CHAPTER IV

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF BEHAVIOR PATTERN
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Psychologists, educationists and sociologists opined that the family was the most significant single influence in the development of the child. It was the major environmental influence and remains, throughout life, the most persuasive of influence. It was in the family that the child learns to trust people or to hold them in fear.

The family had a most significant role to play in the development of personality. The customs and beliefs of society were first handed down within family. Here the child first observe and then internalizes the value of the parents.

It was the family that the child first struggles to develop a feeling of adequacy. It was here that he was put to the test, to show what he could produce or achieve. The family gave him his first objects for identification and provides the situation for the eventual development of an ego identity. Kagan indicates that the "significant motive for the identification was the desire to possess desirable characteristic of the model". The child wishes to possess adult quality such as power,
competence, and strength. The integrity displayed in family relationship offers a model for the child to develop his own sense of integrity. The family usually teaches him what was punished and what was encouraged, what was valued and what was ignored and, regardless of what parents say, the child was quite astute in observing what was actually adhered to.

The family sets the size for the development of many important personality characteristics. Providing experiences both within and outside the home. The parents serve as the first socializing agents, within the family atmosphere and the family ranges, the child learns what he was or what it was that his parents and siblings expect of him.

The family process of instruction was sometimes planned, sometimes incidental, but either way, the goals of transmitting the family culture were accomplished.

Some methods of reaching within the family were quite subtle. Teachers classify them as pure forms of indoctrination, in which the child was held up against the standards of the group. The child also observes and imitates the behavior of the significant adults in his life. He notices their interaction with one another. Since these were the only models available for observation in the process of becoming a human being, they become his model for imitation.
Sometimes the child’s behavior was directly encouraged or discouraged. In recent years it had been questioned whether the family plays a significant role as it was did in the past century. Some feels that it no longer plays a major role in the education of individuals; in providing recreation, or in nurturing the child towards a specific vocation. However anthropological studies reveal that the family was still carrying on major functions, which were not the province of any other social institution. Witner and Kotinoky point out the following: “Three such essential functions had been identified, (i) to produce children and provide them with a setting of supporting affection, (ii) to induct them, from infancy on, into end ways and values of society and (iii) to give them initial identity within the community”.

The importance of affection in the emotional development of children had been demonstrated. The most natural place for this affection to be experienced was within the family.

Relationship of parents with their children remain the most important factor in determining the kind of person the child would become and the kinds of problems he would face in his quest for maturity.
Out of 6,47,437 populations of the age group of 0-14 years according to 1991 census in the whole state, 2,50,965 belong to Imphal East and West district. This figure was reflected, as there was no publication in the Statistical report of 2004 regarding the age-group population of 0-14.

The total Infant Death rate of the State according to 2000 was 3514, out of this total, the Death rate of Imphal East and West was 2755. Total Birth rate of the state was 22,892, out of this total; Birth rate of Imphal East and West was 14,618. Table for number of registered Birth in Manipur had been given in table no. VII at page no. 117.

The total household as reported in the statistical handbook of 1991 for Imphal district which included Imphal East and West were 113,409 out of which 109,334 were occupied residential house.

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86 ibid p64,65
TABLE- VII

Number of registered Birth in Manipur classified by\textsuperscript{87}

Sex ratio at birth (female per 1000 male)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>743</td>
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The total household record of Imphal East and West district were against total of 2,96,689 household of Manipur including 1,92,069 of the total valley district and 1,04,620 of the Hills districts. Again the total

\textsuperscript{87} Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Government of Manipur. Statistical abstract Manipur.1 2004, p1 p54
number of occupied residential houses of Imphal East and West district were against a total of 2,86,175 of the entire State. It included a total of 1,84,394 occupied residential houses in the valley district and 1,01,781 in the hill districts.\textsuperscript{88}

The household record of each district particularly of the two district of Imphal were related to the family pattern, their system and rearing of their children of the age group 6-11 yrs. It included those children who had been brought up either in unhealthy or healthy family environment. Each system would have its influence on the personality development of the child.

In the present study, the investigator compared Children brought up in a healthy family environment with the Children brought in an unhealthy family environment. In this study, under the unhealthy environment, the investigator had confined only to the children of drug addicts or alcoholics parents. The study would explore the Healthy Family Environment and Unhealthy Family Environment.

\textsuperscript{88} ibid p72,73
Healthy family environment

Family environment varies; system and norms of one family might be different from the other even though they might be belonging to the same society bound by same religion, culture and tradition. Likewise, the child rearing practices of one family might be different from the other. But there are certain areas that are accepted by all society and considered as the condition appropriate for rearing child in a healthy way.

Good health, which enables young children to enjoy whatever they undertake, and to carry it out successfully; A stimulating environment in which children have opportunity to use their abilities to the maximum; Parental acceptance of annoying childish behavior and parental guidance in learning to behave in a socially more acceptable way; A disciplinary policy that is well planned and consistently carried out.

This let young children know what is expected to them and prevent them from feeling that they are unfairly punished; Developmentally appropriate of affection, such as showing pride in young children’s achievement and spending time with them, doing things they want to do; Realistic aspiration, in accordance with their capacities, so that children have a reasonable chance of making success of what they undertake, thus fostering favourable self-concepts; Encouragement of creativity in play.
and avoidance of ridicule or unnecessary criticism which dampen young children's enthusiasm to try to be creative; Acceptance by sibling and playmates, so that children will develop favourable attitudes towards social activities.

This can be encouraged by guidance in how to get along with other people and by good home models to imitate; A prevailing atmosphere of cheerfulness and happiness in the home, so that children will learn to make their contribution to maintaining this atmosphere; Achievement in activities important to the child and valued by the group with which the child is identified. Children who have the privilege of the above condition in their home and surroundings are referred to as rearing in a healthy environment.

In the healthy family system, family members openly acknowledge their problem, discuss them openly and work towards change. They believe change is acceptable and actively solicit workable solutions from other family members. Children in these families are free to express their wants and needs. Family members can talk about feelings and traits in themselves that they feel should be changed: shame and embarrassment do not immobilize them. The adult of the family model healthy, congruent behavior for their children
In a healthy family, members are not cast into rigid roles. Instead of pressing each member to embody a role to fulfill only one family function, each member is giving the opportunity to experience each of the family roles. As a result, they incorporate positive adult and parental modes of functioning. They are able to maintain themselves and their own families. They are able to give and receive nurturing. They are able to establish a network of intimate and friendship relationships in which they can experience love and belongingness. They have the capacity to function autonomously and to take initiative; they have self respect and can respect the values and boundaries of others. They can accept their own mistakes and learn from them.

Unhealthy Family Environment

In the unhealthy family system, the relationship between the parents and children are strained and unnatural. This is usually because of the family members has a serious problems that impact every other member of the family, and each member of the family feels constrained to adapt atypical roles within the family to allow the family as a whole to survive. These family systems discourage healthy communication of issues and feelings between themselves, destroy the family members' ability to trust themselves and to trust another in an intimate relationship,
and freeze family members into unnatural roles, making constructive change difficult.

Dr. Janet Kizzia\textsuperscript{89} characterizes four types of "troubled family systems", which are "breeding grounds for codependency:"

(i) The Alcoholic or Chemically Dependent Family System; (ii) The Emotionally or Psychologically Disturbed Family System; (iii) The Physically or Sexually Abusing Family System; (iv) The Religious Fundamentalist or Rigidly Dogmatic Family System

Codependency expresses in these dysfunctional families through the typical strategies of minimizing, projection, intellectualizing and denial. Minimizing acknowledges there may be a problem, but makes light of it. Projection blames the problem on others, and may appoint a scapegoat to bear the family's shame. Intellectualizing tries to explain the problem away, believing that by offering a convenient excuse or explanation, the problem will be resolved. Denial demands that other people and self believe there is no problem.

Codependency is generated in emotionally disturbed family systems by inconsistent, unpredictable and crazy parenting styles. In drug

\textsuperscript{89} George A. Boyd, "When you grow up in a Dysfunctional family, Mudrashram Institute of Spiritual Studies, 1992
abusing family system, codependency arises as a result of unpredictable behavior of the substance abusers and the stresses it places on the other member of the family.

In unhealthy family system, parents violate the boundaries of their children. Parents from these families do not respect their children's personal freedom and privacy, they discount their children's feelings, do not honor their attempts at independent thinking and decision-making and do not allow them to experience their impulses towards creativity, spirituality and self-actualization. These deficits in the child development are revisited by problems in their adult relationship and careers. When parents disrespect a child's boundaries, the child's sense of self- his or her autonomy, self-respect, feeling of effectiveness and of making a difference are compromised.

In the substance abusing family, the volatile and immature behavior of intoxicated parents creates confusion about appropriate boundaries in interpersonal roles. As there are no models of rational or predictable behavior, there is breakdown of honest communication, a lack of emotional stability and nurturing by the parents, and a lack of safety that would permit trust, self-disclosure and intimacy to develop.
The study would make an attempt to explore the different types of family including Acceptance-Rejection, Control-Autonomy, Democratic Parents, Warm Restrictive Parents, Hostile-Authoritarian Parents, Hostile-neglected Parents, Inconsistent discipline where in children has been brought up for understanding their impact on the development of child. As each system had its own influence and impact on the Personality development of the Child.

As an example in an Acceptance-Rejection family system, warmth in the dimension of parental behavior was focused wherein characteristics like accepting, affectionate, approaching, understanding, child centred frequent use of explanations, positive response to dependency behavior, high use of reasons in discipline, high use of praise in discipline, low use of physical punishment need to be possessed\(^{90}\).

