CHAPTER -1

THE PROBLEM
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1.1 INTRODUCTION

Children are the most important part of our society. Yet, all children are not equally fortunate. While a vast majority of children live with their parents in familial environment, a large number, comprising the commercial sex workers’ (CSWs’) children and orphans, who come in the less fortunate category, do not. This difference in the basic living environment of the CSWs’ children and orphans gives rise to speculation regarding their developmental aspects in childhood, because there are certain basic differences in their upbringing. This is likely to affect the various aspects of their personality development. In the scientific studies on children, it was found that the early years are critical in the child’s development. This was expressed in an old Chinese proverb ‘As the twig is bent, so the tree is inclined’. In a more poetic way, Milton expressed the same sentiment when he said, ‘The childhood shows the man as morning shows the day’.

It is a child’s fundamental right to get the basic necessities of life. But due to circumstances some children have to strive for their living and survival. As a result they lose their childhood prematurely. According to ‘Convention on the Rights of the Child’ in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the United Nations has proclaimed that childhood is entitled to special care and assistance. The family, as the fundamental group of society and the natural environment for the growth and well being of all its members and particularly children, should be provided the necessary protection and assistance, so that it can fully assume its responsibilities within the community. The declaration further recognized that the child, for the full and harmonious development of his or her personality, should grow up in a family environment, in an atmosphere of
happiness, love and understanding. (The Government of India acceded to this convention on 11th December, 1992).

The first important scientific clue of the significance of the early years came from A. Freud’s (1946) studies of personality maladjustment. She noted that such maladjustments could be found and could be traced to unfavourable childhood experiences. The childhood is the scene of man's beginning as man, the place where our particular virtues and vices slowly but clearly develop and make themselves felt. Erikson (1976) explained that babyhood was the time of 'basic trust' where the individual learned to view the world as safe, reliable and nurturing; or a time of basic distrust where the individual learned to view the world as full of threats, unpredictability and treachery.

Many children are deprived of parental love and affection due to reasons beyond their control. These could be, the sudden accidental death of parents, disastrous natural calamities and abandoning of children by single mothers to avoid social stigmas. Whatever the reasons, the parentless, innocent children have to face the world alone. This directly affects them and their growth. Merely providing the children shelter, food and clothing is not everything. It is necessary and more important to study and find out the state of their emotions and feelings and to bring them into the mainstream of society. For this purpose, it is necessary to assess and evaluate their personality. This assessment and evaluation can help in creating some essential modifications in their living environment for their healthy growth. These children can then become socially responsible and healthy citizens.

Having conceded that the basic environmental differences in their upbringing are likely to result in the development of distinct personality among orphans (who have no parents) and among CSWs’ children (who have only a single parent), it becomes
important to quantify the differential development for corrective and remedial measures. This study has been conducted with the aim of comparing the personality, self-esteem, depression and intelligence of commercial sex workers' children, orphans and children from intact families.

India is a democratic, welfare state and the welfare of the deprived ones becomes one of the priorities for the government. In 1979, the 'International Year of the Child', a declaration was made that every agency should review the policies, programmes and strategies of child welfare (The Juvenile Justice Act, 1986). Hence the care of every young child, whether at home or in an Institution becomes very important. The present study is an effort to find out the psychological aspects of the deprived children and further, to suggest ways and means of improving the mental health of the children living in institutions.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study attempts to evaluate the personality, self-esteem, depression, and intelligence of commercial sex workers' children and orphans in comparison with children from intact families. The study intends to find out how the three groups of children differ with respect to important personality dimensions, self esteem, intelligence and psychopathological problems like depression. For assessing personality, the Eysenckian dimensions of personality like extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism have been employed. The choice for the dimensions is explained subsequently.
1.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The main variables employed in this research belong to the domains of personality, self-esteem, depression, and intelligence. Personality, cognitive (intellectual) and emotional development is a complex process and involves the interaction of a multitude of biological and environmental factors. In this process, the child’s upbringing and experiences play an important role since they vary according to the environment. It is expected that differences in the environment would be reflected in the personality, cognitive and emotional characteristics of the individuals.

This section delineates the concepts related to the study. These concepts constitute the commercial sex workers’ children, orphans, and children from intact families, personality, self-esteem, depression, intelligence, family environment and development in the institutions.

