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2.1 INTRODUCTION

A large number of studies have been conducted on the effect of environmental factors on the personality development of children and adults. Extensive literature is also available on the fundamentals of the evolution of the personality concept, its various dimensions and their origin. Eminent workers in the field of psychology have contributed their views and theories related to the development of the personality during human life span, their measurement and growth, their possible effect on human behavior and psychological and social implications of the different desirable and undesirable personality traits.

A vast majority of children live with their parents in familial environment. Another group comprising a large number of the less fortunate, who have no families, do not have this privilege. This is likely to affect the various aspects of their personality. Maternal deprivation has been found as a cause of conditions as diverse as mental sub-normality, delinquency, depression, dwarfism, acute distress and affectionless psychopathy (Ainsworth, 1962; Bowlby, 1951). It could, therefore be speculated that the personality development of the deprived children would not be the same as that of the CIF. To bring these deprived children into the mainstream of society, it is necessary to identify and evaluate their personality with a view to create some essential modifications in their living environment for their healthy growth. These children can then become socially responsive, worthy citizens.

Orphans, who have lost their parents by death at a young age and are required to live in orphanages and the Commercial Sex Workers' (CSWs') children (with single parent - the mother) are examples of the less fortunate children. Available references
show that basic environmental differences in their upbringing are likely to result in
differential development of distinctive personality traits among them.

2.2 FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Every child has crucial early experiences at home and these experiences
influence the developmental process of the traits and abilities. 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. As
compared to other species, human children develop slowly, requiring years of support
and instruction before they are ready to be independent. Our slow journey to maturity
has left an imprint on human social organization everywhere: Families are pervasive,
and parents are universally important in the lives of children (Berk, 1996).

Role of family in personality - The mother: A mother's behavior influences her child,
and the child's behavior has an impact on mother's life. Because the mother has a high
degree of control over the child and his environment, her role would appear to be more
dominant and influential than that of the child. The behavior of a mother, her
involvement in performing that job, her personal characteristics, and her evolution of
the adequacy with which she is carrying out the child-rearing task are the determinants
of a mother's behavior, which appear to be influencing the development of the child.
There is good evidence that most children develop strong attachments to their parents
(Ainsworth, 1964; Schaffer & Emerson, 1964). During the early childhood, the mother
holds the most pervasive influence over the child. Consequently, the mother has been
the prime focus of researchers who are concerned with the influence of the environment
on the growing child (Rutter, 1976).
The father: Many studies during the war period have dealt with the effects of prolonged absence of father on personality development in children. Most of these investigations involved war separations. Their results suggest that children separated from their fathers for long periods, experience more difficulty in forming meaningful social relationships with adults and peers, than do children who have not experienced father separation. Furthermore, father-separated children seem to be tense and more anxious, less mature, and less sure of themselves in a variety of situations than children not separated from fathers.

In infants such a lack of parental involvement is associated with disruptions in attachment (Egeland & Sroufe, 1981); in older children it is associated with impulsivity, aggression, noncompliance, moodiness, and low self-esteem (Block, 1971; Loeb, Horast, & Horton, 1980; Martin, 1989). Assessment of the effects of father or mother’s absence on personality development requires attention to a number of variables like the time at which the absence occurs, the duration of the absence, the socio-cultural milieu during absence, the availability of surrogate parental figures and role models and the characteristics of the parent who is not absent (Casler, 1961, Wenar, 1994).

Emmerich (1981) says that the roles of the mother and the father within the family cannot be viewed as isolated factors. For example, marital compatibility is an important dimension of family atmosphere. The values and perceived responsibilities of parents not only guide them in their child rearing, but also have implications for the child’s view of himself and the world in which he lives.
2.3 DEVELOPMENT IN THE INSTITUTIONS

Casler, (1961,1965) remarked that there are some specific features of institutional development of the children. Apart from the fact that the child is being deprived of his biological mother, the deprivation of stimulation provided by others is also a major factor in the growth and development of a child. According to Donelson (1997), the institutional staff may provide adequate attention to the physical needs of the children but may not provide the social attention needed. Due to the lack of emotional bondage, resulting in weak exposure of the child to a small variety of emotions, lopsided development often results. Frequent turnover of personnel in these institutions also results into the inability of the children to relate to the staff and to predict their reactions. Goldfarb conducted studies (1943, 1947) to evaluate the effect of institutional environment on the children's personality. He found that the home reared group was decidedly superior to the institutionally reared children. The latter were passive, apathetic and showed marked indifference as compared to the former. Even among the institutionally reared children, those who came from broken homes, showed greater tendency to anger and were more self centered, less sensitive to social approval and were more depressed when compared to those from normal homes.

A study by Provence and Lipton (1962) compared the behavior of infants living in institutions with that of infants living with families. At one year of age, the institutional infants showed a general impairment in their relationship to people, rarely turning to adults for help, comfort, pleasure and showing no signs of strong attachment to any person. They also noted a marked retardation of language development, emotional apathy, and impoverished and repetitive play activities.

This study comprises three distinct groups of children: the first group having a single parent (CSW mother) and staying in institutions, the second group of orphans
(parentless) staying in institutions and the third group of children staying with their parents in familial environment (CIF).

2.4 INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

The independent variables in this study are the group membership (i.e. whether the children belong to the commercial sex workers’ children group, the orphans’ group or the children from intact families group), their age and gender.

2.4.1 Commercial Sex Workers’ (CSWs’) Children

The first study group (group one) is that of the CSWs’ children. The CSW women like normal women, may have a desire to have children but after childbirth, they lack resources for childcare. According to Patkar (1991), the CSW women may beget children for many reasons. Sometimes it is sheer lack of contraceptive care. Many times, it is their conscious decision to continue with the pregnancy, guided by the psychological need to have a child. Child bearing is considered as a proof of a woman’s complete womanhood. In her perception, her own child is her only sense of old age security and her lever for breaking out of the trap of the vicious life in prostitution.

