CHAPTER I

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As students of human nature we know that the seeds of later personality characteristics are sown in early childhood. From this point of view, the field of child-rearing practices becomes crucially important.

A systematic study of child-rearing practices which is a by-product of the social system which it belongs to and personality variables is an elaborate and complicated process.

The present study is a modest attempt towards exploring the dimensions of child-rearing practices among working and non-working women which are related to the development of need for autonomy, need for affiliation and need for achievement in children.

Child-rearing practice can be defined as ideas, beliefs, and attitudes widely held in a community on how to bring up children. These practices are likely to change as the time advances. Thus, the ideas prevalent on this subject a hundred years ago may appear remote and alien to us. This process of child-rearing is greatly influenced by the characteristic way of thinking, feeling and acting prevalent in the cultural group to which the family belongs. The parent
plays several roles in relation to their children, as caretaker, controller and socializing agents. In these roles, especially the last two, parents vary considerably in how they behave towards the child. Some parents are relaxed and confident, other tense and apprehensive. Some are restrictive and rule-oriented, other permissive and inconsistent, some are over indulgent, other harsh. Several studies (Sears, 1957; Deilman, et al., 1972; Baumrid, 1971; Barton, et al., 1977), pertaining to the parental attitude show that the type of infants care is related to his personality structure.

Maccoby and Masters (1970) compiled a list of dimensions of parental behaviour that they have found in factor analysis:

1. Warmth (Vs Hostility or rejection)
2. Permissiveness (Vs Restrictiveness)
3. Child-rearing anxiety
4. Inhibitory demands and discipline
5. Sex anxiety
6. Responsible child-rearing orientation
7. Physical punishment
8. Dependency encouragement
9. Democratic attitude
10. Authoritarian control
11. Punishment (Vs non-punishment)
12. General family adjustment
Several of the factors refer to similar behaviour, and some are specific to particular child behaviour (for example, sex-anxiety).

Schafer (1959) suggest that the first two factors on the list, which he renamed love-hostility and control-autonomy, would account for most child-rearing practices. Schafer found the love and control factors in ratings of observations of the interaction between mothers and their 1 to 3 years old children, in ratings of interviews with mothers of 9 to 14 years old children, and in self report data from mothers who responded to the parental attitude research instrument (Schafers and Bell, 1958). These dimensions have been confirmed by other researches (Sears, et al., 1957; Milton, 1958; Hatifield, et al., 1967). The dimensions were independent:

Autonomy

| Hostility | Love |

Control

On the hostility-love dimensions, the love end is defined by positive evaluation of the child expression of affection and equalitarianism; the hostility end is defined
by ignoring the child, being punitive and irritable, and seeing the child as a burden. The Autonomy-control dimension, the autonomy end involves permissiveness, the control end includes such diverse parental behavior as anxiety, intrusiveness, protectiveness, demand for achievement and concern about health all involving either restrictive or demanding behavior by the parent.

Baumrind (1966) has suggested that the dimension could be pegged by three model types of parental practices: permissive, authoritative and authoritarian.

Permissive parents, who combined few control or demands with relatively high Warmth had the least self-reliant, explorative and self controlled children.

Authoritative parents, who combine high controls with Warmth, receptivity and encouragement of the child to do for himself, are likely to produce the most self-reliant, self controlled and self satisfied children.

Authoritarian parents, who were more detached and controlling were more likely to have withdrawn, distrustful children who were less assertive and independent.

These descriptions reveal that Baumrinds control dimension also includes elements of the hostility – love dimension, permissive and authoritative parents are at least
minimally on the love end, and authoritarian parents are or
the hostility end, that Baumrind's and Schafer's Schemata can
be merged into a single model.

![Parenting Spectrum Diagram]

The permissive parent exercises minimal control and is
at least a little loving, the authoritative parents blends
control with affection, and the authoritarian parent is both
controlling and hostile (Punitive). The fourth kind of parent
as suggested by the analysis would be annoyed by the child
and would see him as a burden (hostility) and would therefore
furnish little attention or discipline (autonomy); the
appropriate label is neglecting.