In Control-Autonomy system parental efforts needed to be set and enforce rules of behavior and to inhibit the child’s development of individuality and autonomy. However, as already noted it was becoming increasingly clear that these two aspects of control (as opposed to psychological autonomy) refers to “convert, psychological methods of controlling the child’s activities that would not permit the child to

develop as an individual apart from the parents." Firm control as opposed to lax control referred to the parents tendency to make 'rules and regulations limit to the child's activities and enforce these rules and limits".

A parent might be psychologically intrusive and possessive, preventing the child from developing into an autonomous adult, without explicitly setting forth clear rules for behavior or stressing the importance of standard of conduct. Conversely, a parent may set forth reasonable, age-appropriate rules and standard clearly and firmly and, at the same time, strongly encouraged the child to develop in the direction of self confidence, autonomy and self reliance.

Hostility on the part of parents tend to produce counter hostility and aggressive either in feelings or behavior on the part of children. Psychological control like parental intrusiveness and refusal to allow the child to develop as an independent, self-reliant individual promoted infantile, dependent wishes and behavior for example the boy who remains 'tied' to his mother’s apron strings. Furthermore, children of

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92 ibid
parents high in psychological control appear to lack direction in developing and pursuing life goals and seem to have difficulty forming mature relationships with the same and opposite sex peers. Excessive control of a child’s activities, when combined with rigid rule setting and demands for unquestioning obedience tends to foster inhibited behavior, while lack of control encourages less inhibited, often impulsive behavior.

More precise and more meaningful generalization became possible when in the action among these dimensions were considered. For example the child of a hostile, lax parent and the child of a hostile restrictive parent may both have deep-seated feelings of hostility. But the extent to which and the direction in which the hostility was expressed in behavior may vary greatly. The former was likely to express his aggression directly and with little control. The latter may express aggression in certain “safe areas for example with peers, but his aggression was more likely to be inhibited and turned against the self; or to be revealed in manifestation of internal conflict,” it was not likely to

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95 ibid
be expressed openly or directly against the parents, despite the fact that they may be primary source of the child's hostile or aggressive feelings.

The Democratic Parents were warm and accepting, encouraging of autonomy and low in intrusive psychological control. Their child rearing techniques probably come closest to the popular stereotype or the recommendations of child-rearing specialists- whether this stereotype serves as a source of assurance or outraged alarm. The child of such parents was likely to be rather active, outgoing, socially assertive and independent as friendly, creative, lacking in hostility towards others or himself.

When in addition to the characteristics mention above, the parent was reasonably insistent and consistent in setting appropriate standards for conduct and activities, the child was also likely to be responsible, self-confident, and purposive in behavior97. On the other hand, if the parent was democratic, but at the same time somewhat lax in instituting age-appropriate controls, the child may be somewhat aggressive and overly assertive, somewhat deficient in orderly pursuit of clearly defined goals, and, on occasion, somewhat disobedient and disrespectful, particularly at

home\textsuperscript{98}. However, these aggressive manifestations do not appear to reflect chronic anger and frustrations or uncontrollable explosions of deep-seated repressed feelings of hostility.

In democratic families generally, these trends also to be a high level of communication among family members, a dominant mood of warmth and friendliness, little need for overt support-seeking, an active interest in the view of others, and a tolerance for differences\textsuperscript{99}.

The warm restrictive parents who were warm may nevertheless be restrictive in child rearing practices. Such a parent may tend to be psychologically intrusive as well. It had been found that children reared in warm restrictive homes, as compared with those in warm-permissive homes, were likely to be more dependent, less friendly, less creative, more hostile in their fantasies and either very high or low in persistence\textsuperscript{100}.

In the study of Kagan and Moss\textsuperscript{101} maternal restrictive ness was evaluated by means of extended home observation and interviews and

\textsuperscript{100} Becker, W.C., consequences of different kinds of patental discipline; In M.L. Hoffman and L.W. Hoffman (Eds). Review of Child Development. Vol. 1. New york; Russell Sage foundation. 1964, p198
average ratings were obtained for three age periods: birth to age 3, 3 to 6, 6 to 10. Restrictiveness was defined as the degree to which the mother attempted to force the child, through punishment or threat to adhere her standards and the degree to which deviation from these standards were punished. In general it was found the — early maternal restrictiveness, particularly during the first three years, tended to have lasting effects upon the child. Children of restrictive parents were more conforming, less aggressive, less dominant and competitive with their peers, and less likely to display mastering behavior. There were however, a number of interesting variations revealed in this study. First, early restrictive ness (when the child was under 3) appeared to have a much greater inhibitory effect throughout childhood and adolescence than later restrictiveness, ages 3 to 0 and 6 to 10.

Second, mother tended to be more consistent over time in their restrictive ness with girls than boys. Thus among girls, early maternal restrictive ness was highly correlated with later restrictive ness, which among boys, it was not. It appears that this difference between boys and girls may be accounted for at least in part, by the greater sex-role acceptability of restrictive ness and its effect among girls than among boys. Third, restrictive ness at later ages tended to produce more hostility
in the child than at earlier ages, regardless of whether this restrictive ness resulted in a conforming, dependent child. In the period between 6 to 10 years of age, maternal restrictive ness toward boys tended to produce both dependence and aggressiveness reaction to the mother, related to their restrictiveness\textsuperscript{102}.

Adequate parental warmth seems to reduce the probability of the more extreme types of behavior disorders, such as neurotic disability as delinquency. However within the context of warmth, significant differences in behavior may result depending upon whether the parent was basically autonomy – encouraging or restrictive and intrusive.

The child of autonomy – encouraging parents was more likely to be active, outgoing, friendly, creative, independent and socially assertive: the child of restrictive and intrusive parents was more likely to be submissive to parents, conforming, dependent, polite, compliant, neat, lacking in aggression and competitive with peers and less oriented towards mastery in the assumption of autonomy and independence\textsuperscript{103}.

In the hostile authoritarian family the parent who was reflecting and at the same time excessively restrictive and demanding tends to promoted counter hostility in the child but does not allow the hostility to

\textsuperscript{102} ibid
\textsuperscript{103} ibid
be expressed. The child may not even be conscious awareness particularly in cases where parental hostility was covert and disguised, making it difficult for the child to label it and face it for what it actually was without feeling guilty. Consequently, it was not surprising that this parental behavior pattern was often found in the background of neurotic children. The combination of low permissiveness and low opportunity for autonomous behavior and high punishment may lead to shyness and social withdrawal, difficulties in relating to peers, and little confidence in or motivation towards adult role – taking. The combination of restrictiveness and hostility fosters considerable resentment, with some of it being turned against the self, or more generally experience as internalized turmoil and conflict.

In the hostile neglected family the parent who lacks warmth or rejected the child and failed to use reasonable, consistent controls appropriate to the child’s stage of development was likely to maximize ‘aggressive, poorly controlled behavior’ in the child. Parents of significant percentage of delinquents were lacking in parental warmth and

104 Senn, M.J.E., and solnit, A.J. Problems in child behavior and development; Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1970
106 ibid, p193
were neglectful, that was, they fail to exercise appropriate parental control or were highly inconsistent in the use of discipline.

When 'discipline' was employed, it was likely to be arbitrary and overly severe, often involving physical punishments. Parental discipline in these instances was likely to emerge more as an expression of parental hostility and reflection than as a means of guiding the child and helping him to develop internal controls and appropriate standards of social conduct. The relationship of delinquent children and their parents were frequently characterized by mutual hostility and lack of family cohesiveness and shared goals. Even among non-delinquent children, those whose parents were rejecting and neglectful were more likely than other children to engage in aggressive, "acting-out" behavior. Lack of parental warmth (or rejection) engenders hostile feelings, while lax, arbitrary or inconsistent use of controls encourages the expression of these feelings.

In Inconsistent discipline, Socialization of child required the imposition of controls. Without controls the skills, attitudes and behavior necessary for a satisfactory interdependent existence in a complex society could not be learned. However excessive control and discipline, threaten

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the child’s development of autonomy, self-confidence and self-reliance – quality which were equally necessary for social effectiveness.

Several studies revealed that the most effective balance between cooperation, responsible, discipline behavior, on the one hand, and self-confidence, autonomy, self-reliance and emotional freedom on the other hand occurs where discipline was flexible but firm and consistent. Discipline was also most beneficial when it was applied only in the child’s own interest in terms of his development and only to the extent necessary to achieve its purpose rather than as an expression of the parents hostility or need to control or dominate the child.

Inconsistent or erratic discipline might be as harmful as two little or too much discipline. The inconsistency may stem from parental hostility or indifference (as in the case of the parent who only imposes discipline for his own convenience) or from parental uncertainty and lack of confidence or from simple mood swings, whatever it source, inconsistency in parental discipline tends to contribute to maladjustment, conflict, or aggression in the child\textsuperscript{108}.

As such in the present study 500 families under Healthy and Unhealthy environment were taken as sample studies.

\textsuperscript{108} Becker, W.C., consequences of different kinds of paternal discipline; In M.L. Hoffman and L.W. Hoffman (Eds). Review of Child Development. Vol. 1, New york; Russell Sage foundation, 1964
CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDHOOD

In order to explore the problem the characteristics possessed and developed by 500 children brought up in the Healthy and Unhealthy family Environment were also considered because this period of childhood was marked by condition that profoundly affects a child’s personal and social adjustments.