1.3.1 Commercial Sex Workers’ (CSWs’) Children

The first group considered for the study is that of commercial sex workers’ children. This is a special group where the single parent, the mother, is expected to provide the means of livelihood and other creature comforts to the child. The child’s exposure to the living environment of the mother and her associates often creates emotional and other conflicts in upbringing.

In the recent past, few Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have shown courage and initiative to provide institutional support to such children. This group of children - having a living single parent (mother) but being deprived of the joys of familial surroundings and the privilege of growth and development in family environment - is an underprivileged group. Some studies carried out in Mumbai and Pune region in the state of Maharashtra (Patkar, 1989, 1990, 1991; Singh, 1990; Patil
2000) on the life and environmental conditions of CSWs have brought out the difficult situations under which these children are born and brought up.

This category of the less fortunate children often come into this world as unwanted progeny of unknown fathers and CSW mothers. These children find themselves in a strange environment, which is not conducive for their healthy growth. Pathogenic family and inadequate parenting are the main causes of mental disorder and negative mental health (Coleman, 1981). It can be argued that the family environment in CSWs’ dwellings could be pathogenic and would have negative influence on the children in their formative years, before they are shifted to institutions. The institutionalization obviously has its separate impact on the children. Hence, it can be speculated that the CSWs’ children growing in the institutions would show perceptible differences in their personality that would manifest into low self-esteem, and higher psychopathological emotions like depression. Because of the environmental deficits these children may also show lower intelligence.

1.3.2 Orphans

The second group considered for the study is that of the orphans. Concise Oxford Dictionary of English (2001) defines an orphan as, ‘a child whose parents are dead’. For the purpose of this study, the children who have lost both parents by death have been considered as orphans. During the devastating earthquake in the Marathwada region in the Indian state of Maharashtra during October 1994, and in the recent past in the Kutch region in the state of Gujarat in 2001, a very large number of children lost their parents. These children were subsequently rehabilitated in many state sponsored and private institutions. In this study, the orphans staying in institutions have been considered. These children have been deprived of emotional security, parental love,
affection and usual family care - abruptly due to calamities and circumstances beyond their control. Like the CSWs’ children, orphans who grow up in the institutions would show similar development pattern. It might therefore, be expected that the orphans’ personality would also exhibit lower self-esteem, higher psychopathological emotions like depression and lower intelligence as compared to children from intact families.

1.3.3 Children From Intact Families (CIF)

The third group considered for the study is that of the children from intact families (CIF). This group consists of children whose both parents are alive and the children are living with their natural parents. The importance of an individual’s membership groups in the development of his personality has been long recognized in social psychological theory. The child spends a major part of his developmental years in the family. Empirical research and inferential knowledge indicates a strong relationship between early experiences and later social behavior.

Empirical studies on the composition of societies with reference to family structure have been carried out in India and abroad. In the present study, the children from intact families form the comparison group. It is our orthodox and common belief that with both parents alive, the children comparatively get undivided and complete attention, nurturing and the care necessary for the growth and development of their personality. It is a privileged group as compared to the other two groups considered in this study.

1.3.4 Family Environment and Personality Development

The importance of environment on the development of children during their formative years has been long established. Since today’s children are tomorrow’s
citizens, it is vital that they develop in the right direction and align themselves with the all round social development. Family system plays a leading role in this endeavor. The term 'family' has been variously defined, but the various definitions have in common a reference to a closely integrated group of people who are related to one another through ties of kinship, blood, or adoption. Family is considered as the school of socialization, influencing the child's development.

