THE IMAGE OF THE ENEMY
IN KUWAITI CHILDREN

Thesis submitted in fulfillment of requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the University of London

By

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Abstract

The Image of the Enemy in Kuwaiti Children

This study is an empirical investigation of the "enemy image" in Kuwaiti schoolchildren and look at the whether their image of the enemy differ according to factors of age, gender or experience of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait. The study also aims to examine the effects of the enemy image on the children's adjustment and their attitudes towards authority figures such as parents, policemen and teachers, and also whether this has diminished their willingness to cooperate with people who they dislike. One hundred and sixty children served as subjects. Eighty children from Kuwait ranging in age from 8 to 14 was compared with forty Egyptian and forty English children who served as a control group. Data collection was through the administration of the Enemy Image Scale (EIS), Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ), Semantic Differential Scale (SDS), Draw-A-Person Test (DAP), and Prisoner's Dilemma Game (PDG). In addition, the Crisis Interview (CI) was administered only for the children who experienced the Iraqi invasion. The results of the study demonstrated no significant differences in the children's perception of the enemy image based on the age. However, gender differences between children in their perception of the enemy image were found. Kuwaiti children were significantly different in their view of the enemy than non-Kuwaiti children and the highest means were observed in the attitudes towards authority figures among children who experienced the Iraqi invasion. It was also found that Kuwaiti children showed hostility effects in competitive - cooperative behaviour.
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<tr>
<td>Child PAQ</td>
<td>Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire</td>
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<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>Crisis Interview</td>
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<td>SDS</td>
<td>Semantic Differential Scale</td>
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<td>DAD</td>
<td>Draw -A- Person</td>
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<td>PDG</td>
<td>Prisoner's Dilemma Game</td>
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<td>ANOVA</td>
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Dedication

To the memory of my absent parents, my ideals in this life, who offered me every possible material and moral support and encouragement throughout my life. No words of appreciation can fully express my debt to them.

To my dear wife Alia, for her encouragement, sacrifice and constant support, which inspired my success.

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Introduction
1.2 Statement of Problem
1.3 Importance of the Study
1.4 Aims of the Study
1.5 Outline of the Thesis
1.1 Introduction

The issue of self and the other has become one of the most important modern issues to be investigated and studied, particularly at this time, when the images held by people of themselves and others are always emerging, changing and disappearing.

It is assumed that the present era is the era of the image, in which the mass media have become one of the salient influences on the attitudes, perceptions and thoughts of people. Although efforts, which have been made in science and medicine (e.g., trying to eradicate cancer or AIDS) have presented positive images and perceptions of life and the future, wars, ethnopolitical conflicts and violent events have contributed to a negative image of life, as well as creating feelings of hostility, anger and enmity towards others. In addition, these feelings have been transferred from one generation to another (e.g., in the Palestine-Israeli conflict); consequently, images of the enemy have been more powerful than those of friends, and prejudiced attitudes have formed instead of attitudes of tolerance and acceptance.

However, researchers agree that during different periods, different specific issues need to be studied. For example, in times of peace researchers are mainly interested in issues such as education and population, while in times of war the focus is directed more towards the media, military technology and nuclear war than on other issues.
During these times, psychological researchers investigate, in particular, issues such as post-traumatic stress disorder, morale levels, interpersonal relationships and attitudes towards oneself and others.

There are many important concepts emerging in both peace and war which merit investigation and study, for example the concept of the enemy image. The image of the enemy is of interest to psychologists, politicians and researchers, and has become an important ingredient in a country's preparedness for war. The phenomenon also merits study by researchers interested in peace education and in the psychology of war and peace (Bjerstedt, 1988). The image of the enemy is associated with several aspects of life, such as socialisation, education, national policy and religion. In addition, this concept may be influenced by societal agencies such as the family, schools, religious organisations and government. For these reasons, the image of the enemy (people, countries, ghosts...etc.) has received increasing attention from many researchers and has become one of the important topics in psychology and related fields.

1.2 Statement of Problem

This study is an exploration of the perception of the image of the enemy among children. The study investigates the impact of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait on Kuwaiti school children, and looks at the image which they had of the enemy and how this has affected their attitude towards themselves and their behaviour towards authority figures such as parents, policemen and teachers. It also asks whether this has diminished their willingness to cooperate with people whom they dislike. It examines
the way in which the children see the enemy and what the important factors influencing their image of the enemy.

The central questions asked in this study are:

1. Does the enemy image interact with demographic variables such as age, gender and nationality?

2. Does the kind of enemy image which children hold have either a realistic or a distorted impact on the children's adjustment?

3. How do children perceive themselves and others?

4. What are the factors which contribute to the formation of the enemy image in children?

5. Has the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait had an impact on Kuwaiti children's perceptions and attitudes towards other people or nations?

6. Are there other enemy images held by children, i.e., personal or political enemies?

1.3 Importance of the Study

This study endeavours to understand the psychological roots of enmity and its effects on personality during childhood. More specifically, its results should help us to
describe how the enemy is perceived through the eyes of children and what the
important factors are which influence their image of the enemy.

Another point of importance is its investigation of the effect of psychological
disturbances in children on their perceptions of others and adjustment to them.

It aims also to provide information to parents, educators, politicians and psychologists
about the seriousness of exaggerated enemy images in children, which makes their
world a more dangerous place. Therefore, it suggests ways in which to develop
educational strategies and programmes which will lead to a reduction of the cognitive
bias of enemy imaging by creating more accurate perceptual sets.

Finally, enemy images are important in the arms race. Images of the enemy keep the
arms race going and reduce the desire to create a new world free of wars, hostility and
violence.

1.3 Aims of the Study

This study sets out to achieve the following six main aims:

1. Identifying enemy image as perceived by children

What is the image of the enemy in the eyes of children? An enemy may be defined as
a person or group of people to whom one feels hostility or who represent a threat to
oneself.
This study will try to explore the creation or view of the enemy image in children, according to the kind and degree of extremity and demographic variables.

2. **Ascertaining effect of enemy image on children's personalities**

The image of the enemy is not an isolated phenomenon. It is best understood as part of the social relationship network, i.e., attachments with other people, making friends with them, and the overall worldview. People always divide others into good or bad; the enemy is all bad, they themselves are all good. The important questions are: If a child holds an extreme negative enemy image, what will the consequences be? Can this image affect his/her personality?

This study will investigate hostility as an important dimension of images of people from the children's point of view, as well as the way in which this affects children's personalities and adjustment, paying particular attention to the effect of hostility and enmity.

3. **Identifying children's concept of the self and others**

There is an abundance of literature concerned with the concept of self, and this term frequently alternates with the concept of others. Therefore, an attempt to clarify these is worthwhile.

This study aims to ascertain Kuwaiti children's concept of themselves and their perceptions of others. The other may be a friend, an enemy, or a group such as the
family or authority. It is probable that they see the other as a negative image or have a vague sense of the other as an enemy. If they understand this, parents, teachers and others concerned with the way in which children grow up and adapt have a good chance of succeeding in instilling in children a more flexible image of themselves and others.

4. Determining factors which influence the formation of the enemy image

It is assumed that children's perceptions of the enemy are influenced by many factors, including personal, parental and social factors; therefore, the influence of personal experience, family, media, education and political events (e.g., war, invasion, ethnopolitical conflict) on the formation of the enemy image will be discussed.

5. Investigating the impact of Iraqi invasion on Kuwaiti children

One important aim of the study is to examine Kuwaiti children's view of themselves, others and the future, particularly in the case of those who experienced disruption because of the invasion. This issue is examined by looking at two specific age groups: first, those who actually experienced disruption as a consequence of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait (older children), and second, those who did not, because they were born after the event (younger children). Comparison is made with two control groups, in order to ascertain how the experience of the invasion has affected Kuwaiti children’s personality and attitudes toward others, compared with those of children in Egypt and England.
6. Broadening enquiry on concept of the enemy

Basically, this study investigates the image of the enemy among Kuwaiti children. However, it also covers certain issues relating to this concept, such as war, conflict or invasion. Thus, the study examines the effects of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait on Kuwaiti children. In addition, it attempts to test the hypothesis that children who hold a bad image of or attitude towards someone are likely to generalise this image and feeling to others, particularly those who are important in their environment and who control and influence their lives, i.e., parents, teachers and/or policemen, etc. In this way, we may broaden our investigation about the concepts and issues associated with enemy figures.

7. Further Aims

There are also indirect aims set for this study. In spite of the fact that the Middle East is a war zone (e.g., the Israel-Arab conflict, the civil war in Lebanon, the Iran-Iraq war, and the Gulf War), studies of the enemy image (in either children or adults) are rare in the Arab world. This study will try to add to the current information and fill some of the gaps by examining children’s image of the enemy, as well as examining the effect of such influences as the family, media, education and government policy on the child’s image of the enemy.

1.5 Outline of the Thesis

After this first introductory chapter, the second chapter of the study describes the study problem and in the way which it is addressed. A theoretical background is
provided on the image, the concept of the enemy image and several issues related to it such as theories of enemy image, development, function, influence, and the factors which contribute to formation on the enemy image. Children's concept of self and others is addressed in this chapter as well.

The third chapter is composed of a literature review of those studies which examined the effect of images on children and adults. Other studies reviewed the enemy image topic. Finally, a discussion is presented of literature dealing with the children's views of others.

The fourth chapter defines the study's subject, and explains the tests and procedures which were used. The study hypotheses are examined, and the choice of appropriate statistics for data analysis are explained and discussed.

The fifth chapter presents the results obtained from the study. The data are analysed, the statistics broken down, and the hypotheses tested. The results emanating from the study are further discussed in the sixth chapter.

In the seventh chapter, the conclusions arrived at are discussed, and suggestions and recommendations made, based on the findings, and some conclusions are drawn. Finally, areas for further study which came to light during the present research are suggested.
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CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical background of the study. It will discuss images and enemies as basic terms of the present study, in addition to several other issues related to them. Various theories of the enemy image, its development, function, influence and contributory factors in its formation will be also discussed here. This chapter will also address children's concept and perception of others, and will pay attention to their attitudes towards other nations and their images of foreign peoples.

2.2 Images

The primacy of mental images held by empiricist philosophers carried over to the early days of experimental psychology in the mid-nineteenth century, especially in the method of introspection used by Wilhelm Wundt and his followers, such as Edward Titchener, to study the content of the mind (Kazdin, 2000).

In contemporary culture images play a significant role in influencing our understanding of ourselves, those around us and the environment we live in. We experience a considerable range of diverse images from the external world, and at the same time our mental life is saturated with, and constituted by, internal images, impressions, ideas and associated representations (Forrester, 2000). Richard Kearney
(1988) suggests that we are seduced by the implicit ideologies of the latest media cult or craze, and seem to have entered an age where reality is inseparable from the image, and where

our understanding of the world is preconditioned by the electronically reproducible media of television, cinema, video and radio... where fantasy is more real than reality, where the image has more dignity than the original (Kearney, 1988, p. 252).

The subject of an image may be a person, or a number of images, in fact, anything that can be seen. However, all images by their nature have cognitive content, but not all contain explicit evaluative elements, which imply such notions as good or bad (Deutsch and Merritt, 1965). However, the recognition of images is based on two main axes. The first is the content of the image; the second is consonance or dissonance with the phenomena of the outer world, such as things, events and social relations and with those of the inner world, such as a person's beliefs, attitudes and views. For example, a person who recognises that his images are internally inconsistent, finding his situation psychologically uncomfortable, will not only "try to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance" but also "actively avoid situations and information which would likely increase the dissonance" (Festinger, 1962, p.3).

The development of images which relate to others may be affected by many factors (e.g.; age, socialisation and education). Blatt et al (1988) described stages in the development of the mental representation of others. In the earliest stages of development, representations are amorphous and global; the other is perceived primarily as a gratifier of one's needs. At a later stage, the physical attributes of the
other predominate, followed by a concrete representation in terms of functional activities ("likes to play tennis") or attributes ("is hard working"). Next, internal properties such as feelings, values, and thoughts are perceived without complexity. Ultimately, mental representations of others may develop into highly articulated and integrated images, closely corresponding to reality. In this highest level of development "apparent contradictions between part properties and features are resolved, and the separate parts synthesised in a representation of the whole object" (Blatt et al., 1988, p.6). In this context, there is much information about others for the child: the mass media, school teachers and textbooks, religious teachings, personal contact with foreigners. However, any distortion in these sources of information about others will result in distortion of the image in the child.

2.2.1 Defining Images

Many questions have been asked by scholars regarding the image concept. For example, how do we define an image? Does an image engender imagery and attendant emotional reactions? Can people have an image of an image? These questions and many others reveal that the image is a ubiquitous and manifold term. It serves many functions in quite diverse contexts: it means many different things to different people and remains a rather elusive term in psychology. However, it is helpful at this point to present some definitions of 'image' which have been offered by various authors, before adopting a clearly defined meaning of the term image, which will be used throughout this study.
More than three decades ago, Kenneth Boulding used the concept of image to analyse international systems (Boulding, 1959). He defines an image as "the total cognitive, affective, and evaluative structure of the behaviour unit, or its internal view of itself and its universe", and argued that "the images which are important in international systems are those which a nation has of itself and of those other bodies in the system which constitute its international environment" (Boulding, 1959, p.124-125). He feels that the perceived hostility or friendliness and the perceived strength or weaknesses of a unit are central features of a subject's image of that unit. Stein (1996), for his part, suggests that an image refers to a set of beliefs or to the hypotheses and theories which an individual or group is convinced are valid.

In addition to the two previous definitions, Wagner defines "images" very broadly, to encompass tropes of all kinds in addition to artefactual forms. "Images" are "synthetic, condensing whole realms of possible ideas and interpretations and allow...complex relationships to be perceived and grasped in an instant" (O'Hanlon, 1992, p.589). However, Horowitz (1978) has distinguished between an image and imagery. While "image" refers to a specific experience, "imagery" refers to different types of images experienced collectively.

On the basis of reviewing the previous literature of the image and many other scholars' definitions (e.g., Herrmann et al, 1997; Segal, 1997), the present researcher tends to adopt the following definition: "image is a mental representation of something (esp. a
visible object), not by direct perception, but by memory or imagination; a mental picture or impression; an idea, conception".

2.2.2 Types of Images

An image may have many different forms. It may be complex or undifferentiated, accurate or distorted, evaluations may be positive or negative for each of the peoples recognised as separate entities. In other words, each group with a common culture has a cognitive map of other groups and their traits, as part of this common culture. Richardson (1999) has conceptualised the mental image in different ways: as a phenomenal experience, as an internal representation, as a stimulus attribute and as a cognitive strategy.

Piaget and Inhelder (1971) conducted many studies on the development of mental images in the child between four or five and ten or twelve; they found a clear-cut difference between images characteristic of the preparatory level (before seven or eight) and those of the operatory levels, which at this stage appear to be strongly influenced by the operations. Piaget and Inhelder distinguish two broad categories of images: reproductive images, which are limited to evocation of objects or events already known, and anticipatory images, which by figural imagination, represent events - be they movements, transformations or their culmination or results - which have previously not been perceived.
Images also may be classified in terms of their content, i.e., they are visual, auditory, or according to their structure, as Piaget and Inhelder (1971) state. In a further analysis, Richardson (1969, 1983) identifies four classes of mental images, which may be compared in respect of clarity, vividness, localisation, fixedness or stability, completeness of detail, susceptibility to scanning, and degree of likeness to the sensory precept. The identified classes are (1) afterimages, (2) eidetic images, (3) memory images (or thought images), and (4) imagination images.

Kosslyn (1980), in his book *Image and Mind*, argued that an image consists of two components. On the one hand, there is a "surface" representation: in other words, a quasi-pictorial entity held within some form of active memory. It is this component which is apparently accompanied by the subjective experience of having a mental image. On the other hand, there is a "deep" representation: in other words, the information stored within long-term memory from which the surface representation is derived.

The major issue which is related to the type of image is the different meaning of image concepts for individuals and nations-states. Generally, people can describe an image in many ways, including information about its contents, vividness, clarity, colour, shading, shapes, movement, foreground and background characteristics, and other spatial relationships (Horowitz, 1978; Richardson, 1994). However, in this context, it can be said that people simplify the world by organising it into cognitive categories or images. Images are used to filter information, make sense of the actions of others, and
guide the perceiver in determining a course of action. People classify groups of others as images. Because their images of other people generally have a definite frame and they see only those characteristics that are consistent with the image in the frame, they screen out other characteristics, and as there are many different persons, so there are many different images. The prediction is that the greater a difference between groups, the more likely that difference will appear in the images they hold of each other (Forrester, 2000; Richardson, 1994; Sherman, 2001).

However, images of nations are different and may be more clear than the individuals' images of people. The images of nations can be described in terms of a number of different dimensions. For example, there is a dimension of simple geographical space, a dimension of hostility or friendliness and a dimension of strength or weakness. For example, the prevailing national image of Kuwait by its citizen is that of a benevolent, democratic nation, appreciated for its willingness to provide succour for other poor counties. Whereas, the image of Iraq among Kuwaiti is aggressive, deceitful and ungrateful (Deutsch and Merritt, 1985; Herrmann et al, 1997; Kaplowitz, 1990; Stanger, 1967).

In this regard, a number of authors from different disciplines have emphasised the gap between international attitudes and international reality by term using the 'images' to describe distorted views of other nations and peoples (e.g., Jervis, 1970; Fiske et al, 1983; HoIt and Silverstein, 1989). The following quotation clearly conveys this point:
Americans do not know Russia; they know an image of Russia, subject to many errors and misconceptions. In fact, they do not know America, but only an image thereof; and it is sometimes amazing to find how we differ among ourselves as to the attributes of our nation (Stagner, 1967, p. 12).

2.2.3 Images and Emotions

Much research has shown that people's images have an effect on their emotions (Kosslyn, 1980; Pylyshyn, 1973; Scott, 1965). For example, Klinger (1980) points out that images are accompanied by emotional responses to internal and external cues present in the situation. There is clear evidence that much more of our life is regulated by our self-images than we realise. For example, when we perceive ourselves as powerful, efficient and competent, we are motivated to tackle difficult tasks. When we have a self-image of helplessness and powerlessness, as in depression, we feel sad. Our prevailing social image influences the way in which we react to other people. If we perceive other people as unfriendly and critical, we adopt strategies to protect ourselves (Lacey, 1998; Levine, 1965; Stein, 1996). Beck (1999), for example, reported that in any interpersonal encounter there are at least six images involved: "my image of me, my image of you, and my projected image (what I visualise as your picture of me), your image of me, and your projected social image (what you imagine is my picture of you), and your image of yourself", and the interaction of these images is reflected in each individual's behaviour. For example, if (A) perceives himself as weak and (B) as powerful, and (B) perceives (A) as weak and himself as powerful, one likely outcome is that (B) will dominate (A) or, at least, attempt to do so. Likewise, Beck's analysis of interpersonal encounter tends to a clinical perspective rather than a...
social perception. There are of course many factors, which may interfere with this encounter such as past perceptions or experience and/or psychological traits.

The images also play an influential role in international conflicts; for example, citizens of the Soviet Union saw the citizens of United States and its international goals in the same way as the US saw them: imperialistic, hostile, dangerous. The interplay of threatening images on both sides tended to intensify them. (Kelman, 1965; Silverstein, 1989b). Other examples may be found in recent wars (e.g., the Gulf War, the war in the former Yugoslavia). For example, before the Iraq invasion of Kuwait, Saddam Hussein created a negative image of the ruling Al-Sabah family in Kuwait in Iraqi minds by spreading false information that the rulers of Kuwait were helping the West, particularly the USA, to weaken and destroy Iraq. Furthermore, he claimed that Kuwait was a natural part of Iraq and should be returned to it. A somewhat different tactic was used in the former Yugoslavia. The Serbian leaders of Yugoslavia (e.g., Melosevic) built up an image of a persecuted Serbia to further their own goals of a homogeneous Greater Serbia.

Some studies have investigated the images of people in regard to particular issues and related to the emotions. For example, Fiske et al (1983) found that images of nuclear war were accompanied by emotion; they found that the content of these images in American people included physical destruction, death, disease and injury. Other studies revealed that prejudice-laden images of an out-group give rise to
discrimination (e.g., Hamilton, 1981). Images of politicians are accompanied by affect, and these images motivate voting behaviour (Nimmo and Savage, 1976).

2.2.4 Concluding Remarks

As previously discussed, it is very difficult to define what 'image' means. It is a problematic term because it has many meanings. Images are not merely imitations, but memory fragments, reconstructions, reinterpretations and symbols which stand for objects, feelings, or ideas. Therefore, the research literature displays little precise demarcation of the term "image". So it will be useful in any study or analysis of images to use it in a sharply defined sense. The various types of image also need to be specified in more detail.

Another problem in the study of images is description and measurement. Images can involve the senses of seeing, hearing, smell, taste, touch and movement. Furthermore, an image is such a private experience that there is only one primary source of information about it: the introspective report. Subsequently the reports may be contaminated by subjectivity. However, as regards this point Horowitz (1978) warned researchers neither to be overly dismayed, nor to accept any image report uncritically.

Another main issue in image studies is the influence of images on emotion and behaviour. Therefore, there is a need to examine the process account by which images influence emotions and test the empirical strength of this account.
Chapter Two  Theoretical Background

One last remark about the literature of images: apparently, most of the literature focuses on the classification of images rather their formation.

2.3 Enemy images

Images of the enemy groups (countries, peoples, ghosts… etc) are obviously important psychological ingredients in determining the individual's perception and attitudes towards others. The formation of the enemy image refers to the process wherein people exaggerate the negative or threatening characteristics of such a group (Silverstein, 1989a). However, the idea of any enemy image depends, to a large extent, upon how we consciously or unconsciously view ourselves, for the image of the self often shapes the image of the other.

2.3.1 Defining the Enemy Images

An enemy may be defined as a person or group of persons perceived as feeling great hostility towards, or as representing a threat to the perceiver (Keen, 1986). The enemy, as described by Holt (1989), is "the opposite side of the coin to friendship". Some researchers suggest that the idea of enemy connotes something or someone who is perceived to be threatening, harmful or injurious to one's welfare or wishes (Harris, 1993; Hayes et al, 1996; Keen, 1986; Olson, 1995).

The term enemy also has other definitions, according to the way it is being used; for example, Finley et al (1976) define the enemy as viewed from three life aspects. Militarily: it is the armed forces of a nation in which there is overt or latent hostility
which might lead to war; politically, it refers to "those who are in the "opposition" or those who oppose "our" power, aspirations and ends, particularly when "they" are outsiders or act in bad faith and employ "dirty" tactics (Finley et al, 1976, p.1). Socially, for both individuals and groups, the enemy consists of one's foes, those whom we feel are trying to harm or attack us, or those toward whom we have ill-feeling or hatred. Hayes et al (1996) define the enemy as someone disliked more than anyone else, or who is viewed by someone with hostility or as a threat.

However, the image of the enemy may differ according to many factors such as the level of threat, degree of hostility and/or the personality traits of the perceiver. In this context, Wiseman and Duck (1995) suggest that enemies may be viewed along a number of dichotomies or axes. Some enemies are more evil, more dangerous and more vicious than others in their attacks, while others are a mere annoyance or nuisance; they may be powerful or powerless, relevant to the individual or remote from personal meaning; they may be close or distant in time and space. Although Wiseman and Duck provide no examples of their dichotomies, these dichotomies may depend on the situations or direct experience of the enemy. For example, there was full rejection in Kuwaiti people and its government of Saddam Hussein's regime after his invasion of their country. This rejection reflects the fact that, if the enemy really were Satan, we would hardly expect him to turn into our ally (Gruber, 1991).

The image of the enemy is a cognitive representation of a perceived adversary as thoroughly diabolical, aggressive and untrustworthy. An enemy image can be also a
mind set of the other which embodies and shapes the social reality of the individual (White, 1965). The malevolent images of the enemy are as much a creation of the imagination as are fantasies of witches, demons, and evil spirits. The individuality, the humanness of the person on the other side are blotted out; they are visualised as a representation of all that is bad in the world. The propaganda machine enhances the portrayal of the enemy as evil in people's minds. The evil image is depicted in posters, cartoons and magazine illustrations: a crazed killer, sadistic torturer, rapist, barbarian, gorilla, saber-toothed monster, reptile, rat or devil (Beck, 1999).

In review of the above definitions, the present researcher suggests the term "enemy" should be used to refer to "a person or a group who attempts to make people's lives more difficult or who causes them to feel threatened and always calls up negative feelings and actions".

Having defined "enemy image", we need now to review another term which is related to the concept of the enemy image, or is sometimes even used synonymously with it. That is the "mirror image" which indicates enemy images that individuals receive from other people or nations, particularly once people perceive an individual or a group as hostile or threatening (Silverstein and Flamenbaum, 1989). In other words, how do people see each other?

The "mirror image" has been extensively used in the field of political psychology to denote the similar distortion in the reciprocal images of two groups in conflict. As in a
mirror, right and left direction gets reversed, and appears as left and right, so groups in
discord see similar characteristics in reverse in each other (Haque and Lawson, 1980,
Kelman, 1965; Oskamp, 1991). This is the mirror image phenomenon. There seems
always to be a tendency to exaggerate the virtues on one's own side and the diabolical
character of the opposite side.

2.3.2 Development of Enemy Images

One question of importance to psychologists is how the enemy image develops.
Assuming people are not born with enemy images, where do they come from?

Typically, people have friends but they also have enemies, antagonists and opponents.
"Others" are classified as "enemies" if their appearance is coupled with some kind of
perception of extreme threat. A perceived menace often provokes violent behaviour.
Therefore, the social relevance of imagined or verbalised enmity consists in its close
relationship to aggression: perceiving another person as an enemy can be instrumental
for his or her aggressive behaviour, and both can reinforce each other (Fenchel, 1984;

However, there are many steps in the creation of an enemy. Firstly, we perceive some
differences between them and us, and then we exaggerate those differences. Secondly,
we impose on the "other" the traits, which we fear most in ourselves. Thirdly, we
stereotype the "other", and then only acknowledge those traits which justify that
stereotyping. Finally, we dehumanise the enemy by transforming him into a devil, a savage or a beast (Gladstone, 1959; Keen, 1986; Olson, 1995).

An image of an enemy also develops from incoming information: sometimes from perception of the enemy's action or statement, but more frequently from the perception of reports or portrayals of the enemy's action or statements (Silverstein, 1989b).

There is clear evidence that the image of the enemy is often the result of such stereotypes, or an exaggeration of the negative or threatening characteristics of an individual, group, country, nation or nationality (Silverstein, 1989b; Scott, 1965; Spillmann and Spillmann, 1991). Specifically, when circumstances change and the perceived threat from other groups increases, enemy images emerge. Enemy images also can be the result of black-and-white thinking that everything can be divided either on the side of black or the side of white. It is a way of thinking which is inflexible. Each side feels it is right, superior, good and the other side is wrong, inferior, bad.

According to Thompson (1991), the image of the enemy can exist for several years without creating any serious problems. However, this image may arise at times of international crisis which can be considered as "transition zones" between peace and war. This zone can help create behaviours in an "uneasy mixture". For example, in the midst of a conflict between parties, the image of the enemy intervenes, and the enemy's "bad qualities" are associated with the members of the other party.
There have been several studies of the process of change in the enemy image (Faisal, 1995; Fiebig et al, 1997; Rowlette, 1989; Spielmann, 1984; Wallach, 2000). For example, it was perceived as less and less appropriate to see the Soviet Union in the image of the enemy after Mikhail Gorbachev came to power and the Soviet Union was no longer seen as an enemy at all once the Cold War was over (Silverstein and Holt, 1989).

2.3.3 Function and Influence of Enemy Images

Psychologists tend to emphasise that enemy images may fulfil at least three functions: (1) they create a strong feeling of in-group identity ("we" against "the other"); (2) they permit us to act with aggression against "the other", when this other is defined as sufficiently "inhuman", "evil" and threatening to our values or interests; (3) they supply us with scapegoats onto whom we can project the various problems which bother us (Bjerstedt et al, 1991).

However, there are different views regarding the function of the enemy image. For example, one view emphasises that people need foreign enemies and, by implication, that if they lose one enemy, then another will soon be found to replace it. In the words of Finley et al, (1976) "It seems that we have always needed enemies and scapegoats; if they have not been readily available, we have created them." Consequently, the role of the enemy is more fixed than those filling the role. However, this raises the question, why do people need enemies? One theory is that people psychologically need enemies as suitable targets for the displacement of their personal fears and
hostilities (Volkan, 1988). The second explanation is political: leaders create enemies to mobilise the nation around common aims or to profit from the arms industry (Fiebig et al, 1997; Harris, 1993; Kaplowitz, 1990).

One other function of enemy images is to allow us to classify threatening and incomprehensible events in a category. They explain a difficult reality by letting us blame the calamities on another group. In doing so, our own value is enhanced, the cohesion of our group is strengthened, the indistinct inner fear can be projected out onto some specific cause (Spillmann and Spillmann, 1991). Also, enemy images are important in the arms race to keep the race going.

The image of the enemy is not necessarily restricted to international politics. However, there is increasing interest in using this image and others to analyse conflict in the domestic politics of multi-ethnic and multinational states. Indeed, the concept of the enemy image may even be useful in analyses of gang violence and competition. Furthermore, it has a role in perpetuating and intensifying conflict (e.g., the Palestinian-Israeli conflict or the Catholic-Protestant conflict in Northern Ireland).

The effect of an enemy on our images is greater polarisation of good and evil. Certain consequences of this polarisation, such as heightened nationalism, unity and consensus, are not necessarily destructive. For example, the image of an external enemy can help to legitimise the power structure of a state and enforce the loyalty of its citizens. The existence of an "enemy" could be used for the development of a
national or ethnic identity. For example, if a person feels that his country is threatened by another country, and if he feels that this enemy country is characterised by a series of extremely negative qualities, he will be more ready to use violent means against this country, more ready to go to war against it. Beck (1999) discusses this point and reports that, in wartime, the national image becomes the centre of every citizen's worldview; as they 'round the flag', they move from an egocentric to a group-centred mode. Each person's self-image becomes attached to the image of the country. The nation's policy becomes their policy; the national vulnerability becomes their personal vulnerability; an attack on the state becomes an attack on themselves.

The impact of the enemy image on behavioural predisposition is also of central concern to political psychology. Psychologists and mental health professionals have also become increasingly interested in understanding and documenting the enduring effects of the enemy image on the lives of adults in general and on children in particular.

Enemy image literature suggests that extreme enemy images can distort our perceptions and evaluations, not only of the actions of members of other racial and ethnic groups, but also of the actions of individuals and nations whom we distrust and fear (Carmil and Breznitz, 1991; Silverstein and Flamenbaum, 1989). Enemy images also lead people to predict hostile behaviour from the enemy and sometimes to act in a hostile manner towards the enemy, based solely on this prediction (Rowlette, 1989). Concepts of the enemy evoke feelings and reactions such as aversion, aggression and
hate. In a general form, these reactions may be described as a syndrome. Spillmann and Spillmann (1991) describe enemy images as a syndrome; they suggest that the following seven characteristics belong to the syndrome of enemy images: (1) distrust, (2) placing the guilt on the enemy, (3) negative anticipation, (4) identification with evil, (5) zero-sum thinking, (6) de-individualising, (7) refusal of empathy.

Enemy images lead people to view enemies in a biased manner. As a result, when perceiving enemies, people tend to encode and remember threatening action more readily than when perceiving non-enemies (Holsti, 1962; Olson, 1995).

The image of the enemy is also related to issues of trust and suspicion. For example, under some circumstances, dislike or enmity may lead to low levels of cooperation between individuals. Therefore, friendship may have the predicted effect of increasing cooperation and dislike may allow strong competition and a decreased level of cooperation (Carnevale et al, 1982; Oskamp and Perlman, 1965).

2.3.4 Theories of Enemy Image

There are several psychological theories, which may help to explain why people have such a strong tendency to look for and hate enemies. Among the theories focusing on the individual perspective, the following seem to be of special importance.
2.3.4.1 Realistic Group Conflict Theory

Donald Campbell (1965), drawing heavily on sociological literature and the writings of certain other social psychologists, such as Sherif et al. (1961), has listed a series of propositions, which make explicit what he calls realistic group conflict theory. The first proposition states that "real conflict of group interests causes intergroup conflict" (Campbell, 1965, p. 287). The real conflict of the group, however, arises because of competition over scarce resources such as jobs, territorial possessions or political power. Some of Campbell's subsequent conclusions: "real threat causes in-group solidarity", "real threat causes increased awareness of own in-group identity," and "real threat creates punishment and rejection of deviants" (Campbell, 1965, p.288-290). However, for the purposes of the present study, the two most important propositions are the following: (1) real threat causes hostility toward the source of the threat, and (2) real threat increases ethnocentrism. Campbell's general position, thus, is that real threat leads to overvaluation of the in-group and to undervaluation of and hostility toward the out-group.

This theory was developed by Muzafar Sherif et al. (1961), a pioneer in the study of intergroup relations. The theory suggests that hostility between two groups results from real or perceived conflicting goals which generate intergroup competition. When groups are engaged in reciprocally competitive and frustrating activities of a zero-sum nature, each group will develop negative stereotypes about, and enmity toward, the other group.
However, the most noteworthy experimental work relating to realistic group conflict theory was done by Sherif and his colleagues (1961). The settings for the experiments were boys' camps. In each of three separate experiments, Sherif was able to use competition as a successful generator of intergroup hostility and intergroup acceptance. He found that young boys attending a summer camp who were organised into teams competing in a colour war for special prizes came to view the boys in the other teams very negatively. The more often the boys were placed in situations where, in order to gain something such as pocket knives, special snacks, or interesting outings for their own group, the other group had to lose, the more conflict developed between the groups, and the more negatively the members of each group came to view one another (Sherif et al, 1961). The implication is that enemy images are particularly likely to develop between groups, which are in conflict over scarce resources.

**Reason for Choosing Realistic Group Conflict Theory**

This theory then has been chosen in the present study to underpin research based on its important propositions such as that real threat causes in-group solidarity and that real threat causes hostility towards the source of threat.

In this content, the present study assumes that Iraq is still a source of threat to Kuwait, which causes the Kuwaiti people to feel hostility to the country and continue to fear a repeated the Iraqi invasion, particularly children. Therefore, this theory may help in explaining the effect of threat of Iraqi attack Kuwait on the Kuwaiti children's feelings
and attitudes, for example, the likelihood that this will lead to undervaluation of or hostility towards Iraq.

### 2.3.4.2 Social Identity Theory

According to social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1986), individuals hold conceptualisations of the self at both an individual and a group level. Personal identity refers to those aspects of the self, which differentiate one individual from others within a given social context. Social identity refers to those aspects of the self which relate to group membership. When group boundaries are made salient, individuals categorise people as members of their own group (in-group) or as members of another group (out-group) and start to compare their group to other groups based on certain evaluative criteria (Robinson, 1996).

Social identity theory postulates that people want to see themselves in as positive a light as possible, and that one way to do this is to identify with the groups which one belongs to, and to the perceive members of these groups as superior to members of other groups. According to this theory, it is not enough simply to take pride in one's own group; there is a strong tendency to want to see other groups as worse. The tendency is so strong that rather than have both groups doing as well as possible, people will sometimes prefer to have their own group sacrifice something, as long as the other group loses more. Rather than striving to obtain as many resources as they can, as postulated by realistic group conflict theory, people may have an even stronger need to feel superior (Tajfel and Turner, 1986). The extreme form of this tendency is
de-humanisation, in which members of the opposing group are indeed considered less than human.

This core idea is elaborated in the theory to explain a broad range of inter-group behaviours as a function of a variety of real-world conditions. Intergroup attitudes are seen as arising from a complex interaction between people's need for positive social identity and the perceived structure of intergroup relationships in society. Nevertheless, ethnocentrism or in-group bias, the tendency to judge, evaluate, and act so as to favour one's in-group over an out-group in an apparently unrealistic or unjustifiable way, is still widely seen as an important behavioural manifestation of the need for positive social identity (Kazdin, 2000).

**Reason for Choosing Social Identity Theory**

Choosing this theory is an attempt to explain the national stereotypes and in-group favouritism seen among children in terms of enmity and friendship. It assumes that allied states are perceived as friendly and supportive (in-group) while nations with whom the perceiver's nation is in conflict are perceived as aggressive and bad (out-group).

This theory will be helpful in interpreting Kuwaiti children's views of certain nations such as Iraq, Saudi Arabia and Israel and ascertaining whether they perceive these nations in positive terms (in-group) or negative terms (out-group). Furthermore, this theory will be also underpin the examination of the children's evaluation of authority figures (e.g., parent, policeman, teacher) in terms of attributed positive characteristics
such as good, fair, beautiful, honest and likeable (in-group) or negative characteristics such as bad, unfair, ugly and hateful (out-group), as assessed by the semantic differential scale.

### 2.3.4.3 Sociopsychological Theory

An analysis of the individual dimension of enemy images could be provided by sociopsychological theories. The assumption is that human beings organise their perceptions, knowledge, and preferences, and that they construct a "value system" or "belief system" for their orientation. "Images" or "schemas" work as a set of lenses, which filter and organise all newly received information according to the prevailing set of the individual's established values, goals and preferences. Schemas refer to cognitive structures which represent organised knowledge about a given concept, context or type of stimulus (Hamilton, 1981; Hayes, 1978; Fiebig et al, 1997; Keen, 1986). Enemy images develop as social attitudes in the process of constant interaction between the individual and the social environment. In this context, sociopsychological theories assert that an individual's value system and his or her images or schemas, are developed during the process of primary socialisation in early childhood. During this period of life, individuals not only enlarge their cognitive capacities, but also adopt the cultural values of their primary group, the family, including its stereotypes, and with them certain dispositions for distinguishing friends from enemies. The child develops its own identity by accepting the roles and attitudes of significant others. Then, in the second phase of socialisation, the individual comes into closer contact with society as a whole, and internalises its predominant structure, its role attributions and
institutions. During this phase, the child already has stereotypes at its disposal as socially institutionalised programmes, which provide help in tackling daily life. A multitude of agents, such as schools, political parties, the workplace, sports clubs and other groups, now assume greater importance. Secondary socialisation is a lifelong process and accordingly the individual is confronted with a never-ending array of social impulses affecting his or her value system. Together with all sorts of stereotypes, enemy images are embedded in the contents of socialisation (Al-Saraf, 1998; Mehran, 1987). Schools and the mass media play an important role in the process of secondary socialisation. They are essential transmitters of stereotypes and stereotyped perceptions of the external and internal "enemy". Public utterances and the writings of public opinion leaders such as politicians, mosque or church representatives, journalists, teachers and university professors, historians and political scientists may influence an individual's perception of the enemy, as well as groups. From this perspective, enemy images can be interpreted as the result of extremely negative attitudes towards certain others or as imprinted into the individual's value system. But since schemas influence also the manner of perception, enemy images are just as likely to be the outcome of manipulations and distortions caused by the individual's endeavour to integrate incoming information into the existing schemas, i.e., from information processing (LeVine, 1965; Silverstein, 1989a, 1989b).

**Reason for Choosing Sociopsychological Theory**

On the basis of the above discussion, it can be said that the present study will use the sociopsychological theory because of its relevance to the formation of social attitudes and role of socialisation in children's perception of the self and others. Hence, this
theory may contribute to interpret how children are predisposed to view their enemy and what the salient perceptual distortions are. More specifically, it will try to explain how the enemy image in children is created or viewed and will look for the important factors just as the agents of society such as parents and schools, and demographic variables such as age and gender which influence children's image of the enemy.

2.3.4.4 Psychoanalytic Theory

Much of the theoretical writing on enemy images by psychologists comes from the psychodynamic perspective and relies on such concepts as projection and displacement (e.g., Fenchel, 1984; Gladstone, 1959) in hypothesising that people who are unable to deal on a conscious level with their anxieties and hostilities may project or displace them onto a socially accepted source of hostility and fear such as an enemy nation.

Psychoanalysts have been especially concerned with beliefs which are convenient but which embody distorted representations of reality. Psychoanalytic theory provides a classification for the various forms of reality distortion, which are known as defence mechanisms which serve to protect an individual from becoming aware of things which would cause him an intolerable amount of anxiety. The things kept from awareness are usually facts about the individual himself or about other people important to him (Gladstone, 1959).
However, projection is the defence mechanism, which is most relevant for understanding the conception of the enemy. In this sense, enemy images can be interpreted as projections. Projection is the ascription to others of impulses, feelings, and other characteristics which exist in an individual but which he cannot admit to himself. Feelings of hostility can more convincingly be projected onto someone who is actually rather hostile than onto someone who is rather friendly. In other words, individuals appear to project aspects of their own personalities onto an external enemy. For example, when people are engaged in a conflict, they will normally project their own negative traits on the other side, ignoring their own shortcomings or misdeeds, while emphasising the same in the other (Silverstein, 1989a; Volkan, 1988).

**Reason for Choosing Psychoanalytic Theory**

Psychoanalytic theory suggests that the enemy is important because it functions as the focus of fear and hate as well as the target of displacement and projection of one's own undesired impulses. Therefore, this theory has been chosen in the present study to interpret the defence mechanisms, which their children may be using in the exposure to traumatic events. For example, in this study, the defence mechanisms such as projection and/or displacement may emerge in Kuwaiti children's drawings or attitudes as psychological indicators of disturbance particularly among who experienced the Iraqi invasion. In other words, Kuwaiti children may project or displace their unacceptable feelings, thoughts and reactions, which are associated with the enemy towards themselves or others (e.g., authority figures).
2.3.5 Contributory Factors in Enemy Image formation

Enemies are not born, but they are created by enemy images. Therefore, a question of importance to psychologists is how do people create and develop their enemy images. Assuming that people are not born with enemy images, where do they come from?

