The search included the use of library databases and search engines as follows:

1. Google Scholar
2. Microsoft Academic Search
3. Walden Library
4. PsycARTICLES database

5. Online Journals search engine
6. Merriam-Webster dictionary
7. Encyclopedia of Psychology
8. Psycline
9. Get Cited

Some of the terms utilized in searching for the related literature included but were not limited to the following: physical punishment, spanking, hitting, child abuse, culture, parents, family, heavy drinking, nurturance, Nigerian parents' attitude toward physical punishment, conflict tactics, and valuing children in Nigeria.

**Children's Rights in Nigeria: History**

Children's rights in Nigeria are governed by the Children and Young Person's Act (CYPA), which was enacted in 1943. In 2003, the federal government passed the CRA, which ordered that "no child shall be ordered to be imprisoned, subjected to corporal punishment, or subjected to the death penalty" (CRA, 2003, section 215.1.b). However, the federal government left it up to individual state assemblies to enact the Child Rights Act. According to UNICEF, "to date, only 16 of the country's 36 states have passed the Act" (UNICEF, n.d., para. 1). Akwa Ibom is among those 16 states, passing the Child Rights Act in 2008.

Prior to the CRA in Nigeria, according to the Criminal Code, striking a juvenile with a cane was thought to be an appropriate judicial punishment. It was stated in Article 11 (2) of the CYPA that imprisonment should be avoided for a juvenile "if he can be suitably dealt with in any other way; whether by prohibition, fine, corporal punishment,

committal to a place of detention or to an approved institution or otherwise" (Children and Young Persons Act, LFN 1958).Article 14 (f) of the CYPA indicated that the preferred method for judicial corporal punishment was whipping. While the CRA put a stop to this, corporal punishment is still allowable on a federal level, according to S.295 in the Criminal Code and S.55 in the Penal Code, which encourage the use of corporal punishment for juveniles (Criminal Code Act, Cap C38 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria, 2004).

Forces within Nigeria have been working to change attitudes toward corporal punishment, as well as physical and emotional child abuse and neglect. This was spurred by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, which aims to eliminate all forms of violence, including the use of corporal punishment by parents. The United Nations collaborated with the World Health Organization to change cultural norms to appropriate punishment by implementing acceptable methods of discipline that will not subject a child to abuse (Landsford, 2010). Organizations within Nigeria worked toward this goal include Stepping Stone Nigeria and the Nigerian Children's Parliament.

## Corporal Punishment

**Definition: Corporal punishment.** Strauss (1994) defined corporal punishment as the use of force for the purpose of inflicting pain, but not injury, on a child with the hope of controlling or correcting the child's misconducts. The techniques used to educate children in regards to proper conducts vary. The United Nations committee that enforces the Convention on the Rights of the Child defined corporal punishment as "any

punishment that requires physical force be used to cause some degree of pain or discomfort" (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2007).

**Corporal punishment in Nigeria.** Among the many African traditional beliefs, having a child is a fundamental treasure desired in every African home, as children are symbols of status, respect, and life fulfillment (Sossou & Yogtiba, 2008). Because children constitute a focal point in the African value system, people will do anything to have a child, even if it means marrying another wife or consulting native doctors and performing rituals (Sossou & Yogtiba, 2008).

However cherished, African children are often disciplined using life-threatening physical violence, such as severe beatings, burns, and strangulations, which are inflicted by the adult members of the community (Akpan & Oluwabamide, 2010). Other forms of unfavorable care include neglect, sexual or emotional abuse, child labor, child trafficking, child marriage, and exploitation (Akpan & Oluwabamide, 2010). Childhood abuse and neglect violate the rights of the Nigerian citizens. Chapters 4 section 30, 40 of the 1997 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria guarantee every citizen's basic and fundamental rights. This, in combination with the CRA, should guarantee the safety of Akwa Ibom children from physical harm.

In traditional Nigerian society, the use of corporal punishment for behavior modification has been a common phenomenon. The use of cane or belt, from time immemorial, has been the norm of disciplining children for their misconducts in African society. Teachers use the cane to maintain discipline in schools and to control antisocial behaviors of students. A study conducted by Daki (2010) on Nigerian teachers in Yobe

State reported that 69% of mathematics teachers beat their students as a form of discipline. Subsequently, undergraduate students at the University of Jos reported how their secondary school teachers often used beating as a form of disciplinary action. Thirty percent reported that teachers beat daily, 7% weekly, 20% monthly, 37% rarely, and 7% never (Korb, 2010). When asked what form of discipline strategy they would use when they become teachers, 10% reported planning to use beating daily, 10% weekly, 13% monthly, 33% rarely, and 33% never. This result showed that the next generation of teachers was less likely to use corporal punishment on their students.

Nduka et al. (2012) found a positive relationship between parents' use of physical punishments and cultural importance and participation in cultural events (p. 1571), suggesting that physical discipline is tied to Nigerian culture. The researchers linked this to the macro-system in Bronfenbrenner's ecological system theory, stating that "culture plays an important role in determining how parents interact with their children in their families" (Nduka et al., 2012, p. 1571). In their study, which used the Parent Form of the DDI, "the parents who attached much importance to the cultural values indicated that it is 'always ok' to use physical punishments such as spanking, hitting, slapping, swatting etc. in disciplining their children" (Nduka et al., 2012, p. 1572). The current study used this same measure to determine parental attitudes toward specific forms of discipline. Beyond importance of cultural values, the authors concluded that "participation in cultural events made the highest contribution to the parents' use of physical punishments on their children" (Nduka et al., 2012, p. 1572). They reasoned that the importance placed on the use of physical punishments "could be traced to the old cultural teachings from the fore-

fathers in Igbo land" that emphasized that physical punishments would cause a child to behave well (Nduka et al., 2012, p. 1575).

Omoyemiju et al. (2014) found corporal punishment tactics to be frequently used in Nigerian schools, but blamed this on the fact that the government failed to provide education on alternative disciplinary strategies (p. 2). They reasoned that most teachers and parents were untrained in the art of discipline: "parents and teachers are just using methods of discipline which they are familiar without considering their effectiveness or whether they constitute violence on the children or not" (Omoyemiju et al., 2014, p. 3).

**Forms of corporal punishment in Nigeria.** Striking is a common form of corporal punishment, and the device used for striking can include the hand, a birch twig, a ruler, bamboo cane, "leather straps…, wooden spoons, belts, slippers, hairbrushes or any handy object" (Iguh & Nosike, 2011, p. 105). Other past forms of corporal punishment have included "branding, birching, mutilation, amputation, and the use of the pillory and the stocks" (Iguh & Nosike, 2011, p. 105). Omoyemiju et al. (2014) found that the most common form of discipline used by teachers in Nigeria was making students kneel for a long period of time, followed by "standing for a long period of time," then "raising both hands and closing eyes" (pp. 7-8). Parents in Omoyemiju et al.'s (2014) study also used kneeling frequently as a discipline tactic, but the second most favored punishment tactic by parents was "flogging with a cane" (p. 11).

**Nigerian attitudes toward corporal punishment.** Law professors Iguh and Nosike (2011) asserted at the conclusion of their examination on the history of corporal punishment in Nigeria and review of American punishment practices that "children need

to be protected, but they also need to be disciplined. Therefore, the opponents of corporal punishment in our own are wrong in saying that physical punishment should never be inflicted" (p. 110). They believed that the move to ban corporal punishment in Nigeria was solely the result of international pressure (Iguh & Nosike, 2011, p. 107) and wrote that they were "very surprised to find out that some Nigerians actually favor the proposition of a ban on corporal punishment" (p. 108). They indicated that this ban was approved mostly among educated people, and that "to ordinary people, it is an unheard of venture and a proposal to strike at the very heart of sensible child rearing" (Iguh & Nosike, 2011, p. 108).Iguh and Nosike (2011) concluded that the prohibition on the use of corporal punishment should be repealed from CRA, and offered these recommendations:

1. Domestication of CRA at the State level: The CRA in its rights responsibilities approach, is culturally sensitive, compatible, relevant and above all in the best interest of the Nigerian child. It is hoped that the stakeholders that have been instrumental to seeing that the Act was passed at the National level will act collectively to see that the Act is eventually promulgated into law in all the States of the Federation.
2. Section 221 (1) (b) of the Act (CRA) which prohibits the use of corporal punishment as a judicial sentence for juvenile should be repealed.
3. Nigeria, as a sovereign nation, should protect her sovereignty by not allowing international bodies, to intrude into the domestic affairs of the country.

4. There should be a provision for an elaborate and specific form of application of corporal punishment, for instance, who should do the caning, for what offences, the maximum number of strokes and the site on the body where it should be inflicted. Such a strategy would preclude or at least minimize the incidence of abuse.
5. States that have not yet adopted the Child Right's Act are advised to jettison the provisions of S.221 (b) of the Act in the event of their adopting the CRA. (p. 111)

In traditional African society, the use of corporal punishment for behavior modification has been a common phenomenon. The Yoruba in southwestern Nigeria have a proverb: "'aya omode ni were di si ni won fi ntu,' which can be interpreted as 'the mind of a child is filled with madness, only flogging could be used to remove it'" (Omoyemiju et al., 2014, p. 3). Omoyemiju et al's (2014) study on parent and teacher's knowledge of violent disciplinary acts found that most teachers (55.4%) were perfectly aware of what constituted violent disciplinary acts. Most parents were not as aware: 41.4% of parents only had a fair knowledge of what constituted violent disciplinary acts. Because their study found that, despite this awareness, teachers and parents still relied on the use of violent disciplinary acts, the researchers recommended that the government should employ more counselors in schools, who should educate teachers and parents on alternative disciplinary tactics that do not use violence (Omoyemiju et al., 2014, p. 14).

## Child Abuse

**Definition: Child abuse.** It is useful to delineate the definition of child abuse in relation to physical punishment, since the two overlap so much in the literature. While the definition of child abuse is controversial, it has been found that most individuals will agree that physical punishments of children in the "severe" category, in relation to "low" or "moderate" physical punishments, "are generally agreed to be abusive" (Castelli, 2009, p. 99). However, the definition of physical abuse has been an unending debate. Tenkorang and Gyimah (2012) claimed the cause of the disagreement has had much to do with the legal, psychological, and sociological interpretations that vary from culture to culture. An acceptable belief in one culture may be a taboo in another, and these beliefs vary over time. For example, in South Africa, childhood physical abuse was racialized, with whites identified as being the only lawful citizens in the apartheid era (Ritcher & Dawes, 2008).

Muela, Lopez de Arana, Barandiara, Larrea, and Vitoria (2012) aligned reasons for their inability to reach a consensus in providing an effective operational definition of child maltreatment to the following factors: lack of social consensus on unacceptable or dangerous parenting styles; lack of certainty according to the adults' behaviors, and its effect on children; the confusion whether damage criteria should be included in the definition of child maltreatment, and the uncertainty whether it is appropriate to use the definition for scientific, legal and clinical purposes.

Muela et al. (2012) provided a refined definition of child abuse and neglect, describing it as deliberate actions by caregivers to interfere with a child's physical-

biological, cognitive, emotional, and social needs. Abuse could simply be referred to as ill-treatment of a child by his parents or caregiver (Akpan & Oluwabamide, 2010). Child abuse could be described as a life-threatening physical violence, such as severe beating, burns, or strangulations. A more comprehensive definition would include providing unfavorable care, which could consist of neglect, physical, sexual, and emotional abuse and exploitations (Akpan & Oluwabamide, 2010). Other definitions included conceptualizing child abuse and neglect as a continuum. However, Muella et al. (2012) concluded that child abuse comprises intentional and severe physical abuse, and in its broadest definition, included anything that could obstruct the child's optimum development.

The concept of child maltreatment was initially restricted to physical abuse. But after reviewing research on the relationships between child abuse and neglect, researchers concluded to extend the definition of abuse to include emotional deprivation, malnutrition, child neglect, and sexual abuse. This extended definition of child abuse was a contributing factor in the understanding that not all parents have deliberate intentions to inflict physical harm to their children, allowing emphasis to be placed on the social factors as the determining causes that could explain the etiology of child maltreatment (Muella et al., 2012).

The American Federal Child Abuse and Protective Service Act (CAFTA) of 1974 and its amended version of 2003 defined child abuse as "any recent act or failure to act on the part of a parent or caregiver which results in death, serious physical or emotional harm, sexual abuse or exploitation; OR an act or failure to act which by any

circumstances presents risk of serious harm" (CAFTA, 1974). Under the act, four types of abuse were recognized nationwide: physical, neglect, sexual, and emotional.

The Swedish Committee Against Child Abuse (SCACA) defined child abuse as an incidence when an adult subjects a child to a physical or psychological ill-treatment, sexual assault, humiliation, or inability to meet the child's basic needs (SCACA, 2001b) The aforementioned definition is in conformity with the definition depicted by the World Health Organization's (WHO) 1999 charter (WHO, 2002).

Jernbro, Eriksson, and Janson (2010) characterized physical abuse as situations when an adult inflicted a child with physical harm, illness, pain, or actions to make the child helpless and totally ineffectual. Examples of physical abuse, according to this definition, included hitting, kicking, scratching, pinching, biting, poisoning, burning, scalding, drowning, or suffocating the child (Jernbro et al., 2010). They defined physical neglect as situations when an adult or caregiver failed to provide the child with the basic needs for his/her health and development (Jernbro et al., 2010). According to this definition, examples of physical neglect included lack of food, hygiene, shelter, clothes, and health care (Jernbro et al., 2010).

**Child abuse in Nigeria.** Nuhu and Nuhu (2010) conducted a study on attitudes of Nigerian parents toward child abuse and revealed that many parents had a good understanding of what constituted child abuse, and that socioeconomic and cultural factors have compelled them continue to indulge in such act. Respondents from the study reported the following factors as causes of child abuse and neglect: single parenting (80.4%), poverty/unemployment (72.3%), cultural factors/lack of education (26.2%), and

the stubbornness of the child (1.2%) (Nuhu & Nuhu, 2010). As shown previously in this literature review, within the Nigerian society, physical punishment inflicted on children is understood as an old and upheld custom. Cle'ment and Chamberlain (2008) showed that cultural factors, such as customary laws, regulate physical punishment. The abusive behaviors of parents could emanate from cultural influences and inherited family parenting styles (Nduka et al., 2012).

Esere, Idowu, and Omotosho (2009) examined the abuse experienced specifically by Nigerian girls and found physical violence to be prevalent, reported by 90% of the participants. Psychological abuse was reported by 80% of the girls, and rape was reported by 10% (p. 107).

In their examination of teachers' and parents' knowledge of violent disciplinary practices,

Omoyemiju et al. (2014) outlined the crucial difference between discipline and punishment:

> Discipline preserves mutual respect of feelings and dignity, raises the child's self-esteem, makes parent and child feel good about each other and the relationship. Conversely, punishment undermines the child's feelings and the child's and parent's self-esteem. Discipline motivates and encourages the child to do better subsequently or thereafter, enhances the child's understanding, while punishment inspires anger, resentment, rebellion, revenge or withdrawal in the child. Discipline is proactive … while punishment is reactive. Finally, the consequences of discipline focus upon restitution and natural outcome of events, while the

> consequences of punishment focus on hurting or depriving the child, which could be devastating. It can be concluded further that discipline and punishment are not practically the same even though some parents, teachers and other stakeholders use them interchangeably. (pp. 3-4)

**Predictors of child abuse in Nigeria.** Afolabi et al. (2014) examined predictors of abusive actions in parents from Lagos state. They found that female parents and parents aged 40 or above "were more likely to abuse children" (p. 140). There was no difference in education levels in attitudes toward child abuse. These findings contradicted earlier findings by Fakunmoju and Bammeke (2013) that "men were more likely than women to indicate propensity to perpetrate abusive behaviors" (p. 725). They measured this conclusion through answers to the questions that showed that more men than women were:

> (a) satisfied with little bruises here and there on their children resulting from corporal punishment… (b) consider depriving their children of food as a form of discipline … (c) have had sex with a child since becoming an adult… (d) allow children to sleep at home alone overnight without adult supervision; and (f) regard it as normal to show preferential treatment to one child and hostility to another. (Fakunmoju & Bammeke, 2013, pp. 728-729)

Fakunmjoju and Bammeke further discovered that "those who perceived behaviors as not abusive, as well as those who reported childhood experience of abusive behaviors, were more likely to intend to perpetrate abusive behaviors" (p. 725).

**Akwa Ibom State**

Akwa Ibom is one of the 36 States in Nigeria and is named after the Qua Iboe River. It was chosen for this study due to the geographical locations with major similarities in cultural values and child rearing. It is located in the south-southern part of the country, bordered on the east by Cross River State, on the west by Rivers State and Abia State, and on the South by the Atlantic Ocean.

Akwa Ibom State was created in 1987 from the former Cross River State with a population of over 5 million people whose main languages are Ibibio, Annang, Eket, and Oron. English language is the official language used in communicating between peoples' whose languages are different, for example, a Hausa speaker, and a Yoruba speaker. The State is comprised of an airport, two major sea ports, and is considered the highest oil and gas producing state in the country. Akwa Ibom is divided into 31 local government areas, and Uyo is the capital city.

There are many primary, secondary and higher institutions of education in the state. Some of the higher education institutions are the University of Uyo, Akwa Ibom State University, Obong University, Uyo City Polytechnic, School of Nursing Uyo, and Heritage Polytechnic.

Motorcycles provide the major commercial means of transportation, but recently the government has provided kekes, a motorized three-wheeled vehicle, and some of the population own cars through government assistance. Trading, fishing, and farming are the major occupations of the citizens. Those who are educated often move to the city to attain government jobs or work for private enterprises.

**Culture in Akwa Ibom Families.** The macrosystem is the largest system in Bronfenbrenner's (1994) model, and is made up of cultural beliefs, societal values, and political trends in the community that together determine the societal structures and activities in the immediate system levels. Seifert (1999) "confirmed that culture is one of the strongest elements with the power to affect all other elements in Brofenbrenner's ecological theory" (Nduka et al., 2012, p. 1568). Patriarchy has historically been a major cultural tradition of Nigerian society. Asiyanbola (2005) described it as a system of social stratification and differentiation on the basis of sex, which allows men hegemony over decision making on important issues, while limitations are placed on the roles and activities of women.

The term patriarchy was originally used to describe the power of the father as head of the household, but later refashioned in post 1960's feminist scholarship to refer to the organization of male supremacy and female subordination (Aina, 1998). Makama (2013) described patriarchy as a system of male authority that oppresses women through its social, political, and economic institutions. Okpe (2005) surmised that patriarchy is made up of a broad network of hierarchical organizations determined by political, economic, social, religion, cultural, industrial, and financial spheres in which upper and prominent positions in the society are controlled by men.

The practice of male dominance over women and children has been a historic process formed by men and women, with the patriarchal family serving as the basic unit of the family (Makama, 2013). A patriarch is considered the head of the household, and within the family he controls productive resources, labor force, and reproductive

capacities based on the belief of superiority and inferiority as stipulated by differences in gender. The culture of patriarchy in Nigerian society references the dominance of the male over the female, in which the male retains the family name and lineage, while the female offspring are often given out for marriage. The men have been trained to acquire leadership positions, while women have been culturally tied to domestic activities, which have reduced their status to that of an inferior commodity (Makama, 2013).

The patriarchal hierarchical family is based on age and gender. It is ranked in an order that gives prominence to the oldest male, who is presented as a leader whom everyone in the family should respect and obey. The youngest male has the lowest rank, and therefore must be subordinate to his elder brothers. This means that each family member has a role to play. The husband is typically considered the head of the household, and controls his wife, who must display obeisance to him.

Male children are favored over female children in Nigerian families. According to Izugbara (2004), male children are socialized to see themselves as future heads of household, essential for securing status within the family, breadwinners, and having authority over their wives, while the female children are socialized to be obedient, submissive, meek, and humble housekeepers. According to Mazuru and Nyambi (2012), Shanona/Africana women accepted the role of housekeeping as they were socialized and trained for tasks such as childbearing, nurturing, rearing, and protection. However, the quest for having male children amongst Akwa Ibom indigenes can make parents go to the extent of consulting oracles, or engaging in numerous dangerous sacrifices. The

preference for male children in the Nigerian culture is considered the strongest desire in West Africa (Ibanga, 1994).

Nigerian parents hold a lot of power over their children, which can result in child maltreatment. Traditionally, parents are supposed to be respected, revered, and obeyed. They believe their sons should be raised in the *masculine* way, and daughters in a *feminine* way. The necessity for corporal punishment is also a commonly held belief. While it is customary for boundaries between parents and children to be firmly set, parents are meant to instruct, guide, and protect their children, while the duty of children is to obey and respect their parents.

Children are seen as wonderful blessing from God and are highly valued in the Nigerian community. The Nigerian family considers the parent-child relationship more important than the wife-husband relationship; hence, the care for their children is taken very seriously (Ajayi& Owumi, 2013). Subsequently, the success of their children is a reflection on parents' self-worth and good parenting skills, and parents' achievements are judged in this way. It is customarily believed that "if your child fails to succeed, then you as a parent have failed." Any child who accomplishes high achievements brings glory and greatness to his family, and such a child is appreciated in the context of Nigerian culture.

Another important characteristic amongst Nigerian citizens is the practice of communal child rearing within the extended family or lineage; the financial burden is not solely on the biological parents. Family ties in African tradition are so significant that close relatives share the cost of rearing children in terms of emotion, time, finance, and

other support (Ajayi & Owumi, 2012). The extended family is the pillar that supports child rearing practices (Fapohunda & Todaro, 1988).

Since patriarchy has been the norm in Nigerian society, it is imperative to understand the issue of child maltreatment on the basis of cultural context. In the diary of Alokan and Bimbola 'Kemi (2010) and Madu (2003), behavior that is viewed as acceptable by one culture can be viewed as abusive in another culture, as cultural norms vary as to what comprises child abuse. Nevertheless, opinions differ on the rationalization of using culture to determine responses to possible abuse scenarios. Twum-Danso (2010) emphasized that cultural context does not sufficiently justify the maltreatment of children. Instead, she advised to focus on the use of social economic contexts as a means to better explain child abuse or maltreatment.

**Drinking**. Drinking behaviors in Nigeria have been identified as a strong symbol of masculinity (Ibanga, Adetula, & Dagona, 2009). Nelson (2014) found that the use of alcohol underlies most occurrences of male violence against women. Fawole, Salawu, and Olarinmoye (2009) established that alcohol consumption correlated with a higher rate of intimate partner violence, a finding which was confirmed in 2012 by Balogun, Owoaje, and Fawole. Elsewhere, drinking has been linked to an increase in both corporal punishment and abusive parenting practices, according to a study conducted in California (Freisthler & Gruenewald, 2013), where even the drinking venues and amount of alcohol consumed had an effect on the type of physical punishment. Drinking at bars or parties was shown to have a stronger influence on child maltreatment than drinking at home. In earlier research on the same topic, Freisthler suggested that use of alcohol at bars and

parties created a sort of culture where parents associated with individuals who "may share the same attitudes and norms towards acting violently" (Freisthler, 2011, p. 185). The drinking patterns in Nigeria have been found to occur mostly in bars than in private homes, and if drinking occurs in private homes, it is part of a larger gathering (Ibanga et al., 2009). "Drinking as a solitary activity is still rare" in Nigeria (Ibanga et al., 2009, p. 114).

**Corporal Punishment and Child Maltreatment Worldwide**

Corporal punishment is an inheritable characteristic by all peoples, and has existed for centuries (Alhassan, 2000; Mundy-Castle, 1976). Alhassan (2000) warned of the disintegration that could befall a community that lacks discipline. He declared that discipline holds individuals together and allows them to live harmoniously so that all can survive and benefit from one another. He stressed that effective discipline does not come from external forces designed to effect compliance, but discipline comes from within, and often overrides the pain experienced by the victim for the pursuit of desirable and majestic goals (Alhassan, 2000).

In societies where corporal punishment is accepted, it is meant to assist the development of an individual. Brownlie and Anderson (2006) studied parents' views on corporal punishment in Scotland, and concluded that education was needed to first understand the parent-child relationship, as well as the meanings discipline has for the parents, so as to effectively offer alternative discipline strategies.

Child maltreatment has been known and recognized throughout history, but physical punishment, which is often considered a social problem, is relatively new.

Because child maltreatment is a social-psychological phenomenon that is determined by forces working in the individual, family, community, and cultural levels, understanding the developmental history of child maltreatment will explicitly assist in clarifying the present context of child maltreatment, and promote prevention efforts that may hold significant promise.