It is an established fact that children are born with different traits. They do not come into this world as blank slates or empty containers wherein, personality as a substance can be poured into (Berk, 1996). The social worlds into which they are born and in which they grow vary significantly. Although the personality of the adult seems quite different from that of the infant, the adult personality represents a development from the initial base provided by the nature. This development is the result of the environment in which the child is brought up. Socialization, maturation and personality development are continuous. In the course of development from infancy to old age, the individual may develop an open and creative posture towards the world, or a closed, fearful and unproductive one depending upon crucial early experiences at home and these experiences influence the developmental process of the traits and abilities. Many studies, conducted on pre-school (very young) children, reveal that early individual care and maternal love are essential for optimal growth (Criessy, 1937; Spitz, 1945; Spitz & Wolf, 1946; Levy, 1943; Siomonsen, 1947). The development of a child as a biological and social organism and the adequacy of this development depend upon the provision of necessary inputs from the parents or other family members. Theoretical analyses as well as empirical studies have correlated early experiences to adulthood behavior (Sewell, 1961).
It is an accepted viewpoint that parental deprivation, especially maternal deprivation affects the growth of children. The powerful impact of the baby’s affectional ties to the caregiver is most evident when it is absent. Spitz (1945, 1946) observed institutionalized babies who had been given up by their mothers and placed in a large ward where they shared a nurse with at least seven other babies. In contrast to the happy, outgoing behavior they had shown before separation, they wept and withdrew from surroundings, lost weight, and had difficulty in sleeping. If the caregiver whom the baby could get to know did not replace the mother, the depression deepened rapidly.

Recent studies indicate that a first attachment bond can develop as late as 4 to 6 years of age. But throughout childhood and adolescence the youngsters, with maternal deprivation, were more likely to display emotional and social problems including an excessive desire for adults and peers, and difficulties in establishing friendships (Hodges & Tizard, 1989; Tizard & Hodges, 1978; Tizard & Rees, 1975). Dubey and Sachadev (1983), in their study, found that the development of an individual is affected not only by his geographical and physical environment but also by the psychological and social one.

Since the burden of reacting to the newborn’s behavioral pattern and of directing the initial steps in the socialization process lie with parents, there is a reasonable likelihood of differential development of the children considered under the three groups of this study.

1.3.5 Development in the Institutions

The development of the children in the institutions is quite different from their development in the family. The institution may not provide the social attention needed
for a child's development. Lack of emotional bonds, impersonal interactions and
arbitrary and unpredictable behavior of the staff leaves its mark on the children.
Children who spend their early years in the institutional environment display more
aggression, behavioral problems, and demand more attention (Bowlby, 1951; Yarrow,
1961). According to Spitz (1946), institutionalized infants experienced emotional
difficulties not because they were separated from their mothers, but because they were
prevented from forming a bond with one or a few adults.

Nagar (1992) has reported that the deprived children were more problematic
than the normal children. She also reported that the personality pattern of the deprived
children revealed lack of adjustment. She found significant differences in the
personality characteristics of the deprived boys and girls as compared to normal boys
and girls. Whether the development of children reared in institutions is so distorted as
to cause permanent damage to their personality has been debated at length. While some
workers think so, the others do not (Flint, 1967). The institutionalized children are
separated from their mothers. The mother is the first person with whom the child is
most attached and feels secure. Separation from mother affects the child's growth and
development. Since a larger section of sensory input comes from the environment, it
can be reasonably assumed that the development and growth of various psychological
functions should be shaped by the characteristics of the environment in which the child
is placed. Ainsworth (1989) defines an attachment as affectional bond that is relatively
long enduring tie in which partner is important as a unique individual and is
interchangeable with none others. The attachment figure represents a safe or secure
base for approaching what is unfamiliar, unknown and even threatening. Bowlby
(1977) studied the attachment process extensively and almost exclusively within
According to Bowlby (1977) attachment behavior is held to characterize human beings from cradle to the grave.

It has been repeatedly emphasized by many that institutionalization, invariably followed by separation experiences, play a crucial role in the genesis of anxiety. This in turn, causes the development of the broad range of behavioral problems. Several studies indicate the presence of a series of emotional problems among institutionalized children (Geetha, 1963; Herbert, 1978; Berman, 1979; & Narayan 1987). Berman, (1979) called the institutional life of children as a state of chronic emotional deprivation.

The development of positive or high self-esteem depends on the experiences the child had at an early age. Depression can also be conceptualized as a consequence of negative experiences and negative thought processes in the childhood. As such, the three groups of children are expected to differ on some important personality traits, self-esteem, depression and intelligence.

1.3.6 Personality

Personality refers to that part of the individual, which is most representative of the person. It not only differentiates the individual from others, but more importantly it is what he or she actually is. According to Hurlock (1983) studies of the development of the personality pattern have revealed that three factors are responsible for its development: hereditary endowment, early experience within the family and events in later life. These characteristics provide the foundations on which the structure of the personality pattern is built through learning experiences. The concept of ‘Personality’ is subjective and different psychologists have sought to explain the rationale behind their models of personality theories. The main models in personality psychology are
psychodynamic model, phenomenological model, type model, situationistic model, interactionistic model, and the trait model.