The present study assumes that there are many important factors, which could contribute to enemy image formation; for example, one of the many factors is the parental role, vital in socialisation. The other factors are societal agency influences, such as education, the media, and political events (e.g., ethnopolitical and military conflicts). Personal experience and personality characterises may also play an influential role in the creating of enemy images. However, in this section we will pay more attention to socialisation, the media, education and political events as crucially relevant factors of the formation of the enemy image particularly in children.

2.3.5.1 Socialisation

We often learn about the world through social interaction with parents, teachers and peers, and through the influence of the media rather than personal experience. Allport (1954) pointed out that many of our attitudes towards group of people are learned from our family and culture, rather than learned through life experiences, which would lead us to fear or dislike minority groups. There is considerable evidence that the images of people and attitudes and stereotypes towards foreign countries are formed and crystallised in childhood usually within the family group (Al-Monofi, 1988; Olson, 1995; Rowlette, 1989). In this process, the child learns that members of the in-
group (the family, the school class and other primary groups of which the youngster is a member) are safe, while strangers and members of the out-group are, or may be, dangerous (Al-Monofi, 1988; Berger, 1994; Duck, 1991).

As discussed earlier, the enemy image may be the product of stereotypes, prejudice and/or racism towards an other group. Racial awareness, for example, has been found to develop quite early. Children as young as three years old can identify their own race and categorise others in racial terms. By seven years of age, almost 100% can accurately discriminate between their own and other racial groups, and they also display clear affective reactions to them; these attitudes reflect those of parents and the power relationship in society (Aboud, 1988; Oskamp, 1991). Racial prejudice is based on the value attached to various groups by the society. Children get messages from adults that certain groups of people are important and of value and others are not. Mane (1993) argued, however, this point. She reports that in white majority society, children pick up the ideology which says to them that in this society, it is generally the white group that is important and of value; the black group of people is of less value and is therefore not as important. However, the writer goes on to say that society may teach the children values and ideologies which are attached to skin colour, ethnic group, sex differences and/or religious prejudice, but that when these values and ideologies are reflected in the environment in which children live and learn and are reinforced by the agencies of society such as the media, the education system, culture, books etc, then children learn to become racially prejudiced and develop hostility towards the group seen as less important and negative. When the tendency to split society into "in-group superiors - out-group inferiors" pervades society, it promotes
and reinforces prejudice, hostility, and discrimination and then creates the enemy image (Aboud, 1988; Mane, 1993; Levine, 1965; Robinson, 1996).

Another issue related to parental and social influences on enemy image formation is the political socialisation of the child. Political socialisation blends with cultural background; it describes the process by which children acquire their basic political knowledge, values and attitudes and learn to be affective members of their political society (Easton and Hess, 1965; Raviv et al, 1999). Empirical research (e.g., Targ, 1970; Mehran, 1987; Roberts et al, 1991) has revealed that the political socialisation of children is done both formally and informally through the larger agencies of society, i.e., family, schools, religious organisations, government and media. However, in the last decade, this process i.e., political socialisation, has been an area of increased concern and much has been written on the subject. Some studies have examined international orientations and politics among children in an attempt to discover characteristics of children's understanding of the concepts of country, peace, war and the enemy (Piaget and Weil 1951; Holsti, 1962; Jahoda, 1963a; Cooper, 1965; Haavelsrud, 1970; Lawson, 1989; Soren, 1991). According to Punamaki (1999) children's understanding of peace and war takes place within the context of a society fighting against somebody and for something. In this context, children attitudes towards enemy are shaped by political socialisation. Israeli children, for instance, reasoned that war, in general, is bad and harmful and causes suffering, but their attitudes towards the war and the enemy reflected their cultural and national heritage. They saw a strong army as a guarantee of the continuation of Jewish life and the war necessary in order to bring security (Punamaki, 1987, 1999).
2.3.5.2 Education

In any modern nation-state education reflects the priorities and goals of the state. This suggests that children may have received much education about life, religion, and the world, including their own nation and others, from their school curriculum. Textbooks, particularly at school level, serve as the basic source of information about values, attitudes and beliefs. Schools play a particular and important role in the socialisation of children's and adolescents' understanding of political knowledge by affecting children's and adolescents' beliefs about peace, war and conflict through curricular topics. For example, the textbooks of the countries which are in a state of conflict, such as Lebanon, Syria, Egypt, Jordan, the West Bank and Israel, focus on topics of land, war, the enemy, and heroes and ignore peace topics (Sheety, 1999). Iranian schoolchildren are presented with a sharply defined image of the world, divided into pious, brave, uncompromising, honourable, morally superior Muslims and secular, unjust, greedy, inhuman, oppressive Westerners (Mehran, 1987). Another example from the US indicates that analyses of US textbooks conducted thirty years apart found inaccuracies and sketchy information, not only about the Soviet Union, but also about many Third World nations and even about minority groups within the United States. Thus, schoolchildren are often exposed to biased information (Silverstein, 1989b).

In 1994 the Kuwaiti government submitted a official representation to the Security Council against the Iraqi government regarding the content of Iraqi educational which taught the schoolchildren that Kuwait is part of Iraq, and should be returned to it.
These hostile messages towards Kuwait, whether land or people, generated by the Iraqi textbooks may increase the tendency towards prejudice, aggression and enmity in the present and next generation. If this is the case, it is a worrying situation. Torney (1982), reviewing the effectiveness of global education, argued that the years between 7 and 11 may be a critical period in which to teach children about other people and nations. In addition, Lambert and Klineberg (1967) show that children are probably most accepting of foreign peoples at 10 years of age. And it may be the case that, if objective information is not made available to children at this age via their school curriculum, they are rendered particularly susceptible to the biases which are inherent in media presentations, especially those available from television.

2.3.5.3 Media

The Media is another important factor, which plays a role in the development of enemy images. Although television is the major source of information about the world, however, it became is one of the most pervasive socialising influences in contemporary culture and society. Television programmes and not only those for children, tend to portray the world in stark blacks and whites. They are filled with evil witches, monsters and sorcerers, wicked stepmothers, giants and the like, who are almost always portrayed as having no redeeming features. These villains seize the innocent heroes and heroines of the tale and threaten to eat, torture, maim or kill them unless they get what they want (Fairchild, 1988; Hesse and Mack, 1991).
The mass media play a role in the development of enemy images. They often create images which are popular because they take advantage of the cognitive biases and irrational human motivations which underlie such images. Recent studies have shown that children's cartoons shows often depict people who look or speak differently from Americans as totally evil and possessing no positive qualities (Hesse and Mack, 1991). When they become somewhat older, children stop watching cartoons, but they continue to be exposed to enemy images (Silverstein, 1989 b). Fairchild (1988) examines how television can create positive images. He suggests that TV could be a pathway to peace by creating a sense of world community, promoting intercultural understanding and impeding the formation of enemy images.

War and conflict news can be presented in a biased manner on television and thus enforce the enemy image. In Israeli television, for example, the Palestinians were presented in negative terms, shown as blocking roads, burning tyres and throwing Molotov cocktails, whereas the Israeli were presented primarily as forces of law and order reacting to the violent initiatives of the Palestinians, and as victims of the devastation of war (Covell, 1999).

The mass media, especially TV, which everyone watches played an influential role in violence and war in the former Yugoslavia. According to Oberschall (2001) when nationalist propaganda awoke ethnic division in Yugoslavia, fear and hatred, individuals' actions become more uniform than their preferences and disposition.
Furthermore, much propaganda was intended to persuade people of the impossibility of nations living together.

In the study on young children's awareness of violence in Northern Ireland, Cairns et al (1980) noted that overexposure to news about violence may lead to the perception of violence as more usual and also more acceptable. Their findings were consonant with Russell's findings (1973), he found that schoolboys in Northern Ireland who 'usually watch' Ulster violence on television are more prepared to accept disorder as means to a political goal. The broad conclusion to be drawn from these findings is that television news can distort the perception of reality.

Finally, recent reviewers of the literature on television violence conclude that up to 90% of all studies on the effect of television violence have found evidence that children are more prone to act aggressively if they watch television violence (Oskamp, 1991).

2.3.5.4 Political events (e.g., conflict, invasion, and war)

Political events which result in conflicts or war are important factors in enemy image formation and sometimes are predictable. People see themselves in terms of in-groups and out-groups but may live together without violence for years. When circumstances change and the perceived threat from the other group increases, enemy images emerge. For instance, data collected during the dispute between India and China over the border between their countries provide another illustration of the marked change in
the perception of an out-group, which occurs because of a change in the structure of in-group relations. Stereotypes of the Chinese held by the Indians were measured before the state of conflict arose and again when tensions were strong. College students at Patna University in India were asked in February 1959 and again in December to select the five attributes from a list of eighty which most characterised members of nine countries, including China. A dramatic change occurred in the characteristics assigned to the Chinese. Only three of the ten traits originally most often assigned to the Chinese were attributed to them during the dispute. Before the dispute, the Chinese had been looked upon as friendly, progressive, honest, nationalistic, brave, cultured and active, but subsequently they were considered aggressive, cheaters, selfish, warmongers, cruel, shrewd and stupid. Only minor changes occurred in the stereotypes of the other countries (Secord and Backman, 1974). In this context, the case of Kuwait and Iraq is a vivid example to present here. Before the Iraqis attacked and invaded Kuwait, positive emotions, cognition and attitudes towards Iraq were prevalent among Kuwaiti people. After the Iraqi invasion, Iraq has become the main enemy of the Kuwaiti people and government. This transformation in the feelings towards and image of Iraq is reinforced constantly in the mass media, among political leaders and in schools as well as by the continual Iraqi threats to Kuwait.

Prunier (2001) found that the civil wars between the Hutu and Tutsi in Rwanda were usually a struggle for hills all over the country because a hill is the basic economic and social unit. But the top level as Prunier saw it was a fight for the control of the
monarchy. These civil wars between Hutu and Tutsi, however, can be explained in terms of the realistic group conflict theory which hypothesised that the real conflict of a group arises because of competition over scarce resources such as jobs, territorial possessions or political power (Campbell, 1965).

The Arab-Israeli conflict is one of the political conflicts at the present time which embodies the process of enemy image formation. This conflict is about two peoples who have refused throughout their common history to recognise each other - as a people, a nation, or a nationality. These two people, the Arabs and Israelis, have fought throughout the latter half of the twentieth century to deny each other the basic human, civil, and political rights and privileges which each demands for itself (Wallach, 2000). Although the negotiation between Israeli and Palestinian in the 1990s and has produced a fairly peace stable agreement between them, victims of the conflict still fall, destruction of property is still making front-page news and the enemy images are exaggerated and reinforced in the minds of the two groups everyday.

Similarly, there is still violence in Northern Ireland between Protestants and Catholics, which is based upon political ideologies and social identities. Specifically, Protestants generally support unionism, which aims to maintain the link with the United Kingdom, whereas Catholics generally support nationalism, which seeks the reunification of Ireland under a Dublin government. The different desires of Protestant and Catholics which are based on different ideologies and ethnically generated long-term conflict has affected particular children in its society in various ways (McLernon
and Cairns, 1999). A plausible explanation in the situation of Northern may be found in social identity theory, which postulates that people tend to see themselves and their own group as superior (the in-group) and see other group as worse (the out-group). The tendency often generates feelings of undervaluation, hostility and aggression in the two group's members (e.g., a Hutu and a Tutsi, a Catholic and a Protestant, an Israeli and a Palestinian, a Serb and a Croatian).

It is worth mentioning here that ethnic and religious issues are the most likely to be manipulated by politicians and intellectuals in order to spread fear and insecurity, and subsequent making enemies (Oberschall, 2001).

Centeno (2001) presented a geopolitical explanation in the outbreak of war between Latin American countries. He described them as "a classic geopolitical 'checkerboard' in which my neighbour is my enemy, but my neighbour's enemy is my friend" (Centeno, 2001, p181). Oberschall (2001) also discussed the violence and war in former Yugoslavia. He reported that one reason which may well explain the civil wars between Serbs, Croatians and Bosnians is the Serb nationalists' goal of a Greater Serbia which required the ethnic cleansing of non-Serbs from areas inhabited by a majority of Serbs and the corridors linking Serb population clusters.
2.3.6 Concluding Remarks

There are some difficulties in defining the enemy image. The term enemy image is still a complex, imprecise, wide and highly colloquial form. Furthermore, it is culturally influenced.

Although it is important to know how people are predisposed to view their enemy and what the salient perceptual distortions are, these questions are particularly complicated by the fact that people mean different things by the term "enemy" as well as using very different criteria in defining personal and national enemies.

With respect to the literature, there is some confusion in using the term enemy image. Many researchers have used 'disliked person' and 'disliking' instead of 'enemy' and 'enmity'. Others focus on hostility and hate as terms synonymous with enemy image.

Concerning to the four psychological theories of enemy images. It can be said that each of the four theories outlined above is based on different assumptions and is focused on different aspects of the psychological dimension of the enemy image. Each of them has its strengths as well as its weaknesses:

Realistic group conflict theory demonstrates very vividly the crucial role of incompatible goals in the creation of inter-group conflict. The observation that out-group threat to the in-group increases individual hostility toward the out-group and individual loyalty to the in-group is certainly one of the most agreed-upon
observations of descriptive, non-experimental social science. One of the more notable examples is the effect of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor (1941) on the development of in-group spirit and out-group rejection among US citizens. Less dramatic examples are the "football rivalries" which develop between high schools or between colleges.

Social identity theory is particularly good in explaining how groups define themselves as such, and how in-group and out-group conflict develops through stages. But this theory pays too much attention on the minorities' tendency to self-hatred, overlooking the fact that many ethnocultural minorities are rich in culture and history, and are proud of what they are, even before they pass through such stages as 'consciousness raising' or 'self-redefinition' (Robinson, 1996). Although social identity theory does not claim that group members will always differentiate themselves positively on all available dimensions, the crucial question is, which content dimensions might be selected to acknowledge out-group superiority and which dimensions are used to favour the in-group in question over out-groups.

Yet it must be remembered that there are many extrafamilial sources of image and information about out-groups for the children: mass media, school teachers and textbooks, religious teachings, personal contact with foreigners or travellers who recount their experiences. Since these sources are not necessarily consistent with one another, differential exposure across individuals can result in a wide range of images and evaluations in a single population of children.
As for the psychoanalytical theory, one could easily say that it provides an elaborate and very plausible explanation of why in-group/out-group conflicts have the tendency to become so intense; why we see such high levels of enmity in both groups; and why groups in conflict can resort so easily to violence. Finally, it must be admitted that these psychoanalytic theories are not very amenable to empirical testing.

One last remark concerns the factors, which form the enemy image. As far as socialisation is concerned, this process is not a simple case of mistakes made by insensitive parents. Before a child has had significant contact with groups or people who might become his enemies, he receives much acculturation - learning myths, attitudes and values, alleged facts and typical scenarios (or scripts) about what the world is like. Even parents who try to raise children to be maximally loving and trustful must, for the child's own protection, impart some sense that there are dangers to be avoided, including people who may do the child harm. At the same time, although the family is a primary agent of socialisation, there is complicated interference from other agents of socialisation (i.e. the school, the media) which limits the role of parents in teaching the children to distinguish friends and enemies.

Regarding the education factor, it is important to note that national education in any country is always linked with national policy. In this case, the enemy of the nation will be described in negative terms in the country's textbooks; thus, the children will learn the this person, nation or country is an enemy or at least bad. The worry comes from
the fact that even when this enemy becomes an ally or a friend, the previous image about him in the children's mind is difficult to remove.

The media and political events are important factors in formation of the enemy images. The media, however, has the most influence on perception, attitudes and beliefs of the people towards things or other people and nations. With advanced technology and fast communication, it can easily put the viewers or audience in the heart of the incident, and then begin to construct certain images by sending effective messages. Showing images about starvation in some countries of Africa can arouse feelings of pity, sympathy and help to give aid. In contrast, images of the genocide in Rwanda, Algeria or dreadful actions of Saddam Hussein or Milosovizs on their citizens would have formed hostile attitudes towards those who are responsible for these tragedies. At the same time, political events such as invasion (e.g., Iraqi invasion of Kuwait), war (e.g., war in former Yugoslavia), ethnopolitical conflicts (e.g., Northern Ireland conflict), terrorist attacks (e.g., world trade center disaster in New York), genocide (e.g., Cambodia, Rwanda) and/or forced migration (e.g., Bosnians, Kurds), are one of the most effective factors in the formation of aggression, prejudice, hostility and retaliation and the subsequent making of enemies. These political events if contaminated with ideology or religious beliefs such as conflicts between Arabs and Israelis or Serbs and Bosnians can be very dangerous. In this case, the warfare will be long, the possible solution will be difficult and the enemy will be hard to turn to a friend.
2.4 Children and Others

2.4.1 Introduction
The children's perception of self and others has been studied by many researchers. However, more attention is paid by some researchers to the factors which accompany this perception such as age, socialisation and cognitive development (e.g., information processing). Other researchers focus on the topic of perception, whether individual friend or enemy, or people such as authority figures (e.g., parent, teachers, etc) and nations. In this part of thesis, however, the present researcher will discuss the children's concept of self and other including dealing with the self-concept in children and how it develops during childhood, Piaget's cognitive development theory, perception of the other in children, some factors which play a role in the formation of the enemy image in children and the Kuwaiti children's perception of the other as the results of the effect of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait.

2.4.2 Children's Concept of Self and Other
Self is an every-day term. As we see ourselves behaving differently according to the situation, and as we see ourselves changing with age, we account for the continuity in our lives by postulating a self, and we assume that other people have "selves" too.

William James (1890) was one of the earliest theorists of the self-concept. A key aspect which he introduced was the distinction between the self as object and the self as subject, what he termed the Me versus the I. The Me is the object, and it includes everything that can be described as being part of a person, from the physical self to
personality traits to attitudes and opinions. The I is the subject, it is the I who interprets and organises experience. The importance of this distinction is that it stresses the evaluative role of the self-concept. This formulation also paints the self-concept as multi-dimensional and hierarchical. James (1890) described the newborn baby's world as a "blooming, buzzing confusion" and considered that it might take some time for the senses to become organised. Lovlie (1982), an existentialist, also claimed that the newborn is in an undifferentiated state. The infant has no awareness of self and consequently does not experience emotion. Rather, he or she is his or her emotions. The world is the infant and the infant is the world. Gradually as the child begins to differentiate the external environment, a sense of self-awareness develops. At this state, babies are not living in an isolated and private world. They are involved in interaction with a public world, which they and others share.

During the pre-school years the child develops a considerable understanding of other people's visual precepts. From the beginning the baby takes considerable interest in the human face and engages in 'conversations' with those around her.

Many researchers have argued that the self-concept is developed very early in childhood and that, once established, it is enduring. Anderson (1952) argued, for example, that the first year is the most important for developing the self-concept and that each succeeding year becomes of lesser importance, until the image is essentially completed before adolescence. Freudians also point to early childhood as the period when the self-concept is formed and stabilised (Thomas, 1992).
Others have described stages in the growth of the self-concept. Perhaps the best-known theory of stages is that of Erikson. Erikson (1963) postulated eight stages, which must be encountered successfully and lived through in the development of the self: (a) trust versus mistrust; (b) autonomy versus shame and doubt; (c) initiative versus guilt; (d) industry versus inferiority; (e) identity versus role diffusion; (f) intimacy versus isolation; (g) generatively versus stagnation; and (h) ego integrity versus despair.

Although all the aspects of development in childhood are important, the stages and the aspects of cognitive development have received most attention from psychologists. The most comprehensive theory of children's cognitive development to have been proposed is that put forward by Piaget (Piaget and Inhelder, 1971). Piaget interpreted cognitive development as consisting of the development of logical competence. He divided cognitive development into four major stages, or periods: sensorimotor, preoperations, concrete operations and formal operations. A brief description of the major characteristics of children's thinking during each of these stages is provided in Table.2.1. Piaget insisted that the order in which children progress through these stages is invariant and culturally universal; stages cannot be skipped (Bjorklund, 2000).

For the purposes and design of the present study, we will focus on the concrete operation stage (7 to 11 years) and the formal operation stage (11 to 16 years).
Table 2.1 Characteristics of major periods in Piaget's theory.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period and approximate age range</th>
<th>Major characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensorimotor: Birth to 2 years</td>
<td>Intelligence is limited to the infants' own action on the environment. Cognition progresses from the exercise of reflexes (for example, sucking, visual orienting) to the beginning of symbolic functioning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preoperations: 2 to 7 years</td>
<td>Intelligence is symbolic, expressed via language, imagery, and other models, permitting children to mentally represent and compare objects out of immediate perception. Thought is intuitive rather than logical and is egocentric, in that children have a difficult time taking the perspective of another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concrete operation 7 to 11 years</td>
<td>Intelligence is symbolic and logical. (for example, if A is greater than B and B is greater than C, then A must be greater than C.) Thought is less egocentric. Children's thinking is limited to concrete phenomena and their own past experiences; that is, thinking is not abstract.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal operation 11 to 16 years</td>
<td>Children are able to make and test hypotheses; possibility dominates reality. Children are able to introspect about their own thought processes and, generally, can think abstractly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Bjorklund, 2000)

In the concrete operation stage or period, children become capable of performing operations, which are directly related to objects. The term "concrete" means that the problem involves identifiable objects which are either directly perceived or imagined (Thomas, 1992). Children at the concrete operational stage can perform a variety of tasks. Piaget proposed that children at this stage have new structures, called operations, which permit them to transform a mental "action" such as thought. Thus during the concrete operations period, children gradually discover more of the properties of objects and transformations and master mental operations which can be applied to their concrete world (Ault, 1993; Piaget and Inhelder, 1971). However, the
essential characteristic of this period has been designated conservation. For example, the child realises that the quantity of a piece of clay remains the same despite changes in its shape. Conservation implies an internal system of regulations which can compensate mentally for external changes (Ault, 1983). Concrete operational thinking is typically assessed through investigations of conservation of number, length, quantity, percentage, weight, and volume.

In the formal operation stage, which comes later, "children will learn to perform operations on verbally stated hypotheses and propositions that are not limited to particular objects" (Piaget and Inhelder, 1971, p. 100). Children at this stage are able to move ahead to deal with problems which do not concern particular objects and will believe that a problem might have more than one solution, and will generate multiple alternatives. They can imagine the conditions of a problem - past, present, or future and develop hypotheses about what might logically occur under different combination of factors (Thomas, 1992). Formal operations are like concrete operations in that both are mental representation, which can be reversed. Formal operations are more advanced, though, because the representations can apply to potential as well as to actual actions, and the various reversibilities can be coordinated to permit a higher-order thinking (Bjorklund, 2000). In the formal operational period, the logic of a set of beliefs can be examined.

One considerable aspect of the children's cognitive development is distinguishing between the self and the other. According to Hattie (1992), even a 3-month-old infant
has control of various actions (such as looking and moving hands and fingers). This
duality of subject and object must represent the beginning of the self as distinct from
the other. By the age of 3, many children have begun to identify their own welfare
with that of others. Initially these others are the immediate family, but soon they
include peers and those at pre-school or school. In other words, the pre-school child is
learning to interact with others within his home and immediate social environment,
becoming aware of their distinctness and developing rudimentary skills in viewing
events from their perspective. Then, he/she gradually develops a conception of
homeland or national group, in part, through comparisons or contrasts - largely
vicarious ones, derived unsystematically from various information sources - with
foreign peoples and places, and, in part, through generalisations from interpersonal
experiences he/she has had with the strange and different in his or her own family and
close social environment (Aboud, 1988; Duck, 1991; Lambert and klineberg, 1967;
Robinson, 1996).

Piaget and Well (1951) for example, have dealt longitudinally with the child's
developing notion of the nation-state. From early childhood, the authors found no
awareness of an external environment in a societal sense until ages six or seven when
some conception of the child's geo-political location began to emerge. Increasingly
with age, the child's political world expanded as a series of concentric circles from
family, to city, to state, to nation, until ages ten or eleven when the child had achieved
the intellectual capacity for conceptualising the nation-state. Concerning the affective
dimension, the authors found increasing decentralisation of attachments with age from
an initial stage of complete egocentricity, to family, to group, to society and nation. Apparently, the children's concept of self and others is formed and developed by several factors such as socialisation, education and experiences of life situations.

However, there are four determining factors, which may influence the children's perception of their self and of others. The first factor is the nature of the relationship between the children and their parents. Children tend to see the world in simple, primitive terms. Sometimes they see the people who provide love and protection, often their mother or father, as being totally good, loving, and unrealistically perfect, and at other times, when those people are angry, inattentive or punitive, they see them as totally bad, threatening or even evil (Silverstein, 1989 a). According to Erikson (1963), if parents serve as reliable and nurturing caretakers, their infants will view the world as fair and dependable and therefore adopt a trusting orientation towards people. Parents who are non-nurturing caretakers cause their infants to adopt a mistrustful orientation. Furthermore, the infants' trust or mistrust affects their future relationships with their parents, peers and teachers (Rotenburg, 1995). In this context, children need to develop open and trusting emotional relations with those in their environment. They need to be accepted and need to feel that they are lovable. A poor self-concept in this area, feeling unlovable, can lead the child to avoid close and personal relationship.

Secondly, closely related is the children's self-image. One item which is consistently being shaped and moulded in early childhood is the child's view of self (self-image) and of its value or acceptability to people (self-acceptance). Psychiatric theorists have
often noted that people who cannot accept themselves cannot accept others; in other words; people with a poor self-image or low self-acceptance will tend to be hostile or rejecting towards other people (Adler, 1929). A child who feels good about himself is satisfied with life and thinks the world is a good place to live in. A good self-concept enables a child to accept responsibility, to achieve success in school, and to grow into a productive member of society. However, a child who does not have good feelings about himself may see himself as rejected by others, incompetent, insecure, unloved and bad. In addition, a poor self-concept leads to difficulty in accepting responsibility, fear, anxiety and defensiveness.

Thirdly, there is the impact of experiences or events on children. There are a number of studies, which have found a relationship between self-concept and attitude formation (Kleinke, 1978; Oskamp, 1968). Children, for example, form their attitudes towards others according to their past experiences with them or their images about them. For example, although self-schemata are constructed from information processed by the individual in the past, it influence both the input and the output of information related to the children' perception of the self and others. For example, Ager (1991) discussed the impact of war on children's understanding of the world. He reported that the experience of war disrupted the emotional, social and cognitive schemata of children. Finally, children living in different environments may have different perceptions and levels of acceptance of self and others, for example, children in multi-cultural societies such as the UK and the USA have more positive attitudes
towards, and a greater preference for, other children of their own race compared with children of other races.

### 2.4.3 Children and Enemy Image

As previously discussed, the image of the enemy may be a result of stereotypes, prejudice or an exaggeration of the negative or threatening characteristics of an individual, group, country, nation or nationality. Cognitive developmental theory (Aboud, 1988) has provided an explicit perspective on the way in which stereotyping and prejudice develop in childhood (Aboud, 1988; Lambert and Klineberg, 1967). Stereotyping and prejudice and in-group favouritism may be products of information-processing biases, which result from the supposed limited cognitive capacity of young children. The cognitive-developmental approach views stereotyping and inter-group discrimination as information-processing error due to young children's insufficient cognitive ability to perceive people in individual terms (Aboud, 1988). This theory argues that cognitively immature young children are prone to inter-group discrimination and prejudice because they are unable to decentre. The poor cognitive ability of young children, according to the cognitive-developmental theory, means they can see the world only in bipolar terms and are incapable of processing all the internal qualities of individuals (Rutland, 1999). Thus, they cannot see the similarity between individuals in different groups and the differences between people within groups (Concrete Operation Stage).
The cognitive-developmental theory would predict that young children aged around 6 years of age should show high levels of prejudice and in-group favouritism (Aboud, 1988). The theory would also predict that in-group favouritism and prejudice should 'peak' at about eight years of age because the children are 'sociocentric' (Piaget and Weil, 1951) since their social judgements are dominated by perceptions of similarity and dissimilarity between social groups. Finally, the cognitive-developmental theory argues that at around 11 years of age children should develop the ability to decentre and then can simultaneously attend to two or more different perspectives (Formal Operation Stage). Thus, prejudice and in-group favouritism should begin to reduce, since the children become aware of differences between groups (in-group and out-group) and concepts (friends and enemies).

In addition to the cognitive development, the notion of disliking in children may associate with age. For example, the disliking undergoes dramatic transformations with age. According to Duck (1991), at the earliest ages, dislike is expressed through behaviour, not through words: rejection and avoidance are the clearest methods. Children of about 5 will be able to express dislike for others, but do not give specific or satisfactory reasons; at this age, and up until about the age of 8, the reasons which children give for disliking someone are not direct opposites of the reasons that they give for liking someone. They dislike people who fight or are rough, while they like people who give them sweets or play with them. Liking and disliking are not strict logical opposites for 8-year-olds. For this reason, a child's likes and dislikes may not be particularly stable until mid- to late childhood, when concepts begin to set and the
child forms a more complete and robust idea of the nature of friendship and its opposite.

Oskamp (1991) discussed the concept of the enemy for children. He pointed out that at the age of 5-6, many children could give responses about foreign people - mostly simple information and evaluations of good or bad. Between the ages 10 and 14, there is a progressive increase in the range of evaluative categories used, such as intelligent, aggressive, poor, wealthy, peaceful, dominating and ambitious. At the same time, there is a change in the type of descriptive statements used from physical characteristics - such as clothing and language to a greater emphasis on personality traits, habits, political and religious characteristics and material possessions.

On the basis of the above discussion, it can be said that the formulation of an enemy image and the process of acquisition of thoughts and feelings about an enemy may be complex because of the many factors which affect or interfere with the process (e.g., socialisation, age, cognitive development, etc). For example, Beck (1999) suggested that there are innate factors, which support the perception of outsiders as enemies. The fear of strangers in early childhood may be the preliminary basis for later xenophobia. However, many children do not experience xenophobia, and there is no direct evidence that the view of strangers or out-groupers as dangerous leads to perceiving them as threats to be eliminated. At the same time, cognitive dimensions can be used as bases for liking close friends or disliking non-friends / enemies. Additionally, children's perception of the enemy may relate back to their cultural and ideological
background. What is unclear, though, is why children dislike some individuals more than others. To answer this question, further research is required.

2.4.4 Kuwaiti Children and Enemy Images

The perception of others in Kuwaiti children is influenced by the agents of socialisation. The family, for example, is a primary agent of socialisation which teaches the child about the world and its ways (Ager, 1996). The school also plays an important role in bringing up Kuwaiti children and forming their identity. However, a complementary component comes from the media. The media impart information about Ministries and the people who are responsible for them. Children learn about other countries through the media, particularly through television programmes, which regularly report on visits by Arab or foreign presidents.

The preliminary political socialisation of children in Kuwait begins early, at about the age of four, before the child goes to school. The political socialisation takes place in kindergarten where the children link emotionally with the symbol of their country before learning about the outside world. Specifically, education in the kindergarten stage begins to identify local things for the children, such as gardens, schools and mosques, to teach them to appreciate and respect them. The next step is the identification of authority figures, such as policemen, soldiers and the State President, as well as the glorification of national symbols such as the map of their country and its flag. On certain occasions, kindergartens organise their children to perform in welcome celebrations for visitors to the country, particularly those who are popular
with the Kuwaiti people. Examples are the welcoming of King Fahad, President Bush and Mrs. Thatcher after the liberation of Kuwait. When the child grows up and enrols in the elementary and intermediate stages, he gains more knowledge about concepts such as democracy, elections, rights and government, making sacrifices for his homeland, and positive attitudes towards the regime.

The Kuwaiti family also plays a big role in the child's political socialisation, political development, the reinforcement and maintenance of freedom and tolerance values, patriotism and morality. Families, according to their socio-economic and educational levels, carry out all the socialisation in these areas. It is assumed that the political socialisation may be affected by political events such as war, conflict or emigration. In Kuwait, children's political socialisation has completely changed since the invasion by Iraq in 1990.

The Iraqi invasion not only damaged buildings and polluted the environment; it also harmed values and principles. The concepts of force and aggression became dominant after the Gulf War. This ended on February 21, 1991. The guns stopped firing, Kuwaiti and Iraqi soldiers returned home, and peace reigned once more, but Iraq and Saddam Hussein are still making front-page news, because Saddam Hussein has refused to guarantee that he will not threaten Kuwait. Therefore, he became and remains the Kuwaiti people's main enemy.
Of course, there were enemies before Saddam; however, the Iraqi enemy concept in children was formed in the Kuwait-Iraqi conflict. After the liberation, the Kuwaiti people described Iraqis as bad, mean, evil and belligerent; hence, they also viewed the Iraqis in terms of war and aggression. They see Iraq as having displaced them from their homeland and as an initiator of war.

Generally, when Kuwaiti children were asked which of the two countries, Kuwait or Iraq, was responsible for the Gulf War, most justified Kuwait being in the war and blamed Iraq, because Iraq had been the aggressor and, therefore, had to be punished. There is a stronger tendency to designate all things Iraqi as evil; therefore, Kuwaiti people commonly use this example to teach their children the difference between good and evil. Children thus hold a distorted perception of the moral self-image (Kuwait) against the diabolical enemy image (Iraq), and this has resulted in their having irrational thoughts and forming distorted attitudes about themselves and others.

It is notable that the Iraqi invasion and the Gulf War have apparently not only affected the children who followed and understood the two events, but also those children who were born after the invasion. Both groups, especially those who experienced the invasion and who suffered anxiety, illness and physical pain as a result, have learnt to hate the Iraqis. According to some studies (e.g., Abdullatif, 1995; Al-Rashidi, 1999; Al-Shatti, 1996; Al-Sahal, 1993; El-Kheraphi, 1993), the two groups appear to have the same heated feelings about anything associated with Iraq (Saddam Hussein, the people and the land) and both groups regard Iraq as the great enemy. It may be
suggested that the family, the school and the media are responsible directly or indirectly for this effect by enforcing this perception and image among children. An important question is: What effect has Iraq's invasion of Kuwait had on the children's political socialisation? It is clear that since the Gulf War, Kuwaiti children hold negative views of international relations. Views on those situations where trust and reciprocal respect between nations and international legality existed during and before the War have deteriorated, while views incorporating wariness, pessimism and the belief that nations tend naturally towards aggression and dominance have increased. It is believed that these increased feelings of fear and hatred arising from the invasion have caused dichotomies in the Kuwaiti people; they have begun to separate people and nations into two categories, friend and enemy - in other words, good and bad (Al-Rashidi, 1999; Al-Sahal, 1993; Al-Saraf, 1998).

These categorisations may filter through to affect their children's socialisation and attitude-formation to the point where they grow up with thoughts of aggression rather than of harmony and peace.

Finally, it can also be said that rationality, tolerance or aggression relates to the size, type and propagation of an enemy image which children may create and change rapidly. Therefore, there is increasing concern at present about the media (especially television) and curricula which, in effect, teach children how to make friends and avoid enemies, because changes in the images convey changes in perceptions and
attitudes. However, the question was and remains: is enmity a "natural" process or is it the creation of culture?

2.4.5 Concluding Remarks

There is lack of supportive evidence whether the enmity in children is the result of the cognitive development or the effect of the agencies of socialisation. This issue, however, needs more investigation.

The cognitive-development theory (Piaget's theory) which is adopted in this study to explain the cognitive development of children is the theory which has most influenced the field of developmental psychology, particularly in children. There are many features of Piaget's theory; for example: "it gains strength from the host of empirical studies on which the author based his speculation" (Thomas, 1992, p.315). The theory also is clearly understandable. Furthermore, it is internally consistent. However, the shortcoming of the theory concerns the differences among children. Piaget's focus was on what the average child does, and he did not present an analysis of the way in which other factors or agents influence children's cognitive development.

Concerning Kuwaiti children, it can be said, that the effect of the Iraqi invasion on the formation of the enemy image in Kuwaiti children has been to concentrate it. This event, however, has changed the political socialisation patterns in Kuwaiti society and created only one image of the "enemy" in the children's minds; this is "Iraq". The
Questions which arise in consequence are: Will this image change? Who can change it? And what would be the consequences of such a change?

2.5 Summary

This chapter has outlined theoretical background for this study. The images, the concept of enemy image and its development, function, influence and its theories were presented. The chapter was also concerned with enemy image formation and how it influences people. The other issues which were discussed were the children's concept of the self and others, and the children's perception of the enemy image.
Chapter Three

Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Studies on Images

3.2.1 Images of their individuals and nations

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3.4 Studies on Children's Perception of Others

3.4.1 Children's Attitudes towards Others

3.5 Summary and General Critical Evaluation
3.1 Introduction

The literature review consists of three main sections. The first section discusses literature on mental images. The second section discusses literature on the enemy image and the third reviews studies on children's perception of others.

3.2 Studies on images

There has been considerable opinion and much theory about the relationship between images and the formation of attitudes. This section reviews studies which address the relationship between images and the reception and perception of other objects, whether individuals or nations.

3.2.1 Images of their individuals and nations

Psychologists have done a great deal of research on people's perception, images of and attitudes towards others, whether individuals or nations. For example, in earlier years (1950-1970), much attention was directed to studying people's images of other nations, e.g., Americans' images of Soviet Union (Alvik, 1968; Boulding, 1959; Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Haavelsrud, 1970; Hess and Torney, 1967; Jahoda, 1962; Lambert and Klineberg, 1967; Middleton et al, 1970; Piaget and Weil, 1951; Rosell, 1968; Targ, 1970).

However, among so many image studies, this section of the literature review will mention only those which relate to the present study, for example, the work of Barrett and Short (1992) who investigated the images of European people among English schoolchildren. The sample was 216 children aged between 5 and 10 years, divided into two groups (5-7 years and 8-10 years). The children were interviewed individually using a structured interview schedule to ascertain their cognitive and affective responses towards French, German, Spanish and Italian people by questions designed to elicit information about the physical characteristics, customs, habits and traits of the target nationality. The results of the study indicate that younger children lack knowledge about the four nationalities. However, in both age groups, the children liked French and Spanish people the most and they liked German people least. The younger children (5-7 years) were often unable to provide any explanation of why they either liked or disliked a particular nationality. However, the 8-10-year-olds were able to explain their affective responses: television was the most frequently mentioned
source of information on the four nationalities cited by the children and the final and perhaps most important finding is that the stereotypes of foreigners are more prevalent at 5-7 than at 8-10 years of age. The authors, however, described the sample of their study adequately, but the readability level for the 5-7-year-old children was not reported. Concerning the measurement, of course, these national descriptions are stereotypes, frequently based on little information and having doubtful validity at best (Oskamp, 1991). However, it can be said that the value of any measurement depends on the quality of its instruments. In this context, an explicit deficiency can be observed in the instrument of the current study which included, for example, several aspects of the four nationalities (e.g., questions about children' own country and the physical characteristics, customs, habits and traits of the four nationalities) which may have influenced the results by confusion, tiredness, boredom and carelessness among the children, particularly the younger ones. Furthermore, some of the statements include more than one thought per item. Statistically, the study used sample analysis (percentages), but to investigate differences between two age groups advance statistical methods are warranted. At the same time, stereotyping and its associated phenomena should be seen as a response to poor cognitive ability. However, in this study there is, for example, no indication in the discussion of the cognitive -development theory (Piaget's theory).

Dinklage and Ziller (1989) studied images of war and peace among German and American children. The subject consisted of 40 females and 40 males children from public schools in Florida and West Germany, their ages ranging from 8 to 11 years.
The subjects were asked to take one photograph that represented war and another that represented peace, in addition to a focused structured interview which consisted of three questions (Which of the two photos represents peace and which represents war? What does this photo mean to you (relating to war)? And, What does this photo mean to you (relating to peace)?). The authors aimed to examine the meaning of war and peace in two countries, and hypothesised that war is described in images of destruction more frequently in Germany than in the United States. The results of the examination of the meaning of war and peace for the two groups indicate that for German children war is more frequently associated with images of the destruction of property, injury and death. Moreover, for German children, peace is more frequently associated with images of people. American children submitted more photographs indicating their relative isolation from war. The authors concluded that the meaning of war is different between two countries when in one country the view is that of a distant observer, whereas in the other country the view is that of a participant. This study revealed an important finding: that is, that people can mean different things about one event according to the relevance to or importance of this event to them. However, there are two issues of concern. The first is the method (a photo-communication approach) which was used in the study described above. This method has some disadvantages, such as its lack of psychometric characteristics, too cumbersome to be used with large samples, and the possibility of subjective bias in interpretation and analysis. The second criticism of the study is the inaccuracy of the children's responses. The children may give their impressions, feelings, and/or attitudes towards the war and
peace rather than what they thought was the meaning of these concepts. Furthermore, they may reflect adult views (e.g., those of parents) about war and peace.

3.3 Studies on enemy image

Researchers have been studying the image of the enemy for many years. These researchers comprise not only psychologists but also many others in the fields of education, information, policy, religion and military affairs. However, in recent years, the topic of the enemy image has become of greater interest to psychologists than to researchers in other fields, perhaps because of its relevance to contemporary issues such as the nuclear threat, the arms race or conflicts between ethnic and racial groups and nations. This section of the literature review will discuss studies on enemy images. It will include studies examining attitudes towards the enemy, the mirror image, measurement of the enemy image, impact and influence of enemy image and contributory factors in enemy image formation (i.e.; socialisation, education, the media and political events).

