DEVELOPMENTAL GOALS OF CHILDREN USED AS A BASIS FOR
A TEACHING GUIDE IN A PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP
COURSE FOR THE STUDENTS OF THE COLLEGE OF
HOME ECONOMICS IN
DACCA, PAKISTAN

By

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Master of Arts

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1958

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of
the Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE
May, 1962

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study deals with the discovery and use of developmental
goals of children in the preparation of a "study guide" to be used
for a teaching guide in a parent-child relationship course for the
students of the College of Home Economics in Dacca, Pakistan.

Importance of the Study

The impetus for this study lies in the changing political
conditions in Pakistan, which have brought tremendous changes in
educational belief and system.

History shows that change in a political system is followed
by changes in ways of educational processes. This is because a
political system is dependent upon an educational system to provide
for the basic communication of knowledge which can serve as
intelligence and skills for those who participate within that system.
This relation between a political system and education has been
aptly stated by Ostrom (50) in these words:

Education and politics comprise two different sets of related
activities associated with men's quest for learning. Education is
specialized to the organization and communication of learning as
knowledge; politics is specialized to the use of learning and
knowledge as intelligence for the control of affairs in order to
realize the conditions of a better life. (p. 20)

Nowhere is this as true as in Pakistan today. With the
introduction of "basic democracies" in Pakistan, a new step has been

1

taken to make education a means for a better and happier life.

Educationists in Pakistan no longer place all the emphasis on the

"three R's", but they also hope to make education a means for the

"development of personality" and "character formation". The emphasis

on this aspect of education is because the development of the basic

perspective of democracy and citizenship is closely related to character

formation and to the development of such traits as honesty, responsi-

bility, and capacity for leadership.

The importance of education in the achievement of these traits

has been emphasized again and again by the Commission on National

Education. (29)

According to the Commission,

The basic element in the personality of the individual is his
character in the broad sense; i.e., truthfulness, honesty, and
integrity, sense of duty, sincerity of purpose, justice and fair
play, disciplined behavior and above all fellow-feeling and the
spirit of service above self. The upbringing and education of a
child should aim at developing these traits in him, so that thinking
and acting according to these precepts may become spontaneous and
natural to him. (p. 230)

This approach to education has increased the significance of the

"hands that rock the cradle", and has added to the importance of

family life in the development of the child who will be the worthy

citizen of tomorrow. The Commission on National Education (29), while

pointing out the importance of home experience, says,

We must realize that a school is essentially a community within a
community, and that it is the total impact of the larger community
that is the ultimate determinant of a child's character. Secondly,
the home environment and the conduct of parents, and of the
community members affect the child in various tangible and in-
tangible ways, and make an impression on him which is difficult to
undo later. (p. 230)

In the light of experimental research done in the United States

and other western countries, it has become an established fact that

early parental-child relationships exerts an important influence on

the child's later life.

Ribble (54), on the basis of observation of 600 infants over a long period of time, found that the child's physical and psychological welfare is dependent upon good mothering. She maintains that adequate maternal care fosters nervous integration energy for mental growth, and feeling of well being and a sense of security in the child.

Spitz (60) believes that,

Regularity in the emergence of emotional response, and subsequently of developmental progress both physical and mental, is predicted on adequate mother-child relations. Inappropriate mother-child relations (as in the foundling home) resulted regularly either in the absence of developmental progress, emotional or otherwise, or in paradoxical responses. (p. 150)

Goldfrab (26) focused his attention on later development of children who experienced impersonal infant care. He found that behavior problems such as overt expression of anxiety, aggression, and emotional impoverishment were much more frequent among the institutionally reared than among the foster home children where more personal care was given.

Levy (41) affirms that the most potent of all influences on social behavior is derived from the social experience of the mother.

Peterson et. al. (52) assessed differences between paternal attitudes in two groups of families, one in which the children display certain adjustment problems, and another in which they do not. He found that parents of children with adjustment difficulties were less well adjusted, and sociable, less democratic, and experienced more disciplinary contention than the parents of children with no manifest problems.

The importance of happy and warm family life in the development of personality has also been recognized by many authors. Warnath (68) found that positive impressions on one's peers is related to experiences of positive or negative acceptance within the family. Stott (63) reported

that a child's personality suffered from insecurity and a lack of feeling of identification with a group from being subjected to an unsettled family situation.

On the face of these overwhelming proofs of influence of inter-personal relationship on child development, it becomes the duty of every parent, and especially the future mother that she should develop an understanding of the growth process of the children and their emotional and social needs.

Parentcraft, however, like other branches of knowledge needs to be learned since research discounts the belief that there is a so-called "parental instinct". Becoming a good parent requires learning and experience. The author of this study guide, therefore, feels that it should be the objective of the educator in general, and specifically that of the teacher of family relations, to instruct Pakistani parents in the developmental attitudes and practices of child rearing. In order to accomplish this task effectively, the author has developed the teaching material presented in this study guide, and which she hopes, will help her in teaching certain aspects of parent-child relationship to her students--the future mothers of the nation.

Description of the Problem

The study is concerned with the use of developmental goals in developing a study guide for a parent-child relationship unit. This may be considered as the major problem. This problem presented two tasks: (1) to find a comprehensive theory of personality development and corresponding principles of guidance; and (2) to use this material for developing a parent-child relationship unit of instruction.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of the study are several and are stated as follows:

1. To discover through exploring literature and research data on the personality development of children a basic personality theory that might apply to children in Pakistan;

2. To find reliable facts and principles of personality development to support this chosen theory;

3. To use the developmental task concept defined in child development literature, to relate these to the personality theory selected in number one above;

4. To determine the applicability of this theory in Pakistani culture;

5. To find out the readiness of young men and women of Pakistan for parent education;

6. To formulate some child-rearing principles of guidance which parents may use to help children reach their personality goals;

7. To develop, on the basis of these personality goals of children, a study guide on child rearing for students in the College of Home Economics in Dacca, East Pakistan.

Limitations of the Study

Findings of the study are limited to what can be found in scientific literature and research in the United States concerning theories of personality development and the developmental task concept.

Materials developed for teaching are applicable only to the students of the College of Home Economics, Dacca, and their families. (However, they may be general enough in nature to apply to a larger population of Pakistani families who belong to a similar strata of society.)

The sample on which the questionnaire data was based is a biased sample of the population in Pakistan. Having studied in the United States, these young people may be inclined toward greater permissiveness than would be found among college students in Pakistan.

CHAPTER II

PROCEDURE

Brief Account of the Problems and the Methods Used to Meet Them

As stated before, the author's primary purpose in this study is to use the developmental goals of children as a basis for a teaching guide in a parent-child relationship course.

On the very outset of this study, the author was confronted with some problems which had to be solved before the study guide was developed. The problems and how they were dealt with are summarized in the following lines.

Selection of the developmental goals which should be achieved by the child for the development of well-balanced personality was considered by the author to be the first problem. Through library research, she selected the eight developmental goals described by Erikson in relation to eight stages of personality development.

The second task was to find experimental data which would throw light on Erikson's concepts, because a theory can be considered scientific only when it is supported by research. The writer made a review of available literature, and research pertinent to Erikson's theory were summarized.

Next, the author had to find out the tasks which a child should fulcill to accomplish the developmental goals of each stage of life. The author analyzed the developmental tasks described by Havighurst (32),

Duvall (11), and other writers to determine if the tasks described
by these authors can be useful in achieving the developmental goals
stated by Erikson. Finally, the developmental tasks pertinent to
Pakistani culture were selected and listed.

The next step was to find out how parents can help children in
fulfilling their developmental tasks, and whether the developmental
tasks of children and parents can be integrated. The author did
further library research and prepared a summary of developmental
tasks of parents, along with those of the children.

Two more problems evolved at this stage. First, are the selected
goals and developmental tasks applicable to child development in
Pakistan? And; second, are the young men and women of Pakistan ready
to depart from traditional child rearing and accept the guidance
principle evolved to achieve the developmental goals of children?

In an attempt to solve the first problem, the author reviewed the
literature in child development written in Pakistan. To deal with the
second problem, she prepared an opinion questionnaire which was applied
on Pakistani men and women students studying at Oklahoma State
University. The analyzed data depicted the sample's attitude towards
traditional and developmental parenthood.

On the basis of review of literature and findings of the
questionnaire, the writer decided that there are some universal
human needs which have to be satisfied for physical and emotional well
being of the individual. Each stage of life has a specific need which
has to be accomplished. Satisfaction of these needs is the develop-
mental goals of the human life. To accomplish these goals the
individual should fulfill certain tasks which can be termed the
developmental tasks.

The author also concluded that most of the developmental tasks described by Havighurst, Duvall, and other writers are applicable to Pakistani culture also. She found that the guidance principle evolved around these developmental tasks can be used in teaching a parent-child relationship course in Pakistan.

The author finally developed the objectives for the study guide. On the basis of these objectives and the selected research, the author was able to develop teaching material for a course unit of parent-child relationship.

Procedure in Detail

The Preliminary Research

Selection of personality theory and developmental tasks.

In carrying out this study, the first task of the author was to select a comprehensive theory of personality development which is widely known and has some professional support. The author, on the basis of library research, selected Erikson's theory of the eight stages of personality development. This theory was selected for various reasons. First, although to a certain extent it is related to Freudian concept of personality development, it admits to a broader base of forces on the person; i.e., it takes into account the bio-physical, as well as the socio-cultural factors that are important in the development of a healthy, well-balanced personality. There are also ample research which supports Erikson's hypothesis about the human needs, and the relation of the satisfaction of these needs to personality development. These experimental supports gave credence to the reliability of Erikson's theory, and encouraged the author to choose

developmental goals to be used as the basis for this study guide.

In the Chapter III of this study guide the author has discussed the personality theory propounded by Erikson and has also compared it with Freud's theory of the psychodynamics of personality. This was done because the former has based his theory on Freudian concept of "need", "conflict" and "fixation," and has also borrowed heavily from Freud's writings.

The author, after discussing the above mentioned theories of personality, prepared a summary of research findings, which are pertinent to Erikson's theory, and add support to the reliability of his proposition. This summary of the research findings related to the experiences of the stages of growth and their effect on personality development is also presented in Chapter III of this study guide.

The second task confronting the author, after selecting the developmental goal for each stage of growth, was to find out how these goals are achieved. In other words, what are the tasks and acts of both the child and the parents which help in the successful achievement of these goals?

The author while reviewing the literature in child development had come across the "developmental task concept" presented first by Havighurst, and later developed by Duvall and other writers. The developmental task concept was propounded by Havighurst at about the same time that Erikson developed his theory about the developmental goals of children. The author concluded that the developmental task described by Havighurst might function as the means of achieving the developmental goals stated by Erikson, and that both the theories can be integrated to achieve the same end; viz., the development of a

healthy personality. With the above mentioned concept in mind, the author analyzed the developmental tasks as described by Havighurst (32), Duvall (11), and other writers. She listed the developmental task of each stage of life, and finally selected those tasks which could be related to the eight developmental goals stated by Erikson.

The next problem was to find the means through which these developmental tasks could be accomplished. She reviewed the literature on developmental tasks and found that (1) accomplishment of these tasks was an individual responsibility, and (2) was dependent on the inner urge and growth process of the individual. Parents and other important persons could, however, help the child by providing adequate opportunity and emotional support. The author then tried to determine the acts of the parents that will help the child, also to find out whether the developmental tasks of children and parents could be integrated. She studied the parental development task described by Duvall and attempted to relate it with the developmental task of children. The list of the developmental tasks of children and parents are given in the Appendix A A of this study guide.

The selected developmental tasks and a short history of the origin of developmental task concept and the relation of developmental tasks to the growth of personality are presented in Chapter III.

As mentioned in the preceding part of this chapter, the author was confronted with a most important problem. Since this study guide is prepared for the Pakistani students who have a different cultural background, the author wanted to be sure that the developmental goals she has selected will be applicable to Pakistani culture as well. She tried to find books which deal with problems of child

development in Pakistan. She also wanted to know whether the Pakistani parents are traditional or developmental in their child-rearing practices. The author could find only one relevant book, Growing Up in Pakistan by Smitter and Dar. (59) The author was thus forced to make judgment on the findings indicated in this book, and on her own experience while she was in Pakistan. A summary of the findings of Smitter and Dar are given in Chapter III.

The author found that traditional child rearing practices exist in a majority of the families. The author, however, felt that the traditional parenthood was not conducive to healthy personality development, and the Pakistani parents need to be educated in developmental parenthood practices so that they can give needed help to the children in achieving the developmental goals, and in accomplishing a well-balanced personality.

This decision led to another problem: are Pakistani young men and women ready to depart from the traditional method of parenthood and to accept a method of guidance and child rearing that is instrumental to the achievement of developmental goals of children? To determine the degree of readiness, the author prepared an opinion questionnaire as an instrument of measuring the sample's attitude toward traditional and developmental parenthood. The description of the questionnaire is given in the next section of this chapter.

Measure of Readiness for Parent Education

This section deals with the preparation of the questionnaire which was used on a sample of Pakistani students.

The aim of the author in preparation and application of this questionnaire was (1) to determine the attitudes of the Pakistani young men and women toward traditional and developmental child rearing practices, and (2) to measure the readiness of the sample for parent education in developmental methods of child rearing.

The questionnaire was based on the classification of traditional and developmental parenthood, stated by Duvall, and Elder (11, p. 48-49). This classification is presented in the appendix of this study guide.

In summary, according to these authors, the "traditional" conception of a good child is that he keeps clean, obeys parents, pleases adults, respects property, works well, and fits into the family program. A good child from the "developmental" viewpoint, on the other hand, is one who is healthy and well; is cooperative, happy and contented; loves and confides in parents; is eager to learn; and grows as a person.

There is also a sharp contrast in the concept of a "good mother" from the traditional and developmental viewpoint". A "good mother" according to "traditional" points of view, is one who keeps house; is responsible for the physical care of the child; trains child in regularity; disciplines him; and makes the child "good".

A "developmental mother", on the other hand, trains the child for self reliance, sees to emotional well being, provides for the child's physical, as well as social and mental growth, guides him with understanding and helps the child to grow according to his inner urge.

The conception about the "traditional father" is likewise in sharp contrast with that of the "developmental father". A "traditional

father" is authoritarian, firm, sets rules for the child, and determines the attitude and interest which the child should develop.

Father, according to "developmental concept," is understanding, considers child as an individual, is interested in the child's activities, and helps him to achieve the developmental goals.

In brief, traditional parents emphasize habit formation and discipline, and they also set limits for the child's activities and force him to obey the authority blindly. The developmental parents also discipline the child, but through understanding his needs, and by providing opportunities which will help the child express himself and learn what is best for him.

Description of questionnaire.

The questionnaire was prepared in three parts. The first part consisted of forty-two questions. Half of the questions depicted the behavior pattern of the parents characterized as traditional. The other half of the questions were related to behavior patterns of developmental patterns.

The questions were focused on the acts of parents in relation to giving love and affection to the child, providing opportunity for independence, toilet training, helping the child in assuming responsibility, and understanding him as an individual in his own right.

The pattern of the first part of the questionnaire was as follows:

SA – A – D – SD. Even though they may make mistakes, children, as they mature, should be allowed to make many of their own decisions.

The initials are interpreted in the following way:

SA – Strongly agree
A – Agree
D – Disagree
SD – Strongly disagree.

The sample was asked to place a circle around the initials according to the nature of agreement or disagreement with the given question.

SA was scored as +2 and A as +1; SD on the other hand was scored as -2 and D as -1.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of one question. The question was based on Jahoda's (15, p. 95) definition of healthy personality. Erikson has also taken this definition as the criteria of a well-balanced personality. The developmental goals described by him are the means condusive towards attaining this end. The author wished to see if the Pakistani men and women agree with this definition, since their nature of agreement or disagreement with the statement would again throw light on their attitudes towards developmental concepts of personality growth.

The statement was divided into three sentences and each part was preceded by initials A - DA as follows:

A-DA: A person who can actively master his environment. The sample was requested to encircle A or DA as he liked. No score was given for this part of the questionnaire. The "S"[1] was then asked to state the <u>kind</u> <u>of</u> <u>parenthood</u> that he thought was condusive towards achieving this type of personality. The description given by the "S" again revealed his attitude towards the type of parenthood mentioned above.

The third part of the questionnaire was set up to gain further knowledge about the "S's" expectation towards children, because a traditional parent always has some expectation from the child in return for his love, while the affection of a developmental parent towards the child is unconditional.

[1]"S" = Subject.

Sample used for questionnaire data.

The sample was composed of 32 male and 10 female Pakistani students studying at Oklahoma State University. The age range of the sample was between 20-35 years. Academically they ranged from junior to graduate students.

The sample consisted of students both from West and East parts of Pakistan, and all of them belonged to Muslim faith. According to social strata they ranged from upper middle to high level.

Pretest and use of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was tested on a sample of 15 students before it was used on the actual sample. This was done in order to check the practicality of the questionnaire and to eliminate the difficulty of interpretation of language, or the meaning of the question.

The sample used for the pretest consisted of male Muslim students from India. They belonged to approximately the same cultural background and social strata as that of the actual sample. The sample for the pretest and actual test were matched in religion, age, and educational level.

The questionnaire was applied in a group situation. The "S" of the first sample were seated comfortably. The author read the direction given on top of the questionnaire. After that she read the questions, explaining those which the "S" were not able to understand. No time limit was given.

The questionnaire was given in the same way to the other group designated as the experimental group. The questionnaires were collected and tabulated.

The questionnaire sheets given to the girls were analyzed separately to find the difference in the opinion of male and female students.

Treatment and interpretation of data from questionnaire.

The author scored and tabulated each question of the questionnaire to determine the number of plus and minus scores of each "S". The number of plus scores were added. The difference in the plus and minus scores was calculated.

After tabulating each sheet, the author determined the range for traditional and developmental scores with the developmental scores designated as plus. The scores were arranged on a continum from lowest minus score to highest plus score. The table shows that the range of the scores was from -6 to +45 for the men "S", and +30 to +60 for the girls. This revealed that the majority of the sample had developmental attitudes toward child rearing. (See Table I)

TABLE I

SCORES ON PARENTAL BELIEF QUESTIONNAIRE AS CHECKED BY
PAKISTANI MEN AND WOMEN STUDENTS

Subjects	No.	Range of Scores	Mean	Median
Men Students	32	-7 to +45 t = 52 points	14.21	13.5
Women Students	10	+9 to +60 t = 69 points	37.2	37.5

The author next prepared the mean score for the male and female samples. The mean score for the male sample was 14.21; for the female sample the mean was 37.2. The mean score is presented in bargraphs in Table II.

The third step was to prepare Median for the male and female samples. The Median for the male sample was 13.5 in comparison to 37.5 for the female sample. The Median score for the sample is also given

in Table II.