The maltreatment of children can be traced back to the beginnings of mankind. Dekker (2012) referred to child maltreatment as an old issue in the historiography of childhood and education. The maltreatment of children is an intergenerational tradition, and it takes many forms, including abandonment and neglect, sacrifice, mutilation, slavery, excessive discipline, and exploitation.

Al-Shail,Hassan, Aldowaish, and Kattan (2012) have reported on child maltreatment in Tobkadi Museum in Istanbul, which revealed that fathers in ancient Greece were permitted to indulge in infant homicide, in which infants with malformations were killed for the purpose of preserving the purity of the human race. Additionally, the study described how midwives in second century Greece were advised by physicians to eliminate those infants who were severely deformed. The authors also shared how Zal, the first known albino, was exposed by his father because he was born with white hair. Other reports from the literature included stories of children being slaughtered, victims of the practice of sacrifice, and mutilation, all of which were regarded as a normal lifestyle until about two centuries ago. It was reported that sexual abuse was often practiced by the Inuits, who gave their daughters as gifts to their guests,

which would eventually conclude in their deaths during their first sexual intercourse (Al-Shail et al., 2012).

History has told of parents who sold their children for money, and poor families who used their children for farm work to enhance their socioeconomic status (Al-Shail et al., 2012). Boys were given opportunities to receive higher education, while girls stayed home to help with house work. It was not until the mid-nineteenth century that education was made mandatory for every child (Al-Shail et al., 2012).The inhumane practice on children has been an acceptable and normal daily practice until recently. According to scholars such as Lloyd Demause, whose historical analysis on maltreatment was built on education and childhood, we are just now moving out of a dark age, in regards to the maltreatment of children. Near the end of the middle ages, the elite started embracing the idea of *animal educandum*– that children are beings that need to be nurtured (Dekker, 2012).

The legacy of child maltreatment continues to be uncertain, due to the frightening number of children who are maltreated in modern times, often resulting in death, physical, emotional, and mental impairments. According to the 2000 National Committee for the Prevention of Child Abuse (NCPCA), four million children were reported to child protective services as being mistreated in the United States. Whereas, in 2012, 1,400 children were confirmed dead from maltreatment (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2004).

Child maltreatment, which includes physical abuse, sexual abuse, and neglect (Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act, 1974), is a practice of philosophies, cultural

beliefs that have promulgated systems of laws that promote some rights for children (Al-Shail et al., 2012). The English common law characterized children as property to their parents: fathers were aligned as head of the household, and given authority over the entire family. The United States embraced the same common law tradition that placed male as the head of the household, to act as provider, protector, and disciplinarian over the wife, children, servants, and slaves (Al-Shail et al., 2012). The common law entitled the male to control the family members' behavior and settle family problems or domestic violence using the common law standards (Al-Shail et al., 2012).

The complexity surrounding child maltreatment could be associated with socio-cultural context in early part of the 19th century, in which the legal protection from harm was granted to animals before children (Al-Shail et al., 2012).The case that actually drew the public attention in the early 1870s about child maltreatment was the case of 8-year old Mary Ellen Wilson, who was brutally abused. The attorney for the then American Society for Prevention to Cruelty to Animals (ASPCA) took her case to court, and successfully won the case, establishing that humans had the same rights to legal protection as animals (Shelton & Lazoritz, 2005). The multi-faceted unique and timely case of Mary Ellen is acknowledged as the precipitator for the birth of the child protection movement, for which the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NYSPCC) was the first established in United States in 1874 (Radford et al., 2011). Subsequently, in the United Kingdom, the case elucidated the enactment of the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC) in 1889 (NSPCC, 2006; Paton, 2006). The news of the NYSPCC had pervaded the whole region, and by the

early twentieth century, about 300 nongovernmental protection services were founded across America. Unfortunately, many cities and nearly all rural areas were without access to the protective services, and cases of children who were victimized were handled by family members, neighbors, law enforcement agencies, and the judicial systems (Myers, 2008).

Following the evolution of the nongovernmental protection services, the Juvenile Court emerged to intervene for abused and neglected children. This extraordinary innovation produced the first Juvenile Court in Chicago in 1899, and by early twentieth century all the states were swayed to create juvenile courts (Myers, 2008).

In America, it was not until after 1935 that the federal government began to play a significant role in the child welfare policy and funding. The genesis of the federal government's significant role was the creation of the Federal Children's Bureau in 1912, and then the establishment of the Sheperd-Towner Act, which provided federal money for mothers and babies, for health care services from 1921-1929 (Myers, 2008).On no circumstances should the Great Depression be ruled out as a major factor in social welfare. President Roosevelt's New Deal perpetuated the passage of the Social Security Act by the congress in 1935, to save the country from economic disaster by creating aid to dependent children, old-age pensions, unemployment insurances, and vocational services (Myers, 2008).The Social Security Act was an embodiment that authorized the Children's Bureau to work with the state public-welfare in protecting the homeless, neglected, and dependent children (Social Security Act, 1963).The other major impact of

the great depression was the gradual eradication of the nongovernmental SPCCs, which was the cornerstone of the protection of children from maltreatment.

The mid-twentieth century was very momentous in the United States. Child abuse was first recognized through the expedient role of the physicians at that time. Medical students were not trained about child abuse; hence they lacked the competency to recognize abused children and make appropriate judgments. It was the article of a pediatric radiologist, John Caffey that promulgated the medical interest in abuse of children in 1946 (Myers, 2008).

Subsequently, by the early 1960s, the attention given to child abuse by physicians grew, and they started to research the causes. As a result, pediatrician Henry Kempe and his colleagues (1962) published a peer reviewed article in the *Journal of American Medical Association*, titled "The Battered Child Syndrome." This article not only sparked the awareness of child maltreatment, but ignited the professional recognition of child abuse in the United States. The article described the injuries (e.g., head injuries, body injuries, fractured arms and legs) that were identified and observed in emergency rooms, pediatrics, and general practice offices that could not be explained or accounted for by parents on the basis of falls from swings, beds, and staircases. Kempe et al's article was not only well accepted amongst the medical profession, but also helped to open the public and government authorities' eyes to a social problem that had long been a canker sore in society. The popularity of the article sparked the enactment of states' child abuse laws and other federal legislation, and promoted research into the causes of parental abuse (Guastaferro, Lutzker, Graham, Shantley, & Whitaker, 2012).

Kempe et al.'s (1962) battered child syndrome article did not only cause the amendment of the 1962 Social Security Act, but paved a way for the Federal Children's Bureau to determine how the Bureau could effectively help states respond to child abuse. A series of meetings to that effect were convened, and Henry Kempe and Vincent De Francis, who were attendees of the meetings, contributed to the recommendations of the establishment of child abuse reporting laws. The efforts of Kempe and his colleagues, with the collaboration of the Children's Bureau, helped establish a model of reporting laws in 1963, and by 1967, all states had enacted laws to report suspected child abuse (Myers, 2008).

After the states' mandated reporting laws went into effect, about 60,000 cases were reported by 1974.By 1980, the number of reported cases increased tremendously, and in 1990 and 2000, reported cases topped two million and three million respectively. Another critical component of the child protection—foster care—followed the passage of the Child Abuse and Prevention and Treatment Act of 1974 (CAPTA). Prior to the foster care system, children who could not live safely at home ended up in almshouses. Reformers of the nineteenth century (e.g., Charles Loring Bruce) paved the way for the induction of foster care as the best solution and safe haven for dependent children, over almshouses and orphanages (Myers, 2008).

Another important victory following the enactment of the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act of 1974 (CAPTA) was the establishment of the National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect (NCCAN), which served not only as a protection for all children, but as an overseer in implementing CAPTA (Myers, 2008).

The passage of the Adoption Assistance and Child Welfare Act of 1980 (AACWA) required states to make every effort to prevent children from being removed from abusive caregivers. The legislation also required reasonable efforts are made to return those children to their parents, even after they have been removed. For children who could not reunite with their parents, a move toward termination of parental rights would be attempted, and incentive for adoption was provided. Children with special needs were to be provided with financial assistance for them and their adoptive parents (Huntington, 2005).

Under the Clinton Administration, Congress responded to the numerous harms caused for leaving children in dangerous homes with the Adoption and Safe Family Act (ASFA). This legislation made safety a top priority by establishing strict guidelines for returning the foster kids to their biological parents, or terminating their parental rights to free the children for adoption. The statutory of the legislation also allowed unification of the family, and moved for termination of rights in chronic sexual and physical abuse cases (Huntington, 2005).

Some early speculations as to why parents harm their children were based on intrapersonal factors (Lutzker, Bigelow, Doctor, & Kessler, 1998), because mental health, behavioral, and social/ecological perspectives were just beginning to emerge at that time. However, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, studies conducted by Bronfrenbrenner (1979) and Belsky (1980) shed light on the notion that social ecology is associated with many environmental problems and conditions (e.g. poverty) and that there is a

relationship between interpersonal, intrapersonal, and community factors that could generate child maltreatment (Guastaferro et al., 2012).

Gracia's and Herrero's (2008) study aimed to gain greater understanding of the correlates of public attitudes toward physical punishment so that public education could be enacted to reduce the use of physical punishment at the individual level in Europe. Findings showed that there were higher levels of acceptability with men, the older, less educated, and those who perceived that violence against children was less frequent in their own country. Other findings showed that the existence of laws prohibiting physical punishment of children was significantly associated with lower levels of acceptability of physical punishment of children (Gracia & Herrero, 2008).

Lansford and Deater-Deckard (2012) examined the prevalence of country-level correlates of responses to children's behavior, including non-violent behavior, psychological aggression, physical violence, and physical punishment, as well as endorsement of physical punishment. They reviewed 24 countries using data from 30,470 families with children two to three years old who participated in the UNICEF's Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey. Findings showed that with the use of violence across countries, those with low levels of education were easily susceptible to violence against children. They concluded that efforts to eliminate abuse against children will need to alter the belief that physical punishment is a necessity for discipline by providing caregivers with non-violent alternatives to replace violence (Landsford & Deater-Deckard, 2012).

Reiff, Castille, Muenzenmaier, and Link (2012) explored the association between childhood abuse and the content of adult psychotic symptoms. A sample of 30

respondents were selected from a larger study of individuals interviewed using standardized and open ended questions to assess their history of child abuse and to draw out content of hallucinations and delusions. Findings from a comparison of abused and non-abused groups showed significantly higher trauma relevant symptom content score in the abused group. Results from the multiple case study approach showed congruent patterns of interaction between trauma history and symptoms description of abused respondents (Reiff et al., 2012).

According to Durrant and Ensom (2012), physical punishment was generally accepted worldwide as an appropriate method of discipline and considered different from child abuse as recently as 20 years ago. That perspective began to change with proliferating research that found links between the "normative" physical punishment and child aggression (Durrant & Ensom, 2012).

The shift in perspectives concerning the physical punishment of children was contingent on findings from research in the 1990s that there was a relationship between physical punishment and negative consequences (Durrant & Ensom, 2012). Leventhal and Krugman (2012), maintained that the consequences of child maltreatment can range from mild to severe depending on many factors (e.g., the duration of the maltreatment, the age of the child, the relationship of the abuser to the child, stressors affecting the family, individual vulnerability, and availability for treatment). The authors concluded that the more traumas a child is exposed to, the more severe the health outcome will become in adulthood. Long term consequences included the abuse of alcohol or drugs, excessive eating, and smoking, caused by attempts to develop coping mechanisms for

childhood maladaptive behaviors (Leventhal & Krugman, 2012). Research has also found evidence of lasting adverse effects from child maltreatment on brain development and the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (Leventhal & Krugman, 2012). Other consequences elucidated by research include the intergenerational effect and the negative impact on the family and society as a whole (Laventhal & Krugman, 2012).

Sossou and Yogtiba (2009) discussed some of the most serious and destructive problems that child abuse promulgates. The authors' asserted that poverty and traditional cultural practices were the main causes of child abuse. They also emphasized the need for educating social workers, who are mandated by the professions code of ethics to promote principles of social justice, human rights, and social change to empower and liberate people to enhance their well-being. The authors recommended an immediate need to conduct various forms of epidemiological research to provide scientific baseline data on the problem.

The past few decades have illustrated a national transition from considering children as property for profit, to the recognition of children's rights, resulting in the adoption and implementation of legislation to protect them. Much has been achieved since the 1960s: from the availability of protective services across America to the billions of dollars devoted to child welfare and the availability of professionals to help struggling parents and children. However, the child protection system is far from perfect, and much remains to be done (Myers, 2008).

Indeed, a lot of work is still necessary to curtail the increased number of reported cases of alleged abuse or neglect to Child Protective Services. Ermertcan and Ertan

(2010) posited that child maltreatment has steadily increased since the 1960s, resulting in mortality and morbidity for the world's children, irrespective of religion, ethnicity and social status. Abuse increased from 669,000 in 1976 to 3 million in 1995 (Ermertcan & Ertan, 2010). As recently as 2007, there were 3.2 million referrals involving maltreatment of 5.8 million children referred to Child Protective Services (Ermertcan & Ertan, 2010). The need for early identification, prevention, and intervention of child abuse is eminent in order to save lives (Ermertcan & Ertan, 2010).

**Cultural Differences in Perceptions of Corporal Punishment**

Culture is an integral part of every living organism, often characterized by language, religion, ideas, beliefs, values, cuisine, and social habits. Unlike human species, animals are culturally oriented in terms of acquiring important behaviors and skills from group mates via social learning (Tomasello, 2010). In contrast, human culture has often operated in a cooperative manner in the form of collaborative problem solving and communication. The unique aspect of human cooperation and mode of culture are centered on the social cognitive processes, which involve the ability and motivation to form shared goals and intentions with others, share experiences, cooperative communications, and teachings (Tomasello, 2010).

Until fairly recently, research ignored culture as a factor that contributed to the exertion of childhood physical punishment. Rather, research has primarily focused on externalizing behavior, such as aggression and delinquency, and internalizing behavior, such as depression and anxiety. However, a large body of research has been investigating

the impact of culture on parents' attitudes, goals, and practices in raising their children (Lansford, 2010).

Since culture constitutes a pattern that makes up humans' way of life and thought process (Nduka et al., 2012), exploring and understanding culture and human diversity is imperative for determining its causative effects on physical punishment. Nduka et al. (2012) suggested that culture perpetuated physical punishment. Traditional beliefs that present physical punishment as a normal method for resolving conflict or as a normal way to rear children encourage child abuse (Landsford & Dodge, 2008). Montgomery (2009) added that physical punishment is not perceived asabuse in a society where it is used, but rather as a means of socialization in order to live in a society with power inequalities.

Mistry, Cahuduri, and Diez (2003) surmised that parents hold different kinds of beliefs about what forms of discipline to accept, and what advice is appropriate to follow in order to manage children's behavior. Although beliefs and behaviors differ from one country to another, they are shaped by the norms of the country in which the parents live (Bornstein & Landsford, 2009).

Physical punishment, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, could lead to serious injuries and a decline in a child's biological, neurological, psychological, and social functions. This form of maltreatment by parents and caregivers has been portrayed as spanking, slapping, smacking, swatting, severe beating, exploitation for economic gains, and using children as slaves or engaging them in street hawking (Okeke, 2006). Such harsh methods of physical punishment by parents on their children are mostly learned

behavior witnessed in the family and the mass media (Abrahams & Jewkes, 2005; Brookmeyer et al., 2005).

Findings from research conducted in Nigeria showed that cultural factors contribute to child abuse: parents beat their children as a form of discipline, and use cultural beliefs to justify their actions. Child abuse is also often portrayed as a foreign custom, practiced by the western countries (Nuhu & Nuhu, 2010).

Childrearing is shaped by cultural heritage and beliefs. These beliefs often shape how parents care for their offspring. Recent anthropological literatures have been able to compare child rearing practices and value systems across cultural groups. Since family is the primary socialization agent of a culture, children learn moral values and social convention that involve parenting (Grusec, 2011). The act of experiencing such unique pattern of childrearing is the reason there is difference in characteristics of peoples and their culture (Bornstein et al., 2012). It has been proposed that some children are attached to the experience of corporal punishment based on the cultural context in which it was administered (Deater-Deckard & Dodge, 1997). In other words, if corporal punishment is the norm of a given culture, then children could think that their punishment was justified, and should be accorded a strategy for their best interest (Landsford, 2010).

Cultural factors favor abuse on female children in Igbo culture in the Imo state of Nigeria, because male children are preferred to female children. An inability to conceive a male child could result in abuse in the families (Uwaoma et al., 2012). Studies have indicated that male children are often given preferential treatment over female children, specifically during times of disaster (Ejikeme, 2003). The incidence of the 1960 civil war

in Nigeria attested to the aforementioned ideology, where parents evacuated their homes with their live stocks, personal belongings, and their male children, leaving the female children behind (Nwosu, 1972).

Female and male children have been treated as separate entities. The female children customarily stay at home in order to keep house, while male children are seen as bread winners and heads of their households (Izugbara, 2004).Subsequently, female children suffer more rejection, prejudice, discrimination, and abandonment than male children (Nduka, Mansor, & Talib, 2009).

Traditional beliefs that have existed for many years and have been found to be detrimental to humans may be discontinued. According to Renteln (2010), many traditional child rearing practices have been regarded as child abuse, thus deciding what child rearing practice is acceptable is a difficult choice. Renteln (2010) provided an example of one such practice: encouraging the touching of children's private parts as a way of showing affection, and not for sexual satisfaction. This act, when deliberate, constitutes child sexual abuse in some jurisdictions, but never has history depicted prosecuting a parent who innocently touched a child's private part in accordance to culture. The case of State v. Kargar (an Afghani refugee who kissed his son's penis) was vindicated by the court who thought that Kargar's action was in accordance with the norms of his culture (State v. Kargar, 679 A. 2nd 81, 82 Mc. 1996).

Misunderstood traditional folk medical practices that leave marks on the patient's body are also sometimes considered abuse according to international standards, but acceptable practice in their cultural society. For example, coining or *cao gio* is a folk

medicine often used among Southeast Asians to cure ailments such as cold and influenza. This technique involves covering the body with mentholated oil while rubbing the body with a serrated edge coin that lacerates the blood vessels, leaving bruises and scars on the neck and upper torso of the body. Other folk remedies include cupping—placing alcohol in a glass and then placing it on skin, thus leaving marks on the body. A relevant cupping case was that of a four-year-old central African girl who was forcefully removed from her parents as a result of the marks incurred from cupping. The ruling by the Maryland Court of Appeals seconded the juvenile court decision to encourage the girl's parents be educated in childrearing practice that is acceptable within the United States (Renteln, 2010).

The case of Dumpson v. Daniel M. brought a Nigerian father to the New York family court, accused of using excessive force on his seven-year-old son (Renteln, 2010). The father had received a series of letters about his son's misbehaviors at school. He decided to take his son to visit the vice-principal to discuss the issue. When the father saw his son looking at the vice-principal in a disrespectful manner, he hit his son. His reason for hitting his child was that customary law forbids a child to misbehave at school because it brings shame to the family. The judge's decision on this case was to impose the American standard of child abuse over the father's motive of cultural custom (Renteln, 2010).

Just as the transfer of cultural beliefs transpires from one generation to the next, so also is physical punishment intergenerational (Nduka et al., 2012). Thus, parents who use physical punishment on their children may have learned such behavior during their

own childhood, as they experienced physical punishment from their parents (Abrahams & Jewkes, 2005; Brookmeyer et al., 2005).

Even though corporal punishment has been known to generate behavior problems, its effect is considered weaker in the society that accepts corporal punishment. However, societies who adhere to their cultural beliefs and practices are prone to violence and abuse against children (Landsford, 2010). Therefore the kind of disciplinary action directed to a child could be justified by the customs and beliefs about what constitutes an acceptable punishment. Adequate understanding of the culture through cross-cultural training will assist those who work with children avoid unnecessary interventions in the families (Renteln, 2010).

Castelli (2009) suggested, in her conclusion to her study on the differences between Black and White American parents' use of and perceptions regarding physical punishment, that Child Protective Services and future researchers could use race "as a variable in severity of punishment ratings. For example, if the child receiving severe punishment was African American, would participant's perceptions change regarding severity of punishment and if the punishment was considered child abuse?" (p. 98). She recommended further exploration "to examine differences within race so that we can look at these different standards and work as a culture in defining what constitutes child abuse" (p. 98).

In their qualitative research that sought to examine the differences in perspectives on corporal punishment among low income African American women, Ipsa and Halgunseth (2004) found that participants shared a belief that:

> children ultimately benefited from corporal punishment and parents who did not use corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure were in part responsible for their offspring's involvement in criminal activity. Moreover, those who refrained from using corporal punishment were thought to be negligent in their parental duty of preparing their children for a world in which they faced dangerous activities such as sex, drug use, and crime at a young age in addition to the probability that the day would come when they would have to use physical aggression in self-defense. (Castilli, 2009, p. 99)

**Cultural Sensitivity in Child Protective Services**

The child protective services functions under the philosophical belief that every child has the right to adequate care and to be free from abuse, neglect, and exploitation (Depanfilis &Costello, 2012). Subsequently, laws are also put in place to ensure that parents assume the responsibility of meeting the physical, mental, emotional, educational, and medical needs of their children. Further interventions by the CPS occur when parents ask for assistance, or fail to meet the necessary needs and also keep their children safe from abuse or neglect (DePanfills & Salus, 2003). Additionally, when intervention is exercised, as a result of report of abuse or neglect, the CPS agencies do so on the belief that parents want to be good, and that they have the strength and capacity to do so, while being supported by the CPS and the community. Thus, CPS often focuses on the strengths and provides the needed help for the family to keep their children safe in order to stay together (Depanfilis & Costello, 2012).

Since the establishment of the Child Abuse and Prevention Act of 1974, there has been an increase in the number of reported abuse cases (Lockwood, 2010). Even though intervention efforts have saved lives and many children and families have benefited tremendously from this program, the system is far from perfect. Limitations include cultural insensitivity, which has implications for the development of assessments and interventions that are sensitive and effective for ethnically diverse children and families (Myers, 2008; Yasui & Dishon, 2007).The rearing of children in the sub-Saharan region of Africa (e.g., Nigeria) is often subject to cultural matters, hence cultural sensitivity within the child protective services is a cogent factor that must be adhered to in order to provide effective child welfare practice.

Not until recently has culture been made an important variable in all aspects of psychological research, theory, and practice. Van de Vliert (2009) considered culture and psychology to be inseparable entities. Thus, practitioners should seek different kinds of strategies to address the unfamiliar cultural characteristics posed by families from a variety of cultural and ethnic backgrounds (Eisner & Ellis, 2007). Because of the widely divergent child rearing practices across the globe, culturally competent interventions need to be considered and implemented by social workers when working with such a culturally diverse population as is represented in the United States (Rentleln, 2010).

The Child Protection Services interventions involve a series of stages which include intake, initial assessment/investigation, family assessment, case planning, service provision, evaluation of case process, and case closure. The intake process involves receiving and responding to reports of suspected child abuse and neglect and this function

often falls on reporters such as psychologists, physicians, nurses, or teachers. The key component at the initial stage is to determine if the information received meets the statutory guidelines for child maltreatment. If it does, then further investigation ensues, during which the CPS intake workers interview the persons who have called with concerns about a report or suspected child abuse (Depanfilis & Costello, 2012). Some states require the use of a hotline to make such reports, while other states require reports be made to the local CPS office. Because cultural specificity ought to be addressed when working with diverse population and CPS engages with clients in the different phases of the process, cultural sensitivity must be addressed.

The investigation/assessment stage involves interviewing the child or youth, siblings, parents, caregivers, or other relatives who may have pertinent information about the case. If referral information suggests the occurrence of a crime, then law enforcement will be notified. In many cases, the assessment that is conducted at this stage is the assessment of the child's safety. According to Alyahri and Goodman (2008), caregivers in Yemen believe in using harsh forms of physical punishment, such as hitting children with implements, tying them up, or biting them. Subsequently, the endorsement on the use of harsh punishment to discipline children has been reported in the Sub-Saharan Africa (Oburu & Palmeru, 2003). In Nigerian culture, physical punishment has been encouraged, and most Nigerian parents who have practiced physical punishment do not consider it as an abuse. When CPS workers perform their assessment and investigation within the CPS guidelines without considering cultural implications, a Nigerian parent could be assessed as abusive without proper consideration of the accustomed child

rearing practice. According to Baah (2000), deep-seated cultural norms have created impediments against the implementation of universal ideals, such as the protection of children from sexual abuse. These need serious attention. Sossou and Yogtiba (2009) advised trained social workers to challenge these unjust cultural taboos through critical mass education of parents, teachers, and the general public. Awareness training could emphasize the serious psychosocial effect of sexual abuse on the mental, physical, and emotional well-being of children, and its continued negative impact in adult life.