Singh (1990) reported that the environment of the living place of CSWs (brothels) was so unhealthy that women and children were more vulnerable to suffer from many diseases. Children living with CSWs live in the circumstances, which are not conducive to healthy living and lead an insecure life. They learn abusive language, develop many behavior problems and as the mothers find it difficult to bring them up in an antisocial environment, lose their sense of belonging. In the recent past, some non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have shown interest in taking care of CSWs’ children and providing them minimal basic necessities. The children have to spend...
initial three to five years with mothers because the institutes do not admit them below that age. Thus, the children are invariably forced to stay with their mothers and are exposed to undesirable circumstances and activities at a tender age.

Patil (2000) has highlighted the environmental conditions surrounding the CSWs’ children. She stated that their living places were so unhealthy that the women and children were more vulnerable to diseases. Even good ventilation and exposure to natural sunlight was missing. Rubbish dumps all around added to the stench and created unsanitary conditions. Clothing for the children was inadequate. Food was often not available and good nourishment was lacking. Almost 28% children did not get enough food to eat. About 36% children were not immunized against any communicable disease. Majority of the children did not have footwear.

Since the CSWs do not have families, socialization within the family is absent which adversely affect the growth of the children (Hetherington & Parke, 1979). The mother’s preoccupation with her profession to keep the home running results in neglect of the children. Born with the stigma of being illegitimate, these children are shunned by the society and develop strained relationships. Absence of male figure also compels woman to be the bread earner along with caretaker. This prevents the mothers from taking proper care of the children. While very few children make groups in such an environment, which protects them against unpleasant emotional experiences and at the same time gives them tolerance and good mental health, others who do not make groups and remain deprived and develop poor mental health.

2.4.2 Orphans

This is the second study group (group two). Orphans are the children who have lost their parents, and are required to live in the orphanages due to reasons and
circumstances beyond their control. They are abruptly deprived of parental love, affection, warmth and security. According to Coleman (1980), the traumatic experience of losing parents abruptly not only temporarily shatters children’s feelings of security, adequacy and worth among the children but also is important in influencing their later evaluations of themselves and their environment.

According to Tripathi (1982), in case of subjective deprivation it is presumed that only an individual knows what he wants and in what amount. If what the individual gets, falls below his subjective standard he feels deprived. Deprivation directly or indirectly affects the development of an individual. For the purpose of evaluating the influence of environment on the personality, the environment can be categorized as natural, social and cultural. All children have similar basic needs and drives. The ways of meeting these needs and drives differ depending on the natural environment. The cultural environment guides their beliefs, values, norms and meaningful actions. The social environment matures the individual and proffers individual and social identity. A study on orphans conducted by Vijayalaxmi and Singh (1997), states that the orphan adolescents are seen and viewed differently by others and also by themselves. As such the orphans feel neglected and deprived and get socialized differently. It is also expected that as a group, orphans may show some peculiar and different behavior and personality characteristics compared to the children from intact families.

2.4.3 Children from Intact Families (CIF)

This is the third group of children, the comparison group (group three), comprising the children whose parents are alive and the children are living with their natural parents. The family has a unique position in the overall growth and development of the children. The child spends a major part of his developmental years
in the context of the family. There is a relation between early experiences of the child and his or her adult behavior. It is our experience that with parents alive, the children get comparatively more balanced attention to their activities necessary for their growth and development of their personality. As the children constitute the future of the nation, it becomes vital that they develop in the right direction and align themselves with the all round social development. Family system plays a leading role in showing them this direction.

Family has long been considered as the school of socialization, influencing the personality of the growing children. Children are born with different traits, into different social worlds wherein they grow differently. The personality of the adult is different from that of the child and yet, the adult personality develops on the initial base provided by the nature, as a result of the environment in which the child grows up.

2.5 DEPENDENT VARIABLES

The dependent variables included in this study represent those, which relate to the development in childhood. These are the personality dimensions, self-esteem, depression, and intelligence.

2.5.1 Personality

Some of the concepts related to personality have been referred to in the previous chapter. It is essential to mention here that there are many personality theories and each tries to explain the concept of personality in its own way. In this study, the Eysenckian model of personality employing three higher order factors namely Extraversion (E), Neuroticism (N), and Psychoticism (P) has been considered for studying the personality.

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The description of these dimensions of personality is given below:

2.5.1.1 Psychoticism (P)

A high score on P indicates that, a person will be hostile to others, even with his own kith and kin, and aggressive, even to loved ones. He may be solitary, not caring for people; he is often troublesome, not fitting in anywhere; he may be cruel and inhumane, lacking in feeling and empathy. Persons scoring high on P are odd, isolated, troublesome, glacial and lacking in human feelings for his fellow-beings and for animals, aggressive and hostile to near and dear ones. Such individuals try to make up for lack of feeling by indulging in sensation seeking arousal jags without thinking of the dangers involved. Concerning the value and interest systems of high P scorers, it is found that they undervalue people, particularly people in authority. Their interests tend to be in impersonal sex, war and horror films and TV shows, and in sport; education and cultural pursuits have a negative valence for them. Their artistic productions tend towards the bizarre, and their artistic preferences tend towards the unusual (H.J. Eysenck & S.B.G. Eysenck, 1976).