TABLE II

BAR GRAPH OF MEANS SCORES AND MEDIAN SCORES
ON PARENTAL BELIEF QUESTIONNAIRE
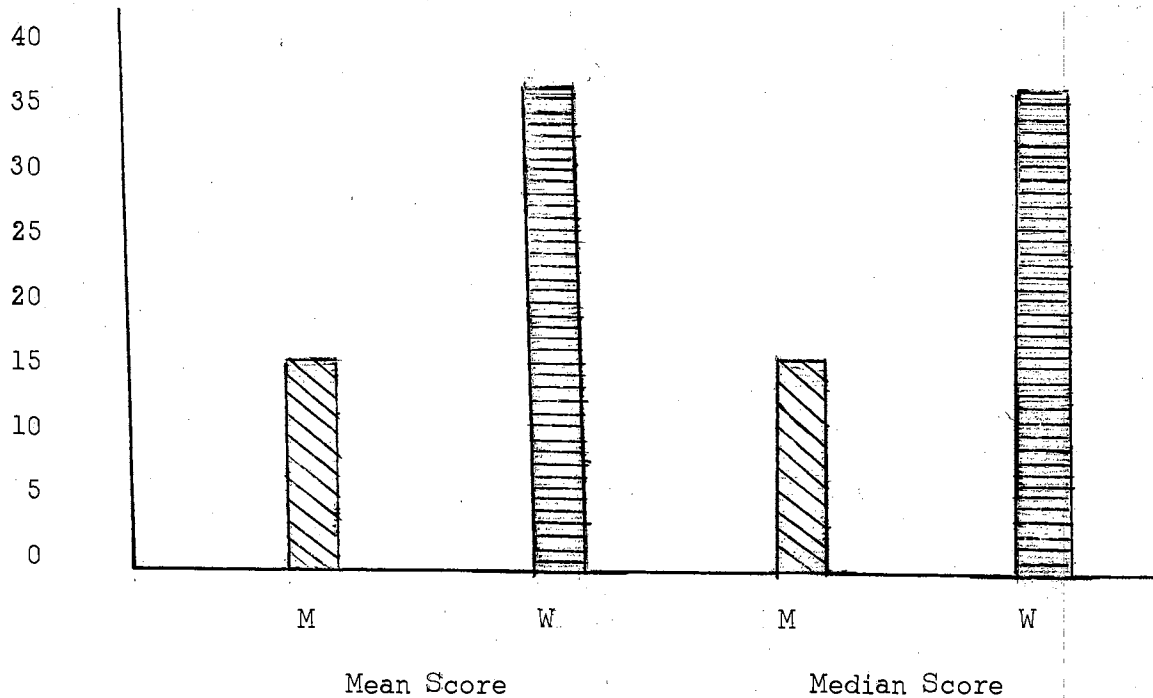
KEY: M = Men
      W = Women

After scoring and tabulating part I of the questionnaire, the author

analyzed the free responses in part II to see if the responses were

consistent with the statements checked in part I. In other words, the

author wanted to know if the subjects were aware of the guidance

principles that foster healthy personality development in children.

Generally speaking the free responses corresponded with the beliefs

checked in part I. However, some discrepancy arose in relation to

beliefs regarding giving independence to children, their right to make

decisions on family problems, and giving unconditional love to children.

In short, the entire sample agreed with the definition of healthy

personality given as the criteria. With regard to the question as to

how the sample thought this type of personality could be achieved, the author found that the sample was not very clear on this point. Some of them said "by proper training", others marked few of the developmental statements given in the first part of the questionnaire.

Analysis of the part III of the questionnaire revealed that the sample was traditional in the degree to which they said that they wanted children to carry on the name of the family. Some thought that the main purpose of having children was to spread religion. There were only a few (mostly girls) who said that they wanted children for the enjoyment and happiness that they brought.

Interpretation of data.

Analysis of part I of the questionnaire revealed that the sample was predominantly developmental in its attitude toward child rearing. This is indicated by the range of traditional and developmental scores for the sample. The highest developmental score for the male sample was +45 in comparison to -7 for the highest traditional score.

That the women students were more developmental than the men was indicated by their scores. The highest developmental score for this group was +60 in comparison to nill for the traditional scores.

The difference in the mean and median score of men and women students also showed that women were more developmental than the men.

This difference of opinion may be because all women students in the sample had taken some courses in child development and were influenced by the views of modern psychologists.

Analysis of part II of the questionnaire reveals that the sample, in spite of agreeing with the developmental definition of healthy personality, did not know how to achieve this end. They did not seem to have much of an idea of the developmental goals, or the developmental

tasks which are conducive towards the achievement of well-balanced personality.

Analysis of part III of the questionnaire likewise revealed that the sample did not understand the significance of unconditional love, or the enjoyment of children as individuals in their own right.

Summary statement in relation to interpretation of data.

Both men and women students were developmental in their approach toward child rearing. Women were more developmental than the men. The sample, in spite of being developmental, was unaware of the means which can help in achieving a personality that is well balanced from a developmental viewpoint. Also, they did not realize the significance of unconditional love in the development of children.

On the basis of the review of the literature, and interpretation of the questionnaire, the author made the following conclusions:

1. There are some basic components of personality which are interdependent upon each other. In a well-balanced personality these components are present in an integrated form. Disintegration of these components leads to maladjustment and emotional disturbance.

2. These components are the developmental goals which the child has to achieve if he is to develop a healthy personality.

3. The eight developmental goals related to eight stages of growth as described by Erikson are applicable to Pakistani people as they are to people in the United States.

4. These developmental goals or basic needs of children as they grow are similar in Pakistan to those of the children in the United States.

5. Pakistani youth are departing from the traditional attitude of child rearing that was characteristic of older generations.

6. The young men and women of the sample are more developmental in their attitude toward child rearing in comparison to most of the Pakistani parents.

7. These young men and women, however, need further guidance in parenthood.

8. The findings of research in the United States can be used to develop teaching materials for parenthood education in Pakistan.

Development of the Study Guide

The study guide was based on the developmental goals described by Erikson. Teaching materials were developed for two introductory objectives and in relation to the first five developmental goals; viz., basic trust, autonomy, initiative, industry, and identity.

The procedure used in developing the teaching outline was as follows:

1. Development of the objectives or major goals in preparing the teaching material together with the sub-objectives for each major goal.

2. Expected outcomes of the teaching developed from the sub-objectives.

3. List of problems that might arise in teaching the specific area.

4. Stating generalizations based on the problems.

5. Development of methods of teaching for the specific problems.

6. Description of teaching aids.

Developing the objectives.

The writer based her objectives in relation to the developmental goals that should be achieved by the child. The aim was to give the future mothers the opportunity to understand the specific needs of the child, and how she can help the child in achieving this: For example, the major developmental goal of the toddler is the development of autonomy. Hence the objective of teaching about autonomy is to help the parent "understand the significance of adequate parenting for the development of autonomy in toddler and pre-school child."

There were seven objectives, five pertaining to the five developmental goals based on Erikson's theory of personality, and two related to the introduction of the unit. These are:

1. To gain some understanding of, and to come to appreciate individual differences in children.

2. To achieve an understanding of the developmental goals, and their relation to healthy personality.

3. To examine the developmental goal and tasks of the first stage of growth, and the corresponding guidance to help the child achieve a sense of basic trust.

4. To understand the significance of adequate parenting for the development of autonomy in toddler and pre-school child.

5. To understand the role of parents in the development of initiative in the young children.

6. To recognize the need of industry of the school-age child, and the importance of providing opportunity for the development of this need.

7. To gain some understanding and competence in guidance for parenting during the adolescent stage.

After setting up the objectives the author defined the sub-objectives and the expected outcomes from the teaching. The problems pertaining to teaching the sub-objectives were formulated next. Because the sub-objectives are directed toward helping the child achieve the developmental tasks, the sub-objectives and developmental tasks of children were placed parallel in the study guide.

The generalizations were developed in relation to the problems. These generalizations were based on the guidance principles stated by Waring (67) and are presented in the review of literature.

The next step after setting up the generalizations was to decide upon the learning experiences that the teacher should use for this purpose.

Finally resource materials were collected and recorded. The form of the study guide is presented in Figure I.

FIGURE I

FORM FOR STUDY GUIDE

OBJECTIVE: _____

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Learning Aids

CHAPTER III

SELECTION AND JUSTIFICATION OF PERSONALITY THEORY
APPLICABLE TO PAKISTANI CULTURE

Erikson's Theory of Personality

This part of the study guide deals with Erikson's concept of
personality and its steps of development. Erikson, though belonging to
that group of psychologists who emphasize social factors, is basically
influenced by Freud. While working within the psycholoanalytic frame-
work, he attempts to apply insights gained from cultural anthropology.
In fact, Freud's concept of conflict and fixation are the pillars on
which Erikson's theory rests. One significant difference between the
two above mentioned psychologists, however, is the latter's emphasis on
social and cultural factors.

Since Erikson has borrowed heavily from Freud, it is advisable to
give a brief summary of Freud's concepts about personality development
at this point.

Freud (23) explained personality in terms of the dynamic of life
energy called the libido (or life force). According to him, every
individual is born with a primitive instinctual force which needs
expression. Satisfaction of these instinctual needs creates a feeling
of well being and "pleasure" and leads to adjustment. On the other
hand if the needs are not satisfied, they in their own turn create
frustration, conflict, anxiety, and lead to the development of psycho-
logical barriers and defense mechanisms. Human behavior is thus the
means through which the needs are to be satisfied. Personality, he

24

thought, developed in response to four major sources of tension: (1) physiological growth process, (2) frustrations, (3) conflicts, (4) threats. As a direct consequence of increases in tension emanating from these sources, the person is forced to learn new methods of reducing tension. It is this learning which Freud takes in terms of personality development.

It can be quite aptly said that Freud was the first psychological theorist who emphasized the developmental aspects of personality, and in particular to stress the decisive role of the early years of infancy and childhood. He believed that the child passes through a series of dynamically differentiated stages during the first five years of life, after which, for a period of five or six years called the period of latency, the dynamics become more or less stabilized. With the advent of adolescence, the dynamics erupt again and then gradually settle down as the adolescent moves into adulthood.

Each stage of development during the first five years is defined in terms of the modes of reaction of a particular zone of the body. During the first stage (birth to about one year) the mouth is the principal region of dynamic activity. The oral stage is followed by the development of "cathexes" and "anticathexes" around the functions of elimination, and is called the "anal stage". This lasts during the second year and is succeeded by the "phallic" stage in which the sex organs become the leading erogenous zone. These three stages, the oral, anal, and phallic, are called the pregenital stages, and are followed by a period of quiet years called the "latency period". During this period the impulses tend to be held in a state of repression. The dynamic resurgence of adolescence reactivates the pregenital impulses; if these are successfully displaced and sublimated by the ego the person passes into the final stage of maturity; the

the genital stage. Freud (22) explained personality types in terms of frustration or overindulgence of Id needs. "Trauma" experienced in relation with oral gratification, for example, led to the development of such traits as ambivalence, suspicion, aggression, and hoarding. Over indulgence of oral need on the other hand led to optimism and dependency. Fixation at the anal stage resulting from severity of toilet training produced the traits of parsimony, stinginess, and compulsive orderliness, while traumatic experience and anxiety at the phallic stage led to neurosis and psychosomatic illnesses. Freud thus concluded that each trait in the personality makeup can be accounted for in terms of fixation at the various stages of psychosexual development.

Erikson develops his theory of personality development on similar lines. The basic urge behind personality development according to Erikson is biological needs which emerge in a hierarchy, but in relation to a "ground plan" of development. He thus accepts the biological basis of personality.

The Freudian concept of frustration and conflict has also been accepted by Erikson. He believes that the inner urge in child leads him to activity. These activities may however lead to dangerous consequences; hence social and cultural forces put restriction on the behavior of child. Thus the basic urges of the child maybe in conflict with the cultural factors and may lead to frustration and later to inhibition of these urges.

According to Erikson, if the conflict at any stage of development is not solved, then that stage becomes a weak point in the personality growth to which the individual may regress at the time of stress.

The basic difference between the theories of Freud and Erikson is the latter's emphasis on social and cultural forces. Personality

according to Erikson (15) is not only an expression of <u>Id</u> needs as Freud thought, rather it is a resultant of the interaction of biological needs and social factors inherent in the cultural environment of the individual. In every culture he believes there are conflicts to be faced at each of the different stages through which an individual goes in the course of socialization. As each conflict is resolved satisfactorily, a new quality is incorporated into the ego (the core of personality). If a particular conflict is unsatisfactorily resolved, specific damage to the ego results.

In this respect Erikson sides with new Freudian writers like Fromm, Horney and Sullivan, who measure personality development in the total cultural and social context.

Fromm, (25) for example, is convinced of the validity of the following proposition: (1) Man has an essential inborn nature--the need to belong to nature and man. (2) Society is created by man in order to fulfill this essential nature. (3) No society which has yet been devised meets the basic needs of man's existence, and (4) it is possible to create such a society. According to Fromm a society should be one,

in which man relates to man lovingly--in which he is rooted in bonds of brotherliness and solidarity. . . .; a society which gives him the possibility of transcending nature by creating rather than by destroying, in which everyone gains a sense of self by experiencing himself as the subject of his powers rather than by conformity. (26, p. 362)

This is what Fromm calls a "Humanistic Communitarian Society" in which everyone would have equal opportunity to become fully human.

Horney's (33) primary concept is that of basic anxiety, which is defined as,

the feeling a child has of being isolated and helpless in a potentially hostile world. A wide range of adverse factors in the environment can produce this insecurity in a child: direct or indirect domination, indifference, erratic behavior, lack of respect for the child's individual

need, lack of real guidance, disparaging attitudes, too much admiration or absence of it, lack of reliable warmth, having to take sides in parental disagreements, too much or too little responsibility, over-protection, isolation from other children, injustice, discrimination, unkept promises, hostile atmosphere and so on and so on. (33, p. 41)

The insecure child develops various strategies by which to cope with his feelings of isolation and helplessness. (33) He may become hostile, or submissive, or he may develop an unrealistic, idealized picture of himself. In short the personality of the child is not a resultant of biological drives and its frustration, rather it develops in response to various strategies developed in relation to social forces. Any one of the above mentioned strategies may become a more or less permanent fixture in the personality, and may assume the character of a drive or need in the personality dynamics.

Another great advocator of social impact on personality is Sullivan (64) who insists repeatedly that personality is a purely hypothetical entity which cannot be observed or studied apart from interpersonal situation. According to him,

The unit of study is the interpersonal situation and not the person. The organization of personality consists of the interpersonal events rather than intrapsychic ones. (59, p. 137)

Erikson, like Fromm, Horney, and Sullivan, is a great advocater of the importance of social forces. The child, according to Erikson, basically needs the love and appreciation of the parents and important persons. The conflict is always in relation to some social force; repression occurs "in order to please someone", and sublimation is always in accordance with social and cultural taboos and customs. Parent, sibling, peer groups and teachers are as important in shaping the personality of the individual as the satisfaction or frustration of biological needs.

The impact of social forces is depicted by Erikson on a chart

which is presented in Figure II. This diagram shows the important
persons in the individual's life, who can mould and shape the
individual's personality at that particular stage.

Erikson's Theory of Personality Development

After dealing with the background of Erikson's theory and its
relation to the concepts of Freud, Fromm, Horney, and Sullivan, the
author now deals with Erikson's theory in detail.

According to Erikson (15) the core of the personality is ego
development, for he sees the acquiring of ego identity as an important
developmental goal. A strong and healthy ego identity is acquired only
as the child receives wholehearted and consistent recognition of
accomplishment that has meaning in his culture. This support and the
attitude toward children differ from culture to culture; hence personality
can be understood only against the background of cultural pattern.
Erikson does not conceive personality in an abstract sense. For him,
personality is the thinking, feeling, acting human being, who for the
most part conceives of himself as an individual, separate from the
individuals, but who, at the same time is aware of the existence of other
individuals and views himself in relation to them; that is why mode of
behaving and criteria of normal personality differ from culture to culture.
Still there are certain essentials of normal personality which are
recognized in all cultures. It is only these common forces and their
impact on individuals in which Erikson is interested.

A healthy personality, which Erikson takes as a criteria and
which can be considered normal in all culture is one who "actively
masters his environment, shows a certain unity of personality and is
able to perceive the world and himself correctly." (15, p. 95) This

FIGURE II

STAGES OF GROWTH AND SIGNIFICANT PERSONS IN EACH STAGE

A. Stages		B. Criteria of the Healthy Personality							C. Social Radius
I.	Oral & Sensory	Trust Versus Mistrust							Mother
II.	Muscular & Anal		Autonomy Versus Shame & Doubt						Mother Father
III.	Locomotor & Infantile Genital		Doubt	Initiative Versus Guilt					Parents Siblings Group Play
IV.	Latency				Industry Versus Inferiority				School Masters Teacher, Etc.
V.	Puberty & Adolescence					Identity Versus Diffusion			Clique Social Prototype
VI.	Young Adulthood						Intimacy Versus Isolation		Two Sexes
VII.	Adulthood							Generativity Versus self-Absorption	Community
VIII.	Maturity								Integrity Versus Despair / Society

Adapted from: Erikson's The Healthy Personality (15).

mature personality with the capacity to perceive, to reason out, and to solve problems, with the ability to manipulate the environment, and a power to adjust to it, however, is a resultant of continuous changes and growth. Personality develops and changes throughout life in accordance with a pattern that is set biologically for the human species and culturally for the group to which he belongs, in accordance with many particular circumstances. In spite of this docility from an early age, perhaps even from birth, there is a continuity in the individual behavior. Physical and intellectual factors set limits to variation. Responses to new situations are in part conditioned by past experiences, and the individual's conception of himself is always colored by how others perceive him. His behavior from the very beginning is related to two forces--internal physical and external cultural or social forces. A wise parent and teacher should, therefore, always consider both the factors in order to develop a physically and mentally well-balanced child, because from the very birth these two factors are continually impinging upon the child and shaping his growth.

To explain his theory, Erikson borrows heavily from physiologists, especially from Stockard (62), when he describes personality in terms of Epigenetic principles.

This principle in general indicates that anything that grows has a "ground plan", and out of this ground plan the parts arise; each part having its time of special ascendency until all parts have arisen to form a functional whole. In the growth of the organism in a mother's womb, each organ has its specific time of origin. Erikson especially emphasizes this aspect of development when he calls our attention to the point by quoting Stockard (62),

In this sequence of development each organ has its time of origin. This time factor is as important as the place of origin. If the eye,

for example, does not arise at the appointed time, it will never be able to express itself fully, since the moment for the rapid outgrowth of some other part will have arrived, and this will tend to dominate the less active region and suppress the belated tendency for eye expression. (14, p. 61-62)

The organ which misses its time of ascendency is not only doomed as an entity, but it endangers the whole hierarchy of organs at the same time.

Not only does the arrest of a rapidly budding part, therefore, tend to suppress its development temporarily, but the premature loss of supremacy to some other organ renders it impossible for the suppressed part to come again into dominance so that it is permanently modified . . . . (Ibid, p. 61-62)

The result of normal development is proper relationship of size and function among the body organs. Through arrested development one or more organs may become disproportionally small; this upsets functional harmony and produces a defective organism.

According to Erikson, the Epigenetic principle is as applicable to personality development as it is to physical growth. The three factors applicable to personality development are as follows:

1. The ground plan for personality development determined and limited by genetic conditions and cultural forces;

2. Time of origin, which is not only important in the case of development of biological organs, but also for the development of personality traits and dissolution of conflicts, and

3. Interrelatedness of sequence of development.

These three factors are detrimental not only before birth but after birth as well, because the whole development of individuals—physiological and psychological—is a series of interrelated stages. Each stage is influenced by previous stages, and in its turn sets a limit to the development and harmony to be achieved in later stages. As Erikson pointed out, however, the most important determining factor before birth is the genetic and chemical condition of the womb, and the necessary factor to keep the fetes alive is the nutritive condition.

