Chapter: 2

Review of literature
A distinctive feature of science is that it is founded on the concept of collective wisdom. Thus, work done earlier becomes an inspiration for work to be undertaken, such that current research may benefit from vicarious experience, avoiding loopholes, improving on methodological inadequacies and in the process, adding something to the total quantum of wisdom. Therefore, in this chapter, the researcher has attempted to review relevant empirical work in the research area.

Monumental work on review of studies regarding child labour was conducted by Newman (2000), during the hundred years. This review indicated unequivocally that child labour results in damaging the physical, emotional and spiritual well being of children, both in domestic and external settings. Blanc, Porio, Mehta and Moura (1996) examined the life paths of adolescent boys and girls and their family conditions in the cities of Philippines, India, Brazil, Kenya and Italy. This study analysed the life of the subjects and maintained that the mix of life problems such as poverty, running away from homes, street and pavement dwelling and abusing drugs and engaging in sex for
money or protection lead these children towards the risk of abuse of various sorts.

Studying the victimization of street children, belonging to low socio-economic strata, Lalor (1999) compared Latin American and Ethiopian street children in terms of gender, age, background, delinquency and the outcomes of the street life. The author noted that abuse of street children is widespread including regular physical attacks over them. Street girls were found more vulnerable for sexual offences. Forty four percent of street girls were raped whereas twenty percent of them were sexually attacked. Latin American subjects were similar to gender, background and street life experiences, indicating the possibility of cross-cultural universality of the problems of street working children. Ojanuga (1990) studied life situation of street beggars in Kaduna (Nigeria) and found that most of these children were exploited by poor families for begging. Amongst 52 respondents 16 were physically handicapped. Most of them gave the reason of begging as helping disabled parents or feeding themselves.

Whitbeck and Simons (1990) interviewed 44 female and 40 male runaway homeless adolescents. Findings show that victimization on the streets is mediated by the behavioural consequences of parental abuse. These abused subjects were more likely to be multiple runaways, more likely to associate with deviant friends and more likely to engage in deviant behaviours to
support themselves on the streets. Famularo and others (1990) studied child maltreatment histories among runaway and delinquent children and found that a big proportion of such children had histories of different maltreatments.

Child abuse is rampant and widespread in Indian society as well. Segal and Ashtekar (1994) attempted to assess whether the abuse of children by caregivers/parents is a phenomenon that is prevalent in Indian society. In this connection, 515 children were interviewed in Bombay. Approximately 50% of the respondents reported of physical violence from parents or caregivers and over two-thirds reported the use of abusive violence. In addition, over 60% of the children who had run away from their homes, cited violence by parents as the primary reason for their leaving. Authors proposed that this might be one of the variables adding to the numbers of street children in India.

Working on his previous trend, Segal (1995) conducted another study to determine if the abuse of children was prevalent among middle-class professionals in India. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with a stratified random sample of 319 subjects, in three cities in India, to assess their attitudes toward child rearing and their expectations about child development. 56.9% of the subjects reported having used "acceptable" violence, while 41.9% revealed that they had engaged in "abusive" violence. Interestingly, 2.9% admitted to having employed "extreme"
violence toward their children. It was suggested that violence against children in India may well be the result of social sanction.

Chauhan and Sharma (1997) in their study, measured feelings of insecurity, emotional maturity, creative thinking ability and vocational interest of girl child labourer (age 11-16 years), belonging to low socio-economic strata. In comparison to normal girls, working girls differed significantly in the areas of creative thinking and vocational interest in job related areas such as literature, science, corporate, commercial art and agriculture.

Children of low socio-economic strata are more vulnerable to an abusive treatment. Mcloyed (1998) found that children, who are socio-economically disadvantaged, receive harsh and inconsistent parenting. Toning (1999) in this context reported the case of a 3 year old African- American boy who was born in chronic poverty and suffered abuse and neglect from parents and violent beatings from his stepbrother. Miller (2000) found the behaviour of assaulting the mother amongst the boys from low socio-economic strata, who were abused in childhood. Fantuzzo and others (1998), studied impact of child maltreatment on the social competencies of low-income urban children and found that maltreated children were significantly less interactive, show less self-control and interpersonal skills in social interactions than non-maltreated children.
Brezina (1997), established theoretical relationship between maltreatment of children and its social consequences, using three behavioural dimensions viz. social control, social learning and strain. According to the author, social control theory contends that, maltreatment disrupts important delinquency-inhibiting ties; social learning view says that the deviant values and patterns of behaviour are learned from the abuser, either implicitly or explicitly, whereas general strain theory says that criminogenic emotions such as anger and resentment are likely to arise amongst the victims. The author has based these theoretical explanations on U.S.A.'s national survey data, analysing it cross-sectionally as well as longitudinally. Results approve the above three theoretical notions and maintain that relationship exists between maltreatment and delinquency. This theoretical explanation opens the possibility that abuse may have its impact on child's cognitive-developmental process and behavioural pathology.