3.3.1 Attitudes towards the enemy

Attitudes towards the enemy were examined extensively after the World War I and II (e.g., Baumgarten and Prescott, 1928; Escalona, 1946; Scott, 1948; Thompson, 1940) and during and following the period of the Cold War (e.g., Amir, 1976; Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Haque and Lawson; 1980; Lambert and Klineberg, 1967; White, 1977; Ziv, Kruglansk and Schulman, 1974). However, at the end of 1980s and all through the 1990s until the present time, focus on the phenomenon of the enemy
image and attitudes towards it has emerged once more (e.g., Al-Saraf, 1998; Basoglu et al 1996; Bjerstedt et al 1991; Carmil and Breznits, 1991; Faisal, 1995; Harris, 1993; Hayes, Gersham and Halteman, 1996; Hesse and Poklemba, 1988; Holt, 1989; Kaplowitz, 1990; Olson, 1995; Povrzanovic, 1997; Punamaki, 1987, 1996; Silverstein, 1986b; Soren, 1991; Spielman, 1998; Thompson, 1991; Wallach, 2000). Amongst many significant studies on attitudes towards the enemy, this section of the literature review concentrates on some of the most significant. For example, Rofe and Weller (1981) examined Israeli attitudes towards their enemy as a function of level of threat. The sample was 430 high-school students (aged 15-17), 280 were of European origin, and 136 of Eastern origin and 57 did not indicate their origin. The authors used the Semantic Differential Scale (SDS) and Social Distance Questionnaire (SDQ) as well as the effect of the personality dimension of repression-sensitisation (R-S). The study hypothesised that "the Israeli attitudes towards Israeli Arabs would be least negative, their attitudes towards Enemy Arabs (those living in the enemy states) most negative, and their towards the Territory Arabs in between these two groups". The independent variables were repression-sensitisation, ethnic origin and religion. The results showed that (a) Israelis are more favourable to Israeli Arabs than to Arabs in general and least favourable to Territory Arabs and Enemy Arabs; (b) the repressors were more positive towards all Arabs than the sensitizers; (c) the Orthodox jaws were less positive towards the Arabs than the Secular and the Traditional. However, in the light of the study's findings, the sample, measurement and interpretation Rofe and Weller's study produce some concerns. Although students of European origin and Eastern origin participated in this study, those of European origin were oversampled (280 to 136
students), which may affect the results. Although the internal consistency for the SDS and SDQ were .92 and .88 respectively, exceeding the .80 criterion for acceptable internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978), the measure of personality is not clear. At the same time, the study tends to measure political attitudes rather than social or cognitive attitudes. So, other important factors such as stereotyping and/or ideology would have been useful to include. It is clear that the study obtained significant differences between subjects. However, the authors did not explain why significant differences were obtained when using SDQ to measure prejudice, but were not obtained when SDS was employed to measure prejudice. In other words, there were significant differences in the students' attitudes towards Arabs when prejudice was measured by Bogardus' SDQ, but not when measured by SDS. Nevertheless, the study was informative when it came to examining the relationship between attitudes towards the enemy and personality variables.

Hesse and Poklemba (1988) claim to have interviewed hundreds of children and collected thousands of drawings, stories and statements about personal and political enemies. However, they do not give any precise figures. This study is part of a larger project aimed at understanding the psychological roots of interpersonal and international conflict through the study of children's conceptions of enemies at different points in their emotional, moral and political socialisation. The sample was from American children who ranged in age from 4-9 years. The findings of the study indicated that a person drawn by a 4-6-year-old tends to be distorted. The children in the youngest age group (4-6 years old) think of enemy as frightening and strange.
person. Older children (7 to 9 years old) begin to accept that enmity is a relationship between them and somebody else. Apparently, an effort was made to obtain a large sample of children, however, the size of sample and important demographic variables such as geographic region and educational level were not presented. The study uses several tools to collect data such as drawings, stories and statements, but no information was provided regarding the administration or procedures, nor was there any indication of the method of data analysis or scoring of children's drawings. The authors claim that the enemy images were different among children according to age and gender, but the magnitude of these differences or reasons for it are not discussed. Nevertheless, Hesse and Poklemba's study represents a significant contribution to the field of enemy images, particular enemy image development at different age levels.

Using a Semantic Differential Scale (SDS), Kloep (1991) investigated the attitudes of 260 Swedish students towards 4 countries: Sweden, Germany, the USSR and the US. The sample was drawn from 9 different schools, which were geographically spread over Sweden. The sample size is adequate; however, except for the size, no other characteristics of the sample are provided in this study. Furthermore, geographic representation of the sample is vague. The results were that the USSR received significantly more unfavourable ratings than other countries and was rated as the "enemy" while the other countries were rated as "friends". The study revealed significant findings about national stereotypes, but there is no analytical discussion of why Swedish students had negative attitudes towards the USSR only, although these students did not grow up in wartime suffer or exposure to it. Therefore, the
contributory factors the formation of these attitudes should be discussed. The author also claims that the students in the study were not neutral in their attitudes as reflected by their rating the Soviet Union clearly as "enemy" and the other three countries as "friends"; however, the study provides no evidence to support this claim. Finally, the Semantic Differential Scale in the current study was administered by teachers in the schools, but the teachers' training on the administering SDS is not presented in the procedure. However, the concern is that any one using this instrument with children would in fact, need to give very clear instructions and check to be sure that they understood it. To be fair, this study does discuss some implications for peace education.

Punamaki (1996) measured children's attitudes towards the enemy. The sample consisted of 385 Israeli Jewish children aged 10-13 years. The author used a psychosocial problems scale and tried assess ideological commitment which includes a single open-ended question, "What should we do towards the enemy?"

A content analysis of Israeli children's answers was conducted in earlier research (Punamaki, 1987), and those response categories were applied to the scoring of the present data. The categories capturing the content and logic of the children's responses were (1) Annihilate the enemy, (2) Fight the enemy, (3) Make conditional peace with the enemy (if they do not agree, fight them), (4) Negotiate and try to understand the enemy and (5) Make a definite peace with the enemy. Considering that the attitudes towards the enemy formed a special kind of ideological commitment, the author examined whatever ideological commitment can protect children's psychological well-
being in a situation of political violence. The notable finding was that Israeli children's attitudes towards war and the enemy reflected their cultural and national heritage. They saw a strong army as a guarantee of the continuation of Jewish life. The study also revealed that the children's attitudes toward the enemy did not function as a moderating factor between exposure to political hardships and psychological well-being. However, a positive association was found between aggressive attitudes toward the enemy and a high level of family problems. The weakness of this study is that, although the author claimed to have examined attitudes towards the enemy, no explicit definition of the enemy is given. Further, no percentages are provided to indicate the scale of participants' responses about their attitudes toward the enemy. Moreover, in order to state anything distinctive about the role of ideological commitment in increasing or decreasing psychosocial problems regarding the study sample, it would have been helpful to compare them with a group of Palestinian children. Hence, caution is recommended in generalising the results.

In connection with the attitudes towards the enemy, some researchers have looked at cognitive dimensions for liking and disliking, particularly among children. For instance, Hayes (1978) suggested that reciprocal friendships among pre-schoolers are based on evaluation and common activities/play, whereas unilateral relationships are based on physical possessions and propinquity. Hayes's study was conducted to determine whether the bases for liking friends, as well as disliking nonfriends/enemies are different for reciprocal versus unilateral relationships. The major findings of Hayes's study were that aggression, rule violation, and aberrant behaviour are
important dimensions for negative relationships and they were frequently cited by pre-
school children as reasons why they did not like someone. Another finding was that
significantly more males than females were named as enemies. The results of Hayes's
study also suggests that pre-school boys are disliked more frequently than girls, but
there is no interpretation of this result. However, the important question was why
children dislike some individuals more than others.

3.3.2 Mirror image

Another type of studies of attitudes to the enemy investigates the enemy image which
individuals receive from other people or nations, particularly once people perceive an
individual or a group as hostile or threatening, i.e. as an 'enemy' (Silverstein and
Flamenbaum, 1989). In other words, how do people see each other? As previously
discussed, this phenomenon is known as the mirror image.

The mirror image hypothesis was tested earlier in Soviet-American Cold War relations
(Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Frank, 1967; Stagner, 1967; White, 1965) and further
examined in the context of the Indian-Pakistan conflict (Haque, 1973), the Colombia-
Venezuela conflict (Salazar and Marin, 1977), and the Arab-Israeli conflict (Abu Hein
For example, Bronfenbrenner (1961) proposed the hypothesis of a mirror image
phenomenon with regard to the mutual perceptions of two groups in conflict. He
hypothesised that two groups would perceive themselves in the same positive way and
perceive the other, or "enemy," in similar negative ways. This hypothesis was
particularly evidenced in an analysis of the relationship between the Soviet Union and the USA; members of each country saw themselves as peaceful and free and the others as aggressive, deluded and exploited.

There is clear evidence in the investigations of the above studies that the opponents tended to attribute similar desirable traits to themselves and similar undesirable traits to each other (the enemy). This phenomenon has not only been tested extensively in diverse cultures but has also been used with different methods, such as content analysis, adjective-selection technique (Haque, 1973), and the Semantic Differential Scale (Salazar and Marin, 1977). For example, Haque (1973) conducted an analysis of the stereotype studies (by himself and other authors) carried out in India and Pakistan over two decades with reference to the two ethnic and national groups. He found that, in general, the mirror image phenomenon occurred in the mutual perceptions of Indians and Pakistanis.

3.3.3 Measurement Enemy Image

Another direction taken by enemy image studies is the portrayal and measurement of the enemy image. A number of techniques for studying the phenomenon of enemy images among people in general are available such as questionnaires, observation of conversations, drawings, content analysis, interviews and associative techniques. Every one of these methods has its advantages and drawbacks. However, choosing the appropriate method depends on the objectives and design of the study. For example, in the work of Bjerstedt et al (1991), 800 university students were chosen, representing
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The study employed the use of an associative technique in which students were given a verbal stimulus and asked to write all the words that occurred to them during a two-minute period. Seven stimuli were used: the future, avoiding war, enemies of our countries, peace, the United States, the Soviet Union, and human rights. However, the key stimulus expression was "enemies of our country". The study aimed to know what would people think of first when they heard this phrase. "Would a large majority think of a specific foreign country, or would the answers be more varied". The findings revealed that the attitudes of the university students from the four countries could not be said to be greatly characterised by negative and stereotyped images of foreign countries or other foreign groups as enemies. It is clear that this study was a cross-national project over four countries, but it is not clear that the sample was representative of the university students in these countries. The authors claim that the technique of written association appeared to be a useful instrument for assessing stereotypes of the enemies and attitudes towards them. However, there is still concern over the risk of biased interpretation, because it is difficult to get a high enough degree of objectivity in scoring. Therefore, considerable caution is warranted when interpreting participants' scores. Furthermore, these seem to be no explicit psychometric characteristics for the instrument, which seems to be a hybrid form between the questionnaire and the interview form. Nevertheless, the associative technique has some contribution to make to the development of enemy image instrumentation.
Some studies have indicated that one way of assessing children's self-image and other-image is to use a projective instrument based upon the children's drawings or stories (Badri, 1997; Lawson, 1975, 1989; Rudenberg et al, 1998; Terr, 1985; Wysocki and Whitney, 1965; Verma et al, 1971; Zeidner et al, 1993). A few studies have used drawings to investigate children's attitudes toward the enemy (e.g., Hesse and Poklemba, 1988; Jolley and Vulic, 2001; Lewis and Greene, 1983). In this context, the striking question is: Is it possible to tell whether children like or dislike somebody from the way they draw them?

This was the intriguing question which Dr Gary Gilbert, at Kansas State University, set out to answer, by studying the pictures and friendships of a large group of 12-year-old schoolchildren. Dr Gilbert asked his younger artists to draw pictures of people they knew and then say how much each person was liked or disliked. As a result of this revealing study, Gilbert was able to pinpoint two features in children's drawings, which clearly distinguish friends from enemies. Firstly: when a child pictures somebody whom he or she dislikes, far fewer details are included than when drawing a portrait of a friend. Secondly: when drawing somebody they disliked, children tended to use more angles and fewer curves. These differences are clearly shown in the pictures (Lewis and Greene, 1983). However, these differences cannot reveal the degree of friendship or enmity towards the figures in the children's drawings. Furthermore, no specification is given for these figures or topics in the drawing. The author also should utilise stories and/or depth questions such as what is the person in the picture doing or saying? What will the disliked person in the picture tend to do?
The stories or the subsequent questions may tell us a great deal about the children's emotional response and their attitudes towards the disliked person.

In their recent study, Jolley and Vulic (2001) examined the claim that topics in children's drawings convey the children's emotional attitudes towards those topics. The influence of an emotional topic (neutral man, friendly soldier, and enemy soldier) and a trauma group (child with father or father killed in war) was examined on the size of the topics and their placement relative to a self-portrait drawing. The sample was 60 Croatian children (aged 7-10 years). The fathers of 30 children had been killed during the war in Croatia. The authors asked the children to draw Croatian and enemy soldiers who had fought in the recent war (1991-1995). The results of the study showed no significant main or interaction effects on the size or placement of topics. The authors concluded that there are unlikely to be reliable features of drawings that portray the child's emotional attitudes towards the topic drawn. However, the main criticism of this study is that it is possible that the previous findings are associated with measurement (size and placement) rather than with the emotive topics. Perhaps different findings might have been obtained if the movement, action, omission and distortion in the drawings had been measured.

Holt's study (1988) of stereotyped enemy images in American college students presents a somewhat different picture. After intensively interviewing and testing a sample 57 undergraduates. Holt reports that students defined persons primarily in terms of interpersonal conflict and hostility, denying that divergent values or policy
positions were relevant or whether a person was a friend or enemy. When the topic changed to nations, the same students gave equal weight to threat/danger and to divergent values/policies, often stressing the latter almost entirely when discussing particular enemy nations. Holt found that more than 8 of each 10 students (over 80% respondents) consider the Soviet Union an enemy. The features of the Holt's study are its investigation of the different definitions and images of enemies which people hold, and his attempting to answer why people mean different things by the term 'enemy'.

Al-Saraf (1998) surveyed the attitudes towards the enemy of 564 schoolchildren in Kuwait. The sample was divided into two age group (9-10 years and 13-14 years); 282 were in elementary school, and 282 were in intermediate school. Boys and girls were equally sampled. His investigation was based on two open-ended questions, "Who is your enemy"? and "Who is your country's enemy?" The author found that that 83% answered that Iraq was the enemy, and 3% thought that Israel was the enemy. The greatest concern regarding the measurement of attitudes towards the enemy in this study is although the two questions are simply stated and easily understood, the children may be confused over the definition of personal and national enemies (Holt, 1989). Furthermore, no rationale, either logical or empirical, is presented for the selection of these two items. Instead of the percentages which used in the data analysis, it is believed that the data of this study would best analysed by using a t. test in order to obtain the differences between samples according to age, gender, educational level and experience of the Iraqi invasion.
3.3.4 Contributory Factors in enemy image formation

Of the many who have looked at the differences between individual and national enemies a few have yet produced a definite answer to the apparently simple question, "How does the enemy image form and develop? However, several studies have tried to answer the question: Is enmity a "natural" process, or is it the creation of culture? The formation of the enemy image has been investigated through attitudes towards people and nations among children and adults.

Many of the enemy image studies provided some evidence that socialisation, education, media and certain political events are all crucially relevant to the formation of the enemy image. More specifically, these studies have addressed societal agency influences such as family, school and the media (Al-Monofi, 1988; Beck, 1999; Fairchild, 1988; Hayes, 1978; Hayes, Gersham and Halteman, 1996; Hesse and Mack, 1991; Lambert and Klineberg, 1967; Mehran, 1987; Roberts et al, 1991; Silverstein, 1989 a, 1989 b; Verma, 1993; Wallach, 2000; Wiseman and Duck, 1995) as well as the role of history, culture and ideology as important impulses in the creation of enemies (Fiebig et al, 1997; Finley et al, 1976; Thompson, 1991; Hosin and Cairns, 1984; Kathleen and Jason, 1999; Keen, 1986; Olson, 1995; Lawson, 1989; Punamaki, 1996). Other studies have examined the effects of political events such as ethnopolitical conflict, invasion and war (Al-Eissa, 1995; Al-Saraf, 1998; Al-Rashidi, 1999; Basoglu et al, 1996; Baumgarter and Crescott, 1928; Haque, 1973; Haque and Lawson, 1980; Hoffman and Bizman, 1996; Povrzanovic, 1997; Punamaki, 1987; Salazar and Marin, 1977; White, 1977); some studies have investigated the role of age

### 3.3.4.1 Socialisation and Education

The distinction between "us" and "them" and between "friends" and "enemies" is formed mostly in childhood and usually in the family group (Boulding, 1959; Olson, 1995). Therefore, children’s views of people as friends or enemies are constructed both formally and informally through the larger agencies in society (i.e., the family, schools, religious organisations and government). For example, Hesse and Poklemba (1987) studied the formation of enemy images in children throughout extensive interviews and drawings. They found that children go through a stage of "pregeneralised learning" around age 6 where they are try to please their parents and subsequently adopt their parents' viewpoints. They observed that children learn to differentiate group differences between the ages of 6 and 10 and that they mirror the biases they observe in their parents and the culture in which they live. In this way, the authors believe, children learn which groups they belong to, and which they do not belong to, and how to perceive themselves in relation to their groups (in-group) and others groups (out-group). This study, however, indicates that we learn early in our cultural system that members of out-groups have different behaviours, beliefs and values than our own group. Closely related, Masangkay et al (1972) investigated the development of children's impression of ethnic groups and the role of their mothers'
perceptions in this process. They examined the attitudes and specific stereotypes of 52 Philippine mothers and their 9-10 and 14-15 year old children towards Tagalog (ingroup) and Chinese (out-group) peoples. Two scales are used in this study (a Tagalog attitudes scale and a Chinese attitudes scale). Results demonstrate that children develop ethnic attitudes at an early age but that the attribution of specific traits to different ethnic groups occurs later in the socialisation process. However, weaknesses of this study are, that the young children (aged 9-10) were participants, but their readability level was not reported. It should have been determined prior to the administration of the scales to ensure that the items were not too difficult for children in this age range. The authors, on the other hand, suggested that the socialisation of ethnic perception involves a number of agents and is not dependent exclusively on mothers' attitudes, but there is no mention of these agents in the discussion. Furthermore, the authors did not support their findings and interpretations by theoretical underpinnings for example, social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1986), cognitive-development theory, and/or self-categorisation theory.

Other studies have demonstrated the role of political socialisation and ideology in the formation of the enemy image (Easton and Hess, 1965). For example, Punamaki (1996), as we have seen, found that Israeli children's attitudes towards war and the enemy reflected their cultural and national heritage. In their eyes, a guarantee of the continuation of Jewish life depended on having a strong army. Hosin and Cairns (1984) suggested that the historical past might actually have a great impact on children's national attitudes.
Lawson too, (1989), examined political attitudes of children in Israel, concentrating on Christian and Moslem children living on the West Bank. He used a projective test based upon the child's order of preference for flags of different countries. Lawson investigates two important factors: location (Israel vs. West Bank) and religion (Christian vs. Moslem). The subjects were Arab children from schools in Israel and the West Bank. The children were from grades 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 12. The total sample was approximately 960. He presented twenty flags to the subjects, in four categories: (1) Israel and her direct Arab neighbours: Lebanon, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, and Egypt; (2) other Eastern Mediterranean countries: Iran, Greece, and Turkey; (3) world powers with important concerns in the Middle East: France, Great Britain, Soviet Union, the United Nations and the United States; and (4) other countries not strongly identified with the Middle East but whose flags had varying designs: Barbados, Brazil, Canada, Guatemala, Japan, Peru and Trinidad. The Lawson study findings were: (1) The Moslem sample gave Saudi Arabia the highest rank, while the Christian sample gave it the fifth. The Moslem sample also ranked Egypt, Turkey, United Nations and Soviet Union high; the Christian sample ranked Greece, the United States, France, Great Britain and Japan high. (2) Lawson's study confirmed that the major factors accounting for differences are location and religion rather than sex and grade level. This study has no clearly stated questions or hypothesis. Additionally, there is some concern regarding the findings which were obtained in this study, partly because the findings may have been affected by the flags' attractiveness and/or the respondents' lack of knowledge of the stated countries rather than the political attitudes (Barrett and Short, 1992; Poppe and Linssen, 1999). At the same time, it is
possible that age in this study is a confounding variable, which should have been controlled. Other possible confounding variables have to do with educational level and the ethnicity of the interviewer. The religious attitudes were more clear than the political attitudes, these can be observed in the Moslem sample's giving Saudi Arabia the highest rank. Therefore, this makes it unlikely that a reliable projective test can assess the political attitudes of children. The relationship between assessing the political attitudes of children and using a projective test based upon the child's order of preference for flags of different countries needs further investigation.

Mehran (1987) analysed the content of the current elementary and secondary school social studies textbooks used in Iran. He found that the world is presented in black and white terms; the West includes colonial powers, imperialist nations and enemies of Islam. The United States is represented as the major enemy and the symbol of tyranny and opposition against independence-seeking nations. Mehran also concludes that teaching Iranian schoolchildren the "revolutionary" way to face the West has become an important part of political socialisation in the Islamic Republic of Iran. The principal limitation of Mehran's study is determining what kind of idea person the Islamic Republic of Iran wishes to create, as opposed to what kind of individual has actually emerged. Moreover, the weakness of this study is, that it provides no answer for the question whether the contradictory social, political, and cultural values transmitted by secular, Western-educated families outweigh the message communicated by the educational system, to continue the tradition of the "dual
"culture" in Iran. Another weakness of the study is, its lack of comparison with older textbooks before the 1979 revolution (Al-Khomeini's revolution). Nevertheless, it is a good idea to have a follow-up analysis of these textbooks 22 years since the establishment of the Islamic Republic of Iran.

Another study on the effect of education in the formation of the enemy image is conducted by Sheety (1999) who explores how Arabic textbooks for students (7 grade) in Lebanon, Syria, Egypt, Jordan, the West Bank, and Israel (for Arabic schools only) deal with three topics: (1) land; (2) the enemy; (3) heroes. His results indicate that textbooks ignore the peace process topic and focus on hostility towards the enemy.

3.3.4.2 Media

A number of studies found that the media are an important source of information for children in forming their perceptions and attitudes towards others (Al-Monofi, 1988; Al-Saraf, 1998; Conway et al, 1981), but that their impact is more limited in forming their political attitudes. However, while the evidence is less plentiful, several studies have suggested that exposure to the mass media can influence attitudes, perceptions and images (Roberts et al, 1991; Silverstein, 1989a).

Hesse and Mack (1991) hypothesise that children's views of the enemy are affected by programmes which they have seen on television. They studied 160 episodes of eight of the most highly rated children's cartoon shows, and analysed the images of enemy and the political and ideological messages conveyed in them. The study's findings
indicated that children are led to believe that the heroes they identify with are all good, and that the enemy is all evil. Furthermore, it is conveyed to them that there is one ultimate enemy, a Nazi - Soviet - Arab stranger who is the personification of all evil and needs to be contained and destroyed. In addition, from these programmes, children learn that the world is divided without qualification into people and forces of good and evil. The good people tend to be like them (American); evil people are usually from foreign countries. The evil people, or enemies, are portrayed as aggressors who tend to strike first; hence, children learn that the world is a dangerous place. The authors concluded that television is a powerful medium through which children gain their view of the world and their ideas about human relationships. Although this study is important in investigating the effect of television on children's formation and perceiving of enemy images, the analytic approach which was used for children's cartoon shown is not clear. Furthermore, no demographic information regarding the children's age, education and location are presented. In addition, some variables may be confounding variables which should be controlled, such as age and the period of watching the cartoons. Also, the result revealed that some children identify with the enemy, but there was no discussion of this finding. It would have been helpful to have had a contrast group of children who watched cartoons which contained no violence to determine whether any influence were indeed systematic. Nevertheless, the study provides some useful suggestions for parents and teachers in dealing with television programs.
Rutland (1999) found that national prejudice was shown only towards Germans among British children. He suggested that negative images of Germans possibly stem from the frequently unsympathetic representation of Germans as the 'enemy' in British war stories found in children's comic books, films and television programmes.

Studies of Australian children (Connell, 1971) demonstrated that children do not develop their cognitive structures regarding other nations on the basis of experience. The studies found that early in children's views, images of the enemy took the form of fantasy figures, which presented a threat to the children's warm and safe places. With age, however, they became increasingly political, first against the Vietnamese, whom the Australians were fighting at the time, then of communists in general. Studies conducted in the 1960s found that as American children grew older, they increasingly named Russians as the people they most disliked. American children's information about most nationalities came, at age 6, from the media, and to a lesser extent, from their parents; at age 10 from the media, and to some extent, from school; and at age 14 from school and from the media (Lambert and Klineberg, 1967; Silverstein, 1989a).

3.3.4.3 Political events

The impact of international conflict on the well being and formation of attitudes including attitudes towards the enemy among children and adults has received increasing attention by researchers (e.g. Hadi and Liabre, 1998; Punamaki, 1996; Ziv et al, 1974). For example, Thompson (1991) has examined the attitudes of 1154 students of Geography in 10 countries in a questionnaire about enemy images and
their views of other nations. Results show that college students show a favourable approach to disarmament and did not hold pejorative views about Russia, though there were significant national differences. There was still an image of the enemy, but for most respondents this was not the dominant attitude. Hesse and Poklemba (1988) found an image of the political enemy among American Jewish children, and also among children growing up in conflict-ridden countries.

Some studies found that war has an effect in the formation and maintenance of the enemy image. For example, Ziv et al, (1974) studied the psychological reactions of 521 children (aged 9 to 13 years old) in Israeli settlements subjected to frequent artillery shelling in the period following the 1967 Arab-Israeli War, and compared their reactions with those of 287 children never subjected to shelling. He found that the shelled children demonstrated stronger patriotism, more attachment to their homes and residences and more covert aggression than did the non-shelled children. In addition, that they did not find that any differences between the shelled and the non-shelled groups emerged with respect to attitudes towards the war, desire for peace, or overt aggressiveness towards the enemy. However, a criticism to be made of this study is, that the authors have studied attitudes towards the place of residence, war, enemy and aggressiveness, which are normally affected by war, rather than studying stress. So, there were no instruments to measure stress directly or indirectly. Furthermore, the authors used a control group (non-shelled children), but the procedure of control group matching was not presented and nor was the validity or reliability of the scales reported. The authors, be fair, do consider alternative explanations for their findings
particularly for the unexpected result that there was no significant difference between
the stressed versus the non-stressed children with respect to attitudes to the war and
over aggressiveness towards the enemy.

Salazar and Marin (1977) found that territorial border conflict has effects on a people
and their evaluation of their own nationals and those of the other country. In their
study, they chose 211 university students in Caracas, Venezuela, and 218 university
students in Bogota, Colombia. The subjects were presented with a booklet, which
contained two different measures. In the first part, the subjects characterised the
different groups in a free format and were given the names of the national groups and
were asked to write the traits, which characterised them. The second part presented
the subjects with the same national groups to be evaluated on a semantic differential
(SD) containing five evaluative scales. The pairs used were good-bad, desirable-
undesirable, fortunate-unfortunate, loved-hated, and pleasant (simpatico)-unpleasant.
The authors found that in four of the five SD scales, both groups evaluated themselves
in similarly positive ways. They also found that both heterostereotypes are negative
and equally so when the SD data are considered. Salazar and Marin's study indicates
that conflict is an important factor in furthering negative stereotypes between
proximate nations. Although the results give some support to the mirror image
hypothesis, there is no mention of other factors, which may affect national stereotypes
such as cognitive factors. In additional, authors discussed marginally significant
results without the support of relevant theory.
In a study of attitudes to violence in English and Northern Irish schoolchildren, Lorenc and Branthwaite (1986) applied a questionnaire relating to eight examples of political and non-political violence. Their subjects were 178 children, aged 10-11 years, who came from six primary schools, four in Northern Ireland and two in England. Sex, religion and geographical location distinguished the children. They studied the effects of the troubles in Northern Ireland on schoolchildren's moral judgements, which were tested by comparing them with those of children in England. In addition, the study attempted to test the hypothesis that children who support violence towards the security forces will generalise this lack of respect to other authority figures. The findings indicated that (a) the English boys condoned violence from a policeman while the English girls and Irish boys and girls thought that it was wrong, (b) the English boys condoned violence to a teacher while the English girls and Irish boys and girls thought that this was certainly wrong, (c) Irish children condoned corporal punishment from a teacher, (d) The Northern Irish and English children's judgements of the actions involving authority figures did not differ, nor were there any differences due to religion.

However, other factors could be related with the enemy image concept such as threat. For example, Amir (1976) showed that residential contact between whites and Negroes increased the whites' hostility towards Negroes. Amir commented that, in both these cases, the Negro population had invaded the area and the white population regarded the invasion as a threat to their status. This result indicates that a threat may increase hostility and prejudice.
Similar studies have been carried out in the past ten years to determine whether exposure to, or living, in a threatened environment may develop the enemy image or has ill-effects on the people concerned. For example studies, which address the effect of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait on the Kuwaiti people have reported that the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait terrorised the Kuwaiti people and has had long-lasting effects on their lives. Children were most affected by the invasion and by the subsequent Desert Storm War.

Al-Sahal (1993) found psychological and social effects suffered by Kuwaiti children after the Iraqi aggression. These comprised sleeping disturbance, behavioural disturbance, mood condition disturbance (reaction), phobias, aggressiveness, health problems and disturbed social relations.

El-Kheraphi (1993) examined the state of anxiety manifested by the children of Kuwaitis killed or taken prisoner in the war. She found significant anxiety trait-state differences between these two groups.

In a comparative study conducted in the early period of the Gulf crisis following the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, Al-Eissa (1995) investigated the psychological reactions of Kuwaiti children to war-related stress in the early period (October 1990) of the Gulf crisis following the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait in the summer of 1990. He interviewed 106 Kuwaiti children as cases and 120 Saudi children as controls, their ages ranging from 7 to 14 years. The finding indicated that Kuwaiti children suffered more
psychosomatic disorders, anxiety and depression, aggressive behaviour, withdrawal from society and emotional disturbances and hostility than Saudi children. Al-Eissa's findings supported the notion that a negative relationship exists between armed conflict and the health and behaviour of the children. This was the first study to attempt to analyse the impact of the Iraqi invasion on Kuwaiti children. The strengths of this study include an adequate description of the characteristics of the sample, the use of a control group and revealing the significance findings. A major weakness of the study, however, is that the validity and reliability of the questionnaire are not presented.

Abdullatif (1995), building on the findings of Al-Eissa (1995), and studied the prevalence of depression among middle-school Kuwaiti students following the Iraqi invasion. He found that there was a difference in the depressive reaction between subjects who experienced having a martyr or a prisoner of war in the family from those who did not experience stressful events. The findings also indicated that boys reported more depressive symptoms than girls.

In an attempt to investigate the residual psychological effects of the Iraqi invasion on Kuwaiti children. Hadi and Liaber (1994) developed a structured crisis interview to assess Kuwaiti children's level of exposure to violence during the Iraqi occupation of Kuwait, as well as their current status. It was used with 191 Kuwaiti boys and girls of 8 and 12 years, approximately 10 to 15 months after the Gulf crisis (1990). The interview, which lasts approximately 20 minutes, contains 40 questions, it begins by
asking the children some general questions about their TV watching habits, and goes on to ask them where they were during the crisis. It includes items such as whether they had been arrested and whether their parents had been arrested. The interview also contains questions regarding current experiences (see Appendix F1 for the Hadi and Liaber's questionnaire). For the administration of the crisis interview, the child was seated comfortably in a chair across from the interviewer and told that his/her blood pressure and heart rate were to be recorded prior to and during the interview. An automated Dinamap blood pressure monitor (Model 1846SX) was used for this procedure. The interviewer then attached the blood pressure cuff to the right arm of the child. Any questions the children might have had were answered at this time, and the child was asked to rest quietly for 20 minutes. The blood pressure monitor was set to take automatic measurements every 3 minutes. The last three readings during this rest period were averaged to yield the baseline values. The blood pressure and heart rate readings were also taken every three minutes during the interview session. The initial two readings during the general part of the interview were averaged to get a value associated with speaking. The three highest readings during the crisis interview period were averaged and used as the crisis interview levels.

The structured crisis interview checklist consists of 17 items describing events which were typically experienced by Kuwaiti children during the Iraqi invasion.

These items are listed below:

1. Were you hurt by Iraqis during the Crisis?
2. Was your father hurt during the crisis by Iraqis?
3. Was your mother hurt during the crisis by Iraqis?
4. Were any of your relatives hurt during the crisis?
5. Was any person you know (other than relatives) hurt during the crisis by Iraqis?
6. Were you arrested during the crisis?
7. Were any of your relatives arrested during the crisis?
8. Did any of your family or relatives disappear during the crisis?
9. Are your family or relatives back now?
10. Did you see anyone being killed or executed by Iraqis during the crisis?
11. Did you see anyone being tortured by Iraqis during the crisis?
12. Did you see anyone injured or dead?
13. Did you see any injured or dead people on TV?
14. Did you see any pictures of anyone who was injured or killed?
15. Did you feel at any moment that you were going to be killed by Iraqis?
16. Did you feel at any moment that you were going to be hurt by Iraqis?
17. Did you feel at any moment that your family members were going to be hurt by Iraqis?

Responses to these 17 items from the interview, specifically related to exposure to violence during the crisis were used to place the children into two groups. These items were classified in a yes/no format.

Children in the low exposure group were either out of the country during the time of the crisis and did not have a parent who had been arrested, or had been in Kuwait during all or part of the crisis but responded "no" to questions about whether they or their parents had been arrested or hurt by Iraqis and responded "yes" to five or fewer items in the crisis interview. Children in the high exposure group had been in Kuwait for all or part of the crisis, and either responded "yes" to questions of whether they or their parents had been arrested or hurt by Iraqi soldiers, or responded "yes" to six or
more of the crisis interview items. All 191 boys and girls met these criteria for classification. There were 112 children in the low exposure group, and 79 in the high exposure group. The items were also summed to obtain a continuous measure of exposure level.

Hadi and Liaber (1994) selected three items referring to the children's status to score individually. These were:

1. How often do you think about the bad experiences you had during the crisis?
2. Do you have trouble sleeping?
3. Is your life back to normal now?

The first of these items had a 5-point scale ranging from "all the time" to "never". The last two items were dichotomously scored.

The authors showed the percentages of boys and girls reporting experiencing various violent or traumatic events. When the authors examined these percentages across categories, they found that there was no significant difference between boys and girls on the exposure score from the Crisis Interview (CI). As the table also shows, almost all of the children had been exposed to violence through television news. Approximately two-thirds of the sample had had a relative who was arrested. More direct experiences of violence, such as witnessing a person killed or being personally hurt, had been experienced by a very small percentage of this sample (see Table 4.10).
Hadi and Liaber (1994) reported the following results:

- Health problems after the crisis were moderately related to level of exposure and to the status items.
- There were significant relationships between level of exposure and current status.
- The difference in systolic blood pressure reactivity between the boys and girls was not significant when changing from baseline to speaking in general, but was significantly greater in the girls when changing from speaking about TV viewing to speaking about the crisis \[ F(1, 187) = 5.42, p < .05 \].
- The change in diastolic blood pressure from speaking in general to speaking about the crisis was significantly greater in the high exposure group than in the low exposure group \[ F(1, 187) = 5.42, p < .05 \]. No significant difference between these groups was noted in the change from baseline to speaking in general.
- Speaking about the crisis significantly increased blood pressure and heart rate levels beyond those observed during the initial speaking interval. Gender differences in systolic blood pressure \[ F(1, 187) = 6.90, p < .01 \] and heart rate \[ F(1, 187) = 22.36, p < .001 \] levels were observed, with girls having higher mean values than boys. No overall level differences in blood pressure or heart rates were noted between the high and low exposure groups.
- The link between the experience of trauma and increased somatic symptoms in children was supported.
- Girls have a more pronounced sympathetic reaction to trauma than boys.

Abdel-Khalek (1997) surveyed the fear-eliciting stimuli associated with the Iraqi aggression among a sample of Kuwaiti children and adolescents. The sample consisted
of 2084 Kuwaiti school children (1,020 boys and 1,063 girls), ranging from 13 to 17 years old. 30 items were used in the study, which were derived from a large-scale previous survey of situations and objects, which cause fear or distress among Kuwaiti school children. The results indicated that, for girls many different items referring directly to the Iraqi aggression as well as significant age-group differences in the level of fear emerged. There were also differences in the perception of danger and the meaning of atrocities between younger and older children. Abdel-Khalek's study, however, takes a large sample, and has a good internal consistency. In addition to that test-retest reliability and construct validity are reported. It should be noted that the author claimed to have surveyed the fears associated with Iraqi aggression among Kuwaiti children and adolescents, as mentioned in the title of study. However, he focused on the gender variable (boys - girls) rather than the age variable (children - adolescents).

3.3.5 Function and Influence of enemy image

The other important issue associated with enemy images is the need to have enemies. This leads us to the question: What are the advantages and disadvantages of having an enemy? In other words, what are the consequences of having an enemy - and is there any relationship between the enemy image and psychological disorders?

As regards the function of the enemy or the advantages of having an enemy, the idea that enemies serve a function for societies and for individuals has attracted the attention of researchers from a wide range of disciplines and perspectives (Keen,
1986; Ponumaki, 1987; Silverstein 1989a, 1989b; Silverstein and Holt, 1989; Spielmann, 1984; Volkan, 1988; White, 1977). In this context, much of the theory on enemy images by psychologists is presented from the psychodynamic perspective. For example, according to Ponamaki (1996), psychoanalytic research has suggested that the enemy is important because it functions as the focus of fear and hate as well as the target of displacement and projection of one's own undesired impulses (e.g., Gladstone, 1959; Silverstein, 1989a).

Ginath and Krasilowsky (1970) studied Israeli civilians during the 1967 war, and claimed that verbal aggression towards the enemy can function in ventilating feelings among the civilian population and would, therefore, act to protect mental health in wartime.

As indicated earlier, that there are different views about the effect on people of having an enemy. The impact of this could be related to personal ideologies; however, having an enemy has two different faces, one positive and other negative. In other words, some people find salient advantages in having an enemy; others may find it has destructive effects on their life. For example, many studies looking at the negative side of having an enemy found that the enemy image could lead people to anticipate hostile behaviour on the part of the enemy, and sometimes to display hostility towards the enemy based solely upon this anticipation (Silverstein and Flamenbaum, 1989). For example, Escalona (1946), after analysing three children who showed overt sympathy for the enemy (Germany and Japan) during the Second World War, concluded that
these children were so afraid of a possible attack by the enemy that they identified with the enemy in order to escape this threat. He also found that these children had in common a conscious hatred for all or some important people in their environment.

Miller (1981) argues the opposite: strong aggression towards the enemy is characteristic of people suffering from deep anxiety and psychological problems. She based her observations on her psychoanalysis of the war generation in Europe.

Another body of research on enemy image examined the enemy image's effect on the attitudes and behaviours of individuals (Baumgarten and Prescott, 1928; Carmil and Breznits, 1991; Escalona, 1946; Gladstone, 1959; Rofe and Weller, 1981; Volkan, 1988; Wiseman and Duck, 1995).

One of the important issues related to the effects of the enemy image on the attitudes and behaviours of individuals is trust and cooperation with others. These two concepts may be affected by the degree of hostility or friendship existing between individuals. Consequently, much effort has gone into empirical investigations of the way in which people actually behave in the Prisoner’s Dilemma game (PDG) situations, especially when playing with a person who is liked or disliked.

An enormous number of studies have used the Prisoner’s Dilemma Game (PDG). We will, however, comment on the limitations of the PDG as a way of measuring the psychological distance between liked and disliked individuals. For example, Oskamp
and Perlman (1965) reported that in less competitive, small-college environments, there is a positive correlation between the degree of friendship and co-operative behaviour in the Prisoners Dilemma Game (PDG). A similar finding was obtained in a study by McClintock and McNeal (1967). They found, when using the PDG, that subjects having a friendly relationship responded more co-operatively than those who were hostile or who had not had any previous acquaintance with their opponent. Significant differences occurred in the co-operative/competitive behaviour of the subjects based on ethnic grouping. Previous research by Madsen (1967) also supports the notion of greater cooperation among black children than among white children. Richmond and Weiner (1973) found that blacks were very cooperative with other blacks compared to their level of co-operation with whites. They found that Negro children were more co-operative than white children. The findings of the above studies suggest that there is a positive correlation between liking and cooperation.

Attitudes towards authority figures (e.g., parents, policeman, teacher... etc) may affect the distorted perception held by individuals, i.e., viewing the authority figures as disliked or enemies.

A number of studies have reported that enemy images, both direct and indirect, are associated with traumatic experiences (Al-Saraf, 1998; Lewis and Fox, 1993), problems of psychological adjustment (Punamaki et al, 1997) and war-related stress and the psychological and mental consequences of armed conflict (Al-Eissa, 1995; Baumgarten and Prescott, 1928; Povrzanovic, 1997).
In fact, armed conflicts have resulted in fear, injury and death, in destruction of homes and property and in periods of displacement and uncertainty. Wartime is a period in which families are required to cope with vastly increased stresses. Furthermore, these difficulties do not end when the war is over. Warfare disrupts the experience of social relationships through the killing and separation of people (Ager, 1996). Survivors face bereavement, persistent intrusive images of trauma and enemy images, particularly when the enemy appears satanic and very aggressive, for example, Hitler, Saddam Hussein or Milosovits. Then, one can hardly be expected to forget him.

Several studies found that being in a highly stressful environment can lead to extremely negative attitudes towards the enemy, whether a person or nation (Al-Rashidi, 1999; Al-Saraf, 1998; Baumgarten and Prescott, 1928; Carmil and Breznits, 1991; Garbarina et al, 1991, Hesse and Poklemba, 1988; Povzanovic, 1997). For example, Ziv, Kruglanski and Schulman (1974) found that children who had been shelled in Israel exhibited a greater degree of covert aggression towards the enemy than did non-shelled children.

Long-term mental health concerns may arise even when that child has access to parental protection in the short term. Subsequently, children exposed to the stress of extreme violence (such as in Cambodia) may reveal mental health disturbances years after the immediate experience is over. For example, a follow-up study of Cambodian children who experienced the moral and psychological devastation of the Pol Pot
regime in 1974-1979 revealed that four years after leaving Cambodia, 50% of the children developed Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) (Garbarino et al, 1991).