The 'psychodynamic model' (Freud, 1933) emphasizes psychoanalysis and assumes a basic personality core, which serves as a pre-dispositional basis for behavior in different situations. This model assumes that early experiences (environmental factors) affect the expression of the basic instincts, and both these types of factors interact to influence the adult personality.

Phenomenological theory of Rogers (1966) is a part of the humanistic psychology or the human potential movement, which emphasizes self-actualization and the fulfillment of an individual's growth potential. The emphasis is on the phenomenal world of the individual - how the individual perceives and experiences himself and the world about him.

A kind of 'type model' was suggested by Hippocrates (circa 400 B.C.) comprising four basic types of temperaments namely choleric, melancholic, sanguine and phlegmatic. These temperaments were attributed to bodily humours: yellow bile, black bile, blood and phlegm respectively. More recently Kretschmer (1926) and Sheldon (1949) proposed the body typology with emphasis on body constitution or physique and its relationship with personality. Jung (1923) offered a psychological typology in the context of his analytical psychology. The type model represents the 'categorical' view of personality, which assumes discrete categories of personality. Recently H. J. Eysenck and his collaborators have proposed a type model, which conceptualized a type as a hierarchical organization of the traits.

In the history of personality, Allport is considered as a pioneer and a strong champion of the trait model. Allport (1937) conceived of traits as tendencies or predispositions to respond and suggested that there is a 'bona-fide' mental structure in
each personality that accounts for consistency of its behavior. For Allport (1937), Cattell (1957, 1965), and Guilford (1959), traits are the basic units to be studied in personality. The trait model emphasizes traits as the prime determinants of behavior. The trait model has made the greatest impact with respect to personality research. Tests, questionnaires, the most frequently used methods for data collection, both in research and in applied psychology (e.g. classification, selection and counselling) are intimately related to the trait model. Similarly, classical test theory (using true scores) and factor analysis (assuming stable personality factors), the most frequent models and methods for data treatment are intimately related to the trait model. Trait psychology is the main exponent of what Cronbach (1957) termed as 'correlational psychology'.

As a reaction to limitations of some of the earlier versions of the trait model some alternative models like situationistic model and interactionistic model have been proposed. Situationistic model regards the situational factors or the stimuli in the situation as the main determinants in the individual behavior. Thus, the behavior is a function of stimulus \[ B = f(s) \]. Cooley (1902), Cottrell (1942), Mead (1934), Skinner (1953), Bandura and Walters (1963), Mischel (1968) suggested that situations were the main sources of behavioral differences. This model is basically a stimulus-response (S - R) model.

The interactionistic model believes the actual behavior to be the result of an indispensable and continuous interaction between the person and the situation he encounters, or the behavior is a function of ‘P’ and ‘S’: \[ B = f (P, S) \] (Endler & Magnusson, 1976 b). The model implies that significant features of the situations influence the behavior; the individual chooses the situations in which to perform with selected situational aspects serving as cues for his activities. Current versions of trait model have incorporated the salient features of interactionist model.
Coming back to the trait models, it may be noted that Allport has done conceptual analysis of personality, whereas Cattell (1957), Eysenck (1952), McCrae and Costa (1987) have carried out factor analytic studies of personality. Cattell has suggested 16 factors of personality; on the other hand, Eysenck (1967) has described the personality in a very economical way. Eysenck's theory of personality employs three higher order factors namely Extraversion (E), Neuroticism (N), and Psychoticism (P) for studying the personality. Eysenck claimed that his three factors consistently emerged from factor-analytical studies of personality questionnaires. He proposed that personality tests be evaluated by correlating them with his measures. He stated that an adequate theory of personality must generate testable hypotheses (e.g. Eysenck 1991, 1992a). In this respect his model has achieved exemplary success.