Several authors have proposed conceptual models to explain the adverse behavioural effects of child abuse (Thompson and Wyatt, 1999). According to them children's emotional or behavioural problems, learning disabilities or other difficulties often reflect broader problems that are associated with abuse or neglect.

Dillon (1999) conducted a case study with a 19 years old girl who was sexually abused between ages 6 and 12 and got pregnant
at the age of 16. She was tested on 'Draw-A-Person Questionnaire', 'Karp Objective Word Association Test' and the 'Appreciative Personality Test. The author concludes that the girl's responses reflect many problems, the most consistent being reflection of emotional immaturity and distorted views of sex.

Childhood psychopathology has been a major concern for the researchers in the field of child abuse, particularly for understanding the impact of child abuse in the later life of victims. Doyle and Stoop (1999) reported the case of a 10-year-old boy diagnosed with posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) resulting from chronic, severe abuse and torture. Authors further note that the boy was born to a heroin addicted mother, who herself had the history of extreme physical sexual and emotional abuse and neglect in childhood.

The notion that post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) may be found in children who have experienced abuse (sexual in particular) has become an important issue in research and clinical practice (Morrissette, 1999). Children who have been exposed to violence are at risk for developing PTSD (VanFleet, Lilly and Kaduson, 1999).

Ratna and Mukergee (1998) in a quest to establish relationship of child sexual abuse with PTSD estimated that approximately 20% of victims go on to have serious long-term pathology. It was concluded that there is high incidence of PTSD
following sexual trauma. Furthermore, evidences of neuroendocrine disturbances similar to those seen in war veterans with PTSD were also found amongst the victims.

Saunders et al. (1999) conducted a study on U.S. based national sample drawn by probability method and interviewed adult women with a history of childhood rape. Results showed that childhood rape dramatically increases risk for development of psychological problems such as, PTSD, major depression and substance use.

Dubner and Motta (1999) studied and compared three groups of children comprising of 50 sexually abused, 50 physically abused and 50 non-abused children. Subjects completed Child Post-Traumatic Stress Reaction Index. Results indicated that sexually and physically abused children demonstrated a high incidence of PTSD. Authors further noted that preadolescents demonstrated more severe PTSD than early adolescent subjects. Widom (1999) observed that 37.5% victims of childhood sexual abuse, 32.7% of childhood physical abuse and 30.6% of childhood neglect met DSM-III R criteria for lifetime PTSD.

Impact of physical and sexual abuse during childhood may become permanent resulting in long-term sequelae related to the abuse per se (Stevenson, 1999). Abnormalities caused by the childhood experiences may surface up during adulthood. Sheldon and Bannister (1998) studied problems of adult female survivors
of childhood sexual abuse. Authors noted major long-term consequences of child sexual abuse and divided them in three categories. First, psychological problems with a psychiatric presentation such as depression, anxiety, sleeping difficulties, eating disorders, self-harm and alcohol and drug dependence. Second, severe interpersonal difficulties characterised by feelings of isolation, alienation, distrust, fear of men, repeated victimization in an adult relationship and difficulty in their relationships with their own children. Third category includes sexual problems such as avoidance of sex, sexual anxiety, and guilt, promiscuity and prostitution.

Eating disorder is one of the peculiar abnormalities particularly associated with child abuse. Berger et.al. (1994) found that eating disorder was one of the dissociative disorders having relation with child abuse. Nine of 41 subjects (physically and/or sexually abused) who completed dissociative disorder interview schedule, were reported having symptoms suggesting DSM-III R multiple personality. Physical abuse history was particularly associated with high dissociation.

Pursuing their previous work, Berger (1995) studied parental bonding patterns amongst Japanese females having eating disorder and childhood physical or/and sexual abuse histories. Subjects who were having histories of physical abuse only had significantly
different parental bonding and dissociation as compared to those who had no physical abuse.

Child abuse has its detrimental effects on behavioural pathology leading to the psychotic or neurotic problems in victims. Read and Argyle (1999) studied three positive symptoms of schizophrenia namely hallucinations, delusions and thought disorders amongst physically and sexually abused children. It was seen that there is a relationship between specific type of abuse and specific symptom. Hallucination was found highly associated with sexual abuse whereas delusion and thought disorder were associated with physical abuse. The study findings confirmed previous findings of a high frequency of auditory hallucinations; particularly command hallucinations to kill oneself, and paranoid ideation among inpatients with a history of abuse.