Eysenck has proposed the genetic and physiological bases for all the three dimensions. Although this information is not utilized for the formation of hypotheses, for the sake of offering exhaustive description of each dimension, its genetic and physiological bases is briefly reviewed in these sections. Eysenck suggested that there is a broad genetic factor for predisposition to psychoticism. In the event of actual development of psychosis, separate genes determine the precise form (e.g. schizophrenic or manic-depressive) of psychosis. A close genetic relationship between schizophrenia and psychopathy suggests that criminals might be expected to have high 'P' score, as compared with matched normal controls. Studies have been conducted on...
males and females, which show that criminals of either sex have elevated 'P' (S.B.G.Eysenck and H.J.Eysenck, 1970b; 1971a; 1971b; 1973b). Aggressiveness and hostility, which are the two of main contributors to 'P', are traditionally male characteristics, and consequently we would expect men to have higher 'P' scores than women. High 'P' scores among males or females can be related to sex attitudes resembling those of men, while low P scores whether among males or females can be related to sex attitudes resembling those of women (Eysenck, 1971b; 1971c; 1972b). Eysenck proposed that a person with high score on P is best understood as having inherited a vulnerability to develop psychotic disorders in the face of developmental stress, and it is the traits associated with vulnerability that serve to define the person who obtain high score on P. The concept of P as a personality dimension (with psychopathy as a half-way stage towards psychosis) is well supported by many findings, observational, co-relational and experimental studies. The genetic determination of P is clearly established, and it is of particular interest that the model, which best fits P also fits psychosis (H. J. Eysenck & S.B.G.Eysenck, 1976). Eysenck and Eysenck have also discussed the relationship between psychoticism, arousal and 'maleness', and offered several speculations about the biological basis of psychoticism.

In infants, the lack of parental involvement is associated with disruption in attachment (Egeland & Sroufe, 1981a, 81b) and in older children it is associated with impulsivity, aggression, noncompliance, moodiness, and low self-esteem. Young CSWs' children have to stay with their mother till they get any alternative place or institution for staying. The institutes generally admit them after 3 to 5 years of age. Till this time, they are exposed to the environment, which comprises of pimps, brothel keepers, commission agents, procurers, bootleggers, alcoholics, drug peddlers and shady customers. All these people make the living environment of CSWs' children
vulnerable to anti-social activities, which in turn, directly or indirectly have adverse impact on them (Patkar, 1991). These children are exposed to the environment where antisocial activities flourish. Progeny of such parents who indulge in impersonal sexual relationship (mother on the account of her profession and the father just to satisfy his libido) are likely to have high degree of ‘P’. It is therefore likely that the children born out of such relationships may have high ‘P’ score.

Lack of parental monitoring is strongly associated with the risk of delinquent behavior (Patterson, 1982; Pulkkinen, 1982). Orphans are parentless children and they always think about the whereabouts of their parents. The kind of shock and treatment these children get after separation from parents has an adverse effect on their personality. Even after growing up, the children’s questions remain unanswered and directly or indirectly they blame the society for the circumstances in which they live and grow.

Desai and Apte (1987) studied the effect of deprivation of family care among CSWs’ children. They reported that constant deprivation of emotional and social care led to development of behavioral problems like truancy from school, drinking, smoking, hyperactivity or restlessness, bedwetting, extreme shyness and antisocial behavior. Lack of space and cramped sleeping quarters also aggravated the problems. Further, the absence of a father figure coupled with the mother’s preoccupation with her profession resulted in lack of parental love. This in turn, developed emotional insecurity among the children, with feelings of being unloved and unwanted. This emotional insecurity, cruel treatment by brothel keepers to their mothers and immoral behavior among elders contributed to emotional disasters. Deprivation of love and affection results in inability to form successful relationships with others.
Nagar (1992) has reported in her study that the deprived children exhibited
distinct differences in personality traits and types when compared to the children from
intact families. Some of her most relevant findings on orphans indicate that the
orphans' showed lack of adjustment with the environment, did not accept group moral
standards and tended to disregard social rules, showed low mental capacity and were
unable to handle abstract problems. Patkar (1991) reported that children are prone to
the inhuman conditions that prevail in the red light areas and are vulnerable to the evils
of the trade right from their birth and also at every stage of their growth. They are
called the children of the street and are discriminated against and stigmatized at all
levels. Raghuramiah (1991) observed that, the overall personality that emerged from
this background is deficient on the side, devoid of a sense of self and lacking in gentle
feelings. Natesan (1995), in her study of the deprived boys reported that withdrawal
was found among 50% of the selected boys. Quarrelsomeness, worry, stubbornness,
short temper, dependence and aggressiveness were found in more than 50% of the boys
above 10 years. More than 50% of the girls exhibited withdrawal and phobia. Khatri
(1965) found that orphanage reared children displayed low and unrealistic aspirations
and poor language development as compared to family-reared children. Since parental
deprivation has adverse effect on personality adjustment, the adolescents with parental
support and care adjusted well and developed a healthy personality adjustment, whereas
those deprived of parental care and support showed no sign of attachment to any person
(Khan, 1981).

Kuruganti (1985) reported that children brought up in institutions showed
marked developmental retardation and withdrawal from environment. Some studies on
depprivation have found an association between delinquency and broken homes
(Wootton, 1959; Yarrow, 1961). It was established that the breaking up of relationships
between parents due to various reasons like death, divorce or desertion led to the development of children with delinquent tendencies. Lack of parental care may lead to poor adjustment, which may be leading to delinquency. An 'Indian Council For Social Welfare' (1969, 1973) study in Maharashtra during the period 1969 to 1973 revealed a very high percentage of delinquents coming from broken homes. Sheth (1961), and Chandra (1967), reported similar conclusions. Chatterjee (1966) analyzed the adverse effect of maternal deprivation on the development of a child's personality. Another study on ill treatment of children born out of wedlock indicated that the treatment meted out to the child turns him into a juvenile delinquent.