3.4 Studies on children's perception of others

This section of the literature review will review the studies examining the children's images of, and attitudes towards, other people and nations.

3.4.1 Children's attitudes toward others

Many researchers have studied children's perceptions of the other. Some of them have focused on children's attitudes towards other nations (e.g., Alvik, 1968; Cooper, 1965; Lambert and Klineberg, 1967; Piaget and Weil, 1951; Targ, 1970). Others have paid more attention to the development of children's views on conflict, war and peace (Hoffman and Bizman, 1996; Jahoda, 1963a, 1963b; Rosell, 1968), and childhood orientation in the political system, international politics, and political attitudes (Easton and Hess, 1965; Haque and Lawson, 1980; Olson, 1995; Punamaki, 1996).

There is clear evidence in the investigations of the above studies that demographic factors such as age, gender, ethnic, race and nationality have played some role in the children's attitudes towards their own countries and other people or nations and therefore, on the likelihood of perceiving them as liked or disliked objects.

Concerning age, for example, as a influence factor in children's views of foreign nations, a basic finding of many studies is that children as young as 6 years old generally express strong positive feelings for their own nation and for traditional
national symbols (e.g., Hess and Torney, 1967). By approximately age 10, many children develop strong negative feelings towards enemy or rival nations (Middleton et al, 1970, Oskamp, 1991).

Based on their interviews with Swiss children, Piaget and Weil (1951) concluded that children first develop the ability to locate themselves geographically and to understand the concept of their nation, and thereafter they develop reciprocity, the ability to understand that foreigners have their own nations about which they feel pride.

In an earlier study (Jahoda, 1962), it was found that 65% of the sample of Glasgow children surveyed were aware of their city and their country. Parallel to the ability to identify one's own nation, Jahoda's children could increasingly name other nations in patterns with age. Where six and seven-year olds, when asked to name other countries, did so in a random way, older children would name Norway and Sweden, France, Spain and Italy, thus conceptualising nations in terms of their geographic relationship. When Jahoda's children were asked which countries they liked and which they disliked, the youngest children preferred Africa, Canada and India, and they disliked Germany. (47% of the children aged six and seven had no dislikes.) The eight and nine-year-old Glasgow children liked France, America and Switzerland for material reasons (vacations, cars), and disliked Germany and Japan because of World War II. The ten- and eleven-year-old group added Canada to the above preferences, and Russia and China were mentioned for the first time on the negative side -
demonstrating that the children were becoming inculcated in the adult Cold War dialogue.

Cooper (1965) asked English respondents to judge whether, in World War II, Japan and England were right in going to war. The older children of 14 to 16 most often attributed wrongness to Japan and rightness to England, suggesting a dyadic 'invariant of morality' development with age. Middleton, Taifel and Johnson (1970) reported that although the ability to take the point of view of people from other nations did develop with age among the English children they studied, the children had most difficulty in empathising with people from nations they disliked.

Hess and Toney (1967) found a significant attachment to the nation-state in the 17,000 American elementary school children whom they interviewed in the early 1960s. When these children were asked if America was the best country, they usually responded affirmatively. When asked why America was the best country, many children stated it was because of democracy - but very few children before the sixth grade were able to define what "democracy" meant. The attitudes of children before the sixth grade were typically generalisations: America was best because it was a democracy, communism was seen as bad, even though very few children were able to define either democracy or communism (Hess and Toney 1967, pp.25-26). It is interesting to note that all of these children had received instruction about the principles of democracy beginning in the third grade, thus this finding provides support for the cognitive developmental model (Hess and Toney, 1967, p.26). The
findings of this study reveal that not only do American children feel that their country is the best, they also feel that their language is the best.

Based on studies of American children, Targ (1970) examined the international political orientation of 244 fourth, fifth and sixth grade American children (aged nine to twelve years). He found that children tended to develop positive evaluations of the United States and negative evaluations of the Soviet Union and China. Further important findings were that children at relatively early ages began to develop orientations to international politics, as well as that the adult political culture began to affect the young child's choice of good and bad nations.

Duck (1991) argued that the children's concept of self and others conducted and suggested a different development stage based on the notion of dislike. In very young children ages, dislike is expressed through behaviour, not through words. Children of about 5 years old will be able to express dislike for others but do not give specific or satisfactory reasons. At this age, and right up until about 8 years, the reasons that children give for disliking someone are not direct opposites of the reasons, which they give for liking someone. As mentioned earlier, they dislike people who fight or are rough, while they like people who give them sweets or play with them. Silverstein and Holt (1989) had similar findings in that the child learns that members of in-groups (family, classmates and other primary groups of which the youngster is a member) are safe, while strangers and other members of out-groups are, or may be, dangerous.
Lambert and Kleinberg (1967) used a cross-cultural approach in eleven different areas of the world: the United States, Bantu children in South Africa, Brazil, English Canada, French Canada, France, Germany, Israel, Japan, Lebanon, and Turkey. In each area, 300 children at three age levels (6, 10, and 14) were interviewed at length by native interviewers. The sample was carefully selected from among lower-class and middle-class urban children, but was not representative of the whole nation's child population.

The structured interviews with the children concentrated on their conceptions of their own national groups, on which foreign peoples were similar to or different from them, and on liked and disliked nationalities. The findings of the study indicate that nearly all nations' children regarded their own people as good. Russians were seen as "good" less often than they were seen as "aggressive". One important factor in these findings was that this study was done during the Cold War period and almost entirely among allies of the United States rather than of Russia. The authors concluded that the stereotyping process gets its start in children's early conceptions of their own group, and that between the ages of 6 and 14, children develop increasingly stereotyped views of foreign peoples.

3.5 Summary and General Critical Evaluation

The literature review fell into three main sections. The first covered the literature on mental image. The second section examined literature on the enemy image, including attitudes towards the enemy, the mirror image hypothesis, the measurement of the
enemy image phenomenon, the contributory factors in enemy image formation, such as socialisation and ideology, the media, political events, and the function and influence of enemy image. The third body of research focused on children's perception of other peoples and nations. The children's attitude towards other nations was also discussed in this section.

Many of the studies reviewed examined the mental image, the topic of the image of the enemy and the issues related to it as well as children's perception of others. Most of these studies have strengths as well as weaknesses. The critical evaluation, however, of the literature review will be discussed according to the ways in which conceptualisation, method, results and discussion were stated, addressed and analysed.

A- Conceptualisation

1- Theoretical and empirical studies which were made of children's and adults attitudes towards other nations, particularly those conducted by early researchers (e.g., Alvik, 1968; Boulding, 1959; Cooper, 1965; Jahoda, 1962) were useful for psychologists and politicians in the past because the children's attitudes towards other nations reflected their parents' attitudes towards those nations.

2- Some of the previous studies focused on dislike, others on enmity, although the dislike of and enmity against peers are not synonymous.
3- The studies ignored the importance of the children's self-image or self-esteem to them, and none asked the question: When a child perceives him/ herself as a good person, would he / she then view others in the same light, and would the opposite be true? Another related issue is that, typically, children like people who play with them, but why do some children like the enemy and sometimes identify with him? None of the studies, including those done by Duck (1991) gives us an answer to this question.

4- Age was an important factor in the studies which investigated children's concepts of the self and the other and enmity development among children, but no other important factors were highlighted, such as socialisation and the media, two factors which may influence the development of liking and disliking in children.

5- Some studies, which have contributed to the body of literature on the enemy image, approach this concept from a different angle. For example, Olson's study (1995) presented evidence that the enemy image concept is a mutual concept among all the human sciences when she investigated it from the social perspective and the role of parents in enmity formation. She found that children's perception of the "other" is influenced by larger historical and cultural events, as well as the portrayal of these groups by the larger agencies of society. Another study examined the relationship between the Prisoner's Dilemma Game (PDG) and hostility or friendship (Oskamp and Perlman, 1965).
6- Most of the studies focused on the enemy image resulting from national or international conflicts. Others studied the enemy image in personal relationships and viewed the enemy as someone opposed to the friend or liked person, so both groups of studies addressed the enemy term in a more specific and limited way. None of these attempted to examine the enemy term broadly.

B- Method

1- Although some studies aimed at measuring the enemy image (e.g., Baumgarten and Prescott, 1928; Hesee and Poklemba, 1988; Kloep, 1991; Punamaki, 1996), none developed a specific test or scale by which to do the measuring. The only tools available were verbal interviews, drawings of the enemy, or general attitudes. A few studies (Hayes et al, 1980; Rofe and Weller, 1981) examined the personality characteristics, and determined whether they were associated with dislike or enmity. These studies were limited to pre-school children.

2- In terms of the population about which the researchers wanted to generalise, most studies did not include control groups. Additionally, some samples were inappropriate in terms of lack of demographic information, inappropriate handling of confounding variables and oversampling of the representation; hence, the generalisability of the findings will be limited.
3- Statistically, the differences between groups are not reported in some studies. Furthermore, advanced statistical methods are not used but only percentages or frequencies.

4- Using one instrument to investigate the enemy image was found in most previous studies. It would be better to use more than one method to address such a topic as the enemy image, which contains social, political, cognitive and emotional aspects.

5- More than one of the studies which investigated attitudes towards the enemy, chose subjects who were not growing up in conflict-ridden countries or who had had no exposure to war. So their attitudes towards the enemy were not as expressive and in addition their images of the enemy were not clear.

C- Results and Discussion

1- There is no mention of related theories in the discussions of some studies. However, some authors consider alternative explanations for their findings.

2- Theoretical and practical applications and implications have been provided in some studies, furthermore, their limitations were noted.

3- No evidence was provided to support the author's claims in some studies.
In the light of the evaluation of the literature review, we will attempt in the present study to benefit from the strengths of others and avoid their weaknesses. A specific test for measuring the enemy image will be developed and more attention will be given to investigating the relationship between the enemy image and personality variables using multiple measures.
Chapter Four

Method

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Study Design

4.3 Pilot Study

4.3.1 Choice of Instruments

4.3.1.1 Enemy Image Scale

4.3.1.2 Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire

4.4 Main Study

4.4.1 Sample

4.4.2 Instruments

4.4.2.1 Crisis Interview

4.4.2.2 Semantic Differential Scale

4.4.2.3 Draw-A-Person Test

4.4.2.4 Prisoner's Dilemma Game

4.4.3 Procedure

4.4.4 Hypotheses

4.4.5 Statistic Used

4.5 Summary
CHAPTER FOUR

METHOD

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will describe the design of this study, and the methodology used. It begins with study design, then explains the pilot study and the choice of the two main instruments which were applied with the study sample. A description is provided of the main study, including the sample and how it was chosen. Further instruments used for collecting the data and the steps taken to obtain data from the study subjects are described. The chapter also details the data collection, the procedure, the study hypotheses and the methods used to analyse the data.

4.2 Study Design

The study design was a correlational design using cross-sectional survey methodology and including a number of instruments. The study was also differential in design. The purpose of the design was to investigate the differences between experimental and control groups and to correlate their scores on certain tests. The subjects were selected randomly and received the same tests, except for two tests which were not administered to the control group.

4.3 Pilot Study

In order to develop the study along sound lines, a pilot study was needed to test the entire study procedures for the main study. The pilot study, in brief, is a procedure that
can indicate whether the study procedures are sound and, if not, what adjustments, modifications, changes, omissions, and development are needed at each stage, from the formulation of the study problem to the analysis of the data. Furthermore, the pilot study was conducted to test the tools which are used in this study, and to examine their efficiency in achieving the study objectives. In other words, the aim of the pilot study was to endorse the use of the instruments, to carry out initial analysis, and to discover whether there would be any difficulties in applying them.

The pilot study was conducted over a period of four weeks, during which time all schools were visited in order to apply the instruments. The principals or vice-principals of the schools were informed about the aims of the study and were given the letter of permission which had been obtained from the Ministry of Education (see Appendix A). In Kuwait, the Ministry of Education has to grant its permission for research to be conducted in schools. Once this permission has been obtained, people are very co-operative and random access to students becomes easy. During the visit to the schools, the children were interviewed in their classrooms and answered the tests.

4.3.1 Choice of Instruments

Two main instruments were used in the pilot study. One was the Enemy Image Scale (EIS), which was designed by the present researcher to measure the children's perception of the enemy, and the process of developing the scale is outlined below. This scale was administered to all subjects. The other instrument was the Children’s Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ). This questionnaire is American in
origin, and has been used previously and standardised in the Arab culture i.e. Egypt and Kuwait (Al-Saeed, 1997; Salamma, 1989). This questionnaire was used to assess the psychological adjustment in the children, and was applied only with the experimental group.

4.3.1.1 Enemy Image Scale (EIS)

The researcher attempted to find an appropriate scale by which to measure the enemy image in children. Unfortunately, there was very little information on such scales (although some used drawings) and he therefore created a new scale to carry out this task. The scale evolved through several steps before reaching its final form. However, we first discuss the theoretical framework of the Enemy Image Scale (EIS) and then turn to how it was constructed.

**Theoretical Framework of the Scale**

There is a difference between the development of an understanding of physical concepts, for example, the explosion of bombs, and the development of an understanding of social concepts, for example, the nature of friendship. The formation of concepts about the physical world generally depends on age or cognitive level. The learning of social concepts, in contrast, is affected by the socialisation and/or education (Covell, 1999).

The concept of the enemy contains both physical and social attributers. The physical attributes of the enemy, for example, the fact it involves weapons and destruction.
These attributions are understood increasingly with age, whereas the social attributes of the enemy, for example, hostility, aggression and harm are understood by their direct experiences and/or as the effect of agencies of socialisation such as family, school and the media. However, the children's perception of the enemy may be understood best within the Piagetian cognitive development framework. According to Piaget's theory, the development of concepts and relational thinking is age-related. Cognitive development, including concept formation, proceeds through qualitatively different stages (Piaget and Inhelder, 1966). For example, older children think about the enemy categorically differently from younger ones.

Empirical research on the conceptualizing of enemy and friend, as a concept related to the enemy, has confirmed that with age children's explanations involve more structural complexity and abstract, universal qualities (Al-Mononfi, 1993; Duck, 1991; Hayes et al, 1996; Hesse and Poklemba, 1987, 1988). Young children's reasoning is practical, based on immediate experiences, and accordingly they describe or draw the enemy in the form of concrete enemy senses: "the enemy has strong and long hands to catch people". Schoolchildren (children at the concrete operational stage) are capable of thinking logically with regard to concrete issues and their own experiences, and their conceptualization of the enemy involves mutual relationships between nations and people. Finally, adolescents (children at the formal operational stage) and adults are able to think abstractly, hypothetically, and universally (Piaget, 1951; Piaget and Inhelder, 1966).
A cross-cultural study (Hesse and Poklemba, 1988) has reported that young children (4 to 6 year olds) describe the enemy as something threatening, destroying people by robbing, fighting, shooting or eating them and they believe that the enemy has always been bad. By the time they have reached adolescence, young people show signs of an emerging awareness of the more political dimensions of enmity. For example, they show an understanding of the international nature of conflict and enmity. Global and abstract images (e.g., nuclear war, and racism) replace monsters and bullies as enemies in the adolescent mind.

On the basis of the above discussion, we conceive of the enemy image as consisting of three main structural components. The first is the physical component, including features such as hugeness, form and distortion. The second is the psychological component which includes malice, anger, intelligence and behaviour. The third component consists of the social and moral aspects such as intimacy, dealing with people and morality.

We focus here on the enemy as a whole image, and in children the physical component is assumed to be the core dimension of the enemy in children, and is a trigger which may evoke the two other components (i.e. psychological and social components). Typically, when a young child to describe the enemy, he will began with the physical characteristics such as eyes, hands and/or face. An older child describes it in social terms such as competence, prejudice and/or hostility.
The Enemy Image Scale is based on two basic theoretical assumptions: (a) the child can describe the enemy as a whole, while failing to describe it elaborately; (b) children are sufficiently insightful to describe their own feeling and thoughts about the enemy. This assumption is derived from the formal operations stage (11 to 14 years) in Piaget's theory which states that children are able to introspect about their own thought processes and, generally, can think abstractly.

We will turn now to the steps, which were taken by the present researcher in the construction of EIS. These steps may be described as follows:

1. **Reviewing psychological literature**

   Studies and papers relating to the concept of enemy and some tests and experiments which have been applied to children or adults regarding the enemy image, enmity, liking, disliking, friendship and hostility were examined. The aim of the examination was to determine the concept of the enemy image, as well as what would be the best method to examine children's thoughts, feelings and attitudes towards the concept of the enemy and the enemy image.

2. **Interview and open-ended questions**

   The second step was to collect all data relating to children's personal or political enemies (in the form of statements and/or stories). To do this, preliminary interviews were conducted with a small sample (10 boys and 10 girls, age range 8-14 years) to explore the children's spontaneous ideas about the enemy. The participants were asked
to write an essay entitled *My Enemy* (see Appendix B); they were given 20 minutes for this exercise. The interview was informal and carried out at school during the children's free time. As expected, the interview provided significant variables for the current study and gave the researcher the main characteristics of the enemy image as perceived by children.

The post-interview stage was the construction of a series of 10 open-ended questions about some aspects of the enemy¹ (see Appendix C). These questions were given to 40 Kuwaiti children from Al-Omirya primary school in Al-Farwanya Educational Area. Having obtained the children's responses to the questions, the researcher analysed their contents. The responses were then categorised and coded according to similarity. Finally, a complete draft scale containing 42 items was constructed which was short and easy for the children to understand.

All the questions were to be answered on a 3-point Likert scale where the tested child responds to each item on the scale by stating either **Yes, Uncertain** or **No**. The choices were weighted as follows: Yes = 3; Uncertain = 2; No = 1.

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¹ Three basic dimensions of the enemy were covered: the physical, the psychological, and the social and moral.
3. Scale validity and reliability

The scale items were shown to five separate specialists in the psychology field, who were asked to judge their appropriateness, accuracy and correctness for measurement, to comment on how they were constructed, and to answer the following questions:

1. Do the scale items accomplish the study aim in regard to the enemy image?
2. Do these items cover the basic dimensions of the image of the enemy?
3. Is the 3-point scale appropriate for the scale item?

After the judges gave their comments on the scale, the researcher has analysed their notes. The criterion for retention of an item was that it should be approved by 80% or more of the judges. In other words, an item which obtained agreement from at least four out of five judges would be used (see Table 4.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item numbers</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Number of Judges approving</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 5 7 8 11 15 17 18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 22 25 27 28 30 33 34</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37 38 41</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 3 6 9 13 14 23 26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>29 39 42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4 10 12 19 24 31 32 35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>36 16 20 40</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 Judges' responses to scale items (Scale validity)

2 The specialists in psychology were (1) Professor Raja Abu Allam, Psychology Department, Cairo University, (2) Professor Saad Abdulrahman, Child Psychology Department, Ain Shams University, Cairo, (3) Professor Kamal Morsi, Educational Psychology, Kuwait University, (4) Dr Bader Alomar, Educational Psychology, Kuwait University, (5) Dr Freh Alensy, Psychology Department, Public Authority for Applied Education, Kuwait.
The researcher modified or removed the other items, as the judges suggested, because they were vague or would be difficult for children to understand. 12 items were thus removed. Subsequently, the scale contained 30 remaining items (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Complete Enemy Image Scale before Pilot Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The enemy's face is ugly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The enemy is always evil</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The enemy can become a friend</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The enemy has a huge body</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The enemy deceives people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The enemy's goal is to kill people</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The enemy has a bad smell</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The enemy is malicious</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The enemy likes to sit with people</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The enemy is quick moving</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The enemy is arrogant</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>We can deal with the enemy</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The enemy is a frown</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>The enemy is always angry</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The enemy carries a weapon</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>The enemy's colour is strange</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>The enemy is intelligent</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>The enemy lives in a dark place</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>The enemy has several forms</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>The enemy is a coward</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>People could sometimes be helped by the enemy</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>The enemy's hands and legs are distorted</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>The enemy likes doing people good</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>The enemy respects the law</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>The enemy's eyes are wide</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>There are kind enemies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>The enemy has morals</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>We cannot see the enemy</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>The enemy is weak</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>We should punish each enemy</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
4. Pilot study and final form of scale

The pilot study was conducted to test the scale which would be used in this study, and to examine its efficiency for achieving the study objectives. In other words, the reasons for this pilot study test were:

1. To check the clarity of the scale's items and that they were understood by children.

2. To endorse the use of the instrument (the created scale), to carry out an initial analysis.

3. To discover whether there would be any difficulties in applying it to obtain the final form of the scale.

4. To determine the length of time needed to complete the scale.

5. To measure the reliability of the scale.

This pilot study involved three stages:

1. Permission was obtained from the Ministry of Education to apply the scale on the schoolchildren.

2. The scale was applied to 40 Kuwaiti children, 20 boys from Al-Rabia intermediate school in Al-Farwanya Educational Area, whose mean age was 13.2 years (range 12-14 years, sd 0.84), and 20 girls from Al-Jahra primary
school in Al-Jahra Educational Area, whose mean age was 9.4 years (range 8-10 years, sd 0.79).

3. Participants were given the scale instructions, and encouraged to answer all questions honestly and to indicate any difficulties which faced them in reading or understanding the scale.

Once the questionnaires had been returned, all answers were analysed statistically using SPSS. The participants' responses and frequencies of answers are shown in Table 4.3.
Table 4.3 Participants' responses and answer frequencies on EIS (N=40)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The enemy's face is ugly</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The enemy is always evil</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The enemy can become a friend</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The enemy has a huge body</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The enemy deceives people</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The enemy's goal is to kill people</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>The enemy has a bad smell</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The enemy is malicious</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The enemy likes to sit with people</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>The enemy is quick moving</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>The enemy is arrogant</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>We can deal with the enemy</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>The enemy is a frown</td>
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<td>18.</td>
<td>The enemy lives in a dark place</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>The enemy has several forms</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>The enemy is a coward</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>People could sometimes be helped by the enemy</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>The enemy's hands and legs are distorted</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>The enemy likes doing people good</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>The enemy respects the law</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>The enemy's eyes are wide</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>There are kind enemies</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>The enemy has morals</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>We can not see the enemy</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>The enemy is weak</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>We should punish each enemy</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 shows the correlation between each item and the total score. The internal consistency method of item analysis was used to retain those with the highest correlation.
### Table 4.4 Correlation between each Item and Total Score (EIS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Total Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The enemy's face is ugly</td>
<td>.48**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The enemy is always evil</td>
<td>.47**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The enemy can become a friend</td>
<td>.37*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The enemy has a huge body</td>
<td>.39*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The enemy deceives people</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The enemy's goal is to kill people</td>
<td>.62**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>The enemy has a bad smell</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The enemy is malicious</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The enemy likes to sit with people</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>The enemy is quick moving</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>The enemy is arrogant</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>We can deal with the enemy</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>The enemy has a frown</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>The enemy is always angry</td>
<td>.58**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>The enemy carries a weapon</td>
<td>.70**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>The enemy's colour is strange</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>The enemy is intelligent</td>
<td>-.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>The enemy lives in a dark place</td>
<td>.62**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>The enemy has several forms</td>
<td>.52**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>The enemy is a coward</td>
<td>-.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>People could sometimes be helped by the enemy</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>The enemy's hands and legs are distorted</td>
<td>.37*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>The enemy likes doing people good</td>
<td>.54**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>The enemy respects the law</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>The enemy's eyes are wide</td>
<td>.38*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>There are kind enemies</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>The enemy has morals</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>We can not see the enemy</td>
<td>.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>The enemy is weak</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>We should punish each enemy</td>
<td>.40*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation significant at 0.05 level.
** Correlation significant at 0.01 level.

The internal consistency method (Coefficient Alpha) was used to ascertain reliability.

The Cronbach's alpha was 0.73.
Where the results of the pilot study indicated that the scale needed to be revised, the revision was made. Some items were removed, in particular those which were insignificant or had a low correlation with the total scale:

(5) The enemy deceives people,
(7) The enemy has a bad smell,
(8) The enemy is malicious,
(10) The enemy is quick moving
(11) The enemy is arrogant,
(13) The enemy is a frown,
(17) The enemy is intelligent,
(20) The enemy is a coward,
(26) There are kind enemies,
(29) The enemy is weak.

Some other items were vague or difficult for children to understand without more explanation, such as:

(9) The enemy likes to sit with people,
(16) The enemy's colour is strange,
(21) People could sometimes be helped by the enemy,
(24) The enemy respects the law,
(27) The enemy has morals.

These too were removed; also, the uncertain response option was removed because this choice was confusing for the children and, consequently, the scale was constructed with 15 items. The answers to each question were recorded on a 2-point scale on
which the two points denoted positive or negative attitude towards the enemy. These responses were weighted Yes = 2 and No = 1. The scale score was determined by adding together the ratings of all items. The lowest score was 15, whereas the highest was 30. A high score means that the respondent has an extreme or distorted image of the enemy, while the respondent who gains a low score has a rational or realistic image of the enemy. This final form was called the *Enemy Image Scale* and would be applied in the main study (the listing of the 15 items is shown in Table 4.5 and Appendix D 1 and D 2).

Table 4.5 Final form of Enemy Image Scale (EIS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The enemy's face is ugly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The enemy is always evil</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The enemy has a huge body</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The enemy's goal is to kill people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>We can deal with the enemy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The enemy is always angry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>The enemy carries a weapon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The enemy can become a friend</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The enemy lives in a dark place</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>The enemy has several forms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>The enemy's hands and legs are distorted</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>The enemy likes doing people good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>The enemy's eyes are wide</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>We cannot see the enemy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>We should punish each enemy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The internal consistency method (Coefficient Alpha) was used again to ascertain the reliability of the final scale (15 items). The Cronbach's alpha was 0.81, which indicates acceptable internal consistency for the scale.

**Some Final Comments on the EIS**

The first point concerns the EIS scale and its suitability for the situation. This bears on the concept of measurement in general. Whenever we need to administer a test of some sort we should be aware that the measurement of this concept should be direct and straightforward. This means that when we construct a scale we should write items, which measure the concept we need in the most direct way possible. This makes it easier to interpret the results as represented in the responses of the subjects, since the results are embedded in the items which measure the concept or concepts we have.

The second point is objectivity. The scale should be objectively answered and scored, so that we can get the best picture from the scale concerning the concepts or variables which we are measuring. This point of course is related to the first point in the sense that objective measures are the most direct measures known.

Looking at the EIS in the light of the two points mentioned above would suggest that it is the most suitable scale for measuring children's construction of the enemy. However, it cannot be claimed that the EIS is faultless or a fully complete scale for the measurement of the topic of this study (the enemy image). Like any other scale, the EIS has weaknesses as well as strengths. The strengths of the EIS, for example, include the following:
1. The items are appropriate for schoolchildren (i.e., an effort was made to construct clear and short items to avoid carelessness and tiredness factors in the children).

2. There is good internal consistency (with internal consistency of 0.81, the scale meet the .80 criterion for acceptable internal consistency proposed by Nunnally, 1978).

The weaknesses of the EIS are as follows:

1. We cannot be sure that all aspects of the enemy image have been covered in the scale.

2. It was validated on a relatively small sample (i.e., the sample was 160 children. It could have been bigger).

3. Lack of item discrimination (e.g., the item 10."The enemy has several forms", and item 13. "The enemy's eyes are wide").

4. Faking good (i.e., the scale may be liable to response set problems such as the social desirability response, this may happen when the children tend to ascribe fake goodness for themselves, i.e. the appearance that they are not afraid of the enemy).

5. Need to establish the validity of the scale. This can be done by looking at its correlation with other measures, perhaps comparing the scores of groups known to differ in their attitudes towards the enemy.
Finally, a comment worth making here is why the present study has used an objective approach (i.e., the Enemy Image Scale) to measuring children’s perception of the enemy image instead of a projective approach. It was decided not to use projective techniques to measure children’s perception of the enemy image, for the following reasons:

a. An objective approach to measure the enemy image among Kuwait children would be more appropriate to achieve the study's aims (e.g., the comparison between the Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children).

b. Objective assessment can generate complete independence assessment from examiner effects. Whereas the projective techniques, are contaminated with subjective biases and misinterpretations of the subjects' responses (i.e., that in scoring projective techniques, the examiner's subjective feelings may interfere). Thus, it was felt that by using an objective scale, the scoring of children responses in this Kuwaiti sample can be done objectively with little or no regard to the subjective feelings of the researcher in such an emotional loaded subject as the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait.

c. Constructing a projective technique which could measure the same variable as those measured by EIS would be very laborious and time consuming and could not guarantee the effectiveness of an objective measure.
d. The literature on projective techniques is full of critiques questioning the validity of their results (e.g., Anastasi, 1979). Furthermore, projective techniques have low internal consistency and low retest reliability.

e. The researcher was concerned about future research and the future replication of this scale in Kuwait or other cultures for full benefit of the implication of our results. To make sure that scoring should be identical in such future purposes, we preferred to design scorable and fairly clearly structured test such as the EIS.

f. To minimize of errors of observing, recording, and interpreting his children subjects, the researcher adopted the psychometric approach. A word the design, development, and psychometric properties of the EIS is in order.

4.3.1.2 Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ)
The Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ) is a self-report instrument designed by Ronald Rohner (1984 a) to assess an individual's perception of him/herself (or of his/her child) with respect to seven behavioural dispositions (scales). The vocabulary in the Child PAQ is simplified and therefore more generalised than the adult version. This questionnaire was designed for use with children ranging between seven and twelve years of age.
The questionnaire is composed of 42 items equally distributed among the seven personality and behavioural dispositions, where each disposition holds 6 items. The seven dispositions are as follows:

1. Hostility / Aggression: Hostility is an emotional (internal) reaction or feelings of anger, enmity, anger or resentment directed toward another person, situation or oneself. Hostility is expressed behaviorally (externally) in the form of aggression, an act which is intended to hurt someone or something, usually another person, but sometimes oneself. Aggression is the behavioural manifestation of anger or hostility and is defined as the intention to hurt somebody (or something) physically or psychologically.

2. Dependency: Dependency refers to the emotional reliance of one person on another for comfort, approval, guidance, reassurance and the like. 'Independence', at the other end of the continuum, refers here to the essential absence of such emotional reliance on other people, or at least freedom from the need or wishes to make these bids very frequently.

3. Self-esteem: Self-esteem is a global, emotional evaluation of oneself in terms of worth. Positive feelings of self-esteem imply that a person likes or approves of himself, accepts himself, is comfortable with himself, is rarely disappointed in himself, and perceives himself as being a person of worth, or worthy of respect. Negative self-esteem, on the other hand, implies that a person dislikes or disapproves of himself, is uncomfortable with himself, is disappointed in himself, devalues himself, perhaps feels inferior to others, and perceives himself as being essentially a worthless person or as being worthy of condemnation.
4. **Self-adequacy**: Self-adequacy is an overall self-evaluation of one's competence to perform daily tasks adequately, to cope satisfactory with daily problems, and to satisfy one's own needs. Positive feelings of self-adequacy imply that a person views himself as being a capable person, able to satisfactorily deal with his daily problems, feels that he is a success or capable of success in the things he sets out to do; he is self-assured or self-confident and feels socially adequate. Negative feelings of self-adequacy, on the other hand, imply that a person feels he is an incompetent person, unable to successfully meet or cope with the demands of day-to-day living. He lacks confident self-assurance, often feeling inept; and he sees himself as a failure and as being unable to compete successfully for the things he wants.

5. **Emotional responsiveness**: This refers to a person's ability to express freely and openly his or her emotions, for example, feelings of warmth and affection toward another person. Emotional responsiveness is revealed by the spontaneity and ease with which a person is able to respond emotionally to another person, the extent to which the individual - adult or child - feels comfortable, forming warm, intimate, involved, lasting and non-defensive attachments with other people, attachments that are untroubled by emotional wariness, constriction or lack of trust. The ease with which persons are able to express their sympathy, affection, concern and other such feelings, for example, has to do with emotional responsiveness. The interpersonal relationships of emotionally responsive people tend to be close and personal, and such people have little trouble in responding to the friendship advances of others. In contrast, emotionally unresponsive people are emotionally insulated from others. They have restricted and often only defensive emotional involvement with others. They may, however, be sociable and friendly, but friendliness is not to be confused with the ability to enter into a genuinely intimate relationship.
6. **Emotional Stability:** Emotional stability refers to an individual's steadiness of mood, his or her ability to withstand minor setbacks, failures, difficulties and other stresses without becoming upset emotionally. Emotionally stable persons tolerate minor stresses and strains of day-to-day living without becoming emotionally upset, anxious, nervous or tense. They are able to maintain composure under minor emotional stress and they are not easily angered. They are fairly constant in their basic mood state and they generally revert quickly to that state following those occasions when they have experienced great stress or have been exceptionally provoked. The unstable person, on the other hand, is subject to fairly wide, frequent and often unpredictable mood shifts that swing from pole to pole, perhaps being cheery one moment and gloomy or depressed the next, happy to unhappy, content to dissatisfied, anxious to calm, or warm to hostile. Emotionally unstable people are upset easily by small setbacks, difficulties and disappointments. If they expect something to happen but it does not, they are apt to become angry or dejected. And they often lose their composure under stress.

7. **Worldview:** Worldview refers to a person's (often-unverbalised) overall evaluation of life, of the universe, of the very essence of existence, as being essentially positive or negative. A person with a positive worldview sees life as basically good, secure, friendly, happy or unthreatening, or has some other positive valence. For a person with a negative worldview, on the other hand, life is seen as essentially bad, insecure, threatening, unpleasant, hostile, uncertain, and/or full of many dangers. Worldview, then, is the judgements individuals make about the quality of existence (Rohner, 1984b).

**1. Applying and scoring the Child PAQ**

Instructions on the Child PAQ should be read aloud to children who are poor readers.

In some cases, the entire questionnaire may have to be read to poor readers, but
respondents should be encouraged to complete the questionnaire by themselves if at all possible. It is important that respondents do not dwell for any length of time on any particular item, since the object of the test is to get the respondent's first, overall reaction. In addition, respondents should be reminded that there are no right or wrong answers to the items, and they should be encouraged to report how they really feel about themselves or their child, not how they should like themselves or their child to be. The questionnaire may be administered not only individually but also in groups, since minimal monitoring is required.

The respondents are instructed to read each item and to ask themselves if an item is basically true or untrue about the way they see themselves or believe the child sees him/her. Then they are instructed to tick the appropriate one of four choices: Always true, Sometimes true, Rarely true, Never true. The items are scored as follows:

Always = 4; Sometimes = 3; Rarely = 2; Never = 1.

Rohner's scale was designed to indicate that individuals who achieve a high score on the Child PAQ are regarded as having a poorer mental health status than those who achieve low scores. The total score of the questionnaire is the sum of all sub-scale scores. Therefore, on the total questionnaire, the lowest score is 42, and the highest is 168.
2. Reliability and Validity of Child PAQ

The questionnaire was applied and standardised on American children by Rohner (1984 a), who used Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for testing reliability. The reliability of sub-scales in the American-version questionnaire ranged between 0.63 and 0.74 (Rohner, 1984 a).

As far as the validity of the questionnaire is concerned, the experimental validity was found on the basis of both the total score of each sub-scale of the Child PAQ and the total score of similar scales (Rohner, 1984 a). All correlations were significant. Rohner (1984 a) also determined the factorial validity for the questionnaire.

In the Arab World, Salamah (1989) translated the questionnaire and applied it to Egyptian children, and she found the reliability to range between .65 and .79. It was also applied to Kuwaiti children by Al-Saeed (1997) who re-wrote the questionnaire in the Kuwaiti dialect and found good reliability, 0.76.

3. Pilot Study of Child PAQ

The purpose of using the Child PAQ in the present study is to ascertain how the experience of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait has affected Kuwaiti children's personality and attitudes towards others.

A pilot study was conducted by administering the Child PAQ to a small Kuwaiti sample to ensure the suitability of the items after writing them in the Kuwaiti dialect,
as well as provide internal consistency of the modified questionnaire (see Appendix E). Therefore the questionnaire was applied to 30 children from Qayes Bin Asim Primary School in Al-Farwanya Educational Area as a pilot study. After checking that the children understood the items, the relationship between each item and the total score was calculated (see Table 4.6). Internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha) was .74 for the total score.
Table 4.6 Correlation between each Item and Total Score (Child PAQ)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Correlation with total score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I think about fighting or being mean</td>
<td>.39*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I like my mother to feel sorry for me when I feel sick</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I like myself</td>
<td>-.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel I can do the things I want as well as most people</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I have trouble showing people how I feel</td>
<td>.37*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I feel bad or get angry when I try to do something and I cannot do it</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I feel that life is nice</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I want to hit something or someone</td>
<td>.54**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I like my parents to give me a lot of love</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I feel that I am not good and never will be any good</td>
<td>.42*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I feel I cannot do anything well</td>
<td>.51**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>It is easy for me to be loving with my parents</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I am in a bad mood and grouchy without any good reasons</td>
<td>.58**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I see life as full of dangers</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I get so mad I throw and break things</td>
<td>.66**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>When I am unhappy I like to work out my problems by myself</td>
<td>.40*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>When I meet someone I do not know, I think he is better than I am</td>
<td>.55**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I can compete successfully for the things I want</td>
<td>.39*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I feel I have trouble making and keeping good friends</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I get upset when things go wrong</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I think the world is a good, happy place</td>
<td>.37*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I make fun of people who do dumb things</td>
<td>.58**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I like my mother to give me a lot of attention</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I think I am good person and other people should think so too</td>
<td>.39*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I think I am a failure</td>
<td>.48**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>It is easy for me to show my family that I love them</td>
<td>.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>I am cheery and happy one minute and gloomy or unhappy the next</td>
<td>.70**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>For me the word is an unhappy place</td>
<td>.37*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>I pout or sulk when I get mad</td>
<td>.50**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>I like to be give encouragement when I am having trouble with something</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>I feel pretty good about myself</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>I feel I cannot do many of the things I try to do</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>It is hard for me when I try to show the way I really feel to someone I like</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>It is unusual for me to get angry or upset</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>I see the world as a dangerous place</td>
<td>.37*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>I have trouble controlling my temper</td>
<td>.48**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>I like my parents to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>I get unhappy with myself</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>I feel I am a success in the things I do</td>
<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>It is easy for me to show my friends that I really like them</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>I get upset easily when I meet hard problems</td>
<td>.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Life for me is a good thing</td>
<td>.161</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation significant at 0.05 level.
** Correlation significant at 0.01 level.
Evaluation of the Child PAQ

Since its publication in 1984, the Child PAQ has been widely used in research and clinical endeavors. The author claims that the analysis of the validity and reliability of the Child PAQ was guided by the standards outlined in the American Psychological Association (Rohner, 1984). The internal consistency of the total scale is .73 (American version); The Arabic version (i.e., using Egyptian and Kuwaiti dialects) estimated relatively similar reliability. These were .79 and .76 for Egyptian and Kuwaiti respectively. The internal consistency of the Child PAQ in the present study was also estimated with .74. It can be seen that the internal consistency estimations of the Child PAQ in three different cultures ranged between .73 to .79 which is slightly lower than the recommended level of .80 (Nunnally, 1978). Obviously the Child PAQ is influenced by cultural factors. Therefore, it needs to establish reliability in another way. According to Ager and MacLachlan (1998) cross-cultural measures are likely to be heavily influenced by cultural values. So measures such as validity and reliability need to be established to allow meaningful comparison.

The value of a questionnaire depends on the quality of its items. However, some deficiencies can be observed in the items of the Child PAQ. Although most of the items appear appropriate for the schoolchildren, respondents may experience difficulty with some items (e.g., item 33: "it is hard for me when I try to show the way I really feel to someone I like"). Furthermore, items of some length (e.g., item 17, "When I meet someone I do not know, I think he is better than I am"; item 24, "I think I am good person and other people should think so too" and item 30, "I like to be given
encouragement when I am having trouble with something") can confuse respondents. Item 33 has this problem as well.

Equally, the nature of the response - options in the administration of the Child PAQ may be difficult for some children. So response set problems can occur, which may reduce the validity of respondents' answers.

4.4 Main Study

The methodological procedures related to the development and piloting of the survey instruments were presented in the foregoing section. As a result of the pilot study, two instruments were applied. In this section, issues associated with the sampling, data collection, procedure, hypotheses and statistics used in the main study will be presented.

4.4.1 Sample

Leedy (1997) categorises samples into "probability samples and non-probability samples". Probability sampling is divided into four groups: systematic, deliberate, cluster and random. Non-probability sampling is divided into convenience or accidental sampling and quota sampling. For the sake of this study, probability sampling, specifically random sampling was used.

The random sample is considered bias-free because every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected to be in the sample (Gilbert, 1993; Leedy, 1997).
The sampling literature does not fully address the question of how big a sample should be, though there are some determinants of sample size. If, for example, the population is homogeneous, a small sample would suffice, but when a population is heterogeneous, a large number would be required to represent all strata of the population. Other considerations include theoretical requirement, precision of the sampling operation, the nature of the dependent variable (e.g., interval or nominal scale) and, ultimately, constraints of time, cost and personnel available (Oppenheim, 1992).

The general rule is to draw as large a sample as time and cost allow, because, as sample size increases, so does reliability (Stone, 1978). According to Jackson (1987), inappropriate sample size might result in bias whose effect across the entire range of variables on which a study such as this is based would be extremely difficult to detect, leading to invalid findings. In terms of influence and the degree to which the results can be generalised to the whole study population, the sample size of a study is an important issue. Sudman (1976) discussed sampling choices, stating that it is the absolute size of the sample which is important, not its size relative to the population.