Once the baby is born, he is swarmed by a host of forces--physical,

psychological, social, and cultural--which set limits to the capacities

and mold his entire pattern of personality development. The effect of

cultural forces has been vividly described by Erikson. (15) He says,

At birth the baby leaves the chemical exchange of the womb for the social
exchange system of his society. Where his gradually increasing capacities
meet the opportunities and limitations of his culture . . . the healthy
child given a reasonable amount of guidance, can be trusted to obey inner
laws of development, laws which now create a succession of potentialities
for significant interaction with those who tend him. Such interaction
varies from culture to culture, but it must essentially consider the
proper rate and the proper sequence which governs the growth of a
personality as that of an organism. (15, p. 92)

It is quite clear that personality cannot be understood only in

terms of either biological organism, or cultural pressure, or the

experiences of the individual. In order to understand personality and

to develop a healthy personality, one must take a three-dimensional

approach to it, considering all the factors which have their

influence on personality in the making. Cultural and social forces no

doubt assume a dominating role side by side with the genetic factors;

the latter, however, has a life-long influence. The laws of physical

development are highly important in personality growth, because, as

Erikson pointed out,

Such development foloows the successive level of the organism's
readiness to interact with the opportunities offered in the environment.
The personality, therefore, can be said to grow according to steps
predetermined in the human organism's readiness to be aware of, and to
interact with a widening social radius, beginning with the dim image
of a mother and ending with a mankind, or at any rate that segment of
mankind that counts in the particular individual's life. (15, p. 98)

Thus, in spite of all the facilities for growth provided in a

given culture, the learning will depend on the readiness of the

individual. Hence at all levels of development the organism's readiness

to learn should be considered.

FIGURE III

THE GROWTH SPIRAL AND RELATED GOALS

Adulthood . . . . Generativity

Young Adulthood . . . . Intimacy

Adolescence . . . . Identity

Later Childhood . . . . Industry

Middle Childhood . . . .

Initiative

Early Childhood . . . .

Toddlerhood . . . . Autonomy

Infancy . . . . Basic Trust
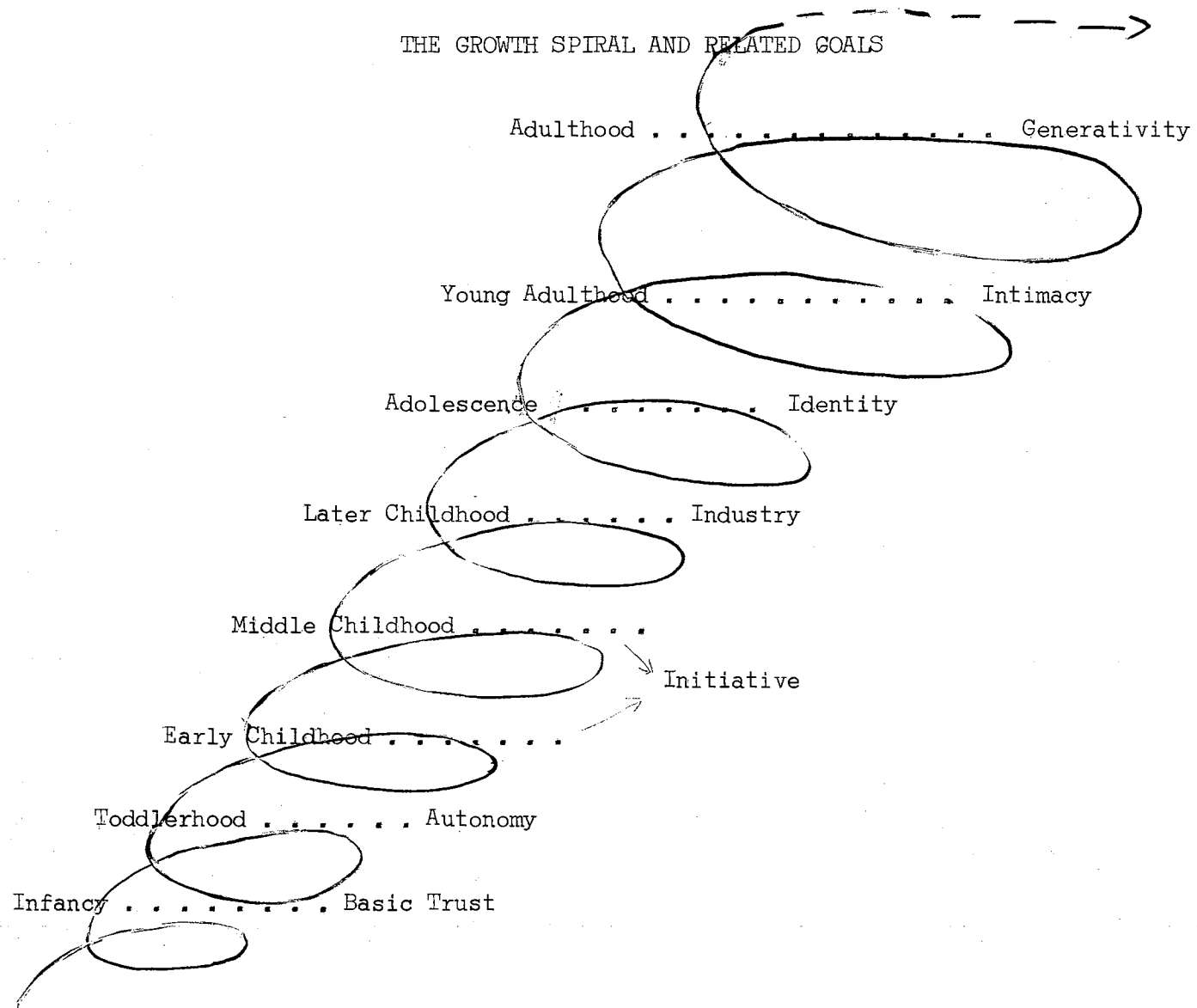
Adapted from Arnold Gesell's <u>Child</u> <u>From</u> <u>Five</u> <u>to</u> <u>Ten</u>.

34a

Stages in personality growth.

After discussing the principle of personality development, we come

to the stages in the development of personality. According to Erikson,

from birth to death there are eight stages in the personality development.

Each stage is named after the major conflict which occurs at this stage

and which has to be dissolved in order to continue the normal process of

personality growth. One point however should be borne in mind; the

stages of personality development do not stand in a vacuum; each part

is interrelated to the other, being influenced by the former stage and

setting a limit to the next one. (Figure III) As Erikson points out

Each item of healthy personality to be discussed is systematically
related to all others and that they all depend on the proper development
at the proper time of each item; each item exists in some form before
'its' decisive and critical time normally arrives . . . a baby may show
something like autonomy' from the beginning; however, under normal
conditions it is not until the second year that he begins to experience
the whole conflict between being an autonomous creature and being a
dependent one; and it is not until then that he is ready for a
decisive encounter with his environment. (15, p. 99-100)

It is in this encounter and the resulting conflict that each stage

becomes a crisis, because incipient growth in a particular part makes

an individual particularly vulnerable in that part and liable to

regression at the stage. In other words, if a given conflict is not

solved at its proper time there will always exist a stress-point in

the personality structure of the individual. In future life, whenever

there is a problem situation or a stressing condition, the individual

may regress to that stage of arrested development.

As Erikson has described there are eight stages of development. The

first stage of personality development begins at birth and continues

until about the age of eighteen months. The marked conflict at this

stage is between basic trust and mistrust, and the developmental task to

be achieved is the development of trust in one's own capacities and confidence

in the world around.

I. <u>The</u> <u>Sense</u> <u>of</u> <u>Trust</u> <u>Versus</u> <u>Mistrust</u>. The sense of trust is
the foundation for all the developmental tasks to be achieved in later
life. This is the first component of healthy personality, and the
crucial time for its origin is the first year of life. Basic trust in
its essence is the entire attitude of the individual toward himself and
the world derived from the experience of the first year of life. In
simple words it is a feeling of well being, an inner satisfaction that
everything is good and the world is friendly, To quote Erikson (15),
it is a "reasonable trustfulness as far as others are concerned and a
simple sense of trustworthiness as far as oneself is concerned." (15,
p. 101) This basic trust is a resultant of all the child's satisfying
experiences at the early stage of his life.

Trust can exist only in relation to something. The primitive origin
of a sense of trust probably lies in the satisfaction of basic needs.
However, a clearer sense of trust cannot develop until the infant is
old enough to be aware of objects and persons, and to have some feeling
that he is separate from other individuals. Erikson believes that
experiences connected with feeding are a prime source for the development
of trust. At around four months of age a hungry baby will grow quite
and show signs of pleasure at the sound of an approaching footstep,
anticipating that he will be held and fed. Anticipation, in other words,
is trust that all will go well. This repeated experience of being hungry,
seeing food, receiving food, feeling relieved and comforted assures the
baby that the world is a dependable place.

Later experience, starting at around five months of age add another
dimension to the sense of trust. Through endless repetitions of attempts
to grasp for and hold objects, the baby is finally successful in

controlling and adapting his movement in such a way as to reach his
goal. Through the gradual mastery of muscular coordination the baby
is gradually able to trust his own body, and thereby complimenting the
first feeling of well being which has been created by the appropriate
satisfaction of his needs.

The conflict at this stage, as Erikson points out, is one between
feelings of trust and mistrust. The feeling of mistrust, in contrast
to basic trust, is that of uneasiness, insecurity, and suspicion. It
is an outgrowth of the hostile or neglectful attitude of the people
with which the child comes in contact. The firm establishment of
enduring patterns for the solution of the nuclear conflict of basic
trust versus basic mistrust is the first task of the ego. If this
conflict is not properly resolved the unconscious residue of these
feelings may persist and become an integral part of personality in
such a way that little more than a particular glow remains visible.
This crisis in childhood and the resulting impairment in adulthood,
however, is easily traceable in stress situations and mental illness.

In psychopathology the absence of basic trust can be expressed
in adult personality of schizoid and depressive character. Erikson
also refers to psychiatric literature in which we find frequent refer-
ence to an oral character. This, according to Erikson, is

characterological derivation based on the unsolved conflicts of this
stage and which expresses itself in more or less pathological and
irrational ways of approaching the world (either too pessimistically
or too optimistically). . . Wherever oral pessimism becomes dominant
and exclusive, infantile fear, such as that of 'being left empty' or
simply of 'being left,' and also of being 'starved of stimulation'
may result in the depressive forms of being empty and of 'being no
good'. Such fears give rise to what is called 'oral sadism', while
the oral optimistic character is one who has learned to make giving
and receiving the most important thing in life. (15, p. 106)

Clinical study reveals that such a person lacks the basic trust, and

their restoration to health depends on the establishment of basic
trust. Hence as parents and teachers, the most important job in
child guidance is the development of trust and confidence in the
child. In fact, the role of adequate mothering has been emphasized
by Erikson at many times.

The first step that a mother can take in development of basic
trust in the child is sensitive care of babies' individual needs,
thus making him feel that everything is "all right". She can also
create in the child a sense of personal trustworthiness by providing
opportunity in which the child feels satisfied with his efforts and
finally by encouraging the child with love and appreciation. One
important point stressed by Erikson, however, is that the amount of
trust derived from earliest infantile experience does not depend
absolutely on "quantities of food or demonstrations of love, but
rather on the quality of the maternal relationship". In other words,
it is not only the satisfaction of need that is important, but also
the way the need is met and satisfied. In fact, the latter is more
important for the development of basic trust.

II. Autonomy Versus Doubt and Shame. The sense of trust having
been firmly established, the struggle for the next component of the
healthy personality begins. The child at this stage is twelve to
eighteen months old. Much of his energy for the next two years centers
around asserting that he is a separate being with a mind and will of
his own. The basic conflict at this stage is between dependence and
independence, and the developmental task to be achieved is the sense that
he is an independent human being and yet one who is able to use the
help and guidance of others in important matters.

This step of development is decisive in determining the ratio

between love and hate, between cooperation and willfulness, and between

freedom of self expression and its renunciations in the personality

structure of the individual. The favorable outcome is self-control

without loss of self-esteem. The unfavorable outcome is a lasting

sense of doubt in oneself, lack of self-assurance, and an accompanying

sense of shame.

As with the previous stage, there is a physiological basis for the

the characteristic behavior at this stage too. This is the period of

anal muscular maturation, and the consequent ability to co-ordinate

many conflicting capabilities. The child at this stage experiences two

simultaneous sets of social modalities--to hold and to let go, to walk,

and to manipulate objects in ever more complicated ways. With the

growing realization of these capacities, the child wants to use them

and to test them. This spirit of testing is voiced in the insistent

"me do" that defies help but is at the same time easily frustrated by

the inabilities of the hands and feet. However if not adequately

dissolved, the conflict between the desire to hold on and to let go can

lead in the end to either hostile or benign expectations and attitudes.

Thus as Erikson has pointed out,

Thus to hold can become a destructive and cruel retaining or restraining,
and it can become a pattern of care: to have and to hold. To let go
too, can turn into an inimical letting loose of destructive forces, or
it can become a relaxed 'to let pass' and 'to let be'. Culturally
speaking, these attitudes are neither good nor bad; their value depends
on whether their hostile implications are turned against an enemy, or
a fellow man, or against the self. (15, p. 113)

These hostile tendencies when turned to the "self" are supposed by

Erikson to be more dangerous, for this may serve the nucleus for the

development of compulsion in the later life. Hostility directed

towards others has its own dangers too, for it may become the basis

of racial prejudice and bitterness towards others which is often

manifested in wars and mass scale massacres.

For a child to develop the sense of self reliance and adequacy that Erikson calls "autonomy", it is necessary that he experience gradually and frequently the feeling that he is a person who is permitted to make the choices that he is ready to make, and yet learns to accept and tolerate restrictions where necessary. The mother should recognize that the child's "no" to all her orders is not an obstinate defiance, but response to an inner urge to test his growing capacities. It is only through gradual trial and error that he will understand that there are innumerable items of behavior that arouse approval or forceful disapproval in the adults and which should be avoided. Outer control at this stage, therefore, must be "firmly reassuring." As Erikson has pointed out, encouragement rather than punishment, permissiveness rather than rigidity are the tools to be used at this period. The child must come to feel that,

The basic faith in existance, which is the lasting treasure saved from from the rages of the oral stage, will not be jeopardized by this about-face of his, this sudden violent wish to have a choice, to appropriate demandingly, and to eliminate stubbornly. (44, p. 215)

Permissiveness however does not imply an absence of all restriction. On the contrary, it means firm limits which should be maintained in order to protect the child against the potential danger resulting from his yet untrained sense of discrimination, and his inability to hold and to let go with discretion.

Erikson feels that the two great dangers which may poison the entire personality of the child are the experience of shame and doubt. Shame and doubt are emotions that many parents and teachers utilize in training children. Shaming exploits the child's sense of being small. When used to excess it may lead to shamelessness, or at least, to the child's secret determination to do as he pleases when not

observed. Young delinquents may be produced by this means, and others
who are oblivious to the opinion of society. Parents and teachers
should therefore avoid shaming the child senselessly and avoid causing
him to doubt his personal worth. They should be lovingly firm but
consistently tolerant with him so that he can rejoice in being a person
of independence, and at the same time respect the rules and restrictions
that are vital for his well being as well as for the well being of others.

III. <u>Initiative Versus Guilt</u>. This stage, according to Erikson,
is that of development of interest in things around. Having become
sure, for the time being, that he is a person in his own right and
having enjoyed that feeling for a year or so, the child of four or five
wants to find out what he can do. During this period parents are the
most marvelous persons for the child, and any adult with unusual and
interesting activity may become the child's center of attention.
During this period, he observes with keen attention the activities of
adults, tries to immitate their behavior, and yearns for a share in
their activity.

This is a period of enterprise and imagination; a creative period
when play and fantasy substitute for literal execution of desires, and
the meagerest equipment provides material for high imagining. It is a
period of vigorous learning. Goaded by innate curiosity, the child
wants to manipulate, to explore, and to conquer everything with which
he comes in contact. This curiosity is evident in the persistant
questioning, and the repetitive play which is so marked at this stage.

The basic source of conflict at this stage is infantile genitality--
a pleasure in manipulating genital organs, also a desire to replace the
father and possess the mother. This stage is also marked by
enjoyment of competition, insistence on goal, and pleasure of conquest.
In the boy the emphasis remains on 'making' by head-on attack; in the

girl it sooner or later changes to 'making' by making herself attractive and endearing. The child thus develops the prerequisites for masculine and feminine initiative, that is, for the selection of social goals and perseverence in approaching them. (p. 123)

The danger of this stage as described by Erikson is a sense of guilt over the goals contemplated and the acts initiated in one's exuberant enjoyment of new locomotor and mental powers. The feeling of guilt may occur not only on acts which are really performed, but often even on imaginary acts and wishes, which the child feels may provoke anger on the part of the parents and bring loss to his organ. This stage as named by Freud was the stage of Oedipus complex, the legendary attachment of the child to the mother, and the unconscious desire to do away with the father and possess the mother. Thus father is conceived as a potential rival, but one who has supreme power and strength, and the inevitable failure in the contest for a favored position with the mother leads to resignation, guilt and anxiety, and finally to the repression of the desire, because for the fear of losing the genital organ as a punishment for the fantasies attached to their excitement. Failing in the attempt to replace the father, the child now tries to identify with the parents and incorporate the standards and modes of their behavior. This is the first step in the formation of super ego.

The problem to be worked out in this stage of development as Erikson says is the encouragement of learning, without too great a sense of inhibiting guilt. The fortunate outcome of the struggle is a sense of initiative, delineated by conscience. Failure to win through to that outcome leaves the personality overburdened, and possibly overrestricted by guilt. According to Erikson, at this stage the child's developing sense of initiative may be very easily discouraged. So many projects dreamed up at this age are of a kind which cannot be permitted. In addition, he finds that many of the projects are

impossible to execute, and that others, even if not forbidden, fail to win the approval of the adults. Moreover, since he does not always distinguish clearly between actuality and fantasy, his over zealous conscience may disapprove of even imaginary deeds. For healthy personality development it is very important that much encouragement be given to the child's show of enterprise and imagination and that punishment be kept for things that actually matter. As Erikson pointed out, boys and girls at this stage are extraordinarily appreciative of any convincing promise that someday they will be able to do things as well, or maybe better, than father and mother. They enjoy competition, and they get great pleasure from conquest. Wholesome competition, therefore, is the best source of developing the feeling of initiative. If enterprise and imagination are too greatly curbed, if severe rebukes and frequent denial of permission to carry out things are common, the result will be an over-constricted personality, misfit to take any initiative in life, and devoid of any interest in achievement. Even the super ego which has developed as a result of too severe discipline will be primitive, cruel, and uncompromising--a rigid super ego which always will load the ego with feeling of guilt and remorse. What models of behavior the parents show at this stage are also very important. If the parents do not live up to the standards they preach, the child will develop a super ego which is very severe and restrictive and there will always remain in the child's personality a conflict between the

hate for the parent who served as the model and the executor of the conscience, but who was found trying to 'get away with' the very transgression which the child can no longer tolerate in himself. (15, p. 125)

In pathological cases, the conflict over initiative is expressed either in hysterical denial which causes the repression of the wish,

or in over compensation. According to Erikson, all these symptoms indicate a weakness in underlying trust which makes autonomy bothersome and facilitates a partial regression to the stage of weak homeostasis.