During the family assessment, CPS workers undergo a comprehensive process to identify and weigh factors that affect a child's safety, permanency, and well-being. The goal is to develop partnership with the family in order to provide the services and safety needed for the child (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2000). In order to develop an effective partnership, the CPS worker has to earn the trust of the family members, which could be difficult when dealing with a culturally diverse population like Nigerians. Nigerian families may not rely on social services. When they need help, it has been customary to share problems amidst family members, or consult with private networks such as churches, relatives, or close friends (Bandfield, 1958, as cited in Alesina & Giuliano, 2010). Therefore, in order to achieve an effective assessment with clients in developing countries, the health care worker must be culturally competent, and possibly sensitive to the unique issues of the culture (Crigger & Holcomb, 2007).

**Outcomes of Corporal Punishment**

In spite of the perceptions of corporal punishment by Nigerian parents, corporal punishment has a negative impact on children. Gershoff (2002) conducted a meta-

analysis study on the impact of parents' use of corporal punishment on children. Her findings showed a partial advantage to corporal punishment in that it stopped misbehaviors for the short term by compelling immediate compliance from children; however, the punishment did not facilitate moral internalization. According to Korb and Danga (2013), corporal punishment did not teach children reasons to behave correctly; instead, it taught children to devise methods to avoid detection of their misconducts.

Other negative developmental outcomes of corporal punishment have included an increase in aggressive behaviors, damage of quality of parent-child relationship, and child or spousal abuse (Gershoff, 2002). Additionally, corporal punishment affects children's cognitive development, promotes cheating, lying, bullying, disobedience, and encourages insubordinations and promotion of similar behaviors as they become adults (Paintal, 1999).

Tenkorang and Gyimah (2012) examined the relationship of physical abuse in early childhood and timing of first sexual intercourse in Cape Town South Africa. Results showed that those who experienced physical abuse in early childhood made an early transition to their first sexual experience.

Research on physical punishment and its effect on aggression increased significantly after the year 2000. Many studies suggested that there were associations between physical punishment and mental health, physical injury, parent-child relationship, and family violence in adolescent and adulthood (Durrant & Ensom, 2012). Durrant and Ensom (2012) shared their findings from one of the first studies that controlled for child antisocial behavior and gender, family socioeconomic status,

emotional support, and cognitive stimulation. The results of the study and those of subsequent studies showed that physical punishment was a risk factor for childhood aggression and antisocial behaviors (Durrant & Ensom, 2012). Results of 27 meta-analysis studies, conducted in 2002 on physical punishment and child aggression, suggested that there was a significant positive relationship between the two variables. Additionally, in a randomized controlled trial of an intervention designed to reduce difficult child behaviors in a sample of 500 parents, results consistently suggested that physical punishment had a direct effect on externalizing behavior either through response to pain or through the application of force by the family members (Durrant & Ensom, 2012).

Laventhal and Krugman (2012) declared some of the long term effects associated with child physical punishment. The authors' assertion was that children who have experienced abuse or neglect in childhood are at an increased risk of committing violent crimes during adulthood. Also, young girls who have engaged in any form of sexual activity are at increased risk of teen pregnancy, and their children are ten times more likely to be taken away by the Child Protective Services and placed in a foster home than those children who were not sexually abused (Laventhal & Krugman, 2012).

Gilbert et al. (2008) conducted a comprehensive review of 172 articles. Their findings showed that childhood abuse increased the risk of long-term health consequences (e.g., mental health problems, drug and alcohol problems, risky sexual behavior, obesity, and criminal behavior). In addition, abused children are at increased risk of major depression in their late twenties (APA, 2000). Furthermore, child abuse has

a negative impact on the ability to maintain an intimate relationship between unmarried and married couples (Coleman & Widom, 2004).

Studies have linked physical punishment with psychiatric disorders in adulthood. Physical punishment is associated with a range of mental disorders in children and adults, including depression, unhappiness, anxiety, feelings of hopelessness, and substance abuse (e.g., drugs and alcohol). New findings from researchers have suggested that physical punishment is linked to slower cognitive development which ultimately impairs academic achievement. Subsequently, findings from neuroimaging studies pointed out that physical punishment may reduce the volume of the grey matter areas that function in conjunction with performance on the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale, third edition (Durant & Ensom, 2012). Also, physical punishment can alter the function of the dopaminergic synapses that impact subjectivity to alcohol and drug abuse (Durrant & Ensom, 2012).

Gershoff (2010) reviewed hundreds of empirical studies to examine the intended and unintended effects of corporal punishment on children. Some of the findings under intended effects, revealed that the goals of parents' use of corporal punishment on their children is to increase their children's long term compliance, and decrease their children's aggressive and antisocial behaviors. On the other hand, the unintended findings showed that most physical abuse incurred by parents' are not inflicted because of self gratification, rather most physical abusive events starts as corporal punishment for the purpose of disciplining a child, but intensifies to causing injuries. However, corporal punishment is also associated with many undesirable effects on children's development

problems, eroded quality of children's relationship with their parents, and reduced cognitive ability (Gershoff, 2010).

Teicher, Anderson, Polcari, Anderson, and Navalta (2003) found that child maltreatment induced both structural and functional brain changes, which reduced development of the hippocampus and amygdala, and abnormal frontal-temporal electrical activity. These changes in the brain have significant impact on cognitive functioning. Mounting evidence from research studies indicated that children who were abused without injury to the brain structure still experienced deficits in central executive functioning, memory, attention, visuospatial ability, language, and motor speed. In a majority of cases, there was cerebral atrophy (Nolin & Ethier, 2007; Savitz et al., 2007). Abuse has also been known to cause lower IQ (Nolin & Ethier, 2007). Nolin and Ethier (2007) revealed physical abuse and neglect to be the causes of the greatest cognitive deficits, and attributed neglect alone as the main cause of cognitive deficits in the domains of attention, response set and visual-motor retention, problem solving, and abstraction. Furthermore, a study of childhood abuse and cognitive bipolar disorder found evidence of an environmental interaction that produces neurotrophic effect in response to cellular injury (Savitz et al., 2007).

This is evidence that points to long-term cognitive consequences of childhood abuse leading into adulthood (Ritchie et al., 2011). Studies on women with a history of physical and sexual abuse revealed disorders of vigilance, memory, and mathematical ability without impact to the I.Q. (Bremner et al., 2004; Navalta et al., 2006). Little is

known about the impact of physical abuse on the brain, especially if it constitutes cognitive disorder in old age. Yet unfavorable life events in old age have been known to contribute to cognitive impairment; therefore, exploring the impact of trauma on the early stages of brain development should be implemented (Ritchie et al., 2011).

Wilson and Scarpa (2013) examined the interaction between abuse type and perceived social support and its prediction of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). Findings suggested that perceived social support is either a protective or a risk factor when predicting PTSD, depending on the type of abuse or social support.

The aforementioned impacts of child abuse have significant detrimental effects on children's development and subsequently extend to adulthood. This issue is a societal issue and every effort, from individual to the government, must be exerted from all fronts to combat this embedded problem. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child attended to the elimination of all forms of violence, including the use of corporal punishment by parents. The United Nations is collaborating with the World Health Organization to change cultural norms to appropriate corporal punishment by implementing acceptable methods of discipline that will not subject a child to abuse (Landsford, 2010).

## Theoretical Framework

### Review of theoretical frameworks used in child physical punishment.

Theoretical frameworks are tools used to arrange or plan information about a particular problem. Theoretical frameworks shape the definition and etiology of a problem, and

provide interventions, preventions, and adequate treatment to apply to the identified problem (Ennis, 2012).

The professional recognition of child maltreatment in the 1960s drew the attention of multidisciplinary professionals, such as legal, medical, nursing, psychological, social work and psychiatrics, developmental, political, and anthropological professionals, to abate the problem surrounding child maltreatment. In the same vein, epidemiological research and theoretical speculation were promoted to investigate the reasons why parents inflict harm on their children (Guastaferro et al., 2012).

Some theoretical models have predicted that a history of childhood maltreatment victimization has the likelihood of exerting and perpetrating maltreatment in adulthood (Thornberry & Henry, 2012). For example, social learning theory posited that the behavior of children is largely shaped by their parents through discipline and punishments. Exposure to an abusive parent demonstrates to the child that such behavior is acceptable, and the child could adopt the abusive behavior in adulthood (Dodge et al., 1990; Straus, 1991). The attachment theory (Morton & Browne, 1998) suggested that an infant's relationship with its parents is based on the responsiveness and the sensitivity of the caregiver. The ecological and transactional theory (Belsky, 1980; Cicchetti & Valentino, 2006; Garbarino, 1977) asserted that maltreatment is determined by a variety of factors operating through transactional processes at various levels.

These theoretical frameworks impact individuals, environments, and situations that indirectly or directly relate to the causes and effects of child physical maltreatment. Psychiatric and psychological models of maltreatment focused their attention on the

characteristics of the perpetrator, while social models focused on the conditions that give rise to abuse and neglect, and social-interactional models focuses on the nature of the problematic parents (Belsky, 1998; Parke & Collner, 1975, as cited in Belsky, 1993). However, the study of child abuse has shifted its focus over the past decades, from a mere identification of individual variables that are correlated with child abuse and neglect, to a study of child development based on the multiple levels of embedded systems (Stith et al., 2009).

Early views of child maltreatment could be centered on family violence. According to Gelles (1980), family violence, mostly to child abuse, was characterized by singular and narrow theoretical methods to approach the problem. Notably, there was no reliable statistical evidence of family violence in the sixties. Hence, child abuse estimates vary widely, from thousands to tens of thousands. In 1968, the child abuse national survey yielded a robust number of 6,000 cases (Gil, 1970). In spite of the prevalence of child abuse, the attitude of those in the sixties was that family violence was rare. Their belief was that when family violence occurs, it was a product of mental illness or a psychological disorder. This notion made researchers and writers on family violence adopt the psychopathological theoretical model.

Research in the seventies began to aim at refuting the conventional wisdom, and replace it with informed data. Upon reviewing research on domestic violence, three major research needs were found: (a) to establish a viable estimate of child abuse; (b) to identify the various factors attributing to child abuse; and (c) to develop theoretical models to explain family violence (Gelles, 1980).

The extent of violence in a family has been measured by the estimate of the incidence of various types of family violence. Usually, this question is posed: how much of child, wife, husband, parent, or elderly abuse is found? Consequently, estimates of child abuse ranging from 6,000 (Gil, 1970) to one million (New York Sunday Times, 1975) were based on officially reported cases. There was a problem with validity, because not all the cases were reported, and child abuse definitions varied from one state to the other (Giovanoni & Becerra, 1979).

Intra-individual factors, which were thought to be related to family violence in the sixties and seventies continued to be investigated by researchers. As conceptual models expanded, research on intra-individual with family violence expanded as well (Gelles, 1980). Social factors thought to be related to violence includedsocio-economic status, stress, and social isolation (Gelles, 1980), as well as the cycle of violence. Individuals who have experienced violent and abusive childhoods are more likely to grow up to become child and spousal abusers than those who have never experienced childhood abuse (Kempe et al., 1962; Parke & Collmer, 1975; Spinetta & Rigler, 1972; Straus et al., 1979).

The theoretical approach to family violence was originally based on three levels of theoretical analysis: intra-individual level of analysis or the psychiatric model; the social-psychological level of analysis; and the socio-logical or socio-cultural level of analysis (Burgress & Conger, 1978; Gelles & Straus, 1979; Justice & Justice, 1976; Parke & Collmer, 1975; Steinmetz, 1978b).

***The psychiatric model.*** The psychiatric model focused on a perpetrator's personality as the main influence for violence and abuse. The psychiatric model included theoretical approaches that link mental illness, alcohol, drug abuse, and other individual factors to family violence.

***The social-psychological model.*** The social-psychological model emphasized that violence and abuse can be properly understood by examining the environmental factors that impact the family. Additionally, the model examined causative factors for family violence, such as stress, the transmission of violence from one generation to another, and family interaction patterns. Theories such as learning theories, frustration-aggression theory, and attribution theory approach violence from the sociopsychological perspective.

***The socio-cultural model.*** The sociocultural model encompassed a macro-level analysis of family violence. It viewed family violence as a function of socially structured inequality in culture. The structural-functional and the subculture violence theories fit into the socio-cultural model.

Many theories of family violence were extensively reviewed in the seventies. Gelles and Straus (1979) tried to integrate propositions from fifteen theories of violent behaviors. Steinmetz (1978) also contributed his own version of theories used to address family violence. Notably, different investigators tried applying the existing theories of interpersonal family violence; others developed new theoretical approaches. What follows are some of the new theoretical approaches that helped shape frameworks concerning family violence.

***Resource theory.*** The resource theory was the first theoretical approach used to address family violence. Goode (1971) illustrated that perpetrators use the application of force to substantiate for lack of resources (e.g. education, income, interpersonal skills). For example, a husband who wants to be dominant in a home, but lacks education, income, or job prestige may exhibit regressive behavior or violence due to the desire to be dominant.

***General system theory.*** The general system theory (Straus, 1973) was used to assess violence in the home by viewing the family as a goal-seeking, adaptive social system. In his own view, violence is seen as a system product rather than an individual issue. Straus's postulation was that positive feedback in the family system will create violence, while negative feedback will reduce or subdue the level of violence in the home.

***An evolutionary perspective.*** Burgess (1979) explored beyond the intra-individual model to accommodate a socially-patterned form of abuse across cultural groups. His hypothesis was that when parental bonding was lacking between a child and mother, then there is probability of increase in child abuse, especially in cases where the victims are step children. Additionally, Burgess (1979) asserted that lack of parental resources could result in a decrease in parental investment, and hence increased the risk of abuse. He also believed that decrease in investment would increase the risk of developmental disabilities.

***Patriarchy and wife abuse.*** Dobash and Dobash (1979) proposed that patriarchy and family put women in the center stage as subordinate characters, upon whom violence

has been systematically directed. Even though the Dobashes' theory seems the most macro-level of the seventies approaches, there is a downside to it, as it considered a single-factor illustration.

***The ecological model.*** Garbriano (1977) proposed an ecological model in the later part of the seventies to help explain child maltreatment. His approach centered on the mutual adaptation of organisms and the environment in which they live, and the overlapping system in which human development occurs. Garbriano considered environmental quality, and addressed political, economic, and demographic factors that shape the family. He also identified cultural support for applying physical punishment on children (Garbriano, 1977).

Given the fact that concern for child maltreatment has grown in recent years, some of these theoretical models have now been found to be inadequate (Belsky, 1980). However, the work of Garbriano (1977) and Burgress (1979) speak to the kind of theory building needed to properly address family violence and childhood maltreatment to suit the present study. The proponents of these theories viewed child abuse as a multidimensional problem and placed emphasis on environment as the most prominent causal factor. According to these theories, if it were not for environmental factors such as poverty, poor education, and stress, there would be no child abuse (Jamabo, 2012). In order to properly address the child abuse issue, Miner and Chilamkurti (1991) proposed the application of the multimodal approach, which involved solving child maltreatment issues using different tactical methods, either simultaneously or in close succession. Because maltreatment is determined through the interaction of multiple influences and

systems (Belsky, 1980; Cicchetti & Valentino, 2006; Garbriano, 1977), then ecological and transactional theoretical frameworks couldserve as better approaches to child maltreatment. This framework addresses the mechanism associated with intergenerational factors, such as antisocial behavior, methods of discipline, poor emotion regulation, hostile personalities, and dissociative symptoms (Belsky, 1993; Cicchetti & Valentino, 2006).

**Review of Ecological-Transactional Theory**

The premise of the ecological-transactional model is that children operated in multiple ecologies that interact with one another for their ultimate growth (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Cicchetti & Lynch, 1993). These ecologies are divided into various ecological spaces, interacting within and between themselves (ecologically nested), with close proximity to the child. These spaces include the ontogenic level, the micro-system, the exo-system, and the macro-system.

**The ontogenic level.** The ontogenic level is the ecology that represents factors within the individual that ultimately influences his or her development, such as coping style and emotional regulation (Overstreet & Mazza, 2003). This ecological layer encompasses the childhood history of abusive parents. It signifies that parents who abused children must have also been abused in their own childhood stage (Curtis, 1963; Kempe, Silverman,Steele, Droegemueller, & Silver, 1962, Spinetta & Rigler, 1972; Steel & Pollack, 1968).

**The micro-system.** Bronfenbrenner (1977, 1994) defined the micro-system as a complex relationship between an individual person and an environment in which that

individual dwells (e.g., home, school, and workplace). The interaction within the micro-system shapes the individual. In some settings, various factors in the micro-system level in which an individual interacts with in an environment (e.g. school), have a pertinent impact on child maltreatment. Some of the micro-systems that could be studied in Nigeria include domestic violence, wife abuse, intergenerational transmission of abuse, and parent-child relationships.

**The exo-system.** The exo-system ecological level often embraces specific social cultures, which interact between two or more settings, in which one does not necessarily affect the other (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). These social structures include the major institutions of the society such as the world of work, social media, agencies of government, communication, and transportation agencies. The exo-systems yet to be discussed include mothers' employment, parents' socio-economic status, and absence of support system/isolation (Belsky, 1980).

**The macro-system.** The macro-system includes the cultural values and beliefs within which an individual, family, and the community are embedded. According to Bronfenbrenner (1977), the macro-system does not only impact an individual, but the entire prototype of the system. Bronfenbrenner illustrated this concept by explaining how a classroom setting functions much like another classroom, as all are constructed under one blueprint. This meant that every part of the culture or subculture's systems (e.g. economic, social, political, educational, legal and political) are interwoven and manifested in micro-, exo-, and macro-, systems. Furthermore, the place or position a child or caregiver has in a given macro-system is pertinent in determining how well the

individual is treated or how much interaction is generated (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). Macro-system in the Nigerian culture could be addressed in the context of drinking, corporal punishment, and patriarchy.

An ecological approach guided this study on the physical punishment of children in Akwa Ibom state. This approach has its theoretical origin in Bronfenbrenner's (1977) ecology of human development, as it considers multiple levels of social phenomena. Since child maltreatment is multi-determined, application of ecological theory could help facilitate or inhibit child maltreatment due to the interrelations among families, neighborhood, and culture (Bronfenbrenner, 1994).

**Application of Ecological Theory to Child Physical Punishment**

According to Belsky (1980) the ecological systems theory provided a useful scheme for integrating several divergent viewpoints on child physical abuse. It provided a strong theoretical framework for reviewing child maltreatment, especially among the Akwa Ibom State citizens. Because child maltreatment is multidetermined (Hong, Lee, Park & Faller, 2011), Bronfenbrenner's (1994) assertion was that child maltreatment may be facilitated or inhibited due to the interrelations among the individual, family, neighborhood, and culture. Bronfenbrenner defined the ecological approach as a nested interactive system, where each system is mutually dependent in order to shape an individual. Additionally, the system embraced the quality of the environment; cultural, political, and economic factors are prominent factors in shaping the quality of the lives of children and their families (Garbarino, 1977). As developed, and divided into ecological spaces (micro-, exo-, maco-), by Urie Bronfenbrenner, the ecological system offered a

mechanism for simultaneously considering what takes place in the context of the family household (micro-system), forces at work in the larger system in which the family dwells (exo-system), the cultural beliefs that influences the micro- and exo-systems (macro-system), and the individual differences that parents bring with them to the primary micro-system in which their children develop as a family (ontogenic development; Belsky, 1980). This model was used to review the findings from empirical studies of child physical punishment in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria.

**Micro-system.** The family is the most important micro-system, and it is in this immediate context that child maltreatment often takes place (Belsky, 1980). Factors related to child physical punishment in the micro-system include the nature of the family, child health, child temperament, domestic violence, intergenerational transmission of abuse, and parent-child relationship.

From time immemorial, parents in the family system have been the center of attention in the study of maltreatment. Research findings have found children to be contributors to their maltreatment; thus available maltreatment models view children as causative factors rather than unwitting victims (Belsky, 1978; Friedrich & Boriskin, 1976; Lamb, 1978; Parke & Collmer, 1975). This perspective on child abuse can be traced back to a disproportionate number of prematurely born children (Elmer & Greg 1967; Fontana, 1971; Klein & Stern, 1971). Observational studies by Edgeland and Brunnquell (1979), Atkins (1978), and others revealed lack of social responsiveness on the part of premature and maltreated infants. Experimental investigation also showed that the aversive cry, appearance, as well as physical attractiveness that premature infants

exhibited could have played a substantial role in the abuse (Dion, 1974; Frodi et al., 1978). It was pointed out that a child's temperament could also influence that child's maltreatment (Park & Collmer, 1975).

While abuse may be induced by parents' inability to cope with hyperactive babies, a lethargic infant provoked maltreatment in the form of neglect (Belsky, 1980). Therefore, it could make sense to conclude that the characteristics of the child could act as triggers to maltreatment, but only when the attributes of the parent were also considered, meaning, that even if children played a role in their own abuse, they certainly could not it alone (Belsky, 1978b; Parke & Collmer, 1975). A study conducted by Burgress and Conger (1978) deeply investigated the patterns of family interaction in abusive and non-abusive households, and found that in abusive and neglected families, there was less interaction between the family members than in matched control groups. In this case, mothers from maltreating families displayed 40% less positive interaction (e.g., affectionate and supportive behavior) and 60% more negative behavior (e.g., threats and complains) than control mothers (Burgress & Conger, 1978).

The maltreatment process was also linked to antecedents and consequences of an abusive incident. Paterson et al., (1976), shed light on the question of antecedents, indicating that aggressive and coercive behavior occurred in bursts, and that parental punishment played a significant role in perpetrating the coercive behaviors exhibited by the child. For example, when a child defied the order of a parent, parental punishment tended to increase (Parke, 1974). Other instigating factors of abuse include when a child presented an unsatisfactory report card, when a child wrecked a family car, or when a

cherished possession was destroyed by a child. Left alone on the child's part, abusive outbursts may not be encountered by the aforementioned stimuli, but when influenced by other factors (e.g., yelling or shouting or other methods of responding to stress), an excessive response may be elucidated (Belsky, 1980). In regards to consequences of abuse, the sense of power that followed an aggressive act could reinforce aggression (Burgress, 1978). In spite of the pain and the evidence of bruises seen on victims, the question to be raised was why does the victim's pain did not inhibit the abusive behavior? The answer to this could be derived from understanding the abuser's own child rearing (Besky, 1980).

Another factor related to the micro-system level of the family is the spousal relationship. Researchers have shown that there is a significant relationship between domestic violence and child maltreatment caused by mothers (Kim, 2007; Lee, 2004; Nho, 2002). Findings indicated that wife battering victims in South Korea applied corporal punishment more frequently as a form of discipline to their children than non-victimized mothers (Kim, 1998; Lee, 1989). Research on how exposure to family violence influenced children's behavioral problems was conducted by Lee (2003), using a sample of 1,102 fourth to ninth grade children. Results showed that among those who were physically and psychologically abused, over half witnessed father-to-mother abuse once over the past year. Subsequently, the children who witnessed domestic violence exposure were negatively impacted, as evidenced by their externalized behavioral issues (Lee, 2003).

Family size is another micro-system factor that potentially influenced the possibility for child abuse. When economic and human resources became overextended in large families with many dependents, the high level of stress that resulted could potentially lead to child maltreatment (Belsky, 1980).

**Exo-system.** The exo-system is composed of interactions between two or more settings, in which one of them indirectly affected the individual. In regards to indirect effect, Bronfenbrenner (1994) explained that an occurrence of an event could indirectly affect an individual. For example, the relation between a mother's employment and parenting practices, where the mother's job did not directly interact with the child, but still influenced other areas in the ecological system that could directly impact the child (Hong et al., 2011).

Research on employment is also linked with maltreatment. Research conducted by Gil (1971) on 13,000 abuse cases revealed that half of the fathers were unemployed in the year preceding the abuse incident. Lee's (2006) research on the association of mothers' employment, drinking, and child maltreatment in a national survey of 6,500 mothers found that mothers' unemployment status was significantly related to all kinds of abuse and neglect. Other findings from studies indicated that unemployed, alcoholic mothers were more likely to be physically abusive and neglectful of their children than employed alcoholic mothers (Hong et al., 2011). While some British data has suggested that unemployment functions to generate violence (Belsky, 1980), Steinmetz and Straus (1974) concluded from their studies that an increase in unemployment for a 6-month period triggered incidences of wife beating. The frustration associated with joblessness is

proof for the aforementioned occurrences. Similarly, any sense of powerlessness resulting from losing the status of the household breadwinner could result in violence (Gelles, 1976).