Eysenck's model of personality is distinctive in a number of respects. Firstly, he has proposed, "the study of personality has two interlocking aspects" (Eysenck, 1990, p. 244). The first aspect is descriptive or taxonomic. It focuses on establishing the units to be used in summarizing the ways in which individuals differ. The second aspect relates to causal elements. This aspect is Eysenck's distinctive contribution in view of the fact that the effects of given situation vary for different individuals, and the biological factors play an important role in determining the personality differences. Eysenckian approach to personality is unique and specifies a causal chain wherein a biological subtrait is responsible for individual differences on fundamental dimensions of personality.

Eysenck's approach is 'biosocial' in that the characteristic functioning of the central nervous system prompts the individuals to respond in certain ways to their environment. He advanced three arguments to claim that biological factors play a crucial role in determining individual differences on the three types. First, these same
factors have consistently emerged in investigations of personality structure in widely
divergent cultures (Barratt & Eysenck, 1984); this cross-cultural unanimity is difficult
to explain except in terms of biological factors. Second, individuals tend to retain their
positions on these dimensions across the time (Conley, 1984a, b, 1985). Third, there is
evidence of a substantial heritable component in individual differences on the three
dimensions (Eaves, Eysenck, & Martin, 1989; Loehlin, 1989). These findings
suggested Eysenck that biological forces contribute to individual differences on the
typologies. In addition, there is a large body of work that directly supports the
biological basis of extraversion and neuroticism (e.g., Bullock & Gilliland, 1993;
Eysenck, 1967; H.J. Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985, Gale & Eysenck, 1989; Matthews &
Amelang, 1993; Smith, 1983; Smith, Rockwell-Tischer & Davidson, 1986; Stelmack,
1981, 1990; Stelmack & Geen, 1992; Stelmack, Houlihan, & McGarry-Roberts, 1993;
Stenberg, 1992; Strelau & Eysenck, 1987).

For the purpose of measuring personality a series of personality tests like
Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) (H. J. Eysenck & S.B.G Eysenck, 1964), PEN
(psychoticism-extraversion-neuroticism) (H.J. Eysenck & S.B.G. Eysenck, 1968),
Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) (H.J. Eysenck & S.B.G. Eysenck,
Eysenck & Barrett, 1985) and Eysenck Personality Scale (EPS) (H.J. Eysenck & S.B G
Eysenck, 1991) have been developed. Tests like the Junior Eysenck Personality
Inventory (JEPI) (S.B.G. Eysenck 1965) and the Junior Eysenck Personality
Questionnaire (JEPQ) (H.J. Eysenck & S.B.G. Eysenck, 1975, 1976) have been
developed separately for children and early adolescent population. The Eysenckian
tests have a lie scale (L), which was initially presumed to measure the ‘desirability
response set’. L scale is also measure of ‘social conformity’.
On the basis of the material presented here and the extensive review of the literature it can be concluded that, among others, following are the unique features of the Eysenkian model:

1. The Eysenkian model describes personality in a very economic way in terms of three higher order factors namely psychoticism (P), neuroticism (N), and extraversion (E).

2. There is extensive factor analytic basis to the Eysenkian model.

3. For every Eysenkian dimension genetic as well as physiological basis has been worked out.

4. In relation to each Eysenkian dimension experimental studies have been carried out investigating the relationship between the personality dimension and the performance on the various experimental tasks.

5. For each dimension clinical, social, educational and other applied correlates have been worked out.

6. In the context of each dimension there exists well developed theoretical framework attempting to link very large number of empirical findings from diverse areas like descriptive taxonomies, studies of personality, psychometric, factor analyses, genetic and physiological bases and the experimental, clinical, social and other applied correlates.

In view of these unique features of Eysenkian model, it was decided to employ this model in the present study.

1.3.7 Self-esteem

A child is born and brought up in a socio-cultural setup that characterizes his cognitive growth, affective components and psychomotor behavior pattern. The impact
of the cultural heritage as transmitted by the parents, neighborhood, teachers and peer group shapes the early personality development of the child. Thus the process of socialization at the early age moulds the personality of the child and makes an enduring effect on the global growth and development of sentiments, self-esteem and other important human values even in the later period. Self-esteem is an aspect of self-concept that involves judgments about one's own worth and the feelings associated with those judgments (Berk, 1996). A person is the product of interpersonal interaction through socialization process and social learning.