IV. <u>Industry</u> <u>Versus</u> <u>Inferiority</u>. The three stages so far described are probably the most important for healthy personality development along with a sense of trust, a sense of autonomy, and a sense of initiative achieved. In addition, caution, self control, and conscience progress through the later stages is fairly well assured. Development during the first five years of life was first stressed by Freud. Observations of this sort seem to support Freud's theory and his conclusion that personality is pretty well set by six years of age. Erikson also gives more emphasis on development during the three stages described above, i.e., on the first six years of life.

The fourth stage of personality development begins somewhere around six years of age and extends over five or six years and has as its achievement what Erikson calls the "sense of industry". In simple words, the sense of industry means a sense of duty and accomplishment. This stage is the period during which preoccupation with fantasy subsides, and the child wants to be engaged in real tasks that he can accomplish.

In contrast to the preceding stage which are remarkable for violent conflict, this stage under reasonably favorable circumstances is a period of calm steady growth, especially if the conflicts of previous stages have been properly resolved. Despite its calm character this is a very important period, for in this is laid a firm basis for responsible citizenship. It is during this period that children acquire not only knowledge and skills that make for good workmanship, but also the ability to cooperate and play fair and otherwise follow

the rules of the larger social radius.

The chief danger of this period is the presence of conditions that may lead to the development of a sense of inadequacy and inferiority. This may be more acute if the child has not yet achieved a sense of initiative, or if his experiences at home have not prepared him for entering school happily, or if he finds school a place where his accomplishments are disregarded. Even with a good sense of basic trust, autonomy and initiative achieved, the child may lapse into discouragement and lack of interest if at home or school his individual needs are overlooked. It is important for the growth of healthy personality, therefore, that school be conducted well, that method and courses of instruction be such as will give every child the feeling of successful accomplishment.

Many acts of juvenile delinquency, as pointed out by Erikson, are the result of the need to get recognition. These delinquents are often the boys who were considered worthless, stupid, and were neglected. Children need and want real achievement. How to help them secure it, despite difference in native capacity and difference in emotional development, is one of the school's most serious challenges and can be faced only with the help of the parents and teachers who are kind, understanding, and firm.

V. Identity Versus Role Diffusion. With the onset of adolescence another period of personality development begins. Adolescence, as described by psychologists, is a period of "storm and stress". Rapid physiological changes occur in the body, limbs shoot up, glands begin to secrete and the result is a growing confusion, turmoil and indecision in adjusting to these bodily changes and to the changing social expectations.

The problem of the period is the establishment of what

Erikson calls a sense of identity.

The growing and developing youths, faced with this physiological
revolution within them, are now primarily concerned with what
they appear to be in the eyes of others as compared with what
they feel they are, and with the question of how to connect the
roles and skills cultivated earlier with the occupational proto-
types of the day. (44, p. 217)

The adolescent thus seeks to clarify who he is and what his role
in society is to be. He wants to understand whether he is a child or
an adult. What is he to be as a worker and an earner of money? What
is his duty going to be as a husband or a wife? These and many other
similar questions keep the adolescent occupied. Sometimes it is a
morbid preoccupation. Confused with the changes occuring in him, the
adolescent may become suspicious of even his best wishes and appoint
perfectly well-meaning people the roles of enemies.

In some primitive societies, adolescents are supported by rituals
in this period of doubt and indecision. Such ceremonies according to
Erikson serve to reassure the youth that the universe is trustworthy
and stable and that a way of life is clearly laid out. However, in
most of the modern complex societies there is no such ritual which can
support the youth emotionally and psychologically. Criteria of
maturity differs from community to community and even from family to
family. Due to recurring changes in social pattern roles are not
clearly defined and expectations diffused, hence the great task in
developing a healthy personality at this stage is to give a sympathetic
and straightforward guidance. A clear-cut definition of responsibility,
acceptance of the adolescent as an "individual in his own right" with
a grown-up status in the family will certainly help the adolescent.

If the urge for acceptance is not satisfied, the adolescent may
try to find comfort through similarity, and may become stereotyped
in behavior and ideals. They form cliques for self protestion, and

they fasten on petty similarities of dress and gesture to assure
themselves that they are really somebody. In these cliques they may
be intolerant and even cruel toward those they label as "different".

As Erikson has pointed out, the danger of this stage is role
diffusion. This is usually the result of the adolescent's doubt about
his sexual identity. Psychotic and delinquent acts at this stage
occur not only in response to the adolescent's need to conform with
the group to which he belongs, but also as a result of unclear sexual
identity.

VI. <u>Intimacy Versus Isolation</u>. The sixth stage of personality
development is marked by conflict between intimacy and isolation, and
the developmental task at this stage is to achieve a sense of intimacy--
intimacy with persons of the same sex or of the opposite sex or with
oneself. The fullest realization of this sense is assumed to be achieved
in marriage.

VII. <u>Generativity Versus Stagnation</u>. The seventh stage of
personality development has its conflict between generativity as defined
by Erikson implies "parental sense". It is indicated most clearly by
interest in producing and caring for children. The essential element
is the desire to nourish and nurture in its essence what has been
produced. It is the ability to regard one's children as a trust of the
community rather than as extension of one's own personality. Failure to
develop this obsessive need for company, ego extension, and self absorption.

VIII. <u>Ego Integrity Versus Despair</u>. The final component of the
healthy personality is the sense of integrity. In every culture the
dominant ideal-honor, courage, faith, duty, purity, grace, fairness,
self-discipline, whatever they may be-become at this stage the core

of the healthy personality's integration. The individual, who has
achieved integrity thus becomes able to accept his individual life
cycle and the people who have become significant to it as meaningful
within the segment of history in which he lives. To quote Erikson's
description of integrity:

This means a new and different love of one's parents, free of the
wish that they should have been different, and an acceptance of
the fact that one's life is one's own responsibility. It is a
sense of comradeship with men and women of distant times and
of different pursuits, who have created orders and objects and
sayings conveying human dignity and love. Although aware of the
relativity of all the various life styles which have given meaning
to human striving, the possessor of integrity is ready to defend
the dignity of his own life style against all physical and
economic threats. For he knows that an individual life is the
accidental coincidence of but one life cycle with but one segment
of history, and that for him, all human integrity stands or falls
with the one style of integrity of which he partakes. (15, p. 143)

The adult who lacks integrity in this sense is likely to wish
that he could live the entire life again. He feels that if he had
made different decisions he would have been a different person. He
fears death and cannot accept his one and only life cycle as his
chance to meet the ultimate goal of life. The outcome of lack of
integrity is the experience of disgust and despair. Despair expresses
the feeling that time is too short and he cannot try another method.
Disgust is a means of hiding the despair, a chronic, contemptuous
displeasure with the way life is run.

According to Erikson, even in adulthood a reasonably healthy
personality is sometimes secured in spite of previous misfortunes in
the developmental sequences. Even late in life the individual may
arrive at a true sense of who he is and what he has to do and may be
able to win through to a feeling of intimacy with others and to joy in
producing and giving.

For the healthy personality development of children and youth, it

is necessary that a large proportion of adults attain a sense of integrity to a considerable degree. Not only parents, but all who deal with children have need of this quality if they are to help children maintain the feeling that the universe is dependable and trustworthy.

Interrelationship of the stages of growth.

In the above paragraphs the stages of personality development have been discussed. These stages however are interrelated. Erikson gives great emphasis to the interrelatedness of these stages. Figure IV (p. 49) as presented by Erikson gives a vivid idea of the relationship that exists between the stages. Here for the sake of simplicity only three stages are presented.

The relationship between stages of growth has been emphasized by Erikson throughout his discussion of personality development. The diagram presented in the figure is an adaptation of Erikson's version. It is clear from this diagram that:

1. Each item of the healthy personality is systematically related to all the others;

2. Each item exists in some form before "its" decisive and critical time normally arrives,

In fact, of this interrelationship we cannot say that this or that stage of development is particularly detrimental for healthy personality growth. Each phase is influenced by a previous stage and in its turn can affect the later growth. For example, a baby may show something similar to autonomy from the beginning, as seen in the particular way in which he angrily tries to wiggle his head free when tightly held. Under normal conditions, however, it is not until the second year that he begins to experience the whole conflict of being

FIGURE IV

INTERRELATIONSHIP OF DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES

First Stage	BASIC TRUST	EARLIER FORM OF AUTONOMY	EARLIER FORM OF INITIATIVE
Second Stage About Second and Third Year	LATER FORM OF BASIC TRUST	AUTONOMY	EARLIER FORM OF INITIATIVE
Third Stage About Fourth and Fifth Year	LATER FORM OF BASIC TRUST	LATER FORM OF AUTONOMY	INITIATIVE

an "autonomous creature and a dependent one." If this conflict between

dependence and autonomy, for example, is not resolved at this stage, it

will not only impair the already developed sense of basic trust and

make the baby feel that the world is not so friendly as he thought,

but it will also hinder the development of initiative in the following

stage.

This brings us to three questions. Is conflict avoidable? Does the

healthy personality have no conflicts within him, and should the personality

personality have no conflicts with social reality? The answer is "no."

Conflict is inevitable and unavoidable. To quote Erikson, personality

and human growth should be seen,

from the point of view of the conflicts, inner and outer, which the
healthy personality weathers, emerging and reemerging with an
increased sense of inner unity, with an increase of good judgment,
and an increase in the capacity 'to do well'--according to the
standards of those who are 'significant to him.' (15, p. 95)

Life is such that frustration is inevitable. Guided by instinctual

impulses, the child tries to manipulate what he can and to test what

comes in his way. Restrictions then are necessary to protect the

child from the potential danger inherent in manipulating harmful

things. Restriction again is necessary to discipline the child, to

socialize him, and to mold his growing personality in a way that is

acceptable to the social and cultural forces. Through gradual

experience the child learns what he should do and what he should not

do. This learning is a trial and error process, and as the character-

istic of this learning the child has to face many defeats and many

frustrations, but he can overcome these problems if the adults in his

environments are kind and understanding; if they are not too demanding

and are capable of recognizing the child's inner needs and are willing

to give him appreciation when he needs it. In fact, a healthy

personality as Erikson said is one who faces the pertinent conflict

of the period and comes out successfully through it. Each time

incorporating a new quality in the ego, which later adds to the

"sturdiness" of the personality structure.

Summary. Erikson's approach towards the study of personality is

bio-social; i.e., he believes that the biological and social factor

both equally affect the development of the individual.

Personality develops and changes throughout life in accordance

with a pattern that is set biologically for the human species, and

culturally for the group to which he belongs.

The adult personality is a result of continuous change and growth.

It grows through eight stages of life. Each stage is named after the

conflict the individual has to face at this period. The conflict

arises as a result of friction between the inner urge and environmental

forces. If the conflict is not resolved, a crippled and inhibited

personality emerges, this being the result of "fixation" at the

particular stage when the conflict occurred.

The eight stages of growth have as their goals the development

of basic trust, autonomy, initiative, industry, identity, intimacy,

generativity, and integrity. The stages of growth, however, are

interdependent, and may undo the balanced growth of the preceding

period or hamper the growth in a later period.

Conflict is a natural outcome of growth, and the child is bound

to face frustrations. The child learns through trial and error, each

time incorporating in his personality a new experience. Restrictions

are necessary for the safety of the child, too much restriction, or

shaming may however injure the confidence of the child and lead to

emotional disturbance. Parents, teachers, friends—the most important

persons in the child's life can help the child in solving the conflicts

by being loving, understanding, and considerate, and by providing

harmonious situations where the child can learn without doing undue

injury to his physical or mental health and well being.

Investigation of Research Finding
Related to Erikson's Theory

Having summarized Erikson's theory of personality development in

the previous part of this chapter, the author now attempts to

summarize some of the studies made in the field of personality dynamics

which are relevant to Erikdon's personality theory. The research in

relation to various stages of growth are presented in the following

part of this chapter.

Research related to development in infancy.

The stage of infancy, according to Erikson, is from birth to about

eighteen months. The developmental goal of this stage is basic trust,

and the important person at this period of life is the mother. The

experience that the child has in relation to feeding and satisfaction

of his physical need of hunger and comfort, as well as the emotional

need of love and affection, mold his personality at this stage.

As has been stated before, according to Erikson, the first

experience that determines the development of basic trust is the way

the child is fed and handled. The important role of adequate mothering

has been emphasized many times by Erikson. While describing the first

component of healthy personality; viz., the development of basic trust,

Erikson (15) writes

the firm establishment of enduring patterns for the solution of
the nuclear conflict of basic trust versus basic mistrust is
the first task of the ego, and therefore first of all a task for
maternal care. But it must be said here that the amount of trust
derived from earliest infantile experience does not seem to
depend on absolute quantities of food or demonstration of love,
but rather on the quality of the maternal relationship. Mothers
can create a sense of trust in their children by that kind of
administration which in its quality combines sensitive care of the
baby's individual needs and a firm sense of personal trustworthi-
ness within the trusted framework of their community's life style.
(This forms the basis in the child for a sense of identity which

will later combine a sense of being 'all right' of being oneself, and of becoming what other people trust one will become.) (15, p. 107)

The importance of maternal care has been justified by many other experimenters also. Levy (38), on the basis of his research findings concluded that it was generally accepted that the most potent of all influences on social behavior is derived from the social experience of the mother.

Many other experimental findings also support Erikson's theoretical postulate of the mother-child relationship. These experiments in general can be classified as (1) experience related to feeding and weaning, and (2) effect of deprivation of psychological mothering.

The studies dealing with the consequence of variation in feeding practices on the child's personality and behavior may again be divided into several groups; viz., those dealing with specific behavior, such as thumbsucking and nail biting; (2) those dealing with general adjustment. and (3) those dealing specifically with the so-called oral personality traits. A host of experiments on all of these can be quoted. However in the following paragraphs some of the pertinent studies have been presented.

The pioneer study dealing with thumbsucking related to feeding experience was done by Levy. (43) He obtained information about the infantile feeding experience and thumbsucking of 122 children by interviewing their mothers. Out of the total group 28 or 25.4 percent had done some thumbsucking. None of 20 children who were allowed to use apcifiers became thumbsuckers. Analysis of the background data revealed that, as infants, the finger suckers had less opportunities than other children for adequate sucking-drive reduction; e.g., they had fewer, more widely separated and briefer nursing periods. Hence the author concluded that there is a "definite relation between

oral deprivation in infancy and subsequent thumbsucking."

In order to study this problem experimentally, Levy (42) divided a litter of six puppies into three pairs, having different amounts of sucking experience. One pair, the long feeders, was fed with a bottle with a small-holed nipple and allowed unrestricted opportunity to suck on a nipple covered finger after each meal. The second pair, short feeders, was fed with a large holed nipple and had no additional sucking experience. The third pair was left with the mother and breast fed. During the twenty days of the experiment the long feeders sucked for an average of more than an hour a day, while the short feeders spent only about twenty minutes a day in feeding activities. Between meals the latter pair chewed and sucked at each other's bodoes and at a proffered finger more frequently than the long feeders did. The breast-fed puppies showed no interest in non-nutritional sucking.

A similar study was made by Roberts. (55) He compared 15 thumb-suckers with 15 non-thumbsucking children. The majority of a group of the thumbsuckers had been allowed feeding periods averaging less than 70 minutes per day for the first seven or eight months of their lives. All 15 of the control group were fed for at least 90 minutes a day during this period. Results showed that there were less thumb-suckers in the control group and more among the children who averaged more than 130 minutes.

On the basis of the above data it can be concluded that there is evidently some relationship between the kind of feeding experience and a sense of security. Since thumbsucking has been said to be a sign of insecurity as manifested by nervous children, so it can be said that the thumbsuckers as in the case of children, and body suckers as in the case of puppies, lacked the sense of security which is an essential

component of basic trust. They needed not only the satisfaction of hunger but also the oral satisfaction of tactual contact of mother's nipple and the warmth of her body, and lack of it produced the feeling of insecurity. Hence it can be said that a sense of satisfaction from having the sucking and feeding need met probably contributes to the child's sense of security which in effect is conducive to a basic trust of those who feed him.

On the basis of these considerations stated above we would expect the general quality of early mother-child relationship to exert an important influence on the child's later adjustment. The presence of mother, the warmth of her body, the soft fondling of the baby by her, all add to the strength of basic trust and well being; hence deprivation of adequate mothering may lead to disasterous effects on personality development. The relation between adequate mothering and personality development has also been tested experimentally.

One of the outstanding advocates of "adequate mothering" treatment, Margaret Ribble, says,

the psychological care of the infant is fully as important for his emotional, intellectual and social development as is careful feeding for adequate nutrition and food digestive functioning. (54)

Ribble observed 600 infants over a long period of time, focusing her attention on the nature of infant-mother interaction and its influence on the child's physical and emotional health. Particularly the development of anxiety or tensional states.

Ribble maintains that the child's physical and psychological welfare is dependent upon "good mothering". Adequate maternal care fosters nervous integration, "energy for mental growth" and "feelings of well being and a sense of security in the child." In addition, the infant's biological well being is affected by his mother's behavior. For example,

180 of the observed neonates suffered from generalized, exaggerated
muscular tension. In each case, these tensions disappeared when the
infant was allowed to suck at his mother's breast or was put into close
contact with her body. However, if deprivation of this kind of
experience continued, the infant manifested persistent muscular tension,
inadequate breathing, and gastro-intestinal disorders.

Similar conclusion was drawn by Spitz (59), who studied children
from two institutions where they had been raised since birth. He
compared three groups of infants: (1) those hospitalized for a long period
of time because, for one reason or another, their mothers were
unavailable, (2) those living in a nursery with other children, and
(3) those living in their own homes. In general, the last group had
more consistent mothering and more opportunities for breast feeding
than the other two groups. The nutritional and hygienic conditions
however were the same for all the groups. The findings of these
studies showed that the hospitalized group with good to superior
health conditions in their environment were retarded in development,
showed many illnesses, and even deaths, tended to become depressed
and often developed psychosis. This group also suffered severe
emotional frustration of many oral needs despite good medical care
and consequently built up tensions and resorted to abnormally
defensive behavior.

Ribble (54) also asserts that women who are emotionally disturbed
or who reject their children cannot provide "adequate" mothering for
them. This generally results in one of two extreme types of reaction.
One is negativism, which is characterized by refusal to suck, loss of
appetite, hypertension, rigidity of body muscles, breath holding,
shallow breathing and constipation. The other reaction- regression,

is marked by depressive quiescence, lack of interest in food, irregular breathing and gastrointestinal disturbances such as vomiting and diarrhea. The extreme form of this reaction is marasmus or wasting away.

Fries (25) experimented on similar lines and found that babies taken care of by compulsive, rigid nurses tend to develop startle reaction and show other signs of tension and anxiety, whereas babies taken care of by gentle, secure nurses show far less such reaction.

These findings are also supported by Escalona (17) who found that babies who were high-strung had mothers who were high-strung. Hence Escalona concluded that babies take in more than nourishment; they "take in also many of the attributes of the mother."

The studies quoted above thus indicate that these children, the victims of deprivation of psychological mothering, had been unable to develop the first important component of healthy personality; i.e., basic trust, because as Erikson has pointed out,

The first demonstration of social trust in the baby is in the ease of his feeding, the depth of his sleep, and the relaxation of his bowels. (44, p. 213)

It can be safely concluded then that these findings which indicate the development of physiological symptoms as a result of deprivation or improper handling, add support to Erikson's theorization about basic trust.