A study of the development of autonomy as a personality
variable hardly needs to be emphasized. The country needs
self-reliant high achieving and autonomous personalities for
its development and the root of personality development has
to be traced is the childhood experiences. The base of later
self-reliance can be reasonably traced to the development of need autonomy in childhood. Autonomy is a natural phase of ego development. As early as 2 1/2 years the child starts insistence on self-feedings, self-dressing etc. However, the parental behaviour as to make the child autonomous or otherwise is very important.

Need for achievement is an important variable, the performance or achievement of any individual will depend upon his desire to achieve. Achievement is a learned motive to compete and to strive for success. Because almost any activity from gardening to managing an industrial organisation can be viewed in terms of competition and success, the need to achieve influences many kinds of behaviour. And because it is a learned motive, there are wide differences among individuals' in their past experiences and hence in their achievement motivation.

One of the important personality variable is need for affiliation which implies a strong need for intensive interaction with other in immediate, direct, personal relationships. It also mean a capacity for warm personal contact and not being too anxiously concerned about other's opinion. In some cases the need for achievement and need for autonomy may lead the individual to quite opposite directions than the need for affiliation.
Without affiliation the need for achievement, cannot be satisfied, similarly autonomous growth of personality has a boundary line crossing which it may be viewed negatively. However, a balanced development of n-autonomy, n-affiliation, and n-achievement is important from the point of view of the individual as well as the society.

Although the origins of social motivation are still shrouded by the mists of incomplete evidence and theoretical controversy, there is little disagreement on the importance of social motives in human behaviour, whether they be innate, learned, or both, social motives dominate most of our everyday behaviour. Numerous lists of social motives have been proposed and others could be constructed. One of the most influential is Henry A. Murray's list of "Psychogenic needs". Murray presented a tentative list of twenty social motives. Dominance, Exhibition, Harmavoidence, Infavoidence, Nurturence, Order, Play, Rejection, Sentience, Sex, Succorance, Understanding, Abasement, Achievement, Affiliation, Aggression, Autonomy, Conteraction, Defendence, Deference. We have selected three for our study. These three are Achievement, Affiliation, and Autonomy.

Murray (1938) defined need for achievement as a desire or tendency "to overcome obstacles, to exercise power, to strive to do something difficult as well and as quickly as
possible". In his personality theory, n-ach was one of the twenty manifest psychological needs as distinct from such biological needs as hunger.

The achievement motive has been most extensively studied by McClelland and his associates. The method of investigating achievement motivation is an extension of Murray's TAT approach. Typically, subjects are presented with four cards flashed on a screen and are then asked to write a five minute story guided by several questions. The pictures are either selected or specially constructed to suggest achievement themes, afterwards, the stories are scored for achievement content.

Achievement was defined by McClelland as performing in terms of a standard of excellent or, simply as a desire to be successful.

Winterbottom (1953) measured the achievement motivation of a group of eight-year-old boys in a small mid-western community and related it to their mother's descriptions of their child-rearing practices. She found that the mothers of boys with high achievement motivation made demands for independence and mastery at an earlier age than did the mothers of the boys with low motivation for achievement. For instance, by the time the highly motivated boys had reached age seven, their mothers had begun demanding that they know
their way around the city, that they make their own friends, and that they do well in competition. These mothers made relatively few restrictions on the behaviour of the boys, but those they did make, they expected to be mastered at an early age. These mothers also evaluated their boys' accomplishments quite favourably and rewarded them with hugs and kisses. The mothers of the low motivation group, on the other hand, were more restrictive and did not encourage self-reliance, so that the boys remained more dependent on the family.

Need for achievement can presumably be aroused, but n-ach is not directly controlled in the way that hunger of thirst is. The procedures usually involve the selection of subjects who display different levels of n-ach in their fantasy stories and who are then tested in achievement situations. Such tasks as simple arithmetic problems are done more rapidly by individuals with a high level of n-ach (McClelland, 1955).

There are many factors influencing achievement striving, including child-rearing practices, self-expectations, and the idea of personal control vs. external control.

Among the questions asked by parents and educators, almost none is more frequently heard then, "what factors in
child-rearing encourage and discourage achievement striving in youngsters". A complex answer is suggested by a number of different correlational studies. Many parental attitudes and child rearing practices, including independence training (Winterbottom, 1953, Feld, 1959), rewarded of achievement efforts (Crandall, Preston, and Rabson, 1960), and encouragement and instigation of intellectual pursuits (Crandall, Katkovsky, and Preston, 1960b) are associated with achievement striving.