Parents' social economic status (SES) is another factor in the exo-system that can prompt child-maltreatment. According to Hong et al. (2011), parents with a lower academic background and lower social economic status were more likely to abuse their children than those with higher educational background and SES. Findings from research showed that parents with low educational status and SES had difficulty accepting the idea that physical punishment is a form of abuse than those with higher educational attainment and SES (Kim & Yoon, 2002). Further, findings from a study conducted by Jeon (2003) on association between child neglect and parent-level factors (e.g., educational attainment, marital status, and employment status), used 543 fifth grade school children in Seoul, showed that fathers with low educational background and those unemployed were more likely to neglect their children. Additionally, Mun et al. (2009) revealed that parents with low SES failed to admit that neglect was a causative factor for impairing a child's physical, emotional, and mental development.

Neighborhood is another factor in the exo-system that influences the etiology of child maltreatment. Previous studies showed that child-abusing families were often isolated from formal and informal support systems (Bakan, 1971; Bennie & Sclar, 1969; Giovannii & Billingsley, 1970; Kempe, 1973; Light, 1973). Kempe (1973) described the child-abusing families as those without a lifeline, meaning that when they were in an emergency or distressing situation, they had no friends or relatives to turn to for help.

Lack of support is often the family making, as it involves the inability to establish and maintain friendships. Polanski et al. (1979) asserted that the inability to maintain friendships could be from failure to acquire friendship while growing up or lacking the interpersonal skills for social relations. To support this analysis, George & Main (1979) showed that maltreated toddlers in a day care center isolated themselves by responding less positively and displaying avoidance to peers and caregivers than did their non-maltreated mates.

**Macro-system.** The macro-system is the larger cultural fabric in which the individual, family, and community are interwoven. It comprises the social and political contexts, which may affect the interaction within the other eco-systems. The role of macro-system in child maltreatment can be tailored to society's attitudes toward violence, drinking culture, and corporal punishment.

Alcohol consumption, which predates colonial rule in Nigeria, has been a social norm that leads to shared group identity, fostering honest conversation, and serves as a coping mechanism for stress. As in many African countries, alcoholic beverages are considered as food (Bennett, Campillo, Chandrashekar, & Gureje, 2013). On the other hand, research has also shown an association between alcohol consumption by mothers and child abuse (Ju & Lee, 2010): alcoholic mothers are more likely to maltreat their children than non-alcoholic mothers (Han, 2003; Kim, 1997). Findings from research conducted by Nho (2000) on 17 child abuse victims indicated that the children's language development and behavioral problems, and the mother's alcohol consumption were associated with physical abuse.

Also at the macro-level, societal attitudes toward violence at school, home and the entire country had significant impact on the likelihood of the occurrence of child abuse. The United States has been characterized as a country with high violence, and often practices and approves violence (Strauss, 1974). The evidence of prevalence of violence and crimes in the United States compared to that of other industrialized nations might be considered as evidence that America condones violence (Cicchetti & Lynch, 1993). To be considered as additional evidence of this are American crime statistics at a rate of ten times greater than in Great Britain, including rates of assault and battery exceeding those in Canada by a factor of five (Parke & Collmer, 1975). Also, the display of violence in many American television stations has provided support for Strauss' claim of the approval of violence in America. Consistent with this fact, the Supreme Court (in Ingram v. Wright) ruled that schools have the right to corporally punish disobedient children (Ziggler, 1977). As long as parents reared their children in a predominantly violent environment, child physical abuse could be expected (Ziggler, 1989).

The cultural acceptance of corporal punishment in a society could be regarded as necessary for the development of the child (Frankenberg, Holmqvist, & Rubensen, 2010). Such cultural acceptance could cause the abuse process by sanctioning physical punishment as a means of controlling children's behavior (Belsky, 1980). Corporal punishment is defined by the United Nations committee that enforces the right of children as "any punishment in which physical force is used to cause some discomfort or pain without physical injury" (U.N Doc. CRC/C/GC/8, 2007). Corporal punishment involves hitting with a hand or with an object such as belt or a cane. This includes what is known

as the “cane love,” which could be interpreted in this sense: “because I love you, I must discipline you when you don’t behave” (Halm & Gutterman, 2001). Results from a study conducted by Choi (1989) on the changes in attitudes among 170 mothers and 173 children from an elementary school, showed that 60% of the children were physically punished when they misbehaved. Though some of the children supported their parents’ use of corporal punishment on them, they still preferred an alternative method of punishment. In regards to the mother, 90% felt that corporal punishment was an acceptable method of discipline, 84% regretted using corporal punishment, 80% preferred learning an alternative method of punishment, and 40% did not accept corporal punishment as a form of discipline (Hong et al., 2011). Overall, when the prototypes were embedded in the macro-system, corporal punishment was regarded as a prevalent factor for child abuse (Hong et al., 2011).

**Ontogenic development.** The ontogenic development represents what individual parents who mistreat their children are capable of incorporating into the parenting role and family setting (Belsky, 1980). It includes the individual and his or her own adaptation, reflecting the belief that individuals are considered as important elements within their society (Lynch & Cicchetti, 1998). Physical punishment can be intergenerationally influenced, and the ontogenic development assists researchers in examining the childhood history of abusive parents. A study conducted by Irfan and Cowburn (2004) on the relationship between parents’ cultural values and child protection indicated that 72% of the respondents who received physical punishment during their childhood accepted it as appropriate. Those parents who were physically abused not only

accepted physical punishment as a cultural norm, but also as the best approach to correcting their children's misconducts. As cultural values transmit from generation to generation, so is the use of physical punishment in the training of children (Nduka, Mansor, & Talib 2009). Abrahams et al. (2005) also maintained that parents who have used harsh punishment on their children could likely have learned the bad habit during their childhood when they witnessed the use of physical punishment by their parents.

**Relationship between Ecological Theory and Social Work Practice**

The application of ecological theory toward many social problems has been an integral part of the practice of social work, and has offered social workers progressive theories upon which to base their practice (Ungar, 2002). Bronfenbrenner (1979) explained the study of human development as the scientific study of the progressive, mutual accommodation between an individual and the changing environment in which he dwells. Because social work practice is concerned with social problems such as child maltreatment, the ecological perspective is relevant for social workers. Ungar (2002) explored valuable principles that are drawn from ecological theory to be applied to the practice of social work: intrinsic value, diverse solutions, structured alliances, and the ethical obligation to foster change.

**Intrinsic value.** Social workers have been advised to see a client as an individual, a member of a family unit, member of a community, and a person endowed with culture (Canadian Association of Social Workers 1994, p. 4). This means that all those who interact with the community have value, through the power, privileges, and beliefs of that

particular culture. Therefore, a social work practice should demonstrate respect for relativism in a professional manner (Ungar, 2002).

**Diversity and diverse solutions.** Margolin (1997) accused the profession of social work of not reflecting enough on the conflict between doing good and being an agent of change. When reflecting on this declaration, the science of the new ecology challenges social workers to approach problems with hierarchical care at a fundamental level. This gives social workers perspectives on promoting the concept of diversity in order to alleviate the problems of the helpless clients they serve (Ungar, 2002).

**Structured alliances.** An ecological model involves sharing health resources with communities, engages in processes that allow communities to determine the goals for intervention, and changes the bureau-centric of social work practice (Ungar, 2002). Thus the new ecology could eliminate the hierarchical and bureau-centric way in which elites control the community processes to achieve their goals.

**Ethical obligation to foster change**. As Magnolin (1997) pointed out, social workers speak of institutional causes of racism and poverty, but their day-to-day activities center on individual services rather than community services. In lieu of the new ecology, social workers would be obligated to engage in fostering social change through participation in community initiatives (Ungar, 2002).

## Ecological-Transactional Variables that Affect Nigerian Mothers' Attitudes toward Child Physical Punishment

The Nigerian people have been endowed with a strong cultural belief that favors using punitive strategies in the child rearing process. This belief has been

intergenerational, as embedded in the core principles of the Nigerian tradition to foster training for children to become honest, humble, respectful, obedient, well-behaved, and self-disciplined members of society. However, the common view in Nigeria and other African countries is that child abuse is foreign to the culture, unlike the western countries where physical punishment is considered as abuse, and considered as a crime (Madukwe, 2012; Nuhu & Nuhu, 2010). Thus, when an African parent is introduced into a new culture or belief (e.g., child physical punishment as an abuse), she/he tends to have a different, and perhaps unusual, thinking pattern. The attitudes of mothers' and fathers' toward physical abuse are prone to be affected with diverse variables. Thus, the many variables that affect parents' attitudes will be discussed in this section.

**Micro-system.** Variables in the micro-system consist of the characteristics that take place in the individual household. The characteristics of the parents and the child were observed. The parent's age, marital status, childhood physical punishment experience, childhood corporal punishment, spousal abuse, and number of children were the variables that impacted a parents' attitude toward child physical punishment. In regards to children, age, gender, and relationship between parents' and children were the variables to be considered.

**Exo-system.** The exosytem includes the immediate setting within which that individual is found. The variables to be used in this regard were the breadth of assistance needed by families, social networks, friends, child care, availability to jobs and housing, and social stress.

**Ontogenic development.** The ontogenic development were gathered by assessing the parents' socialization history, prior experience in caring for children, mothers' employment, parents' socioeconomic status, and personality.

**Macro-system .**The macrosystem level consisted of the cultural fabric within which the individual, family, and the community were interwoven. The variables in this section were listed as follows: society's attitude toward corporal punishment, cultural values of children, and their parents.

## Summary

Chapter 2 reviewed and discussed the literature relevant to the study. The subject matters discussed in this chapter included: history of Children Rights in Nigeria, corporal punishment and forms of corporal punishment in Nigeria, Nigerian attitudes toward physical punishment, child abuse in Nigeria, predictors of child abuse in Nigeria, Akwa Ibom State, culture in Akwa Ibom families, heavy drinking, corporal punishment and child maltreatment worldwide, cultural differences in perception of corporal punishment, outcomes of corporal punishment and theoretical framework. Chapter 3 presented a discussion of the research methods and procedures used in the study. It included information on the research design, rationale, sample size, instrumentation, and variables and how they were measured, validity of the research, and threats to validity. In addition, therewere discussions on the consideration of how to ensure the protection of the participants' rights, including data collection, granting of permissions from potential sites and the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council, completion of informed consent forms, and securely maintaining and destroying the data.

# Chapter 3: Research Method

## Research Design and Rationale

This study aimed to contribute to knowledge and understanding of the Nigerian attitude toward physical punishment of children, and thus offer a foundation for public education regarding physical punishment. The results will serve as a vehicle in promoting structural and statutory intervention programs by the Akwa Ibom state government to provide professional and social work programs. It will also serve Nigerian parents' as well as human and social services in understanding the adverse effect of applying physical punishment on children.

This study measured whether cultural factors predicted the use of harsh physical punishment in Akwa Ibom, and explored parent's attitudes toward physical punishment. The study was quantitative in nature, and examined how four cultural variables predicted whether specific physical punishments were considered appropriate.

The study author presumed globally most people disapprove of child abuse; however, cultural groups may define the parental behaviors that constitute abuse differently. Thus, parents from some cultures may be disproportionately identified as more abusive than parents from other cultures. The goals of this research were to examine which of the four independent cultural factors (a) conflict tactics, (b) nurturance, (c) valuing children, and (d) drinking behavior, were most predictive with the use of harsh physical punishment (dependent variable). Multiple linear regressions measured the influence of two or more variables on a designated dependent variable.

The independent variables and research questions in this study were drawn from one of the five systems of Bronfenbrenner's ecological model, namely, the macrosystem level. Variables pertaining to some of the other ecological levels were collected as well.

1. Individual: Parents' and children's age and sex were measured with the demographic background questionnaire that was part of the Dimensions of Discipline Inventory (DDI).
2. Microsystem: Parents marital status and number of children were measured with the demographic background questionnaire that was part of the DDI.
3. Exosystem: Parents' socio-economic status, such as level of education and income were measured with the demographic questionnaire.
4. Macrosystem: Parents' cultural values regarding valuing children, nurturance, conflict tactics and attitudes toward physical punishment were measured.

The research questions drawn from the aforementioned variables (macrosystem) are stipulated below.

1. What, if any, is the influence of conflict tactics in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment?
2. What, if any, is the influence of valuing children in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment?
3. What, if any, is the influence of nurturance in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment?
4. What, if any, is the influence of drinking behavior in the Akwa Ibom society on parent's attitudes about physical punishment?

Thus, the design choice for this study is consistent with the research designs for the advancement of knowledge in the field of psychology and a better understanding of constructs and their interrelationships. This study also aims at contributing to our knowledge and understanding of the research questions, and to provide greater understanding of the Nigerian attitude toward physical punishment of children, and thus offer a foundation for the future public education with the goal of reducing physical punishment at the individual and community levels.

As more knowledge is being accumulated to our existing one, critical gaps could be identified in our knowledge that remains. The results from this research would serve as a vehicle in formulating more research questions to aid in conducting additional research, so as to advance our knowledge in the field of psychology.

The need for a pilot study was unwarranted because there were no issues with language, illiteracy, or cultural barriers. A previous study utilized participants from Imo State of Nigeria (Nduka et al., 2012), which affirmed that a pilot study was unnecessary for this research.

**Population**

Mothers and fathers were selected from the provinces in the Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria to participate in this study. The participants included both parents who were directly involved in raising their children and also parents who were not involved, but who identified as parents. The target number of participants for this study was set at 269 participants.

**Sampling Procedures**

Participants for this study were recruited from churches, mosques, schools, homes, and marketplaces. A statistical power analysis was conducted with the G*power computer program to determine the sample size that would be suitable for this study (Faul, Erdfelder, Butchner, & Lang, 2007). Value for alpha was set for .05, power was .80, and the effect size was .80. The power analysis resulted in a required sample size of 269 that was used for this study. Further analysis in the G*power indicated that the sample's *F* test would require numerator *df* (10), number of group (5), and covariates (1) to produce an output of noncentrality parameter (16.81250000), critical value (1.8668102), denominator *df* (263), at a power of .8000648. The generated sample size was 269 participants.

**Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection**

In order to protect participants' rights, permission was obtained from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) and the Nigerian Educational Research and Developmental Council prior to conducting the research. Permission was also received from directors of churches, mosques, and schools to meet with potential participants. The researcher scheduled meetings with potential participants to discuss the purpose of the study and criteria for participation. If a potential participant showed interest and met the sampling criteria, he or she was given the consent form, which explained the nature of the study and requested consent to participate. The consent form explained that participation was voluntary; that participants could choose not to respond to any of the questions, and

that all responses were to remain confidential. The consent form also described the purpose of the research and the potential risks and benefits.

Participants were instructed not to provide personal names or identifiers, and informed that the completion of the survey would indicate their consent if they chose to participate.

Parents who agreed to participate were given the following material:

1. Consent form (Appendix E).
2. Demographic questionnaire (DDI Form P, Part A; Appendix A).
3. Questionnaire requesting information about their children (DDI Form P, Part B; Appendix A)
4. Questionnaire about the forms of discipline and conflict tactics they used with a specific child (DDI Form P, Part C; Appendix A).
5. Questionnaire inquiring about participants' attitudes on which forms of disciplinewere acceptable to them (DDI Form P, Part E; Appendix A).
6. Nurturance Scale (Appendix B).
7. Valuing Children Scale (Appendix C).
8. Heavy Drinking Measure (Appendix D.)

In order to offer sufficient confidentiality and time to consider participation, participants were allowed to take the consent form and questionnaires home.

The participants were instructed to return the completed forms and questionnaires to the directors of the designated recruitment sites (churches, mosques, schools) to be picked up ona later day by the researcher. The completed forms and questionnaires were put in a packet. The completed questionnaires were stored in a locked cabinet in the

researcher's home office and will remain there for a period of seven years, and then will be destroyed through shredding. The data is stored in a secure hard drive in the researcher's locked home office; after a period of seven years these will be electronically deleted.

Prior to exiting the study, participants were debriefed using the following guidelines:

1. Researcher probed for participants' suspicions. Participants were asked if he or she hadany questions. If not, researcher inquired if the understanding of the research was clear, and whether he or she felt suspicious during the interview process.
2. Researcher assessed the participants' state of mind before they left:
    a. Did he or she have any further questions?
    b. Did he or she feel the same way as when he or she first arrived? If not, the researcher would talk to the participant and suggest referral for counseling.
    c. Inquired from the participant any suggestion that would help to improve the study.

Participants' state of mind was normal. They also felt the same way they arrived, and no suggestion was given to improve the study

3. Researcher made the participants aware of the implication of revealing the information from the study to others, such as the impact of this on the validity of the study.

4. Researcher inquired if the participants had heard anything about the study before.
5. Researcher informed the participants that they were entitled to learn about the results of the study, and that a summarized, aggregated data of the results could be sent to those who wished to receive it. A reference and mailing list were provided.
6. The researcher thanked the participants, and provided his contact information for future questions or concerns.

**Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs**

**Dimensions of Discipline Inventory.** The Dimensions of Discipline Inventory (DDI; Appendix A), developed by Straus and Fauchier (2007), was used to measure the demographic information about the parent and child, the frequency of the child's misbehavior, parents' disciplinary tactics they used for the child, and parent's opinions on various disciplinary methods, including physical punishment. The basis for development of this instrument was to project a proper definition of discipline, irrespective of the attempts to characterize discipline by authoritative works like the *Encyclopedia of Applied Developmental Science* (Fisher & Learner, 2005) and the *Handbook of Parenting* (Bornstein, 2002). Because previous definitions have been ambiguous, the DDI provided a comprehensive assessment of corrective discipline as "behavior by parents in response to, and intended to correct, perceived behavior by children" (Straus & Fauchier, 2007).

The DDI was tested with mothers and fathers and covers each aspect of discipline identified in cross-cultural interviews with adolescents in Costa Rica, Thailand, and South Africa (Barber et al., 2007). As a result, this instrument was determined to be appropriate for use with parents in the Akwa Ibom state of Nigeria. There was no

language barrier for citizens of Akwa Ibom, as English was the formal language used in communication. Nduka et al. (2012) utilized the same instrument to conduct research on participants drawn from the Imo state of Nigeria.

The internal consistency reliability coefficients for the nine scales of behaviors met an acceptable level. The alpha coefficient of the Power Assertive/Punitive Discipline scale of the DDI was .64 (Straus & Fauchier, 2007). Findings from a study by Nduka et al. (2012) when using the DDI showed an internal consistency of .7. This result affirmed the validity and reliability of this instrument.

The DDI consists of three forms: (a) the parent form (Form P), (b) the adult recall of their parents' disciplining of them (Form A), and (c) the child questionnaire form (Form C). Only Form P, the parent form, was used in this research. Within Form P of the DDI, there are five parts. This research used four of the five parts. Part A requested demographic information about the parents. Part B requested demographic information about the child and misbehavior by the child. Part C requested information about discipline behaviors used with a specific child. Part D requested information about the mode of implementation or the context of the discipline. Part E asked participants about their cognitive appraisal of each discipline behavior. This research utilized parts A, B, C, and E only. Part D was not used for this research. The removal of Part D shortened the length of this instrument. The authors of the instrument have approved eliminating specific parts of the instrument (Strauss & Fauchier, 2011, p. 8). The DDI in its entirety is a lengthy instrument. The use of Form P, Parts A, B, C, and E were expected to take 10-15 minutes to administer (Straus & Fauchier, 2011).

In this research, Part C of the Parent Form in the DDI was used to measure the independent variable of conflict tactics. Part E of the Parent Form in the DDI was used to measure the dependent variable of perceptions of physical punishment. A copy of permission to use instrument is attached in Appendix F.

**Nurturance Scale.** The Nurturance Scale (Appendix B; Rickel & Biasatti, 1982) was used to measure the amount of warmth parents' displayed toward their children. This scale lists 18 behaviors and requests parents to indicate the frequency in which they engage in such acts on a scale of 0 to 5. The scale was modified from Block's (1980) Child-Rearing Practices Report. Sample questions include "My child and I have warm intimate moments together" and "I express my affection by hugging, kissing, and holding my child." The test-retest reliability for the Nurturance Scale was found to be an average of 0.71 and the Chronbach's alpha was an average of 0.8 (Rickel & Biasatti, 1982).

**Valuing Children Scale.** To measure the amount of value parents placed on their children, the researcher modified Ferrari's (1997) Valuing Children Scale for use with the Akwa Ibom area participants (Appendix C). The Valuing Children Scale is a 15-item scale that asks parents to rate, from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*, statements that address acceptance of children in various venues of the family and community, such as restaurants and adult conversation. Examples of items on the scale are "Young children who interrupt adult conversation need to learn manners," and "Churches should have rooms where tired, grumpy children can go and be noisy and still hear the services through speakers." The score range from 0 – 75, with higher scores indicating a stronger valuing of children. Ferrari found the Chronbach's alpha to be .68 in her 2002 study.

Some of the original items on the measure were not applicable to a Nigerian population, so the following questions were removed, making it a 12-item scale:

- Q1 "Children should have their own separate area when dining in restaurants so they will not annoy other patrons."
- Q3 "Airplane travel is a nuisance when children are aboard."
- Q7 "Being childless sounds like an exciting life."

Thus, the modified version ranged in scores from 0 – 60, with higher scores indicating a stronger valuing of children. The author of the scale was contacted and permission was granted to use a modified version of the scale for this research. A copy of permission to use the instrument is attached in Appendix F.

**Heavy Drinking Measure.** To measure the frequency of drinking, King et al.'s (2005b) Heavy Drinking Measure was used (Appendix D). This measure asks three questions in order to gather information on the frequency of drinking in the past 12 months, rated on a five-point scale from 0 (*never or less than once a month*) to 4 (*three times a week or more*), the amount of drinks consumed, from 0 (*0 to 1 drink*) to 4 (*eight or more drinks*), and the number of times the participant drank to a level of drunkenness, from 0 (*never or nearly never*) to 4 (*every time or nearly every time that I drank*; King et al., 2005b). According to King et al. (2005a), the measure was modified from the Substance Abuse Module, a component of the Composite International Diagnostic Interview for the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Third Edition, Revised.* The authors found alpha reliability estimates for the three-item scale to be high,

at .82 (King et al., 2005a, p. 589). Permission to use the instrument is attached in Appendix F.

**Data Analysis**

The initial data analysis involved using the Dimensions of Discipline background section of the questionnaire to gather descriptive data, and measure parents' attitudes toward physical punishment. The background segment included questions relating to characteristics of parents at the individual, microsystem, and exosystem levels, such as age, sex, education, and socio-economic status. Frequency tables were developed to aid in describing the characteristics of the respondent, and to help ascertain any problem with the data. Multiple regression analysis in SPSS Statistics was used as the main statistical technique to test the research questions in the study. Multiple regression analysis is a powerful technique used to analyze the relationship between a single dependent variable and independent variables. Since this study had one dependent variable (parents' attitudes toward physical punishment of children) and four independent variables (conflict tactics, nurturance, heavy drinking, and valuing for children), multiple regression analysis was suitable for this study.

Often times, regression testing is expensive and can incur time and resource constraints. To improve its efficiency, Kim and Porter (2002) suggested the use of regression test selection (RTS) techniques to lower costs by carefully selecting a subtest of test suite. The authors recommended that researchers prioritize test cases and run only those that fit within existing constraints (Kim & Porter, 2002).

Regression analysis also has certain conditions, and problems can occur if a researcher fails to address these conditions. Cone and Foster (2006), contended that multiple regression procedures assumed the absence of multicollinearity, created singularity problems, incurred linear relationships between each predictor and the criterion, and caused multivariate normal distribution, homoscedasticity, and specification error. Although some of these assumptions seemed impossible to fully meet, the recommendation for dealing with them involved thinking about the degree to which the assumptions were met (Klem, 1995, as cited in Cone & Foster, 2006).

Data was verified for accuracy at the data entry stage. Also, before delving into the group designs, groups were checked for equivalence on demographic characteristics and other potentially confounding variables. Data was tested to determine if they met the assumptions for the multiple regression analysis. The assumptions that were tested included normality, linearity, homoscendasticity, and specification error. In this study, the metric variables needed to meet with the assumptions of multiple regressions were the respondent's age, children's sex, parents' marital status, socioeconomic status, and parents' cultural values regarding valuing children, nurturance, conflict tactics, and attitudes toward physical punishment. These variables were tested to determine if they met the aforementioned assumptions (see Appendix H). Exploratory analysis was used to ascertain what the data would look like by highlighting general features for future analysis, and to pinpoint problem areas in the data, such as outliers, missing data, and whether data needed cleaning for consistency. In order to properly address the research questions, factor analysis was conducted and scales from survey responses were

constructed. Descriptive statistics were applied to compute the distribution, central tendency, and dispersion against the independent and dependent variables. Multiple regression analysis was the inferential statistics used to determine the predictors of the parents' perception of physical punishment on their children.