Erikson has also pointed out that it is not the quantity of love but the quality of love that is important in the development of a healthy personality in children. Experiments have been conducted to determine the relation of mother's attitude toward children and the emotional adjustment. Of the children it was found that children of cold parents, that is parents who are relatively unaffectionate, aloof, or indifferent to their children, often develop "affect-hunger," a

persistant and gnawing desire for affection. Lafore (40) reports that

parents who made the smallest number of affectionate advances toward

their children received the largest number in return. Why should this

happen? Apparently even the coolly treated child got some love. This

scanty experience of affection thus increases his appetite for love,

though this appetite is seldom satisfied, and the result is the affect-

hunger. Sears and his co-workers (58), studying the five-year-old

children of 379 New England mothers, concluded:

Maternal coldness was associated with the development of feeding
problems and persistent bed wetting. It contributed to high
aggression. It was an important background condition for emotional
upset during severe toilet training and for the slowing of conscience
development. (p. 483)

One interesting study which indicates the importance of the quality

of affectionate warmth in the development of security was made by

Harlow. (31) He raised monkeys with "surrogate mothers" made of foam

rubber and uncovered wire—both incorporating a nursing bottle. Both

surrogate mothers satisfied the infant's need for support, warmth, and

feeding. The foam rubber mother, however, sheathed in terry cloth,

provided more "contact comfort", and under a variety of circumstances,

the baby monkeys showed a marked preference for it.

These studies give ample support to Erikson s diction when he says,

But it must be said that the amount of trust derived from earliest
infantile experience does not seem to depend on absolute quantities
of food or demonstration of love, but rather on the quality of the
maternal relationship. (15, p. 107)

The job of the mother as Erikson sees it is not just to give birth

to a child, satisfy his physical needs, and let him grow. The most

important task as he sees it is to give the child an adequate amount

of love and attention, tender care and fondling, which the child,

though even being small, can sense through his sense organs, and which

gives him an inner satisfaction, a soothing comfort, and unconscious

realization that he is secure, needed, and loved. The feelings of being needed and the sense of security are the most essential components of basic trust and the foundation for the later development of healthy personality.

It should be pointed out, however, that there is no one-to-one relationship between feeding experience or maternal attitude and healthy personality. Numerous other factors may be involved in the determination of the type of personality, as Orlansky (49) and others have found.

Erikson and other psychologists have also pointed out that adequate mothering does not mean that mothers should spend all the hours of their days hovering over their babies, or that a baby whose mother has to leave him with grandparents for a day or two is thereby doomed. Young babies are quite elastic and can tolerate a fair amount of mishandling. As Stone and Church (61) have pointed out,

Trust does not develop out of parental anxiety, but in a sustained emotional climate that stimulates and nourishes the infant's inherent capacity to become a secure personality. Such stimulation includes frustration and upsets that the child can handle and grow on. A healthful emotional climate is not tepid but temperate, with hot spells and cold spells, and storms and seasons, where a child can experience the variety as well as the stability of being a secure human being. (p. 66)

Summary. The first stage of life is infancy, beginning at birth and ending at about the age of 18 months. The developmental goal of this stage is the development of basic trust. Basic trust is the first component of healthy personality. Development of basic trust is to a great extent dependent on the feeding experience and mothering that the child receives during this period of life.

Satisfaction of the physiological needs of the baby along with adequate love and affection are instrumental in the development of basic trust. Experiments and clinical studies give support to

Erikson's statement that deprivation from the contact with mother,
experience of rejection, and inadequate mothering hamper the
development of basic trust.

There is, however, no one-to-one relationship between experiences
of feeding and contact with mother and emergence of basic trust.
Adequate mothering again does not mean elimination of frustration and
conflict. Frustration and conflict are inevitable parts of life and
necessary for learning.

Research related to development in toddler stage.

This part of the study guide deals with the research findings related
to experiences in toddlerhood and its effect on personality development.

According to Erikson this stage of development is characterized by
the development of autonomy. It is the period of maturation of the
muscular system. There is an increased ability on the part of the
child to regulate body processes and to explore and manipulate the
outer world. With the growing capacity of voluntary sphincter control,
paralleling the development of abilities to grasp and release
the infant's "mental picture" of himself gradually changes. He now
has the beginning awareness of the world outside himself and an
incipient sense of "me-ness." As he develops in the ability to control
eliminitive functions, as well as in motor coordination, he finds that
he can control some of the objects with which he comes in contact. With
the awareness of these abilities comes a pressing need to use them
manifested in the child's attempt to handle, to explore, to seize and
to drop, to withhold and to expel. And with all there is the dominant
will, the insistent "No! Me do!"

The expectations of parents toward the child's growing independence,
no doubt, differs from culture to culture and from one social strata to

another as has been pointed out by Mead, Sears, Kardiner, Erikson, and many others, but its implication for personality growth is how it encourages the child's growing ability to use his own body and simple objects of the world with growing self-confidence.

Erikson (15) pointed out that as an accompaniment of the independence-dependency struggle, the central conflict of the period of toddlerhood is that of autonomy versus shame and doubt. The most necessary thing for the resolution of this conflict is a continuing faith in existence (the basic trust of infancy) that might be jeopardized by uncertainty about the rightness of the impulses that have come with the new capacity of muscular control. The child at this stage needs to feel as secure about himself as a "walking, doing" person as he did when he was a small babe. If the child's mutual relationship with his parents are such as are conducive to the feeling of security, if he has been given enough freedom of choice so that he can rely himself, if the impossible has not been expected of him, and if he has not been shamed for not achieving what is beyond his capacity, he will automatically develop a sense of personal dignity and self worth. He will feel that he is wanted, that his parents like him, and that he is a person capable of doing things.

It is clear that to encourage the child to independent action is also to offer him additional opportunities for self assertion. Where much pressure is put on the toddler for achievement, particularly where more is expected than he is comfortably able to accomplish, feelings of shame, as well as rebellion and accompanying aggression might occur.

According to Erikson, the mother is the most important person in the child's life at this time. She is the agent of socialization and

discipline. It is through her attitude and behavior that the child gets a "mental image" of himself. If the mother is loving, encouraging, and tolerant, the child will develop a feeling of self worth and dignity. Hostile and unencouraging behavior of the mother on the other hand will inflict a lasting injury to the budding ego of the child.

A comprehensive study in the area of mother-child relationship at the toddler stage, and its influence on the feeling of security and confidence in the child was made by Antonovsky (2) and is presented in detail in the following lines.

Specifically, this study is concerned with the testing of certain hypotheses about the relationship between child-rearing practices of mothers and certain behaviors of children just under two years of age—the transition period from infancy to childhood. Three child behavior variables and four mother behavior variables were selected, and three general hypotheses about the relationship between these two sets of variables were formulated.

The three child behavior variables are as follows:

1. Dependency defined as behavior whose goal is seeking help or attention. Three measures of dependency responses were taken as (a) seeking help from the mothers, (b) affectional contact; i.e., seeking the mother's attention by making affectionate responses toward her, and (c) non-interactive play, in which the child plays by himself, ignoring the mother's presence.

2. Aggression is defined in terms of behavior whose goal is causing physical or psychological pain.

3. Initiative means behavior which has as its goal achievement and the desire to do something independently.

The four variables of mother behavior are:

1. Affectional contact, which refers to the kind of interaction in which mother and child participate to their mutual enjoyment, and the kind of enjoyment they get out of being with one another; i.e., playing together, spontaneous display of affection, and time spent together.

2. Expectations (level of demand) refers to the kind of demand and standard of behavior and achievement set by mother at different age levels.

3. Restrictiveness refers to the degree to which the mother circumscribes and limits the child's play and exploratory activities in terms of the physical and psychological dangers. The danger may be realistic or imaginery.

4. Punishment refers to the mother's attempt to control the child's behavior by applying punishment in order to change or inhibit the behavior of the child. The techniques of punishment vary, but they have the common factor of being pain-inducing, physically or psychologically.

The empirical findings summarized in terms of the hypotheses tested are as follows:

Hypothesis I.

(a) The frequency of help-seeking and affectional contact responses on the part of the child is negatively related to the degree of affectional contact expressed by the mother, and positively related to the degree of demands, restrictiveness, and punishment expressed by the mother toward the child. The data tended to support the hypothesis.

(b) The frequency of occurrence of non-interactive play responses on the part of the child is positively related to the degree of affectional contact expressed by the mother, and negatively related to

the degree of demands, restrictiveness, and punishment. The data showed a positive relationship between non-interactive play and affectional contact behavior of the mother.

Hypothesis II.

The frequency of occurrence of aggressive behavior (disobedience) on the part of the child is positively related to the degree of restrictiveness, and negatively related to the degree of demands and punishment. The data also supported this hypothesis.

Hypothesis III.

The frequency of occurence of initiative responses on the part of the child is positively related to the degree of both affectional contact and demands expressed by the mother toward the child, and is negatively related to the degree to which the mother restricts the child. This hypothesis was also supported by the findings.

In summary, there was direct relation between degree of affection given by the mother and the child's growing sense of independence and confidence in himself. This experiment thus not only tended to support the general assumption of a predictable influence of the mother's behavior on the child behavior, it also indirectly supports Erikson's assumption about the relation between development of basic trust autonomy and initiative and maternal attitude.

Let us take the problem of basic trust as manifested in this experiment. The infant's first social achievement and the indication of basic trust in behavior as described by Erikson (14) is his willingness to let the mother out of sight without undue anxiety or rage, because through gradual experience of familiarity coincided with a feeling of inner goodness, she has become an inner certainty as well as outer predictability. This inner certainty is thus the first step

to confidence in the world. The infant is sure that the world is
friendly and his needs will be satisfied. Being thus assured, he is
ready to explore his own capacities without being dependent upon her
or wanting undue attention.

This study supports Erikson's formulations, since the data showed
that the children who had enough affectional contact with the mother
showed a minimum of help-seeking and affectional contact responses;
showed less aggressive behavior; and showed many initiative responses.
Degree of initiative responses were also related to the maternal
encouragement. On the contrary, children whose mothers were
restrictive, demanding, and punitive showed more dependent behavior,
sought more help, and had very little initiative. In short, this
study is a good example of how maternal attitude can help or hinder
the development of autonomy and initiative at the toddler stage, and
jeopardize or maintain the already developed sense of basic trust.

As indicated before, Erikson believes that too high expectations
from the child, and a demanding attitude towards him may lead to
development of aggression and rebellion on his part. During recent
years several experiments have been done to find the specific relation
between aggressive activity of the children and the method of discipline
used by the parents. Sears (56) found that children who directed the
most aggression toward the parent's figure in doll play came from homes
in which punishment was severest.

In another study by Bandure and Walters (6), it was shown that
the occurrence of aggressive behavior among delinquents was associated
with frequent physical punishment by parents.

Nakamure (47) found that subjects whose parents exercise a positive
type of discipline report more favorable attitudes toward parents than

do subjects who are disciplined by negative methods; also that over-protected and positively disciplined subjects displace more criticism toward persons other than their parents, meaning that they have love and respect for parents.

These studies again support Erikson's hypothesis of the relation between method of discipline and aggression. It is apparent that the more the child is restricted, inhibited from expression of autonomy and punished for acts without justification, the more aggressive he becomes. This aggression may be turned against the world or against himself. In the latter case, the aggressive child, says Erikson,

will overmanipulate himself, he will develop a precocious conscience. Instead of taking possession of things in order to test them by purposeful repetition, he will become obsessed by his own repetitive-ness. By such obsessiveness, of course, he then learns to repossess the environment and to gain power by stubborn and minute control where he could not find large-scale mutual regulation. Such hollow victory is the infantile model for a compulsion neurosis. (44, p. 215)

In other words, an aggressive child does not manipulate an object for the sake of curiosity and learning; rather it is his weapon to show his stubbornness and gain power over the people who bully him. Such an attitude in childhood may serve as the prototype of mental illness in later life.

Erikson believes that there is a direct relation between parental control during childhood and mental illness. This has been proved by others in clinical studies also. Jersild (39) found that abnormal traits such as aggression, scapegoating, and racial prejudice were found to be the outcome of hidden or partially concealed attitudes of hostility towards the parents.

Specific methods of disciplining the child, such as toilet training, have also been found to be related with emotional health. These studies add support to Erikson's hypothesis that the central

conflict of toddlerhood is due to the child's growing capacity of control, and parental demand to use this control according to the parents' directions, and that too much emphasis on toilet training leads to emotional maladjustment.

This point is supported by one study made by Huschka. (36) He found that when toilet training started very early (before eight months) or was completed very early (before eighteen months), the children showed many indications of emotional disturbance such as problem behavior, elimination difficulties (constipation), and excessive fear and rage. By contrast, a control group of children who were not given such strict training showed significantly less of all these phenomena.

According to Dollard and Miller (10) excessive timidity and over-conformity is often a result of severe toilet training. He also found that feeling of worthlessness is positively related to parent's attitude of rejection while toilet training the child. In many cases anxiety related to defecation may generalize to sexual organs also and lead to difficulty in mature sexual relationship.

Another study done by Wittenborn (69) indicates that children who were severely toilet trained tended to become highly compulsive, aggressive, and fearful in later life.

Clinical data from another study also indicated that children who were trained too early revealed rigid behavior and mildly compulsive characteristics (9).

These experimental evidences have been also supported by cultural and anthropological studies. (37, p. 57) The Tanalan culture, for example has an unusually high standard of cleanliness which reinforces the need to develop rigid controls. It is interesting to note that the Tanalan adult is highly compulsive, overly rigid, and ritualistic. In this

case, later outcomes may be congruent with the early training and the requirements of the adult culture. On the other hand, a culture that has a highly permissive attitude toward toilet training, one which follows the baby's needs and physical maturation rather than anticipates them, may be expected to inculcate different early personality trends. An illustration of this type of pattern may be found in the Alorese or in the Kaska Indians. The lack of concern among the adults of these cultures with tidiness and cleanliness, again seems congruent with the early pattern of socialization in toilet training.

Another illustration of the relation between culturally enforced methods of toilet training and personality traits are the case of the Great Whale Eskimos and the Hopi Indians. These people are quite indulgent with the toilet training, the Hopi people paying very little attention to it. The result is that adult Eskimos are tidy but very compulsive, and the adult Hopi is highly argumentative and quite distrustful.

The implication of these studies in child care is that parents should be aware of the damaging influence of early or forced toilet training on later personality development of the child. There is no doubt that during the toddler stage the parents are the major source of socialization, and parents who are unaware of the law of development often forget that toilet training requires substitution of voluntary control for what is an initially involuntary reflex procession. The physical mechanism of bowel movement is such that whenever the bladder and bowel are full, strong tensions are produced and utherial and sphincter are automatically released, expelling the urine and feces. During toilet training the entire pattern has to be

changed. The child now is required to eliminate not in accordance with internal stimulation, but when the parents want him to and thus rearrange the whole pattern. As Dollard and Miller have pointed out:

To meet the cultural demands this sequence must be rearranged. The connection between bowel stimulus and the expulsion response must be weakened. The child must learn to suppress the expulsion response to the bowel drive stimulus alone. It must then insert other responses in the sequence--to call to the parents. It must later learn to insert walking, unbolting, and sitting on the toilet chair while it is still suppressing the urgent expulsion response. Only to a new pattern of cues--the bowel stimulus, the cues of the proper room, the sense of freedom of clothes, the pressure of the toilet seat on the child's thighs--may the evulsion response occur without anxiety. In short, this response occurs not only to the pressure of the primary drive involved but also to the complex stimulus pattern just named. The real problem, therefore, is getting the child to suppress the naive expulsion response and to insert a considerable series of responses into the sequence before expulsion. (10, p. 137)

Unfortunately many mothers do not realize the capacity of the child to control the muscles and force him to learn to inhibit the responses even if the child is not capable of doing so. Overemphasis on toilet training exposes the child to shame and doubt, which Erikson has defined as the "developmental hazards" of this age. The child is made to feel exposed, vulnerable, and impotent rather than capable of autonomous self direction. In infancy, as we have seen, the child must learn to trust the environment; in toddler stage he must learn to trust himself. But his trust in himself depends on the self-picture that the environment reflects back to him.

Summary. The toddler's stage which follows infancy has the development of autonomy as its main developmental goal. As was the case in infancy, the parents are important at this stage of life too, because they are social agents of disciplining, and it is through them that the child gets a picture of himself.

The conflict of toddler stage is based on the child's growing capacity of muscular control and the urge to manipulate, which often comes in

conflict with the environment. Too much restriction on the child may produce in him a feeling of doubt and shame. There are several studies which indicate that there is a positive relationship between specific methods of socialization and personality traits. Severe toilet training, for example, is related with traits of aggression, destruction, and other mental illnesses, and restriction on the child's behavior has been found related with dependence and feeling of worthlessness.

In order to help the child in developing the sense of autonomy, the parent should be aware of the needs and capacities of the child and put that amount of pressure on the child which he can easily bear.

<u>Research related to development in childhood</u>.

Stated in terms of Erikson's hypothesis, one might say that personality at the first stage crystallizes around the conviction, "I am what I am given," and that of the second, "I am what I will." Now we approach the third and fourth stage which centers around the notion, "I am what I can imagine I will be," and "I am what I learn," respectively.

The third and fourth stage, occurring in early and middle child-hood, have the sense of initiative and sense of industry as their developmental goals. Erikson describes this period of life as one marked by enterprise and imagination, creativity and fantasy, and vigorous learning goaded by the innate curiosity. The child at this stage wants to manipulate, to explore, and to conquer everything with which he comes into contact. This curiosity is evident in all phases of the child's behavior--in his persistent questioning, in his touching and handling everything, in his interpersonal relations, in his attempt to copy the "grown-ups" and in his interest in his own body and organs.

How this curiosity is awarded, how these persistent questions are answered, and in what way his imaginary goals are achieved have a marked and long-lasting influence on the child's personality and especially on his concept of self, and sense of achievement.

The stages of middle and late childhood are socially the most decisive stages, because it is during these stages that socialization proceeds at a rapid pace, and society brings pressure to bear upon the young child to continually revise his ways in the direction of more mature behavior. The early period of indulgence gradually ends and training for socially approved behavior begins. He must learn to eat in accordance to social customs; he is urged to keep himself clean.

His physical movement must be restricted so as to protect him from
danger; his immediate wants cannot be always taken care of, for he is
a member of a family group. He cannot hit, gouge, or bite, for these
acts are harmful to the others. He must learn to differentiate between
good and bad and to incorporate the values inherent in his family and
society. In short, because the child is a member of a complex society,
he must learn the ways of that society.

Society brings its pressure on the child in two ways--through home
and through school. In fact, as pointed out by Erikson, parents and
teachers are the important people who can help the child to be
enterprising, self-reliant, and industrious, or hinder his growing sense
of initiative and industry.

The experimental studies to determine the relation between home
and school experience and the sense of initiative and industry have been
rather fragmentary, but there is some data to reveal the effect of
method of discipline on the child's growing sense of industry and self
worth.

Goodwin and Watson (7) found that there was a tendency for
permissive discipline to foster the type of personality which makes a
reasonable effort and continues effective intellectual attack upon
problems. He also found that high creativity was a characteristic of
33 percent of the children brought up in permissive homes in contrast
to only 2 percent of those from strict homes. The more firmly
disciplined children were found in the middle of the range.

More hostility was found evident in children who had been brought
up under strict discipline, while more positive feelings toward others
were expressed by children whose parents were permissive.