One of the important variables is need for affiliation which implies a strong need for intensive interaction with other in immediate, direct, personal relationships. It also means a capacity for warm personal contract and not being too anxiously concerned about other's opinion. In some cases the need for achievement and need for autonomy may lead the individual to quite opposite directions than the need for affiliation.

The affiliation motive is quite different from the achievement motive and to some extent diametrically opposed to it. A person motivated mainly by achievement may take important contributions to society, but he may not be the most comfortable person with whom to live. Other people are more concerned with human relationships. Achievement motivates individuals prefer to work with experts in order to get a task-finished. Those with a strong affiliation motive
prefer to work with friends or congenial even if the task suffers some what. Obviously, there is a basic difference here about that things are most important. Murray defined need for affiliation as a desire or tendency "to draw near and enjoyable cooperate or reciprocate with an allied other (an other who resembles the subject or who likes the subject). To please and win affection of a cathected object. To adhere and remain loyal to a friend". Essentially it refers to a desire to be with people in an affectionate and friendly relationships. For purposes of scoring TAT stories, the affiliation motive has been defined as a concern in one or more of the characters even establishing, maintaining, maintaining or restoring a positive affective relationship with another person. This relationship is most adequately described by the word 'friendship'. A scoring system analogous to that used for achievement motivation has been devised for affiliation. This includes expressing a desire for a friendly relationship, a fear of rejection, activities towards establishing a relationship and the attainment of a close relationship as a goal. Certain TAT pictures are better for getting affiliation stories than others.

Individuals vary in their need for affiliation. Some like 'lots of space', and some like to be surrounded by friends, Cultures, too, vary in the value they place on affiliation. American culture emphasizes personal
independence and self-reliance, but other cultures, such as the Japanese, emphasize group interdependence and team work (Pascale and Athos, 1981) with in the United States, man and women after differ in their willingness to express the need for affiliation. According to Gilligan (1982), many youngmen regard attachment as a source of danger and threat; many young women regard attachment, as a source of safety and intimacy.

When people have a great need for affiliation, we call them 'dependent' on others. In our society, dependence is almost a dirty word, but in Japan the need for dependence is assumed to be a powerful that Japanese has its own word for the motive, amaeru (Doi, 1973). In human development, people depend on each other for different things at different ages. A baby is totally dependent on its parents, but gradually develops the ability to act and think independently.

Affiliation and Achievement needs are not opposites any more than dependency needs and strivings for independence are opposites. Need for affiliation relate to needs at the fourth level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Needs to interact with others, to be part of a group, to give loyalty and support and receive them in return, and the like. The need for achievement is probably at the fifth level of these needs, being related to creativity and the drive to actualize
onself, it is thus possible to meet both of these needs that is, to maintain satisfactory group affiliation and at the same time to find self expression through achievement.

Indeed, one of the differences between the cultures of traditional and less productive societies and those of urbanized, industrialized and more productive societies is the relative importance assigned these two type of needs. Individual's in traditional societies are expected to give the highest priority to loyalty to the group (the family and/or the local community). Whereas strivings for achievement, particularly individual achievement, are regarded with suspicion and hostility. In urbanized, industrialized societies, families and loyalties are less kindling, and both individual achievement and group progress and fostered and encouraged. The first type of society emphasizes the need for affiliation and mutual-dependence, whereas the second type emphasizes the need for achievement and the attainment of independence.

In the Indian context, we do not have studies which could clarify the picture as to what is the child rearing practice in the Indian set up, whether it fosters independence and autonomy or it, emphasizes more on affiliative needs. "Autonomy" is the name, Angyal (1951, 1952) gave to the aspect of the organism's basic tendency to increase its control over its surroundings. This period
included cleanliness training, control of tantrums and moderation of incipient tendencies as the factor of autonomy. It is also related to the degree of physical, motor and language development during the second year. Autonomy also involves the capacity for both to become active in one's own behalf as well as to struggle against imposed conditions.

According to Murphy (1962) "Autonomy" can be described as "full initiative". Child goes where he or she pleases' "asserting his/her own thoughts feelings and setting limit to adults".

Murray (1938) defined need for autonomy as a desire or tendency "to get free, shake off restraint, break out of confinement. To resist coercion and restriction. To avoid or quite activities prescribed by domineering authorities. To be independent and free to act according to impulse. To be unattached, irresponsible. To defy convention".