Path analysis technique was implored to examine the direct and indirect effects between the variables of parents' attitude toward physical punishment, nurturance, drinking, valuing children, and conflict tactics. Path coefficients were computed through a series of bivariate and multiple regression analyses based on the hypothesis.

The relationships between five nonmediated variables were tested using multiple regression analysis. These included nurturance and parents' attitude toward physical punishment, nurturance and drinking, nurturance and valuing children, drinking and valuing children, and drinking and conflict tactic.

**Threats to Validity**

Some external and internal validity threats were bound to be experienced during the study. According to Creswell (2009), internal validity threats are experimental procedures, treatments, or experiences that threaten the researcher's ability to draw correct inferences from the data about the population. External validity threats occur when an experimenter draws incorrect inferences from the data to other persons, other settings, or future incidence. Another potential validity threat worth mentioning is the statistical conclusion threat validity that occurs when researchers draw incorrect inferences from data because of inadequate statistical power (Creswell, 2009). Thus, the

researcher's duty is to identify those potential threats and attempt to eliminate or minimize the threats through the study's design.

Internal validity threats include actions such as selecting participants who have characteristics that predispose them to have certain outcomes (e.g., higher full scale intelligence quotient). To avoid this threat, participants in this study were selected randomly, so that any characteristics that might influence the outcome would be equally distributed among the groups. The researcher recruited a large sample at the outset of the experiment to account for potential dropouts. Communication between participants could influence how groups scored on the outcomes. To avoid this, the researcher kept the groups as separate as possible during the research.

There was a likelihood that respondents would refuse to fully answer questions due to the sensitive nature of the topic; intrusiveness, threat of disclosure, and fear of social undesirability could prevent full participation. In order to avoid this type of error, the researcher guaranteed participants more explicit anonymity by applying a randomized response. Participants were given opportunities to ask questions, and adequate answers were given to the best of the researcher's ability.

Selecting participants with a narrow array of characteristics can cause external validity threats. To combat this, the researcher restrictedclaims about groups if theresult could notbe generalized.

**Validity of Research**

To ensure the validity of this study, the researcher triangulated the evidence gathered into different data sources, and spent a lot of time in the field in order to have an

in-depth understanding of participants for the purpose of producing more accurate findings. To accomplish this, a field log was utilized to provide a detailed account for the researcher's time on-site, and in the transcription and analysis phases. Peer debriefing and external auditors were utilized to ensure interpretation beyond the researcher's scope of knowledge, accuracy of transcription, the relationship between the research questions and the data, and to understand the level of data analysis through interpretation (Creswell, 2009).

**Ethical Issues and Procedures**

The researcher assessed the degree of risks involved for participants, and protected them from physical or emotional harm, danger, or discomfort associated with the research procedures. A critical ethical issue was the importance of protecting the confidentiality of the participants and the data. All data (including consent forms, hard copies of surveys, and electronic copies of data files) will be kept in a secured location for a period of seven years, and then destroyed. The anonymity of the participants, roles, and incidents in the study were protected; for example, the researcher dissociated names from responses during the coding and decoding process, as participants were anonymous and no permanent record of their names were made. The issue of ownership of the data has been addressed. Informed consent was obtained and steps taken to obtain permission from the IRB to protect the rights of the human participants.

Culture was a potential ethical issue in this study, as most Akwa Ibom indigenes embraced physical punishment as an appropriate method of rearing children. To address this, an early ethical consultation was completed during the IRB permission process.

Additionally, the researcher reviewed IRB guidance for international research and engaged in learning Nigerian provincial laws for conducting research. The IRB approval letter is attached in Appendix G.

**Summary**

This chapter presented a discussion of the research methods and procedures used in the study. The study attempted to find the relationship between four dimensions of cultural values (nurturance, valuing children, conflict tactics, and drinking behaviors) and attitudes toward the use of various levels of physical punishment in Akwa Ibom state of Nigeria. The sample for this study consisted of 269 participants. The chapter included information on the research design, rationale, sample size, and instrumentation. Chapter 3 also included variables and how they were measured, validity of the research, and threats to validity. There were discussions on the consideration of how to ensure the protection of the participants' rights, including data collection, granting of permissions from potential sites and the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council, completion of informed consent forms, and securely maintaining and destroying the data. Chapter 4 presents the results of the study.

# Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to examine which of the cultural factors such as conflict tactics, nurturance, drinking behavior, and valuing children were most predictive with use of harsh physical punishment in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria. While parenting styles, use of physical punishment, and attitudes toward physical punishment in Nigeria have been researched, they have been researched separately. Moreover, predictors and perceptions of the use of harsh physical and emotional punishment have not been examined much in the Nigerian context. This study explored specific cultural dimensions that may influence parents' perception about which physical punishments are acceptable to use and which are not.

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. First is a brief explanation of the study sample and data collection. Second, descriptive statistics of the respondents are provided. Third, the research questions in this study are addressed using inferential statistics.

## Data Collection

The target populations for this research were mothers and fathers selected from the provinces in the Akwa Ibom state of Nigeria. The participants included those who are currently involved with their children, as well as those who are not currently involved, but who identified as parents. The target population size for this study was 269 participants.

Parents who agreed to participate signed a written consent form (Appendix E). In addition, a survey questionnaire the DDI Form P (Appendix A) was given to participants.

Part A requested demographic information about themselves as parents. Part B of the form asked participants for information about their children, Part C asked about the forms of discipline and conflict tactics used with a specific child, and part E asked parents about their attitudes on which forms of discipline are acceptable (see Appendix A). In addition to the DDI, parents were given the Nurturance Scale (Appendix B), the Valuing Children Scale (Appendix C), and the Heavy Drinking Measure (Appendix D) .Responses were collected over three months, between August and October 2015, and 269 responses were collected.

The basic method of identifying violations of assumptions was through plotting of residuals (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2006; Osborne & Waters, 2002). Thus, data were tested to determine whether it met the assumptions for the multiple regression analysis. The assumptions tested for included normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and specification error. The dependent and independent variables met the assumptions (see Appendix H).

## Results

### Descriptive Statistics

Data was collected from a total of 269 respondents. Of these, slightly more identified as men ($N$ =141; 52.4%) than women ($N$ = 128; 47.6%).The vast majority were Nigerian ($N$ = 267; 99.3%), while far fewer were African American ($N$ = 2; .7%).Nearly three quarters of respondents, 82.2%, indicated that they were married. Of the remainder, approximately7% were single and never married, 4.1% were widowed, 1.1% were separated, 1.9% lived with their partner, and 1.9% were divorced. Respondents aged40 to

49 made up the largest age category at 30.7%, followed by respondents aged 30 to 39, who made up 26.1%.

When asked about educational status, 42.4% respondents and 13.8% of the respondents' partners said they had completed a four year degree, and 5.9% of respondents and 3.0% of their partners had completed a post graduate degree. In terms of income, 24.2% of the respondents reported that they earned NGN100,000 ($530) or more, while 2% reported an income less than NGN3,000 ($17). When examining the number of people supported by household income, respondents with household incomeNGN3,000- NGN7,000($17 - $37) reported the highest percentage ($N = 46$; 17.1%). Finally, 33.8% of respondents owned houses, 19% owned apartments or condos, 22.2% lived in rented apartments,15.6% lived in rented houses, and 4.8% lived in homes owned by another family member.

Data cleaning process was initiated in eliminating the participants with invalid data responses as presented. Tables 1 through 9 depict the frequency percentages of the population demographics for the study.

Table 1

*Participants' Gender*

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | Female | 128 | 47.6 | 47.6 | 47.6 |
| | Male | 141 | 52.4 | 52.4 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 269 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 2

*Participants' Race/Ethnicity*

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | African America | 2 | .7 | .7 | .7 |
| | Nigerian | 267 | 99.3 | 99.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 269 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 3

*Participants' Marital Status*

| Responses Marital Status | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | | 2 | .7 | .7 | .7 |
| | Divorced | 5 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 2.6 |
| | Living with a partner | 5 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 4.5 |
| | Married | 221 | 82.2 | 82.2 | 86.6 |
| | Other | 2 | .7 | .7 | 87.4 |
| | Separated | 3 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 88.5 |
| | Single | 20 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 95.9 |
| | Widowed | 11 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 269 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 4

*Participants' Level of Education*

| Responses Educational Level | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | | 28 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 10.4 |
| | Completed 4 year college | 114 | 42.4 | 42.4 | 52.8 |
| | Completed a post graduate degree | 16 | 5.9 | 5.9 | 58.7 |
| | Completed high school | 27 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 68.8 |
| | Grade School | 6 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 71.0 |
| | Some college | 28 | 10.4 | 10.4 | 81.4 |
| | Some high school | 19 | 7.1 | 7.1 | 88.5 |
| | Some post graduate education | 31 | 11.5 | 11.5 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 269 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 5

Partners' Level of Education

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | | 158 | 58.7 | 58.7 | 58.7 |
| | Completed | 1 | .4 | .4 | 59.1 |
| | Completed 4 year college | 37 | 13.8 | 13.8 | 72.9 |
| | Completed a post graduate degree | 8 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 75.8 |
| | Completed high school | 30 | 11.2 | 11.2 | 87.0 |
| | Grade school | 1 | .4 | .4 | 87.4 |
| | Some college | 20 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 94.8 |
| | Some high school | 7 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 97.4 |
| | Some post graduate education | 7 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 269 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 6

Participants' Household Income

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | | 11 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.1 |
| | N0-N2,999 | 6 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 6.3 |
| | N100,000 and over | 65 | 24.2 | 24.2 | 30.5 |
| | N13,000-N19,9999 | 13 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 35.3 |
| | N20,000-N29,9999 | 18 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 42.0 |
| | N3,000-N7,9999 | 15 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 47.6 |
| | N30,000-N39,999 | 18 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 54.3 |
| | N40,000-N49,999 | 16 | 5.9 | 5.9 | 60.2 |
| | N50,000-N59,999 | 36 | 13.4 | 13.4 | 73.6 |
| | N60,000-N69,999 | 30 | 11.2 | 11.2 | 84.8 |
| | N8,000-N12,999 | 12 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 89.2 |
| | N80,000-N99,999 | 29 | 10.8 | 10.8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 269 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 7

Number of people supported by household income

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | 1 | 6 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.4 |
| | 2 | 24 | 8.9 | 9.4 | 11.8 |
| | 3 | 18 | 6.7 | 7.1 | 18.9 |
| | 4 | 24 | 8.9 | 9.4 | 28.3 |
| | 5 | 46 | 17.1 | 18.1 | 46.5 |
| | 6 | 37 | 13.8 | 14.6 | 61.0 |
| | 7 | 27 | 10.0 | 10.6 | 71.7 |
| | 8 | 25 | 9.3 | 9.8 | 81.5 |
| | 9 | 7 | 2.6 | 2.8 | 84.3 |
| | 10 | 21 | 7.8 | 8.3 | 92.5 |
| | 11 | 8 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 95.7 |
| | 12 | 4 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 97.2 |
| | 13 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 98.0 |
| | 14 | 1 | .4 | .4 | 98.4 |
| | 15 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 99.2 |
| | 18 | 1 | .4 | .4 | 99.6 |
| | 20 | 1 | .4 | .4 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 254 | 94.4 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 15 | 5.6 | | |
| Total | | 269 | 100.0 | | |

Table 8

*Type of House (whether it be rented house, home owned, condo, trailer or rented apartment).*

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | 1 | 51 | 19.0 | 19.2 | 19.2 |
| | 2 | 61 | 22.7 | 22.9 | 42.1 |
| | 3 | 1 | .4 | .4 | 42.5 |
| | 4 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 43.2 |
| | 6 | 42 | 15.6 | 15.8 | 59.0 |
| | 7 | 91 | 33.8 | 34.2 | 93.2 |
| | 8 | 13 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 98.1 |
| | 9 | 5 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 266 | 98.9 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 3 | 1.1 | | |
| Total | | 269 | 100.0 | | |

Table 9

*Age of Participants*

| Response | Age | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | 3 | 1 | .3 | .4 | .4 |
| | 18 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 1.2 |
| | 21 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 1.9 |
| | 23 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 2.7 |
| | 25 | 3 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 3.9 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 26 | 3 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 5.1 |
| 27 | 3 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 6.2 |
| 28 | 5 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 8.2 |
| 29 | 4 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 9.7 |
| 30 | 15 | 5.1 | 5.8 | 15.6 |
| 31 | 4 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 17.1 |
| 32 | 12 | 4.0 | 4.7 | 21.8 |
| 33 | 3 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 23.0 |
| 34 | 4 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 24.5 |
| 35 | 11 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 28.8 |
| 36 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 29.6 |
| 37 | 4 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 31.1 |
| 38 | 10 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 35.0 |
| 39 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 35.8 |
| 40 | 17 | 5.7 | 6.6 | 42.4 |
| 41 | 6 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 44.7 |
| 42 | 11 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 49.0 |
| 43 | 3 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 50.2 |
| 44 | 1 | .3 | .4 | 50.6 |
| 45 | 15 | 5.1 | 5.8 | 56.4 |
| 46 | 5 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 58.4 |
| 47 | 5 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 60.3 |
| 48 | 10 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 64.2 |
| 49 | 6 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 66.5 |
| 50 | 15 | 5.1 | 5.8 | 72.4 |

| Response | Age | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | 51 | 4 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 73.9 |
| | 52 | 10 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 77.8 |
| | 53 | 4 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 79.4 |
| | 54 | 3 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 80.5 |
| | 55 | 4 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 82.1 |
| | 56 | 8 | 2.7 | 3.1 | 85.2 |
| | 57 | 3 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 86.4 |
| | 58 | 3 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 87.5 |
| | 59 | 3 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 88.7 |
| | 60 | 5 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 90.7 |
| | 61 | 3 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 91.8 |
| | 62 | 1 | .3 | .4 | 92.2 |
| | 63 | 6 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 94.6 |
| | 65 | 1 | .3 | .4 | 94.9 |
| | 66 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 95.7 |
| | 67 | 1 | .3 | .4 | 96.1 |
| | 68 | 1 | .3 | .4 | 96.5 |
| | 69 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 97.3 |
| | 70 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 98.1 |
| | 74 | 1 | .3 | .4 | 98.4 |
| | 76 | 1 | .3 | .4 | 98.8 |
| | 78 | 1 | .3 | .4 | 99.2 |
| | 79 | 2 | .7 | .8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 257 | 86.5 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 40 | 13.5 | | |
| Total | | 297 | 100.0 | | |

**Inferential Statistics**

To explore which cultural variables affected Akwa Ibom parents' attitudes toward physical punishment, multiple regression analysis was used. The attitude toward physical punishment was measured using four cultural factors: conflict tactics, nurturance, valuing children, and heavy drinking behavior. Each of the cultural factors was measured separately.

The data screening analysis indicated 269 samples across all variables, and all were used to analyze the data. Table 9 shows the mean and standard deviation of all variables in the study. The relevant units are discipline (DISP), valuing children (VAL), drinking behavior (DRK), and conflict tactics (CTS).

Table 9

*Mean and Standard Deviations for All Variables in the Study*

| Scale | *N* | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| DISP | 256 | 60.10 | 12.709 |
| VAL | 269 | 31.58 | 10.496 |
| DRK | 106 | 2.75 | 3.419 |
| NUR | 248 | 82.52 | 21.063 |
| CTS | 269 | 91.60 | 38.491 |

Note: DISP = Discipline (Dependent Variable), VAL = Valuing Children Scale, DRK = Heavy Drinking Scale, NUR = Nurturance Scale, CTS = Conflict Tactic Scale

**Research Question 1 and Hypotheses**

What, if any, is the influence of conflict tactics in Akwa Ibom society on parental attitudes toward physical punishment?

**$H1_0$.** In Akwa Ibom society, conflict tactics do not have a statistically significant influence on parental attitudes toward physical punishment.

**$H1_a$.** In Akwa Ibom society, conflict tactics have a statistically significant influence on parental attitudes toward physical punishment.

In order to answer Research Question 1 and its hypotheses, multiple regression analysis was used to describe the relationship between conflict tactics and parental attitudes toward physical punishment. The plotting residuals of the assumptions violations for Hypothesis 1 are presented in Figures 2 and 3, which show a positive relationship between conflict tactics and parental attitudes toward physical punishment. The regression analysis indicates that the relationship between conflict tactics and parental attitudes toward physical punishment were statistically significant at $p < .05$, and that the adjusted $R^2$ was 22.9% (see Appendix I), an adequate figure for the explained variance. Therefore, $H1_0$, which states that in Akwa Ibom society, conflict tactics do not have a statistically significant influence on parental attitudes toward physical punishment, has been rejected. The significance and coefficients for the predictor variables are presented in Table10.The beta coefficient for CTS is.482, indicating that the direction of influence of conflict tactics on parental attitudes toward physical punishment is positive.

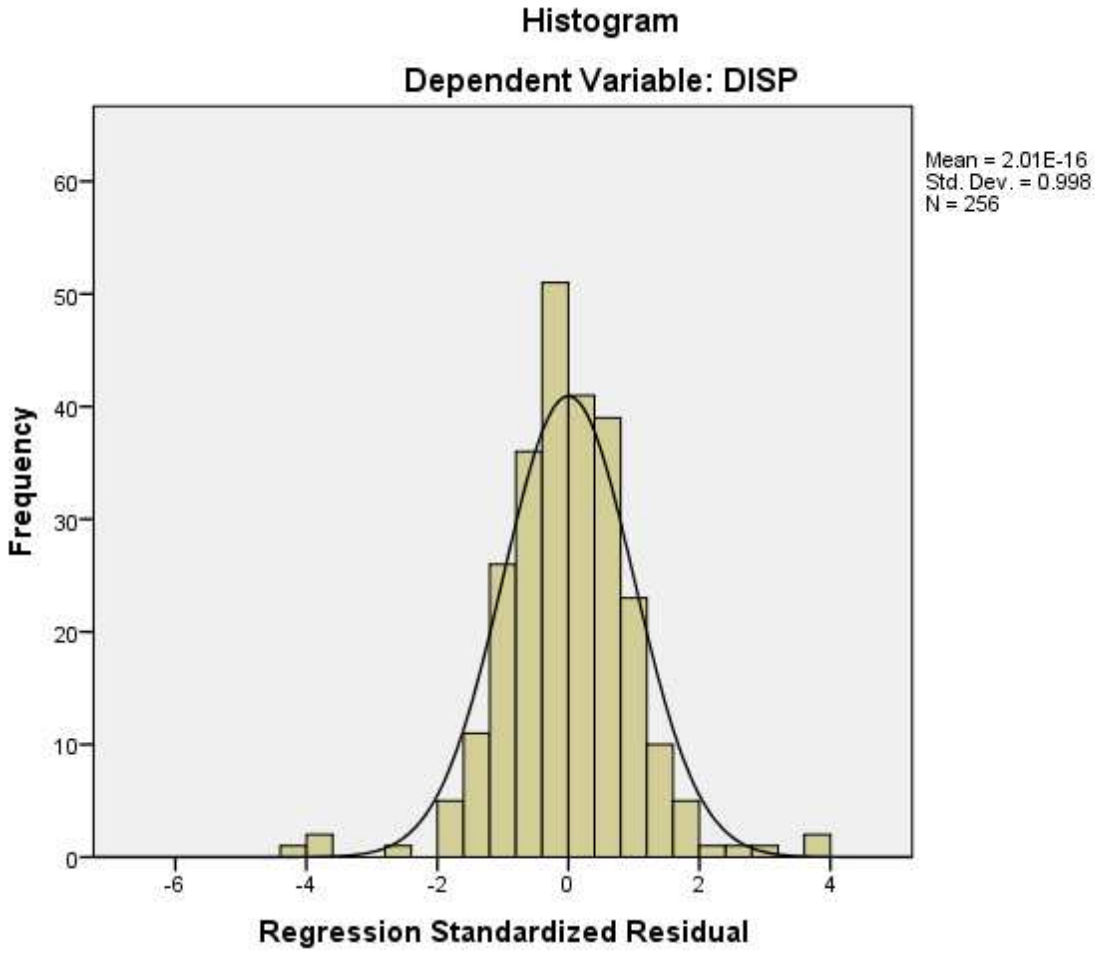


*Figure 2.* Assumptions of regression analysis normality of error term for Research Question 1 (Conflict tactics describing a relationship with parents' attitude toward physical punishment).

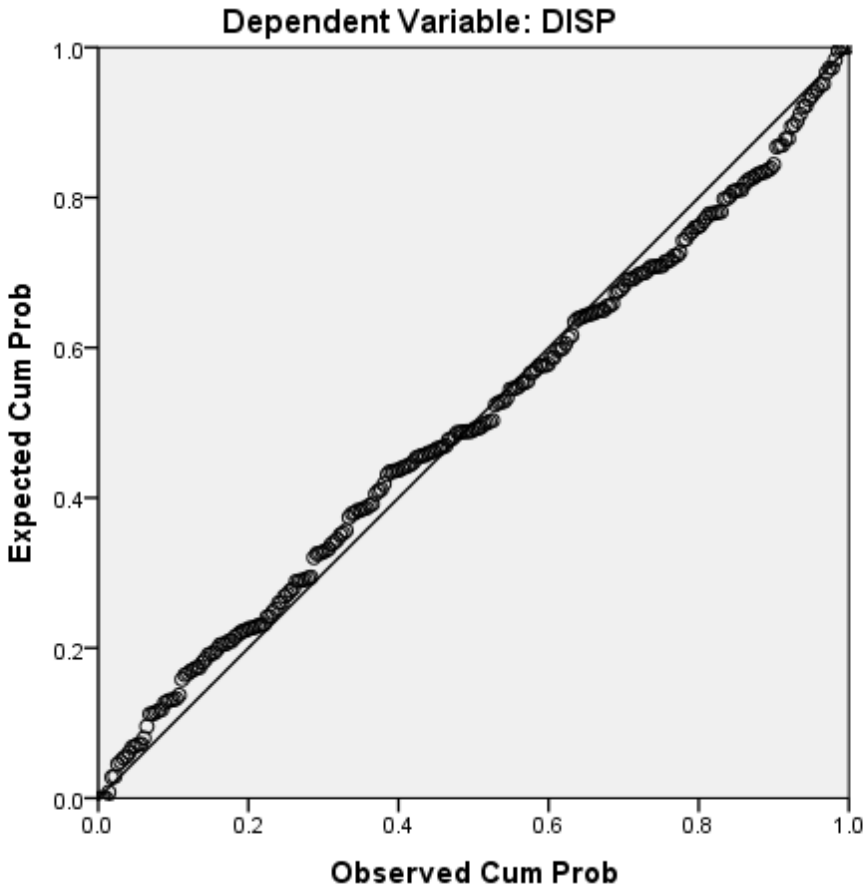


*Figure3*. Research Question 1 normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual. (Conflict tactic variable describing a relationship with parents' attitude toward physical punishment.)

Table 10

*Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Conflict Tactics*

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients[a] | | Standardized Coefficients[a] | *t* | Sig. | 95.0% Confidence Interval for *b* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *b* | Std. Error | Beta | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| (Constant) | 45.434 | 1.811 | | 25.083 | .000 | 41.867 | 49.002 |
| CTS | .159 | .018 | .482 | 8.771 | .000 | .123 | .194 |

a. Dependent variable: DISP

**Research Question 2 and Hypotheses**

What influence, if any, does valuing children in the Akwa Ibom society have on parental attitudes about physical punishment?

**$H2_0$.** Valuing children have no statistically significant influence on parental attitudes about physical punishment in Akwa Ibom society.

**$H2_a$.** Valuing children have a statistically significant influence on parental attitudes about physical punishment in Akwa Ibom society.

In order to answer Research Question 2 and its hypotheses, multiple regression analysis was again used to describe the relationship between valuing children and parental attitudes toward physical punishment. The plotting residuals of the assumptions violations for the hypotheses of Research Question 2 are presented in Figures 4 and 5, which show a positive relationship between valuing children and parental attitudes toward physical punishment. Again, the regression analysis depicts that the relationship between valuing children and parental attitude toward physical punishment was statistically significant at $p < .05$, and the adjusted $R^2$ was 2.7% (see Appendix J), an adequate figure for the explained variance. Thus, $H2_0$, which states that valuing children in the Akwa Ibom society has no statistically significant influence on parental attitudes about physical punishment, has been rejected. The significance and coefficients for the predictor variables are presented in Table 11. The beta coefficient for VAL is .175, indicating that the direction of influence of VAL on parental attitudes toward physical punishment is positive.