Another study which clearly brings out the relation between

discipline at home and adjustment is that of Symond. (65). Symond's studies are reported in his book, The Psychology of Parent-Child Relationships. In a series of research, children coming from contrasting types of familial backgrounds were compared with respect to personality adjustment and social adjustment. In one of these studies which aimed at finding the effect of rejection of children by their parents, two matched groups of children came respectively from homes in which they were accepted and rejected. Data revealed that in contrast to the children who came from homes in which they were accepted the rejected children tended to be anti-social, rebellious against authority, and delinquent; they were emotionally insecure and showed many indications of underlying anxiety. The rejected group on the whole could be characterized as maladjusted with poor super-ego development.

Definite relationships has also been found between the method of discipline and level of aspiration. Unsatisfactory interpersonal relationship in the family or orientation were significantly related to high aspirational levels, and satisfactory relationships were related to lower aspirational levels. (12)

This finding seems to go against Erikson's hypothesis that good interpersonal relationships promote creativity, but further analysis of the data reveals that high occupational level of aspiration was related to insecurity and anxiety. In fact, a high level of aspiration seemed to serve as a reaction formation for the anxiety, which was a consequence of poor interpersonal relations at home.

The relation between anxiety and method of discipline has been stressed by Erikson as well as many other psychologists. In fact, it was first pointed out by Freud that harsh and strict discipline was

generally associated with a critical and harsh "super-ego" (or

conscience) which hs a constant source of anxiety and conflict and

leads to neurotic behavior.

Alexander (1), while describing the etiology of compulsion neurosis

and phobia, explains the role of a critical super-ego in the development

of these symptoms. He says,

the cruelty and overseverity of the super-ego leads to a reaction
against every positive object relationship and allows only a hostile
attitude towards the environment. The patient, tormented by his
severe super-ego, is only able to hate. (p. 59)

The critical and compulsive attitude that the patient shows is,

according to Alexander,

a repetition of the inner drama in which the leading parts are
always played by an obstinate aggressive child and his oversevere,
unjust, unpsychological elders. (p. 69)

A number of recent studies conducted in Fels Research Institute

have clearly indicated that disciplinary methods which lead to

severe anxiety are likely to produce greatly retarded growth and

namper learning and adjustment capacities in the child.

Olson (48), for example, found that there was substantial

relationship between changes in affective state and growth. Although

the most significant relationships were found for reading age and

mental age, all aspects of growth (including weight and dental age)

tended to be affected by this data.

Baldwin (4) investigated the relationship of three general factors

in the home upon the behavior of children in nursery schoo. The three

factors considered were democratic behavior, indulgence and emotional

warmth. He found that a democratic home, characterized by high

emotional warmth was correlated with behavior in children that was

socially outgoing, that was attractive to other children, and that was

high on activities, demanding intellectual curiosity, originality, and constructiveness.

In short there is data to support that healthy relationships at home, and warm but firm attitudes of parents in disciplining the child are conducive to social and emotional adjustment and facilitate creativity and initiative.

Another important point which is greatly stressed by Erikson and worth mentioning here is the effect of parental attitudes on self-identity and the resultant growth of a sense of industry. By self-identity, Erikson means the "perception of what we are, and of the usual roles we assign to ourselves." As he has indicated, the value of our self-identity greatly influences not only what we are but what we anticipate doing. It is during the middle and later childhood that the child begins to adopt a truly socialized role as he identifies with the appropriate role for which he is suited biologically and socially. A boy, for example, internalizes the social role which his father, his brother, his uncle, and others portray. The more clearcut and acceptable these roles are, the more stable is his sense of identity. Identification with fathers, mother, or any other person is again to a great extent dependent on the nature of the interpersonal relation existing between the identifier and the person with whom he identifies. An interesting study in this field is that of Sears (56) who, using a father doll as an index of identification with the father, found that kindergarten boys with warm and affectionate fathers identified with them more strongly. Similarly it has been found that adolescent boys who respond to personality and attitude tests as their fathers do--a consequence of the boy's strong identification with their fathers, are more likely, according to projective test response, to view

father as highly nurturant and rewarding. (53)

In short, it can be calculated that warm, rewarding, and affectionate relationships are more conducive to identification and acceptance of proper role assigned to the child as a member of a family and of society.

At this point one question may be raised with regard to the emotional climate of the home. One may wonder whether affectionate parenting implies absence of all limits, and entire permissiveness in relation to the child's activity, and if parents should do away with punishment, or is it essential for the disciplining of the child? The studies that sought to determine the effect of permissiveness of parents on the child's activity revealed that extreme permissiveness is as harmful for personality development of the child as extreme domination.

One interesting study worth noting here is that of Watson, (69) who, by comparing the personality characteristics of two groups of children coming from extremes on the variable of strict versus permissive home discipline, found that no clear personality advantages were associated in general with strict discipline in a good home. On four of the most reliably rated personality characteristics, the differences that were found were clearly in favor of the children who came from permissive homes. As a group, such children were found to be better socialized and cooperative, showed more initiative and independence, had less inner hostility and more friendly feelings toward others, and had a higher level of spontaneity, originality, and creativity, but at the same time, children from permissive homes were less persistent and lost interest soon.

Symond (65) compared children who came from dominating homes with children coming from submissive parents. The findings for the two groups of children are illuminating. Children in the dominant group,

in comparison with those in the submissive group, were unable to express themselves readily, were inhibited, overly polite, retiring, and shy. On the other hand, they were honest and dependable. In contrast, the children from the submissive group were generally rebellious, irresponsible, stubborn and careless, but they were also rated as self-confident and capable of formal friendship outside of the home. We may note then that both groups showed unfavorable personality characteristics and that both groups showed some positive personality traits. It is difficult to decide whether the price in personality maladjustment was worth the gain of the positive personality traits under these circumstances.

There may be many factors, no doubt, influencing the personality of the child, but all these studies point to one clear-cut fact--that either extreme in disciplining the child, whether it be domination or permissiveness, is not condusive for healthy personality growth. Some limits and positive guidance are necessary. As has been indicated by Langdon (61), in his study of well-adjusted children, it was not the method of training that was important, but the way the child understood it. Langdon points out that parents of these children frequently punished them, but this punishment was based on reason, and that the child could interpret it as a consequence of some wrong he had done. The family relationship in these homes had a great deal to do with the way the parents disciplined the children and the way children felt about it. There was no one way of disciplining as indicated by these parents, but underneath all the widely different methods of discipline used were some very significant points in common, for example: an attitude of family acceptance, general permissiveness with guidance, naturalness about the family living, a light touch about it all, and warmth, color and richness to the living.

Along with home, the school is another agency for socialization of children during the middle and later childhood and adolescence. Studies to find the relation between school experiences and adjustment in life are very fragmentary, but the fact cannot be denied that the psychological atmosphere of school is as important as the warm and relaxing atmosphere of home.

According to Erikson, the school age period of life is as important as infancy and toddler stage, because it is during this stage that initiative and industry develops, and the child's attitude toward learning and skill is determined. Erikson points out, the maturity of the organism during this period is such that it can devote itself to new tasks and new skills in a wide variety of ways. Physical health at this period tends to be very good since the organism is well stabilized and immunities to most childhood diseases have already been developed. Basic skills in thinking and in the academic subjects having been mastered, the child is well aware of reality and of his own assets and liabilities. The support derived from association with one's peers and from integration into the peer group has led to the personal feelings of adequacy and independence, and for broadening his base of operation, for ingesting the content of new subjects, for trying himself out in all types of new "fields of operation", and as a consequence, for the development of the sense of "industry." The experiences at school, however, are much more decisive in how the child will be able to realize his growing sense of industry.

There is considerable evidence that the experience of failure at school unfavorably modifies the self-image and undermines and distorts perception of reality. For example, Sears' (57) study showed how even a minimal amount of failure experience contributed to difficulties in

learning. In one part of her study, she evaluated the effect of a failure experience versus success experience upon subsequent performances. Her subjects consisted of 18 school children who were given speed tests of reading and arithmetic. Under failure conditions, the subjects who had taken the test previously under neutral conditions were told how poorly they had done and were asked to predict how well they would now be able to do on the next succession of trials. Under success conditions, the reverse type of evaluation was made, and children were told, after the neutral trials, that they had done well. They were then asked to predict how well they would do on the following trials. Sears found that reports of failure decreased the accurate or realistic predition of subsequent achievement, whereas success conditions tended to increase it. In other words, failure tends to impair one's actual capabilities in judging realistically; it impairs the accuracy of one's self-image.

Sears also studied the influence of each child's previous success or failure in reading and arithmetic upon the accuracy of prediction of subsequent achievement. It was found that results similar to those reported above were obtained: success resulted in more realistic and more accurate self-appraisal, whereas failure had the opposite influence.

Tillbrooks (66), in her study on factors related to social and personal adjustment of adolescents, found that there was a significant relationship between grade level of achievement and total adjustment of the preadolescent.

In the light of the above mentioned studies, it is advisable that the method of discipline at school should be moderate and based on understanding. The old method of strict discipline is no longer valid in proper growth of the child, nor is the extreme authoritarian guidance. What the child needs is a democratic guidance and leadership in class.

The teacher who can provide a favorable classroom climate, using her role as a teacher in a spirit of firm but democratic leadership, strongly encourages healthy growth in personality, appropriate spontaneity, better group membership and productivity, and less frustration and aggression. As has been indicated by a series of studies by Anderson (3) and his co-workers, a group with the integrative teacher became spontaneous, more socially cooperative, and showed more initiative. The pupils with the dominant teacher became more rebellious, showed less harmony in class behavior, and were more readily distracted. A follow-up study of the same children one year later, after they had been placed with new teachers, indicated that the behavior of the children shifted in accordance with the differing personalities of the new teacher. This shows that the personality of the teacher and her method of instruction have influence not only on the learning of the child but on his total personality and behavior. A child needs, therefore, schools with a related but stimulating atmosphere where success is encouraged, and understanding teachers are capable of giving warmth and affection as well as poistive guidance to learning.

If the school atmosphere is too strict and teachers believe in authoritarian methods of discipline, there are considerable chances that the child may not be able to solve the conflict of this stage, and his growing sense of industry may be crippled. The result will be an inhibitive and constructive personality rather than one which is able, confident, and ready to take the initiative.

Summary. The third and fourth stages of life are middle and late childhood. The developmental goals at these stages are the development of initiative and industry respectively.

Parents and teachers are the most important persons at these stages

of life, since they are responsible for providing learning experiences and guidance. They are also the major source of discipline. Studies indicate the direct relationship between amount of positive or negative guidance, harsh or permissive atmosphere at home or school, amount of success or failure experienced by the child. and the development of a feeling of initiative and industry. Too much domination or too much permissiveness on the part of parents and teachers may lead to the development of undesirable traits in the children.

What is needed by the child at this stage is a warm, affectionate, congenial and encouraging atmosphere at home and at school, and considerate, understanding people who guide him with firmness and sympathy.

Research related to development in adolescence.

The adolescent stage of development begins at puberty and ends with adulthood. This phase of life is marked with rapid physiological growth and bodily changes. The growing youths, faced with this physiological revolution are now primarily concerned with attempts at consolidating their social roles. They want to know what they appear to be in the eyes of others, as compared with what they feel they are. They are concerned about their new social roles. They want to understand where they belong, what the significant people in their environment expect from them, and what skills and interests they should develop to fit in the given pattern of society.

The developmental goal of this stage is the achievement of a sense of "identity." By identity, Erikson means the sense of belonging to one's society and the awareness of having some status in it. It also implies the development of a particular feeling in the adolescents that their part has a meaning in terms of their future, and an intuition that the future has a meaning in terms of their past.

Ego identity, as Erikson (15) explains it, is very similar to Freudian concept of "self esteem". The only difference between the two terms is that "self esteem" is a more conscious thing, while ego identity is something both conscious and unconscious. In simpler terms ego identity is the conscious awareness, as well as an unconscious feeling that the adolescent belongs to the society, and that the society accepts him as its member and regards him with respect and esteem.

The danger of this stage of life as described by Erikson is "self-diffusion"--a term which signifies the adolescent's dilemma of confusion and doubt with regard to himself and the role he is expected to play as the member of the family, community, and society.

Whether the feeling of self-diffusion is fairly easily mastered or whether, in extreme, it leads to delinquency, neurosis. or outright psychosis depends on how the adolescent has been prepared to face the responsibility of this stage, and what "conception of self" he has developed. As Erikson has pointed out, the solution of the conflict of identity versus self diffusion in the adolescent stage depends on:

The reciprocity between the adolescent's physical development and what goes on in his surrounding; what culture has prepared for him, what social institutions are at his disposal; what sense of identity is promised to him in the various roles prepared for him. (15, p.17)

In other words if the adolescent has developed basic trust and initiative, if he is regarded with respect and esteem, and if he sees continuity in his past and future roles, there are great chances that he will grow out of the conflict of this stage with new confidence and a new sense of continuity and sameness.

As Erikson points out, to a great extent the solution of conflict at this stage depends on the warmth and affection the child has received, and how far he has been able to develop a feeling of confidence in and a respect for himself. Many experimental studies support Erikson's hypothesis about the early parent-child relationship and adolescent adjustment. McKinney (45) found that well-adjusted adolescents always spoke of their mother as loving and kind, as "being gentle, and agreeable, and even tempered" more often than do students with emotional problems. Frenkel (20) found that ethnocentric adolescents who apparently have personality structures marked by restrictiveness in authority, describe the "perfect father" as disciplining, strict, punitive, and a good provider. Unprejudiced children describe the perfect father as companionable and relaxed. McKinney also found that many college students mentioned "conflict with parents" as the main problem which had affected their lives.

Another study in which the author tried to correlate the "family pattern" with adolescent personality structure was done by Peck. (53). In this sample of adolescents whose behavior covered the full range of personal adjustment and moral responsibility, there was a significant pattern of relationship between family experience and personality. Specifically:

1. Ego strength occurred in association with a family life which was characterized by stable consistency and warm, mutual trust and approval between the parents and between parents and child.

2. Super-ego strength was partially related to ego strength, but was chiefly related to the regularity and consistency of family life. It was not systematically related to severe autocratic rearing. The authors differentiated between the strong, rigid super-ego, and strong rational super-ego. The former seemed to result from rigid autocratic parenting, while the latter was related to consistent, democratic, non-severe rearing in a trustful, approving family.

3. Generalized friendliness and spontaneity were reported to be associated with a lenient, democratic family atmosphere.

4. The authors thought that the hostility-guilt complex might reasonably be considered a hostile but dependent unresolved Oedipal complex. This trait was found to be associated with a severely autocratic, untrusting and disapproving family.

In general then, so far as the findings of this study show, there seems to be a significant relationship between the personality character-istics of the adolescents and the disciplinary pattern which they exper-ienced in living with their parents.

Some other studies that tie the emotional and social development to the relationship within the family are those of Warneth and Stott

respectively. Warneth (68) found that positive impression for one's peers (or the opposite) is related to experiences of positive or negative acceptance within the family. Stott (63) reported that a child's personality suffered from insecurity and a lack of feeling of identification with a group from being subjected to an unsettled family situation.

Another most important task of the adolescent as pointed out by Erikson and which may help or hinder the development of sense of identity is the selection of an appropriate career. Often the adolescent and young adult seems to be unsatisfied with his job. Frequent movement from one job to another is also quite common. Dymes, et al. (12) made a study to find the causes of social mobility in the United States, and to determine the psychological factors that differentiate individuals with high aspirations from those who have lower aspirational levels. Dymes et al. were mostly interested in testing the psychoanalytic implication advanced by Adler and Horney that unsatisfactory interpersonal relations in early childhood produce insecurity which is translated into neurotic striving for power, recognition, and success.

Evidence obtained in this research essentially supports the relationship between unsatisfactory interpersonal relations in the family of orientation and high aspirational levels. The "high" aspirers stated that they had experienced feelings of rejection more frequently than did those in the group of "lower aspirers".

The data also revealed that parental favoritism toward a son or daughter brought significant differences in the same direction. High aspirers defined their parents as showing more favoritism toward some child in the family than did the low aspirers.

Often the parents use the adolescent as a means of extension of their own ego-satisfactions. They want the growing adolescent to do and to achieve what they were not able to do or to achieve, and often they push the growing adolescent too far without knowing his potentialities. The result is a discontentment in the adolescent and the inability to settle down to an occupational identity. Faced with frustration and failure, the adolescent tries to find solace in his own peer group. As Erikson points out, the need of belongingness as a result of failure and consequent loss of self esteem may be so great that the adolescent may become

Clannish, intolerant, and cruel in their exclusion of others who are 'different' in skin, color, or cultural background, in tastes and gifts, and often in entirely petty aspects of dress and gesture, arbitrarily selected as the signs of an in-grouper or out-grouper. (16, p. 767)

This extreme conformity within the group may serve to increase the adolescent s sense of identity and may at least temporarily satisfy him.

The peer group plays an important role in the life of the adolescent. Whether the influence of the peer group on the adolescent will be healthy or unhealthy depends on many factors. As Mussen and Conger (46, p. 501) pointed out, peer groups may help the adolescent in many ways, namely:

1. It may serve as the major training institution for the adolescent, where, through the contact with other members of the group, the adolescent may learn many important attitudes, beliefs, and techniques of social interaction that he cannot learn from his parents and teachers.

2. Identification with peer groups also may help the adolescent to achieve independence from his family, because peers may provide a

substitute source of reinforcement for persisting dependency needs,
and may also provide him with moral backing in his demand for
independence.

3. Finally the peer group may provide a much needed source of
status and prestige for the adolescent.

As Farnham (18) has pointed out,

No group is more susceptible to the need for status and prestige
than are the adolescents. Unsure of themselves and their values,
requiring above all things the approval and acceptance of those
around them, they are always urgently seeking ways of finding
these things. (46, p. 502)

Thus, in their status as "marginal men" who have renounced child-
hood, but who are not fully accepted by adults, adolescents are forced
to turn for status and support to their peers.

Cliques may as well exert an unhealthy influence on the adolescent.
Youths who are unsure of themselves and emotionally immature may become
victims of the deteriorating effect of the gang and turn delinquents.

To avoid these dangers the parents and teachers should try to
provide opportunity for formation of educational clubs, play groups,
and religious group activities. Affiliation with wholesome clubs and
group activities under the wise leadership of an admired like-sex
adult serves to assist youth in defining their own values and shape
individual identities. These may be very good adjuncts to family and
community influences in developing healthy concepts of self, and
thereby in the development of feeling of identity.

Another important characteristic of an adolescent is his struggle
for freedom. His efforts at this stage are directed toward obtaining
emotional and financial independence from the parents. Psychologists
have found that this struggle for independence is a main source of
conflict between the adolescent and his parents.

Parent-child conflict during adolescence has been found to fall into two main categories: (1) issues involving greater adolescent demands for independence than the parents are willing to grant, and (2) issues involving more dependent, or childish behavior on the part of the adolescent than the parents feel able to tolerate.

Block (7) in her study of 528 adolescents found that the conflicts at this stage stem out from more basic problems of parent-child relationship. Block's study thus supports Erikson's hypothesis that the solution of adolescent conflict depends on how he has learned to solve the problems at an early stage. In other words, solution of adolescent problems and development of identity is related to the child's feeling of autonomy that has been established at a previous stage of development.

English (13) points out that parental inconsistencies with regard to emancipation may simply reflect confusion on the part of the parent as to the role society expects him to play. Often many inconsistencies seem to result from the parents' own contradictory needs that are deeply rooted and not infrequently unconscious. Many parents, for example, genuinely want their children to become able to handle their own affairs, because they realize that ultimately this will be necessary. At the same time, they are likely to want to continue to protect their children from the unpleasant realities of existance--an impossible task.