Straus and Kantor (1994) studied the impact of corporal punishment on mental health and social relationships amongst teenagers of low socio-economic strata. Authors found that children who experienced corporal punishment in adolescence had an increased risk later in life of depressive symptoms, suicidal thoughts, alcohol abuse, physical abuse of children and wife beating.

Silber and Stock (1999) administered Appreciative Personality Test and Draw-A-Person Questionnaire amongst 163 females (16 – 50 years) who were sexually abused in childhood
and 163 (15 – 52 years) controls. Authors found abusees more depressed, passive, hostile and less trusting than controls.

Zlot and others (2000) compared women having major depression with women suffering from pain due to psychological factors. Results of the study showed that negative childhood experiences ("brutality between parents", "brutality towards child" and "sexual abuse") are prominent and similar in both groups.

Association of adult aggression with physical and emotional abuse was studied by Epps, Carlin and Ward (1999). Tested on State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory, subjects who had physical and emotional childhood abuse history scored high on Trait Anger and Anger In, which is consisted with cognitive-behavioural and social information processing theories of the development of aggression.

Aggressive behaviour amongst abused children is a broad area of research. Herrenkohl and Russo (2001) in a longitudinal study, found that harsh child rearing practices exert their influence by elevating child's aggressive behaviour. Shumaker and Prinz (2000) also found a high percentage of homicidal offenders who come from homes characterized by domestic violence, poor or absent parenting or physical abuse. Siegal (2000) also found strong association of adult aggression with being a victim of child abuse.
Child abuse has also been considered as one of the causes of suicidal behaviours. Dhaliwal (1996) reviewed researches on men sexually abused during childhood and found that amongst many disorders suicide was one of the major long-term outcomes of child abuse. Bryant and Range (1997) studied lifetime suicidality amongst subjects who reported childhood sexual abuse, physical abuse or both. Subjects were categorized according to the severity of abuse. Subjects having more severe level of sexual or physical or both abuses were found more suicidal than those who reported less severe abuse. Jarvis and Copeland (1997) in a study to explore the association between child sexual abuse (CSA) and psychological co-morbidity among 180 women (aged 16-69 yrs) found that women with a history of both CSA and substance abuse were more likely to have attempted suicide than other women.

It has commonly been found that abused children are at risk for later becoming abusive parents. Narang and Contreras (2000) examined the relationship between history of child abuse and abusiveness as an adult. Researchers adopted a cross-sectional design to examine three constructs viz. physical abuse history, dissociation and physical abuse potential in 190 respondents. Results showed that all three constructs were correlated with each other significantly.
Liem and others (1996) hypothesized that adult childhood sexual abuse (CSA) survivors' characterizations of interpersonal relationships would reflect greater power motivation, and more preoccupation with themes of powerlessness (THP) and betrayal (THB) than non-abused adults'. The hypothesis was tested on 19-54 yr old women with child sexual abuse histories. Results showed that subjects having child sexual abuse histories had both stronger power motivation and lingering fear of power. Although THP were more frequent in the narratives of child sexual abuse.

Ford and Linney (1995) studied juvenile sexual, violent nonsexual, and status offenders with histories of abuse and exposure to pornography. Analysis of data suggested that Juvenile child molesters experienced more parental use of violence and were victims of physical and sexual abuse more often than other offender groups. Results showed that subjects were in greater need for control and treatment for interpersonal relationship skills.

Buist and Barnett (1995) in order to establish the link between childhood sexual abuse and postpartum depression studied the cases of 4 women, classified adult sequelae of child sexual abuse, focusing on four aspects viz, emotional/psychological, sexual adjustment, interpersonal relationships, and social functioning. Women with a history of child sexual abuse are characterized by low self-esteem, anxiety,
and poor relationships. This puts them at a higher risk of depression.

Anxiety and depression seem to be a basic behavioural digression caused by trauma or abuse. Cohen and Mannarino (1988) in their study found that parents of sexually abused girls (aged 6-12 yrs) rated them having significantly more behavioural problems such as depression, anxiety or low self-esteem as compared to parental ratings of non-abused sample. Raskin et al (1989) examined the early childhood experiences of socio-economically disadvantaged patients having anxiety disorders. More than 50% of the subjects were found to be abused during their childhood. Hudson (1990) found severe separation anxiety, fear of starting school, avoidance of their own bed, refusal to sleep alone, and fear of the dark amongst children who were sexually molested by adult strangers, were threatened with murder if they revealed the abuse, and being photographed during the abuse. Devor (1994) found fear, anxiety and depression amongst subjects who encountered at least one severe level of sexual, physical or emotional child abuse. Using Beck Depression Inventory on adult survivors of child abuse, Holmes (1995) found that in comparison to patients having no history of abuse, those with a history of abuse showed no improvement in anxiety scores after therapy.
Mancini, Van Ameringen and MacMillan (1995) carried out their study on adult patients of anxiety disorders. Researchers used Child Maltreatment History-Self-Report and self-report measures of anxiety, depression, and social adjustment. Childhood sexual abuse was reported by 23.4% of subjects and physical abuse by 44.9%. Abused subjects had a higher prevalence of impaired social functioning and lifetime diagnosis of major depression and had higher state and trait anxiety scores. Childhood abuse may affect the severity of the anxiety disorder as well as the presence of concurrent major depression.