For the purposes of this study, it was decided to take a sample from Kuwaiti children as an experimental group, and Egyptian and English children served as control groups. A description of the method of drawn the sample, the gender, ages and numbers of the sample, as well their location and background, is presented below.
4.4.1.1 Method of drawing the sample

Younger Kuwaiti children (Experimental Group)

There are five districts in Kuwait. Two of these are urban, two are rural and the last is a mixture of urban and rural. There are about 160 elementary schools in the five districts. There are four levels or classes in each school. The younger Kuwaiti children who had not experienced the Iraqi invasion were drawn randomly from different schools geographically spread over the five districts of Kuwait. More specifically, two schools from the five districts were randomly selected (one boys' and one girls' school), one representing the urban districts and the other representing rural districts. The third and fourth levels (grades) were chosen randomly again from each school. 10 subjects were drawn from the third and 10 from the fourth level (ranging from 8 to 9 years), making 20 from each school (10 boys and 10 girls) and the total sample of 40 from the four schools represented the third and fourth the levels (see Table 4.7)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Al-Jahra District</th>
<th>Hawali District</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levels</td>
<td>Third and fourth</td>
<td>Third and fourth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Older Kuwaiti children (Experimental Group)

The older Kuwaiti children who had experienced the Iraqi invasion were drawn from the Martyrs' Office. The present researcher asked the staff of the office to provide him
with a random selection of 40 children whose parents had died in the Iraqi occupation or had been taken as prisoners of war, from various areas in Kuwait and different socio-economic levels. The ages should be between 13 and 14 years old. The Martyrs' Office chose the 40 children from its record when the present researcher required them.

**Egyptian Children (Control Group)**

The Egyptian children were drawn from elementary and intermediate schools in Cairo City. An official letter was obtained from the present researcher's supervisor as well as another letter from the Cultural Affairs Office in the Kuwaiti embassy in Cairo. These two letters were submitted to the Egyptian Ministry of Education to permit the researcher to conduct the field study. Two schools were selected from the Cairo educational area (one boys' and one girls' school). One class was chosen from each school which contains 20 to 25 children.

**English Children (Control Group)**

The English children were drawn from primary and secondary schools in Colchester.

It was decided to draw the English group from Colchester for two reasons. Firstly, the researcher encountered many difficulties in obtaining English children (as a control group) in London and some other areas (e.g., lack of cooperation, complicated administrative procedures). Secondly, trying to find a pure English group (i.e., containing no-one of Islamic or Arabic origin) is not easy in a big city such as London, Birmingham or Manchester but was possible in Colchester. With the assistance of the
headmasters of schools, one mixed class from each school was chosen (one primary and one secondary).

4.4.1.2 Sample Characteristics

Gender and age

The total sample of 160 children had a mean age of 10.9 years (sd 2.21) range 8-14 years. There were 83 boys (mean 10.5, sd 2.20) and 77 girls (mean 11.2, sd 2.24). There were 80 children from Kuwait (Experimental Group), 40 Egyptian children, and 40 English children (Control Groups).

The experimental group consisted of 80 Kuwaiti children; their mean age was 11.3 years (range 8-14 years, sd 1.84). The control group consisted of 40 children from England (mean 10.9, sd 2.20) and 40 children from Egypt (mean 11.2, sd 1.98) matched with the experimental group for age and gender. The gender and age distributions of the total sample are presented in Tables 4.8 and 4.9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Kuwaiti N</th>
<th>Egyptian N</th>
<th>English N</th>
<th>Total N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Table 4.9 Distribution by Age of Children in Sample.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Kuwaiti</th>
<th>Egyptian</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 - 9</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 - 14</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Nation and Region**

Table 4.10 shows the national and regional distribution of the sample groups.

**Table 4.10 Distribution by Nation and Region of Children in Sample.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kuwaiti</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>Districts of Al-Jahra, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hawai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Colchester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egyptian</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Cairo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>160</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Children's Own Experiences of War and Conflict**

The experimental group of 80 Kuwaiti children were divided according to their experience of the Iraqi invasion. 40 children (20 boys, 20 girls) were affected by the Iraqi invasion due to exposure to trauma, i.e., they had suffered personal injury in the form of arrest, torture, etc., or they had witnessed atrocities such as fighting in the neighbourhood, destruction of property, forced abandonment of home, physical assault, kidnapping, detention, or death of family members or others by shooting,
beating and hanging. 33 children were children of martyrs, and 7 were children of prisoners of war following the invasion, occupation and eventual liberation of Kuwait.

The comparative sample consisted of 40 children (20 boys, 20 girls) who had not been exposed to invasion experience because they were born after the event or were away from the war zone at the time.

4.4.2 Instruments

This study employed several different methods to collect the data, i.e., questionnaires, tests, experiments and interviews. Six instruments were used in the present study, one of which was created by the present researcher (Enemy Image Scale). The other five are established instruments (Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire, Crisis Interview; Semantic Differential Scale, Draw-A-Person Test and Prisoner's Dilemma Game). The Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire was given in the Arabic standardisation. All instruments were given in Arabic for the Kuwaiti and Egyptian subjects, and in English for the UK subjects.

4.4.2.1 Crisis Interview (CI)

As noted earlier. This interview was designed by Hadi and Liaber (1994) to assess Kuwaiti children's level of exposure to violence during the Iraqi occupation of Kuwait, as well as their current status. It was used with 191 Kuwaiti boys and girls of 8 and 12 years, approximately 10 to 15 months after the Gulf crisis (1990). The interview, which lasts approximately 20 minutes, contains 40 questions and begins by asking the children some general questions about their TV watching habits, and goes on to ask
them where they were during the crisis. It includes items such as whether they had been arrested and whether their parents had been arrested. The interview also consists of questions regarding current experiences (see Hadi and Liaber (1994), in the literature review, pp.111-115, and Appendix F1 for the authors' questionnaire).

The structured crisis interview checklist consists of 17 items describing events that were typically experienced by Kuwaiti children during the Iraqi invasion.

Responses to the above 17 items from the interview specifically related to exposure to violence during the crisis were used to place children into two groups. These items were classified in a yes / no format. As can be seen from these questions, children were asked whether they had been arrested, if they had feared being hurt, had witnessed assaults on family members, had been beaten by Iraqi soldiers, had a family member in prison, a family member who had been injured or a family member who had been detained, etc. A listing of the items and the children's responses is shown in Table 4.11.

The first of these items had a 5-point scale ranging from "all the time" to "never". The last two items were dichotomously scored.
Table 4.11 Various types of events during Iraqi occupation of Kuwait

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Boys (N=90)</th>
<th>Girls (N=101)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Hurt by Iraqis</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Father hurt</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mother hurt</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Other relative hurt</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Friend or acquaintance hurt</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Child arrested</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Relative arrested</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Relative disappeared</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Relative not back</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Saw person being killed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Saw person tortured</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Saw injured or dead persons</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Saw injured or dead persons on TV</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Saw photographs of injured or dead</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Feared being killed</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Feared being hurt</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Feared for someone else</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Hadi and Liaber, 1994)

The authors showed the percentages of boys and girls reporting experiencing various violent or traumatic events. When the authors examined these percentages across categories, they found that there was no significant difference between boys and girls on the exposure score from the Crisis Interview (CI). As the table also shows, almost all of the children had been exposed to violence through television news. Approximately two-thirds of the sample had a relative arrested. More direct
experiences of violence, such as witnessing a person killed or being personally hurt, had been experienced by a very small percentage of this sample (see Table 4.11).

**Modification of Crisis Interview for current investigation**

The Crisis Interview was conducted in the present study only with those Kuwaiti children who had experienced the Iraqi invasion, to document the psychological reactions to their experiences during the Iraqi occupation of Kuwait.

However, the present researcher modified the interview to be relevant to the aims and design of the present study. The modification of the CI evolved through several steps before it was applied in the study. These steps are described below:

1. **Removing Items**

The authors of the CI asked the children about their TV watching habits, because during the crisis these children spent time watching television and listening to news reports about Kuwait. Other questions were asked regarding the children's current experience. The reason for that was that the interview was conducted 10 to 15 months after the liberation of Kuwait (February 1991). The authors examined whether the children's level of exposure to violence during the crisis was associated with health-related variables. The CI was chosen for their study because it provided a direct measure of exposure to threat.
However, in this study the aims are slightly different. The present study is conducted ten years after the crisis, so now Kuwaiti TV does not often show programmes about the crisis, and nowadays the children are not concerned with the crisis news as they had been in the past. The present study aims to investigate the effect of the Iraqi invasion on Kuwaiti children's perception of the enemy image. This investigation is concerned with the long-term effects of the Gulf crisis, whereas the authors of the CI investigated the current effects. Therefore, the items on the original CI which asked about children's TV watching habits and those which asked about the children's current experience were removed, subsequently, 17 items which high related to traumatic events were remained. These items will be used in the interview in this study (see Appendix F2).

2. Categorising Cases and Events' weighting
As mentioned previously, there were 40 cases of Kuwaiti children who had experienced of the Iraqi invasion (20 boys, 20 girls). Of these, 33 were the children of martyrs and 7 were children of prisoners of war following the invasion, occupation and eventual liberation of Kuwait. However, the crisis interview investigated the traumatic events to which the Kuwaiti children were exposed during the Iraqi occupation of Kuwait. There are six major traumatic events, which are strongly related to post traumatic stress in children. These events are:

1. Father or Mother hurt
2. Close relative hurt
3. Witnessed death or injury
4. Friend or acquaintance hurt
5. Saw person hurt
6. Feared being hurt

Despite the lack of consensus among researchers as to the range of life events, Holmes and Rahe (1967) published the first list of life events which contained 43 life changes. A revised list which has since been used by a number of researchers contained 71 events. The underlying concept behind this list was to sample events from key aspects of life adjustment, rather than to cover all eventualities throughout the life spectrum.

The adoption of this instrument in the present study, in line with Homes and Rahe’s (1967) model was based on a keen appraisal of a researcher studying Kuwaiti culture. The researcher took into account factors such as, the way in which ordinary people perceive trauma and how they process it. He also considered factors which ameliorate trauma effects, as well as those that hamper adaptation.

The are six major traumatic events (mentioned above), needed to be modified and weighted to adapt them for use with the sample in the present study, and also to obtain a continuous measure of the traumatic events. Therefore, the instrument was reviewed by a number of Kuwaiti academicians who were asked to rank these traumatic events in order from the most serious to least serious in light of their experiences as psychologists as well as their knowledge of the cultural factors in Kuwaiti society. They suggested a number of amendments related to the coding and weight of some
events, which were later carried out. As a result the current modified version was produced.

However, on the basis of the Kuwaiti academicians' suggestion, that an attempt should be made to improve the simple YES / NO scoring of the original, and essential to consider social and cross-cultural differences in weighing the impact of life stress events (Miller, 1996), the present researcher coded each event and gave it a specific weight according to the severity and impact of the event (see Table 4.12). This scoring system was used on an exploratory basis to see if it improved the link between the level of exposure and the severity of the psychological effects.

However, in the current interview, the 17 items used by Hadi and Liaber (1994) were also used by the present researcher because these items examined typically traumatic events to which the Kuwaiti children were exposed during the Iraqi occupation (see Appendix F 2).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Events</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Father or Mother hurt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Father or mother killed</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Father or mother arrested not back</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Father or mother arrested and tortured (now back)</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Close relative hurt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Close relative killed</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Close relative arrested not back</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Close relative arrested and tortured (now back)</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Witness death or injury</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Witness death or injury</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Friend or acquaintance hurt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Friend or acquaintance killed</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Friend or acquaintance arrested not back</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Friend or acquaintance arrested and tortured (now back)</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Saw person hurt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Saw person being killed</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Saw person being tortured</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Saw injured or dead persons</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Saw injured or dead in TV</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Feared being killed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Feared being killed</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Feared being hurt</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Feared for someone else</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Final comments on the Crisis Interview (CI)

As mentioned previously, that the present study used this interview to document the psychological reactions of Kuwaiti children who had experienced the Iraqi invasion. This instrument has been modified through certain steps (previously mentioned) to be relevant to the aims and design of the present study. One essential step of the modification of Crisis Interview is weighting of traumatic experience in the interpretation of the CI. However, this method of events weighting might be questionable and the empirical or theoretical justification for this weighting also is required. Therefore, it is helpful at this point to present a justification for this method.

These justifications as follows:

1. The Crisis Interview was a wide-ranging interview, which covered the experiences of subjects during the Iraqi invasion. There is always an issue as to how such data should be used for analysis. For example, should all the items be marked on a "yes-no" basis and the scores added up to give a simple total? If all the items are of similar importance then there may be a justification for this simple approach.

First of all, a correlation was carried out between the simple total of the Crisis Interview and the Child PAQ. This showed a correlation of (.37).
In order to have a more detailed understanding of the impact of the crisis, an attempt was made to see if the correlation could be improved by giving each individual item weighting. The Holmes-Rahe scale (Holmes and Rahe, 1967) was used as the basis for a theoretical starting point for the exercise. Each of the traumatic events was given weighting, which seemed in rough concordance with the implicit categorization of events in the Holmes-Rahe scale. Table 4.12 shows the scores which were ascribed to each event. Of course, as with the Holmes-Rahe scale itself, there is no way of proving that each traumatic event has been given precisely the correct score. That is not the point. The aim is to improve a correlation by using more sensitive measures of the impact of the crisis. This weighting system asserts that the item "Father or mother killed" is more important than "Saw injured or dead on TV". The precise amount is open to question, but the weighted scores are likely to be more accurate than a simple system, which accords equal weights to these very disparate events. Accordingly, each item was considered in detail, and then given a percentage weighting score to reflect the implied severity of the item.

As shown on Table 5.28 there is a highly significant correlation \( r = .67, \ p < .001 \) between the weighted scores for the Crisis Interview and the Child PAQ. This shows that the weighted scores give us a more sensitive measure, and that the exercise was worthwhile.
2. Despite the considerable attention paid to different weighting of events in the literature, the issue is still not settled (Cohen et al., 1995). Several approaches used for scoring and weighting life events. For example, some investigators may use all events, others only undesirable events; some investigators may use raw event scores, others may use weighted scores based on an assumed dimension of importance; finally, some investigators may use the subject's own, while others may use group average scores. However, one of the methods of weighting the life events is utilizing an expert's rating of the events, based on the expert's knowledge of the circumstances surrounding the event (Sandler and Guenther, 1982). This procedure has been adopted in the present study. More specifically, the present researcher was one of witnesses of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait and was close to most of the events which happened during the invasion. Furthermore, his experience as an educational counselor in different schools after the Iraqi invasion assisted him in understanding the impact of different events.

3. As suggested by (Westermeiyer, 1979) there is an immense variability of behaviour across cultures, within cultures, between individuals and across time and situations. Trauma related psychopathology is culturally manifested in a variety of ways and factors such as traditionality of developmental experiences, rural or urban background, socio-economic states, education, religion etc, play a significant role in the experience of trauma and its aftermath (Wardak, 1993). Miller (1996) also reported that cultural factors become an important influence in the individual's perception of both life stress and the adaptation process. In this
context, it can be said that losing of one parents particularly father is a matter of major trauma in Kuwaiti society. This consideration also applies at a lower level when it is a question of losing a close relative. This claim comes from the importance of the role of the Kuwaiti family. Generally, the losing of parents particularly fathers (through killing or capturing as happened during the Iraqi invasion) not only effects social relationships of the Kuwaiti children but also disrupts their psychological adjustment. Particularly, if we know that the Kuwaiti culture puts the parents in a venerated position.

4. Although children's witnessing death or injury was a traumatic event and had an effect upon Kuwaiti children during the Iraqi invasion, the killing, capturing or hurting of close relatives (e.g., brothers, sisters, uncles etc) may be associated with traumatic memories, grief and the loose of the source of social support, in contrast to witnessing the death or injury of an unknown person, and will therefore have a lasting effect on the individuals, particularly children.

### 4.4.2.2 Semantic Differential Scale (SDS)

The Semantic Differential scale is an instrument developed by Osgood et al, (1957) to measure the connotative meaning of concepts. As reported by Richmond and White (1971), it can be used effectively to measure self-concept and perception of others. The instrument consists of a series of bipolar adjective scales, each of which is conventionally separated into seven categories. The attitude object is placed at the top of the page and respondents are asked to rate this object by checking a category on
each of the bipolar scales (e.g., good-bad). Typically, the instructions are to check the middle category if neither adjective describes the object better than the other, or if both are irrelevant to it. Respondents are told to check further along the scale to the extent that the object is described by either of the two adjectives. These category ratings are usually scored -3 to +3. Scores on the individual bipolar scales are averaged to arrive at a total attitude score for each respondent.

Osgood and his colleagues (1957) concluded that there are three basic dimensions on which people make semantic judgments and these are applicable quite universally to varied concepts, varied adjectival rating scales, and various cultures. The three dimensions are as follows:

(a) The evaluative dimension, involving adjectives like good-bad, beautiful-ugly, kind-cruel, pleasant-unpleasant, and fair-unfair;

(b) The potency dimension, marked by adjectives like strong-weak, large-small, and heavy-light;

(c) The activity dimension identified by adjectives like active-passive, hot-cold, and fast-slow.

Of these dimensions, the one most heavily weighted in people's judgments is evaluative. Osgood (1965) recommended using it as the prime indicator of attitude towards the object.
The rationale of selecting the SDS for the present study is that the semantic differential technique has been widely used in the measurement of attitudes towards the enemy (Basoglu, et al, 1996; Kloep, 1991; Salazar and Marin, 1977; Rofe and Weller, 1981). This allows comparisons between the findings of the present study and findings of extensive past studies to see whether they would be convergent or divergent. Another rationale, and perhaps the most important, is that by this method (SDS) it would be possible to investigate any dimensions or factors associated with, or having an effect on, children's image of the enemy. This investigation would be parallel with the Enemy Image Scale (EIS) as a main instrument in this study. More specifically, as mentioned earlier, while EIS focuses on three basic dimensions of the enemy image (i.e., physical, psychological and social), SDS could focus on these dimensions by using the bipolar characteristics associated with them, for example, good - bad (psychological dimension), fair - unfair (social dimension) and beautiful - ugly (physical dimension).

In the present study, the researcher used the semantic differential method to examine the participants' evaluations of adjustment, liking, hate, trust, and the effect of prior experiences arising from their attitudes towards others. Their evaluation of themselves was examined because the children who suffered traumatic experiences (i.e., children of martyrs and whose families were made prisoners of war during the Iraqi invasion) may be unable to modify their feelings. Therefore, it was assumed that the experience of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait has a strong relationship with certain issues and concepts, such as danger, trust, mistrust, fear, like, dislike and friendship. These
concepts were chosen subjectively from areas, which appeared important in the children’s lives.

However, other concepts were chosen according to their relevance to the Iraqi invasion. Thus, we have attempted to examine how the experience of the Iraqi invasion has affected Kuwaiti children in their appraisal of self and the world. In this way, we could broaden our investigation about concepts and issues associated with the enemy. The scale was constructed according to three types of concept:

(a) General concepts - such as myself, which would examine the impact of trauma on self-image, while concepts of an enemy and a friend aim to evaluate the psychological acceptance towards these concepts.

(b) Authority figures that are normally associated with safety and trust as well as power, liking and disliking (e.g., policeman, parent and teacher).

(c) Names of countries which are related to Kuwaiti children's perceptions of the Iraqi invasion, such as Iraq, Saudi Arabia and Israel. (for example, Saudi Arabia was chosen as a member of the coalition, which liberated Kuwait from Iraqi occupation, while Israel was chosen because it is still the enemy of the Arab people).

It was presumed that the semantic meaning of these concepts would be strongly associated with children's beliefs and attitudes towards the enemy.
The scale consisted of 9 concepts with 10 bipolar characteristics. Each was rated on a visual analogue (Likert) scale from 1 to 7. A 7-point scale was used, with 1 = extreme positive appraisal, 4 = neutral position, and 7 = extreme negative appraisal.

Each scale represented evaluation factors defined by the following pairs of adjectives: bad-good, fair-unfair, beautiful-ugly, honest-deceitful and likeable-hateful.

For computation, the scales were converted into numbers from 1 to 7, with 7 being the most unfavourably valued rating (see Appendix G1 and G2).

Evaluation of Semantic Differential Scale

The Semantic Differential Scale (SDS) has several features, which distinguish it as an instrument for attitude measurement. We will mention here some of the most important of them. For example, it can be applied to any concept. Oskamp (1991) considered this convenience a major reason for the sustained popularity of the SDS since it was introduced. Another feature is that it is easy to set up, administer, and code.

However, there are a number of deficiencies in using the SDS, which may influence its valid findings. First, with regard to the construction of the scale, one of the adjective pairs (i.e., weak - strong; unfair - fair) is sometimes selected inappropriately by researchers. Subsequently, problems of understanding can occur among respondents. However, the value of the technique depends largely on a suitable choice of concepts and rating scales (Oppenheim, 1992). Caution should be taken that two descriptors at
the extremes (i.e., in any adjective pair) really are opposed. Second, the administration and scoring of the SDS may be done blindly by others who are not aware of the technical instructions.

In measurement, imaginative objects such as "my ideal self", the ability to imagine should be obtainable from the respondents. However, this ability is not found to the same degree in everyone.

4.4.2.3 Draw-A-Person Test (DAP)

The Draw-A-Person Test (DAP) was developed by Machover (1949) from Goodenough's (1926) technique of assessing children's intellectual levels from their drawings of a person.

The fact that children usually enjoy drawing has led many investigators to use children's art productions as an indication of the child's personality development and his adjustment to the demands of society about him. The earliest systematic work in this area was done by Goodenough (1926) who developed the Draw-A-Man Test as an intelligence test. It soon became apparent to clinicians using the Goodenough test that children with the same IQ on the Goodenough scale were revealing very different things through the drawing of the human figure. This has led such clinicians as Machover (1949) to develop drawing tests as projective instruments for use with both adults and children.
According to Merritt and Kook (1997), the DAP test has remained a popular psychological instrument, it is in the top 10 list of psychology tests, and one of the three most popular projective tests. The test has been standardised and adapted for Arab children. The instructions are very simple, children are just asked to "Draw a person".

The argument which suggests that the DAP test can serve as a measure of personality is much the same as using as a measure of other aspects of the self. Very briefly, the basic contention is that, as Machover (1949) has suggested,

"the human figure drawn by an individual who is directed to "draw a person" relates intimately to the impulses, anxieties, conflicts, and compensations characteristic of the individual. In some sense, the figure drawn is the person . . . " (p. 35).

The belief, which goes beyond using DAP, is that before a child has fully mastered the use of spoken language, it is only natural that spontaneous images should provide the most powerful means of self-expression. Yet, even when he or she has achieved an adult skill and fluency with words, drawings and paintings can still prove more satisfying and satisfactory than the spoken word in portraying deeper thoughts and feelings (Badri, 1997; Lawis and Green, 1988; Malchiodi, 1998; Terr, 1985).

However, the rationale of using the DAP in the present study is that the researcher expected that this drawing test would be of help in many ways. Firstly, drawing is for children a more natural and familiar activity than writing or speaking. Based on this fact, the feelings of love or hate which a child is unwilling or unable to put into words
can often be expressed more easily through drawings and paintings. Secondly, it can be used to broaden one's understanding of the child's enemies if the child draws a disliked person (enemy). Finally, it is a measurement tool with some aspects of psychological projection, which will show in an indirect manner whether Kuwaiti children really believe the true enemy is Iraq. For example, if we find the evil man to be an Iraqi in an appreciable number of the drawings among Kuwaiti children, then we will have confirmed that Iraq is the enemy for them, or is disliked by them. Conversely, if we find by other personality measurements that certain children are more neurotic than others, we will observe whether in their drawings they depict the bad man as an Iraqi more than the other children. Again, we will have explored the effect of the Iraqi invasion on Kuwaiti children.

There is a variety of ways the DAP can be used. However, the present researcher adapted the test to suit his study. For example, he asked the children to draw a picture of a good man whom they loved. After they had completed the drawing, he asked them to write a story about him. The children were then asked to draw a picture of an evil, aggressive man whom they hate, and to write a story about him. The scoring categories are not important here.

The same test can be given to other samples of younger children who have not witnessed the Iraqi invasion, or to non-Kuwaiti children.
Evaluation of the Draw-A-Person Test

Despite the continued use of drawings in clinical assessments and as projective instruments for use with both adults and children, some researchers have thought that there is still little empirical support in clinical samples for the view that drawings reveal the child's personality (Thomas and Jolley, 1998).

The children's drawings, for example, contain many indicators, which may reveal the emotional problems of children (i.e., distortions, omissions, placement, size, heavy lines, colour, etc). However, there are two points of concern about these indicators. First, these indicators may interfere with each other and then the interpretation will be inaccurate. Second, subject bias may overwhelm the interpretation of the findings.

In respect to the administration of DAP, although the instructions very simple, however, in some cases, when a person responds to the request to draw a picture of person, he tends to draw a picture of himself / herself.

4.4.2.4 Prisoner's Dilemma Game (PDG)

The Prisoner's Dilemma Game (PDG) is a mixed-motive conflict situation in which each of two players can either co-operate or compete on each trial of the game. Typically, this game is used to study co-operation and trust versus competition and mistrust. This simple game provides the opportunity to study an individual's behaviour under circumstances where the incentives are clearly unambiguous and thus allow for comparisons between the two groups.
Each player chooses between two alternatives: "Cooperate" (C) or "Defect" (D). The consequence for each player's choice (e.g., money, and points) is contingent upon the other player's choices. It is a game based on fear, greed and lack of trust. The game is played by two players over several trials. On each trial, the players choose C or D prior to finding out the response of the opposing player. In this example, if both players co-operate (i.e., both choose C), each receives a moderately high reward of 3 points. If both players defect (choose D), each receives a moderately low reward of 1 point. If one player cooperates and one defects, the defector receives a very high reward, 4 points, while the co-operator receives a very low reward, 1 point. The possibility of gains and losses is explained according to the payoff matrixes shown in Figure 4.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Player A</th>
<th>B1 (C)</th>
<th>B2 (D)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1 (C)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2 (D)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1 Matrix used in PDG Experiment

The decomposed (nonmatrix) PDG format (Pruitt, 1967) was first used by Evans and Crumbaugh (1966). The simple choice between D (Give yourself 1) and C (Give the other person 3), when made on each trial by each player, results in individual outcomes of 3 each for mutual C choices, 1 each for mutual D choices, and 4 and 0, respectively, for a combined D and C choice. Children much more easily understand
the decomposed format (See Appendix H).

Concerning the rationale of this method, it is assumed that people attempt to increase the psychological distance between themselves and the disliked person which could be done in various ways such as competition, not cooperation, mistrust and suspicion. At the same time, our understanding of the enemy image phenomenon will be improved by having a real measure of cooperation and competition.

Using the PDG in the psychological researches is exciting because there are real life situations with the same structure as the PDG. Another feature of the PDG is its universality (i.e., it is a cross-cultural instrument which is appropriate for any group). However, it is inappropriate with large samples, it is limited in the study of certain topics (e.g., cooperation and competition) and it’s a lack of psychometric characteristics (e.g., reliability and validity) are its weaknesses.

4.4.3 Procedure

The total sample of 160 children were assessed using the six instruments, namely the Enemy Image Scale, the Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire translated into Arabic, a Semantic Differential Scale, the Prisoner's Dilemma Game, a structured Crisis Interview, and the Draw-A-Person test.

The procedure applied to the sample was according to the type of the group, i.e., experimental group or control group, because some instruments were administered
only to Kuwaiti children (the experimental group), and others were administered to all subjects. Therefore, the data collection procedure will be explained for Kuwaiti children and non-Kuwaiti children separately.

1. Administration on Kuwaiti subjects (Experimental group)

All six instruments were applied with the older children who experienced the Iraqi invasion, and five instruments applied with the younger children. The children who were affected by the Iraqi invasion were tested first, and the steps were as follows:

Because most of the older Kuwaiti children were affected by the Iraqi invasion, the Crisis Interview (CI) was conducted first with this group. Each participant was given an appointment with one of the assistants who worked at the Martyr Office. All these assistants are qualified and hold a higher degree in psychology and social work. Some interviews were done at the participants' homes by the researcher individually and separately in order for the Crisis Interview to be conducted. The meetings were held at the Martyr Office. When the interviews were completed, the subjects were told that other tests would be applied by the researcher at the Martyr Office in the Al-Yarmouk Area.

Arrangements were made to meet the subjects and collect data. Then, the subjects were gathered again to administer the rest of the measures. The administration was in groups and was divided into two sessions. The first session included the Draw-A-Person test, Enemy Image Scale and Semantic Differential Scale, while the second
session contained the Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire and the Prisoner's Dilemma Game.

In the first session, the researcher welcomed the participants and thanked them for their participation in the study, then the DAP test was administered first by the researcher and trained assistants. The drawings were drawn with pencil on plain white 9" X 12" paper. The children were asked to draw a picture of a good man whom they loved. After they had completed the drawing, they were asked to write a story about him. On the back of the page, the children were asked to draw a picture of an evil, aggressive man whom they hated and to write a story about him.

When the children finished their drawings, the Enemy Image Scale (EIS) was administered. Prior to applying the EIS, the researcher’s preamble was as follows:

"Everyone has a friend and also an enemy. The friend is someone whom you like more than anyone else, while the enemy is a person whom you do not like. Today I want you to think about the enemy and how you see him. What does the enemy look like?"

Each child was then given the Enemy Image Scale. The instructions emphasised that there are no correct answers and that they should respond according to the way they thought and felt. The scale items were read aloud by the researcher. This step was useful for those children who were weak readers. The participants were asked to tick their choice on the two-point scale, the two points being Yes and No. The researcher
encouraged the subjects to respond to all the items on the scale. This task took approximately seven to ten minutes.

The subjects were given a break before the administration of the third test. After the break, each participant was presented with a stapled test booklet consisting of a face sheet of general instructions and 10 individual rating sheets with a name in colour at the top of each. The face sheet instructions were read aloud and very carefully to the group by the researcher. The instructions told the subjects that the purpose of the study was to measure the meaning of different concepts to different people, and subjects were asked to work at a fairly high speed and to give their first impressions. The use of the scale was described to the children and an example was used to ensure that they understood how to use the scale. After being read the instructions, subjects were allowed to work at their own speed until the task was completed. This was expected to take 15 minutes. At the end of this test, the first session was finished, and the data for three tests had thus been obtained.

The previous participants were tested again in the same place. The second session was conducted 7 days after the first and consisted of two tests, the Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ) and the Prisoner's Dilemma Game (PDG).

Subjects were interviewed in groups for the second test. The first test was the Child PAQ. In this task, each child was given the questionnaire and the following instructions:
"In this paper there are some sentences that describe how different people feel about themselves. Read each sentence and think how well it describes you."

After the above introduction, the researcher gave the participants the following instructions:

"Work as fast as you can; give your first thought about each item and move on to the next one. Four lines are drawn after each statement. If you feel the statement is mostly true about you, then ask yourself, "Is it almost always true?" or "Is it only sometimes true?" If you think the statement is almost always true, put an X on the line almost always true; if you feel that the statement is only sometimes true, mark sometimes true. If you feel that the statement is mostly untrue about you, ask yourself, "Is it rarely true?" or "Is it almost never true?" If it is rarely true then put an X on the line rarely true; if you feel the statement is almost never true, mark almost never true.

Remember, there is no right or wrong answer to any statement so be as honest as you can and answer each statement the way you think you really are, rather than the way you would like to be. For example, if you almost always feel good about yourself then put an X on the line below the words "Almost always true."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRUE OF ME</th>
<th>NOT TRUE OF ME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Almost Never True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I feel good about myself ...×
To ensure that the children understood the instructions and were willing to answer them, the participants were asked two similar questions before beginning the test. The test took approximately 15 to 20 minutes.

The second procedure was the Prisoner's Dilemma game. This is a behavioural measure. Each subject was given two 3 x 3 in. (7.6 x 7.6 cm) cards. One said "Give yourself 1", and the other said "Give the other person 3" (see Appendix H). Subjects were given the following instruction:

"Now every one of you has two cards and I want you to imagine that you are playing with your best friend in the first game. You will play with a student who you do not like in the next game. You must decide whether you want to give yourself 1 point or give the other person 3 points. You will do this 10 times with your friend and another 10 times with the player whom you dislike."

Practice trials with predetermined choices were used to let subjects know how they or the other player would end up with each outcome (i.e., 4, 3, 2, 1).

The subjects were informed about the opponent's response at the end of each trail. The subjects, however, recorded both participants' responses and their own responses on the answer sheet after each trail.
Regarding the younger Kuwaiti children, all the previous instruments except the Crisis Interview were administered, and the same procedure was used. However, some instructions were emphasised, according to the subject's age and education level.

The subjects were met at their school and brought to the testing rooms, and assistance was provided by the social worker in the school.

**Control Group**

All the previous instruments and steps were administered with the control group, except for the Crisis Interview and the Child PAQ.

### 4.4.4 Hypotheses

The hypotheses of the present study are derived from previous empirical research and psychological theories in the, as well as the present researcher's beliefs. In this section, however, there are ten main hypotheses. Each one will be presented first, then the sources of the theoretical derivation of each stated hypothesis will be reported.

The following hypotheses are put forward for testing in this study:

1. There are significant differences between children in their perception of the enemy image according to age.

A basic finding of many studies is that children as young as 6 could give only very sparse responses about foreign people, mostly simple factual information and
evaluations of "good" and "bad". At age 10 and 14 there was a progressive increase in the range of evaluation categories used, such as aggressive, peaceful, strong and poor (Middleton et al, 1970; Oskamp, 1991;). Younger children report a higher intensity and a great number of fears than older children and adolescents (Gullone and King, 1993). The salient differences in enemy image according to age were found in the Hesse and Poklemba's study (1988). Their study revealed that younger age group (4-6 years old) think of enemies as frightening and strange people. Older children (7-9 years olds) begin to accept that enmity is a relationship between them and somebody else.

2. There are significant differences between children in their perception of the enemy image according to gender.

Sex differences of children in the perception of strangers or enemies have been found in many studies (Hesse and Poklemba, 1988). Evidence that the girls reported significantly higher level of fears associated with Iraq invasion of Kuwait than boys has been found by Abdel-Khalek (1997) and by Al-Saraf (1998).

3. There are significant differences between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children (Egyptian and English) in their perception of the enemy image, as assessed by the Enemy Image Scale.
Different definitions and images of enemy held by people (Holt, 1989) particularly children (Holt, 1989; Olson, 1995). For example, some people defined the enemy in personal terms, others defined it in political or national terms (e.g., Al-Saraf, 1998; Holt, 1989). Children describe the enemy as strong, some of them describe it as angry person, and some as a person who threatens the people by robbing, fighting, and shooting them (e.g., Hesse and Poklemba, 1988).

4. There is a positive relationship between Kuwaiti children's scores on the Enemy Image Scale (EIS) and their scores on the Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ).

5. There is a positive relationship between Kuwaiti children's appraisals towards self and authority figures such as: policeman, teacher and parent, and their scores on the Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ).

The hypotheses 4 and 5 derived from parental acceptance - rejection theory (Rohner, 1984a, 1984b). According to Rohner (1984a) that the individuals who achieve a high score on the Child PAQ are regarded as having a poor mental health status including negative worldview which means that life is seen as essentially bad, insecure, threatening, hostile and/or full of many dangers from things or people (Hypothesis 4). At the same time, and concerning to the hypothesis 5. Emotionally unresponsive children are emotionally insulated from others. Also the children who have negative self-esteem may dislike or disapprove of themselves, devalue themselves, and perhaps
feel inferior to others. The positive correlation between self-acceptance and respect for others has been found by Langgulung and Richmond (1975) and by Richmond et al (1972).

6. Kuwaiti children, when compared with non-Kuwaiti children with regard to semantic differential responses will:

(a) Produce a significantly higher evaluation factor score for "Iraq",
(b) Perceive a significantly larger distance between "Saudi Arabia" and "enemy",
(c) Perceive a significantly smaller distance between "Iraq" and "enemy".

Putting forward the hypothesis 6 was led by the identity social theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1986). The present researcher would examine the tendency to in-group and out-group favouritism as well as self-stereotypes in Kuwaiti children. Moreover the relationship between ideology and students' attitudes toward their own group and other racial groups has been found by Lessing and Zagorin (1972).

7. Kuwaiti children, when asked to draw a bad person, will be more likely to draw an Iraqi figure than will Egyptian and English children.

This hypothesis has derived from the fact that and person that may be threatening to one person may be perceived as a challenge by another and as irrelevant by a third. However, this hypothesis's derivation is supported by Koppitz's theory (1968) which stated that drawing can reveal the level of the child's own emotional disturbance. In addition to relevant studies which revealed that children exposed to violence of war
exhibited the effect of trauma in their drawings (Terr, 1985) these findings found in Northern Ireland children (Tibbetts, 1989; McLernon and Cairn, 2001), Croatian children (Jolley and Vulic-Prtoric, 2001).

8. Kuwaiti children who experienced the Iraqi invasion may report significantly higher levels of psychological maladjustment than do the younger Kuwaiti children (who had not experienced the Iraq invasion), as assessed by the Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ).

9. Kuwaiti children who experienced the Iraqi invasion will differ from those who did not in their appraisal of self and authority figures such as policeman, teacher and parent.

Hypotheses 8 and 9 tested the impact of the Iraqi invasion on Kuwait children. However, the notion that a negative relationship exists between armed conflict and the health and behaviour of the children has been supported by a numerous number of studies (e.g., Abdel-Khalek, 1997; Abdullatif, 1995; Abu Hein et al, 1993; Ager, 1996; Al-Eissa, 1995; Al-Rashisi, 1997; Al-Sahal, 1993; Baumgarten and Prescott, 1928; Garbarino et al, 1991; Hadi and Liaber, 1994; Hobfoll et al, 1991; Punamaki, 1987, 1996; Ziv et al, 1974).

10. Children playing Prisoner's Dilemma against an opponent they like are significantly more cooperative than subjects playing against a disliked opponent.
Clear evidence that cooperation is greater among people who like rather than dislike one another has been found by McClintock and McNeel (1967), Oskamp and Perlman (1965), Rotenberg (1995) and Schenker (1973).

4.4.5 Statistics used

The following statistics were used to analyse the data collected in this study:

1. Mean and Standard Deviation.

2. T-test: The t-test is appropriate for situations in which the subjects are divided into two groups. In this study, the Independent t-test was used.

3. Pearson correlation: To investigate the relationship between children's scores using two scales (EIS and Child PAQ).

4. Analysis of variance: ANOVA allows us to investigate the significance of differences among three or more groups.

5. Scheffe Test: This test uses the F distribution rather than the studentised range statistic. The test was specifically designed as a post hoc test (like the Newman-Keuls and Tukey tests), particularly with ANOVA. This test was used in this study to compare equal sample sizes to find the direction of significant differences between the groups (Howell, 1997).

6. Chi-Square.
7. Factor analysis: Factor analysis refers to a broad family of multivariate linear models designed to examine the interrelations among a set of continuously distributed manifest variables as a function of a smaller set of unobserved latent factors. This technique is often used to examine the common influences believed to give rise to a set of observed measures (measurement structure) or to reduce a larger set of measures to a small set of linear composites for use in subsequent analysis (Howell, 1997). Factor analysis was used in this study to determine the underlying features of the concepts investigated in the Enemy Image Scale.

4.5 Summary

This chapter outlined the methodological considerations for this study. It described the method used for selecting the sample and for data collecting. This included the study design, choice of instruments and sample selecting. The procedure, hypotheses and statistics used were detailed.
Chapter Five
Data Analysis and Results

5.1 Introduction
5.2 Background Data
5.3 Descriptive Statistics
5.4 Testing of Hypotheses
5.5 Other Findings and Analysis
5.6 Summary
CHAPTER FIVE
DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents details of analysis of data and results. Firstly, background data and descriptive statistics are presented. Secondly, hypotheses are tested. Finally, other findings are highlighted.

5.2 Background Data

The total sample consisted of 160 children ranging in age from 8 to 14 (mean 10.7, sd 1.70). There were 83 boys (mean 10, sd 2.20) and 77 girls (mean 11.5, sd 2.24). The main samples of this study were:

1. Kuwaiti Sample

The Kuwaiti sample served as an experimental group and consisted of 80 Kuwaiti children; the children were divided according to their age and their experience of the Iraqi invasion. The younger group consisted of an equal number of boys (N= 20) and girls (N= 20), ranging in age from 8 to 9 (mean 8.25, sd .44). None of the children in this group had experienced the Iraqi invasion because they were born after the event or their families were away from the war zone at the time. They were all in the third and fourth levels of the primary stage at the time of the investigation.
The other Kuwaiti group was the older group, which consisted of an equal number of boys \((N=20)\) and girls \((N=20)\), ranging in age from 13 to 14 years (mean 12.9, sd .84). All these children were affected by the Iraqi invasion due to exposure to trauma, i.e., they suffered personal injury in the form of arrest, torture, etc., or they witnessed atrocities, such as fighting in the neighbourhood, destruction of property, forced abandonment of their home, physical assault, kidnapping, detention or having a martyr or prisoner of war in the family following the invasion, occupation and eventual liberation of Kuwait. They were all in the fourth level of the intermediate stage.

2. **Egyptian Control Group**

The Egyptian group consisted of an equal number of boys \((N=20)\) and girls \((N=20)\), ranging in age from 8 to 14 years (mean 11.2, sd 1.98). They were all in the third and fourth levels of the primary stage, and the fourth level of the intermediate stage.

3. **English Control Group**

The English group consisted of an equal number of boys \((N=20)\) and girls \((N=20)\), ranging in age from 8 to 14 years (mean 10.9, sd 2.20). They were in the third and fourth levels of the primary stage, and eighth and ninth levels of the secondary stage.