The beginning of this period of childhood was marked by child’s entrance into first grade- compulsory at six years in America today. For most young children, this was a major change in the pattern of their lives, even when they had had a year or more of experience in some preschool situation. While adjusting to the new demands and expectations of first grade, most children were in a state of disequilibrium; they were emotionally disturbed, and as a result, difficult to live and work with. Entrance into first grade was a milestone in every child’s life; therefore, it was responsible for many of the changes that take place in attitudes, values, behavior.

Educationist called this period of childhood the elementary school age. It was the time when the child was expected to acquire the rudiments of knowledge that were considered essential for successful adjustment to

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adult life. It was also the time when the child was expected to learn certain essential skills, both curricular and extra curricular. Educationist also regard this period as a critical period in the achievement drive- a time when children form the habit of being achievers, under achievers or overachievers. Once formed the habit of working below, above, or upto one’s capacity tended to persist into adulthood. It had been reported that the level of achievement behavior in childhood was highly correlated with achievement behavior in adulthood.

When children develop the habit of working up to their capacities in school or under or above their capacities, the habit becomes persistent and tends to spread to all areas of child’s life, not to academic work.

Recent studies of creativity\(^{110}\) had shown that children, if unhampered by environmental restraints, by criticism, or by ridicule from adults or peers, would turn their energy into creative activities. As a result, psychologist label this period as the creative age, the time in the life span when it would be determined whether the child would become conformists or producer of new and original work. While the foundation for creative expression were laid in early childhood, the ability to use

\(^{110}\) ibid p158
these foundations for original activities was generally not well developed before children reach the late childhood age.

Late childhood was frequently called the play age by psychologists, not because more time was devoted to play than at any other age-which would be impossible after the child enters school but rather because there was overlapping of play activities characteristics of younger years and those characteristics of adolescence. It was thus the breadth of play interest and activities rather than the time spent in play that was responsible for giving the name play age to late childhood.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASK OF CHILDHOOD

Apart from characteristic possessed by the children resulting from the healthy and unhealthy environment another area that needed to explore was on the developmental task of childhood. For achieving a place in the social group during this period children must accomplish the developmental tasks that society expects them to master at this time. Failure to do so would result in immature patterns of behavior, which would militate against acceptance in the peer group and in an inability to keep up with their age-mates who had mastered their developmental task.
No longer was the mastery of developmental task the sole responsibilities of parents, as it was during the preschool years. It now becomes, the responsibility also of the child’s teacher and to a lesser extent, the peer group. For example developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, and calculating and developing attitude towards social group and institution becomes as much the responsibility of teacher as of parents. Although parents could help to lay the foundation of child’s learning to get along with age-mates, being a member of the peer group provides the major part of this learning experience. The study covered the aspects of skills of development, speech improvement, amount of talking and emotions and emotional expressions.

Skills of childhood

The next focusing area was on the development of skills. At the beginning of late childhood, children had a remarkable large repertoire of skills that they learned during the preschool years. What skills children learn largely depended on their environment, partly on the opportunities given to them for learning, partly on body builds and partly on what was in vogue among their age-mates.
Marked sex difference existed not only in play skills at this age but also in the level of perfection of these skills. Girls, as a rule, surpass boys in skills involving finer muscles, such as painting sewing and hemming, while boys were superior to girls in skills involving the grosser muscles, such as throwing a basketball, kicking a soccer ball long distance, and doing long jump in general.\footnote{Eckert, H.M., Variability in Skill Acquisition. Child Development, 1974 p487-489}

The socio-economic status of the family likewise had a marked influenced on the number and kind of skills children learn. Children from upper economic level tend, as a whole, to have fewer skills, age of age, than those of lower level. Also the skills they learned were more concentrated in the areas of self-help and social-help skills, while those of children of the middle and upper socio-economic levels were more concentrated in the category of play skills.

**Speech improvement**

Children’s social horizons broaden when they discover that speech was an essential tool for gaining acceptance in group. This gave them a strong incentive to speak better. Simpler form of communication, such as crying and gesturing provided an incentive to improve their speech. Perhaps most important of all, they discover that comprehension of what
other say was essential to communicate but, even more serious, they were likely to say something totally unrelated to what their peers were talking about and as a result, they were not acceptable to the peer group.\textsuperscript{112}

Throughout this period, children's general vocabularies grow by leaps and bounds. From their studies in school, their reading, their conversation with others, and their exposure to radio and television, they build up vocabularies which they use in their speech and writing. It had been estimated that average first-grade children know between 20,000 and 24,000 words, or 5-6\% of the words in a standard dictionary. By the time they were in the sixth grade, most children know approximately 50,000 words.\textsuperscript{113}

Not only do children learn many new words but they also learn new meanings for old words. This further enlarges their vocabularies. Children from better-educated families, as a rule, increased their vocabularies more than those families in which the parents had less education.\textsuperscript{114}


\textsuperscript{114} Prawat R.S., and H. Jones. A longitudinal study of language development in children at different levels of cognitive development. Merrill- Palmer quarterly, 1977, p115-120
Sex differences were marked in these special vocabularies. Girls had larger color vocabularies than boys because of their greater interest in clothes and in activities involving the use of color-decorating a doll house, for example boys, on the other hand, had larger and rougher slang words and swear words vocabularies than girls because they regarded such words as sign of masculinity, while girls had larger secret vocabularies. Socio-economic difference in slang words and swear vocabularies were apparent with both sex groups with boys and girls from lower socio-economic groups using such words more frequently and using more offensive words than those of the same ages from higher socio-economic groups. Children of both sexes in the lower socio-economic groups also had larger many vocabularies because they were more apt to run errands for their mother and thus become accustomed to handling money.

Just when children would shift from ego centric to socialised speech would depended not so much upon, their age as upon their personality. The number of social contact they had their satisfaction, they had derived from these contacts and size of the group to which they were speaking. The larger the group, other condition being equal, the moral socialized the speech. When children were with their contemporaries,
their speech was generally less egocentric than when they were with adults. Many adults egocentric speech during childhood period were not only discouraged by their contemporaries but disregards those who persist in talking about themselves.

Although children might talk about anything, their favourite topics of conversation, when with their peers, were their own experiences, their homes and families, games, sports, movies, television program, their gang activities, sex, sex organ and functions and the daring of contemporary that lead to an accident. When the child was with an adult, it was the later who usually determines the topic of conversation.

When children of this period talk about themselves, it was usually in the form of boasting. The boast about anything related to themselves but generally less about their material possession- a common form of boasting in young children- than about their superior skills and achievements. Boasting as a rule was very common between the age of nine and twelve years, especially among boys.

These children also like to criticize and make fun of other people. Sometime they criticize people openly and sometime behind their backs. When criticizing adults, children generally put their criticism in the form
of suggestion or complaint. Criticisms of other children frequently take the form of name calling, teasing or making derogatory comments.

**Amount of talking:**

The chatter box stage, characteristic of early childhood, was gradually replaced by more control and selection of speech. No longer do children talk just for the sake of talking, regardless of whether other pay attention to what they say, as they did in early childhood. Instead, they use speech as a form of communication, not as a form of verbal exercise.

There was progressively less and less talking as late childhood continues. At first, when children enter school, they often continue the meaningless chattering; they enlarge in during the preschool years. However they soon discover that this was on longer permitted- they may speak only when the teacher gives them the permission to do so.

Within the peer group, children also discover that endless talking among the peers and that it was a quick way to lose social acceptance. In addition, they discover that their peers also want an opportunity to talk and resent their trying to dominate conversation.

Some older children talk less than they would like to because they had been ridiculed by peers for their ‘funny pronunciations’, if they were
bilinguals, or because they had been scorned by peers because of their unsocial content of their speech. Others had discovered that if they try to dominate a conversation it would lead to social rejection, so they curb their desire to talk.\textsuperscript{115}

Throughout this period, girl talk more, age for age, than boys and children from upper socio economic group talk more than those of lower groups. Boys discover that too much talking was regarded as sex-inappropriate, while children of lower socio-economic groups were afraid of ridiculed because of the poor quality of their speech.\textsuperscript{116}

**Emotions and Emotional expressions**

Children soon discovered that expression of emotions, especially of the unpleasant emotions was socially unacceptable of their age-mates. They learn that their age-mates regard temper outburst as babyish, withdrawal reaction to fear as cowardly, and hurting others in jealousy as sportsmanship. As a result, older children acquire a strong incentive to learn to control the outward expression of their emotions.

\textsuperscript{115} Elizabeth B. Hurlock, Developmental Psychology, A Life Span Approach, 5\textsuperscript{th} edition, Tata McGraw- Hill, 1981, p165
\textsuperscript{116} ibid
At home, however, there was not the same strong incentive to control the emotions. As a result, children frequently, express their emotion as forcibly as they did when they were younger.

Characteristically, emotional expressions in late child childhood were unpleasant ones. The child giggles or laughs uproariously; squirms, twitches, or even rolls on the floor; and in general shows a release of pent-up animal spirits. Not all emotion at this age, however was of a pleasant sort. Numerous outburst of temper occur and the child suffers from anxiety and the feeling of frustration. Girls often dissolve into tears or had tempers outbursts reminiscent of their preschool days; boys were more likely to express their annoyance or anxiety by being sullen or sulky.

The common emotional patterns of this period of childhood were similar to those of early childhood. However, the common emotional patterns of this period of childhood differ from those of early childhood in two respects. First, they differ in the kind of situation that give rise to them and second, they differ in the form of emotional expression. These changes were the result of broadened experience and learning rather than of maturation.
From experience, children discover how other feel about various forms of emotional expression. In their desire to win social approval, they then try to curb the forms of expression they had found were socially acceptable. As they grow older, children begin to express their anger in moodiness, sulkiness etc. temper tantrum become less frequent because children had discovered that they were considered babyish.