Cahill, Kaminer and Johnson (1999) in order to discuss developmental, cognitive, and behavioural sequelae of child abuse, explored the literature on the short and long term sequelae of physically and sexually abused and neglected children, and concluded that abuse and neglect effects on child's neurologic, behavioural, and cognitive system.

Earlier on Carrey et.al. (1995) compared physiological responses of abused children to different stimuli with responses of children in a reference group and to correlate the physiological responses with intellectual and personality functioning. In the first session of this study children were shown slides with emotional or cognitive content while heart rate, pulse rate, skin conductance, electromyography, and skin temperature were measured. In the other session, intellectual and personality
functioning was measured using the WISC-R, Quick Neurological Screening Test, and the Junior Eysenck personality inventory. Abused children had higher introversion and lower Verbal and Full Scale IQ scores. Verbal and Full Scale IQ scores were inversely related to the severity of abuse that had been experienced. When these variables were used in a discriminant function analysis, children were assigned to the correct group 86% of the time. Authors conclude that these findings support a model that describes the effects of abuse as delaying cognitive development and inhibiting physiological responsiveness to the environment.

Glaser, Georgia and Arthur (1999) examined general cognitions, cognitions and attributions related to self and to parental behaviour amongst abused and non-abused children using Child Behaviour Checklist, thought-and-attribution listing procedures and interviews. Results showed that abused children had few positive cognitions and attributions which seems to support authors' hypothesis “less positive but not necessarily more negative”. Authors conclude that the cognitions and attribution styles are different for abused and non-abused children.

Grazino and Mills (1992) studied psychological problems and treatment of abused and neglected children in the light of the factors such as quality of the parent-child relationship, socio-
economic status (SES), type and severity of maltreatment, child's developmental stage, and degree to which development is disrupted. Authors stated that Maltreated children show greater difficulty with self-control, more aggression, less empathy, poorer cognitive skills and academic performance, and less moral development.

A relationship between cognitive process and moral development was studied by Ittreyah and Mahindra (1990). Authors found that both moral reasoning and perspective taking improved with age. Gender differences were significant for the cognitive perspective-taking ability only, suggesting that girls possess more prosocial characteristics. Use of multiple correlations with data, indicated that perspective-taking abilities had a significant effect on moral reasoning. Authors further noted that perspective taking once acquired becomes permanent in the areas of perception or cognition.

Chandler and Moran (1990) studied behaviour of male juvenile delinquents and non-delinquents by administering measures of moral reasoning, social convention understanding, interpersonal awareness, socialization, empathy, autonomy, and psychopathy to explore the relations between moral reasoning, moral sentiment, and antisocial behaviour. The delinquent group evidenced developmental delays on all tests of morality functioning. Furthermore, performance of delinquent subject on
measures of autonomy and socialization were found differentiated amongst those offenders who were more or less psychopathic.

Buchsbaum, et al (1992) examined emotion regulation, internal representations of relationships, and early moral development, with the use of a play narrative story stem technique with 4-5 yr old maltreated children and a non-maltreated disadvantaged comparison group of children. Maltreated subjects had experienced sexual and/or physical abuse, emotional abuse, and neglect. Results suggest that maltreatment in the earliest stages of development is problematic for early moral development and likely to play a role in the development of conduct disorders in children.

DeFronzo and Pawlak (1993) found that childhood trauma (i.e., having been beaten as a child) promoted both smoking and alcohol abuse whereas religious belief and belief in the importance of conformity with shared moral principles have significant negative effects on smoking, alcohol use, and alcohol abuse. Authors’ resultant findings support the notion of negative effect of child abuse on moral development and prosocial behaviour.