None of the control group subjects had severe emotional or behavioural problems that were known to their teachers.
Matched Controls

The total sample consisted of 83 boys and 77 girls. The age groups included the following: 8-9 (N=80) and 13-14 (N=80). To ensure that the effects of the differences were not attributed to age, the Kuwaiti children (experimental group) were matched for age and gender with the non-Kuwaiti children (control groups), age and gender were matched correctly between two different groups. To do this, children in the Kuwaiti group were matched with those in the Egyptian and English groups on the basis of gender. A second matching was made on the basis of age. Matching of age was rigid, reducing the number of pairs obtained, but permitting accurate comparisons. Each Kuwaiti child was matched with a non-Kuwaiti child. The difference in age was no more than 3 months. Finally, the mean for age was 10.7 (1.70) for the all sample, and was 11.4 (sd 1.84) for the Kuwaiti group, 11.2 (sd 1.98) for the Egyptian group, and 10.9 (sd 2.2) for the English group.

5.3 Descriptive Statistics

The following tabulated statistics present details of Child PAQ, Enemy Image Scale and Semantic Differential Scale results for Kuwaiti, Egyptian and English Children.
Table 5.1 Child PAQ, Enemy Image Scale and Semantic Differential Scale results (Kuwaiti Children)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child PAQ</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>-.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hostility</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>-.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependency</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>-.27</td>
<td>-.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>-.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-adequacy</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>-.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional responsiveness</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional stability</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worldview</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>-.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>-.88</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myself</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-7.7</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-3.4</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-7.4</td>
<td>60.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.2 Enemy Image Scale and Semantic Differential Scale results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>-1.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myself</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police man</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>-.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-2.4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3 Enemy Image Scale and Semantic Differential Scale results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myself</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police man</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>-.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-2.7</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>-.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-2.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.4 Testing of Hypotheses

The hypotheses put forward in Chapter Four must now be tested, and each hypothesis will be taken in turn.

**Hypothesis 1:** There are significant differences between children in their perception of the enemy image according to age.

To investigate the children's perception of the enemy image according to their age differences, the hypothesis was tested by using independent t-tests to find any significant differences among the different age groups of children.

The results of the t-test showed no significant differences between the two age groups. The mean of the children's scores on the Enemy Image Scale (EIS) was 25.18, sd 2.30, for the younger children (8 to 9 year olds), and 25.01, sd 1.78 for the older children (13 to 14 year olds) (see Table 5.4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age 8-9 (N=80)</td>
<td>Age 13-14 (N=80)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale (EIS)</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25.18</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>25.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the means in Table 5.4, there are no significant differences between the two age groups.

Table 5.5 shows the EIS means and standard deviations, and the t ratios applied to test the age differences.

There were two significant differences among the possible 15 items reported for age comparisons. Older children were less likely to agree with the sentiment "We can deal with the enemy" (*P < .05*), and less likely to believe that "The enemy's hands and legs are distorted" (*P < .01*) (see Table 5.5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Age 8-9 (n=80)</th>
<th>Age 13-14 (n=80)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The enemy's face is ugly</td>
<td>1.84 (.37)</td>
<td>1.88 (.33)</td>
<td>-.673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The enemy is always evil</td>
<td>1.88 (.33)</td>
<td>1.93 (.27)</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The enemy has a huge body</td>
<td>1.58 (.50)</td>
<td>1.53 (.50)</td>
<td>.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The enemy's goal is to kill people</td>
<td>1.80 (.40)</td>
<td>1.86 (.35)</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. We can deal with the enemy</td>
<td>1.24 (.43)</td>
<td>1.43 (.50)</td>
<td>-2.55*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The enemy is always angry</td>
<td>1.74 (.44)</td>
<td>1.83 (.38)</td>
<td>-1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The enemy carries a weapon</td>
<td>1.76 (.43)</td>
<td>1.85 (.36)</td>
<td>-1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The enemy can become a friend</td>
<td>1.29 (.46)</td>
<td>1.33 (.47)</td>
<td>-.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The enemy lives in a dark place</td>
<td>1.64 (.48)</td>
<td>1.54 (.50)</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The enemy has several forms</td>
<td>1.81 (.39)</td>
<td>1.76 (.43)</td>
<td>.770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. The enemy's hands and legs are distorted</td>
<td>1.66 (.48)</td>
<td>1.41 (.50)</td>
<td>3.25**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. The enemy likes doing good for people</td>
<td>1.53 (.50)</td>
<td>1.48 (.50)</td>
<td>.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. The enemy's eyes are wide</td>
<td>1.85 (.36)</td>
<td>1.74 (.44)</td>
<td>1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. We cannot see the enemy</td>
<td>1.65 (.48)</td>
<td>1.54 (.50)</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. We should punish each enemy</td>
<td>1.93 (.27)</td>
<td>1.94 (.24)</td>
<td>-.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25.18 (2.30)</td>
<td>25.01 (1.78)</td>
<td>.500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .05  **P < .01
The results from Tables 5.4 and 5.5 showed that children at all ages had a relatively uniform perception of their image of the enemy, and there were no statistically significant differences due to age. Therefore, this does not support Hypothesis 1, which anticipated significant differences between children in their perception of the enemy image according to age.

To examine the differences in children's perception of enemy image and whether age is an important factor in their perception, a more detailed analysis of the data was made for the Enemy Image Scale between the younger and older children in the three groups. The results of the t-test showed no significant differences between the perceptions of the younger and the older Kuwaiti children (see Table 5.6). The mean of the Kuwaiti children's scores on the EIS was 25.50, $sd$ 1.62 for the younger children (8 to 9 year olds), and 25.10, $sd$ 1.88 for the older children (13 to 14 year olds).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Kuwaiti children</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enemy Image Scale (EIS)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age 8-9 (N=40)</td>
<td>M     SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale (EIS)</td>
<td>25.50 1.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age 13-14 (N=40)</td>
<td>M     SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25.10 1.88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 5.6, there was no significant difference in the enemy image perception between the younger and older Kuwaiti children. This indicates that the two groups had a similar enemy image and that age is not a determining factor in the image of the enemy.
Table 5.7 shows the age differences among Egyptian children on the EIS. The results showed significant differences between the two groups. The mean of the Egyptian children's scores on the EIS was 27.06, sd 2.24 for the younger children (8 to 9 year olds) and 24.82, sd 1.89 for the older children (13 to 14 year olds) (see Table 5.7).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Egyptian children</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age 8-9 (N=21)</td>
<td>M 27.06 SD 2.24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age 13-14 (N=19)</td>
<td>M 24.82 SD 1.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale (EIS)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.42**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** P<.01

As can be seen from the means in Table 5.7, the younger Egyptian children (8 to 9 year olds) obtained higher mean scores on the EIS than the older children. This result indicates that the younger children had a more negative perception of the enemy, and were perhaps more frightened by the enemy image.

A similar result was found for English children, where there were significant differences between the younger and older English children in their perception of the enemy image (see Table 5.8). The mean of the English children's scores on EIS was 23.18, sd 1.41 for the younger age group (8 to 9 year olds), and 24.10, sd 1.91 for the older children (13 to 14 year olds) (see Table 5.8).
Table 5.8 Differences between younger and older English children on Enemy Image Scale (EIS) according to age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>English children</th>
<th></th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age 8-9 (N=18)</td>
<td>Age 13-14 (N=22)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale (EIS)</td>
<td>23.18 1.41</td>
<td>24.80 1.91</td>
<td>-3.40**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P < .01

Table 5.8 shows that the younger English children obtained a slightly lower mean score on the EIS than the older English children, but this was a statistically significant difference at $P < .01$.

Finally, Hypothesis 1, which predicted that there are significant differences between children in their perception of the enemy image according to age, was not upheld for the total sample and for the Kuwaiti children. However, Hypothesis 1 was upheld for the Egyptian children and the English children.

**Hypothesis 2:** There are significant differences between children in their perception of the enemy image according to gender.

The effect of gender on the children's perception of the enemy image was examined by using independent t-tests. The results of the difference between the two gender groups on the EIS revealed that mean scores for girls were higher in comparison to those of
boys (see Table 5.9). The 77 girls obtained a mean EIS score of 25.86, sd 1.64, compared to the mean of 24.39, sd 2.14 obtained by the 83 boys.

Table 5.9 Differences between samples on Enemy Image Scale (EIS) according to gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Boys (N=83)</th>
<th>Girls (N=77)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale (EIS)</td>
<td>24.39</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>25.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P< .01

Table 5.9 shows that there was a significant difference between the two gender groups on the total score of the EIS. Furthermore, means and standard deviations for each item of the EIS were analysed by t-test (see Table 5.10), and these analyses yielded gender differences in the perception of the enemy image. Specifically, significant differences between the gender groups were found in five of the fifteen items. All significant t-tests indicated higher mean scores for girls. Most of those items denote an extremist enemy image such as "The enemy is always evil" (P< .01) and "The enemy's goal is to kill people" (P< .001).
Table 5.10 Means and Standard Deviations for gender on all items of Enemy Image Scale (EIS).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content of Items</th>
<th>Boys (n=83)</th>
<th>Girls (n=77)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The enemy's face is ugly</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The enemy is always evil</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The enemy has a huge body</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The enemy's goal is to kill people</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. We can deal with the enemy</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The enemy is always angry</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The enemy carries a weapon</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The enemy can become a friend</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The enemy lives in a dark place</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>1.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The enemy has several forms</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. The enemy's hands and legs are distorted</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. The enemy likes doing good for people</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. The enemy's eyes are wide</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. We cannot see the enemy</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. We should punish each enemy</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24.39</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>25.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P<.05. **P<.01 ***P<.001

The results from Tables 5.9 and 5.10 indicate that girls obtained a higher mean score on the EIS than boys, showing that they had a more distorted view of the enemy.

Gender differences between Kuwaiti, Egyptian and English children were investigated using independent t-tests. The results of these t-tests showed significant differences between Kuwaiti boys and girls in their perception of the enemy image. The mean of
the Kuwaiti children’s scores on the EIS was 24.98, sd 2.04 for the boys, and 25.68, sd 1.27 for the girls (see Table 5.11).

Table 5.11 Differences between boys and girls Kuwaiti children on Enemy Image Scale (EIS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Boys (N=43)</th>
<th>Girls (N=37)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale (EIS)</td>
<td>24.98, sd 2.04</td>
<td>25.68, sd 1.27</td>
<td>-1.80*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.11 indicates that significant differences between Kuwaiti boys and girls were reported in the total score of the EIS, and that girls obtained a higher mean score on the EIS than boys; consequently, they had a more distorted view of the enemy.

Similarly, differences were statistically significant between gender groups among the Egyptian children and English children (see Tables 5.12 and 5.13). Specifically, significant differences between Egyptian boys and girls were found on the EIS, where the mean of Egyptian children was 24.75, sd 2.05 for boys, and 26.90, sd 2.10 for girls. The mean for the English children was 22.75, sd 1.62 for boys, and 25.15, sd 1.27 for girls (see Table 5.12).
Table 5.12. Differences between boys and girls Egyptian children on Enemy Image Scale (EIS).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Egyptian children</th>
<th>Girls (N=20)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys (N=20)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale (EIS)</td>
<td>24.75</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>26.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P< .01

Table 5.12 shows the mean for Egyptian boys and girls on the EIS and the t-test for the differences between the two groups. As can be seen, the girls obtained a higher mean score than boys, and the difference is significant at P< .01.

Table 5.13. Differences between boys and girls English children on Enemy Image Scale (EIS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>English children</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys (N=20)</td>
<td>Girls (N=20)</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy Image Scale (EIS)</td>
<td>22.75</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>25.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***P< .001

Table 5.13 shows the means for English boys and girls on the EIS and the t-test for the differences between the two groups. Here, the girls also obtained a higher mean score than boys, and the difference is significant at P< .001.
The results revealed that there were significant differences, for the whole sample and for each group, in scores on the EIS according to gender. It can be concluded that the significant differences for gender reflect the fact that the girls had a more distorted view of the enemy, and that as hypothesised the gender of the children was a significant determinant factor of enemy image. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was upheld.

**Hypothesis 3:** There are significant differences between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children (Egyptian and English) in their perception of the enemy image, as assessed by the Enemy Image Scale.

The means of the children's scores on the EIS were 25.30, sd 1.75 for Kuwaiti children, 25.83, sd 2.32 for Egyptian children, and 23.95, sd 1.88 for English children. The main point of interest here is that Egyptian children obtained a slightly higher mean score on the EIS than the Kuwaiti and English children.

An analysis of variance performed on these results yielded a significant main effect of nationality, F ratio=10.25, which is significant at $P<.001$ (see Table 5.14).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>77.119</td>
<td>38.559</td>
<td>10.25***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>590.475</td>
<td>3.761</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>667.594</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***$P<.001$
To understand the difference in EIS scores between the different national groups, the Scheffe procedure was employed. The results of the Scheffe test revealed that the Kuwaiti children were significantly different from the English children, but not from the Egyptian children (see Table 5.15).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Scheffe Contrasts</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kuwaiti</td>
<td>25.30</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>1.35*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egyptian</td>
<td>25.83</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.88*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>23.95</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P< .05

As hypothesised, there are significant differences between Kuwaiti, Egyptian and English children in their perception of the enemy image, as assessed by the EIS. Hypothesis 3 is therefore upheld.

**Hypothesis 4:** There is a positive relationship between Kuwaiti children's scores on the Enemy Image Scale (EIS) and their scores on the Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ).

Hypothesis 4 investigates the relationship between Kuwaiti children's scores on the Enemy Image Scale (EIS) and their scores on the Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ), and predicts that Kuwaiti children who obtained a high
score on EIS will obtain a high score on Child PAQ. In other words, the children who had a distorted view of the enemy will have a poorer mental health status (psychological maladjustment).

To test the hypothesis, Pearson's correlation between the EIS and the Child PAQ scores was determined. The results of this analysis demonstrated that the correlation was weak and not significant ($r = .19$).

For the purposes of presenting a complete picture of this correlation, Factor Analysis was used on the EIS results to identify underlying items. The factor program was used to determine the underlying features of the concept investigated in the scale. A principal component analysis was performed, and only those components with Eigen values greater than 1.0 were subjected to a Varimax Rotation (Orthogonal Factor Analysis). Three factors emerged, which accounted for 75% of the variance (see Table 5.16).

The number of items loaded on each factor was determined and, on performance of reliability analysis, three factors, all of which relate to the aims of the study, were identified as follows:

- Factor 1 contained 7 items relating to Existence of Enemy
- Factor 2 contained 5 items relating to Appearance of Enemy
- Factor 3 contained 3 items relating to Conflict Resolution.
Table 5.16 Summary of items and factor loading for varimax orthogonal three-factor solution for Enemy Image Scale (N=160).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 The enemy is always evil</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 The enemy's face is ugly</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 The enemy's goal is to kill people</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 The enemy likes doing good for people</td>
<td>-.54</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 The enemy lives in a dark place</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 We should punish each enemy</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 The enemy carries a weapon</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 The enemy's hands and legs are distorted</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 The enemy has several forms</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 We cannot see the enemy</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The enemy has a huge body</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 The enemy's eyes are wide</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 We can deal with the enemy</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 The enemy can become a friend</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 The enemy is always angry</td>
<td>-.50</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.17 shows three factors on the orthogonal transformation solution matrix.

Table 5.17 Factor loading for varimax orthogonal three - factor solution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1: Existence of Enemy</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The enemy is always evil</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 The enemy's face is ugly</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 The enemy's goal is to kill people</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 The enemy likes doing people good</td>
<td>-.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 The enemy lives in a dark place</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 We should punish each enemy</td>
<td>.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 The enemy carries a weapon</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2: Appearance of enemy</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 The enemy's hands and legs are distorted</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 The enemy has several forms</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 We cannot see the enemy</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The enemy has a huge body</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 The enemy's eyes are wide</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 3: Conflict Resolution</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 We can deal with the enemy</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 The enemy can become a friend</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 The enemy is always angry</td>
<td>-.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N=160

Although the correlation between the EIS and the Child PAQ was weak and not significant (r = .19), some correlations were found between Existence of Enemy and
Self-esteem, and between Appearance of enemy and Self-adequacy. These correlations are summarised in Table 5.18.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EE</th>
<th>AE</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>CP</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>ER</th>
<th>ES</th>
<th>W</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enemy Image Scale</strong></td>
<td><strong>.68</strong></td>
<td><strong>.79</strong></td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Existence of enemy (EE)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-.23*</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Appearance of enemy (AE)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.26*</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conflict resolution (CR)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child PAQ (CP)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.78**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.70**</td>
<td>.54**</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td>.60**</td>
<td>.78**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hostility (H)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependency (D)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-esteem (SE)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.47**</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-adequacy (SA)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotional- responsiveness (ER)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotional-stability (ES)</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Worldview (W)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .05  **P < .01

As Table 5.18 shows, the correlation between the total EIS and the total Child PAQ is weak and not significant (r = .19). Significant correlations between sub-scales were found only between Existence of enemy and Self-esteem (r = -.23, P < .05) and between Appearance of enemy and Self-adequacy (r = .26, P < .05).
Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between Kuwaiti children's appraisals of self and authority figures such as policeman, teacher and parents, and their scores on the Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ).

The relationship between children's score on the Child PAQ and their score evaluations for "Myself", "Policeman", "Teacher" and "Parents" were explored using the Pearson correlation coefficient. As predicted, the results revealed that having higher levels of psychological adjustment might increase positive appraisals of the self and others, such as policeman, teacher and parents. Specifically, the correlation between the variables showed that Kuwaiti children who obtained low scores on the Child PAQ which indicated psychological adjustment also obtained low scores for "Myself", "Policeman", "Teacher" and "Parents" on five evaluation scales of the SDS, which indicates positive appraisals towards these concepts. These correlations are summarised in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19 Pearson Correlation coefficient between Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire and "Myself", "Policeman", "Teacher" and "Parents" for Kuwaiti children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Child PAQ</th>
<th>Myself</th>
<th>Policeman</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child PAQ</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.28***</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.39***</td>
<td>.20*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myself</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>.42***</td>
<td>.43***</td>
<td>.35***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td></td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td></td>
<td>.46***</td>
<td>.35***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.43***</td>
<td></td>
<td>.44***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.35***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .05  **P < .01  ***P < .001
As can be seen in Table 5.19, the correlations between the Child PAQ score and concepts of self, policeman, teacher and parents were positive and statistically significant. Therefore, we can say that Hypothesis 5 was upheld.

**Hypothesis 6:** Kuwaiti children, when compared with non-Kuwaiti children with regard to semantic differential responses, will:

(a) Produce a significantly higher evaluation factor score for 'Iraq',
(b) Perceive a significantly smaller distance between 'Iraq' and 'enemy',
(c) Perceive a significantly larger distance between 'Saudi Arabia' and 'enemy'.

The semantic differential results were analysed by using an independent t-test. Differences were revealed between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children on the concepts of Iraq, enemy and Saudi Arabia. These analysis results are shown according to each hypothesis as follows:

**(a) Iraq**

Hypothesis 6 (a), which predicted that Kuwaiti children would produce a significantly higher evaluation factor score for "Iraq" than non-Kuwaiti children, was upheld. The Kuwaiti children tended to view Iraq more negatively than non-Kuwaiti children. Specifically, the Kuwaiti children obtained a mean Iraq concept score of 6.93, sd .17 compared to the 3.48, sd 1.29 obtained by non-Kuwaiti children. Using independent t-test revealed a significant difference between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children in their appraisal of the Iraq concept ($t = 23.6, P < .001$) (see Table 5.20).
Table 5.20 Differences between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children on concept of "Iraq"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Kuwait children</th>
<th>Non-Kuwaiti children</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***P< .001

Figure 5.1 shows the distribution of the Iraq concept scores for Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children. It can be seen that Kuwaiti children gave Iraq the highest score 6.93, while non-Kuwaiti children have greater than 3.0 (but less than 4.0).

Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children’s views of "Iraq"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>View</th>
<th>Kuwaitis</th>
<th>Non-Kuwaiti</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>6.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>6.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>6.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honest</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>6.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeable</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>6.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfair</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ugly</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deceitful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hateful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.1 Mean rating of Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti respondents for "Iraq" on Five-evaluation scale of Semantic Differential Scale (SDS)
(b) Iraq and Enemy

Hypothesis 6 (b), which predicted that Kuwaiti children would perceive a significantly smaller distance between "Iraq" and "Enemy" when compared to non-Kuwaiti children, was supported. The results revealed that Kuwaiti children perceived a smaller distance in their appraisal for Iraq (M=6.93). When compared with non-Kuwaiti children who obtained M= 3.48, the differences were statistically significant at $P<.001$ for "Iraq". There were no significant differences between the two groups for "Enemy" (see Table 5.21).

Table 5.21 Differences between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children on concepts of "Iraq" and Enemy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Kuwait children</th>
<th>Non-Kuwaiti children</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>6.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** $P< .001$

Figures 5.2 and 5.3 also show the distributions of the Iraq and Enemy concept scores for the Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children. Kuwaiti children gave "Iraq" and "Enemy" similar appraisals and both concepts were perceived extremely negatively, whereas non-Kuwaiti children gave "Enemy" a negative appraisal and "Iraq" a neutral appraisal.
Kuwaiti views of "Iraq" and "Enemy"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Iraq</th>
<th>Enemy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>6.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>6.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>6.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honest</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>6.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeable</td>
<td>6.68</td>
<td>6.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.2 Mean rating of Kuwaiti children for "Iraq" and "Enemy" on Five - evaluation scale of Semantic Differential Scale (SDS)

Non-Kuwaiti views of "Iraq" and "Enemy"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Iraq</th>
<th>Enemy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>6.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>6.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>6.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honest</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>6.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeable</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>6.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.3 Mean rating of non-Kuwaiti children for Iraq and Enemy on Five - evaluation scale of Semantic Differential Scale (SDS)
(c) Saudi Arabia and Enemy

Hypothesis 6 (c), which predicted that Kuwaiti children would perceive a significantly larger gap between "Saudi Arabia" and "Enemy" than non-Kuwaiti children, was also upheld. The Kuwaiti children tended to view Saudi Arabia as more distant from Enemy than did non-Kuwaitis. Specifically, the results for the Saudi Arabia and Enemy concepts revealed that Kuwaiti children perceived a significantly larger distance in their appraisals for "Saudi Arabia" and "Iraq"; the mean ratings were 6.80 and 1.51, respectively, while non-Kuwaiti children obtained 6.50 and 2.43, respectively. However, there were no significant differences between two groups in the mean ratings for Enemy (see Table 5.22).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Kuwait children</th>
<th>Non-Kuwaiti children</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemy</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>6.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** P < .001

Figures 5.4 and 5.5 also show the distributions of the Enemy and Saudi Arabia concepts' scores in Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children. Kuwaiti children saw Saudi Arabia more favourably and closer than Enemy, who was more distant and negative. Non-Kuwaiti children were less positive towards Saudi Arabia, and had a similar view of Enemy to the Kuwaiti children.
### Kuwaiti views of "Saudi Arabia" and "Enemy"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Kuwaiti Mean</th>
<th></th>
<th>Non-Kuwaiti Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>6.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>6.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>6.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honest</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>6.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeable</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>6.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Non- Kuwaiti views of "Saudi Arabia" and "Enemy"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Kuwaiti Mean</th>
<th></th>
<th>Non-Kuwaiti Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>6.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>6.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>6.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honest</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>6.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeable</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>6.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.4 Mean rating of Kuwaiti children for "Saudi Arabia" and "Enemy" in Five - evaluation scale of Semantic Differential Scale (SDS)

Figure 5.5 Mean rating of non-Kuwaiti children for "Saudi Arabia" and "Enemy" on Five - evaluation scale of Semantic Differential Scale (SDS)
Overall, the results of Hypothesis 6 were in the direction hypothesised. Significant differences between the Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children were found in their appraisals for the concepts Myself, Iraq and Saudi Arabia, on the five-evaluation scale of the Semantic Differential. The results revealed that Kuwait children’s views of Iraq and Myself were negative, and they had a more positive appraisal for Saudi Arabia than non-Kuwaiti children. However, there were no significant differences between the two groups for the Friend and Enemy concepts.

The results suggest that the experience of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait had both direct and indirect associations with Kuwaiti children’s appraisals for these concepts.

**Hypothesis 7:** Kuwaiti children when asked to draw a bad person will be more likely to draw an Iraqi figure than Egyptian and English children will.

The main aim of the Draw-A-Person Test (DAP) is to investigate children’s images of people they dislike and whom they describe as bad or aggressive. In the case of each drawing of a bad person, it was decided whether it represented (a) an Iraqi person (e.g., Saddam Hussein, an Iraqi soldier, etc.), or (b) another person (e.g., a thief, a disliked person, etc.). The decisions depended primarily upon the story.

The results of the children’s drawings were as predicted, with more Iraqi people drawn by children in the Kuwaiti groups. These results revealed that the figures drawn by
Kuwaiti children differed significantly from those drawn by non-Kuwaiti (see Table 5.23).

Table 5.23 Distribution of Draw-A-Person Test among Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Drawings</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Iraqi Person</td>
<td>Other Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuwaiti children</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Kuwaiti children</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data were analysed using the Chi-square test, which revealed that there was significant difference between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children in their drawings (Chi-square 72.72, df=1, \( P < .000 \)).

The interesting result is that Kuwaiti children, when compared with non-Kuwaiti children, when asked to draw a bad person, were more likely to draw Iraqi figures than were the non-Kuwaiti children.

**Hypothesis 8**: Kuwaiti children who experienced the Iraqi invasion will report significantly higher levels of psychological maladjustment than the younger Kuwaiti children (who did not experience the Iraq invasion) will, as assessed by the Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ).
There were 40 Kuwaiti children who had experienced the Iraqi invasion (20 boys, 20 girls), 33 were the children of martyrs, and 7 were children of prisoners of war following the invasion, occupation and eventual liberation of Kuwait.

All cases were examined by the Crisis Interview and given scores according to their experience of the Iraqi invasion. The scores were summed to obtain a total CI score for each case in terms of six categories of traumatic events. (see Table 5.24).
Table 5.24 Categorisation of 40 Kuwaiti subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Father or Mother hurt</th>
<th>Close relative hurt</th>
<th>Witness death or injury</th>
<th>Friend or acquaintance hurt</th>
<th>Saw person hurt</th>
<th>Feared being killed or hurt</th>
<th>CI score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>210</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>160</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>160</td>
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</tr>
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<td>135</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
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<td>50</td>
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<td>55</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>230</td>
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<td>75</td>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>235</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>235</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>45</td>
<td>210</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As mentioned earlier, the crisis interview contained 17 items related to the traumatic events to which the Kuwaiti children were exposed during the Iraqi occupation of Kuwait. These items were asked of children who had experienced the Iraqi invasion, to assess their level of exposure to traumatic events during the occupation. The percentages of Kuwaiti boys and girls reported to have experienced traumatic events are shown in Table 5.26. When examining these percentages across categories, it is clear that they are comparable between boys and girls. There was no significant difference between boys and girls in exposure scores from the Crisis Interview (CI).

Table 5.25 shows that almost all the children were exposed to violence through television. More direct traumatic experiences of the invasion, such as a father hurt or fearing being hurt, were experienced by both groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Events</th>
<th>Boys (N=20)</th>
<th>Girls (N=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hurt by Iraqis</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father hurt</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother hurt</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other relative hurt</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend or acquaintance hurt</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child arrested</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative arrested</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative disappeared</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative not back</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saw person being killed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saw person tortured</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saw injured or dead persons</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saw injured or dead persons on TV</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witnessed death or injury</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feared being killed</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feared being hurt</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feared for someone else</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To investigate the psychological adjustment of the older Kuwaiti children (who experienced the Iraq invasion) and to compare them with the younger Kuwaiti children who did not experience the Iraqi invasion, a $t$-test was conducted.

The response means for the Child PAQ for the samples of Kuwaiti children who were affected by the invasion and not affected are shown in Table 5.26.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Younger Children (N=40)</td>
<td>Older Children (N=40)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAQ</td>
<td>89.83</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>98.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**$P< .01$**

As shown in Table 5.26, there was a significant difference between the two groups in the PAQ. This indicated that the Kuwaiti children who were affected by the Iraqi invasion reported significantly higher levels of psychological maladjustment than did those who were not affected.

Table 5.27 shows the means for seven personality dispositions in the Child PAQ. The $t$-test revealed that there were significant differences between younger and older Kuwaiti children’s Emotional responsiveness and Worldview. Other personality dispositions were not significantly different between the two groups.
Table 5.27 Means of Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire and seven personality dispositions scores among Kuwaiti children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales</th>
<th>Younger children (N=40)</th>
<th>Older children (N=40)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hostility</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>11.93</td>
<td>2.508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependency</td>
<td>16.90</td>
<td>18.08</td>
<td>1.657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>11.48</td>
<td>11.90</td>
<td>.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-adequacy</td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>13.43</td>
<td>.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional-responsiveness</td>
<td>12.93</td>
<td>12.33</td>
<td>-1.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional-stability</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td>17.10</td>
<td>5.570***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worldview</td>
<td>9.70</td>
<td>11.25</td>
<td>2.372**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P<.01; ***P<.001 (High scores signify disorder).

The correlation between the Child PAQ and the CI was tested to examine the effect of the Iraqi invasion on the Kuwaiti children.

Table 5.28 Pearson correlation coefficient between Crisis Interview (CI) and Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CI</th>
<th>Child PAQ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child PAQ</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***P< .001

As can be seen from Table 5.28, the correlation is significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 8 that those children exposed to the Iraqi invasion and affected negatively by it would
show higher levels of psychological maladjustment than the children who were not exposed to the Iraqi invasion is upheld.

**Hypothesis 9:** Kuwaiti children who experienced the Iraqi invasion will differ from those who did not in their appraisal of self and authority figures, such as: policeman, teacher and parents.

The children evaluated the concepts of Myself, Policeman, Teacher and Parents by rating each of them on a seven-point scale consisting of 5 bipolar characteristics taken from the Semantic Differential Scale (SDS). Significant differences between younger Kuwaiti children (with no experience of the invasion) and older Kuwaiti children (with experience of the invasion) were found in concepts of self, policeman and teacher. However, there was no significant difference between the two groups in the parents concept. Specifically, older Kuwaiti children viewed self, policeman and teacher more negatively (see Table 5.29).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Younger children (N=40)</th>
<th>Older children (N=40)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Myself</td>
<td>M=1.50, SD=.57</td>
<td>M=2.05, SD=.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td>M=1.50, SD=.44</td>
<td>M=2.25, SD=.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>M=1.51, SD=.51</td>
<td>M=2.27, SD=.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>M=1.24, SD=.38</td>
<td>M=1.24, SD=.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P< .01 (Note: 7-point scale, with 1= extreme positive appraisal, 4= neutral position, and 7= extreme negative appraisal)**
As can be seen from Table 5.30, the older children obtained higher mean scores on concepts of policeman, teacher and myself than younger children, demonstrating that they had more negative views toward these concepts.

To examine whether the control groups (Egyptian and English children) were differentiated in the evaluation of myself, policeman, teacher and parents with regard to age, the data were tested by independent t-tests. The results of the t-tests showed significant differences between younger and older Egyptian children in their appraisals of myself (t=-1.99, *P< .05), of policeman (t=-2.93, * P< .01), and of teacher (t=-2.93, * P< .01). There were no significant differences between the two groups for parents (see Table 5.30).

Table 5.30 Differences between Younger and Older Egyptian children for concepts of "Myself", "Policeman", "Teacher" and "Parents"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Younger children (N=18)</th>
<th>Older children (N=22)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myself</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>1.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P< .05 ** P< .01 (7-point scale, with 1= extreme positive appraisal, 4= neutral position, and 7= extreme negative appraisal)
There was also a nearly significant difference between younger and older English children in their appraisals for teacher ($t= 1.76$, $* P< .05$), and no differences in their appraisals for myself, policeman and parents (see Table 5.31).

Table 5.31 Differences between older and younger English children for concepts of "Myself", "Policeman", "Teacher" and "Parents"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Younger children (N=21)</th>
<th>Older children (N=19)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myself</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Teacher   | 1.82 | .74 | 1.49 | .36 | 1.76*
| Parents   | 1.32 | .39 | 1.24 | .24 | .78 |

$P< .05$ (7-point scale, with 1= extreme positive appraisal, 4= neutral position, and 7= extreme negative appraisal)

To assess further differences between older Kuwaiti children who experienced the Iraqi invasion and the control groups (Egyptian and English), an analysis of variance was conducted. The results revealed significant differences among children in the three groups. One-way analysis of variance yielded a significant main effect of experience of the Iraqi invasion: $F=6.19$, $P<.01$ for myself, and $F=6.07$, $P<.01$ for teacher (see Table 5.32).
Table 5.32 Analysis of variance of older Kuwaiti children and non-Kuwaiti children for concepts of "Myself", "Policeman", "Teacher" and "Parents".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable and source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Myself</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>6.197**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>56.96</td>
<td>.363</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>.642</td>
<td>1.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>94.27</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>6.071**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>84.26</td>
<td>.537</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.932</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td>3.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>24.01</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P< .01

Following the ANOVA, a second step was to test for specific contrasts within each concept, using the required Scheffe tests of means (see Table 5.33).
Table 5.33 Means and Scheffe Contrasts for "Myself", "Policeman", "Teacher" and "Parents"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Scheffe contrasts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kuwaiti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myself</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .05

Again, the differences were in the direction hypothesised. Significant differences were apparent in the appraisal of "Policeman", "Teacher" and "Myself", only for those Kuwaiti children who were affected by the Iraqi invasion. Hypothesis 9 is thus upheld.

**Hypothesis 10**: Children playing Prisoner's Dilemma against an opponent they like are initially more cooperative than children playing against an opponent they dislike.
Hypothesis 10 was tested by means of data from the 10 trials. The choice behaviour of subjects in 10 trials are presented in Table 5.34 in terms of the mean number of cooperative (give 3 points) responses.

Table 5.34 Means for Samples for each of the PDG trials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trial</th>
<th>Kuwaiti (n=80)</th>
<th>Egyptian (n=40)</th>
<th>English (n=40)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No  M</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing with liked person (Friend)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1  2.75</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  2.75</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  2.60</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  2.50</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  2.50</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  2.35</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  2.35</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  2.15</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  2.20</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 2.25</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 2.56</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing with disliked person (Enemy)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1  1.60</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  1.45</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  1.25</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  1.25</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  1.20</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  1.20</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  1.40</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  1.30</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  1.15</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 1.15</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 1.29</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 5.34, all groups obtained a higher mean score on PDG when played with a liked person. Specifically, Kuwaiti children were more cooperative in playing with a liked person than Egyptian and English children, the mean scores were 2.56, 2.29 and 2.46 respectively. However, in the condition in playing with a disliked
person, the Egyptian children were less cooperative and more competitive than Kuwaiti and English children, the mean scores were 1.27, 1.29 and 1.51 respectively.

The groups responses are also presented in Figures 5.6, 5.7 and 5.8 for Kuwait, Egyptian and English children to show their response, distribution when playing with a liked and disliked person in 10 trials.

Figure 5.6 Mean number of cooperative choices in 10 trials for Kuwaiti children

Figure 5.7 Mean number of cooperative choices in 10 trials for Egyptian children
An inspection of the above figures reveals that children were more cooperative when playing with people they liked (friends) and less cooperative when playing with people they disliked (enemies).

The mean of comparative choices on trials was analysed by ANOVA. The analysis of variance yielded a main effect of opponent (\(F=607.1; \text{df}=1/56, P<.000\)).

It is clear that Hypothesis 10 receives substantial support from the data. Children playing against a liked opponent were initially more cooperative than subjects playing against a disliked opponent.
5.5 Other Findings and Analyses

This study has used six instruments to collect the data from subjects (N=160). Each instrument yielded considerable results. However, some data were not presented earlier in this chapter because they were not included the study hypotheses. These findings, in fact, are significant and related to the aims of the present study; therefore, it will be useful to mention these findings here in order to obtain a complete picture of study. These findings are demonstrated according to their importance and related to the aims of the study.

5.5.1 Findings on the Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire

The relationship between Kuwaiti children's scores on seven personality dispositions on the Child PAQ and their scores on SDS evaluations for "Myself", "Policeman", "Teacher", "Parent", "Enemy" and "Friend" were explored using Pearson's correlation coefficient. The results revealed that there were significant correlations between some of these personality dispositions and concepts. These correlations are summarised in Table 5.35.
Table 5.35 Pearson's correlation coefficient between Child PAQ and SDS for "Myself", "Policeman", "Teacher", "Parents", "Enemy" and "Friend" for Kuwaiti children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Myself</th>
<th>Policeman</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Enemy</th>
<th>Friend</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hostility</td>
<td>.27*</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>.26*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependency</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>.30*</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-adequacy</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional responsiveness</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional stability</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worldview</td>
<td>28**</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>.32**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .05. **P < .01

As can be seen from Table 5.35 there are some statistically significant correlations between the Child PAQ and SDS concepts of "Myself", "Policeman", "Teacher" and "Parents", "Enemy" and "Friend".

Therefore, the results suggest that higher levels of psychological adjustment may increase positive appraisals for the self and others concepts, such as self, policeman and teacher, parents, enemy and friend.

5.5.2 Findings on the Semantic Differential Scale (Attitudes towards Israel)

In the present study, the researcher used the SDS to examine, as mentioned earlier, the children's evaluations of self and others such as policeman, teacher and parents. The evaluations of certain countries, e.g. Iraq, Saudi Arabia and Israel have also been examined. However, the participants' attitudes towards Israel were not presented
before because they were not involved in the hypotheses. In this context, it was presumed that the semantic meaning of Israel would be strongly associated with children's beliefs and attitudes towards the enemy, particular Kuwaiti and Egyptian children (Arab children) because of Israel still being viewed as the enemy of the Arab people.

Based on the children's responses to the evaluation of Israel, the data indicated the Kuwaiti and Egyptian children tended to view Israel more negatively than English children, who viewed Israel with neutral evaluations. Specifically, the ratings of the concept of Israel for Kuwaiti, Egyptian and English children were $M=6.79$, $M=6.87$, $M=3.38$, respectively. An analysis of variance performed on these results yielded a significant main effect of nationality, $F=42.7$, which is significant at $P<.001$ (see Table 5.36).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Kuwaiti</th>
<th>Egyptian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>6.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***$P<.001$

Figure 5.9 also shows the distributions of the Israel concept scores for the Kuwaiti, Egyptian and English children. It can be seen that Kuwaiti and Egyptian children gave Israel similar appraisals, and perceived it extremely negatively. English children gave Israel a neutral appraisal.
## Chapter Five Data Analysis and Results

### Non-Kuwaiti views of "Saudi Arabia" and "Enemy"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Kuwaiti</th>
<th>Egyptian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>6.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>6.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beautiful</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>6.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honest</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>6.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeable</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>6.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 5.9 Mean rating of Kuwaiti, Egyptian and English children's respondents for Israel on Five - evaluation scale of Semantic Differential Scale (SDS).](image)

### 5.6 Summary

The chapter has outlined the results of this study. The hypotheses were tested as well as any other findings and analysis.
CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

6.2 General background of results

6.3 Discussion of findings

6.3.1 Findings of hypotheses

6.3.1.1 Hypothesis One

6.3.1.2 Hypothesis Two

6.3.1.3 Hypothesis Three

6.3.1.4 Hypothesis Four

6.3.1.5 Hypothesis Five

6.3.1.6 Hypothesis Six

6.3.1.7 Hypothesis Seven

6.3.1.8 Hypothesis Eight

6.3.1.9 Hypothesis Nine

6.3.1.10 Hypothesis Ten

6.3.2 Additional findings

6.5 Limitation of the study

6.6 Recommendations

6.7 Suggestion for further research

6.8 Summary
CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, inferences will be made from discussions of the results analysed in Chapter Five about the ten hypotheses of the study. The discussion will deal with whatever results obtained in this study are consistent with the theoretical background and the content and process theories of the enemy image discussed in Chapter Two. Comparison will also be made between the findings of the present study and other studies made on different aspects of the enemy image. This chapter will also discuss any other findings of the study, and finally a general discussion about the results will be presented.

6.2 General Background of Results

The findings of this study can be broken down into three major areas based on the way in which the data were gathered and analysed. These three major areas cover all ten hypotheses. Comments on the findings of each hypothesis will be presented in numerical order, according to the type of results that were found.

The first group of findings comprises the results of data collected from the Enemy Image Scale (EIS) and concerns the children's perceptions of the enemy image. This group includes Hypotheses 1 and 2.
The second group of findings comprises the results of data collected from the Enemy Image Scale, Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire, Semantic Differential Scale and Prisoner's Dilemma Game, and investigates the differences between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children in their perceptions of the enemy image, appraisals of self and others, levels of psychological adjustment, and co-operation with others. This group includes Hypotheses 3, 5, 6 and 7. In addition, this second group of findings also includes Hypothesis 10, which compared co-operation and trust versus competition and mistrust among the sample.

The third group of findings comprises the results of data collected from the Enemy Image Scale, Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire, and Semantic Differential Scale. This group concerns the effect of enemy image on Kuwaiti children. This third area of the findings includes Hypotheses 4, 8 and 9.

6.3 Discussion of findings

This section of discussion will discuss the findings revealed in Chapter Five. It will begin with the main finding and will then discuss the additional findings.

6.3.1 Findings of Hypotheses

This section will discuss the findings of the study, and the results of each hypothesis will be discussed in turn. Each discussion of hypotheses will begin with the hypothesis stated, explanations for findings, and integration of findings with past literature and whether there is convergence or divergence with past literature.
6.3.1.1 Hypothesis One

The result of Hypothesis 1 indicates that there is no difference among children in their perception of the enemy image based on age. This result did not support the hypothesis, which predicted that there would be significant differences between children in their perception of the enemy image according to their age.

It is generally accepted that childhood fears are relatively common and that the nature of these fears changes as the child develops; for example, young children are unaffected by events which will frighten them at a later time, whereas older children are no longer affected by events such as separation or strangers which once resulted in major distress for them. It is probable that they are related to the growing children's cognitive capacities for recognising and understanding the potential dangers inherent in such situations (Piaget and Inhelder, 1966).