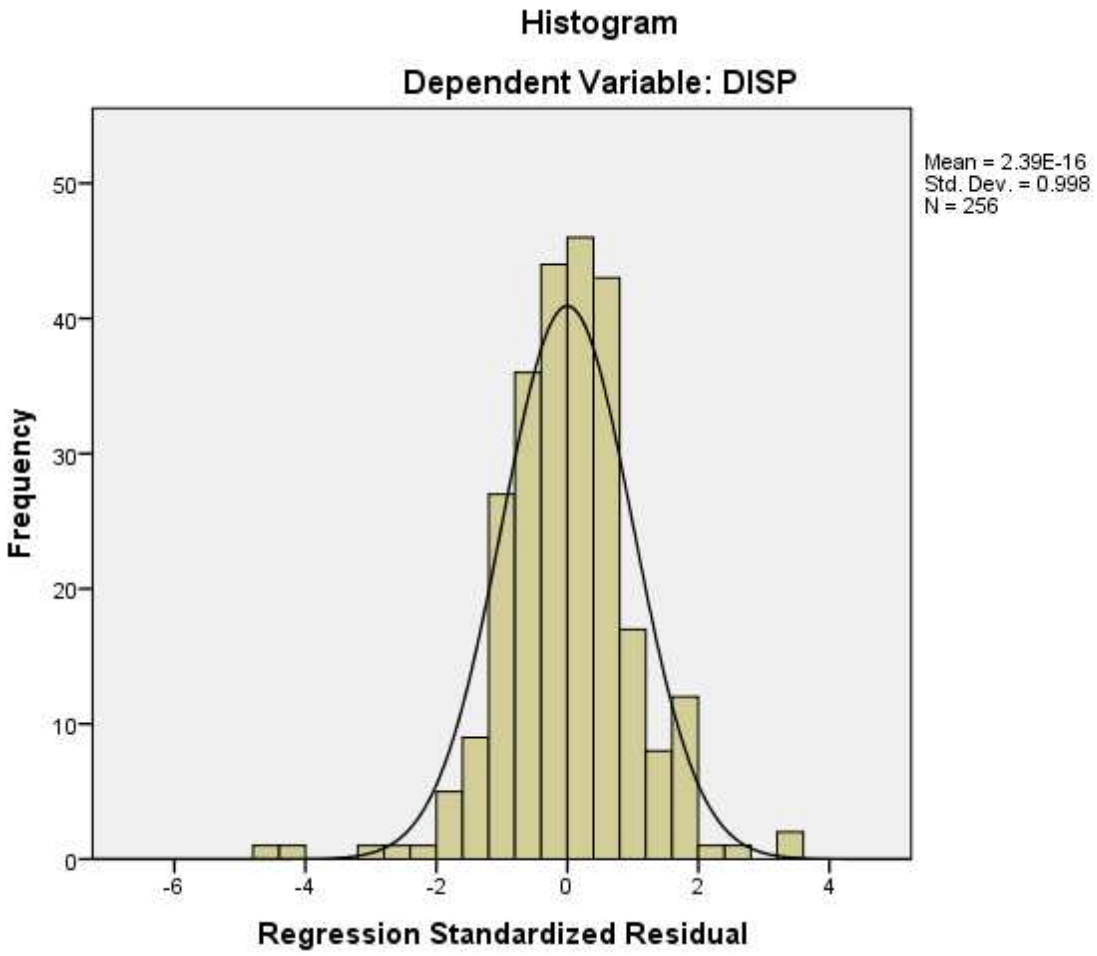


*Figure 4.* Assumptions of regression analysis normality of error term for Research Question 2 (Valuing variable describing a relationship with parents' attitude toward physical punishment).

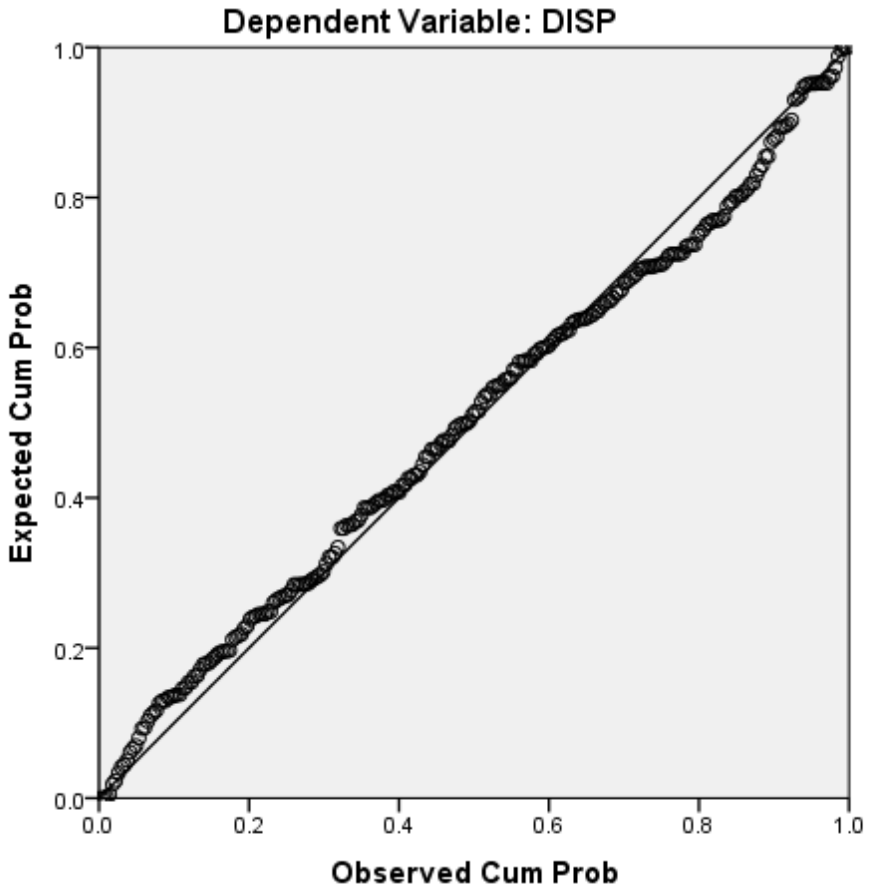


*Figure 5*. Research Question 2 normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual (Valuing children variable describing a relationship with parents' attitude toward physical punishment)

Table 11

*Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Valuing children*

| Model* | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95.0% Confidence Interval for B | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| (Constant) | 52.759 | 2.708 | | 19.479 | .000 | 47.425 | 58.092 |
| VAL | .228 | .081 | .175 | 2.831 | .005 | .069 | .387 |

**Research Question 3 and Hypotheses**

What influence, if any, does nurturance have on parental attitudes toward physical punishment in in Akwa Ibom society?

**$H3_0$.**Nurturance has no statistically significant influence on parental attitudes toward physical punishment in Akwa Ibom society.

**$H3_a$.**Nurturance has a statistically significant influence on parental attitudes toward physical punishment in Akwa Ibom society.

In order to answer Research Question 3 and its hypotheses, multiple regression analysis was used again to describe the relationship between nurturance and parental attitudes toward physical punishment. The plotting residuals of the assumptions violations for Research Question 3 are presented in Figures 6and 7, which show a positive relationship between nurturance and parental attitudes toward physical punishment. Again, the regression analysis depicts a statistically significant relationship between nurturance and parental attitudes toward physical punishment, with < .05.The adjusted $R^2$ was 1.4% (see Appendix K), an adequate figure for the explained variance. Thus, $H3_0$, which states that nurturance has no statistically significant influence on parental attitudes toward physical punishment in Akwa Ibom society, has been rejected. The significance and coefficients for the predictor variables are presented in Table 12. The beta coefficient for NUR is .134, indicating that the direction of influence of NUR on parental attitudes toward physical punishment is positive.

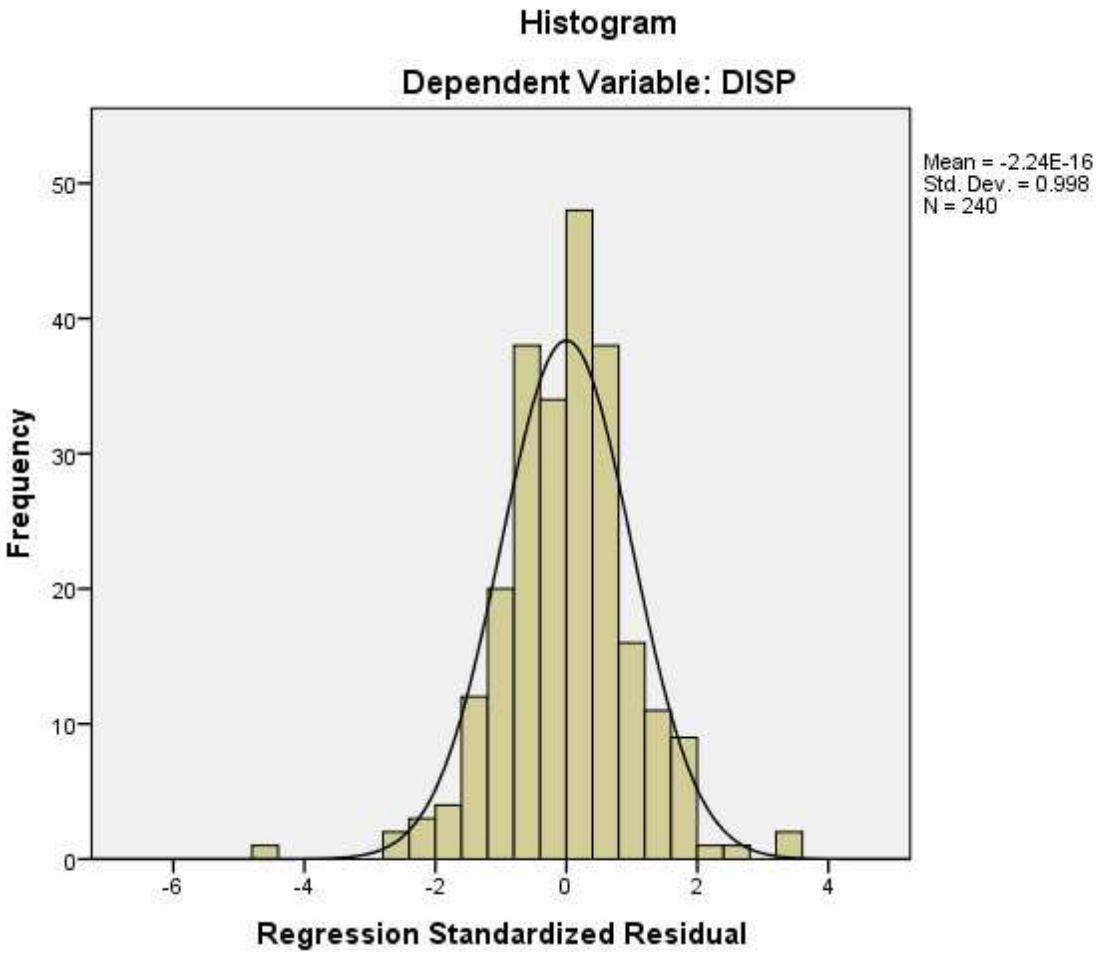


*Figure 6*. Assumptions of regression analysis normality of error term for Research Question 3 (Nurturance variable describing a relationship with parents' attitude toward physical punishment).

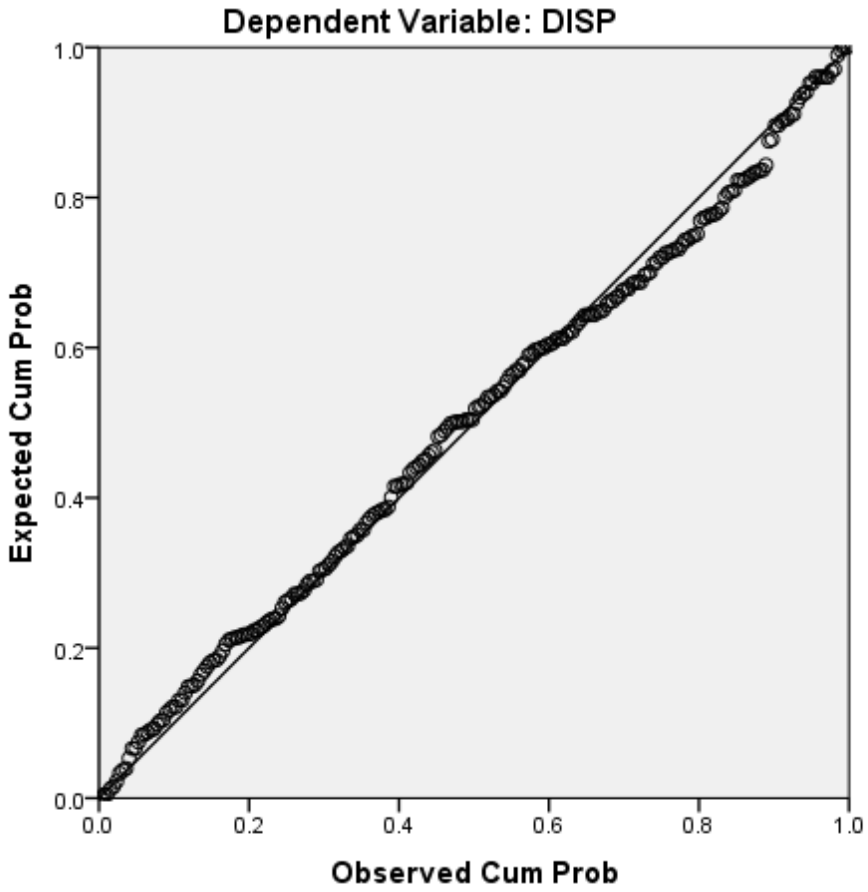


*Figure7*. Research Question 3 normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual (Nurturance variable describing a relationship with parents' attitude toward physical punishment).

Table 12

*Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Nurturance*

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients[a] | | Standardized Coefficients[a] | *t* | Sig. | 95.0% Confidence Interval for *b* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *b* | Std. Error | Beta | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| (Constant) | 54.299 | 3.120 | | 17.403 | .000 | 48.153 | 60.445 |
| NUR | .076 | .037 | .134 | 2.086 | .038 | .004 | .149 |

a. Dependent variable: DISP

**Research Question 4 and Hypotheses**

What influence, if any, does drinking behavior have on parental attitudes toward punishment in Akwa Ibom society?

**$H4_0$.**Drinking behavior has no statistically significant influence on parental attitudes toward physical punishment in Akwa Ibom.

**$H4_a$.**Drinking behavior has a statistically significant influence on parental attitudes toward physical punishment in Akwa Ibom.

In order to answer Research Question 4 and its hypotheses, multiple regression analysis was used to describe the relationship between drinking behavior and parental attitudes toward physical punishment. The plotting residuals of the assumptions violations for Research Question4 are presented in Figures 8 and 9, which show a positive relationship between drinking behavior and parental attitudes toward physical punishment. Again, the regression analysis depicts that the relationship between drinking behavior and parental attitudes toward physical punishment was statistically significant at $p < .05$.The adjusted $R^2$ was -0.9% (see Appendix J), an adequate figure for the explained variance. Thus, $H4_0$, which states that drinking behavior has no statistically significant influence on parental attitudes toward physical punishment in Akwa Ibom has been rejected. The significance and coefficients for the predictor variables are presented in Table 13. The beta coefficient for DRK is .025, indicating that the direction of influence of DRK on parental attitudes toward physical punishment is negative.

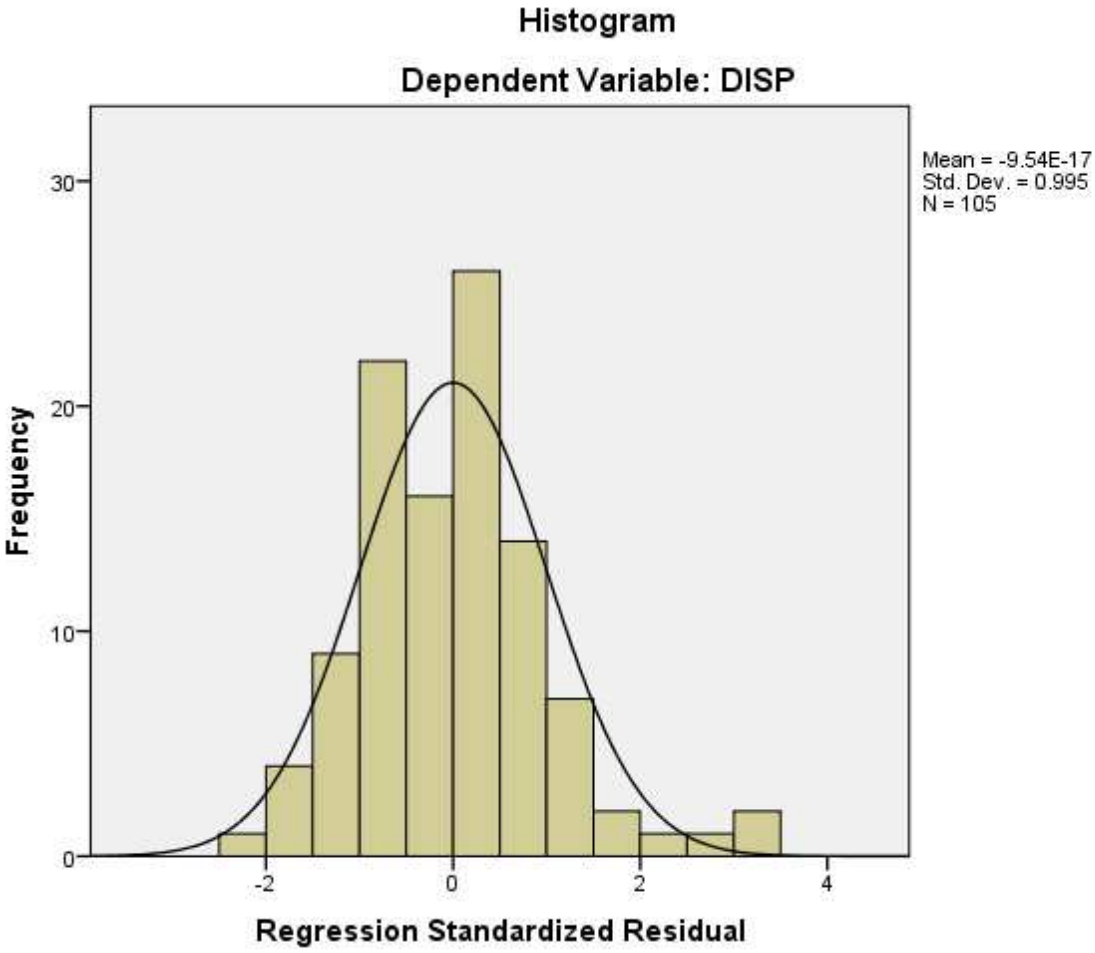


*Figure 8*. Assumptions of regression analysis normality of error term for Research Question 4 (Drinking behavior describing a relationship with parents' attitude toward physical punishment).

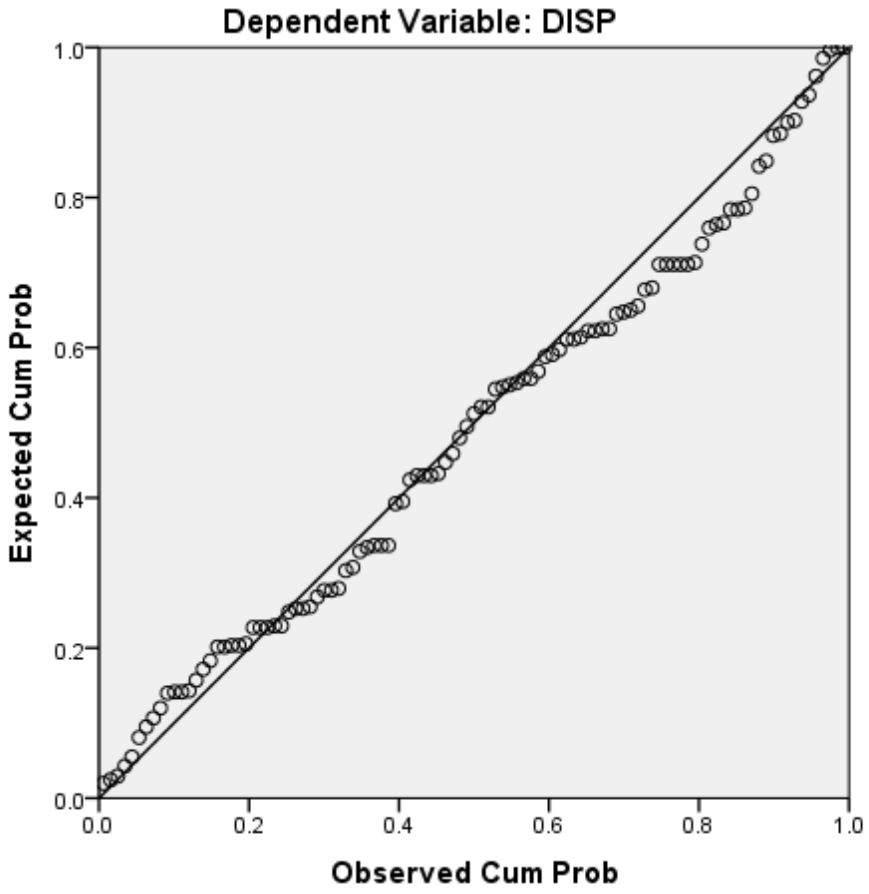


*Figure9*. Research Question 4 normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual (Drinking behavior describing a relationship with parents' attitude toward physical punishment).

Table 13

*Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Drinking Behavior*

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients[a] | | Standardized Coefficients[a] | *t* | Sig. | 95.0% Confidence Interval for *b* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *b* | Std. Error | Beta | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| (Constant) | 61.090 | 1.537 | | 39.735 | .000 | 58.041 | 64.139 |
| DRK | .089 | .350 | .025 | .253 | .801 | -.606 | .783 |

a. Dependent Variable: DISP

## Summary and Conclusion

This chapter presented the results of the study, which examined the relationship between parental perceptions of physical punishment and cultural attitudes toward conflict tactics, nurturance, valuing children, and drinking behavior. It also discussed other variables explored by the study. Chapter 5 offers discussion and interpretation of the study's findings, limitations, implications for social change, and recommendations for future studies.

# Chapter 5

## Discussion

This study explored perceptions of harsh forms of child punishment in Nigeria's Akwa Ibom state, and examined whether these perceptions had an effect on a parent's use of physical punishment when raising a child. African children, although cherished by their families, are often disciplined using harsh physical forms of punishment (Adaora & Nosike, 2011; Afoha & Saidu, 2014; Nduka et al., 2012; Omoyemiju et al., 2014). The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child has recommended the abolition of all physical punishment of children, and the Nigerian Child Rights Act of 2003asserted that no child should be subjected to corporal punishment by the state. Despite this, "physical punishment remains one of the most commonly used techniques to discipline children in many Nigerian homes" (Ofoha & Saidu, 2014, p. 137). While many believe that children have the right to not suffer such violence, culture is also a major factor when what disciplinary methods parents will use to raise their children. This research examined Nigerian parents' perceptions of physical punishment, and explored what effect these perceptions had on parenting style, with the end goal of improving conditions for Nigerian children.

### Interpretation of Findings

Many empirical research studies haveuncovered predictors of physical punishment, including cultural factors (Castelli, 2009; Cle'ment & Chamberland, 2008; Eugene, 2011; Lau, 2010; Lorber, O'Leary, & Smith Slep, 2011; Nduka et al., 2012;

Nuhu & Nuhu, 2010; O'Neil et al., 2009; Renteln, 2010; Tennfjord, 2006; Thomas & Dettlaff, 2011; Uwaoma et al., 2012).

The research in the present study examined the cultural factors nurturance, valuing children, conflict tactics, and drinking behavior, and found that they did contribute to parents' use of physical punishment. These results could also be explained using the ecological theory postulated by Bronfenbrenner (1974, 1977), which stated that cultural beliefs influence parenting methods, including disciplinary tactics. The macrosystem suggested by Bronfenbrenner includes the cultural values and beliefs within which an individual, family, and the community are embedded. The hypotheses and results of the current study follow.

**Research Question 1**.This question studied the relationship between conflict tactics and parental attitudes toward physical punishment of children. A multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the analysis indicated that parental attitudes about conflict tactics predicted parental use of physical punishment on their children.

The results of this study showed relevanceto previous studies on the relationship between conflict tactics and physical punishment. Durrant and Ensom (2012) stated that many studies suggested associations between physical punishment and family violence in adolescence and adulthood. This result also supported the findings of Kim (2007), Lee (2004) and Nho (2002), indicating that there is a significant relationship between domestic violence and child maltreatment caused by mothers. Additionally, since conflict tactics is a cultural factor, and helps determine how parents discipline their children (Uwaoma et al., 2012), the present study is also supported by the findings of Nduka et al.