May (1998) studied the link between moral judgment development and adolescent pregnancy amongst the teenagers with a history of child abuse. In addition, the participants' intention to drop out of school was examined as a possible risk
factor associated with pregnancy status. Data regarding level of moral judgment development, history of emotional, physical, and sexual abuse, and intention to drop out of school was obtained. Four groups were compared (group one (n = 20)-pregnant teenagers; group two (n = 20)-adolescents who were mothers to their first child; group three (n = 18)-teenagers who aborted their first pregnancy; and group four (n = 20)-teenagers who had never experienced a pregnancy). An ANOVA procedure was used to test for differences in a measure of moral judgment (the Defining Issues Test (DIT)) across groups. A chi square test of independence was applied to the data set to document relationships and patterns in the self-reported abuse and intent to drop out of school reported by the participants on a questionnaire. Significant differences were found in the 'Principled Morality' scores across the four groups. Group four (never experienced a pregnancy) exhibited the highest 'Principled Morality' scores. Significant differences in the 'Principled Morality' scores were found between groups two and four and groups one, two, and three, relative to group four. Levels of emotional, physical, and sexual abuse were also found to be significant within groups one, two, and three relative to group number four. Intentions to drop out of school were not found to be significantly different across the four groups. In sum, an overall significant discrepancy between the principled level of
moral judgment development of teenagers who become pregnant and teenagers who did not was documented. A higher risk profile of emotional and physical abuse during childhood was also found among the participants.

Smetana, and others (1999) examined maltreated and non-maltreated preschool children's (3-5.8 yrs old) judgments regarding hypothetical provoked and unprovoked moral transgressions. Maltreated children (17 physically abused and 19 neglected) and 19 matched non-maltreated children rated the severity and deserved punishment and evaluated affective responses to 6 hypothetical moral transgressions which were depicted as both unprovoked and provoked by another child's actions. All children rated unprovoked transgressions as more serious and deserving of punishment and as eliciting more happiness and fear and less anger than transgressions that were depicted as provoked by another's actions. Results suggested that patterns of affective responses to hypothetical transgressions differed as a function of maltreatment subtype (Physical and neglect).

On the same lines with their previous study, Smetana, and associates (1999a) examined maltreated and non-maltreated preschoolers' (mean age = 4 years 6 months) judgments regarding hypothetical and actual moral transgressions. Subjects judged, justified, and evaluated affective responses to 6 hypothetical
moral transgressions. Perpetrators and victims also judged and evaluated affective responses to actual classroom moral transgressions. All children evaluated moral transgressions as very serious, punishable, and wrong in the absence of rules. Moral judgments and justifications differed as a function of context (hypothetical vs. actual) and type of transgression but not maltreatment status. Affective responses differed as a function of maltreatment subtype and gender.

Miltenburg and Singer (2000) explored from the viewpoints of Vygotsky's cultural-historical theory and current social constructivists theories, the questions of resilience and discontinuity in the affective development of survivors of child abuse. Authors suggest that moral tools, commitments, and higher-order skills play a crucial part in the development of agency, personal empowerment, and discontinuity. The recurrence of affective problems in survivors may be connected to moral confusion and insoluble moral dilemmas. Authors further note that this has seldom been acknowledged in theoretical discourse, for example in cognitive therapeutic theories.

Koenig, Cicchetti and Rogosch (2000) examined moral development in maltreated and non-maltreated children (aged 3-4 yrs), dividing maltreated subjects into two subgroups: physically abused and neglected. Compared to non-maltreated subjects, abused subjects were found to exhibit less internalisation,
whereas neglected subjects displayed significantly more negative affect. Maltreated and non-maltreated groups differed in the maternal variables that predicted child internalisation. A lower level of maternal negative affect was linked to child internalisation in maltreated children, whereas a lower level of maternal joy predicted internalisation for the non-maltreated children.

Impact of parental discipline was found to be highly associated with moral development in Indian culture. Saraswathi, Thakkar and Kaur (1979) worked on a sample of Indian, upper-middle and working class boys and girls. Authors hypothesised that (a) there would be a relationship between the type of perceived maternal disciplinary technique and the level of moral judgement as indicated by the moral maturity scores, and (b) perceived induction was likely to influence the development of moral judgement in a positive direction, and perceived power assertion in a negative direction. Authors found power assertion as the predominant disciplinary technique particularly high for boys in working class. A relationship between moral judgement with maternal discipline was found amongst the girls of upper middle class.

Saraswathi and Sundaresan (1979) in another study on the same lines with the previous one investigated the relationship between moral judgement level and subjects’ perception towards
their parental disciplinary practices amongst the boys of upper class and the lower class. Correlation analysis of the two variables showed that (a) among the upper class boys power assertion was negatively correlated and induction positively correlated with moral maturity score (MMS); (b) in the case of upper class girls, power assertion had a high, significantly negative correlation with MMS; (c) for working class boys, the correlations were very low; (d) in the upper class groups power assertion was the predominant disciplinary technique followed closely by induction techniques and (e) in contrast, power assertion was strikingly high for boys from the working-class group.