The above conceptualization and studies lead to hypothesis number 1.

**Hypothesis 1:**

Commercial sex workers' children and orphans would score high on Psychoticism (P) as compared to children from intact families.

### 2.5.1.2 Neuroticism (N)

According to H.J. Eysenck and S.B.G. Eysenck (1975), typical high N scorer is an anxious, worrying individual, moody and frequently depressed. He is likely to sleep badly, and to suffer from various psychosomatic disorders. He is overly emotional, reacting too strongly to all sorts of stimuli, and finds it difficult to get back on an even keel after each emotionally arousing experience. His strong emotional reactions interfere with his proper adjustment, making him react in irrational, sometimes rigid ways. High N individual can be described as a 'worrier' type of person.

Eysenck (1967) recognized the role of the visceral (limbic system) brain in initiating autonomic and hormonal system changes and producing a type of sub-cortical arousal associated with emotions. Individual differences in neuroticism were due to
differential thresholds in the 'visceral' brain with interaction between the two systems (visceral brain arousal potentiating reticulocortical arousal). Extreme neurotics have high level of visceral brain activation, while extreme stables have low levels of visceral brain activation. Neurotic introverts have the highest overall arousal, stable extraverts have the lowest overall arousal. Eysenck (1959); H.J. Eysenck and S.B.G. Eysenck, (1965); and Claridge (1967) studied clinical correlates of N.

Neuroticism and anxiety are so highly related that although there is some fine conceptual distinction between the two, they are often used synonymously. As such, theoratization and findings in respect of anxiety would also help us in framing the hypothesis about neuroticism. Anxiety is the experience of tension, which results from real or imaginary threat to one's security. Over anxiety reduces the efficiency of the individual in satisfying his needs, disturbs interpersonal relations and produces confusion in thinking. CSWs are worried and stressed mothers and even during their pregnancy they are anxious about fulfilling their day-to-day needs and the future of the new arrival. Anxiety of the mother is likely to be passed on to her progeny. Sullivan (1950) believed that anxiety is the first great educative influence in living. Anxiety is transmitted to the infant by the 'mothering one', who is herself expressing anxiety in her looks, tone of voice, and general demeanor. As a consequence of this mothertransmitted anxiety, other objects in the near surroundings become frightened and anxiety producing by the operation of the parataxic mode of associating contiguous experiences. The environment where the child spends his initial few years of life gives rise to several situations, which are likely to induce greater anxiety. Singh (1990) reported that the environment of CSWs' place of living (brothel) was very unhealthy, unhygienic, and not at all conducive for healthy mental and physical growth. At the
later stage when the child stays in institutions, with other drawbacks, these give rise to higher levels of anxiety.

Orphans are always anxious and worried about the fulfillment of their basic needs because they are parentless. When the parents are not there, the institutionalized orphans are always at the mercy of the caretakers. Anxiety then becomes an acquired habit, which is likely to give rise to a higher degree of N. The living environment comprising of the natural, cultural and the social components influences the personality development of the children. Different ways of meeting the basic needs and drives are born out of the natural environment. The cultural environment furnishes beliefs, value systems and norms and the social environment imparts maturity, by virtue of which individuals achieve identities. Children growing up in the presence of pleasant emotions gain tolerance and those who grow with unpleasant emotions develop poor mental health.

Sonawat and Chopra (1996) found that the majority of CSWs were from low-income group. Lack of financial resources and time constraint provided them few opportunities to take proper care of their children during the initial years, in respect of their physical health, food and clothing. Majority of the children being first generation learners, failed to get adequate supervision in academics from their single parents. Absence of a healthy home environment had adverse effect on their personality formation. These children were exposed to the environment where antisocial activities flourished. Insecurity, rejection, and hyperactivity exhibited by these children added up to make a weak personality, which could be easily overshadowed by others.

A study conducted by Vijayalakshmi and Singh (1997) found that the neuroticism among the orphans was significantly higher and the extraversion was significantly lower when compared to the adolescents staying with their families.
Another study conducted by Chaudhary and Bajaj (1995) revealed that adolescents staying at home had greater degree of emotional maturity than those staying in orphanages. Similar was the case about occupational aspirations. Orphans had low levels of occupational aspirations as compared to those of staying at home. It was reasoned that perhaps the orphanage inmates were afraid that after their release from the protective shell of the institution, they would have no one to look after them and there was nothing, which they could call their own. For the adolescents with families, the presence of their parents, siblings and peers does not allow this feeling to grow.

Nagar (1992) has reported in her study that the deprived children were emotionally unstable and get upset easily. Natesan (1995), in her study found that the deprived boys in the age range of 10 to 15 years exhibited more behavioral problems as compared to the boys below 10 years. As regards the negative personality traits, the study indicated that fear and withdrawal are exhibited by more than 60% of the girls. Dependence was seen in the 50% of the sample of 5 to 9 years, while stubbornness was seen in 51% of the girls in the age range 10 to 15 years. It was noted that fear was present in 80% of the boys above 10 years, where as it was less in boys between 5 to 9 years. Khan (1982) noted that children from government ashram type school with parental deprivation showed that deficiency of social and emotional experiences, during the early years of life led to poor personal and social adjustment.

Singh and Bhargava (1984) found that the absence of one or both parents adversely affected personality growth. In another study Pringle and Bossio (1960), found that deprived children were more insecure than normal children. In a study, of parentally deprived and non-deprived female hostellers of a university it was found that the non-deprived girls used their inner resources for achieving controlled adjustment to their social environment whereas, deprived girls were using repressive measures for
achieving control. Deprived girls were ruled by immediate need for gratification rather than by long-range goals. Due to this conflict and repression, they often had more anxiety. Deprived girls did not make constructive use of their potential. Their intellectual functioning was lowered due to emotional disturbances. They also suffered from an acute sense of insecurity, which was absent in the other group. Overall it was observed that the non-deprived had a better adjustment of personality as compared to other group.