Foster family care or institutional care is intended to offer the children a close approximation of normal living and to allow opportunities for satisfactory intellectual, social, emotional and physical development. A major concern about foster care, particularly in long-term situations, is that such placement works against the psychic maturation of children. It has been proposed that a foster child's self perception is that of a worthless and unloved person (Coleman, 1980). During infancy and early childhood, the social heritage is transmitted to the child almost exclusively through the family. From the moment of his entry into the family the child is an active participant in this social system, and it is through his interactions in this group that he learns his first lessons in social living in the family system the child develops self-concept, certain role of behaviors, and a set of assumptions about his world in relation to himself (Neugarten, 1968).

The self-esteem refers to the evaluation a person makes and customarily maintains with regard to him or herself. Self-esteem expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which a person believes him or herself capable, significant, successful and worthy. In short, a person's self-esteem is a judgment of worthiness that is expressed by the attitude he or she holds towards the
self. It is a subjective experience conveyed to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behavior (Coopersmith, 1984).

Longman (1984) considered self-esteem as an attitude of self-acceptance, self-approval and self-respect. A feeling of self-worth is an important ingredient of mental health; a loss of self-esteem and feeling of worthlessness are common depressive symptoms. According to Longman (1984) self-concept is the individual's conception and evaluation of himself, including his values, abilities, goals and personal worth. The process of socialization in the early period moulds the personality of the children and makes an enduring effect upon the growth and development of sentiments, self-concept and other important human values in the later period. The individual's self-concept is his picture or image of himself- his view of himself as distinct from other persons and things. This self-image incorporates his perception of what he is really like (self-identity) and of his worth as a person (self-evaluation), as well as his aspiration for growth and accomplishment (self-ideal).

The children from intact families are likely to get better guidance and acceptance from their parents, elders in the family, friends and others in social hierarchy as compared to the other two groups considered in this study. It is expected that the CSWs' children and orphans would have lower self-esteem as compared to the children from intact families.

1.3.8 Depression

According to Reisman (1981), depression refers to an emotional state of lowered initiative and responsiveness to stimulation of gloomy and self-critical thoughts of sadness and dejection. Almost everyone has experienced such 'blue' or 'down' periods with the difference that here the effect is so severe, that the person finds
it difficult to perform routine tasks or to function in a satisfactory way. Often, there is
an argument that children do not exhibit the symptoms of depression in the same
manner as adults. This indicates that childhood unhappiness might be expressed
through other symptoms of disturbance, such as delinquency or physical complaints
etc. Accordingly, there was much interest in the concept of masked depression or
depressive equivalents, and many of the conduct disturbances and antisocial behavior
of juveniles were seen as reversal of painful, unhappy effect.

In describing masked depression, Glasser (1969) and Sperling (1959) agreed
with Toolan (1962), that children do not exhibit the same signs and symptoms of adult
depressive reactions but rather other symptoms. The latter may include behavioral
problems and delinquency, psychoneurotic reactions such as school phobias, learning
difficulties, temper tantrums, accident proneness, self-destruction, disturbances in
digestive system, sleep disturbance, migrainous headache and motor retardation.
According to Walts (1975), a good definition of depression in a medical sense is the
lowering of mental and physical vitality to the point of distress. There are different
types and causes for depression. It can occur due to some simple reason or the profound
crisis of life such as the loss of a loved one.

The negative appraisals of the depressed are global, pervasive, and exclusive.
Depressives expect failure to continue well into the future. Beck (1984) proposed that
depression and other emotional difficulties associated with stress were largely produced
by cognitive distortions in the cognitive triad of how people think about themselves,
their world, and their future. In his observation of depressed patients’ thoughts, Beck
noted three common themes: self-dislike (“If something bad happens, it must be my
fault because I’m just no good”), negative interpretations of external events (“If
something bad happens, it’s a catastrophe”) and pessimistic view of the future (“It will
never get better"). According to Beck’s analysis, these cognitive distortions are due to a common group of logical errors. These examples are also examples of cognitive distortions: personalizing, or interpreting negative events as always due to oneself; catastrophizing, the error of overstating the negative consequences of disappointing events; and hopelessness, the error of assuming that improvement is impossible. Beck also observed that the depressive self-schema forms a vicious downward spiral: Negative interpretations of oneself result in lower self-esteem (Beck, 1967).