Just as there was difference in the way older children express their emotions, so there were differences in the kind of situation that give rise to them. Older children were far more likely to become angry when a person makes a derogatory comment about them than were younger children who do not completely understand the meaning of derogatory comment. Similarly, young children curiosity was aroused by anything new and different. To an older child, the new and different must be pronounced or it would not arouse curiosity. Children who were popular tend to be less anxious and less jealous than those who were less popular. Boys, at every age, express the emotions that were regarded as sex-appropriate, such as anger, curiosity, more overtly than girls, while girls were likely to experience more fears, worries and feelings of

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affection than boys' emotions that were regarded as sex-appropriate for them.

There were times during childhood when children experience frequent and intense emotions. Because these emotions tend to be more unpleasant than pleasant, periods of heightened emotionality become period of disequilibrium-times when children were out of focus and difficult to live with.

Heightened emotionality may come from physical or environmental causes or from both. When children were ill or tired, they were likely to be irritable, fretful and generally difficult. Environmental causes of heightened emotionality were also common and serious in late childhood. Because adjustment to new situation were always were always upsetting for children, heightened emotionality was almost universal at the time when children enter school. Any marked change in the pattern of the older child's life as when the home was broken by death or by divorce, inevitably leads to heightened emotionality.
PARENT CHILD RELATIONSHIP AND THE CHILD'S SELF-CONCEPT:

A favourable self-concept or self-esteem was essential to personal happiness and effective functioning both in the child and in the adult. Persons who seek psychological and psychiatric help frequently acknowledge that they suffer from feelings of inadequacy and unworthiness. They tend to perceive themselves as helpless or inferior, had difficulty in either giving or receiving love, and tend to feel isolated and alone. They were likely to feel guilty, ashamed and depressed, and tend to derogate their own potential and accomplishments. A high anxiety level and a negative conception of the self tend to be correlated. Furthermore, the anxious child's tendency to derogate himself tends to generalize and affect his image of his bodily integrity and adequacy as well.

A negative self-concept appears to promote defensiveness in the child's reaction to himself and others. Apart from these a negative self-concept appears to impair initial school adjustment and subsequent

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120 Coopersmith, S. The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco, Freeman, 1967
121 Blendsoe, J.C., self concept of children and their intelligence, achievement, interest and anxiety. Journal of individual Psychology. 1971, p301-305
academic progress\textsuperscript{122}. Again the child's self-concept was affected by the way in which his peers and teachers respond to him, it appears likely that for most children the way in which they were treated by parents was of overriding importance in determining their perceptions of themselves\textsuperscript{123}.

**Child's self-esteem:**

Self-esteem was personal judgment of worthiness that was expressed in the attitudes the individual holds towards himself. It was a subjective experience, which the individual conveys to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behavior\textsuperscript{124}.

Children high in their estimation of themselves approached tasks and persons with the expectation that they would be well received and successful. They had confidence in their perception and judgement and believe that they could bring their efforts to a favourable resolution. Their favourable self-attitudes lead them to accept their own opinion and place credence and trust in their reaction and conclusions. This permits them to follow their own judgement when there was difference of opinion and also permits them to consider noble ideas.

\textsuperscript{122} ibid
\textsuperscript{123} Coopersmith, S. The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco, Freeman, 1967
\textsuperscript{124} ibid
The trust in self that accompanies feelings of worthiness was likely to provide the conviction that one was correct and the courage to express those convictions. The attitude and expectations that lead the individual with high esteem to greater social independence and creativity also lead him to more assertive and vigorous actions. They were more likely to be participants than listener in group discussions, they report less difficulty in forming friendships and they would express opinions even when they know these opinions may meet with a hostile reception. Among the factor that underlie and contribute to these actions were their lack of self-consciousness and then lack of preoccupations with personal problems.

Lack of self-consciousness permits them to present their ideas in a full and forthright fashion; lack of self-occupation permits them to consider and examine external issues. The picture of the person with low-esteem that emerges from these results was markedly different. These persons lack trust in themselves and were apprehensive about expressing unpopular on unusual ideas. They do not wish to expose themselves, anger others, or perform deeds that would attract attention. They were likely to live in the shadows of a social group listening rather than participating and preferring the solitude of withdrawal above the interchange of participation.
Among the factor than contribute to the withdrawal of those low in self-esteem were their marked self-consciousness and preoccupation with inner problems. This great awareness of themselves distracts them from attending to other persons and issues and was likely to result in a morbid preoccupation with their difficulties\textsuperscript{125}. In general, those with high self-esteem tended to have parents who were also high in self-esteem.

These parents in contrast to parents of children low in self-esteem, tended to be more emotionally stable and more self-reliance, resilient and effective in their attitude and actions, regarding childcare. Interaction between the parents of high self-esteem children tended to be marked by greater compatibility and ease, with clearer definition of each parent's areas of authority and responsibility which these parents tended to had high expectations of their children, they also provided sound model for them and gave their children consistent encouragement and support.

Mothers of boys high in self-esteem were more accepting of their children and even more importantly, tended to express their acceptance through specific, everyday manifestation concern, affection and close rapport. These mothers were likely to express agreement with such statements as "children would be happier and better behaved if parents

\textsuperscript{125} Durkin, D. Children's concept of justice: A comparision with Piaget data. Child development, 1959, p59-67
would show an interest in their affairs” and “when you do things together, children feel close to your and talk easier”; and to disagree with such statements as “children should not annoy their parents with the unimportant problems” and “the trouble with giving attention to children’s problems was they usually just make up a lot of stories to keep you interested”.

In contrast, mother of children low in self-esteem were “more likely to withdraw from their children, and by the their inattentive and neglectful treatment to produce a milieu that was physically, emotionally and intellectually impoverished”126. Low self-esteem mothers were likely to deprecate their children and to treat them as a burden. Their emotional responses to their children tended to range from hostility to indifference.

Interestingly, mother of high self-esteem children were more likely to enforce established rules carefully and consistently. They used reward as the preferred mode of affecting behavior, but used straightforward and appropriate punishment rather than harsh treatment or loss of love when some sort of punishment was required127. The fathers of these boys were usually the ones to administer punishment, although they frequently shared that responsibility with the mother. Furthermore, these

punishments tended to be the high self-esteem subjects. In contrast, lack of self-esteem parental guidance and relatively harsh and disrespectful treatment of children were characteristic of the parents of boys low in self-esteem. Apparently these parents either did not know or did not care to establish and enforce guidelines for their children.

While parents of high self-esteem children were more likely to provide carefully defined standards and limits on behavior for their children, within these limits parental treatment was non coercive and emphasized the rights and opinions of the child. Typically, the child's views were sought, his opinions respected and concessions were often granted to him if differences existed. The freedom that prevailed within broad limits permitted the child to enter into discussion as a true participant and to gain confidence from the assertions of his own views. Thus parents of high self-esteem children were more likely to argue with such statements as “children should had a say in the making of family plans” and “a child had a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it”.

Furthermore while most parents of high self-esteem children tended to stress “discussion and reasoning” as methods of obtaining the
child's cooperation and compliance, most parents of low self-esteem children tended to stress "force and autocratic" measures.

**Parental Absence:**

Having a father present in the home, serving as a competent, effective role model and expressing interest in his son and interacting with him facilitates the development of intellectual potential and influences its development in a "masculine" direction. In contrast, not having a father or having one who was ineffective or distant from the child was likely to handicap the boy in cognitive development. Obviously the presence or absence of the father was not the only factor influencing this development, and much of the father-absent boy's ultimate success or failure would depend on the qualities of the mother as the remaining parent.

Boys from father absent home were more likely than those from father present homes to had emotional and social problems. They were more likely to be impulsive and to have difficulty in delaying gratification and assuming social responsibility.\textsuperscript{128} Further, mothers

\textsuperscript{128} Biller, H.B. and Davids. A parent child relations, personality development and psychopathology. Abnormal Child Psychology. Belmont, California: Brookscole, 1975, p48-7
whose husbands were absent may be more indulgent and overprotective towards their own sons than would otherwise be the case\textsuperscript{129}.

Prolonged absences of father linked with lessened adequacy of peer adjustment, infantile and dependent characteristic and manifestations of conflict over identification through compensatory or overly masculine behavior. Their mothers were more isolated from social contacts; more over protective and more concerned with obedience than with happiness and self-realization for their children. Father absent boys were also generally more immature psychologically and had more difficulty in forming peer relations and were less popular with their peers\textsuperscript{130}.

The age of separation from father also appears to be important. Heatherington\textsuperscript{131} found that early separated boys and late separated boys after age six were more dependent on their peers and somewhat less dependent on adults than boys whose father lived at home. Early separated boys differed significantly from father present-boys on a number of measures of sex typing. The former had lower scores in aggressive, masculine sex-role preference and involvement in competitive, physical contact games. Early separated boys spent

\textsuperscript{129} Tiller, P.O., Father absence and personality development of children in sailor families. Nordisk Psychologi's monograph series, 1958, p1-48
\textsuperscript{130} ibid
\textsuperscript{131} Heatherington, E.M. Effects of parental absence on sex type behavior in Negro and white preadolescents males. Journal of personality and social psychology, 1960, p87-91
significantly more time in non-physical, non-competitive activities such as reading, working on puzzles and collecting things. The results of this study suggests that boys who lose their father early, before identification had greater difficulty in establishing a masculine sex-role identification and in acquiring sex-typed traits while absence of the father after the child reaches age five had far less effect.