These are the parents who by virtue of their inconsistencies create confusion and doubt in their children. The adolescent stage is such that the children need a strong model with which they can identify. However, the parents who are not confident of themselves can hardly serve as models; neither can such parents be expected to guide the

adolescent with understanding and tolerance.

Next to the parents in importance is the influence of teachers in shaping the personality during childhood and adolescence. With the growing aggressiveness, boisterousness, and silliness, alternation, carelessness, disorder, disobedience and disrespect, truancy and often failure, the gulf between teacher and adolescent widens. The teacher, like parents, needs to be aware of the fact that this variable behavior may be the outgrowth of a feeling of insecurity, nervousness and fear of the unknown. Clinical studies (3) have revealed that some abnormal symptoms are a result of failure in school, of a schedule which provides too little activity or demands too much, of school courses which bore children or which produce tension and anxiety, or of emotional conflict existing between the teacher and the adolescent.

The parent and teacher should understand that the adolescent stage is most important from this point of learning intellectually. The adolescent experiences a steady widening and deepening of capacity to think and reason. If home and school offer adequate stimulation there is a growing interpretation of current events and world affairs. There is also a dawning awareness of the fact that soon he must not only know about the world but will also be required to meet life as an independent adult. At this stage new ideas become fascinating; the unending scope of the "not-yet-known" stretches out ahead and may urge the student into eager pursuit of knowledge. Children who have been indifferent to school work sometimes become seriously devoted to the exploration of the new academic field. It is thus the task of the teacher to stimulate and encourage this initiative in the students. It is not inappropriate to say that school is the adolescent's business--his job. The attitude he takes toward this job will determine much of his early

success or failure with it. The attitude he learns from it will be of great importance to his attitude toward work, toward responsibility, toward himself and toward life in general in later years. Thus these attitudes not only help to determine his success or failure in a job, but also help to shape his growing sense of identity.

In short, it can be said that parent and teacher can help the adolescent in the development of initiative by being kind, considerate and tolerant toward them, and serving as models of manhood and womanhood and of the social roles which these signify. They should understand that the turbulance at the adolescent stage of life is a result of a changing physiological condition within his body and the psychological changes resulting from it. They should aim at dealing with the intolerance of adolescents with understanding and guidance, rather than with verbal stereotypes or prohibitions. Erikson, in speaking of the adolescent, makes an attempt to increase the empathic ability of parents and teachers thus:

It is difficult (for the adolescents) to be tolerant if deep down you are not quite sure that you are a man (or a woman) that you will ever grow together again and be attractive, that you will be able to master your drives, that you really know who you are, that you know what you want to be, that you know what you look like to others, and that you will know how to make the right decisions without once for all committing yourself to the wrong friend, girl or career. (16, pl 768).

Summary. The adolescent stage begins with puberty and is marked by rapid physiological growth and glandular changes and consequent emotional stress. The adolescents faced with the physiological revolution within them are concerned with what they appear to be in the eyes of significant people. They want to clarify their role in the given society and culture. Need for status is quite strong at this stage and is often satisfied by the peer group. The conflict of this stage is "role diffusion," resulting from the adolescent's inability to clarify his role.

The significant people in the life of the adolescents can help them through empathy, understanding, and by accepting the adolescents as individuals in their own right.

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Description and Analysis of Developmental Tasks

In the previous chapter Erikson's concept of personality development has been discussed, and the goals leading to normal personality growth have been described. Achievement of developmental goals, however, is dependent on the fulfillment of certain tasks which arise at certain stages of growth. These tasks have been described by many writers as "developmental tasks". In this chapter, a brief history of the origin of the developmental task concept and a description of these tasks is given.

According to Havighurst (32), the term "developmental task" was first verbalized by Lawrence K. Frank in 1935 and later used occasionally in workshops of the Progressive Education Association until 1941. However a full-fledge use of this term was started by Havighurst in 1941. During 1941-42, Havighurst, Fritz Redl, and Prescott collaborated on a chapter for the North Central Association's book, General Education in the American High School. This was the first publication to give the concept a central role. Since then Havighurst (32), Duvall (11), and other writers have elaborated considerably on this aspect.

Havighurst defines developmental tasks as follows:

The developmental tasks of life are those things which constitute healthy and satisfactory growth in our society. They are the things a person must learn if he is to be judged, and to judge himself to be a reasonably happy and successful person. (32, p. 2)

He elaborates on the concept further by saying:

A developmental task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society and difficulty with later tasks. (Ibid).

The developmental tasks, according to Havighurst, have a bio-socio-psychological basis. The prototype of the developmental tasks are

the biological needs and physiological changes that occur inside the individual and force him to take a new line of action and new activities, and to explore new vistas of probability. These needs emerge in a hierarchy of pattern. Each need emerges at a specific time during a particular stage of life, and has to be satisfied at that particular stage. Those acts that lead to the satisfactions of these needs and to the achievement of the developmental goal of that stage are the developmental tasks of that specific stage of life.

Cultural pressures are another important source of developmental tasks. The cultural pressures are the expectancies that the family, teachers, peer groups, and society has towards the individual. These are the conceptions of the role which the individual has to play in order to be accepted by the society. In general these imply to the child that "you must change to be accepted" by the people whose approval you value.

The third basis of the developmental tasks is the psychological satisfaction that the individual gets after the achievement of these tasks. This satisfaction comes through approval and recognition by the significant members in the individual's life, and these approvals urge the child to achieve the later tasks.

Thus it is through the pressure and approval, recognition and acceptance that the parents and other significant persons help the child to perform the tasks which lead to the accomplishment of those developmental goals and which are the basis of a healthy personality.

Duvall has elaborated further on the developmental task concept. According to her the definition of developmental tasks given by Havighurst implies certain basic principles which can be described as follows:

1. The developmental task is the responsibility of the individual—
a responsibility that the individual has to assume for his development.

2. At specific periods of the individual's life certain developmental
tasks are especially important, because of what is happening in the
organism and because of what society expects of him.

3. If the task is not fulfilled at its proper time it might hamper
the fulfillment of another future developmental task; hence an individual
must accomplish the developmental tasks of any given period in his
development if he is to grow on to the next level of his maturation.

4. Achievement of a developmental task brings happiness to the
individual, and leads to the achievement of future tasks. Failure to
achieve a task brings dissatisfaction and unhappiness to the individual,
and also disapproval and censure from the society.

5. Very few developmental tasks can be mastered in isolation.

6. No one else can accomplish for the individual the developmental
tasks that he or she faces.

7. Parents and teachers can, however, help the child to accomplish
the developmental tasks by providing opportunity, and by giving
encouragement and adequate guidance.

8. Parents and teachers who encourage and assist a child in
accomplishing his developmental tasks help to promote the child's
growth.

The last principle is very important from the point of view of
parenting. As Duvall has pointed out, a developmental task may differ
from culture to culture, from region to region, from country to country
and from class to class, but in whatever may be the difference, one
thing is essential for the achivement of developmental tasks, that is

encouragement and support by family, friends, and other important

persons. It is the duty of these people to provide situations in which

the child can accomplish his inner urge for growing. In fact, in spite

of all the motivation and desire on the part of the individual, it will

be a constant struggle for him to achieve a task of which his family

does not approve, of which his friends despise, and society censures,

because how the individual perceives a task is always in the total

configuration of how others see him and the task which he is undertaking.

Cultural pressures affects the achievement of the developmental task

in a variety of ways. As Duvall (4) has stated,

Cultural pressures are seen in the many rewards and penalties the
individual receives for his various behaviors. These expectations and
pressures emerge at the times believed appropriate in the culture for
the individual to function in the roles and statuses assigned to him.
Unfortunately they may be too soon or too late for an individual. (p.
102)

Duvall, while emphasizing the ipportance of teachable moments for

every developmental task, says,

When the time comes that the body is ripe for, culture is pressing for,
and the individual is striving for some achievement, the teachable
moment has arrived. (p. 106)

In other words, every developmental task has to be learned at its

appropriate time. It is therefore the task of the parents and teachers

to understand the child's needs and the developmental goals they have

to achieve in order to be able to guide them properly. They should

also be attentive to the child's physical and mental readiness to learn.

Undue pressure on the part of the parents and teachers may lead to

harmful effects on the child's growing personality and may hinder the

achievement of the developmental goals.

Havighurst and Duvall have given lists of developmental tasks of

each stage which, according to them, should be accomplished at the

proper stage. The author feels that these tasks can be related to

Erikson's concept of developmental goals. In other words, these tasks when accomplished could serve as a means of achieving the developmental goal of a specific stage of growth. With this hypothesis, the author analyzed the developmental tasks given by Havighurst, and Duvall, and picked up the developmental tasks relevant to the eight developmental goals described by Erikson.

The author also feels that as the developmental goals described by Erikson are applicable to Pakistani culture, so are the developmental tasks with exception of a few, and that these tasks can be used in the preparation of the study guide. She, therefore, has chosen only those developmental tasks that can be used in the context of the Pakistani way of life.

Child-Rearing Practices in Pakistani Culture

As stated in Chapter I, the main purpose in developing this study guide was to evolve principles of guidance that will help Pakistani women in guiding their children in accordance with developmental prinviples. The author therefore, wanted to know about the child-rearing practices existant in Pakistan, so that the views of Pakistani mothers about child rearing could be determined and their readiness to accept the child guidance principles (as described by the author) could be measured. This chapter gives a brief description of child-rearing practices in Pakistan.

It is very difficult to give any definite description of child-rearing methods or practices in Pakistan, because first there has been no systematic study in this field, and second what has been written is not applicable to all parts of Pakistan. or to all social strata. Hence it is difficult to make generalizations in this respect.

The writer has had to lean heavily on the data collected by Smitter and Dar (59), and the statement given is based either on these data or on the observations of the author while she was in Pakistan.

As has been indicated in the Commission on National Education Report (9) the number of literate Pakistani women is very small, hence it is futile to search for scientific child-rearing practices among the masses.

Most of the ideas on parenting of even the younger literate generation comes from traditional attitudes and instructions from their own mothers. In some of the families the infant care is literally directed by grandmothers, or great grandmothers, who are "experienced" and assume too much about children because of their contact and experience with their own children. Often their ideas run counter to the established scientific theories and may have drastic consequences.

Even among the educated class of women, very few have a knowledge

of psychology or physiology, and even if they know about current

theories, they consider some correct and laugh at others and through

conscious selective process, select one that they like and the one which

is convenient for them. (59)

The parenting practices may vary in different parts of Pakistan, but

generally range from extreme rejection to overindulgence. Extreme

cases of rejection are found for the most part in lower classes, where

children are an additional burden. Extreme permissiveness to the

point of laissez-faire, however, is also found among the same class

manifested in extreme lack of discipline and freedom of activity.

This is perhaps because the children in the lower class are the only

possession of which parents are the lawful owner, hence very precious.

Moreover, children are a form of security in that they will provide

for the parents in old age.

The middle and upper classes are generally more moderate in their

control practices, and on the whole there is more emphasis on the

physical aspect of growth than is found in the lower class families.

The mothers in the upper and middle class are quite concerned about the

physical well being of their children, very careful about the regular

feeding habits and toilet training, but they are seldom aware of the

psychological aspects of growth--the importance of reciprocal love

between children and mother, as an important factor in personality

growth.

The writer made an inquiry from the twelve Pakistani trainees who

are studying Home Economics at Oklahoma State University about why they

thought love and close contact with mother were important for children

and whether they thought they were necessary for proper development of

children. They all agreed that love and affection were important for children, but none of them were aware of the consequences that lack of love has on personality growth.

Generally, Pakistani mothers are very affectionate toward their children and express it freely. But this is sometimes an expression of their own ego-extension. They are generally unaware of the effects of giving and receiving love on the future personality development of the child.

Attitudes and practices in parenting.

Method of discipline in Pakistan differs from family to family. Most parents hold what Duvall (11) describes as traditional concepts of parenthood. Some are permissive while a few try to give reasonable freedom of action with guidance toward increased independence. On an average, however, the usual approach to the problem of discipline is force. The so-called "developmental attitude" toward parenthood is known only by a few of the educated class.

In general, children from lower social strata are handled in an extremely permissive manner; no restrictions are placed on their movements and they have hardly any rules to follow. For example children eat at will and handle what they want. Since there is no private property in most lower-class homes, little children are not exposed to constant "don'ts" heard in the middle-class homes. Because of this they experience little frustration and do not often come in conflict with father's authority. But father is nevertheless the highest authority in the lower-class homes and generally children very early accept the father as the boss, and identify with him, especially the male child.

Middle-class parents in Pakistan seem to be moving in two directions with regard to the parental attitudes and discipline of children. One

type is the traditionally stern parents. These are regarded as old

fashioned. They have a complete set of rules for the child which are

strictly enforced because the parents themselves had to follow such

rules at a young age. Such parents want to see their children as

"miniature adults" with good manners and behavior patterns. Some

parents in this group are so keen on imposing rules that they forget

children do many things out of curiosity and imitation. Many middle-

class children are punished by shouting and spanking.

Punishment usually does not carry any explanation with it as to why
children should not behave in this manner. The child does not know
and he is not told the reason for being punished. This pressure
from parents leads to frustration and tension in children. Outwardly
many look well behaved, but often they harbour a resentment against
all authority. (59, p. 61)

Another group of middle-class Pakistani parents hold permissive

attitudes and grant children full freedom of behavior. A child is

allowed to do whatever he wishes and whenever he wishes to do it. No

attempt is made to curb him. Such parents consider themselves educated

and modern, and believe that their approach to discipline is psycho-

logical. They rationalize their behavior by saying that harshness is

bad and absence of restriction is good for the child.

These parents often come in conflict with the older members of the

family who want to submit the children to the old rules of conduct.

The result is often a tenseness in relationship in the family; and in

such a family the child is confused by the freedom allowed by his

parents and restrictions from grandparents, and he does not know what

is the right thing to do.

Children born in the upper-class family in Pakistan generally enjoy

full freedom of behavior. The parents are so busy fulfilling social

obligations that often they have no time for the children. They do not

bother with rules or guide lines for their children. The children of

this class are usually looked after by an "Aya" or a maid servant, who at her own level tries to put some restrictions into effect, but the children scarcely listen to her. These "Ayas" however sometimes become the symbol of satisfaction for the children's need. In some cases, they become emotionally attached to them; thus unconsciously introjecting some of their values and socializing norms.

Toilet training.

In lower-class homes there is little systematic toilet training, but whatsoever it starts at an early age (often at the age of six months). This toilet training is mostly for the protection of bed or clothes that might be soiled by the child. However, when the children are able to walk, toilet training is neglected; children can eliminate when and where they like, and often learn to eliminate in the socially accepted manner through imitation.

Toilet training in the middle and upper class homes is begun when the child is about one year old. Sometimes the mothers of middle-class families become obsessive about toilet training. The child is completely toilet trained by the age of three or four.

Expectations of children.

In general, in Pakistani middle and upper classes, parents have excessive expectations of their children. During pre-school and even school years most parents expect their children to aspire to and measure up to their standards and values. Often these demands are beyond the understanding of the child.

The children get very little appreciation if they are successful, but lots of criticism and punishment if they fail to meet the expectations of the parents.

Inconsistency in the behavior of Pakistani parents toward their children is also very frequent. The children are given a certain amount of responsibility and are expected to behave themselves, but they are hardly given any share in decision making and have to obey their parental demands. Thus responsible action tends not to be associated with the right to make one's own decision, as is true in developmental parenthood.

Differences in attitudes towards girls and boys are also very clear in the behavior of Pakistani parents, especially in middle and lower class. "Half a dozen boys can be cheerfully accepted in otherwise hard-pressed families while this number of daughters is sufficient to set the seal on a parent's misfortune. (59, p. 31)

The girls are given more responsibility, and must look after the home and their siblings from a very early age.

Boys are often forgiven some of their lapses, in manners or morals, but the girls are severely punished. The repercussion of this attitude on boys and girls is too apparent to escape notice.

Girls often feel neglected and maltreated and harbor repressed hostility against the parents--a feeling which is quite frequently expressed in their ambivalent attitude towards the in-laws.

Discipline at school.

The schools in Pakistan can be divided into private, government, and municipal schools. Many private schools are run by the Christian missionaries and most of them are restricted to the children of upper and middle class because of the cost.

These schools, with the exception of very few, teach only the fundamentals of literacy. In special schools for children of the upper class, there is provision for academic as well as for extra-

curricular activities. Often these schools are patterned after the British system of education. The students in such schools are required to live in boarding houses. The children are expected to adjust to long hours of school and to learn to live according to rules laid down for hostel life. Living away from parents at an early age is thus a very exacting demand on these youngsters.

Another set of schools are those which are run by government or municipality. Smitter and Dar (59) while describing the education system in such schools in Pakistan say ,

In most schools, corporation, Government or private punishment is severe and frequent. Many teachers are untrained and even those who have received certificates for teaching have had little help in understanding the psychological needs and problems of children. Teachers are faced with huge classes from fifty to one hundred or more children. Textbooks are generally uninteresting, few supplementary books are available, maps and other teaching aids are in short supply. Classrooms are usually dark and uncomfortably cold in winter and hot in summer. Children frequently sit on mats on the floor or ground because of the scarcity of desks. Such conditions are not conducive to a high level of interest, and enthusiasm on the part of either teachers or children. (p. 102)

Teachers have little information about their children. They do not know which ones are shy and afraid or which ones are bright or dull. Some records are kept of academic progress but none are kept regarding children's developmental problems or emotional needs.

Teachers are confronted with an almost impossible task of attempting to teach huge groups of children whose personalities and interest they do not understand. They try to force the children to learn.

The result of lack of initiative on the part of teacher and student is evident in the large number of failures and drop outs.

Punishment is also very common in schools. As Smitter and Dar say :

Teachers resort to punishment in order to keep their children under control. . . Punishments vary from mild reprimands, extra tasks and humiliation before the class to severe cruelty. (59, p. 103)

The picture of Pakistani education system may not be as dark as Smitter and Darr have painted but on the whole there is hardly any concern for the need of children, or their individuality. Teaching is a routine task concerned with the memorization of lessons taught in class rather than a means of promoting individual capacities and personality growth.

Adolescent life in Pakistan.

Adolescents in Pakistan have their problems also. Most parents show little concern about the physical and psychological changes occurring in young people.

Among the lower class, teenagers rapidly enter adulthood, and have to resume responsibilities for making a living and caring for the family. They are at this stage either married or engaged to be married soon.

The upper and middle class parents, however, are very reluctant to give freedom to their children at this stage. They treat them as though they were school children and unable to make decisions and take responsibilities for themselves. Over-protection, especially for girls, is common.

Pakistani parents are especially very restrictive about the hours of coming in and going out of the adolescent and are anxious about the possibility of their "being spoiled."

Generally severe restrictions are placed on growing girls of middle and upper class. They are not allowed to mix with young boys and are well chaparoned when they go out. The traditional patterns are observed for the most part although families in contact with Western ideas may follow more relaxed practices.

Pakistani adolescents often criticize their parents and find fault

with their homes, but they seldom dare complain in front of their parents, instead they complain to others about the attitudes of their parents. Thus they show the typical reaction to autocratic parenthood.