(2012), which stated that culture is the driving force behind the use of harsh forms of physical punishment in Nigerian parenting.

**Research Question 2.**This question studied the relationship between valuing children and parental attitudes toward physical punishment of children. A multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the result of the analysis indicated that valuing children as a cultural factor predicted parental attitudes toward physical punishment. The regression to describe the relationship between valuing children and parental attitudes toward physical punishment was statistically significant. Thus, the results of the study were supported by empirical research (Eugene, 2011; Lau, 2010; Renteln, 2010).

In the Nigerian community, children are seen as a wonderful blessing from God, and are therefore highly valued. The Nigerian family considers the parent-child relationship more important than the wife-husband relationship. Therefore, caring for children is taken very seriously (Ajayi & Owumi, 2013). However, cultural factors favor abuse on female children in Igbo culture in the Imo state of Nigeria, because male children are preferred to female children. An inability to conceive a male child could result in abuse of female children (Uwaoma et al., 2012).Studies have also indicated that male children are often given preferential treatment over female children, specifically during times of disaster (Ejikeme, 2003).

**Research Question 3**. This question studied the relationship between nurturance and parental attitudes toward physical punishment of children. A multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the result of the analysis indicated that nurturance predictedparents' attitudes toward physical punishment. The regression describing the

relationship between nurturance and parental attitudes toward physical punishment was statistically significant. Therefore, the results of the study were supported by empirical research conducted by Dekker (2012) and Ajayi and Uwumi (2013).

Nigerian parents hold a lot of power over their children, which can result in child maltreatment. Traditionally, parents are supposed to be respected, revered, and obeyed. They believe their sons should be raised in a typically masculine way and daughters in a typically feminine way. It is also commonly believed that physical punishment is necessary. Therefore, in an attempt to produce a "proper person," and to teach children good morals and values, they consider physical punishment the most appropriate means of instilling these values in them (Twum-Danso, 2010).

**Research Question 4**. This question studied the relationship between drinking behavior and parental attitudes toward physical punishment of children. A multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the result of the analysis indicated that drinking behavior predicted parental attitudes toward physical punishment. The regression describing the relationship between drinking behavior and parent's attitudes toward physical punishment was statistically significant. Thus, the results of the study are supported by empirical research conducted by Nelson (2014), whose findings revealed that the use of alcohol underlay most occurrences of male violence against women **(**Fawole et al., 2009).

In Nigeria, heavy drinking behavior is often considered a strong indicator of masculinity (Ibanga, Adetula, & Dagona, 2009). In addition to Nelson's (2014) findings that the use of alcohol underlay most occurrences of male violence against women,

Fawole et al. (2009) established that alcohol consumption correlated with a higher rate of intimate partner violence. This finding was confirmed by Balogun et al. (2012).In other research, drinking has been linked to an increase in both corporal punishment and abusive parenting practices, according to a study conducted in California (Freisthler & Gruenewald, 2013), where even the drinking venues and amount of alcohol consumed had an effect on the type of physical punishment.

**Limitations**

This study has some limitations that should be addressed. One limitation is that, because the research topic is very sensitive, respondents may not have given honest responses. In addition, there was a good deal of missing data, which might be the result of respondents refusing to answer certain items in the questionnaire, thus impacting the findings. For example, the DRK questionnaire had 106 valid respondents, resulting in a sample that was not robust. This could explain why the beta coefficient was so small, with a negative $R^2$causing the direction of its influence to be negative to parental attitudes toward physical punishment.

Second, respondents were limited to Akwa Ibom indigenes, and specifically to teachers and church goers. As such, sampling bias may have been present, and the study cannot be generalized to other populations in Akwa Ibom. For example, samples were not drawn from market places, homes, or offices, due to privacy and confidentiality issues.

Third, since this study focused on physical punishment, other types of abuse, such as child labor, emotional abuse, and sexual abuses were not considered. However, attitudes about physical punishment can be influenced by these other types of abuse.

Finally, since this study focused on cultural factors influencing parents in Akwa Ibom, it could have disregarded other factors influencing their attitudes toward physical punishment. Therefore, this study should not be generalized to all Akwa Ibom parents.

**Implications for Social Change**

This study verified that cultural factors predicted parental use of harsh physical punishment in the Akwa Ibom state of Nigeria, and its results helped clarify our understanding of what will be necessary for social change to take place. For example, many Nigerian parents are not aware of Nigerian law and policies relating to child abuse. This lack of knowledge could foster the use of harsh physical punishment on children. However, various outreach programs, such as a campaign for prevention of use of physical punishment on children have been established. Additionally, resources such as parenting classes could be introduced to help Akwa Ibom parents re-evaluate their use of physical punishment.

Not only has this study provided greater understanding of the Nigerian attitudes toward physical punishment of children, it has also illustrated the many risks and problems physical punishment poses on children. Many empirical studies have shown that harsh methods of physical punishment of children put them at higher risk of developing social and psychological problems. The results of this study could also assist Nigerian human and social services in understanding the adverse effect of physical punishment on children.

Understanding the adverse effects of physical punishment will also enable social services officers to promulgate the proper assessment of the problem, as well as provide

parents and caregivers with nonviolent disciplinary alternatives. Additionally, these results will boost structural and statutory intervention programs by the Akwa Ibom state government, as they provide professional and social work programs that go beyond the provisions outlined in the constitution.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

Future research should focus on other cultural factors that affect parental perceptions of physical punishment in Akwa Ibom and beyond. Because there are very few studies that have examined physical punishment through a cultural lens, I encourage other researchers to explore these links.

In this study, variables were only explored in the macrosystem level of the ecosystem. Therefore, research must be conducted exploring variables in the micro, exo, and meso levels of the ecosystem that could predict parents 'physical punishment of children.

While parents' views on physical punishment of their children have long been examined, little is known about children's views, or about their feelings toward their own experiences with physical punishment (Gershoff, 2002). Therefore, future research must be conducted to explore children's views on physical punishment.

Additionally, qualitative research is needed in the macro, exo, meso, and micro systems to gain an in-depth understanding of how parents and children perceive physical punishment. Because child abuse is a sensitive and complicated topic, qualitative research would be an effective way in getting information about physical punishment.

## Conclusion

The research presented here examined how cultural factors predicted the use of harsh physical punishment in the Akwa Ibom state in Nigeria, and explored Nigerian parental attitudes toward physical punishment. Four different independent cultural variables were measured: conflict tactics, nurturance, drinking behavior, and valuing children. A multiple linear regression analysis was applied to examine the contributions of the independent variables to the dependent variable of parental attitudes toward physical punishment of children. The aforementioned cultural factors were all statistically significant when measured against parents' attitudes toward physical punishment.

This study adds to the existing field of research on child abuse. Every single child has a right to an abuse-free existence. Children must be protected from abuse, as some forms of abuse can stem from severe physical punishment. Therefore, parents must utilize some alternative form of discipline to correct their children's misbehavior.

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Appendix A

**Dimensions of Discipline Inventory**

**A. BACKGROUND**

1. Marital status: 1 Single

2 Married

3 Living with a partner

4 Separated

5 Divorced

6 Widowed

7 Other_____

2. Your Sex: M Male

F Female

3. How old were you at your last birthday? _____years old.

4. How many of your children or step children (under 18) live with you for part of or every week? _____

5. Please list the ages of the children or step children under 18 living in your house for at least part of every week

Girls:_____/_____/_____/_____/

Boys: _____/_____/_____/_____/

Please fill in a number in each column for how much education you and your partner finished:

| YOU | PARTNER | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | Grade School |
| 2 | 2 | Some high school |
| 3 | 3 | Completed high school |
| 4 | 4 | Some college or technical School |
| 5 | 5 | Completed 4-year colleges or university |
| 6 | 6 | Some post graduate education |
| 7 | 7 | Completed a post-graduate degree(M.A., M.D., Ph.D) |

7. About how much was your total household income before taxes for the previous year?

A N0-N2,999

B N3,000-N7,9999

C N8,000-N12,999

D N13,000-N19,9999

E N20,000-N29,9999

F N30,000-N39,999

G N40,000-N49,999

H N50,000-N59,999

I N60,000-N69,999

J N80,000-N99,999

K N100,000 and over

8. How many people (include both adults and children and step children) lived in this Income?_____

9. In what kind of home do you live?

1. Apartment, condo, or co-op owned by myself or partner
2. Rented apartment or condo?
3. Trailer of property owned by myself or partner
4. Trailer on property owned by another family member of friend living on the same property.
5. Trailer in a trailer park or other rented property.
6. Rented house
7. House owned by myself or partner
8. Home owned by my another member of your household (for example a family member living with you)
9. Other _____

10. Your racial/ethnic identification:

1 Asian
2 Nigerian
3 African American
4 Caucasian/White
5 Native American/Pacific Islander
6 Hispanic/Latino (a)
7 Other _____
8 More than one race.

**B. ABOUT THE CHILD YOU WILL ANSWER FOR**

1. Child's sex: B Boy

G Girl

2. How old was this child at his/her birthday?_____ years

For a child under 1, how many months old?_____

3a. Is this child: 1 Your child by birth 2 Your child by adoption 3 Step child 4 Other?__

3b. If you are living with your partner, is the child your partner's biological child?

Y Yes N No

4. Children misbehave in many different ways and in many different situations (e.g. bedtime, eating, picking up their toys, disobedience, etc.). Please list one or two examples of the minor misbehaviors by the child you are going to tell us about in this questionnaire, and one or two examples of serious misbehaviors by this child in the past.

**MINOR MISBEHAVIORS:**

1._____

2._____

**SERIOUS MISBEHAVIORS:**

1._____

2._____

We would like to find out how often this child repeated any minor misbehavior after you corrected him or her, or engaged in any serious misbehavior. Please use this answer key:

N = Never
O = Not in the past year, but in a previous year
1 = 1-2 times in the past year
2 = 3-5 times in the past year

3 = 6-9 times in the past year
4 = Monthly (10-14 times in the past year)
5 = A few times a month (2-3 times a month)
6 = Weekly (1-2 times a week)
7 = Several times a week (3-4 times)
8 = Daily (5 or more times a week)
9 = Two or more times a day

**HOW OFTEN IN THE PAST DID THIS CHILD:**

5. Repeat a minor misbehavior after being corrected for it?

N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

6. Do a serious misbehavior?

N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

7. Who has more responsibility for disciplining the child?

1 I have much more responsibility for discipline than this child's other parent

2 I have somewhat more responsibility than the child's

3 I share responsibility equally with this child's other parent

4 The child's other parent has somewhat more responsibility than I do.

5 This child's other parent has much more responsibility than I do

**C. WHAT DID YOU DO TO CORRECT MISBEHAVIOR?**

N = Never
0 = Not in the past year, but in previous year
1 = 1-2 times in the past year
2 = 3-5 times in the past year
3 = 6-9 times in the past year
4 = Monthly (10-14 times in the past year)
5 = A few times a month (2-3 times a month)
6 = Weekly (1-2 times a week)
7 = Several times a week (3-4 times)
8 = Daily (5 or more times a week)
9 = Two or more times a day

**WHEN THIS CHILD MISBEHAVED (MINOR OR SEVERE) IN THE PAST YEAR**

1. How often did you explain the rules to Prevent the child repeating misbehavior? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

2. How often did you take away the child's allowance, toys, or other privileges because of misbehavior? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

3. How often did you put this child in "time out" or send them to their room for a period of time? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

4. How often did you shout or yell at this child? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

5. How often did you shake or grab this child to get their attention? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

6. How often did you give this child something else they might like to do instead of what they were doing wrong? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

7. How often did you try to make this child feel ashamed or guilty? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

8. How often did you deliberately not pay attention when this child misbehaves? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

9. How often did you spank, slap, smack, or swat this child? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

10. How often did you use a paddle, hairbrush, belt, or other object? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

11. How often did you praise this child for finally stopping bad behavior or for behaving well? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

12. How often did you hold back affection by acting cold or not giving hugs or kisses? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

13. How often did you send this child to bed without a meal?

14. How often did you tell this child that you were watching or checking to see if they did something? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

15. How often did you give this child money or other things for finally stopping bad behavior or for behaving well? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

16. How often did you show or demonstrate the right thing to do for this child? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

17. How often did you let this child misbehave so that they would have to deal with results? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

18. How often did you give this child extra chores as a consequences? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

19. How often did you make this child do something to make up for some misbehavior; for example pay for a broken window? N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

20. When this child behaved badly, how often did you tell the child that they are N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

| | |
|---|---|
| lazy, sloppy, thoughtless, or some other name like that? | |
| 21. How often did you withhold this child's allowance, toys, or other privileges until the child did what you wanted them to do? | N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |
| 22. How often did you check on this child to see if they were misbehaving? | N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |
| 23. How often did you check on this child so that you could tell them they were doing a good job? | N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |
| 24. How often did you make this child apologize or say they were sorry for misbehavior? | N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |
| 25. How often did you wash this child's mouth with soap, put hot sauce on their tongue, or something similar? | N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |
| 26. How often did you ground this child or restrict their activities outside the home because of misbehavior? | N 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 |

## E. YOUR OPINION ABOUT DISCIPLINE

Regardless of what you yourself do, we would like to have your opinion about doing each of the following with children who are about the same age as the child you described in this questionnaire.

**I THINK IT IS :**

1. Never OK
2. Rarely OK
3. Usually OK
4. Always or Almost Always OK

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. Explain the rules to children that age to try to prevent misbehavior | 1 2 3 4 |
| 2. Take away allowances, toys, or other privileges because of misbehavior | 1 2 3 4 |
| 3. Put children that age in "time out" ( or send them to their room) | 1 2 3 4 |
| 4. Shout or yell at children that age | 1 2 3 4 |
| 5. Grab or shake children that age to get their attention | 1 2 3 4 |
| 6. Give children that age something else they might like to do instead of what they are doing wrong | 1 2 3 4 |
| 7 Try to make children of that age feel ashamed or guilty | 1 2 3 4 |
| 8. Deliberately not pay attention to misbehavior | 1 2 3 4 |
| 9. Spank, slap, smack, or swat children that age | 1 2 3 4 |
| 10. Use an object such as a paddle, hairbrush, belt, etc. on children at that age | 1 2 3 4 |
| 11. Praise children that age for finally stopping bad behavior or for behaving well | 1 2 3 4 |
| 12. Hold back affection from the children that age by acting cold or not giving hugs or kisses | 1 2 3 4 |
| 13. Send children that age to bed without a meal | 1 2 3 4 |

| | |
|---|---|
| 14. Let children that age know that the parents are watching or checking to see if they do something | 1 2 3 4 |
| 15. Give children that age money or other things for finally stopping bad behavior or for behaving well | 1 2 3 4 |
| 16. Show or demonstrate the right thing to do | 1 2 3 4 |
| 17. let children that age misbehave so that they have to deal with the results | 1 2 3 4 |
| 18. Give children that age extra chores as a consequence | 1 2 3 4 |
| 19. Make children that age do something to make up for misbehavior; for example pay for broken window | 1 2 3 4 |
| 20.When children that age behave badly, tell them they are lazy, sloppy | 1 2 3 4 |
| 21. Withhold allowance, toys, or other privileges until children that age do what you want them to do | 1 2 3 4 |
| 22. Check on children that age to see if they are misbehaving | 1 2 3 4 |
| 23 .Check on children that age, so you can tell them they are doing a good job | 1 2 3 4 |
| 24. Make children that age apologize or say they are sorry for misbehavior | 1 2 3 4 |
| 25. Wash the mouth of children that age out with soap, put hot sauce on their tongue, or something similar | 1 2 3 4 |
| 26. Ground children that age or restrict their activities outside the home because of misbehavior | 1 2 3 4 |

Appendix B

## Nurturance Scale

**Directions:** Please select the appropriate response for each item below.

| # | Item | 1 Not at all descriptiv | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 Highly descriptiv |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | My child and I have warm intimate moments together. | | | | | | |
| 2. | I encourage my child to talk about his/her troubles. | | | | | | |
| 3. | I joke and play with my child. | | | | | | |
| 4. | I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what he/she tries to accomplish. | | | | | | |
| 5. | I encourage my child to wonder and think about life. | | | | | | |
| 6. | I feel that a child should have time to day dream, think, and even loaf sometimes. | | | | | | |
| 7. | I express my affection by hugging, kissing, and holdingmy child. | | | | | | |
| 8. | I talk it over and reason with my child when he/shemisbehaves. | | | | | | |
| 9. | I find it interesting and educational to be with my childfor long periods. | | | | | | |
| 10. | I encourage my child to be curious, to explore, andquestion things. | | | | | | |
| 11. | I find some of my greatest satisfactions in my child. | | | | | | |
| 12. | When I am angry with my child, I let him/her knowabout it. | | | | | | |
| 13. | I respect my child's opinion and encourage him/her toexpress it. | | | | | | |

| # | Item | 1<br>Not at all descriptive | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6<br>highly descriptive |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14. | I feel that a child should be given comfort and | | | | | | |
| 15. | I am easy going and relaxed with my child | | | | | | |
| 16. | I trust my child to behave as he/she should, evenwhen I am not with him. | | | | | | |
| 17. | I believe in praising a child when he/she is good, and think it gets better results than punishing him/her when he/she is bad. | | | | | | |
| 18. | I usually take into account my child's preference whenmaking plans for the family. | | | | | | |

Appendix C

**Valuing Children Scale** (Ferrari, 1997)

Below is a list of statements describing attitudes that people may have about children. Using the scale below, please rate each statement according to the intensity with which you agree or disagree with the statement. If you disagree with the statement, rate it a "1." If you slightly agree with the statement, rate it a "3." There are no rights or wrong answers to these statements; I simply want your honest opinions.

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

____ 1. It is preferable for the first born to be a boy.
____ 2. Young children who interrupt adult conversation need to learn manners.
____ 3. Daycare should be provided by the government and should be paid for by our taxes.
____ 4. Children should have rights in society.
____ 5. Young children should be able to sit through movies like "Titanic" (3 hours) without disturbing their parents.
____ 6. Young children should be able to accompany their parents grocery shopping without asking for a toy or candy.
____ 7. Young children should be brought along to fancy restaurants and should be able to sit through the meal without fussing.
____ 8. Kid friendly restaurants are a bad idea because they encourage children to misbehave at dinnertime.
____ 9. Churches should have rooms where tired, grumpy children can go and be noisy and still hear the services through speakers.
____ 10. People who work with children, such as teachers and counselors, should be paid well because their work is very important.
____ 11. I miss the good old days when parents were the sole authority and children feared them.
____ 12. I like when I see parents discussing issues with their children, instead of punishing immediately. This way, children understand what they did wrong.

Appendix D

**Heavy Drinking Measure** (King et al., 2005b)

| Items |
| --- |
| What is your frequency of drinking in the past 12 months? |
| *Note*. Participants reported their frequency of drinking in the past 12 months on a 10-point scale (1=*less than once a year* to 10=*three times a day*). |
| What proportion of thetime that you drank during the past 12 months did you drink enough to feel drunk? |
| *Note*. Respondents indicated the proportion of times they became drunk when drinking in the past 12 months on a 5-point scale (responses ranged from 0=*never or nearly never,*1=*less than half of the Time I drank*, 2=*about half of the Time I drank*,3=*more than half of the Time I drank*,4=*every time or nearly every time that I drank*). |
| How much did you have on average each time you drank during the past12months? |
| *Note*. For all respondents, units were combined into a 5-point scale of typical drinks consumed:(0=*0 to 1 drink*,1=*2 to 3drinks*,2=*4to 5drinks*,3=*6to 7drinks*,and4=*8 or more drinks*). A heavy drinking score (HEAVY) was computed by summing the three 5-point items(typical number of drinks consumed, proportion of times drunk, and frequency of drinking) at intake and follow-up assessments(scores ranged from 0 to12). |

**Appendix F**

Letter of Permission

T TITLE/PURPOSE OF ADMINISTERING THE DDI:
The Relationship between Physical Punishmen
and Perceived child Abuse in Akwa Ibom St
of Nigeria.

'ED NUMBER TO BE TESTED:
ɔrm FEMALES: 105 MALES: 65 COUPLES: 90 (both
ɔall Form FEMALES: MALES:
ɔort Form FEMALES: MALES:

IMATE MONTH AND YEAR TESTING WILL BEGIN: AND END:

ee to provide the test author with a Word or .pdf copy of any papers, theses, or dissertations
he DDI.

Cooperating User: ALFRED BASSEY
16470 Sun Summit Dr.
Riverside, CA 92503

951) 552-6778 FAX( ) E-Mail ufyimme@ yaho
ɔsite (If you have one):

the terms of agreement and to provide data as indicated above.

ing User Signature DATE 4/10/

TS: Please have your faculty advisor for this research sign below:

ty Advisor Signature Thomas King PhD DATE 6/17/14

or Name, Title: Faculty

or Department and Institution: Psychology, Walden University

-Mail Address thomas.king@waldenu.edu Phone Number (813) 469-7402

Angela Fauchia

-

To

- anne.ferrari@cnr.edu

Hello Dr. F-errari,

My name is Alfred Bassey. I am a Doctoral student specializing in clinical psychology at Walden University. I will be conducting a research on culture and attitudes toward Physical Punishment of children in Nigeria, and I beg your indulgence to use your instrument (Valuing Children Scale) to conduct this research.

I also want to inform you that since some of the original items on the measure are not applicable to a Nigerian population, the following questions were removed , making it a 12-item scale:

Q1 "Children should have their own separate area when dining in restaurants so they will not annoy other persons."

Q3 "Airplane travel is a nuisance when children are aboard,"

Q7 " Being Childless sound like an exciting life."

If further information is needed in completing this process, please let me know, and I will be more than happy to do so.

looking forward to reading from you soon.

Respectfully,

Alfred Bassey

To

- me

Dear -Mr. Bassey

I am very pleased that you wish to use the instrument; please feel free to do so with my blessing. I wish you the best of luck with your doctoral thesis.

Sincerely,

Anne Ferrari
Associate Professor
The College of New Rochelle
29 Cas-tle Place
New Rochelle, NY 10805
914-654-5416
aferrari@cnr.edu

On Feb 12, 2015, at 1:42 PM, alfred bassey <uyimme@yahoo.com> wrote:

Hello Dr. Rickel,
---
My name is Alfred Bassey. I'm a Doctoral student specializing in clinical psychology at Walden University. I will conducting a research on culture and attitudes toward Physical Punishment of children in Nigeria, and I beg your indulgence to use your instrument (Nurturance Scale) to conduct this research.

If further information is needed in completing this process, please let me know, and I will be more than happy to do so.

looking forward to reading from you soon.

Respectfully,

Alfred Bassey

---

**From:** "rickelau@aol.com" <rickelau@aol.com>
**To:** alfred bassey <uyimme@yahoo.com>
**Sent:** Thursday, February 12, 2015 1:11 PM
**Subject:** Re: permission to use instrument

Alfred,

I am happy to have you use my scale and would very much like to hear your results.
-
Annette Rickel

Sent from my iPhone

To

- rickelau@aol.com

Thank you so much, Dr. Rickel. I'll definitely inform you about the results.

Respectfully,

Alfred Bassey

-

-

To

- king02@hamline.edu

Hello Dr. King,

My name is Alfred Bassey. I'm a Doctoral student specializing in clinical psychology at Walden University. I will conducting a research on culture and attitudes toward Physical Punishment of children in Nigeria, and I beg your indulgence to use your instrument (Heavy Drinking Measure) to conduct this research.

If further information is needed in completing this process, please let me know, and I will be more than happy to do so.

-

looking forward to reading from you soon.

Respectfully,

Alfred Bassey

-

- Search APA PsycNET
- PsycALERTS
- MyAPA

- PsycTESTS:
- Citation and Summary

**Heavy Drinking Measure**
Note: Test name created by PsycTESTS.
By King, Serena M.; Burt, Alexandra; Malone, Stephen M.; McGue, Matt; Iacono, William G.
2005. doi: 10.1037/t21189-000
Test Available: Full
**Permissions: May use for Research/Teaching**
**Summary**
The Heavy Drinking Measure (King et al., 2005) was developed in the context of a study that examined genetic and environmental contributions to stability and change in heavy drinking from late adolescence to young adulthood. This scale consists of 3 measures of heavy drinking: frequency, proportion of times drunk and typical drinks consumed. All 3 questions are asked in reference to the past 12 months and are assessed on 5-point scales. Internal consistency was found to be high in samples of twins. (PsycTESTS Database Record (c) 2014 APA, all rights reserved)

To

- info@nerdc.gov.ng

----- Forwarded Message -----
**From:**alfred bassey <uyimme@yahoo.com>
**To:** "info@nerdc.gov.ng" <info@nerdc.gov.ng>
**Sent:** Saturday, December 6, 2014 10:58 AM
**Subject:** Permission to Conduct Research

Assistant Director
N-Nigerian Educational Research & Development Council (NERDS)
Km 135 Lokoja-Kaduna Road
Sheda . FCT-Abuja

Re: Permission to Conduct Research

Dear Ms. Oresanya,

My name is Alfred Bassey, and I'm a Doctoral Student specializing in Clinical Psychology at Walden University. As part of the University requirement, a Dissertation Research paper will be needed, hence I decided to conduct my research in Nigeria.