With respect to the relationship between fear and age, most studies have found that older children report fewer fears than younger ones, but this finding is difficult to interpret. Several questions may emerge in this case. For example, does it mean that development, maturation and cognitive development make children gradually less vulnerable and more capable in the face of new and dangerous situations, or does it simply reflect the pressure of cultural stereotypes which leads to the acceptability of reporting fear by young children but not by older ones? The best answer which we can offer in this situation is that children's fears appear to develop in a sequential pattern
which parallels the changes in their perceptions and cognition described by Piaget (1955).

Although it appeared that younger children have more fears than older children and adolescents, as many studies have shown, this finding was not reflected in the present study, which revealed the same perception of the enemy in younger and older children in spite of the fact that the enemy is described sometimes as a stranger and, according to Marks (1987), fear of strangers and of separation are seen in children all over the world. At the same time this finding does not suggest the presence of a sequence in the development of fears which would seem to reflect the succession of changes in children's perception of reality described by Piaget (1955, 1962). Therefore, the same image of the enemy in younger and older children in this study is a finding in conflict with Piaget's theory which emphasised the notion that older children's perception of reality is less imaginary than that of younger children (Piaget, 1951).

However, a number of possible interpretations can be offered concerning this present finding. One factor that may explain this finding is the relatively small gap in age between the younger children (8 to 9 years old) and the older ones (13 to 14 years old). Specifically, this present study did not show any significant differences between the children of the 8-9 years group and those of the 13-14 years group in the perception of the enemy. This might due to the fact that the age difference between the two groups was not wide enough (3 years) and might not allow for a big difference between two groups in the perception of the enemy. Perhaps studying 15-16 year-olds would have made a difference.
Another explanation for this finding may be that the children's concept of the enemy is relatively similar, and most likely associated with fantasy figures or general play involving rule violation, aggression and aberrant behaviour, such as capturing others (Hayes et al, 1980; Fairchild, 1988).

A further explanation could be related to methodology; that is, that the present study used a self-report questionnaire to investigate the children's perception of the enemy image. The differences among the samples were not found when measuring using the Enemy Image Scale as the self-reporting instrument. It may be that the verbal tests could not adequately reveal the children's attitudes towards the enemy or their perception of the enemy image. A different finding might have been obtained if a more sensitive instrument had been used, with deeper measurement, such as projective tests.

On the other hand, age generally reflects social and cognitive development, and that might be the reason why the findings of Hypothesis 1 contradict the results of other studies, which investigated the effect of age on increasing enmity and friendship. For instance, Duck (1991) found evidence for age differences in the dimensions of friendship, while Hayes et al, (1996) state that the bases for interpersonal animosity widen and become more diverse with age. Jahoda (1962, 1963a) also found that negative attitudes towards the Soviet Union increased with age among Scottish children. A basic finding of many studies is that children as young as 6 generally express strong feelings for their own nation and for traditional national symbols, and
by about age 10, many children develop fairly strong negative feelings for enemy or rival nations (Hess and Torney, 1967; Middleton et al, (1970).

A notable finding is that although age differences were not apparent in the total sample, the results revealed them only in the Kuwaiti group. This result, however, is not very surprising because it may be affected by the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, an event which has created one enemy for both children and adults, i.e. Iraq. Specifically, the present finding is consistent with the events that the Kuwaiti young and old have experienced. The Iraqi invasion had enormous effects on all age levels whether young or old. The impact of the Iraqi invasion will be present in the minds of the Kuwaiti people perhaps for many generations to come whether the experiences were first hand or not. Being a Kuwaiti national whose country had been subjected to all the psychological and physical destruction and tyranny of the Iraqi soldiers are enough to form an image of the Iraqi enemy that is difficult to forget. This has been fortified by the media every day. Until today the Iraq, threats to Kuwait security and safety are always present in the minds of the Kuwaitis. This has resulted in a uniform image among the different age levels in Kuwaiti. Therefore, all age levels have the same feelings, same perceptions, and same image of the enemy. This finding is in the line with Hesse and Poklemba (1988) who reported that young children have only a vague sense of other nations as enemies, unless they grow up in a country at war.

In general, we may conclude that age is not a determinant factor in the perception of the enemy, particularly if there is not a great difference between the groups.
Finally, it is interesting to look at the responses of the sample on the Enemy Image Scale (EIS), particularly the significant items, which differ between the two age groups. For instance, the younger children were more likely to agree with the sentiment which states that "We can deal with the enemy" ($t = -2.55; P < .05$). This result may reflect the fact that the children in the early ages are more tolerant and willing to have positive attitudes to others and to accept them. However, the younger children were more likely to agree with the sentiment stating "The enemy's hands and legs are distorted" ($t = 3.25; P < .01$). Thus, this result may be due to young children having a vague sense of the enemy, or the image of the other being exaggerated. In addition, because young children focus on physical appearance, many of them are genuinely frightened at the sight of a friend wearing a Halloween costume or a parent pretending to be a lion. They also worry about bodily wholeness and can be quite troubled when they see a person who has an obvious physical abnormality (Berger, 1994). Hesse and Poklemba (1988) found that the children's drawings of the enemy tended to be distorted, and that most girls in the 4 to 6 year-old group did not know what an enemy was. Keen (1986) discovered in his analysis of war films and propaganda that the enemy tended to be portrayed as an animal or beast, as barbarian, as evil through and through, as Satan, death or torturer.

6.3.1.2 Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis two stated that there are significant differences between children in their perception of the enemy image according to gender. The result indicates that there is
in fact a gender difference between children in their perception of the enemy image. The difference was in the direction hypothesised.

As there is an assumption that "younger children have more fears than older children and adolescents", it is also commonly assumed that "girls are more afraid than boys" (Angelino et al, 1956; Silverman and Nelles, 1988). However, this fact may be associated with socialisation rather than with age or cognitive development.

Concerning the result of Hypothesis 2, this result provides support for the sociopsychological theory. It suggests that girls were more afraid of the enemy and may hold a distorted image of it. Accordingly, this image of the enemy in the girls is the result of factor of socialisation. Therefore, sociopsychological theory could be used as a possible explanation of why girls are more fearful than boys. This theory asserts that an individual's images are developed during the process of primary socialisation in early childhood. During this period of life, individuals not only enlarge their cognitive capacities, but also adopt the cultural values of their primary group, the family, including its stereotypes, and with them certain dispositions for distinguishing friends from enemies. More analytically, there are four possible explanations for the gender difference in the perception of the enemy. One emphasises the display of socialisation, and assumes that there is an underlying difference in the process of socialisation in children. According to this explanation, the difference between boys and girls is that girls express feelings of fear and anxiety openly, whereas boys are more likely to deny or repress them. Thus, in keeping with the social norms, girls are
more likely to be allowed to express their fears concerning enemy images than boys. This finding lends some support to the commonly held notion that women may be more emotional than men, and show stronger emotional and expressive reactions under stress, fear or threat. For instance, the studies by Rosenbaum and Ronen (1992), Greenbaum and Toubiana (1992) and Lovey (1992) all found that girls were more likely than boys to report anxiety on self-report questionnaires in the course of the war. Goldberg et al (1977) concluded that boys and girls differed little in their concern and preoccupation with the threat of nuclear war. It has long been recognised that boys and girls are socialised differently in a variety of behaviours related to fear. In their study which aimed to investigate the reactions of Israeli school children for missile attack during the Persian Gulf War, Ziedner et al, (1993) found that girls scored higher than boys did on emotional and verbal expressiveness.

A second explanation is also based on socialisation, but it states that the differences between the expressions of fear voiced by boys and girls reflect real differences in fear itself, not merely differences in display of fear. It may be that boys and girls receive different kind of socialisation with regard to the actual experience of fear. This socialisation may extend to the actual state of fear and not only to the display of fear. Again, there is some evidence that socialisation of boys and girls with regard to feelings and behaviour may be different. Boys may be socialised to be less fearful and not to withdraw in dangerous life situations. However, girls may be socialised to believe that they are more exposed to a multitude of dangerous life situations, such as physical threat, abuse, rape or abduction. Therefore, girls may hold a distorted view of
strangers or people they dislike, "enemies". At the same time, the emergence of kidnappers and strangers as significant fears during middle childhood may reflect the media attention directed towards "missing children" (Marks, 1987).

A third explanation is that this gender difference in the perception of the enemy image may be attributed in part either to hormonal differences or to gender differences in sensitivity during threatening or fearful situations.

A final possible explanation also relates to sex differences: research has often shown that the sexes differ in their degree of aggression, as when playing games, etc. It has been concretely shown that boys are more powerful, more overtly aggressive and display more active behaviour, while girls show more passive behaviour. Bronfenbrenner (1961) found that boys choose 'antisocial' alternatives more often than girls. However, there is little or no evidence in these results to show that some children, particularly boys, sometimes identify with aggressive or enemy actions. This is inconsistent with Escalona (1946) who found that children who were afraid of a possible attack by the enemy identified with the aggressor in order to escape this threat. Freud (1972) has described identification with the aggressor as an ego defence. She stresses the power which the child thus obtained; with this power he feels himself equal to the threatening authority.

Finally, the finding of hypothesis two is consistent with other studies that have found gender differences in children's fear.
6.3.1.3 Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis predicted that there are significant differences between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children in their perception of the enemy image. As anticipated, Hypothesis 3 was supported by the data, which revealed that there were significant differences between the two groups. These findings suggest that the two groups may differ in their perception of the enemy image.

This finding, however, is further complicated by the fact that people mean different things by the term "enemy". For example, Hess and Poklemba (1988) found that children describe the enemy in many ways. Some children describe it as strong and carrying a gun, others concede that women or girls can be enemies, while very young children draw centipedes or dogs as enemies. Holt (1989) reported the striking finding that students used very different criteria in defining personal and national enemies. Rowlette (1989) also reached a similar finding. She concluded that the enemy image might differ according to the political system, media influence and personal experience or ideologies. Wiseman and Duck (1991) suggested that enemies are viewed along a number of dichotomies or axes according to the degree of threat to life and some enemies are more evil, dangerous than others and more vicious in their attacks. Furthermore, the existence of the enemy may be also different: some enemies are known and can be tackled or fought with, whereas others are invisible, hidden and without identity. For example, after the terrorist attacks on the World Trade Centre in New York on 11 September 2001, President Bush said that America faced an unknown and different enemy.
The specific and intriguing finding of the third hypothesis is that the children's perception of the enemy image may reflect differences in experiences regarding the enemy. For example, in the Kuwaiti sample, the enemy image may be highly related to the nation, rather than the individual, probably because of the impact of the invasion on Kuwaiti society. Clearly, some of the Kuwaiti sample (older children) lived through the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, stayed in Kuwait during the Iraqi occupation and had vivid memories and imaginary pictures of the traumatic events of the invasion and the Gulf War. In addition, during and after the crisis, images of dead and mutilated Kuwaitis and Iraqi soldiers were repeatedly displayed on television and adults and children continued to view those images on videotape, in magazines, books and photos. During those periods, "the enemy" meant the country they were at war with, that is Iraq. This finding supports Hess and Poklemba's (1988) finding which suggest that living in conflict-ridden countries seems to develop an image of a political enemy.

This study does not claim that Kuwaiti children held only one enemy image, which was Iraq; however, it provides evidence that this is still an image of the enemy, and for most respondents this is the dominant attitude. At the same time, we found no evidence to support the existence of any other salient enemy than Iraq among Kuwaiti children, at least at the time the data were gathered, when the situation in Kuwait was enjoying something of a lull. This result suggests that concerns about safety still remain regarding Iraq, particularly in children. If this is the case, the situation is worrying. It means that the agencies of society (e.g., family, school, media, etc) have been playing a role in enforcing or at least settling the negative image of Iraq in the
children's minds. If this situation continues, the next generation will have the same feelings, whether hostility towards Iraq or fear of it.

At the same time, children, including Kuwaiti children of course, may have many enemy images in their minds, such as real people, monsters, ghosts or witches. In addition, it is important to note that children are sometimes unable to express private thoughts concerning the enemy.

The findings from non-Kuwaiti children are of particular interest. The data revealed that there were significant differences between the three groups (Kuwait, Egyptian and English). While the mean score on EIS was 23.95 for English children and 25.30 for Kuwaitis, the Egyptian children had a higher mean on EIS than did the others, 25.83. This is a surprising finding. An explanation may be that although there has been no recent conflict or war in Egypt except the war of 1973 against Israel, there is still evidence that the enemy image has a political dimension. According to the factors, which play a role in forming the enemy image, as mentioned in this study (Chapter two), it is possible that socialisation, the media and education have an effective role in forming such images. For example, all the different forms of the Egyptian media concentrate on patriotism. Thus, they cultivate attitudes of rejection of the enemy by giving him an ugly image. This is also exaggerated in schools through the curriculum, especially in social studies. This explanation finds some support from a study conducted by Sheety (1999). He finds that the Arabic textbooks for students (7th grade) in Lebanon, Syria, Egypt, Jordan, the West Bank, and Israel (in Arabic schools
only) deal with the enemy, ignore the topic of the peace process and focus on hostility towards the enemy. Egyptian children grow up hearing constantly in the mass media and in public speeches that Israel is their enemy, although the two counties are at peace. The media plays the same role in presenting Israel as a disliked nation (an enemy). This dislike is a direct consequence of the frequently unpleasant portrayal of Israeli in war films and series which regularly appear on Egyptian television. Other factors which contribute to the view of Israel as the enemy are daily TV reports of continuing troubles between Israelis and Palestinians. The newspapers also describe Israel as the evil occupier who threatens danger because it has weapons and nuclear bombs. In addition, Egypt is close to the Israeli border. These factors not only affect the Egyptians' perception of the enemy, but may have increased their fear of war. This finding seems consonant with Thompson's findings (1991). In a cultural study, he reported that German students were higher in rating the likelihood of nuclear power accidents than ten other nation groups, probably because of their proximity to Russia and Chernobyl.

Another explanation could be related to internal affairs in Egypt. From 1992 to 1998, Egypt was the victim of terrorist attacks perpetrated by some Moslem fundamentalists. These events caused casualties among Egyptian police and citizens, as well as forming misperceptions in people towards devout Moslems and exaggerating their fear of them. In addition, during this period, the mass media habitually described those persons as enemies of the country and religion. This description was repeated on TV and the press. Subsequently, the concept of the 'enemy' became noticeable among the
citizens and stereotyping began, particularly in children. However, there is no clear evidence of this claim; it may be this result of the nature of the Egyptian people who tend to cultivate peace and tolerance and dislike aggression and prejudice. Finally, the religious agencies play a part in forming this image (i.e. seeing Muslim fundamentalists as the enemies of country and Islam).

In the English sample, the enemy image may be related to playmates or strangers. However, perhaps the conflict in Northern Ireland has had an effect on these children’s perception of the enemy. At the same time, previous research (Barrett and Short, 1992; Rutland, 1999) indicated relatively high levels of negative stereotyping towards Germans among British children. Furthermore, Britain has a history of relatively recent actual physical conflict with German (i.e. the First and Second World Wars). Germans carry a negative image in British children and there are frequently unsympathetic representation of them as the 'enemy' in British war stories in children's comic books, films and television programmes (Rutland, 1999). However, we do not have evidence to support this explanation and the present study did not seek to investigate the issue.

6.3.1.4 Hypothesis Four

As for Hypothesis 4, which predicted that there is a positive relationship between Kuwaiti children's scores on the Enemy Image Scale (EIS) and their scores on the Child Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ), the data did not fully support the hypothesis. Specifically, the finding showed a weak correlation between
Child PAQ and EIS; however, some correlations were found between sub-scales of the two tests. As indicated earlier, a factor analysis of the EIS indicated three factors; namely, Existence of enemy, Appearance of enemy and Conflict resolution. On the other hand, the Child PAQ contained seven dispositions; these are Hostility, Dependency, Self-esteem, Self-adequacy, Emotional responsiveness, Emotional stability, and Worldview.

The clearest results of the present study were the significant correlation between Existence of enemy and Self-esteem \((r = -0.23, P < 0.05)\), and between Appearance of enemy and Self-adequacy \((r = 0.26, P < 0.05)\). Interpretations of these findings are possible. The correlation between Existence of enemy and Self-esteem may be attributed to the fact that in the child who likes and accepts himself, it is possible to generalise these feelings to others and perceiving them as good, safe, friendly and trustworthy. In other words, the child reflects his viewing of himself to his view of others, and sees them as friends; consequently, there is no or little existence of enemy in his perception of them.

Another possible reason to explain the previous correlation is that a child who receives approval and has feelings of acceptance and self-worth will be likely less to engage in negative behaviour, be less disliked by others, and be less inclined to divide people and the world into two categories, good and bad.
Finally, and perhaps most important, it is possible that there is a negative relationship between self-evaluation (self-esteem and self-adequacy) and the child's fears. In other words, the more self-evaluation in the child, the fewer fears and phobias. In this context, the fears in the child's life are normal, and are typically known as ordinary. However, in the Kuwaiti child there have appeared new fears. These are variables which are associated with the Iraqi invasion and are related to things such as army uniforms, bombs, explosions, and weapons, Iraq and Saddam's words, all of these were not present before. Hence, with increasing numbers of fears, the child's self-evaluation would decrease, then the self would be evaluated negatively.

6.3.1.5 Hypothesis Five

Hypothesis 5 was tested, and this revealed that there is a positive relationship between Kuwaiti children's appraisals of self and authority figures such as policeman, teacher and parents, and their scores on the Children's Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ). Therefore, the findings provide general support for the hypothesis.

However, two points about this finding should be emphasised. First, positive attitudes towards authority (e.g., one's parents, police, government, boss...etc) may be an indicator of a poor adjustment, high conformity and fear, rather than love, respect and trust.

The second point to note is that, although this study provides information about the dynamics of attitudes towards some authority figures, it tells us less about the origins...
of attitudes towards them. Moreover, it tells us nothing at all about attitudes towards other authority figures.

Concerning the findings of Hypothesis 5, we should look at Rohner's (1984 b) interpretation of the Child PAQ; he reported that individuals who achieve a high score on the Child PAQ could be having a "poorer" mental health status than persons who achieve low scores. On the other hand, the SDS was used to ascertain children's evaluations of themselves and authority figures. As mentioned earlier, high scores on the SDS indicate unfavourable evaluations. Hence, the positive correlations between the two scales suggest that the respondents who suffered from psychological maladjustment had negative attitudes towards themselves and other people. In other words, our results indicate that Kuwaiti children who obtained high scores on the Child PAQ, obtained high scores on SDS as well.

Apparently, this finding is consistent with the fact that children who have poor mental health or emotional and behavioural disorders tend to avoid all close and personal relationships with others, or to have negative feelings and attitudes towards them. In addition, some evidence suggests that distorted perceptions of others are likely to lead to exaggerated and hostile or rigid behaviour. Psychiatric theorists have often noted that people who cannot accept themselves cannot accept others, and will tend to be hostile or rejecting towards other people (Duck, 1991).
An explanation which might be offered for the positive relationship between the Child PAQ and the four presented concepts (Self, Policeman, Teacher and Parents) is that of response bias: that is, maladjusted children had lower self-esteem and saw themselves as being less socially accepted by others; consequently, they had negative evaluations of others. According to the definition and operationalisation of the Child PAQ (Rohner, 1984 a; 1984 b), emotionally unresponsive people are emotionally insulated from others. They have restricted and often only defensive emotional involvement with others. They may, however, be sociable and friendly, but friendliness is not to be confused with the ability to enter into a genuinely intimate relationship. In addition, negative self-esteem implies that a person dislikes or disapproves of himself, is uncomfortable with himself, is disappointed in himself, devalues himself, perhaps feels inferior to others, and perceives himself as being essentially a worthless person or as being worthy of condemnation. From another viewpoint for a person with a negative worldview, life is seen as essentially bad, insecure, threatening, unpleasant, hostile, uncertain, and/or full of many dangers from things or people.

However, the parent - child relationship may have played some role in this finding. Typically, the child needs to be accepted by the people around him, especially his parents, then he will accept himself as a consequence of his parents' acceptance of him, and he generalises his acceptance to parents and to other people. If, on the other hand, this does not occur, it is likely to make it more difficult for a child to interact without strain or discomfort in interpersonal relationships later in life, because if he
develops the self-concept, early in life, that he is not likeable, then it will be very difficult for him to change that underlying feeling.

Our findings were generally in concert with those reported by others, for example consistent with Patterson, Kupersmidt and Griesler (1990) who found that maladjusted children reported the least supportive relationships with their fathers and most conflict with friends. Parke and his colleagues (1988) reported that unpopular children's interactions with fathers are less physically playful than those of other children. The findings are also consistent with Putallaz (1987), who found that unpopular children's interactions with their mothers were less positive than those of other children. Richmond et al, (1972) indicate a positive correlation between self-acceptance and respect for others.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, children often see parents, policeman and teacher as powerful figures within society. These figures, however, sometimes use force and control to get discipline and submission from others. In this context, of course, adjustment with these figures could normally occur in children because of fear or maybe respect for them. However, maladjusted children's behaviour could take a different course, such as hostility, rejection or aggression. In contrast to frustration-aggression theory, which argues that people may displace aggression by derogating others in response to blocked goals and frustrations in their life (Stanger, 2000), Rohner (1984 a; 1984 b) reported that emotionally unstable children are upset easily by small setbacks, difficulties and disappointments. If they expect something to
happen but it does not, they are apt to become angry or dejected. Crick and Grotpeter (1995) also found that relational aggression is significantly related to maladjustment, so children who feel lonely or poorly accepted by others may use relational aggression as a way to retaliate against them, particularly if those people do not accept or respond to their demands. Freud (1972) observed that emotions like anger and hate are more closely tied to satisfaction and frustration experiences.

It is possible that some authority figures may be viewed as disliked or as the enemy, particularly amongst unpopular, rejected or neglected children; consequently, their attitudes will be negative toward them and their perceptions will be distorted.

Overall, the results were consistent with the prediction; it was found that personal maladjustment of children can lead to negative evaluations of self and others.

6.3.1.6 Hypothesis Six

Hypothesis 6 stated that Kuwaiti children when compared with non-Kuwaiti children (Egyptian and English) with regard to SDS responses will: (a) produce a significant higher evaluation factor score for "Iraq" and (b) perceive a significant smaller distance between "Iraq" and "enemy", and (c) perceive a significant larger distance between "Saudi Arabia" and "enemy".

The results obtained on the SDS were submitted to a distance analysis, as suggested by Osgood et al, (1957). The hypotheses presented above were formulated to measure the
psychological distance between the subjects and certain concepts. The measurement has used the evaluation dimension in SDS.

Hypotheses 6 (a) and (b) were upheld in both the Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children. As predicted, the Kuwaiti children produce a significantly higher evaluation factor score for 'Iraq' and perceive a significant smaller distance between 'Iraq' and 'enemy' in comparison with non-Kuwaiti children. The results from Hypotheses 6 (b) and (c) indicated that the Kuwaiti children had extremely negative attitudes towards 'Iraq' and perceived it as closer to "enemy".

Regarding Hypothesis 6 (c), which stated that Kuwaiti children would perceive a significant larger distance between "Saudi Arabia" and "enemy", this hypothesis was supported by the data. The results on the hypothesis indicate that Kuwaiti children perceived Saudi Arabia in a significantly more positive way than did non-Kuwaitis.

However, these findings can be fully explained by reference to the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait. It would appear that the extremely negative attitudes expressed by the Kuwaiti sample are a realistic reflection of their experience with the Iraqi invasion. This is a common attitude among Kuwaiti people towards Iraq after the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait. Specifically, there is plenty of evidence that Kuwaiti people have an unfavourable evaluation of Iraq. They have considered that Iraq was occupying their country and trying to destroy it and fired over 600 oil wells, still is detaining 600 Kuwaiti people as prisoners, and denied them, also is still threatening them from time
to time by invading their country. Therefore, it is reasonable for children to conclude that a national enemy must be a country that threatens them. In addition, many Kuwaitis, including some of this study sample, had vivid negative experiences with Iraqi soldiers during the Kuwait occupation.

Closely related to the formation of the national image in children occurs in childhood and usually in the family group (Alvik, 1968; Boulding, 1959; Haque and Lawson, 1980). Adult political culture affects the children's choice of good and bad nations, and children began to have clear-cut preferences or disdain of other countries (Targ, 1970). Hence, in the present study, the society agencies (i.e., family, media, schools...etc) in Kuwait may have played some role in the semantic association elicited in Kuwaiti children's responses to Iraq. For example, Kuwaiti television programmes, plays and journals tend to portray Iraq as the enemy in stark black terms, and its actions are associated with wicked stepmothers, torture, and maiming or killing others without mercy. Since Kuwaiti children have grown up constantly receiving the message from the mass media and their parents or teachers that Iraq is their enemy, their attitudes here will be difficult to change, and probably the children may still hold an extreme enemy image about Iraq. Subsequently, the children learned to hate Iraq.

The above explanations regarding the Kuwaiti children's ratings of Iraq find some support from many previous studies, for example, Macksoud and Nadir (1993) asked 240 Kuwaiti children aged from 11 to 16 years about their enemy. Most of children
named Iraqi and Saddam Hussein as the enemy, others named Satan. Similar results have been obtained by Al-Saraf (1998) who surveyed the attitudes towards the enemy of 577 schoolchildren in Kuwait. He found that 83% expressed that Iraq is the enemy. Closely related, Harris (1993) found that United States residents perceive themselves as the in-group in an overwhelmingly positive way, and perceive the Russians and the Iraqis as the out-groups, and accordingly in a negative way. Punamaki (1996) found that Israeli children's attitudes towards war and the enemy reflected their cultural and national heritage. In addition to the possible role of media in formation of and keeping the enemy image obtained in the present study is consistent with the finding obtained by Hesse and Mack (1991) who reported that children's cartoons affect children's social and political learning. They found that the children learn the world is divided into two categories, good people who are Americans, and evil people who are always foreign. Children also learn that the world is a dangerous place.

At the same time, the present findings give some support to the fact that political events such as war, conflict and invasion may contribute to in the enemy image formation. For example, our finding is consistent with Baumgarten and Prescott's study (1928) which found that Polish children learned to hate Germans because they were occupying their city. Salazar and Marin (1977) found as an impact of the conflict between Colombia and Venezuela that the Colombian students perceived all the Latin American group as very close together, except for the Venezuelans, whom they perceived at a significant distance from the other groups. The Venezuelan subjects did the same when they perceived the Colombians.
On the other hand, a possible explanation for the positive evaluations of Saudi Arabia by Kuwaiti children is viewing Saudi Arabia as an ally of Kuwait and its effective contribution to Kuwait's liberation from Iraqi occupation. Specifically, Kuwaiti children increasingly saw the enemy as bad, the alliance was seen as good. This finding can be related to results of Faisal's study (1995) which measured the social distance between Saudi University students and nationals of Arab League states, the data being collected immediately after the Gulf War. It found that nationals of Syria, Egypt and Morocco received higher degrees of social acceptance than the rest of the Arab nationalities because these three states supported Saudi Arabia during the Gulf crisis. Nationals of states that supported Iraq, on the other hand, received the highest scores, indicating least acceptance. These states were Libya, Palestine, Yemen, and of course Iraq.

Finally and most important, it can be said that the results from Hypothesis 6 may be viewed and interpreted in terms of the social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1986) which may help us to understand the in-group and out-group patterns of favouritism. In this context, the results suggest that Kuwaiti children perceived Iraqis as the out-group and accordingly looked on them in a much less positive way, whereas they perceived Saudi Arabia as an in-group in an overwhelmingly positive way. In other words, the Kuwaiti children tend to see Iraq as the enemy and in terms of aggression, hostility, unfairness and deceitfulness. In contrast, they see Saudi Arabia a friend and in terms of peace, friendship and support.
At the same time, the Kuwaiti children began to make comparisons between Iraq, which occupied their country and harmed them and Saudi Arabia, which contributed to the liberation of their country from the Iraqi invasion and supported and stood with them.

The key point here is the polarisation which occurs in the perceptions of one's own group, the Kuwaitis, and in the perceptions of an out-group, the Iraqis, and how this appears to go hand in hand with negative perceptions of out-groups and may accept the prospect of violence against an out-group.

Apparently, increasing degrees of polarisation in the perception of the in-group and the out-group can be related to bad or good actions and behaviour.

6.3.1.7 Hypothesis Seven

Concerning Hypothesis 7, which stated that Kuwaiti children when asked to draw a bad person would be more likely to draw an Iraqi figure than non-Kuwaiti children would, the results of comparing Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti children indicated that there was a significant difference between their drawings, as predicted.

However, before discussion of this hypothesis and its results, two notes with regard to the drawings should be made here. Firstly, the feelings that a child is unwilling or unable to put into words can often be expressed more easily through drawings and paintings. Emotions too powerful or too confusing to think about clearly can find
release with paint on paper. Relationships, which arouse such strong feelings of love or hate that a child is unable to find the right words to describe them may be vividly portrayed in a drawing or painting. In short, pictures can speak with ease when the child is lost for words. Secondly, most clinical psychologists agree that human figure drawings are valuable projective instruments for the diagnosis and evaluation of children with emotional problems (Koppitz, 1966). According to Machover (1949), certain drawings are cues to the drawer's personality. Human figure drawings are also an important indicator of psychological maladjustment, particularly in traumatic events, which are experienced by children. For example, children who have experienced acute trauma may be less able to express themselves freely, may however find expression through drawing easier. In addition, in the specialised treatment of traumatised children, drawing is more than a doorway to the child's mental representation of traumatic material (Koppitz, 1966; Malchiodi, 1998; Lewis and Greene, 1983; Terr, 1985; Wilson and Raphael, 1993).

The current study used children's drawings to examine one aspect (the image of the enemy) of the perception of the Iraqi invasion by children of two different groups (Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti). On the other hand, because the Kuwaiti children who had experienced the Iraqi invasion and had been traumatised by physical violence, or other serious crises, are possibly often hesitant to talk about their feelings, thoughts and attitudes, we assume that their drawings may tell us things that the child may be unwilling or unable to put into words.
Returning to the hypothesis of the current investigation, that the differences are apparently observable between two groups. The data from Kuwaiti children's drawings indicated that 50 of out 80 of drawings had mentioned Iraqi figures as a bad, aggressor or disliked person, whereas there were no indications of Iraqis as bad or disliked in non-Kuwaiti drawings.

The critical questions here is: Why did the Kuwaiti children draw the Iraqis as the enemy more than non-Kuwaitis did?

The realistic group conflict theory (Campbell, 1965) may help in answering the above question. It is possible that Kuwaiti children view Iraq as the aggressor, dangerous, dishonest and finally as a source of threat. This view, particularly in view of the real threat, causes hostility, according to the theory, towards the source of threat.

In another attempting to answer the above question, it is useful to look more closely at the characteristics of the subjects of the present study. It can be noted that some of the older Kuwaiti children had witnessed atrocities carried out by the Iraqi soldiers and experienced traumatic events during the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait. The younger Kuwaiti children, on the other hand, had not experienced the invasion, but they have a strong tendency to dislike Iraq and Iraqis perhaps due to the impact of the media and parents' attitudes toward Iraq. The non-Kuwaitis (Egyptian and English), on the other hand, maybe were not affected directly or indirectly by any situations between
themselves and Iraq or Iraqis. Subsequently, it is not surprising that their drawings do not contain any cues or figures indicating Iraq whatever as friend or enemy.

A possible way to understand and interpret the various differences above between the Kuwaiti children's drawings versus the non-Kuwaiti drawings would be in terms of an active process of suffering of traumatic events. Thus Kuwaiti children who were exposed to the Iraqi invasion may exhibit the effects of trauma in both their behaviours and their drawing expressions. This finding is in line with other studies, which have shown, that children may repeat images related to the trauma they have experienced through their art and play activities. For example Tibbetts (1989), in his work with children from Northern Ireland, used drawing to help children express themselves and to begin the process of working through traumatic violence. Tibbetts began with a brief and supportive discussion of the child's traumatising experience, asking children to draw a picture of anything they would like and tell a story about their pictures. Although the children were not specifically asked to draw a picture related to their traumas, most children drew images related to or depicting their traumatising events.

One possible factor contributing to the difference between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti drawings may be that the enemy concept is similar among Kuwaiti children and indicates Iraq. However, the fact is that most Kuwaitis after the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait not only rated Iraq as bad, they even rated it as a bloodthirsty, trustless enemy. So the drawings of Kuwaiti children might be the result of a dichotomous
"friend...enemy" - thinking, where all attributes of a friend are seen as good, and all attributes of an enemy as bad.

Finally, it is possible that Kuwaiti children's ideas about the enemy depended upon their family members, friends, relatives and acquaintances, particularly those who experienced the Iraqi invasion. Then they have been affected by others' perceptions, attitudes and feelings and consequently, Iraq became the main enemy in their lives. This is clear evidence that traumatic effects could be transmitted to new generations. According to Terr (1985), posttraumatic play can be contagious among children. Other posttraumatic effects such as time distortions, fears, and misperceptions can be "caught" in the same way. Because traumatic anxiety is so intense, so intrusive, and so omnipresent for the victim, his friends and family begin to respond to this horrible undertone of emotion. Eventually, those people who exist at some distance from the victim may also be affected, and the traumatic anxiety with its accompanying play, rumours, or stories may actually be transmitted into new generations. In support of this view, Hesse and Poklemba (1988) found that Colombian children, when asked to draw enemies, drew scenes of the guerrilla warfare they witnessed in Colombia, whereas Israeli children tended to draw Arabs and symbols of Nazi Germany.

On the other hand, a few Kuwaiti children and all non-Kuwaiti children have drawn thieves, playmates, strangers, and ghosts as bad figures. These drawings, however, confirmed the fact, which was mentioned earlier, that people mean different things by the term "enemy".
6.3.1.8 Hypothesis Eight

Concerning Hypothesis 8, which predicted that older Kuwaiti children who had experienced the Iraq invasion would report significantly higher levels of psychological maladjustment than the younger Kuwaiti children (who did not experience the Iraq invasion), the result indicated that children who had experienced the invasion were significantly different on the Child PAQ as a total scale than those who had had no such experience. The results also revealed that there were significant differences between the two groups in emotional-stability and worldview as sub-scales. Therefore, the findings were consistently in the direction hypothesised.

A plausible interpretation of these findings is that exposure to the Iraqi invasion was experienced as a traumatic event. The evidence indicates that war and violent events have negative effects on psychological and social aspects of children's development and their attitudes towards society and life. War-related trauma and traumatic stress affect children in many different ways and may have negative consequences for many years (Hobfoll et al, 1991).

Numerous studies and reports have discussed war experience and its effects on children and adolescents, from the Second World War to the present time. Most of these studies show that children and adolescents suffered from various psychological disturbances, such as restlessness, nervousness, nightmares, anxiety and fear, depression, obsessive behaviour, delinquency, aggressive behaviour, and poor school performance. For example, Goldberg, et al (1977) studied fear in periods of stress and
calm among Israeli students. They found that fear scores were significantly lower in the calm period than in two stressful periods. Punamaki (1987) investigated Israeli and Palestinian children and found that both groups showed fears. Children exposed to the stress of extreme violence may reveal mental health disturbances years after the immediate experience is over (Garbarino, Kostelny and Dubrow, 1991). For example, a follow-up study of Cambodian children who experienced the moral and psychological devastation of the Pol Pot regime in 1974-1979 revealed that four years after leaving Cambodia, 50% of children developed post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Kuzmic (1992) studied 30 Croatian children and found that subjects who were refugees or the children of soldiers had more symptoms, symptoms of higher intensity, and symptoms that lasted longer than those of other subjects. Abu-Hein et al (1993) reported a high prevalence of nervousness, fears, restlessness, sleep disturbance, nocturnal enuresis, and psychosomatic symptoms among children in Gaza after the Intifada. Ager (1996) concluded that the experience of war impacted on children's understanding of the world, for example, emotional, social and cognitive schemata are all potentially severely disrupted by the experience of war. Punamaki, Qouta and El-Sarraj (1997) found that traumatic events increased children's psychological adjustment problems.

Traumatic war experiences have deleterious effects on children (Macksoud et al, 1993). "Contrary to common opinion. Children and adolescents are not more flexible than adults because of their age and do not easily 'forget' bad experiences. They do not get over trauma quickly although they may resume aspects of normal functioning....
Children often suffer much more than parents and other adults think" (Gordon and Wraith, 1993, p. 361).

In view of the above evidence, it seems legitimate to speculate that Kuwaiti children who had experienced the Iraq invasion and witnessed atrocities carried out by the soldiers, such as fighting, destruction of property, physical assault on family members and killing, and personal experienced, stressful traumatic events, would be more likely to have negative reactions than children who did not.

As a matter of fact, the Iraqi invasion and occupation of Kuwaiti was a critical stress event for all Kuwaitis, particularly children. The Iraqi aggression and invasion of Kuwait began in August 1990, and the liberation was completed in February 1991. Through these seven months of armed occupation, the Iraqi soldiers terrorised the Kuwaiti people, especially children.

The clearest result of hypothesis 8 was the significant difference between younger and older Kuwaiti in emotional-stability and worldview. Apparently, this result is closely related to their experience with the Iraqi invasion. This experience, however, may effect their emotional and cognitive schemata, and damaged their worldviews (Ager, 1996; Punamaki, 1999). In the past, they learned that all Arabs are brothers, and Islam prompts them to respect others and not attack them or attack their land. But the Kuwaiti children who witnessed the Iraqi soldiers who killed or captured their father, relatives, friends and acquaintances know that those soldiers were Arabs and were also
Muslims. This dissonance not only conflicts with the children's values and schemata, but also breaks down the sense of Arabic and Muslim identity. Another damage of children's worldview was by their learning to accept violence as a way of solving problems.

The relationship between the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait and personality disturbances in children has been previously investigated. The Educational Research Centre (1992) in Kuwait carried out a survey to examine the influence of the Iraqi aggression against Kuwait on 1299 and 1482 children, aged respectively, 7 to 10 and 11 to 17 years. The study indicated that most children in the sample experienced terrible war events that led to PTSD varying from mild to very severe. The study also showed there is a high correlation between war exposure experiences and a post-traumatic index. Nader and Pynoos (1993) found difficulties with impulse control for Kuwaiti children and adolescents following the Gulf Crisis. Nader and Fairbank (1994) studied 51 Kuwaiti children exposed to the Gulf Crisis and found an inverse relationship between re-experiencing and arousal symptoms, including problems with impulse control and somatic complaints. In the early period of the Gulf Crisis, following the summer 1990 Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, Al-Eissa (1995) found that most Kuwaiti children suffered from psychosomatic disorders, anxiety, aggressive or regressive behaviour, withdrawal from society, and emotional lability.

Other studies which investigated the effect of the Iraqi invasion on Kuwaiti children and adolescents found that stress syndrome still persists in the thought and feeling processes of the Kuwaiti children (Al-Shatti, 1996).
Another issue raised by this finding is the age factor in the traumatic events. The age factor is an important mediator of the effects of war trauma in children and may be an important determinant of the response; there may be age differences in the appraisal of threat, as well as in the coping skills available to an individual. However, our results indicated that children who had experienced the invasion were older and reported significantly higher levels of psychological maladjustment than the younger children. This finding supports the previous finding of Gleser, Green and Winget (1981) who had showed that symptoms of depression and anxiety were greater in older children after the Buffalo Creek flood. Macksoud and Nazar (1993) reported that older Kuwaiti children had been exposed to a greater number of traumatic events and were more likely to have witnessed or been a victim of violence. Hadi and Liabre (1998) also found that Kuwaiti children who reported severe PTSD symptoms tended to be older, and had been in the country for all or some part of the crisis.

The broad conclusion to be drawn from these findings is that traumatic experiences have both direct and indirect associations with children's psychological adjustment. The more traumatic the experiences the children had, the more they suffered from psychological maladjustment problems. The findings also support the notion that a negative relationship exists between armed conflict and the health and behaviour of the children.
6.3.1.9 Hypothesis Nine

The results of Hypothesis 9 are related to the results from Hypothesis 8, but differ in that the relationship between the experience of the Iraqi invasion and the children's appraisal of self and others has been investigated in this hypothesis. Hypothesis 9 predicted that "Kuwaiti children who experienced the Iraqi invasion will differ from those who did not in their appraisal of self and authority figures, such as: policemen, teachers and parents". The results indicate that there were significant differences between the two groups in the appraisals of the concepts of self, policeman and teacher, but not parents, therefore the data were in the hypothesised direction, except the appraisal of parents.

The important question associated with these findings is: Does the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait as a traumatic experience of Kuwaiti children have an effect on their perception of self and others?

The data presented clearly indicate high scores on the SDS were achieved by the children who experienced the Iraqi invasion, and revealed the negative appraisal of the self and some authority figures such as policeman and teacher. Specifically, older children viewed self, policeman and teacher more negatively. This was interpreted as reflecting the impact of the Iraqi invasion and the Gulf war, particularly the effect of parental absence.
It should be pointed out that among the 80 Kuwaiti children in the study, 33 children had lost one of their parents (children of martyrs), and 7 were children of prisoners of war following the invasion, occupation and eventual liberation of Kuwait.

There is some evidence that having a stressful life event such as parental absence, i.e., parents who were martyrs or prisoners of war, could contribute to effects on children's personality. For example, Bacon et al, (1963) found that in societies in which the father's effective presence in the household is at a minimum there is also a relatively high rate of theft and personal crime. Siegman (1966), in his study, compared the relative frequency of antisocial activities in a group of male adults whose fathers were away in the armed services during early childhood with that found in a group of male adults whose fathers were not away from home during that time. Also, a recent study conducted by the Social Development Office (1998) found that Kuwaiti children who lived with both parents were more well adjusted in regard to psychological and social aspects than those children who lived only with the mother (father being martyred in the war).