Father-absent girls were more dependent as adults\(^{132}\). As adolescents they do, however, show anxiety about and difficulty in relating to males. Daughters of widow tend to be shy and withdrawn, to become physically tense, and to avoid close proximity to male peers and adults. They also tend to start to date later than other girls and to be sexually inhibited.

As in the case of boys, the effects of separation from fathers during early childhood were more marked than those of later separation. Apparently for father absent girls "lack of opportunity for constructive interaction with a loving attentive father had resulted in apprehension and inadequate skills in relating to male"\(^{133}\).

\(^{132}\) Heatherington, E.M. Effects of father absence on personality development in adolescents daughters. developmental psychology, 1972. p327-336

\(^{133}\) ibid
Influence of Siblings:

Although the personalities of the parents and their behavior toward the child were of primary importance in shaping his development, the child's relationship with his siblings, if he had any, may also exert some influence on the development of his personality. In the child's interaction with them, he may learn patterns of loyalty, helpfulness and protection or of conflict, domination, and competition, and these patterns may be generalized to other social relationships. The number of siblings a child had and his relationship to them constitute an important aspect of the child's learning situation and hence may strongly affect what and how the child learns at home.

For example the social learning situation encountered by the first-born child obviously differ from that of his younger siblings. Oldest children may be handicapped by the relative inexperience of their parents. They may be pushed too hard to accomplish, or they may had to care for younger children before they were ready for such responsibilities. The psychological influence of sibling or the child's development was likely to be felt most keenly when the child was between 3 and 6 years of age. The arrival of the new sibling at this time provides the greatest threat to the first-born. From the perspective of the second-born, it was the time
when the older sibling was perceived as omnipotent and invulnerable competitor, with special privileges and status.

Thus each of the ordinal position carries with its own set of advantages and disadvantages. Nevertheless, birth order appears to have some influences on personality development in our society, even when other relevant factors, such as social class, sex of siblings and family size were held constant. Thus first-borns were generally more adult oriented, more affiliative, more concerned with being cooperative and responsible, more conforming to social pressures, and more inclined to choose occupations involving a parent – surrogated role, such as teachers\textsuperscript{134}.

In general, children with brothers had more “masculine” traits than children with sisters. The girls with brothers, as compared with the girls with sisters were more ambitious, more aggressive, and did better on list of intellectual ability. Girls with older brother had more ‘tomboyish’ traits than girls with older sister.

In many cases, the older sibling was viewed by the younger as stronger, more competent and in control of important goals that the younger one wants but does not yet possess. The older child could stay up later, eat adult foods, and may even be perceived as the family favourite.

The younger sibling would strive therefore to become similar to the older by attempting to adopt the older child’s behaviors."135

Some degree of sibling rivalry was inevitable in all families with two or more children. Among young children and particularly first-born children, rivalry and jealousy may be precipitated by the birth of baby – an unsought intruder what not only demands a share of the parents attention but often at least initially, a disproportionate share.

Jealousy of a new arrival was likely to be strongest in the child over two and five, because he was still very dependent on his parent and had few interests as yet outside the family circle."136. But the older child may feel jealousy too, especially if there was a sudden and marked decreased in the parental attention he had become accustomed of receiving. On the other hand, when the older child was not ignored and when there was great enough age difference, there may be considerable affection and pride in being able to play the role of ‘big brother’ or ‘big sister’.

135 Koch, H.L., Sissiness and Tomboyishness in relation to sibling characteristics. Journal of genetic psychology, 1956, p231-244
Development of reasoning in childhood:

If we consider childhood as beginning from the school going age of five or six (the normal age when an Indian child goes to school) and ending with adolescence at eleven or twelve, we find a continuous change in the mental sphere brought about partly by schooling. Command over language that had been gained before schooling had been merely oral. Very often, the languages used in books differ from that spoken at home, and the child finds it difficult to learn a new set of vocabulary and language usage. Perhaps in bilingual states, the difficulty was greater, for a child had to learn not only two sets of vocabulary and usage, but also two different scripts. In the language, which happens to be his mother tongue, he had at least the facility of using and hearing it at home reinforced by conversation.

The necessity of learning two languages retards the child's progress in either, or sometimes in both languages for a long time. It was this stage that the fundamentals of reasoning power were developed, though in a rudimentary form, more as end values. It was claimed by some, including Piaget, that before the age of seven or eight, a child does not had the power to reason. But the reasoning power of a child should not be confused with any specific power. One of the mechanisms of
adjustment was using techniques that had been made familiar in any situation.

While this reasoning ability shows fairly well in simple situations, one must acknowledge its limitations. Abstract imagery was not yet developed. It was not surprising, therefore, if the ability to grasp historical or geographical concepts needs some maturation. The reason was that until a child was about nine or ten years old, he did not developed time sequence in a historical sense. He still lived in the eternal present in an earlier age.

**Development of conscience and moral standards:**

From about 4 to 6 years on into middle childhood, conscience in most children becomes less confined to specific behaviors and begins to involve the development of more generalized abstract standards; it becomes less exclusively determined by external rewards and punishments and more by internal sanctions; and it begins to involve not only the avoidance of prohibitions, but also the pursuit of what one should do.

Piaget believed that from ages 5 to 12 the child's concept of justice passes from a rigid and inflexible notion of right and wrong, learned from
his parents, to a sense of equality in moral judgement that takes into account the specific situation in which a moral violation was occurred. A child of five year old was opt to view lying as bad, regardless of the situation or the circumstances in which it occurs. With increasing age, the child becomes more flexible and realizes that there were exceptions to this strict rule. Piaget’s observations suggest that as the child becomes a member of larger, more varied peer groups, rules and moral judgement may became less absolute and authoritarian, and more dependent on the needs and desires of the group. “Moral relativism”, based on cooperation and respect for others, eventually replaces “moral realism”. For every young children, a rule was a sacred reality because it was traditional; for the older it depends upon a mutual agreement\textsuperscript{137}.

It was probable that the children of strict parents were more afraid of violating parental prohibitions than were the children of more permissive parents.

Kohlberg and his associates had studied the development of children’s capacity to judge action in terms of moral standards as opposed to prohibitions or punishments\textsuperscript{138}. Four year-olds tended to act as good or

bad in term of its reinforcement, that was, whether it led to punishment or reward, rather than in terms of the rule.

The children 5 to 7 years old evaluated the act in terms of its moral label, that was, whether the act itself was considered good or bad, rather than in terms of its reinforcement in the story. However, older children continued to give the possibilities of future punishment as reasons for an act being bad, so that the distinction between badness and situational reinforcement was in terms of long-range as opposed to short-range reinforcement. Pre-adolescence, a majority of children made ‘disinterested’ moral judgement and formulated some concept of a morally good self\textsuperscript{39}.

Kohlberg views such findings as supporting the general development view of morality espoused by Piaget, although he differs on specifics. In his own work, he found considerable overlap at various ages in the use of his six moral types, although the frequency of the more primitive types declined with age and that of the more mature type increased with age. As compared to Piaget’s view, “the data suggest that the ‘natural’ aspects of moral development were continuous and a

\textsuperscript{39} Kohlberg, L. The Development of children’s orientation towards moral order: Sequence in the development of moral thoughts. Vita humana, 1963, p11-33
reaction to the whole social world rather than a product of a certain stage, a certain concept, or a certain type of social relations\textsuperscript{140}.

Unless a reasonable degree of conscience development takes place during the middle-childhood years, that was, unless standards of right and wrong were established, the child, and later the adults, was opt to yield to a social temptations offered by others or to his own urges for uncontrolled aggressive, sexual, and regressive behavior. On the other hand, if the learning of internal standards and prohibitions was unduly strong, crippling guilt may develop in association with a wide variety of behaviors and thoughts.

Mature conscience development requires cognitive maturation as well as number of complex psychological process based on learning. As Kohlberg points out, without the sort of cognitive development, the child unable to carry out the degree of abstract thinking required for the development of the generalized standards, as opposed to highly specific, concrete prohibition\textsuperscript{141}. Nor would he become capable of shifting from absolute and rigid standards to more flexible and relative ones in which.

\textsuperscript{140} ibid

For example, motivational intent, rather than simply the act itself, was taken into account in assessing blame or determining guilt. Many cognitive functions play a role in conscience development. As the child develops concepts “of time, of future gratifications, of consequences, of right, of wrong, of values, of ideals”, he becomes increasingly aware of the effects of his action. His perception of the feelings of others also becomes more acute, and he begins to see his logical necessity for people to cooperate with one another in the interest of all\textsuperscript{142}.

However conscience development was far from being solely, or even primarily a function of cognitive maturation. While a child cognitive development may make him aware of moral values and standards, commitment to following them would depend on other factors, such as parental identification and the probability of experiencing guilt for violations.

A variety of studies indicate that the development of conscience – as manifested by internal reaction to transgression in the form of guilt, or by the adoption of moral standard which the child feels responsible for maintaining was fostered by the presence of parental warmth and love\textsuperscript{143}.

\textsuperscript{142} Kohlberg, L. The Development of children’s orientation towards moral order: Sequence in the development of moral thoughts. Vita humana, 1963, p11-33

\textsuperscript{143} Becker, W.C., consequences of different kinds of parental discipline; In M.L. Hoffman and L.W. Hoffman (Eds). Review of Child Development. Vol. 1, New york; Russell Sage foundation, 1964
This appears reasonable in terms of two mechanisms that appear to be involved in conscience development: identification and fear of loss of love or approval. If a responsible parent, because of his parental warmth and love, was a rewarding figure for the child to identify with and model himself after, adoption of the parent’s standard as his own “internalization” was more likely to occur, and violation of these standard then become painful and to be avoided because they result in an impaired self-image.