Autonomous attitude is also shown in proud self-assertion, structuring a total situation in his own way, self-confidence, energy and forceful assertiveness.

Autonomous children have self-pride and self-confident, Schopenhaur (1942) makes the following statement:

"Pride is an established conviction of one's paramount worth in some particular respect, while vanity is the desire
of arousing such conviction in others. Pride works from within, it is the direct appreciation of one self, vanity is the desire to arrive at the appreciation, indirectly, from without”.

Freud (1957) emphasised ‘healthy narcissism’ as an aspect of healthy personality. This implied healthy self which does not have to be aggressively defensive as is expressed in Woodrow Wilson “too proud to fight”. Pride in this sense is related to a secure sense of self-worth which does not have to be defended except when it is genuinely in danger.

Helen Lynd (1958) points out the relationship between pride and shame, on the one hand, and the sense of identity, the undermining of the sense of identity which occurs when the child is shamed, humiliated, made to feel helpless, and the importance of supporting the kind of pride. We have just been discussing.

One of the focal points of conflict, when it does occur is the struggle on the part of young people for autonomy and independence. Dependence and independence do not exist as polar opposites; children may become independent in one area or in relation to some individuals but may increase their dependence other areas or in relation to other people. Complete independence is not possible and has been described,
in a memorable phrase, an "un unnamed from of insanity" (Dewy, 1920). Nevertheless, the desire of adolescents to run their own lives to decide what they will wear, where they will go, what activities they will engage in, what values they will adopt frequently runs counter to the established role of authority to which parents are accustomed.

Some parents tend, perhaps simply out of habit, not to want to relinquish decision-making power. Other recognise the need for autonomy for their offspring but are concerned with the speed and circumstances with which is occurs (Campbell, 1969).

That parents deal with the development of autonomy in very different ways. Permissive accepting parents tend to encourage independence, whereas restrictive accepting parents foster dependence, obedience, compliance, and politeness.

The patterns of child rearing influence both the intellective and non-intellective aspects of personality. It has been found e.g. that the emotional and intellectual stunting of children results from the conviction that parental authority to be maintained through harsh-punishment and suppression of self expression. Erikson (1959) identified the autonomy vs shame and doubt dimension of development. As the child's musculature develops further in his second year, he becomes more active in exploring the
world and in establishing his ability to act as an independent entity. He strives towards autonomous behaviour while at the same time he is pulled by his dependency needs. The stage, therefore, becomes decisive for the ratio between love and hate, for that between cooperation and willfulness, and for that between freedom of self-expression and its suppression. From a sense of self-control, without loss of self-esteem comes a lasting sense of autonomy and pride, from sense of muscular and anal impotence, or loss of self-control and parental over control comes a lasting sense of doubt and shame.

There are only few studies (Anton, 1981; Perry, et. al., 1985) on the relationship between the child-rearing practices and autonomy. Moreover, these studies provide inadequate information to have some definite conclusions to the development of autonomy as related with child-rearing practices.

There are many personality factors which are influenced on by child-rearing practices. Several studies (Sears, 1957; Deilman et. al., 1972; Baumrid, 1971; Barton et. al., 1977), pertaining to the parental attitudes towards the child-rearing demonstrate that the type of infant's care is related the emotional and intellectual stunting of children results from the conviction that parental authority be maintained.
through harsh punishment and suppression of self expression. Inner controls do not develop and poor verbal development is correlated with poor super ego development. Symonds (1939) was of the opinion that the quality of parent-child relationship in general, and the mother-child-relationship in particular, would play a crucial role in the overall personality development of the child.

Of growing interest to developmentalists as well as to our entire society, is the question of how children are affected by material employment outside of the home.

Several studies (McClelland, 1961; Kohan, 1960; Tulkin and Kagan, 1973; Bronfenbrenner, 1958) indicated that the middle class and working class children differ in the child-rearing practice. The studies agreed that working class and lower class consistently favor the use of physical punishment a dealing with discipline problems, whereas middle class parents make more use of reasoning appeals to guilt, and another techniques involving the withholding of love. The studies also showed that parent-child relationships in middle class homes are more likely to be based on equalitarian on democratic principles, whereas, those in working class and especially in lower class homes are oriented more towards maintaining order and exacting obedience.