The studies mentioned above point out that the father-absence may play a role in personality disturbances in children. However, there may be another reason to explain the results of Hypothesis 9; that is, it is possible that there is a connection between the attitudes of children toward the authority figures, particularly teacher and policeman, and their experience of the invasion event. For example, children may have seen the authority of their teacher as comparable to the authority of an Iraqi soldier (the
enemy). Furthermore and closely related, they may have perceived the policeman's uniform as the Iraqi soldier's uniform. These findings are inconsistent with the fact that policeman and teacher are related to children's security. They also contradict the earlier research of Krause (1975) which asked children "who helps them more than anyone else?"; the majority mentioned their parents and teachers. He also found that young children liked the policeman because of his uniform and older children because he helps them across the road.

In supporting of the previous explanation, another a plausible explanations could be provide from two theories of the enemy image formation which were discussed earlier. These are social identity theory and psychoanalytic theory. The findings of Hypothesis 9, however, may be interpreted from the perspective of social identity theory, for the attribution of in-group and out-group status provides support for two theories. Specifically, the older Kuwaiti children who experienced the Iraqi invasion described authority figures such as teachers and policemen with negative characteristics (i.e., bad, unfair, ugly, hateful) and subsequently saw them as out-groups. In contrast, they described their parents and perhaps themselves as having positive characteristics (i.e., good, fair, beautiful, honest and likeable) and subsequently saw their parents and themselves as members of the in-group. However, the reasons of these attributes clearly need more investigation. In the perspective of psychoanalytic theory, it is possible that these children (i.e., the ones who experienced the invasion) displaced their hostility towards Iraq as the disliked object (old enemy) onto other disliked authority figures (new enemy). This, however, may be compatible with the prediction
of psychoanalytic theory, which says that if one enemy disappears, then another will soon be found to take its place. In other words, people when faced with the loss of an enemy, transfer their old animosity to a new one. However, we do not find evidence to support this prediction (i.e., Kuwaiti children's hostility is not transferred from Iraq to policemen and teachers). In connection with psychoanalytic theory, the projection as a defence mechanism may be presented as an alternative explanation. The function of the defence mechanism of projection is that it replaces the perceived internal danger which is arousing anxiety with an external danger which is usually psychologically and emotionally easier to confront (Harris, 1993). In the present study, projection, however, may used to reduce the anxiety of children who experienced the invasion by attributing certain traits to other people such as authority figures (e.g., policemen and teachers). More specifically, those children may project their unacceptable feelings, thoughts and reactions - which are associated with the enemy (e.g., fear, control, etc) - towards policemen and teachers.

One more finding with regard to a negative appraisal of authority figures should be mentioned here. Although the invasion appeared to have an impact on the children's appraisal towards some authority figures, the effect of age could however have contributed to these findings. The older Kuwaiti children (ages 13 to 14) like any older children close to the adolescent stage, tend to be less likely to conform to authority and have a tendency to conflict with authoritarian parenting or teaching, which usually includes some heated discussions or orders, therefore rejection, hostility and aggression may emerge at this age (Berger, 1994).
Finally, and perhaps most interestingly, the findings also indicated that younger and older children showed more respect for parents rather than for police and teachers; this may be due to the fact that children seem more likely to respect the traditional authority of parents.

**6.3.1.10 Hypothesis Ten**

The last hypothesis of the present study is Hypothesis 10, which predicted that children who play Prisoner's Dilemma against an opponent they like are initially more cooperative than children who play against an opponent they dislike.

Hypothesis 10 was fully supported by the data, which clearly indicated that children were co-operative when playing with an opponent that they like, and more competitive when playing with an opponent they dislike. In fact, it is usually surmised that patterns of cooperation and competition are affected by many factors, such as culture, family patterns societal expectation, age and gender, as well as psychological factors such as racism and friendship.

On the other hand, assuming that cooperation is greater among people who like rather than dislike one another, this may be interpreted as being due to trust. In contrast, there are also numerous situations in which individuals fail to cooperate. Instead, they engage in competition to determine who can get the biggest share of some resource for themselves. With competitive behaviour, an individual appears to be motivated solely by selfishness, greed and the desire to win (Baron and Byrne, 1991).
There is clear evidence in the present results that hostility affects overall competitive and cooperative responses in PDG. Specifically, hostility or enmity among children may increase in competition but decrease in cooperation. This relation has been found in adults in previous studies when they played the PDG with strangers (e.g. Schlenker, Helm and Tedeschi, 1973). However, the present results are perfectly consistent with the results found by McClintock and McNeel (1967) in their study of the determinant factors of cooperative and competitive game behaviour. As in this study, they found that playing in hostile conditions consistently showed a greater tendency to compete, whereas playing in friendly conditions was consistently the least competitive. Rotenberg (1995) also found that children were more cooperative when playing with mothers and fathers than with strangers. However, our findings do not appear consistent with Oskamp and Perlman’s (1965) findings which found no consistent relationship between cooperation and friendship.

Finally, the results of Hypothesis 10 suggest that hostility is one of the important factors, which influence cooperative behaviour, particularly in children.

6.3.2 Additional Findings

The first findings to be discussed in this section are those which resulted from the Child PAQ. These findings revealed a significant positive correlation between hostility and the concepts of myself, policeman, teacher and friend among Kuwaiti children. Specifically, the more hostility children felt, the more negative their appraisal of themselves, policeman, teacher and friend. However, according to Rohner (1984 b),
"Hostility is an emotional (internal) reaction or feeling of anger, enmity, anger or resentment directed toward another person, situation or oneself."

The previous correlations can be explained by looking at the factors, which contributed to the hostility. As previously mentioned, the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait is one of the main factors which have played a great role in psychological disturbances in Kuwaiti children, particularly in the older children who experienced the invasion event. Consequently, the negative feelings and behaviours, such as hostility, enmity, fear and aggression, were associated with this psychological disturbance. The findings, therefore, provided the evidence that children's exposure to a traumatic event (e.g. the invasion of Kuwait in the children's case) may negatively affect their psychological adjustment with themselves and others.

Another notable finding which arose from the Child PAQ was the significant positive correlation between worldview and myself, policeman, teacher, parents and friend. This finding, in fact, related to previous findings, appear to reinforce the view that the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait as a traumatic event may, indeed, affect the Kuwaiti children's view of the world. They may have perceived the world as insecure, threatening, unpleasant, hostile and full of danger. The child with a negative worldview, on the other hand, learns to expect the worst, that the world is never safe and that people are always bad. Consequently, it may be easier for him/her to make enemies rather than friends. This finding supports the previous findings of Basoglu et al (1996) and Carmil and Breznits (1991), mentioned earlier.
Turning now to the other findings which arose from the Semantic Differential Scale (SDS); these concern the attitudes, which the children attribute to other nations. The findings revealed that both Kuwaiti and Egyptian children perceived Israel significantly more negatively than English children.

It is not surprising that Kuwaiti and Egyptian children rated Israel as negative. There is considerable evidence that people's image of other nations / countries and their attitudes toward them are related to personality variables such as feelings of security, aggressiveness, value system ...etc (Oskamp, 1968). Therefore, the attitudes of Kuwaiti and Egyptian children, being Arabs, probably reflect social and personal factors, such as their political socialisation and ideology, given that Israel occupies an Arab land (Palestine) and is the major enemy of the Arab people.

These findings, on the other hand, provide support for the Hosin and Cairns (1984) conclusion that in certain situations the historical past may have a greater impact on children's national attitudes than the present and the previous findings of Al-Monofi (1988), Lawson (1989), Thompson (1991), Punamaki, (1996) and Staub (1996), which found that conflict, past history and socialisation may have played some role in the people's attitudes towards nations.

In summary, this finding highlights the way children from different groups perceive foreign nations as countries they like or dislike. The conclusions which can be drawn from this finding are, firstly, that an enemy of a country is highly threatening;
secondly, the enemy could be a nation; and finally, children appear to have some awareness of other countries and are often able to evaluate them.

6.5 Limitations of the Study

Following the precept that no study is able to produce results that are error free or generalisable to all populations under every set of conditions, this study needs to be interpreted with caution, and certain limitations must be kept in mind. Hence, the discussion of the limitations of the present study will focus on possible improvements as regards the measurement and subjects.

Measurement

The present study has used six instruments to collect data. This number of instruments, however, has both advantages and drawbacks. For example, the advantages of such a number were that it gathered wide and varied information about variables and subject, examined the study topic from various aspects and integrated of quantitative and qualitative methods. The drawbacks of using several methods are the potential for missing data, possible inadequacies in the administration and carelessness or tiredness factors among the subjects. Moreover, in the present study, there are also limitations as to its instruments. First, the enemy image scale may not be the most appropriate test to examine the enemy image phenomenon. So, the distinctive differences among responses in the perception of the enemy were not altogether expected. Therefore, one might consider replacing the Enemy Image Scale with a new structured objective scale which would of course need further review of the content, revision of the items and
a new construction to test its reliability and validity. Closely related with the question of the Enemy Image Scale, this study, however, deals with the image of the enemy as a product of attitudes, feelings and thoughts. In other words, this study uses a different sense of "mental image" and more or less avoids the depth processes of mental image such as information processing, memory and imagery. At the same time, the term enemy may mean different things to different people. This means that the differences are probably wider in children than in adults. Any particular fully uniform characteristic of the enemy is more difficult to find in the children than in adults. So, this various of meanings regarding the enemy may have an effect on the present findings, whether in the children's perceptions and attitudes towards the enemy or in their drawings of the bad person (enemy) as assessed in the Draw-A-Person Test.

This study, in contrast, suggests that the socialisation, the media and education are contributory factors in the formation of the enemy image. However, this suggestion was based on the literature review and the researcher's experience (as a teacher) and his observations rather than his actual investigation of these factors.

**Subjects**

As noted in the results, the subjects were drawn from particular schools and particular age ranges. Although they are believed to be representative, they were not a random sample of the entire Kuwaiti population. So, the results may not be generalisable to other populations. Thus, caution must be used in comparing the results of this study with those of other groups of children within and outside Kuwait. The subjects of this
study were from Kuwait, Egypt and England, their ages ranging between 8 and 14 years. However, it is important to keep in mind that the subjects are from different countries, and have had different agents of socialisation as well as different educational systems. This not only affects the process of their cognitive-development process (i.e., the acquisition of information about themselves and others), but also affects their political socialisation and acceptance of other.

The age of the children was a significant determinant factor in this study. The researcher was cautious about age differences. However, four points about this variable (i.e., age) should be discussed here. First, It was not possible to study a very young age group because some of the instruments in this study needed reading ability. Second, in addition to Egyptian and English children, who were chosen as control groups, consideration was given to choosing Iraqi children, in order to examine the mirror image hypothesis. Perhaps the Kuwaiti and Iraqi children evaluate themselves in similar ways. It was not, however, possible to gain access to an Iraqi sample, because it is rare for Kuwaiti people to have any contact with Iraqis, and there are only a few Iraqis living in Kuwait. Conversely, apart from prisoners of war, there are no Kuwaitis living in Iraq. The researcher could not have entered Iraq to collect data from Iraqi children, with any guarantee of safety. Third, the older age groups were at the adolescent stage, which might affect the results. Finally and closely related to the third point, it appears that the confounding of age and war experience in the older Kuwaiti sample is the main theoretical concern in the present study. Although the age variable may creep into the findings, however, this extraneous variable could be controlled by
matched participants and then did not create a problem for this study. Specifically, it is a pure fact of history that those children who experienced the Iraqi invasion will be older than those born after it. The purpose of the same-age control groups in Egypt and the UK was to control for the effect. By comparing the Kuwaiti results with those in Egypt and the UK, the effect of age and war experience can be better understood. More specifically, control groups resolved this matter adequately. The situation in the Kuwaiti sample is different from the normal situation where it is expected that the image would be different according to the age variable as the results indicated in the case of the Egyptian and English samples. The results virtually revealed that there were no significant differences in the perception of the enemy image on the basis of age among the Kuwaiti children. However, differences were found among the Egyptian and English children (see Table 6.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Younger</th>
<th>older</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kuwaiti</td>
<td>25.50</td>
<td>25.10</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>27.06</td>
<td>24.82</td>
<td>3.42**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>23.18</td>
<td>24.80</td>
<td>-3.40**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P<.01**

At the same time, the results of the study are consistent with the events that the Kuwaiti, young and old, have experienced. The Iraqi invasion had enormous effects on all age levels whether young or old alike. Moreover, the impact of the Iraqi invasion will be present in the minds of the Kuwaiti people perhaps for many generations to come whether the experiences were first hand or not. Being a Kuwaiti national whose
country had been subjected to all the psychological and physical destruction and
tyranny of the Iraqi soldiers are enough to form an image of the Iraqi enemy which is
difficult to erase. This has been fortified by the media every day. Until today Iraq
threats to Kuwait security and safety are always present in the minds of the Kuwaitis.
This has resulted in a uniform image among the different age levels in Kuwaiti.
Therefore, all age levels have the same feelings, same perceptions, and same image of
the enemy.

6.6 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following are some major recommendations
derived from the previous discussion.

1. Child therapy groups based on drawing and dramatic play, should prove to be
   helpful for releasing anxieties about particular traumatic events.

2. Parents, educators and politician should pay more attention to the political
   socialisation of children by instilling in them a more flexible and complex notion
   of allies and enemies. Thus, enhancing the terms of tolerance, peace and
   cooperation.

3. Give children accurate information about the dangerous situations, and what has
   happened and why, but information that is appropriate to their developmental
   stage.
4. Enhancing safe and secure notions in the children.

5. Since children's reactions will often mirror those of their parents and their fears may be associated with behavioural samples from those surrounding them, positive parental behaviour is needed to avoid enhancing fears.

6. Children's positive attitudes towards others and accepting them will be helpful to reduce hostility and aggressive feelings in children.

7. Undertaking early investigation to racist attitudes in children towards other groups.

8. Increase concern about the media (especially, TV) curriculum, which affects teaching children, how to make friends and avoid enemies.

9. Encouraging parents and teachers to listen to children's thought, concerns and ideas about the enemy, and try to change their distorted image of the enemy, strangers, people or things they disliked. Psychologists may play an important role in fostering changed perception of the enemy image in future.

10. Creating a more positive, trusting and supportive relationship between children and authority figures such as parents, teachers and policemen.

6.7 Suggestions for Further Research

On the basis on of the present study, the following suggestions are made for further research.
1. Other studies might examine the cognitive bases of enmity among children and young adults and dimensions of disliking.

2. Because the Iraqi invasion and Gulf war were new experiences in recent Kuwaiti history, it will be useful to conduct another study after a few years to examine the enemy image in Kuwaiti children, particularly related to Iraq.

3. Creating of sensitive instruments to measure the enemy image, particularly in children.

4. Developing the Enemy Image Scale designed for this study.

5. An interesting study in the future would be to explore exactly how children define their ideas and perceptions about the enemy.

6. It would also be worth pursing a cross-cultural study exploring how children internalise history in other countries and how they view enemies.

7. Making a study of teachers' (especially social studies teachers) interpretations of children's ideas about groups that differ, and how do they perceive children's classification of groups.

8. Further investigation of the relationship between enemy image and the other issues such as ideology, socialisation and traumatic events.
6.8 Summary

This chapter has presented the limitations of the study, general background of the results. It has discussed the ten hypotheses of the results and the other findings of the study. The recommendations and suggestions for further research were also presented.
Chapter Seven

Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Some conclusions

7.3 Final Comment on Outcome of the Study
7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the conclusion of main findings and a final comment on the outcome of the study will be presented.

7.2 Some conclusions

The present study has sought to investigate the image of the enemy in the children of Kuwait. It aims to ascertain their perception of the enemy and whether this perception is affected by different demographic variables such as age and gender. The results reveal that age is not an effective factor in the perception of the enemy image for the whole sample; although, differences were found in younger and older children in Egyptian and English groups, they were not found in the Kuwaiti group. In the light of this finding, it is likely that age would not be the determining factor in the perception of the enemy if the two different groups (e.g., the younger and the older children) had the same enemy in spite of the fact that the younger children have more fears than older children and adolescents (Davidson et al, 1989; Gullone and King, 1993; Marks, 1987). In contrast, however, gender was a significant factor in children's perception of the enemy in the whole sample as well as among the experimental group (Kuwaiti) and the control groups (Egyptian and English). These findings is compatible with the majority of studies which confirm that girls are more afraid than boys (e.g., Abdul-khalik, 1997, Silverman and Nelles, 1988). Correlations between the enemy image
(i.e., existence of enemy) and personality traits such as self-esteem and self-adequacy have been found. This finding suggests that the more one accepts oneself, the more one can accept others. At the same time, exposure to traumatic events (e.g., the Iraqi invasion) affects the psychological adjustment of children and their acceptance of self and others, particularly authority figures such as policemen and teachers. These tend to be viewed as out-groups or enemies, as predicted by social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1986). Countries are also perceived in terms of friends (in-group) and enemies (out-group) according to their actions, either good or bad, towards the perceiver's country. The emotion and attitudes towards liked (friend) or disliked person (enemy) may be found in the drawings which may serve as indicators of enmity, particularly in children.

We can also conclude from the study's findings that the more traumatic the experience the children had, the more they suffered from psychological maladjustment problems. This finding is consistent with many studies which confirm the negative relationship between armed conflict and the health and behaviour of the children (e.g., Ager, 1996; Al-Eissa, 1995; Punamaki et al, 1997).

Another conclusion to be drawn from the findings of the present study is that enmity affects the competitive-cooperative behaviour of children. In other words, children were cooperative when playing with an opponent whom they like and more competitive when playing with an opponent whom they dislike.
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7.3 Final Comment on Outcome of Study

Looking back over the contribution of this study, it can be said that it has achieved its aims and objectives. Specifically, the first aim, which attempts to identify the enemy image, as perceived by children has been achieved. The study hypothesised that the enemy images may differ according to age and/or gender (Hypotheses one and two) and examined these differences by the Enemy Image Scale, which revealed that the younger, and older Kuwaiti children have the same perception of the enemy. However, among Egyptian and English children, age differences emerged in perceiving the image of the enemy. At the same time, the gender differences were clear-cut in the perception of the enemy image. In other words, girls have a more distorted view of the enemy than boys. Another way to achieve the first aim of the study (i.e., identify the enemy image as perceived by children) was to ask the children to draw a bad person to investigate children's images of people they disliked (enemies) and whom they describe as bad or aggressive or who represent a threat to them. (Hypotheses seven). However, the children's drawings reflected the enemy in the eyes of children and showed that the enemy has been defined as a real person (e.g., playmate, thief, or stranger ...etc), or as a country's occupier (e.g., Iraq) (see Appendix I).

The second aim, which concerns ascertaining effects of the enemy image on children's personalities was also achieved. The findings indicate that there is significant correlation between the enemy image and self-evaluation. This correlation means that the more self-evaluation in the child, the fewer the fears and phobias. More specifically, with increasing numbers of fears, the child's self-evaluation would
decrease, then the self would be evaluated negatively and the world would be as insecure, threatening and full of many dangers (Hypothesis four). The enemy image also reinforces the in-group - out-group tendencies, where all attributes of a friend are seen as good, and all attributes of an enemy as bad. This emerged in the Kuwait children's view of Iraq, Saudi Arabia and Israel. (Hypothesis six). Finally, the hostility as related with enmity affected to the cooperation behaviour with others (Hypothesis ten).

The third aim has been to identify children's concept of the self and others. This aim has been accomplished through an assessment of children's perception of self and others as assessed by the Child PAQ (Hypothesis eight). More clearly, this assessment was conducted with younger and older Kuwaiti children (i.e., those who had not experienced the Iraqi invasion and those who had). The results provided the evidence that children's exposure to the Iraqi invasion event negatively affected their psychological adjustment with themselves and others.

The fourth aim of this study was determining the factors which influence the formation of the enemy image. As previously mentioned, political events (e.g., invasion, war, ethnopolitical conflicts, genocide and forced migration) were one of the contributory factors in enemy image formation. In fact, the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait belongs to these political events. Therefore, this factor was investigated empirically through examination of the Kuwaiti children's attitudes towards Iraqi (Hypothesis six) and asking the children to draw a bad person (enemy). However, in
their attitudes towards Iraq or drawings of the bad person, the strongest negative perceptions were those associated with Iraq. Consequently, the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait has created a new enemy in the Kuwaiti children's minds, that is, "Iraq". At the same time, the other factors which may have played some role in enemy image formation such as socialisation, education and media have been widely discussed in the present study.

The fifth aim of this study was investigating the impact of the Iraqi invasion on Kuwaiti children. This aim has been achieved in several ways. Firstly, through investigation of the Kuwaiti children's perception of the enemy image which revealed that younger and older Kuwaiti children had a similar enemy image, perhaps that is Iraq (Hypothesis one). Secondly, Kuwaiti children tended to view Iraq more negatively than non-Kuwaiti children, seeing Iraq as enemy and out-group compared with Saudi Arabia which saw as friend and in-group (Hypothesis six). Thirdly, using the Draw-A-Person Test, the result from the Kuwait children's drawings have described Iraqi figures as bad, aggressor or disliked person (Hypothesis seven). Fourthly, looking at the differences in psychological adjustment between Kuwaiti children who experienced the Iraqi invasion and those who had not (Hypothesis eight), as we have seen, the results indicated that the children who were affected by the Iraqi invasion reported significantly higher levels of psychological maladjustment than did those who were not affected. Finally, in evaluation of whether Kuwaiti children who experienced the Iraqi invasion will differ from those who did not in their appraisal of self and authority figures such as policeman, teacher, the results also
indicated that significant differences between two groups were found in these concepts (Hypothesis nine).

The sixth aim was broadening enquiry on the concept of the enemy. At the same time, this study has tried to broaden the concept of the enemy particularly in Kuwaiti children; it was aiming not just to stop at the effect of the Iraqi invasion, which created the main enemy of Kuwaiti people, that is Iraq and particularly Saddam Hussein. It has tried to have practical and theoretical application. Therefore, it can be said that these aims were achieved through children's drawings which give them freedom to draw any figure they disliked. On the other hand, evaluation of children's appraisals of authority figures (e.g., parents, policemen, teachers) particularly among Kuwaiti children who hold a bad image of or attitudes towards Iraq, for example, showed they are likely to generalise this image and feeling to others, particularly those who control and influence their lives (i.e., their parents, teachers, policemen, etc).

The indirect aim of the study it has smoothed the way to conduct other studies on enemy images in the Arab world to fill this gap in psychological, social and political researches.

Finally, this study takes a small first step in the direction of examination of the enemy image in children, but further research in this field is clearly required.
References


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References


References


Hobfoll, S; Spielberger, C; Breznitz, S; Figley, C; Folkman, S; Green, B; Meichenbaum, D; Milgram, N; Sandler, I; Sarason, I and Kolk, B. (1991) War-related stress. *American Psychologist*, 46, 848 - 855.


Krause, M (1975) Schoolchildren's attitudes toward public authority figure. *Adolescence, 10*, 111 - 121.


APPENDICES
السيدة المحترمة/ ناظرة مدرسة رفيدة الإسلامية بات
بعد النجاح...
يرجى تسجيل مساهمة جمعية المعلمين الحكومية الأسنان/ محمد دغير الرشيدي لإجراء
لإعداد رسالة الدكتوراه حول موضوع (النزاع النفسي عند الأطفال الحكوميين). حيث سيقوم بدراسة
ملخص الممضى... وذكر أن يحظى باهتمامكم المعرفة.

شكرًا لكرين لكم تعاونكم

مدير عام
منطقة الرئاسة التعليمية

رضوان الشموع
مدير عام
منطقة الرئاسة التعليمية

نسخة/مدير عام المنطقة
نسخة/مدير إدارة الشؤون التعليمية
نسخة/مراقبة التعليم الإبداعي
نسخة/الملف
ن/ع
Appendix B

My Enemy

..............................................................................................
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..............................................................................................
The following is a sample of the questions to be asked:

1- Have you an enemy?
2- Why do you have enemy?
3- What does ‘enemy’ mean?
4- Have you seen an enemy?
5- What does the enemy look like?
6- What are the enemy’s intentions?
7- What should we do to the enemy?
8- How does the enemy act?
9- How do you recognize that this person is your enemy?
10- What do you wish for your enemies?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th>שם נושא</th>
<th>שם נושא</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>שם נושא</td>
<td>שם נושא</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>שם נושא</td>
<td>שם נושא</td>
</tr>
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<td>4.</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>שם נושא</td>
<td>שם נושא</td>
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<td>שם נושא</td>
<td>שם נושא</td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>שם נושא</td>
<td>שם נושא</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>שם נושא</td>
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Appendix D.1
# Appendix D 2

## Enemy Image Scale

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<th>Items</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The enemy's face is ugly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The enemy is always evil</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The enemy has a huge body</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The enemy's goal is to kill people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>We can deal with the enemy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The enemy is always angry</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The enemy carries a weapon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The enemy can become a friend</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The enemy lives in a dark place</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The enemy has several forms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The enemy's hands and legs are distorted</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The enemy likes doing people good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The enemy's eyes are wide</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>We cannot see the enemy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>We should punish each enemy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>سؤال</td>
<td>أبداً</td>
<td>قليلاً</td>
<td>مرات</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>أفكر أن أتهابوش وأصير شرير</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>أحب أمي تضايق علي إذا مرست</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>أحب نفسي جداً</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>أقدر أصوي كل شيء أبيه مثل كل الأولاد</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>أحس إني أبي أطق أي واحد أو أي شيء</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>أحس أنني بدون فايدة</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
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<td>12.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>أضايق وأزعزع بدون سبب</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>الحياة فيها أخطار كثيرة</td>
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<td>15.</td>
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<td>أنا راضي عن نفسي جدا</td>
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<td>فيه أشياء كثيرة ودي أسويها بس ما أقدر</td>
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<td>أنا مازعل ولا أتضايق</td>
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<td>أنا مو راضي عن نفسي</td>
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<td>الحياة عندي حلوة</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix E 2  Children's Personality Assessment
Questionnaire (Chid PAQ)
By: Rnal P. Rohner (1976)

Name (or I.D. number)   Date

Here are some sentences that tell how different people feel about themselves. Read each sentence and think how well it describes you. Work as fast as you can; give your first thought about each item and move on to the next one.

Four lines are drawn after each statement. If you feel the statement is mostly true about you then ask yourself, "Is it almost always true?" or "Is it only sometimes true?" If you think the statement is almost always true put an X on the line ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE; if you feel the statement is only sometimes true, mark SOMETIMES TRUE. If you feel the statement is MOSTLY UNTRUE about you then ask yourself, "Is it rarely true?" or "Is it almost never true?" If it is rarely true, then put an X on the line RARELY TRUE; if you feel the statement is almost never true, mark ALMOST NEVER TRUE.

Remember, there is no right or wrong answer to any statement, so be as honest as you can, and answer each statement the way you think you really are rather than the way you would like to be. For example, if you almost always feel good about yourself then put an X on the line below the words "Almost Always True."


1. I feel good about myself

TRUE OF ME   NOT TRUE OF ME
Almost Always True   Sometimes True   Rarely True
Almost True   True   Never True

NOW TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

Questionnaire Administered By

Okay, now let's try three more to make sure you know how to answer these questions.
TRUE OF ME         NOT TRUE OF ME
Almost Always Sometimes Rarely Almost
True True True True

2. I like my friends to cheer me up when I am unhappy
3. I get mad when I cannot do something I want
4. I am in a bad mood

NOW GO TO NEXT PAGE AND BEGIN

Remember, there are no right or wrong answers, so answer each sentence the way you really feel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRUE OF ME</th>
<th>NOT TRUE OF ME</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almost</td>
<td>Almost</td>
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<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>Almost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>True</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. I think about fighting or being mean
2. I like my mother to feel sorry for me when I feel sick
3. I like myself
4. I feel I can do the things I want as well as most people
5. I have trouble showing people how I feel
6. I feel bad or get angry when I try to do something and I cannot do it
7. I feel that life is nice
8. I want to hit something or someone
9. I like my parents to give me a lot of love
10. I feel that I am no good and never will be any good
11. I feel I cannot do anything well
12. It is easy for me to be loving with my parents
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TRUE OF ME</th>
<th>NOT TRUE OF ME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. I am in a bad mood and grouchy without any good reasons</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I see life as full of dangers</td>
<td>Always True</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I get so mad I throw and break things</td>
<td>Always True</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. When I am unhappy I like to work out my problems by myself</td>
<td>Always True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. When I meet someone I do not know, I think he is better than I am</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Never True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I can compete successfully for the things I want</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I feel I have trouble making and keeping good friends</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. I get upset when things go wrong</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. I think the world is a good, happy place</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. I make fun of people who do dumb things</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I like my mother to give me a lot of attention</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I think I am a good person and other people should think so too</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I think I am a failure</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
<td>Rarely True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. It is easy for me to show my family that I love them</td>
<td>Always True</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. I am cheery and happy one minute and gloomy or unhappy the next</td>
<td>Always True</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. For me the world is an unhappy place</td>
<td>Always True</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I pout or sulk when I get mad</td>
<td>Always True</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I like to be given encouragement when I am having trouble with something</td>
<td>Always True</td>
<td>Almost True</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRUE OF ME</td>
<td>NOT TRUE OF ME</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Almost</strong></td>
<td><strong>Almost</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Always</strong></td>
<td><strong>Always</strong></td>
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<td><strong>True</strong></td>
<td><strong>True</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Sometimes</strong></td>
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<td><strong>True</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rarely</strong></td>
<td><strong>Rarely</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Never</strong></td>
<td><strong>Never</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

31. I feel pretty good about myself..............................................
32. I feel I cannot do many of the things I try to do........................
33. It is hard for me when I try to show the way I really feel to someone I like........................................
34. It is unusual for me to get angry or upset..................................
35. I see the world as a dangerous place........................................
36. I have trouble controlling my temper........................................
37. I like my parents to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick........
38. I get unhappy with myself......................................................
39. I feel I am a success in the things I do....................................
40. It is easy for me to show my friends that I really like them...........
41. I get upset easily when I meet hard problems................................
42. Life for me is a good thing....................................................
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Hostility/Aggression</th>
<th>Dependency</th>
<th>Negative Self-Esteem</th>
<th>Negative Self-Adequacy</th>
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<th>Negative Worldview</th>
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<th>( \Sigma ) Dependency (45-46)</th>
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Total PAQ Score (57-59)
Appendix F.1  A Structured Crisis Interview Scale
For Children
Dr. Foaziah Hadi & Dr. Maria Liabre
(1992)

1- Do you watch TV?
   ( ) Yes    ( ) no

2- Specify What favorite program you watch?
   a-
   b-
   c-

3- How often do you watch TV?
   ( ) Most of the time
   ( ) Some times
   ( ) Little of the time

4- What TV channels do you watch?
   ( ) Channel 1
   ( ) Educational Channel
   ( ) Channel 2
   ( ) Sport Channel
   ( ) MBC
   ( ) Egypt Channel
   ( ) others

5- Do you listen to Radio ?
   ( ) Yes    ( ) no

6- What program do you listen to ?
   ( ) Music and Songs
   ( ) News
   ( ) Sport program
   ( ) Stories
   ( ) Religious program
   ( ) others

7- List all of your family members before Crisis ?
   Father
   Mother
   Brothers, how many older than you ?
   Sisters, how many older than you?
   Grandmother
8- What is the number of your family now?

9- Where were you during the Crisis?
   ( ) In
   ( ) Out
   ( ) In / Out
   ( ) Out / In
   ( ) In / Out / In
   ( ) Out / In / Out

10- If you did not stay in Kuwait, whom did you move with?
    ( ) Family members
    ( ) Relative members
    ( ) Friend or neighbour
    ( ) Stranger

11-A Were you hurt by Iraqi's during the Crisis?
    ( ) Yes ( ) no

11-B Describe how did that happen?

12-A Did you feel at any moment that you were going to be hurt by Iraqis?
    ( ) Yes ( ) no

12-B Did you feel at any moment that you were going to be killed by Iraqis?
    ( ) Yes ( ) no

13- Did you feel at any moment that your family member were going to be hurt by Iraqis?
    ( ) Yes ( ) no

14-A Was your father hurt during the crisis by Iraqis?
    ( ) Yes ( ) no

14-B Describe what did happen?
    ( ) Killed
    ( ) Arrested and not back
    ( ) Arrested and Tortured (now back)
    ( ) Don't know
15-A Was your mother hurt during the crisis by Iraqis?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

15-B Describe what did happen?
   ( ) Killed
   ( ) Arrested and not back
   ( ) Arrested and Tortured (now back)
   ( ) Don't know

16-A Were any of your brothers or sisters hurt during the crisis?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

16-B Describe what did happen?
   ( ) Killed
   ( ) Arrested and not back
   ( ) Arrested and Tortured (now back)
   ( ) Don't know

17-A Were any of your relatives hurt during the crisis?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

17-B Describe what did happen?
   ( ) Killed
   ( ) Arrested and not back
   ( ) Arrested and Tortured (now back)
   ( ) Don't know

18-A Was any person you know (other than relatives) hurt during the crisis by Iraqis?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

18-B Describe what did happen?
   ( ) Killed
   ( ) Arrested and not back
   ( ) Arrested and Tortured (now back)
   ( ) Don't know

19-A Were you arrested during the crisis?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

19-B Describe that
20-A Were you touched in a way you did not like during the crisis?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

20-B By whom?

20-C Describe that............

21-A Did any your family or relatives disappear the crisis?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

21-B Whom?
   ( ) Father ( ) Mother ( ) Brother ( ) Sister ( ) Relatives
   ( ) Friend or neighbor.

21-C Are they back now.
   ( ) Yes ( ) no ( ) don't know

22-A Did you see anyone being killed or executed by Iraqis during the crisis?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

22-B Whom?
   ( ) A member of family ( ) A member of relatives
   ( ) Friend or neighbor ( ) Stranger

22-C Describe that.....

23-A Did you see anyone being tortured by Iraqis during the crisis?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

23-B Whom?
   ( ) A member of family ( ) A member of relatives
   ( ) Friend or neighbor ( ) Stranger

23-C Describe that............... 

24-A Did you see any injured or dead people?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

24-B Did you see any injured or dead people on TV?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

24-C Did you see any pictures of anyone who were injured or killed?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no
25-A Did you cry during the crisis?

( ) A lot
( ) A little
( ) None

25-B Why did you cry?

( ) Psychologically
( ) Physically

26- Did you have enough to eat during the crisis?

( ) Yes  ( ) no

27-A Did you get sick during the crisis?

( ) Yes  ( ) no

27-B How many times did you get sick?

( ) Once- Three times
( ) Four- Six times
( ) Seven and more

28- What illnesses did you have?

( ) Headache  ( ) Stomache  ( ) Flu  ( ) Fever  ( ) Coughing
( ) Vomiting  ( ) Others

29- Did you have trouble sleeping during the crisis?

( ) Yes  ( ) no

30- Did you have bad dreams during the crisis?

( ) Yes  ( ) no

31- On a 10-point scale, rate how bad your experience was during the crisis?

10_____9 8 7 6 ____5 4 3 ___2 ___1
Horrible 8 Bad 5 Not as bad as others
32- Is your life back to normal now?
   ( ) Yes
   ( ) No
   ( ) Don't Know

33- Is your family life back to normal now?
   ( ) Yes
   ( ) No
   ( ) Don't Know

34- Since the crisis, have bad things happened to you?
   ( ) Yes ( ) no

35- How often do you think about the bad experiences you had?
   ( ) All the times
   ( ) Most of the time
   ( ) Some of the time
   ( ) Little of the time
   ( ) None

36- How did you spend your time during the crisis?

37-A How often did you read during the crisis?
   ( ) Everyday
   ( ) A few times a week
   ( ) Once a week
   ( ) None

37-B What did you read?
   ( ) Stories
   ( ) Holy Quran
   ( ) Magazine
   ( ) Newspaper
   ( ) School Books
   ( ) Others
38-A How often did you play during the crisis?
( ) Everyday
( ) A few times a week
( ) Once a week
( ) None

38-B With whom did you play?
( ) Children of his age or younger
( ) Adult
( ) Both

38-C What did you play?
( ) Soccer
( ) Catch me
( ) Hide & Seek
( ) Toys
( ) Card
( ) Biking
( ) Hop Scotch
( ) Iraqi & Kuwaiti
( ) Atari
( ) Others

39- How often did you pray during the crisis?
( ) Everyday
( ) A few times a week
( ) Once a week
( ) None

40-A How often did you watch TV?
( ) Everyday
( ) A few times a week
( ) Once a week
( ) None
40-B What program did you watch?

( ) Cartoons
( ) News
( ) Kuwait message
( ) Arabic & English Movie
( ) Saddam interview
( ) Naval Reports
( ) Others
Appendix F 2  

Crisis Interview

1. Were you hurt by Iraqis during the Crisis?
2. Was your father hurt during the crisis by Iraqis?
3. Was your mother hurt during the crisis by Iraqis?
4. Were any of your relatives hurt during the crisis?
5. Was any person you know (other than relatives) hurt during the crisis by Iraqis?
6. Were you arrested during the crisis?
7. Were any of your relatives arrested during the crisis?
8. Did any of your family or relatives disappear during the crisis?
9. Are your family or relatives back now?
10. Did you see anyone being killed or executed by Iraqis during the crisis?
11. Did you see anyone being tortured by Iraqis during the crisis?
12. Did you see anyone injured or dead?
13. Did you see any injured or dead people on TV?
14. Did you see any pictures of anyone who were injured or killed?
15. Did you feel at any moment that you were going to be killed by Iraqis?
16. Did you feel at any moment that you were going to be hurt by Iraqis?
17. Did you feel at any moment that your family members were going to be hurt by Iraqis?
المدرسة

طبيب... ... ... ... شرير
عادل... ... ... ... ظالم
قبيح
جميل... ... ... ... صادق
كذاب
محبوب... ... ... ... مكره
أمي وأبي

طيب ... ... ... ... شرير
عادل ... ... ... ... ظالم
جميل ... ... ... ... قبيح
صادق ... ... ... ... كذاب
محبوب ... ... ... ... مكروه
الشرطي

طيب ... ... ... شرير
عادل ... ... ... ظالم
جميل ... ... ... قبيح
صادق ... ... ... كاذب
محبوب ... ... ... مكروه
العدو
طيب ... ... ... ... ... شرير
عادل ... ... ... ... ... ظالم
 جميل ... ... ... ... ... قبيح
 صادق ... ... ... ... ... كاذاب
 محبوب ... ... ... ... ... مكره
الصديق

طيب ... ... ... شرير
عادل ... ... ... ظالم
جميل ... ... ... قبيح
صادق ... ... ... كاذب
محبوب ... ... ... مكره
السعودية

طيب ... ... ... ... شرير
عادل ... ... ... ... ظالم
 جميل ... ... ... ... قبيح
 صادق ... ... ... ... كاذب
محبوب ... ... ... ... مكره
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جميل ... ... ... ... قبيح
صادق ... ... ... ... كذاب
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My Parent

Bad ................................................. Good
Fair ................................................. Unfair
Beautiful ............................................. Ugly
Honest ................................................ Deceitful
Likeable ............................................... Hateful
Enemy

Bad ................................................. Good

Fair ................................................. Unfair

Beautiful .................................................. Ugly

Honest ..................................................... Deceitful

Likeable ................................................... Hateful
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Saudi Arabia

Bad .................. Good

Fair .................. Unfair

Beautiful ............... Ugly

Honest .................. Deceitful

Likeable ................. Hateful
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## Iraq

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Appendix H  Prisoner's Dilemma Game (PDG)

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Card 1

Give your self 1

Card 2

Give other person 3
Dear Headmaster/Headmistress,

This is to introduce my PhD student, Mohammed Al-Rashidi who is conducting a study on the impact of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait on Kuwaiti school children. He is looking at the image they have of "the enemy", and how this has affected their behaviour towards authority figures such as parents and teachers, and also whether this has diminished their willingness to cooperate with people from other countries.

As you will realise, this is an interesting study with implications for the education of children in Kuwait, and with wider implications for schoolchildren all over the world. It will help us understand how children make friends and enemies, how they view different cultures and how they resolve disputes with enemy figures.

He has already collected his main data from Kuwait and, as a condition of doing his thesis, needs to have an English comparison group. He needs 20 boys and 20 girls in the age range 8 to 13. I am writing to you, as the Head of a school in London near where he lives whilst writing his thesis, in the hope that you might be able to provide some volunteers in this age range. The interview and questions generally take half an hour, occasionally up to three quarters of an hour, depending on the student.

The issues covered are: an assessment of how the child sees "enemies"; getting the child to draw a picture of an enemy; and letting the child play a game which tests their willingness to cooperate with different people. The process is entertaining (particularly the game) and is not intrusive in any way. Naturally, the individual results will be kept confidential.

If you decide to participate we will ensure that you receive a copy of the main group results before the thesis is published.

Mr Al-Rashidi can be contacted on 0171 837 6016 for further questions.

I really hope that you will be able to find some children who would be willing to take part in the study.

Yours sincerely,

James Thompson, PhD, DipClinPsychol, CPsychol, FBPsS
Senior Lecturer in Psychology
Appendix I

Specimens of The Children's Drawing

I hate you

Enemy

Prepare the armies to invade Kuwait

Iraq

Child
Male
(14 yrs)

"We are a peace-loving people, we do not like war."

You are an enemy for all people; we do not like you.
This is Saddam Hussein
I don't like him, because he is Iraqi.
Saddam Hussein is unfair and aggressive, I don't like him.
Friend

I like a policeman because he protects us.

Arabic text:

آنا أحب الشرطة لأنها تحمي الناس من الجرائم، ولا ينظرون فينا وتخريب الناس ويجلب لنا متعة في الحياة من الأشياء التي نفعلها.
(Friend)

Female 9 age

I don't like Fatma because she is bad.

؟