The above conceptualization and studies thus lead to hypothesis number 2.

Hypotheses 2:

Commercial sex workers' children and orphans would score high on Neuroticism (N) as compared to children from intact families.

2.5.1.3. Extraversion (E)

According to H.J.Eysenck and S.B.G.Eysenck (1975), the typical extravert is sociable, likes parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to and does not like reading or studying himself. He craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, acts on spur of the moment, and generally is an impulsive individual. He is fond of practical jokes, always has a ready answer, and generally likes change; he is carefree, easy going, optimistic, and likes to laugh and be merry. He prefers to keep moving and doing things, tends to be aggressive and lose his temper quickly; altogether his feelings are not kept under tight control, and he is not always a reliable person.

The typical introvert is quiet, retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people, he is reserved and distant except to intimate friends. He tends to plan ahead, looks before he leaps and distrusts the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matters of everyday life with proper seriousness, and likes a
well-ordered mode of life. He keeps his feelings under close control, seldom behaves in an aggressive manner, and does not lose his temper easily. He is reliable, somewhat pessimistic and places great value on ethical standards.

Analyses of the twin data using the Jinks and Fulker's (1970) biometric method showed that 58% of the overall trait variance could be accounted for by genetic factors and the rest was due to non-shared environmental factors and errors of measurement (Fulker, Eysenck, & Zuckerman, 1980). Smith (1983) and Stelmack (1990), reviewing the literature on E, reported that introverts and extraverts do not differ on general arousal in normal basal conditions, but the measures of skin conductance indicated that introverts tend to be more arousable than extraverts to stimuli of moderate intensity.

Eysenck (1967) incorporated advances made in the neurosciences regarding the role of brain stem and limbic system in cortical arousal and emotional reaction. The optimal level of stimulation was related to an optimal level of arousal (Hebb, 1955) based on the functioning of the reticulo-cortical activating system (Moruzzi & Magoun, 1949). This system functioned as a homeostat regulating the stimulation input to the cortex in terms of current levels of arousal (Lindsley, 1957). The set point at which the homeostat shut down input (transmarginal inhibition) was suggested to differ in introverts and extraverts, being lower in the former and higher in the latter.

Wilson (1978) has reviewed the experimental studies relating to introversion - extraversion with sensitivity to stimuli, memory, psycho-physiological aspects, pharmacological studies, memory and motor performance. He also reviewed some social and applied correlates of introversion - extraversion with educational attainment, industrial and vocational applications, crime and anti-social behavior etc.

As quoted in the previous section a study conducted by Vijayalaxmi and Singh (1997) revealed that the orphans are less extraverted as compared to the adolescents.
staying with their parents. The family plays a critical role in the socialization of the child. The early parent-child relationship is important because it serves as the initial social relation that shapes up the child’s expectancies and responses in subsequent social encounters. In the course of socialization, parents serve important roles as teachers and models for their children. In case of CSWs’ children, their initial formative years are spent with the mother in an environment, which is not conducive for healthy growth. For orphans, sudden separation from parents or not knowing whereabouts of the parents may lead to a state of shock and they may withdraw from social interaction. The environment in which these children grow may not be appropriate where they would feel free to express their feelings, and there are very few people with whom they can talk and share their feelings, which may lead to deficit in social and communication skills and this may result in introverted tendencies.

The process of socialization, which takes place in the family, is absent for institutionalized children. School going CSWs’ children and orphans find it difficult to talk about their fathers/parents and other family members. This impairs the child’s social acceptance. The parental love, affection and caring attitude in the family environment are perceived as a catalyst in a child’s development and growth. The child’s interaction with parents, other family members, and social interaction of the family directly and indirectly helps in developing the traits of extraversion in children from intact families.

Nagar (1992) has reported in her study that the normal children were more warm-hearted, outgoing and easy going than the deprived children. Deprivation makes them dull. Williams and McFerland (1937) applied a vocabulary test to 64 orphanage children and compared them with a large group of children living in their own homes. The latter had a marked superior vocabulary. Goldfarb (1943,1945) in a comparative
study of institutionalized and foster children investigated speech sound, intelligibility of speech and level of language organization at three age levels: in early infancy, at 6-8 years and in adolescence. At each age level, the institutionalized children showed marked language deficiency in all the three areas. Deprivation exerts most adverse effects on speech development. Bolby (1951) concluded that in neuro-muscular development the most affected is the speech, the ability to express being more retarded than the ability to understand. Lack of social interaction, poor vocabulary, and difficulty in expression through speech may lead to introversion in deprived children.

The above conceptualization and studies lead to hypothesis number 3.

**Hypothesis 3:**

Commercial sex workers' children and orphans would score low on Extraversion (E) as compared to children from intact families.

### 2.5.1.4 Lie scale (L)

Eysenck's model of personality has three higher order factors namely psychoticism, neuroticism and extraversion. In addition, most of Eysenck's tests including the Junior Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (JEPQ) have a Lie scale. Dicken (1959), has argued that there are three possible and plausible reasons for high scoring on 'L' scale: (1) Deliberate faking with intention to deceive the user, (2) Responses in terms of an ideal self concept rather then a candid self appraisal; (3) Responses in terms of an honest but inaccurate and un-insightful self assessment. To these three reasons, Eysenck and Eysenck (1976) added the fourth possibility; namely a genuine conformity with social rules. The nature of 'L' scale has been thoroughly discussed by H.J.Eysenck and S.B.G.Eysenck (1976). Recent research has shown that under conditions of high motivation to dissimulate, the 'L' scale measures the extent of
giving socially desirable responses. Under conditions for low motivation to dissimulate, the ‘L’ scale appears to measure the degree of social conformity. Some more data and interpretation on Eysenck ‘L’ scale in Indian context is provided by Lodhi (1985), Lodhi and Thomas (1991), and Lodhi and Thakur (1993). Experimental studies on L scale have been done by Power (1968), and Power and O’Donovan (1969), Nias (1972b).