Children from intact families are the privileged group in the sense that they get parental warmth, love, affection, and necessary importance to develop positive outlook towards self and future. In the present study it is expected that CSWs’ children and orphans would show more depression as compared to the children from intact families.

1.3.9 Intelligence

Intelligence is the innate capacity to adapt relatively to new situations. Intelligence is the power of seeing, learning, understanding and knowing. It is an important cognitive aspect. According to Burt (1955), the term intelligence goes back to *intelligentia*, a term introduced by Cicero. Spearman (1927) reported that the ‘monarchic’ view of a unitary thing called intelligence was popular long back as far as the fifteenth century. Spencer (1895) gets the credit to bring the term *intelligence* into psychology. It is he who had earlier emphasized its role in biology. Having defined life as the continuous adjustment of internal relations to external relations, Spencer believed that adjustment is achieved by virtue of intelligence in man and by virtue of instincts in lower animals. Defining intelligence as the “power of combining many separate impressions” (Spencer, 1895, p. 403), he also tied the concept to the doctrine of evolution and set the pattern for future psychologists.
Intellectual factors were first defined through factor analysis by Spearman (1927), who concluded that intelligence comprises a 'g' or general factor and number of 's', or specific, factors. He regarded 'g' as general mental energy or ability that would be involved in all cognitive tasks, and 's' factors as factors unique to a particular task. Later Thurstone (1938) suggested a set of factors called mental abilities. According to Thurstone, seven factors or primary mental abilities are: perceptual speed, numerical ability, word fluency, verbal comprehension, space visualization, associative memory, and reasoning. Burt (1949) and Vernon (1950) conceived a hierarchical type of model in the field of intelligence.

One of the complex factor-analytical models was developed by Guilford (1967, 1985, 1988), proposing three-dimensional structure-of-intellect model. He suggested that intellect involves 120 factors classified into subdivisions of three major dimensions: its contents, the mental operation involved, and the product resulting from the operation. Piaget (1970), Bruner (1973), and Pascual-Leone (1983) are particularly prominent process-oriented theorists in the field of intelligence. Gardner’s (1983) theory of multiple intelligences provides yet another view of how information-processing skills underlie intelligent behavior. Sternberg (1985) described the three faces of his triarchic theory of intelligence. The first face of his theory involves the cognitive mechanism within the mind that determines whether we produce more or less intelligent behavior. Learning how to do things and actually doing them is the essential characteristic of the second face. This part of theory is concerned with the way in which we deal with novel tasks and develop automatic, routine responses for well-practiced tasks. The third face of theory is concerned with the intelligence that involves the external world. By this, Sternberg referred to the way in which we adapt to, select and shape our environment. These are the behaviors that are important in practical world.
The PASS Theory of Intelligence: The Planning, Attention-Arousal, Simultaneous, and Successive (PASS) cognitive processing model (Das, 1998), is described as a modern theory of intelligence. It is concerned with information processing that is dynamic and therefore not static like ability. It is based on Luria’s analyses of brain structures (1966; 1973). Luria described human cognitive processes within the framework of three functional units. The function of the first unit is cortical arousal and attention, while the second unit codes information using simultaneous and successive processes. The third unit provides for planning, self-monitoring, and structuring of cognitive activities. Luria’s work on functional aspects of brain structures formed the basis of the PASS model.

Intelligence is as much determined by biological, as by social conditions. Among disadvantaged children, and particularly economically depressed or socially backward classes the biological part of intelligence is not as crucial as the social conditions, which foster the growth of intelligence. The biologically endowed ability assumes importance only if the people have equal opportunities to prosper and can take advantage of those opportunities. Intelligence, as it relates to success in school, can be measured but it cannot predict a person’s success in adult life. The person’s ability to plan, to set goals and to have the right values cannot be measured (Das 1998).

Cattell’s (1971,1987) approach to define intelligence differs sharply from Guilford’s, as it accepts ‘g’ and divides it into only two factors. Crystallized intelligence depends on culturally loaded, fact-oriented information. Tasks highly correlated with it include vocabulary, general information, and arithmetic problems. In contrast, fluid intelligence requires very little specific knowledge. It involves the ability to see complex relationships and solve problems, as in the number series, spatial
visualization, and figure matrix items. Cattell's theory has important implications for the issue of cultural bias in intelligence testing.