Saraswathi and Sundaresan (1980) administered an adaptation of Kohlberg's (1973) Moral Judgement Test on upper-middle and working class Indian children and interviewed twenty-eight Indian mothers from the same socio-economic level about maternal disciplinary practices. The results indicated a general pattern of negative correlations between maternal power assertion and children's moral maturity scores.

Saraswathi and Verma (1976) studied social class differences in the development of moral judgement through an adapted Indian version of the Kohlberg Moral Judgement Test. Results showed significant differences in social class when specific moral issues were treated as separate units.
Saraswathi, Sundaresan and Saxena (1980) collected data on the moral judgement of Indian boys and girls of upper and lower classes with the help of the clinical interviewing technique and Kohlberg's Moral Judgement Test. Findings revealed that (a) there was clear evidence of a shift from moral stage 2 to stage 3 between 10-15 years of age; (b) the sequence of stage-wise progression of moral judgement was consistently present; (c) social class differences were markedly in favour of the upper social class but no sex differences were observed; and (d) nuclear, small family with higher education, occupation and income levels of parents was positively correlated with the level of moral judgement.

A few studies noted here give an impression that development of moral judgement is mediated by factors such as and gender difference. Bakken and Ellsworth (1990) studied impact of age and gender on moral development amongst the subjects of different age groups and found that process of moral development goes on with age progression. Authors also found that gender differences effect significantly the moral development in each age group, with males scoring higher than females. Narvaez (1998) also found significant age-level differences in moral judgement development.

Pioneering work of gender differences in moral development was done by Gilligan (1982). In the quest to find out
feminine morality, she established that girls/women have more maturity as compared to boys/men in justice and care domain of Kohlberg’s model of moral development.

Stiller and Forrest (1990) followed Gilligan’s work in their study of moral development amongst men and women. Results supported the theoretical construct of Gilligan and showed that differences exist between male and females on the counts of different moral concepts.

In Indian scenario, Tripathi and Misra (1979) found a significant main effect of age on the development of moral judgement amongst Indian children. Authors finally concluded that capacity of moral judgement increases with age but significantly mediated by the factors of sex and socio-economic status.

Perry, Wells and Doran (1983) studied characteristics of parents in abusing and non-abusing families. Results indicate that mothers from abusing families experienced lower self-esteem and less family cohesion and expression, expected slower development of their children, and reported more anxiety and family conflict than did control mothers. Fathers from abusing families reported less family cohesion and moral/religious emphasis, expected slower development of their children, and reported more family conflict than did control fathers.
Reinhard (1990) analysed the relationship between depression in adolescence and the development of moral identity amongst 43 depressive and non-depressive child and adolescent psychiatric patients. Results show that the age coupling of the socio-moral development in depressive adolescents is considerably less than in other patients. Corresponding to theoretical forecasts, a distinct depressive syndrome is found which presupposes the development of feelings of guilt, only with the attainment of the conventional moral level.

Elbedour, Baker and Charlesworth (1997) examined moral development of 3 groups of children, who had been subjected to varying degrees of political violence and economic disadvantage. Ninety three 8-13-yr-old Israeli Jewish and Bedouin school children, and Palestinian West Bank school children were asked various moral reasoning questions based on an animal fable involving a moral dilemma under three conditions viz. hypothetical, role-taking and political. Results indicate that mutuality solutions to moral dilemmas were given more frequently by Israeli Jewish children than Israeli Bedouin or Palestinian children as the questions shifted from abstract to real-life situations. No significant gender differences were found between Jewish children and Bedouin children in hypothetical issues; however, violence and limited resources were found to affect moral judgment in real-life situations for boys, but not for girls.
These findings support the hypothesis that moral reasoning in children is significantly linked to real-life situations and resources. Results of the study indicate that adverse experiences of children such as maltreatment, low socio-economic conditions and child labour in any society may exert similar impact on their personality development.

Graziano and Mills (1992) concluded on the basis of their work that maltreated children show greater difficulty with self-control, more aggression, less empathy, poorer cognitive skills and academic performance, and less moral development.

Apart from the pathological representation of child abuse, McGehee (1983) claimed that it is an outcome of marked changes in daily lives, loss of control over productive activity, long physical separation of family members, and domination of materialistic values. Discussing the relationship of abuse with child labour, social environment of their family and workplace and their vulnerability towards abuse, author stresses on enhancing relational values over materialistic values as remedial measures.