The conceptualization of lie scale as measure of social conformity is used here for the purpose of hypothesis formation. Socialization is the process whereby an individual’s standards, skills, motives, attitudes and behavior are shaped to conform to those regarded as desirable and appropriate for his or her present or future role in society (Hetherington & Parke, 1986). In the family, environment and life style is quite flexible for all family members whereas, the institutions have to follow a set routine for administrative reasons. Different managements may run institutions but they operate in a strict regime of discipline and rules. This compels the CSWs’ children and orphans to conform to a set life pattern. For them the world usually proceeds on schedule, regardless of their individual needs and demands. These children have to follow the routine, the rules and regulations of the institutes out of fear of punishment although they may or may not imbibe the related value system. Shortage of staff and frequent turnover of the staff in the institutes adds another dimension where, due to the unpredictable behavior of the staff the need for model behavior and conformity becomes higher. Thus institutionalized orphans and CSWs’ children may show more social conformity as compared to children from intact families.

The above conceptualization leads to hypothesis number 4.
**Hypothesis 4:**

*Commercial sex workers' children and orphans would score high on Lie score (L) as compared to children from intact families.*

**2.5.2 Self-esteem**

The self is the sum total of the person's idea about who and what he is, what he appears to be, what he thinks of himself and what others judge him to be. Self is the developmental form of the individual, consisting of interrelated attitudes that the individual has acquired in relation to his own body and its parts - to his capacities and to objects, his family, groups, social values, goals and institutions, which define and regulate his relatedness to them in concrete situations and activities. Self-esteem is an important part of personality. A feeling of self worth is an important ingredient of mental health; a loss of self-esteem and feelings of worthlessness are common depressive symptoms. Self-concept is a person's total appraisal of his appearance, background and origins, abilities and resources, attitudes and feelings, which culminate as a directing force in his behavior.

Child rearing practices are consistently related to self-esteem. Children with parents who are warm and responsive and who provide reasonable expectations for behavior feel especially good about themselves (Baumrind, 1971, 1991; Bishop & Ingersoll, 1989; Coopersmith, 1967). Self-esteem comprises the judgments we make about our own worth and feelings associated with those judgments (Berk, 1996). It has been observed that persons who are plagued by doubts of their worthiness can neither give nor receive love, apparently fearing that the exposure that comes with intimacy will reveal their inadequacies and cause them to be rejected (Fromm, 1947). They thus avoid closeness in their relationships and feel isolated as a consequence.
According to Rosenberg (1979, p. 31), “a person with high self-esteem is fundamentally satisfied with the type of person he is, yet he may acknowledge his faults while hoping to overcome them”. High self-esteem implies a realistic evaluation of self’s characteristic and competencies, coupled with an attitude of self-acceptance and self-respect. Self-esteem ranks among the most important aspects of children’s social-cognitive development. Children’s evaluations of their own competencies affect their emotional experiences and future behavior in similar situations as well as their long-term psychological adjustment. Researchers reveal that around the age of two years children can call for attention to an achievement and frown when they fail (Stipek, Recchia, & McClintic, 1992). Academic self-esteem predicts children’s school achievement as well as their willingness to try hard at challenging tasks (Marsh, Smith, & Barnes, 1985).

As compared to two parent families, female-headed families are more likely to experience social and psychological stress, such as unemployment, and job change, lack of social support, negative self-image, and pessimism about the future (McLanhan, 1983). Children from single parent families also have a large share of such problems as juvenile delinquency, truancy, and poor schoolwork. Whatever problems these children may have, they do not result directly from the absence of a father in a female headed home as popularly believed but from factors such as low income, poor living conditions, and lack of parental supervision (Cherlin and Frustenberg, 1983; Cherlin, 1992).

Laboratory and field studies support the view that self-esteem is important in personal experience and interpersonal behavior. Maria (1975) studied the personality development of adolescent girls in state homes for children. She found that these girls, compared to children from intact families, tended to be miserly and laconic, lacked
interest, had a low emotional tone, had negative self-image, had a negative perception of the world and had a limited knowledge of women’s role. Children with high social self-esteem are consistently better liked by their peers (Harter, 1983). A person with low self-esteem is less capable of resisting the pressures to conform and is less able to perceive threatening situations (Janis, 1983). On the other hand, persons with high self-esteem maintain fairly constant images of their capabilities and their distinct individual identities. Creative persons show that they rank quite high in self-esteem due to a belief in one’s perceptions and the conviction that one can force or impose order in a section of society. This belief is a basic prerequisite for one’s creativity. Persons with high self-esteem also assume active roles in social groups and express their views frequently and effectively. They move more directly and realistically towards their personal goals. Poor self-concept and low self-esteem often result from excessive failure and punishment, and are associated with belonging to social minorities (ethically, sexually or socio-economically).

Nobody can deny the importance of the role of the parents in the developing self-concept and self-esteem among children. The deficiencies resulting from parental deprivation are universally accepted. Many deficiencies are clearly visible in the children who are brought up in institutes during their early years. An inability to form relations with adults, inadequate intellectual functions, apathy and indifference to one’s world, poor physical stamina are some of the most obvious symptoms. It is likely that CSWs’ children and orphans would show lower self-esteem as compared to children from intact families.