The psychometric approach to cognitive development is the basis for the wide variety of intelligence tests available for assessing children's mental abilities. The first successful test was completed by French psychologist Binet and his colleague Simon (1905). Terman (1916) developed the Stanford-Binet test, which has been revised several times (Terman & Merril, 1973). Wechsler developed a family test for people of various age levels. Wechsler Adult intelligence scale (1955) was the first widely used test to incorporate several measures of intelligence. His other tests include the Wechsler Adult intelligence scale, Revised (WAIS-R, 1981), the Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scales of Intelligence (WPPSI, 1967), and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Revised (WISC-R, 1974). In an effort to achieve tests by which different racial and cultural groups might be compared, some tests labeled as 'culture-fair' and even 'culture-free' have been devised.

While selecting the intelligence test for this study it was intended that the test to be used should underscore the child's real general ability, not withstanding the circumstances of better or poorer schooling or social class and rearing environment. The test also had to be unbiased and able to present an exact and meaningful measurement of general intelligence. It was felt that the Culture Fair Intelligence Test (Cattell & Cattell, 1959) has these attributes to some extent and the advantage that its administration takes less time. Due to these reasons the Culture Fair Test has been used in this work.

In the development of intelligence, while the genetic component cannot be changed, the environmental component can be changed to some extent. Numerous studies have been carried out in this field to see the effect of environment on the
intelligence. Findings suggest that the children who have been reared in institutions show impaired and poor language, poor intelligence and disturbed behavior (Ainsworth, 1962; Bowlby, 1951; Ferguson, 1966; Yarrow, 1961). The findings also suggested that the children in orphanages were mentally less developed as compared to ordinary children (Fernald, 1918; Terman & Wangler, 1918; Gobb, 1922). Crissey (1937) found a general tendency for I. Q. s to decrease with the increasing length of institutional residence. In the present study since the children from intact families had better educational facilities, encouraging environment, and necessary inputs for the healthy growth of intelligence, it is expected that the CSWs’ children and orphans would score low on intelligence as compared to the children from intact families.

1.4 THE PRESENT STUDY AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

This study attempts to compare the personality, self-esteem, depression and intelligence of children in the context of three distinct social - environmental conditions. The study would help to quantify the negative impact of the non-familial environment and to highlight the quantified differences. Being one of the few psychological studies of the CSW’s and orphans in the Indian context, the findings would provide some directions for future research to psychologists, sociologists and other behavioral and social scientists.

1.4.1 Objectives

The main objectives of this study are stated below:

1. To compare the personality of commercial sex workers’ children, orphans, and children from intact families, employing the Eysenckian dimensions of
personality (Psychoticism, Neuroticism, and Extraversion), and Lie scale (as a measure of social conformity).

2. To compare the Self-esteem of commercial sex workers' children, orphans, and children from intact families.

3. To compare the depression among commercial sex workers' children, orphans, and children from intact families.

4. To compare the intelligence of commercial sex workers' children, orphans, and children from intact families.

5. To discuss the implications of the above findings from the point of view of the remedial measures.

1.4.2 Significance of the study

This study has been conceived to assess the personality, self-esteem, depression, and intelligence of orphans and CSWs' children as compared to children from the intact families. Based on its findings, the study would also endeavor to help develop preventive, social and remedial measures to address the developmental needs of these underprivileged children. The orphans, and CSWs' children are expected to benefit from this study. As only a few studies appear to have been carried out in India about the personality, self-esteem, depression, and intelligence of orphans, this study would have quite a few practical and theoretical implications. It may also be mentioned that psychological studies concerning the CSW’s children are comparatively fewer. The present study is, therefore expected to make an important contribution in this field. The findings are expected to be useful for further research, and be of practical importance to psychologists, sociologists, NGOs and to the social welfare organizations. This study would bridge the existing gap in research literature on these vital issues. The study
results are expected to provide useful guidelines to evolve a better-balanced and stable
growth regime for the underprivileged children. The statistical analyses of the obtained
data and the quantification of negative impacts of non familial environment is expected
to provide the direction for the sustainable psychological rehabilitation of these
children, subsequently to bring them into the social mainstream as mentally and
emotionally healthy future citizens.

The following chapter carries a review of literature in the context of the present
problem. In the light of reviewed literature hypotheses have been formulated.