My research topic is 'The Relationship Between Culture and Attitudes toward Physical Punishment of Children in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria'. I hereby seek your permission to conduct this research.

I'll be grateful if my request is granted.

Respectfully,

Alfred Bassey.

**National Health Research Ethics Committee of Nigeria (NHREC)**

Promoting Highest Ethical and Scientific Standards for Health Research in Nigeria

**Federal Ministry of Health**

**NHREC Protocol Number NHREC/01/01/2007-19/07/2015**
**NHREC Approval Number NHREC/01/01/2007-03/08/2015**
**Date: August 03, 2015**

**Re: The Relationship Between Culture and Attitudes toward Physical Punishment of Children in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria**

Health Research Ethics Committee (HREC) assigned number: NHREC/01/01/2007

| | |
|---|---|
| Name of Student Supervisor: | Thomas King, PhD |
| Name of Student Investigator: | Alfred A Bassey |
| Address of Student Investigator: | Walden University<br>(951) 552-0778<br>uyimme@yahoo.com |

Date of receipt of valid application: 19-07-2014
Date when final determination of research was made: 03-08-2015

**Notice of Expedited Review and Approval**

This is to inform you that having considered the research described in the submitted protocol, the consent forms, advertisements other participant information materials, has been reviewed and granted expedited committee review approval by the National Health Research Ethics Committee.

This approval dates from 03/08/2015 to 02/08/2016. If there is delay in starting the research, please inform the HREC so that the dates of approval can be adjusted accordingly. Note that no participant accrual or activity related to this research may be conducted outside of these dates. All informed consent forms used in this study must carry the HREC assigned number and duration of HREC approval of the study. In multiyear research, endeavor to submit your annual report to the HREC early in order to obtain renewal of your approval and avoid disruption of your research.

*The National Code for Health Research Ethics requires you to comply with all institutional guidelines, rules and regulations and with the tenets of the Code including ensuring that all adverse events are reported promptly to the HREC. No changes are permitted in the research without prior approval by the HREC except in circumstances outlined in the Code. The HREC reserves the right to conduct compliance visit to your research site without prior notice.*

Signed

Clement Adebamowo BMChB Hons (Jos), FWACS, FACS, DSc (Harvard)
Chairman, National Health Research Ethics Committee of Nigeria (NHREC)

Department of Health Planning, Research & Statistics
Federal Ministry of Health
11th Floor, Federal Secretariat Complex Phase III
Ahmadu Bello Way, Abuja

Tel: +234-09-523-8367
E-mail: chairman@nhrec.net, secretary@nhrec.net, deskofficer@nhrec.net,
URL: http://www.nhrec.net,

-

Appendix G :IRB Approval

WALDEN UNIVERSIT

*A higher degree. A higher purpose.*

**Consent Form**

The Relationship Between Culture and Attitudes toward Physical Punishmer Children in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria

My name is Alfred A. Bassey, and I am a doctoral student specializing clinical psychology from Walden University. I am writing my doctoral dissertat paper on The Relationship Between Culture and Attitudes toward Physical Punishment of Children in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria. Dr. Thomas King and Olga Carranza are supervising me in this project.

You are invited to participate in this research project. The purpose of th study is to give me an insight to learn about the parenting styles being utilizec socializing your children. Additionally, information about parents' opinions egarding discipline behavior on their children would be of great significant to study. The following questionnaire was developed to ask you a few questions egarding child physical punishment. It is the researcher's hope that the nformation you provide will help in enhancing the understanding of the Akwa bom indigenes parenting practices.

I also like to inform you that this study could be found to involve no mor han minimal risk – meaning that the probability and magnitude of harm is no greater than that encountered in the daily lives of all persons.

There are no direct particular benefits to participants. Benefits from this esearch aims to provide greater understanding of the Nigerian attitudes towa hysical punishment of children, and thus offer a foundation for future public ducation with the goal of reducing the use of physical punishment at the ndividual and community levels. Participants are not expected to be given gif ompensation or reimbursements', as participation is done out of sense of ltruism.

Parents living in Akwa Ibom State are invited to participate in this stud Should you decide to participate in this study, your information regarding chilc earing and child discipline will be requested. The information you provide will ompiled with other participants. The questions indicated in the questionnaire

anonymous because no permanent record of your name will be made. In
protect your privacy, signatures are not being collected, and your completi
the survey would indicate your consent if you choose to participate.

All completed questionnaires and consent forms will be stored in tw
separate big envelopes. Your responses will not be read until all surveys a
collected. Your responses will also be anonymous, thus the ability to link y
the responses will be impossible. But if for any reason you divulge any pla
wanting to injure yourself or anyone, I have a professional duty to alert the
people of your intentions in order to protect you and others from harm. Thi
means that if you disclose of a child being beaten or an elderly or disabled
person being injured, I have to report that information to the appropriate
authority.

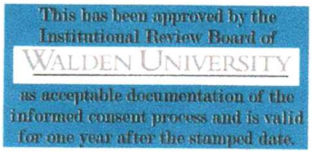
Participation in this study is voluntary. If you decide to participate no
may discontinue participation at any time. However, because I am not colle
any identifiable information, once a survey is submitted, it will not be possi
withdraw the survey at that point.

Should you have any question regarding this survey, you may ask m
may call me later if you have any question at 08170050064 or (951) 552-0
You may also contact Dr. Leilani Endicott at 001-612-312-1210 should you
any questions about your rights as a participant. Walden University's approv
number for this study is 06-26-15-0073979 and it expires June 25, 2016.

You may keep this consent form for your record.

_____

_____
Signature of Researcher




Date:
2015.07.23
09:05:56

# Appendix G

# IRB Approval

## Appendix H

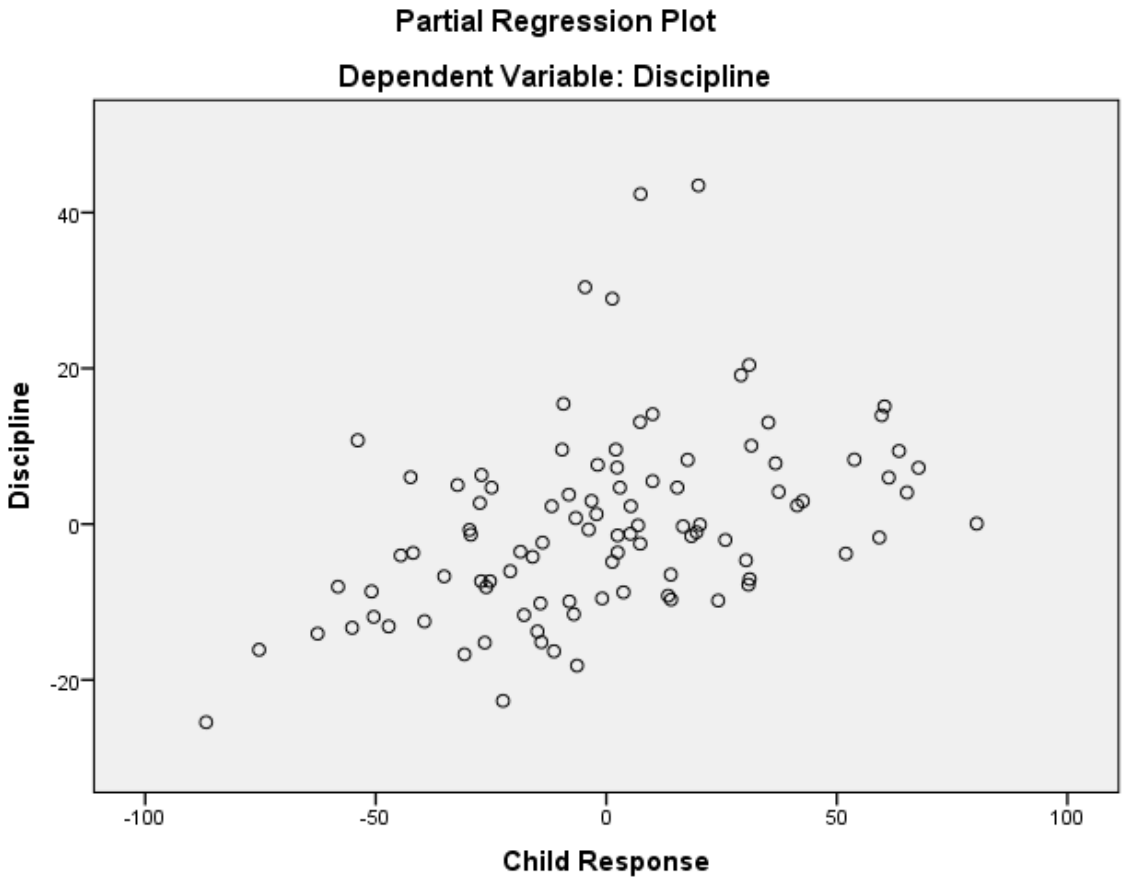



*Figure H1.* Research Question 1 residual plot for homoscedasticity and linearity (Conflict Tactic describing DISP = parents' attitude toward physical punishment).

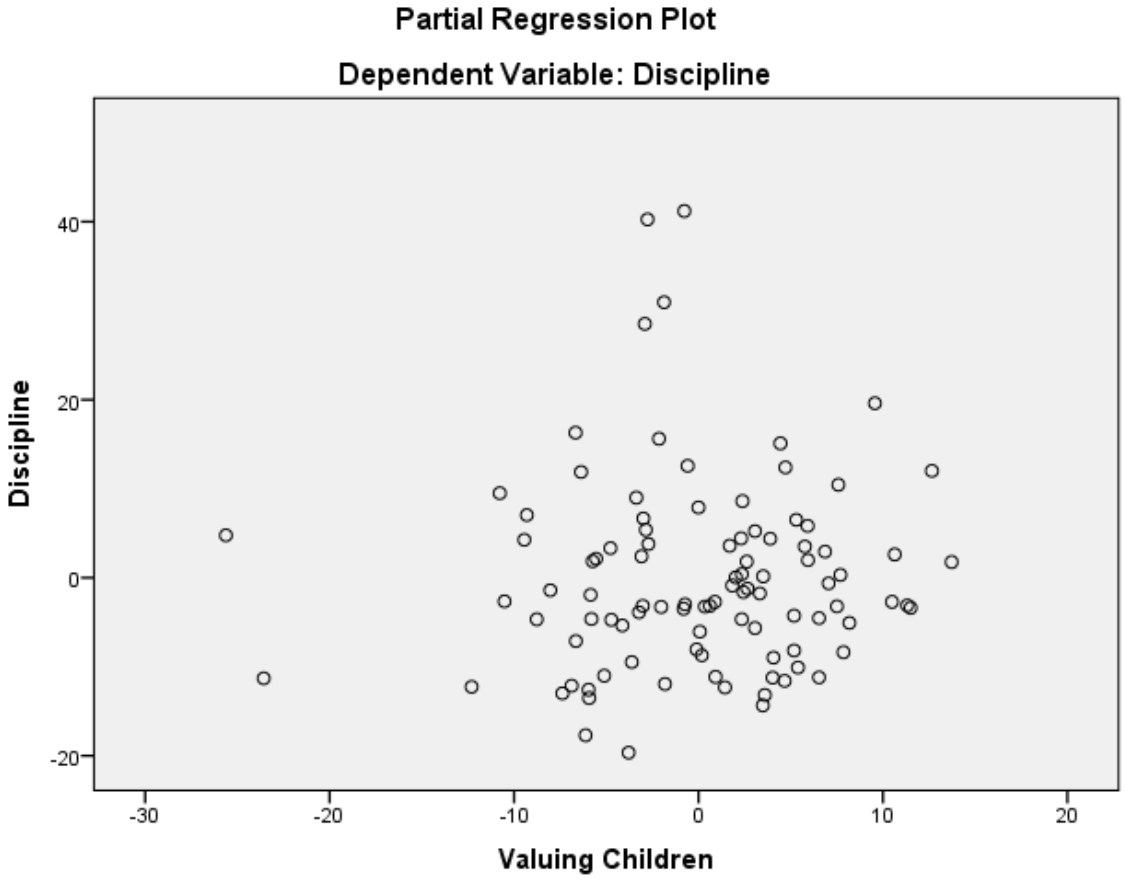



*Figure H2.* Research Question 2 residual plot for homoscedasticity and linearity (Valuing Scale (VAL) describing DISP = parents' attitude toward physical punishment).

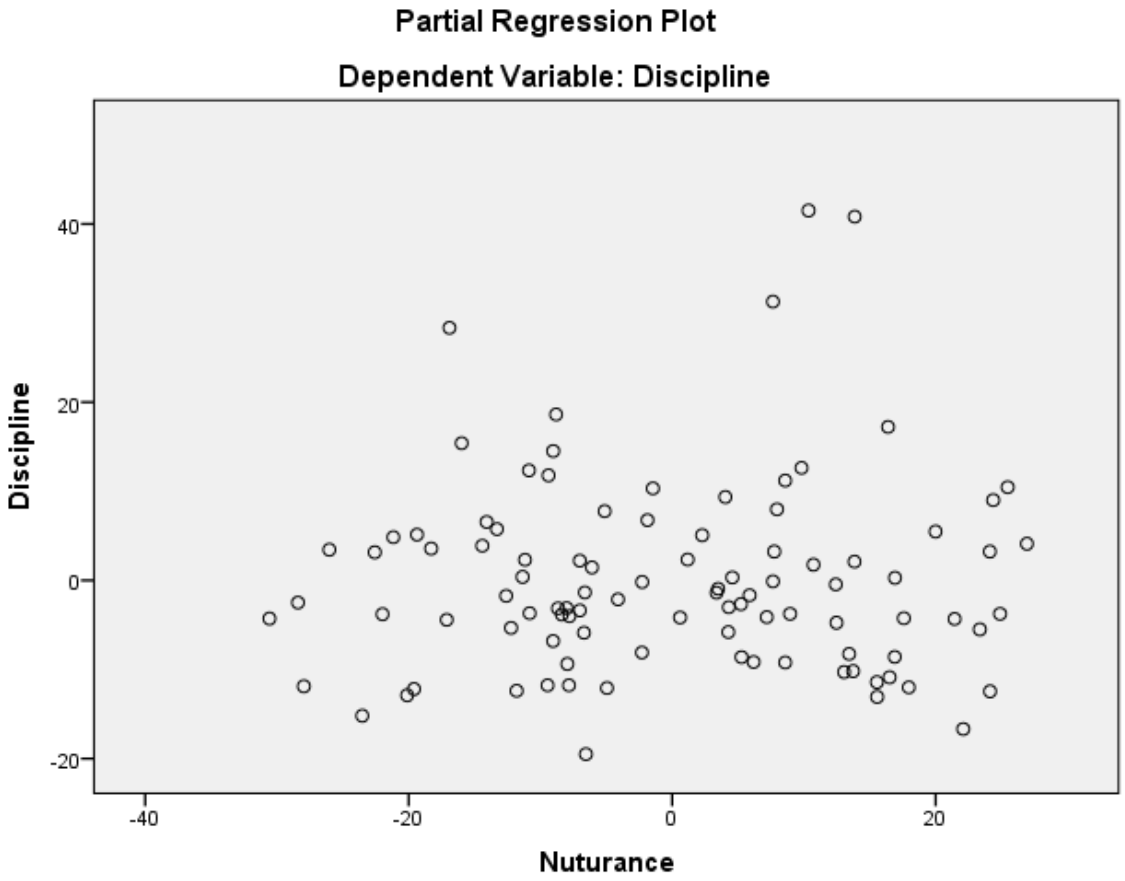



*Figure H3.* Research Question 3 residual plot for homoscedasticity and linearity (Nurturance Scale (NUR) describing DISP = parents' attitude toward physical punishment).

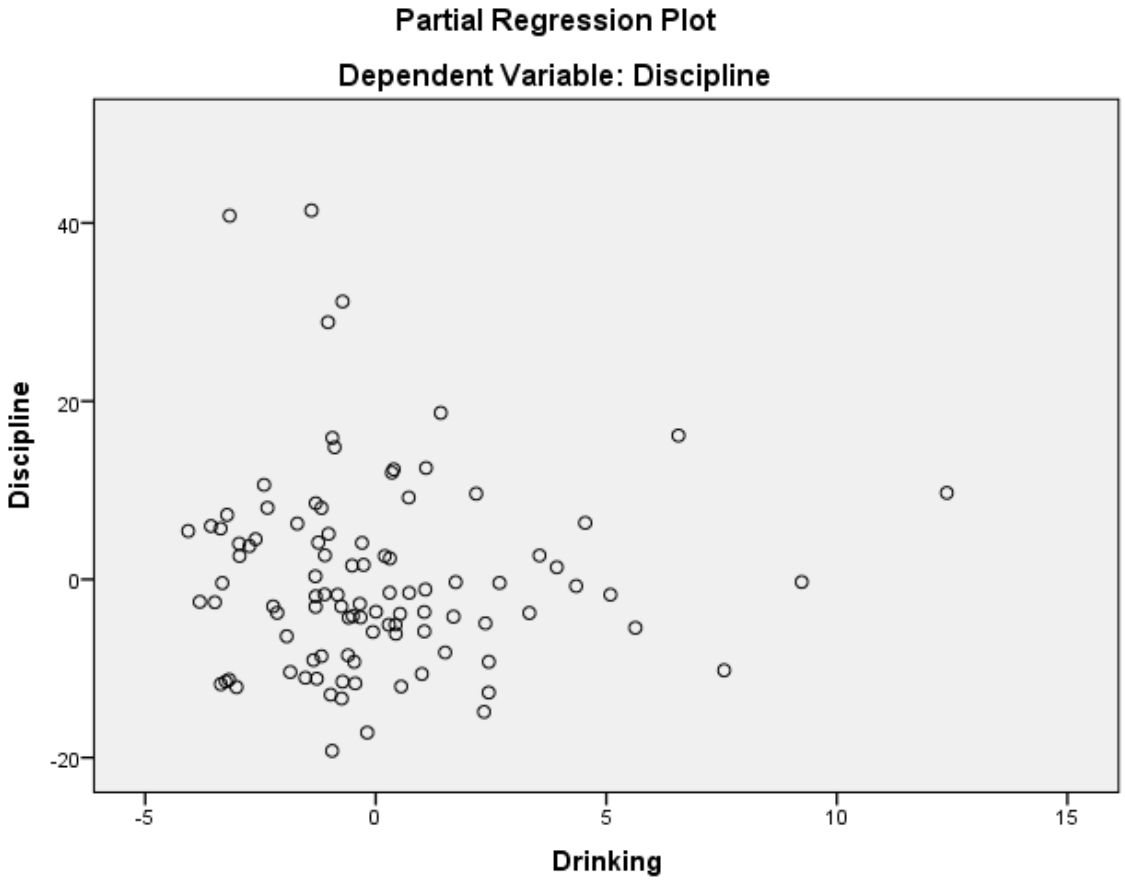



*Figure H4.* Research Question 4 residual plot for homoscedasticity and linearity (Drinking Scale Scale (DRK) describing DISP = parents' attitude toward physical punishment).

# Appendix I

Table I1

*Research Question 1 Model Summary*

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | .482[a] | .232 | .229 | 11.156 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), CTS

b. Dependent Variable: DISP

Table I2

*Research Question 1 Residual Statistics*

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 45.43 | 74.50 | 60.10 | 6.127 | 256 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -2.393 | 2.350 | .000 | 1.000 | 256 |
| Standard Error of Predicted Value | .697 | 1.811 | .950 | .263 | 256 |
| Adjusted Predicted Value | 45.02 | 74.72 | 60.10 | 6.129 | 256 |
| Residual | -45.434 | 44.271 | .000 | 11.134 | 256 |
| Std. Residual | -4.073 | 3.968 | .000 | .998 | 256 |
| Stud. Residual | -4.127 | 3.976 | .000 | 1.003 | 256 |
| Deleted Residual | -46.665 | 44.446 | -.002 | 11.243 | 256 |
| Stud. Deleted Residual | -4.265 | 4.098 | .000 | 1.014 | 256 |
| Mahal. Distance | .000 | 5.727 | .996 | 1.210 | 256 |
| Cook's Distance | .000 | .231 | .005 | .018 | 256 |
| Centered Leverage Value | .000 | .022 | .004 | .005 | 256 |

a. Dependent Variable: DISP

Table I3

*Research Question 2 Model Summary*

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | .175[a] | .031 | .027 | 12.537 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), VAL

b. Dependent Variable: DISP

Table I4

*Research Question 2 Residual Statistics*

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 52.76 | 67.14 | 60.10 | 2.223 | 256 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -3.302 | 3.168 | .000 | 1.000 | 256 |
| Standard Error of Predicted Value | .784 | 2.708 | 1.019 | .437 | 256 |
| Adjusted Predicted Value | 51.57 | 68.32 | 60.11 | 2.215 | 256 |
| Residual | -56.802 | 43.252 | .000 | 12.513 | 256 |
| Std. Residual | -4.531 | 3.450 | .000 | .998 | 256 |
| Stud. Residual | -4.553 | 3.457 | -.001 | 1.004 | 256 |
| Deleted Residual | -57.359 | 43.437 | -.016 | 12.664 | 256 |
| Stud. Deleted Residual | -4.741 | 3.535 | -.001 | 1.015 | 256 |
| Mahal. Distance | .000 | 10.904 | .996 | 2.443 | 256 |
| Cook's Distance | .000 | .455 | .006 | .031 | 256 |
| Centered Leverage Value | .000 | .043 | .004 | .010 | 256 |

a. Dependent Variable: DISP

## Appendix J

Table J1

*Research Question 3 Model Summary*

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | .134[a] | .018 | .014 | 12.074 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), NUR

b. Dependent Variable: DISP

Table J2

*Research Question 3 Residual Statistics*

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 54.30 | 67.14 | 60.60 | 1.629 | 240 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -3.868 | 4.017 | .000 | 1.000 | 240 |
| Standard Error of Predicted Value | .779 | 3.233 | 1.043 | .358 | 240 |
| Adjusted Predicted Value | 53.46 | 67.69 | 60.60 | 1.630 | 240 |
| Residual | -56.556 | 41.826 | .000 | 12.048 | 240 |
| Std. Residual | -4.684 | 3.464 | .000 | .998 | 240 |
| Stud. Residual | -4.708 | 3.478 | .000 | 1.002 | 240 |
| Deleted Residual | -57.139 | 42.167 | -.005 | 12.151 | 240 |
| Stud. Deleted Residual | -4.934 | 3.563 | -.001 | 1.012 | 240 |
| Mahal. Distance | .000 | 16.136 | .996 | 1.972 | 240 |
| Cook's Distance | .000 | .114 | .004 | .011 | 240 |
| Centered Leverage Value | .000 | .068 | .004 | .008 | 240 |

a. Dependent Variable: DISP

## Appendix K

Table K1

*Research Question 4 Model Summary*

**Model Summary[b]**

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | .025[a] | .001 | -.009 | 12.272 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), DRK

b. Dependent Variable: DISP

Table K2

*Research Question 4 Residual Statistics*

**Residuals Statistics[a]**

| | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Predicted Value | 61.09 | 62.59 | 61.33 | .304 | 105 |
| Std. Predicted Value | -.801 | 4.147 | .000 | 1.000 | 105 |
| Standard Error of Predicted Value | 1.201 | 5.132 | 1.546 | .696 | 105 |
| Adjusted Predicted Value | 60.21 | 64.60 | 61.34 | .542 | 105 |
| Residual | -25.267 | 42.910 | .000 | 12.213 | 105 |
| Std. Residual | -2.059 | 3.497 | .000 | .995 | 105 |
| Stud. Residual | -2.069 | 3.524 | .000 | 1.005 | 105 |
| Deleted Residual | -25.522 | 43.595 | -.008 | 12.457 | 105 |
| Stud. Deleted Residual | -2.103 | 3.740 | .004 | 1.026 | 105 |
| Mahal. Distance | .005 | 17.198 | .990 | 2.711 | 105 |
| Cook's Distance | .000 | .123 | .010 | .023 | 105 |
| Centered Leverage Value | .000 | .165 | .010 | .026 | 105 |

a. Dependent Variable: DISP