The above conceptualization thus leads to hypothesis number 5.
Hypotheses 5:
Commercial sex workers' children and orphans would score low on self-esteem as compared to children from intact families.

2.5.3 Depression

Depression is another important factor of personality, which can change a person’s behavior. Depression is one of the significant problems throughout the world. It is estimated that each year at least 100 million people in the world develop some form of clinically recognizable depression (Sethi et al., 1984). The depression or fluctuation of mood between elation and sadness are not only common between the normal adult (Velton, 1968) and the aged (Nandini and Parvathi, 1996) but also among children (Ariety, 1959; Dun & Sacco, 1988; Finman and Berkowitz, 1989; Hentershott, 1989; Weller and Weller, 1985). Comunian (1989) studied depression among children and its probable impact on self-efficacy, state-anxiety and test-anxiety. Depressive reactions have been observed among children of the age ranging between 3 to 12 years. It is also found even among people after the age of 85 (Poznanski & Zrull, 1970). It was found that children who happened to be emotionally unstable were likely to have depression (Lakshmi & Sinha, 1996).

The word depression is popularly used as a synonym for feelings of sadness, loneliness, or the blues (Hetherington & Parke, 1989). In its clinical use, on the other hand, the term has a much more specific meaning. In clinical depression adults or children experience extreme sadness or affective disturbance. Some of the behavior symptoms include insomnia, change in appetite and weight, agitation or slowing down in motor activity, apathy or loss of pleasure in usual activity. Considerable disagreement may be found in the discussion of childhood depression. It has been
argued that because of immature cognitive and personality development, it is not possible for children to be clinically depressed or to experience disorder in the same way as adults do.

Interest in the phenomena of childhood depression was considerably boosted during ‘The Fourth Congress of the Union of European Pedopsychiatrists’ (1971), where the theme was ‘Depressive States in Childhood and Adolescence’. Another conference on ‘Depression in Childhood’ (1975), under the aegis of the ‘Centre for Studies of Child and Family Health’ of the National Institute of Mental Health also focused attention on this subject. Verena and Kuhn (1971) reported that in any average group of children about 12% could be expected to display pathological disturbances classifiable as depression and warranting treatment. Nissen (1971) reported moderately severe and severe depressive state among 1.8% of a sample of 6000 children.

Recent studies on children and adolescents establish the relationship between the stressful life events and psychological maladjustment (Compas, 1987). The general assumption is that the stressful life events cause, or at least increase, children’s vulnerability to psychological, behavioral, or somatic disturbances. It has been found that exposure to major life events such as the separation or divorce of parents, a change in school or residence and change in family atmosphere are likely to be associated with emotional difficulties and behavioral maladjustment in children and adolescents.

Any of the symptoms of depression such as appetite and sleep disturbances occur with such a high frequency among children as to be considered developmentally normal events and other events such as crying do not carry the same significance for children as they do for adults (Cicchetti & Pogge Hesse, 1981). According to Lang & Tisher (1978), although children do not exhibit the signs and symptoms of adult depressive reactions, they exhibit other symptoms like behavioral problems and
delinquency, psychoneurotic reactions such as school phobia, learning difficulties, temper tantrums, accident proneness, truancy, self-destruction, disturbances of digestive system, sleep disturbances, migrainous headaches and motor retardation. One of the very few theories of the causes of depression that has focused on childhood rather than adult life suggests that depression results from maternal deprivation (Bowlby, 1960). Bowlby has extended this theme, arguing that separation and losses during early childhood are one cause of depression among children and adults in later years.

Spitz (1946) observed that infants who were reared in institutional settings appeared to be detached and depressed, they were withdrawn, unresponsive, and delayed in their physical and emotional development. He concluded that this was a result of being deprived of a relationship with their mothers. Many studies have confirmed the direct relationship between maternal deprivation and psychopathological emotions like depression. Bender (1947), Bowlby (1951) noted that delinquency and affectionless psychopathy were associated with multiple separation experiences and institutional care. Depression is characterized by negative emotions and reduced physical activity. Depressed individuals appear sad, careworn and discouraged; they show little interest in what goes on about them. Their speech tends to be slow and infrequent and they are physically immobile for long periods of time. Usually they feel unworthy and blame themselves for past misdeeds (Rutter, 1979). According to Bowlby (1973), a research involving separation of a young infant from its mother, showed that separation resulted in anxious searching behavior in the infant, frequently accompanied by anger and distress. After prolonged separation, the infant may become depressed and apathetic.
Sigal et al. (1999) studied the physical as well as psychological well being of adults who were raised in orphanages and adults from general population. They found that adults raised in orphanages showed lower psychological well being, had less education, higher distress, higher level of anxiety and depression and more chronic health problems associated with psychological distress. Another study of boarding school, boys who came from broken homes as compared to those from normal homes, reported that broken home boys showed greater tendency to anger and were more self centered, less sensitive to social approval and more depressed. Depression is probably particularly associated with being orphaned during early adolescence (Hill, 1972).

Depression occurs in many forms. An exogenous depression is triggered by environmental stress and is relatively mild. An endogenous depression is very severe and may have an internal physiological cause. Of all the forms of mental disorders, depression is most likely to lead to self-injury, self-destruction or even suicide in extreme cases. Studies done by Casler (1961), and Dennis and Natarajan (1957), suggest that those children who are rejected by their parents and who remain in institutions rather than being with their real parents are likely to experience deprivation of adequate emotional experience. This kind of deprivation emerges out of a feeling of being unwanted, uncared for and unattended. Poznanski and Zrull (1970) have also reported overt childhood depression, and found evidence of the ‘expression of an affective state of chronic unhappiness or sadness’ (affective depression). Similar findings were also reported by Joffe, (1965), who agreed with Frommer (1967), that childhood depression was a commonly occurring illness. Frommer associated the malady with symptoms like non-specific recurrent abdominal pain, headache, sleep difficulties, irrational fears, mood disturbances like irritability, unaccountable
tearfulness and associated temper outbursts. Stack divided the children into pre-school children and school going children.