The second probable mechanism was more negative in character. If the child had been rewarded by parental love and approval, transgressions against parental standards may produce anxiety based upon fear of parental disapproval or withdrawal of love. Most children had at least some anxiety over possible loss of love from their parents and acquire the standard their parents practice at least partly in order to keep the anxiety low and under control. This process, of course, assumes that the parent, as a socializing agent had acquired reward value in the first place through parental warmth and nurturance.

In other words, fear of withdrawal of love could hardly serve as a motivation when there was no love to lose. Contrary to popular stereotype, children who end to had internalized standards rather than
merely a fear of detection and punishment report that their mother were less likely to use physical threats of force, deprivation, or direct commands as disciplinary technique and were more likely to use love-oriented methods. The former technique were more likely to produce counter aggression from the child, and while they may sometimes prevent transgressions in the immediate situation out of fear of retribution, they appear relatively ineffective in promoting the development of internal moral standards.\textsuperscript{144}

Parenthetically, it had been suggested\textsuperscript{145} that love-oriented techniques of discipline may also facilitate the development of conscience by providing a child with a better learning situation for the development of standards through increased opportunity for identifying the nature of transgression; providing cue for labeling of transgressions, including self-critical statements; and use of reinforcement carefully geared to the specific behavior involved as opposed, for example to generally punitive behaviors, poorly directed parental yelling and screaming and so on.

The parents who talks and reasons with the child about his misbehavior was more likely to provide the child with a clear understanding of what he did wrong, so that the anxiety of that

\textsuperscript{144} ibid
\textsuperscript{145} ibid
misbehavior was connected to the right cue. Secondly, explanations and reasons provide the child with internal resources for evaluation of his own behavior; that was the child gains explicit training in making moral judgement. It had also been asserted that one of the critical factors involved in love-oriented techniques of discipline might be the reinforcement by the parents of explicit reaction from the child.

Love-oriented discipline was likely to continue till the child makes some symbolic renunciation of his wrongdoing. Thus regaining parental approval and ending the punishment may reinforce self-admission and verbal recognition of wrongdoing. Physical punishment was more likely to occur all at once and be over, and what the child does towards the end of preventing future occurrence was not related to the ending of punishment.

The standards of parent themselves and the nature of parent-child relationship plays a crucial role in determining whether a child's developing conscience would be weak, normal or overly strict and punitive.

The parent whose own conscience was defective – either in terms of a deficit or in terms of excessive rigidity and harshness – could hardly
serve as an appropriate model for normal super ego development in the child.

The nature of parent-child relationship would determine, in large measure, whether adoption by the child of parental standard as his own would be rewarding. Ideally, it would appear that optimal super ego development in the child was facilitated if the parents own conscience and moral standard were mature and reasonable, not if adoption of the parents standard by the child was based on positive identification and modeling.

Whether anxiety over loss of love as a mechanism for the child’s adoption of parental standard would also be helpful, rather harmful, would depend in great measure on how this mechanism was employed by the parents. When disapproval and disappointment were confirmed to the child’s transgressions itself, rather than extended to the child as a whole, and when the disapproval was not extreme, harsh, impulsive, or otherwise inappropriate socialization may be fostered without crippling effects on the child. But if it was used, as unfortunately was sometimes the case, as a kind of “Emotional blackmail” to control and dominate the child, it may result not only in an overly anxious, super ego-ridden child, but a child
whose development of autonomy, self-confidence, and self-reliance was impaired.

The child whose super ego development was deficient, either because his parent’s standards were themselves deficient or because disturbed parent-child relationship mitigate against identifying positively with parental values, or both may become delinquent or otherwise lacking in responsible social behavior.

Rather than responding to mature internal standards, he may be guided primarily by external considerations of probable reward and punishment on the other hand the child whose super ego was unusually harsh and rigid as a result of strict and emotionally constricting demands on the part of the parents who themselves possess rigid, punitive standards, may encounter severe psychological problems. Some of these problems may become especially evident in the later years of middle childhood. By about six or seven the child had acquired the capability of feeling guilt. The standards he sets for himself and the particular causes for guilt would continue to change and develop, as he grows older.
Social consciousness of early childhood

The development of a child’s personality as an individual depends to a large extent on his development as a social being. An individual does not exist in isolation. His individuality becomes all the more vivid when it was made to stand against a social background, when he was compared with other individuals of his group. Alexander Selkirk or Robinson Crusoe could be called neither truthful nor virtuous, when cast away in a lonely island, for when there was no other man, there was no occasional to speak their truth or a lie, nor was there any question of honesty or dishonesty. It was society that determines values, moral or otherwise.

As the child progresses, his ability to participate with others in society also increases. He was thus able to adjust himself to his environment both physical and social. The more he does so, the more thus his personality, his singularity among the group become developed, and thus it could be truly said that it was the social surrounding that helps in the development of one’s personality as a unique individual. At its very birth an infant had perhaps no social consciousness. He, however, found his being fulfilled by his mother, on her depends his very existence.

This was perhaps the most fundamental form of social relation, that which consists of two beings, mother and child. Gradually the child
learns to distinguish not only his mother but other people from lifeless objects. During the first few months, the social approach that an infant makes towards other individuals was by smiling and by imitating their sounds or gestures. Smile thus represents not only a pleasure emotion, but also a social component. It was meant to communicate and convey to others that the child feels pleasure. But had a different approach to different persons. To some he simply smiles, to others he pushes forward his little hand as if to be taken in their arms.

By the time a child was six months old, he began to take notice of other children, perhaps of their smaller stature than other adults, perhaps their peculiarity of voice more resembling his own than that of adults, gives him an assurance that they were more like him than big people. It was however, seen that his early interests were one of more curiosity. The real interest in other children takes some time to develop and perhaps it was not till he was about 18 months old that a child would develop a sufficient interest in other children as would make him consent to play with them.

For some children, this may be delayed until they were about two years old. Even in such cases, play was confined to only brief periods,
most of it being taken up by individual activities. This went on up to the age of four and a half to five years. We may, therefore, say that until he was five years old, a child's play activities show that he was in society but not of society.

Whatever might be his attitude towards play activities, the child was not indifferent to the larger society. He was suffering from two pulls, it appears. He was interested in those of his age group, but at the same time looks up to the adult world to admire and pay attention to him. He looked to the adult society for approval of his actions, his childish pranks. He hesitated to commit any act for which he was likely to be rebuked. His imitation, according to Educationists like John Dewey, was also an instance of his socialization. The very act of imitating an adult action shows the child as enraging himself in a socialized activity of partnership. Even while a child was playing an individual game, he was conscious of his surroundings, he did not fail to notice how others were watching him. His interest increases when he met with the approval of others in his individual games.

It might appeared that when a child was playing the traffic policeman, or using a chair as a carriage of a train, he was essentially an individual getting joy all by himself through this activity. But probing
deeper, it was found that he was at the same time seeking recognition from others and was stimulated when he found them approving of his actions. In many of his make-believe games, he aspired to be an adult because he was so painfully conscious of his relatively inferior social position. At all times we find the child deriving values of social superiority and inferiority from the surrounding social situation.

The stimulating force that drives children to progress in performance of all sorts, whether in play or in the acquisition of language or in imbibing of manners, was the increase awareness of the standard set up by the adults. If a certain amount of sex difference was noticed in their behavior even at a very early age, for instance boys quarrel more and girls weep more, it was also due to the fact that society had set up different standards foe boys and girls. Aggressive attitudes in the girls were disfavoured by society even from a very early age. It was no wonder that the girls become comparatively more thoughtful than the boys even at the early age.

**Social consciousness in school or play group:**

Perhaps a new change comes when a boy or girl enters school, be it kindergarten or primary. In those who were denied schooling or admitted
late, the change was noticed a bit later, but was nevertheless manifested in playground, at street corners or in the neighbourhood.

It was in the school or in the playgroup that the child finds an ideal position to assert his personality. In the family, the atmosphere was hierarchical, the child was surrounded by his superiors. Their direction at an early age was perhaps necessary to gain an essential control of his environment and for him to acquire some working standard for his values. Having done so, he had acquired a certain amount of independence. In the playgroup or in his school the child was among his peers, all approximately his age and his attainments. This was thus the ideal place for him to assert his individuality. For group games, there must be a leader or an organizer.

But at this early stage, leadership was not clearly defined. Perhaps a resourceful child would, lead a certain activity, but he would very soon find that his leadership was challenged by others. Constant making and breaking of friendship was the rule rather than an exception at this stage. Even at this stage, we should not feel that a child was ‘egoistic’, he was not unmindful of social values.

By and by, children learn that success was possible in games and in many other activities only through organized teamwork where direction
and leadership must remain constant and unvarying. The loosely formed group now turns into definite cliques or gangs. In this situation the most resourceful of the boys assumes the leadership.

In school, teacher was definitely the accepted leader. His adult position, his supposed vast knowledge and his similarity in some respects to his parents and perhaps his difference in other respects confers on the primary school teacher a position of authority which perhaps no teacher at later age, in the secondary school or in the university, could hope to attain. A smile or a word of praise from the teacher makes the child’s life bearable in the school, while a sarcastic remark would make the school, at least its formal activities, a veritable hell for the poor creature.