The increasing rate of women's participation in works
outside their homes, presents further complications to the child rearing practices, eg. Pifer (1976) establishes the increasing number of women participating in the labour force and examines the new pressures on women workers and their families as a result of this trend. The clash of traditional mores and attitudes, which assign home making and child rearing responsibilities to wives, with increased labour force participation by women has placed an enormous physical and emotional burden on women workers with families. The absence of wives and mothers from the home during all or part of the day has also raised new demands on husbands, new needs related to the care of children, and new attitude towards work on the part of both husbands and wives.

Some studies show that working and non-working mothers differ in their child rearing practices (Juneja, 1979; Yarrow et. al., 1962). Working mother e.g. give strict toilet training as compared to non-working mothers. Children of working mothers are more independent, more adjusted, socialized and more well behaved as compared to children of non-working mothers. Working mothers exercise Mild discipline technique while non-working mothers, exercise moderate discipline techniques.

Bronfen Brener (1958) conducted a survey of research extending over twenty-five years old period. The studies agreed that working class and lower class consistently favou-
the use of physical punishment in dealing with discipline problems, whereas middle-class children of the working mothers get a better deal. They are treated with greater psychological understanding and respect for their individuality and often develop in a precocious manner. Home visits convey that children are accusing consciously or unconsciously their mothers on diverting time and attention to extraneous things such as her job the professional activities.

Non-working mother’s children were rather shy and withdrawn in the beginning of the visit. Children of mothers who are well educated and living in joint families, appear a bit insecure and unsettled. The latter children are akin to mothers who themselves are in transition. As opposed to this, the children of working mothers and those of 'less educated joint family mothers' appear less insecure. Most mothers were conscious of the lack of freedom and the presence of parental strictness that they experienced in their own childhood. Often, this consciousness led them to provide great freedom for their children and take unusual interest in their children's personal development. The highly educated mothers, i.e. those with graduate and post-graduate education of tended to attach greater importance to correct methods of child-rearing cultivation of individually, and the provision of an environmental freedom and
permissiveness; however, mothers who were relatively less educated, i.e. the under graduates (all of whom were housewives) emphasized, 'virtues' such as obedience, confirmity, respect, communal feelings, and so forth. In the highly educated mothers group, many of whose members resided with joint families, there was emphasis on 'cultural training', in which, in particular, there was strict control over aggressive and defiant behaviour directed elders and siblings. This may be partly explained by the great extent, on respectful and submissive behaviour of the younger family members towards the older members. However, it was found that less educated mothers tolerated aggressive behaviour which their children directed towards them, while the highly educated mothers, who advocated freedom and individual expression, tended to put abrupt controls on their children's aggressive behaviour directed toward themselves.

Pal and Sharma (1981) made a factor analytic study of mother child relation dimension of working house wives. He attempted to know the factor-analytic view of mother child relationship, taking eight bipolar dimension of working house wives. Results indicated that the three factor may be interpreted as "Positive Extensity Dimension" (I factor) "Faith-Oriented Preponderance Dimension" (II factor) and "Acceptance Approvation Dimension", of mother child relationships of working housewives. On the basis of mean
variations, it can be said that in working class families, children get sufficient magnitude of encouragement, democracy, acceptance and love from their mothers. Working mothers dominate their children and have also trust in them and that children get reward from their working mothers and their mothers sufficiently tolerate them. This study however, does not include a comparison of child-rearing practices of working and non-working mothers, the present study is a humble attempt in this direction.

In the knowledge of the present researcher a study on the relationship between need-autonomy, need-affiliation, and need-achievement and child-rearing practices of working and non-working mothers is not available particularly in the Indian context. The major objectives of the present study are the following:

1. To study the child-rearing practices of working and non-working mothers.
2. To study the effect of child-rearing practices on the development of autonomy, achievement and affiliation in children.
3. To compare the n-autonomy, n-achievement and n-affiliation of children of working mothers with children of non-working mothers.
4. To ascertain the influence of such socio-economic factors as income range and profession of mothers on the development of n-autonomy, n-affiliation and n-achievement in children.

5. To ascertain if there is any difference between child rearing practices of fathers and mothers and their impact on development of n-autonomy, n-affiliation and n-achievement in children.