Barlett (1990) discuss a concept developed by scholastics “acedia”, which describes work-engendered depression. Author maintains that this condition is prevalent in highly industrialized societies. Resultantly, extraordinary focus on work, money and
the things that money can buy has displaced values that traditionally exerted a liberating and humanizing influence.

Bohan (1997) assessed adult women sexually abused in childhood for values by testing them on Rokeach Value Survey to assess inner and outer values. The sexually abused women ranked personal values such as inner harmony, self-respect, wisdom, and health as most important to them, indicating that they may not have developed inner values as children. The non-abused women ranked the outer values of equality, a world of peace, national security, and world of beauty as most important which may indicate greater psychological maturity.

Plummer (1990) in order to understand childhood sexualities, adopted social constructionist view to explain the processes by which a child comes to script his/her sexual world, a number of central dimensions are proposed: the scripting of absences, values, secrecy, utility, gender, and generation. Analysing the complexity of childhood sexualities, author suggested that the above-mentioned central dimensions are either affecting or being affected his/her sexual behaviour towards any direction.

Guijarro, et. al. (1999). Studied family risk factors associated with adolescent pregnancy of 12 – 19 years old subjects by using chi-square, t-test, and ANOVA. Results showed that
more non-pregnant subjects lived with their biological parents when compared with their pregnant peers. Pregnant Ss reported lower mother-daughter and father-daughter communication, less life satisfaction and happiness in general, and more school and economic difficulties. They were less likely to find support for their problems in or outside the family and showed higher levels of depression and sexual abuse than their non-pregnant peers (68.8% vs 34.5% and 14.9% vs 4.5%, respectively). Non-pregnant Ss showed higher school performance and expectations regarding, school achievement and future perspectives. Values such as respect for others and religiosity were higher among non-pregnant subjects.

Arntz (1994) presented a cognitive formulation of Borderline Personality Disorder based on previous cognitive and behavioural conceptualisations, and on empirical evidence pertaining to the relationship between Borderline Personality Disorder and childhood traumas. The author concluded that chronic traumatic abuse or neglect in childhood leads to the development of almost unshakable fundamental assumptions about others, one's own capabilities, and about one's value as a person.

Futa, Hsu and Hansen (2001) discussed how child sexual abuse affects the victims' families. Review of the relevant
literature with reference to Asian American families throws light on the adverse effect of child sexual abuse on Asian American values such as collectivity, conformity, inconspicuousness, middle position virtue, shame, self-control, and fatalism.

Ashby, Gilchrist and Miramontez (1987) noted a study with American Indian (Native-American) girls who were victims of sexual abuse in which value inculcation was used for therapeutic purpose. Girls were encouraged to take part in programmes including sharing meals, traditional arts and free art expression, didactic exercises, and a talking circle. Subjects' positive responses and high attendance rates proved the importance of these cultural values.

Leake (2001) on the basis of his ethnographic fieldwork of nearly 5 years duration, conducted on serious emotional disturbances in a semi-rural community in Hawai'i. Author concluded that anger problems could be attributed to cultural loss due to Western influences, and therefore advocated a return to traditional values.

Lawson (1998) in a quest to study the long-term impact of child abuse on religious behaviour and spirituality in men tested two hypotheses (1) past experience of child abuse (sexual, physical, or emotional) will be related to higher levels of reported alienation from religion and God as shown in lower rates of
current religious behaviour, higher frequency of spiritual "injury," and lower stability of religious behaviour and experiences; (2) More "severe" forms of abuse will be associated with higher indicators of alienation. Results showed that the history of sexual abuse was related to significantly greater spiritual injury and lower stability of spiritual behaviours and experiences. Multivariate analyses indicate that the effect size is relatively small and the type of abuse was less important than the presence of any form of abuse. The findings suggest that the impact of childhood abuse is complex and affects significantly the construct of personal beliefs and may also affect the value system adversely.

Adedoyin and Adegoke (1995) administered semi-structured questionnaire on teenage prostitutes in Nigeria. Findings suggest, among other things, that childhood sexual abuse perhaps leads to prostitution. Half of the sample used in the study had their first sexual experience early in life, and about the same number lived with their parents when they began prostituting. Authors note that this phenomenon occur in a society that has come to erode some of the sexual constraints in the traditional Africa. Due to this society's openness today toward sexuality and sexual expression, adolescents commence sexual activity at an increasing earlier age and the average marriage comes much later. It is therefore not surprising that an increasing proportion of
adolescents in Nigeria are engaging in teenage prostitution. This conclusion may lead to a notion that modern day values towards sexuality and earning (economic) values have relationship with child sexual abuse.

Costa and Stiltner (1994) describe a counselling group providing support to cope with major crises such as abuse. Values clarification and empathic assertion were techniques amongst others to be indicted in treatment programme.