With growing age, children acquire a competitive spirit and a desire to “show off”, but this tendency was also a social one, for it was only when some people were running a race that one could feel himself ahead of them.

To a great extent the child’s behavior towards his group was determined by his family upbringing. If a child had had too much attention bestowed on him, he would naturally be over dependent, and may lack emotional control. He would then avoid aggressive games also.
Such children would find themselves ill adjusted in-group games and would gradually become more sedentary.

They would, perhaps, cling more to adult groups from which they expect to gain support and protection rather than to their own age group. If a child comes from a home where parents, especially mothers, were irresponsible, he would compensate for the parental neglect by unduly showing off in his age group. This would perhaps make him less popular in the long run and he would ultimately become a lone fellow blowing his own trumpet.

Besides the barrier caused by unwise upbringing of the child, we must consider those created by a difference in socio-economic status. Children of rich parents were sometimes prevented from mixing freely with children of lower groups. This makes socialization only incomplete, but in some cases produce a parent-child conflict.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND SOCIAL ACHIEVEMENT

The socio-economic status of the child’s family was significantly related to his level of educational aspiration and to school achievements. Children of relatively high socio-economic status had traditionally
aspired to higher educational levels and their lower middle and lower-class peers\textsuperscript{146}.

**Parental value and Academic motivation:**

From school entrance on, middle and upper class parents typically display a marked interest in their children's academic careers – urging greater effort, praising indications of progress, and, not frequently, providing “more tangible rewards, in the form of movies, bicycles, or spending money for accomplishments in school”\textsuperscript{147}. These parents were likely to view education as the solution to a wide range of economic, social and personal problems.

Parental interest in the school had traditionally been less common among lower-middle and upper-lower socio-economic groups, where school had been locked upon as a way of getting children ready for adulthood. Parents in these had not been great believes in education per se, but had seen it as necessary for vocational success. Nevertheless, all these groups, in contrast to lower-class groups had reinforced the value of school to some extent because they expected the school to do something

\textsuperscript{146} Bechman J.G., Green, S., and Wistanen, Dropping out problem or symptom; Ann arbor: institute of social research, university of Michigan, 1972

for their children\textsuperscript{148}. Parents of higher socio-economic status were more likely to encourage their children to work hard in school, not simply because of their interest in the child’s academic process, but also because of the threat to their own social status of having a child who “could not make the grade”.

Socio-economically favored children were likely to see their parents and their parents’ friends engaged in intellectual work, as in the case of the son or daughter of doctor, lawyer, architect or engineer. Thus, middle class parents were often more intellectual models for identification, that was, they not only encouraged intellectual goal for the child, but also value them in their own lives. They practice what they preach. Lower-class parents, on the other hand, were less likely to engage in intellectual activities and may consequently fail to provide model for intellectual interest or mastery.

\textsuperscript{148} ibid
Parental influences on Educational aspirations:

There were, of course, wide individual differences within all socio-economic, ethnic, racial and other subgroups, and these differences, as expressed in parental relationship, were perhaps more important than general standard in determining each child's level of educational aspirations\textsuperscript{149}.

When parents were truly interested in their children and want them to succeed academically and when relevant educational opportunities exist in the community, the efforts of parental influences may override the limiting effects of lower socio-economic status. For instance a study of high school boys showed that working class boys whose parents encouraged and supported educational and occupational mobility had higher aspirations than middle class boys whose parents did not encourage such strivings\textsuperscript{150}. Boys whose family relations were positive and rewarding showed more positive and fewer negative attitudes towards school. They also had significantly better self-concept of their school ability than boys with poor family relationship even when the effects of other relevant variables, such as socio-economic level and intelligence were controlled. Parents of academically motivated, achieving children were likely to place a high value on autonomy and

\textsuperscript{149} Ibid

independence, rather than dependence and conformity and on mastery, competence and achievement.

These parents tend to be democratic and encourage an active “give-and-take” interaction with their children; they exhibit curiosity and a respect for knowledge. In contrast, parental dominance of the child, particularly maternal dominance and parental submissiveness both adversely affect the development of autonomy and academic motivation.

PSYCHOLOGICAL AND PSYCHO-PHYSIOLOGICAL PROBLEMS OF CHILDHOOD

Anxiety, frustration and conflict were a part of human condition, and all children would encounter some psychological problems, at one stage or another, during childhood. Furthermore, there was some evidence that psychological were more frequent at certain ages than others. Referrals to psychiatric and psychological clinics tend to peak in

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the periods of 4 to 7 years and 9-11 years, as well as 14-16 years for adolescents\textsuperscript{153}. 

It had been hypothesized that there may be "certain natural stages and transition that interrupt the course of development and give rise to temporary imbalances or mal-adaptations"\textsuperscript{154}. These stages and transition may involve accelerations in physical or cognitive development or rapid changes in parental expectations and general social demands. At all ages, prior to puberty, psychological problems were more frequent among boys than girls. 

During the first grade, boys were referred for clinical help eleven times as frequently as girls for such problems as social and emotional maturity, a syndrome characterized by a high rate of absenteeism, fatigability, inability to follow direction, slow learning, infantile speech patterns, and problems in visual motor and visual-perception areas. During middle childhood, clinic referrals were consistently several times higher for boys than girls for speech and reading difficulties, personality and behavior problems, school failure, and delinquency. Girls' emotional difficulties were more likely to be manifested in symptoms of anxiety, fearfulness, and timidity; in contrast among boys, complaints of 

\textsuperscript{154} ibid
aggressiveness, destructiveness, and lack of control were more frequent\textsuperscript{155}.

Most of the common psychological problems of childhood prove transient and limited in their severity, if the child's neuro physiological functioning was normal, if he was not subjected to abnormally intense traumas in his social environment, and if his parents provide good role models. Such parents were characteristically warm and accepting, consistent and flexible in their disciplinary techniques, and not so controlling or dominating that they thwart the child's development of autonomy, self-reliance and mastery behavior.

The child of such parents would typically have reasonable needs and in considerable measures, would possess the means for satisfying them. He would had a conscience that could serve as a reliable internal guide to responsible and rewarding personal and social behavior rather than one which was either seriously defective in providing him with appropriate internal controls or so harsh, punitive and arbitrary that it conflicts with his normal impulses and needs.

Finally, the psychologically favoured child would encounter a social environment - in his neighbourhood, school and home, in his peer

\textsuperscript{155} ibid
group and in society at larger – that values him as an individual, provides for his basic needs, and offers an opportunity for optimal development of his potential.

In contrast, the child whose parents and society had seriously failed him in one way or another may be expected to encounter psychological or psychosomatic problems, which were more severe, more chronic and more refractory to treatment. Some of the manifestations of psychological problems in childhoods were relatively easily understood. The child whose efforts at mastery behavior had melt consistently with criticism or ridicule for his inepntness may be anxious and uncertain in the face of new and challenging situations and inclined to withdraw and avoid them.

The child who had been subjected to an endless series of injustices or rejections, had had only harsh, arbitrary, or inconsistent discipline, and had not developed strong internal super ego controls may emerge as angry, rebellious, unmanageable, and generally lacking in conformity to the social patterns one would expect of his age group. The child with overly meticulous, compulsive, overprotective parents who inhibit any evidence of spontaneous emotion and who place great emphasis on being controlled, orderly and cautious may well end up being overly meticulous, cautious and lacking in spontaneity himself.
Anxiety and the mechanism of defense:

In most cases, the original source of such symptom lies in the child’s anxiety about something – fear or loss of love or separation; of having angry, hostile feelings, of sexual impulses; of personal inadequacy; of punishment or retribution. Frequently, the anxiety also involves guilt, in that the child’s impulses were unacceptable to his conscience, that was, to the internal standards he had developed about what was “right” and “wrong”, “good” and “wicked”. One of the difficulties in understanding this anxiety arises from the fact that the sources of the child’s true concerns were not directly expressed.

Instead, the child may unconsciously erect psychological defense organize their expression, because allowing such disturbing impulses and feelings to find conscious expression would produce painful anxiety and guilt, and sometimes even panic. The basic function of these mechanisms of defense was to help the child avoid painful feelings of anxiety. Some defense mechanism may have the additional advantage of allowing some gratification of unconscious impulses which still allowing the individual to remain unaware of them.

The kind of defenses people were most likely to employ would vary, depending on the individual’s personality structure and specific
learning experience. A number of these defenses mechanism were more
easily observed in children than in adults, because of the child's relative
lack of sophistication and the immaturity of his age.

In repression, the more basic underlying defense, anxiety
producing impulses, memories, and the like were simply kept from
conscious awareness. When the individual's associations begin to
encroach on such painful areas, anxiety was increased, and the
individual's thoughts move off in another direction, with the result that
anxiety than decreases. Thus, repression as a defense tends to be
employed and learned because it was rewarded. The total inability of an
individual to recall a particular painful experience provides one example,
the transient block in remembering the name of a familiar person, who,
one dislikes provides another. In a closely related, but more primitive
defense, denial, the child treated obvious reality factors as if they did not
exist.

In denial, the child insists that an anxiety-arousing event or
situation was not true, and he believes his denial was accurate. For
example, the child who had been openly rejected by his mother may
deny that she was hostile and insist that she was a kind and loving person.
Some children who had been rejected by their families deny that these
people were their parents. The child insists that he was adopted and that his true parents love him.