Persons typically become depressed when their lives have lost delight and any sense of meaning or hope. Occasions for depression include the death of a loved person, prolonged failure of one’s projects, the loss of beauty or one’s health and vitality. When persons are depressed, they experience life as hellish. Time slows down, nothing is happening and they feel worthlessness, and guilt. Depressed people frequently make suicidal attempts. Children from intact families are the privileged group in this study. They get proper attention, love and affection, and security from parents, which is necessary for the healthy and positive development.

The above conceptualization and studies thus lead to hypothesis number 6.

**Hypothesis 6:**

Commercial sex workers’ children and orphans would show more depression as compared to children from intact families.

### 2.5.4 Intelligence

The important conceptualization in respect of intelligence has already been reviewed in the chapter 1 (sect. 1.3.9). As such, in this section the studies having direct relevance for hypothesis formulation are reviewed.

Both heredity and environment contribute to development of intelligence. While the genetic component cannot be changed, the environmental component can be changed to some extent. Jensen (1969) has studied the effects of social class on verbal learning. He found that due to lack of exposure to varied stimulating environmental conditions, disadvantaged children were extremely underdeveloped in perceptual discrimination. The potential effects of a multitude of environmental factors such as
education, culture, social class as well as the possibility of hidden biases of the tests administered has to be precisely evaluated to determine the effect of environment on intelligence.

According to United Nations Report (1952), children who have been deprived of a normal home life by wars, natural calamities, industrial dislocations, and social and psychological factors are affected physically, intellectually, and emotionally. Agarwal (1987) investigated the relationship between intelligence, personality structure, and affectional deprivation among children living in orphanages. He found that affectional deprivation has a greater negative impact on personality structure of intelligent children. Deutsch (1964) has recorded that children from fatherless homes had significantly lower IQ by the time they entered the fifth grade than the children with fathers. Surveys of the intellectual development of orphanage children showed that the children in orphanages were mentally less developed as compared to ordinary children (Fernald, 1918; Terman & Wagner, 1918; California State Board 1918; Gobb 1922).

Crissey (1937) also found that generally the IQ decreased with the increasing length of institutional residence. Desai and Apte (1987) reported that about 61% of children of CSWs were deprived of education due to lack interest in studies and due to shortage of finance from mother. Very few daughters could get opportunity to live decent life. (In the recent past, some NGOs have started taking care of their studies and providing facilities to fulfill their basic needs).

It has been reported that children with a father in the family have a head start in life and that young children whose fathers are regularly present are better learners, have higher self-esteem, and fewer symptoms of childhood depression. The young ones who see their fathers as supportive have a greater sense of social acceptance. Dobson and Grimstone (2000) reported that in the presence of an adult male, usually the biological
father, the children did better. The studies also indicate that men and women complement each other in the development of intelligence of their offspring. Men teach the children to be intrepid, while the women warn them about the dangers. Studies have also shown that the cognitive development suffered and cognitive processes got disorganized due to deprivation of stimulation (Kagan & Moss, 1962).

Jones (1956) in his study noted that disadvantaged children’s recognition ability, vocabulary and sentence structures were significantly below average. Davis (1964) found close connection between social deprivation and lower cognitive functioning. To assess the impact of home environment on intelligence, Bradley, Caldwell and Elardo developed a scale. Their finding confirms that stimulation provided by parents is linked to mental development. During the pre-school years, warmth, stimulation of language & academic behavior and provision of appropriate play materials are the best predictors (Bradley & Caldwell, 1976, Elardo, Bradley & Caldwell 1975, 1977). A stimulating physical environment, encouragement of achievement and affection are repeatedly linked to I. Q. no matter what the child’s background. (Bradley & Caldwell, 1981, 1982, Bradley et. al. 1989; Luster & Dubow, 1992).

Deprivation is not a hypothetical situation but is a real life experience. Studies on results of trauma and deprivation provide evidence that it has a marked and prolonged effect upon the physical as well as intellectual development attendant with marked retardation for life. The long term effects of deprivation were studied through a follow-up study by Skodak & Skeels (1966), and it was revealed that all those who received early attention had been maintaining themselves effectively in life on their own, whereas, most of those who had not received such stimulation became retarded.

The above conceptualization and studies thus lead to hypothesis number 7.
Hypothesis 7:
Commercial sex workers' children and orphans would score low on intelligence as compared to children from intact families.

2.6 HYPOTHESE AT A GLANCE

All the seven hypotheses formulated above are recapitulated here so that they can be reviewed at a glance.

Hypotheses:

1. Commercial sex workers’ children and orphans would score high on Psychoticism (P) as compared to children from intact families.
2. Commercial sex workers’ children and orphans would score high on Neuroticism (N) as compared to children from intact families.
3. Commercial sex workers’ children and orphans would score low on Extraversion (E) as compared to children from intact families.
4. Commercial sex workers’ children and orphans would score high on Lie score (L) as compared to children from intact families.
5. Commercial sex workers’ children and orphans would score low on self-esteem as compared to children from intact families.
6. Commercial sex workers’ children and orphans would show more depression as compared to children from intact families.
7. Commercial sex workers’ children and orphans would score low on Intelligence as compared to children from intact families.

The subsequent chapters are devoted to the empirical evaluation of hypotheses stated above.