Walsh (1995) studying the effect of poor parental attachment on sexual promiscuity and drug abuse, found that subjects reporting weak parental attachment were more involved in unrestricted sexuality and reported more drug usage than Ss with stronger parental attachment. Commitment to religious values was found inhibiting male sexuality more than female sexuality.

Maltas and Shay (1995) in an interesting interpretation of the findings of their study which examines partners of childhood victims of sexual abuse, for whom the impact of that early abuse on the couple's intimate relationship is so often the cause of confusion and unhappiness. Partners of survivors of childhood sexual abuse may develop a "trauma contagion" marked by high levels of stress, doubts about key personal values and assumptions about the world, and a tendency to be drawn into unconscious re-
enactments with the survivor of the abusive relationship. The metaphor of contagion suggests a process by which the trauma is communicated, like a virus, to an intimate sexual partner and is thus experienced more pervasively than it is by someone in a close but different kind of relationship to the survivor.

Rosen (1979) studied interpersonal values among child-abusive women by collecting responses on a personal data sheet and the Survey of Interpersonal Values. Results indicate that the subjects who abused their children valued conformity and benevolence less and authority over others more than non-abusive subjects. No differences were found in values of support, recognition, or independence. The abusive Ss seemed to derive little satisfaction from nurturing or social role-fulfilling behaviours, while experiencing considerable frustration of their power needs.

It has been noted earlier in this chapter that high risks and deviant behaviour is an outcome of child abuse. Deviant behaviour itself may have a relationship with the value system of a person. Fishbein and Perez (2000) in their study examined this relationship by using self-reported measures of several attitudes and behaviours known to correlate with drug abuse and delinquency. Researcher found that certain types of deviance which involve material and monetary gains may be influenced by
relationships with significant others. On the other hand, deviance involving potentially harmful consequences to both self and others are influenced by personal attitudes. It was further noted that positive relationship with subjects’ fathers and pro-social values were inversely related to two of the behavioural deviance measures.

Bromrick and Swallow (2001) claimed that traditional researches into values have tended to classify young people into categories of self and other orientations. In present study authors explored values within a contemporary context and analysed into more complex value sets. They recorded responses of boys and girls (age 11 – 16) on open ended questionnaire which asked about philosophies of life, fears and underlying values. Girls preferred values of pleasures in life along with relationships with family, friends and boys. On the other hand boys showed their interest in winning National Lottery or/and activities like sports. In general both sexes dreamt of fame and fortune.

Chernoff and Davison (1999) studied role of values as an underlying determinant of risky sexual behaviour. Rockeach Value Survey and sexual behaviour questionnaire was administered on late adolescents and young adults. Authors found that subjects of lower sexual risk preferred values viz. self controlled, helpful, honest, loving, equality and a world at peace.
On the basis of the literature review as well as the researcher’s own understanding and estimate of the phenomenon, the following research questions are being framed to give concrete direction to the research.

1. Do children experiencing abuse differ from children who do not experience abuse on moral judgement, moral practice and values? (Moral judgement has four components and each of the four components will be taken up.)

2. Do male children experiencing abuse differ from male children who do not experience abuse on moral judgement, moral practice and values? (Moral judgement has four components and each of the four components will be taken up.)

3. Do female children experiencing abuse differ from female children who do not experience abuse on moral judgement, moral practice and values? (Moral judgement has four components and each of the four components will be taken up.)

4. Do male children experiencing abuse differ from female children who are experiencing abuse on moral judgement, moral practice and values? (Moral judgement has four components and each of the four components will be taken up.)

5. Do children experiencing high severity of abuse differ from children who experience low severity of abuse on moral judgement, moral
practice and values? (Moral judgement has four components and each of the four components will be taken up.)

6. Do abused children falling in upper age group differ from abused children who fall in lower age group on moral judgement, moral practice and values? (Moral judgement has four components and each of the four components will be taken up.)

7. Do non-abused male children differ from non-abused female children on moral judgement, moral practice and values? (Moral judgement has four components and each of the four components will be taken up.)

8. Do non-abused children falling in upper age group differ from non-abused children who fall in low age group on moral judgement, moral practice and values? (Moral judgement has four components and each of the four components will be taken up.)

9. Do children experiencing low, moderate and high levels of physical abuse differ on moral judgement, moral practice and values?

10. Do children experiencing low, moderate and high levels of sexual abuse differ on moral judgement, moral practice and values?

11. Do children experiencing low, moderate and high levels of economic abuse differ on moral judgement, moral practice and values?

The researcher has attempted to find an answer to the above stated questions through appropriate methods and techniques, details of which are given in the next chapter.