When repression was used, the child blots out the anxious or frightening event by removing it completely from awareness. Repression was neither a refusal to remember an event nor a denial of its reality. Rather, the thoughts or event had been removed from consciousness by force beyond the child's control. For example, the child may repress his memory of a violent argument between his parents or of resentful thoughts he had felt towards one of his parents. Although he was clearly aware of these thoughts at one time, after repression, the child was unaware of them, and questioning him would not bring them to light. There was a subtle distinction between denial and repression. In repression, the child had no awareness of the frightening or painful thoughts. In denial, the anxiety-arousing thought was denied.

Behavioral withdrawal was one of the most frequently used defenses of preschool children; it was the direct avoidance of, or flight from, threatening situations or people. The child would hide his eyes or run to his room when a stranger enters the house; he would refuse to approach a group of stranger children despite his desire to play with them.
The withdrawal response temporarily removes the child from the feared situation, but the tendency to withdraw becomes stronger each time the child practices this behavior. This defense was therefore often mal-adaptive, for the child who refuses to cope with stressful situations may eventually become fearful of all problems and stresses and may never learn to handle adequately the crisis that were inevitable in the course of development.

Regression was the adoption – or more accurately, the re-adoptions of a response that was characteristic of an earlier phase of development. Thumb sucking or bedwetting were example. of regressive behavior in children who had stopped such behavior for some period of time. In regression, the child was attempting to withdraw from a current anxiety-arousing situation to the more gratifying and less state of infancy. Regression behavior frequently occurs when a new baby was brought into the home. Some 4 years old were made anxious by the anticipation that a new baby would displace them and obtain the love and attention that they had been receiving. By adopting infantile behavior they attempt to gain attention and to retain desired parental nurturance.
Nightmares and sleep disturbances

All childhood fears, anxieties and troublesome feelings were not manifested, either directly or symptomatically, during the child’s waking state. Some may remain adequately repressed during the day, only to emerge in the nightmares or “load-dreams”. Occasional bad dreams or even nightmares, need not necessity be a source of parental alarm, despite the fact that they indicate the presence of at least transient anxiety and conflict in the child concerns that may be repressed during waking hours, but that emerge when the child defenses were lowered by sleep.

Another sleep disturbance that occurs more frequently among children than adults was sleepwalking\textsuperscript{156}. In this behavior, often referred to as a ‘dissociative’ state, only a portion of the child’s full stream of consciousness was operative, and he was only partially responsive to stimuli in his surroundings. It appears as though the child were responding to some need looking for something about which was concerned; escaping from an anxiety-producing situation that disturb sleep, but that he protects himself from a full awareness of the need which might itself be anxiety-producing by not wakening to full consciousness.

\textsuperscript{156} Senn, M.J.E., and Solnit, A.J. Problems in child behavior and development; Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1970
Tics

One of the most commonly observed symptoms of psychological tensions during the middle-childhood year was the tic. "A tic was a repetitious, involuntary, and seemingly purposeless movement of interconnected muscles"¹⁵⁷. Usually tic involve repeated motor response of the neck, face and head, of which the child was largely unaware; the action may include blinking of the eye, nose wrinkling, throat clearing, yawning, shoulder shrugging, head shaking and the like. Tics frequently were symptoms of repressed needs and conflicts and sometimes the nature of a tic serve as clue to the underlying conflict. Tics were more common in tense children of fairly strict parents.

There may be too much pressure at home. Sometimes a mother or father going at the child too hard, directing him correcting him whenever he was in sight or the parents may be showing constant disapproval in a quieter way, or setting standards that were too high, or providing too many activities. If the child were bold enough to fight back, he would probably be less tightened up inside. But being, in most cases, too well

¹⁵⁷ English O.S., and finch, S.M, Introduction to psychiatry New York; Norton; 1954
brought-up for that, he bottles up his irritation and it keeps ‘backfiring’ in the tic\textsuperscript{158}.

**Conduct problems**

Among the more frequent disturbances of social conduct that may reflect psychological problems, especially during early middle childhood, were lying and stealing. In the case of lying, it was important to distinguish between rather innocuous instances of “stretching the truth” at times, in the interest of wish fulfillment and often in highly imaginative fashion, and more symptomatic behaviors. Sometimes the child may resort to lying because of fear of failure to meet parental or social expectations.

To determine the antecedents of such fear it was important to examine whether these expectations were overly rigid and also whether the parents or other adults were overly demanding, punitive and lacking in warmth or understanding\textsuperscript{159}. Persistent lying may reflect more deep-rooted problems, as in the case of lying that appear arbitrary, lacking in obvious motivation, and unaccompanied by anxiety. This type of

\textsuperscript{158} Senn, M.J.E., and solnit, A.J. Problems in child behavior and development; Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1970

\textsuperscript{159} Glaser, K. Masked Depression in children and adolescents, American Journal of psychotherapy, 1967, p565-574
behavior may more severe disturbance in conscience development or in
the capacity for distinguishing reality from fantasy\(^{160}\).

Stealing too, may vary in the motivation it expresses, as well as in
it seriousness. It may simply indicate a rather thoughtless giving into an
impulse of the moment or going along with the behavior of peers. It may,
however, indicate a serious psychological disturbance, for stealing may
serve as a symbolic substitute for a perceived lack of love and attention,
particularly from parents, or as a means of expressing hostility towards
parents by violating their standards and by embarrassing them by getting
catched. Stealing and getting caught may serve as an unconscious way for
the child to call attention to himself and his problem and to ask for help
or to punish himself for real and or imagined transgressions.

**Psycho-physiological Symptoms and Hypochondriasis**

Psychological problems of school age child may also be reflected
in real or imagined physical symptoms. In the later case, referred to as
hypochondriasis, there was an excessive preoccupation with the
functioning of the body, caused largely by anxiety. While this symptom
was common among adolescents, it was not unknown in middle child.

The child may think that there was something wrong with his heartbeat,

breathing or digestion when these were perfectly normal; or he may exaggerate the significance of minor ailments, such as slightly stuffy nose or minor stomach upset\textsuperscript{161}.

The frequent and often convenient, complaint of a stomachache or headache among school children on the morning before a test or when homework had not been completed often disappears with amazing rapidity once the impending crisis had been averted. However, although this later type of complaint was insignificant, anxiety about school performance could lead to physiological upset.

Children who develop frequent hypochondriacal symptoms were likely to come from families that were overly preoccupied with health concerns, “In such families the slightest physical complaint commands everybody’s immediate attention and sympathy”. Psychological problems may also be actual disturbance of physiological functioning. A physiological (Psychosomatic) illness was a bodily disease or disorder in function that was determined, in part, by psychological disturbance.

Although constitutional factors appear to play a significant role in predisposing the individual to the development of a psychosomatic disorder, psychological factors often act to bring it about. Such disorders

\textsuperscript{161} Senn, M.J.E., and solnit, A.J. Problems in child behavior and development; Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1970
were not limited to any one-age period; however they often occur among school-age children. Indeed next to acute respiratory illness, they were the most frequent cause of repeated absences from school\textsuperscript{162}.

The most common psycho physiological disturbances during the middle childhood years were "those characterized somatically by bodily pain (particularly headache and stomachaches), lack of appetite, overeating and obesity, diarrhea, chronic fatigue and allergic disorders"\textsuperscript{163}. Other psychosomatic disorders that may occur during this period include asthma, ulcerative colitis, skin disorders and rheumatoid arthritis.

During the middle-childhood years, from school entrance to the beginning of the adolescence, the child's social environment expands enormously. At the same time, the child continues to develop physically and his cognitive abilities increase and become more complex and better differentiated. As a consequence of continuing interaction between the developing child and his expanding environment, some motive become strengthened and more clearly articulated while other diminish in importance; new standard were set, and the child was confronted with new problems and challenges.

\textsuperscript{162} ibid
\textsuperscript{163} ibid
If he was prepared to confront and eventually master these problems, his self-image become clearer and his self-esteem strengthened. In contrast, if the demands were too great, too sudden, too poorly defined or inconsistent and contradictory or if the child was too poorly prepared, psychologically, socially, or intellectually, to meet even reasonable demands, crippling conflicts and anxiety may develop and lead to a variety of psychological and psychosomatic problems.

Among the major developmental tasks confronting the child during the middle childhood years were: the development of various intellectual and academic skills and the motivation to master them, learning how to interact with peers, increased autonomy and independence, development of moral standard and conscience and learning to deal appropriately with anxiety and conflict. These psychological developments were precursors of the problems that adolescents and adults had to face. Thus the way in which the child handles the tasks of middle childhood would significantly affect his later behavior.

The changing adjustments required of him during this period reflect in great measures his movement away from the home as the one central focus of his activities, interpersonal relationship, struggles and satisfactions, and into the wider world of school, the neighbourhood, and
in a more limited sense, society itself. In turn, however, his readiness to take on the new demands of this expanded environment would depend largely on both his prior and his continuing experiences in the family setting.

Therefore, Family environment gives opportunity to the individuals to express themselves and to develop their personality. Environment brings out the hidden potentialities into a definite form. All the inherited qualities become actualities only within and under the condition of environment. Different aspects of an individual personality like interest, intelligence, skill, dexterity, attitudes, faith, beliefs, inspirations etcetera, were very much influenced by the environment.

Family environment played a significant role in shaping the personality of the child. The famous psychoanalyst Sigmund Freud had expressed the opinion that the personality of the person was fashioned in the first few years, the rest of the life being expression of the tendencies ahead developed. The present psychologists also agree that the influence of the environment of family upon the character nature, mental tendencies, and habits, behaviour of the individual was very great. This view had been verified by comparison of children brought up in drug addict, alcoholic, single parents, with those children who had been brought up with parental love and care and who were emotionally secure in this study.