Sex education is a taboo in Pakistan. Any information whatsoever on this matter is either through older friends or through books. Few parents in Pakistan realize that adolescents should be given information about these changes. The majority either pay no attention to these or are so embarrassed themselves that they are unable to discuss such matters with their sons and daughters. The adolescents, even if they innocently ask about these matters, are told to hush up. The Pakistani culture prohibits any outward expression of interest in the opposite sex before marriage. Consequently adolescents have very rare legitimate chances to satisfy their normal heterosexual interests. Early marriage was quite prevalent in Pakistan a few years back, but it is slowly loosing ground. The only way thus left to Pakistani adolescents is to repress the sexual urge until they are married. Their urge is often expressed in jokes among adolescents, and also in crushes on the teachers and in hero worship.

Interest and activities of adolescents differ according to the social status of their families. Middle and upper class youngsters are busy with school work, friends, sports, and hobbies. Friends are usually selected from the same social strata. However parents in Pakistan often make it difficult for young people to have friends. They are reminded again and again to be careful in choosing their friends. Frequently friends are a cause of conflict between children and parents. Instead of understanding the youngster's need for the company of their peers, many parents make it a cause of bickering. Inviting friends at home is also often objected to by parents, who

regard such assemblies as sheer waste of time and nuisance for the other members of the family. This attitude toward outsiders reflects the cultural attitude that family ties should take precedence over outside ties.

Careers for the Pakistani youth are also mostly selected by parents. Most boys and girls in Pakistan have little say about their future plans; whether it is the choice of a vocation or the question of marriage, adolescents usually accept their parents' arrangement and decisions. These parental decisions are frequently made when children are very young. In a few cases adolescents can plan for their own future or change parental decisions regarding their vocations. Sometimes the adolescents feel that the choices made for them are not the right ones and they would like to change their future vocation, but they cannot do so because they are dependent on their parents and have to abide by their judgement. Thus the traditional pattern of authority is translated into practice.

Summary. In short it can be said that Pakistani parents are still unaware of the implications of appropriate guidance for personality growth. They are either over strict or over indulgent and sometimes inconsistent. This inconsistency of behavior is quite marked in the discrepency made between the handling of girls as compared with boys.

Pakistani parents (though now changing) also seem to have hardly any concept of the developmental tasks or the importance of teachable moments. Guiding the child is either on the traditional pattern or is so relaxed, it borders on extreme permissiveness.

Adolescents are disciplined as though they were children. Oftentimes the adolescents are more severely controlled because of the notion that at this stage the youth can be easily spoiled. Often there is diverse

demand on the adolescent; he is made responsible for certain jobs, but he is hardly given any freedom of choice of action. In some cases the marriage partners and the careers of the adolescents are selected by the parents.

Sex education is unknown and the limited knowledge the adolescent gets is through friends or books. Expressions of sexual interest before marriage are taboo and are severely censured by the society.

Principles of Development

The author is interested in preparing a parent-child relationship
unit of instruction for the girls in the College of Home Economics in
Dacca, which will contribute to making them more competent and efficient
in handling children. Intelligent handling of children, however,
requires a knowledge of how children grow, how their growth is
influenced by internal and external factors, and what are the laws or
inner plan which determines their growth.

In the previous section of this chapter the author has dealt with
the stages of growth of the child, the developmental goal of each stage,
and the developmental tasks which serve as the means of achieving
these goals. In the following lines she attempts to summarize the
principles of development as stated by Hurlock (35), Breckenridge and
Vincent, (8) and other writers.

The law of growth as explained by these writers is the plan according
to which development takes place. It is a sequence of what follows what,
and how one factor facilitates or hinders the development of other
processes. These laws of development can be broadly categorized in
some general principles which are as follows:

Growth is both quantitative and qualitative.

The term growth implies two aspects of change which take place in
the organism. These two aspects are not interchangeable, but,
nevertheless, are inseparable. The child not only grows in size, but
matures in structure and function. Younger children are not only
smaller than older ones, they are also simpler organisms; both physically
and psychologically. As they grow in size, their physical, mental,
intellectual, and emotional stability also increases.

In maturing or developing he passes through successive changes, which are universal indicators of his progress. These indicators are called maturity indicators.

Some people, failing to understand this double aspect of growth, do not realize that children's intellectual capacity is essentially different from adults. We cannot without disaster expect the same motor skills, intellectual complexities, or character insights from young children that we expect from older children. They have simply not "grown up" any more than they have grown. Hence a wise mother will not only consider the physical growth, but also the maturity level while guiding the child.

Growth is a continuous and orderly process.

Growth is an orderly process following the inherent biological plan, and sequence of acquisition. Growth is due to the strong impulse to grow and is always orderly and sequential. It is the product of the child's innate gifts of inheritance, modified for good or for bad by his experience. Because growth is continuous, it has implication for the person who guides the child; because he must realize that what happens at one stage carries over into and influences the next and ensuing stages.

The tempo of growth is not even.

These sequences of development do not move along in time at a steady pace. There are periods of accelerated growth and periods of decelerated growth. During infancy and the early preschool years growth moves swiftly, while during the later preschool and school years the rate of growth slackens. However it does not mean that growth is not taking place if it is not apparent, even the apparent

sudden spurts in tempo of growth lead into and grow out of quieter and less dramatic periods.

Different aspects of growth develop at different rates.

Not all aspects of growth develop at the same rate at the same time; that is, they do not proceed along an even front. Physical development may shoot up at one time leaving little energy for language development, or often talking will develop more rapidly leaving behind the apparent physical growth. Again mental ability may be slackened for some time and shoot up at the other. The task of the adult is to consider the tempo of growth of the child while planning a program of education and guidance for the child.

Both rate and pattern of growth can be modified by conditions within and without the body.

Although the impulse to grow is strong through innate force and even though patterns are fairly definite for all children, both rate and exact pattern can be changed when the child's environment is not fulfilling the fundamental needs of the child. Nutrition, activity, rest, psychological challenge, opportunity to learn, security in affection, an adequate and understanding discipline, and many other circumstances are of great importance in determining how fast a given child will grow. Inherited tendencies no doubt determine the rate of growth, but adequate nutrition and healthy emotional and psychological environment are as important for proper development as biological inheritance and should be considered in guidance.

Each child is a unique individual.

Each child has his own rate of growth and capacity for maturation. There are also definite differences between boys and girls. We must

understand these unique aspects of each individual child's growth
if we are to treat children intelligently. Certain children may grow
fast and have the physical stamina and social maturity to enter school
at an early age, while other children of the same chronological and
mental ages will be quite unable physically or socially to fit into
the school system. Forcing children into any pattern of growth which
is not in harmony with their natural potentialities is likely to
result in tragedy.

It is difficult to understand one aspect of a child's growth without
understanding the other aspect. Mental development for example can be
understood only in relation to physical condition. There is a close
relation likewise in the total adjustment of the child and his physical,
intellectual and emotional capacity.

The principles of growth thus imply that the child's growth should
be viewed as a complex and dynamically interrelated phenomena; and
guidance should be a three-dimensional approach, keeping in view the
physical, mental and emotional development of the child. The
developmental parenthood should again be based not only on an under-
standing of the child, but also on an understanding of the environmental
forces, physical and social, which are operating on the child at a
given moment. In the light of the growing knowledge of the principles
of growth, psychologists have tried to formulate principles of guidance
that will insure the optimal physical and emotional adjustment of the
child.

An excellent summary of principle of guidance has been prepared
by Waring (67) which is given in the following section.

Principle of Guidance

This section deals with the principle of guidance prepared by

Waring. (67). These principles have emerged in relation to the frequent questions asked by parents about the guidance of children and are as follows:

1. Watching and waiting before helping gives the child an opportunity to initiate the desired performance.

2. Ignoring the questionable or undesirable behavior, meanwhile directing the child to acceptable behavior, provides an opportunity for achievement and approval.

3. Sharing with him socially provides additional satisfaction beyond that of achieving.

4. Approval encourages an activity and calls particular attention to the specific behavior approved.

5. Giving more help than is needed makes a difficult undertaking pleasant and satisfying (in case of too difficult work, or when the child is tired).

6. Preparing for success confidentally by directing the child's momentary interest toward achievement gets an optimum result from the efforts he puts forth.

7. Giving a child help as needed, otherwise letting him alone, gets an optimum of independence in performance.

8. Giving increasing help reinforces self-direction with enough adult direction for achievement in the undertaking.

9. Giving decreasing help gives recognition to his effort.

To summarize the above mentioned principles we can say that a person guiding the child should be alert to perceive the moment when the child is ready to learn, giving help when needed and gradually decreasing the help.

<u>Decisions related to the findings.</u>

The reader will recall that the author related the research that

supports the ages and stages theory according to Erikson. The

developmental task that must be accomplished so that the individual

achieve each stage are discussed in the section entitled "Description

and Analysis of Developmental Tasks." The findings on Parental Belief

questionnaire indicate that young Pakistani men and women are more

developmental in their attitude toward child rearing than their

ancestors and are ready to accept the principles of developmental child

guidance. (See p. 22)

Guidance principles applicable to developmental goals are assumed

to be the same in the United States and in Pakistan. Research is

unavailable to substantiate this, however, but the author assumes

similarities in the learning of <u>all</u> children.

Considering the factors mentioned in the paragraph above the author

feels justified in using Erikson's personality theory as a basis for

developing teaching material for a parent-child relationship unit.

Chapter IV that follows is the presentation of the study guide.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF THE STUDY GUIDE

Objectives Related to Developmental Goals

I. Introductory Objectives for the Student.

    A. Basic Objectives

        To gain some understanding of and come to appreciate
        the individual differences in children.

    B. Sub-Objectives

        To learn about the forces that lead to individual
        differences.

        To achieve an understanding of the developmental goals
        and their relation to healthy personality.

        To see the relationship between achievement of
        developmental tasks and the realization of the
        respective developmental goals.

II. Objectives and Related Developmental Goals for Helping Students to
Learn How to be Good Parents.

Parenthood Objectives in Infancy

A. Basic Objective (student):	A. Developmental Goal of the Infant:
To examine the developmental goal and the developmental tasks of the first stage of growth, and the guidance needed to help the child achieve a sense of basic trust.	Development of basic trust.
B. Sub-Objectives (student):	B. Developmental Tasks (infant):
To gain a knowledge of the infant's physical and psychological needs, and pattern of	Achieving physiological equilibrium necessary to maintain life. Learning to manage one's own

(Continued)

Sub-Objectives (student):

growth, and be able to provide
adequate parenting for the
satisfaction of his needs.

Developmental Tasks (infant):

body in variety of rudimentary
muscular activity.

Achieving the capacity to
perceive objects and learn the
rudiments of meaning in the
situation.

Learning to respond to and
communicate with significant
others.

Learning to perceive "self" as
a separate entity.

To appreciate the role of loving
care and consistent attention in
the development of basic trust,
and to develop in the capacity
of expression of love and affect-
ion for the infant.

Developing the ability to
perceive the love and affection
given to him by significant
people in his environment and
to respond to it.

Achieving the capacity to trust
people in his immediate
environment.

Developing the emotional security
and trust in his own self.

Parenthood Objectives in Toddler Stage

A. Basic Objective (student):

To understand the significance of adequate parenting for the development of autonomy in toddler and preschool children.

A. Developmental Goal of the Toddler

Development of independence and autonomy.

B. Sub-Objective (student):

To understand the meaning and nature of autonomy in children.

B. Developmental Tasks of the Child:

To identify the basic urges that lead the child towards the goal of being independent, and be able to provide situation for the fulfillment of these urges.

Learning to coordinate and control the physiological functions necessary to maintain life.

To appreciate the importance of providing opportunity for creative expression and to learn ways of meeting the child's need for activity.

Adjusting to the changing body and expectations resulting from improved skills.

To be able to understand some of the behavior and emotional problems that emerge as a part of growth process at toddler stage.

To develop normal pattern of emotional behavior for a wide variety of experience.

To approach the solving of behavior problem in a constructive way in order that the child learns to behave in a more acceptable manner, without losing his sense of security.

Developing a sense of achievement and personal worth.

To recognize the child's right as an individual, and be able to create a democratic atmosphere in the home.

Learning to assert himself as an autonomous individual in his own right.

To grow in ability to give encouragement and adequate emotional support when the child needs it; and to develop in competence to apply the principle of developmental guidance in the socialization of the child.

Incorporating some of the "do's" and "don'ts" of the socialization process by way of the approval or disapproval of his family.

Parenthood Objectives in the Preschool Period

A. Basic Objective (student):

To understand about the role of parents in the development of initiative in the young child.

A. Developmental Goal of the Pre-Schooler:

The development of initiative.

B. Sub-Objectives (student):

To learn the growth pattern of the preschooler, his characteristic behavior and its relation with the sense of initiative.

To be able to provide situations in which the preschooler grows as a reasonably self-sufficient person.

To realize the necessity of emotional expression of children, the emotional problems that result as a part of growth process, and be able to redirect the emotion of the preschooler, in socially approved manner.

To develop creative thinking about the situation which fosters initiative in the preschooler.

To be able to create and maintain effective communication system within the family, and to foster an atmosphere of love in the home.

To increase the ability of guiding the preschooler, in accordance with developmental principles.

B. Developmental Task:

Learning to adjust to a changing body and to the expectations resulting from improved skill.

Developing the physical skill appropriate to his stage of motor development.

Developing healthy emotional expression for a wide variety of experience.

Attaining a sense of achievement and personal worth.

Learning to communicate effectively with an increasing number of other people other than the parents.

Learning to be an autonomous person with initiative and conscience of his own.

Parenthood Objectives in the School-Age Children

A. Basic Objective (Student):

Students to recognize the need of industry of school-age children, and the importance of providing opportunity for the development of this need.

A. Developmental Goal of Children:

To develop a sense of industry without the feeling of shame and guilt.

B. Sub-Objective:

To understand about the meaning and nature of industry, and the attitudes of parents conducive to the achievement of sense of industry.

B. Developmental Tasks of Children:

To appreciate the youngster's need for physical activity, and mastery of skill, and its relation to the developing of industry in him.

Mastering the physical skill appropriate to the age and stage of his development.

To grow in ability for providing the ways in which the child can meet his demand for activity and achievement.

Developing physical ability needed for personal and family living.

To adapt to the child's need for growing physical independence from the family and help him to achieve a healthy dependence - independence relation with other family members.

Learning to be physically independent from the family.

To increase in sensitivity to appreciate child's emotional needs and be able to direct his feeling and emotions into a socially approved pattern.

Developing an increased ability to handle feeling and emotions in a socially approved manner.

To appreciate individual difference in the child and help him to continue the feeling of self worth.

Achieving a sense of acceptance and status in family and peer group.

To be able to provide appropriate guidance that leads to the development of initiative and industry in the child.

Growing in self confidence, self respect, self control. and realization.

To recognize the child's ability to relate effectively to others, both peer groups and adults, and be able to develop an effective communication system within the family.

Gaining increased ability to relate to parents, siblings, and relatives in cooperative and meaningful ways.

(Continued)

Sub-Objective	Developmental Tasks of Children
To learn ways of setting up expectations about a child's responsibility in the family, in order to let him learn ways of cooperative living.	Learning genuinely cooperative roles with others in many situations.
To understand the importance of religious, moral, and cultural value in the child's life, and the effectiveness of setting up examples for the child.	Learning to relate himself to loyalties beyond the moment and outside himself.
To be able to provide opportunities for the child in gaining experience in essential morality in action at home and with others.	

Parenthood Objectives in the Adolescent Stage

A. Basic Objective (Student)	A. Developmental Goal of Adolescent:
Gaining some understanding and competence in guidance for parenting during the adolescent stage.	To achieve a sense of identity.
B. Sub-Objective:	B. Developmental Tasks:
To gain knowledge of the physical and psychological changes occurring in adolescence and of providing physical facilities for the fulfillment of adolescent's needs.	Achieving an adequate physical health and adjusting to rapid physical changes common at this stage of development.
To appreciate the growing emotional maturity of the adolescent and to be able to facilitate his capacity for emotional independence from parents and other adults.	Achieving emotional maturity, and gaining emotional independence from the family.
To grow in ability to provide good patterns for the role of the growing adult woman, wife and mother.	Accepting a socially approved masculine or feminine role.
To develop an appreciation for the changing status of the adolescent in peer group, community and society, and to be able to provide opportunities in which the adolescent can assume his roles.	Finding oneself as a member of one's own generation in more mature relations with one's age mates, community and society.
To grow in ability to recognize the adolescent as an individual in his own right, and be able to help him in sharing the tasks and responsibilities of family living.	Learning to be an autonomous person capable of making decisions and running one's own life.
To learn about the importance of adolescent decisions in selecting a career and the encouragement he needs in making his own decision.	Preparing for an occupation and economic independence.
To understand the responsibilities implied in marriage and develop the capacity for preparing the adolescent for assuming these responsibilities.	Getting ready for marriage and family life.

(Continued)

Sub-Objective	Developmental Tasks of Children
To be able to develop a philosophy of life that fits in the pattern of changing world; and to guide the adolescent in the development of positive values.	Developing a worthwhile philosophy of life that makes sense in today's world development of positive values.

OBJECTIVE: To Gain Some Understanding of, and Come to Appreciate the Individual Differences in Children.

Expected Outcomes and Problems[1]	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Some appreciation of the individual differences in children.			
What common character- istics do children have?	As the members of the same human race, all children have some common characteristics.	Send the students to nursery school for obser- vation where children are of about the same age. Discuss the similarities 1. In color of hair, skin, and eyes. 2. In physical features. 3. In body stature. 4. In voice tones. 5. In activity.	Nursery School as an Observation Centre. Almy: Child Development. pp. 83-100. Film: "Learning to Understand Your Children" Parts I and II.
What characteristics, which differentiate one individual from the other, can be observed in the laboratory?	In spite of the apparent similarities, every individual is different from the other in one or other respects. Some differences are not obvious through obser- vation; therefore the	Ask the students to ex- plain how the children differed from each other 1. In size. 2. In appearance. 3. In tempo of activity. 4. In interest and ability.	Extension work, Oklahoma State University Bulletin, "Building Healthy Personality".

[1]The reader will recall that the problem statements were developed from the related objectives as stated under the section "Objectives related to developmental goals". (p. 118)

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	wise observer reports only on what he actually sees.	5. In temperaments. 6. In alertness. Ask the students to write logs about two nursery school children, emphasizing their observed similarities and differences.	Samples of written observational record.
What major ways do individuals differ?	Individuals differ in their patterns of physical growth, and body build, in the coordination of their nervous systems, in their mental abilities and in temperament and personality. For these persons, parents and teachers should study the differences.	From boards and charts on body build and size at various ages. Students and teachers bring pictures showing different physical differences.	Strong: An Introduction to Child Study, pp. 40, 69, 209, 54, 136, 137, 504.
Some understanding of the forces that lead to individual difference.			
What are the forces that make an individual different from others?	The factors and forces thet contribute to individual differences in children are the result	Students read and prepare short reports on topics that contribute to individual differences.	Breckenridge and Vincent: Child Development, pp. 59-68, and Figure 13, pp. 71-76.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	of the interaction be-tween heredity, and the impress of the physical and cultural forces in their environment.	Teachers and students summarize these forces in the form of an out-line. Ask the students to explain some specific custom and expectation in their culture, which has affected their per-sonality; i.e., demand for modesty, shyness, etc.	Almy: Child Development, Chapter II. Mussen & Conger: Child Development and Personal-ity, Chapter II, "Genetic Factors in Development." Hutt and Gibby: The Child, Chapter III, "The Child Inherits a Culture." Film: "Heredity and Pre-natal Development."
How are these forces--heredity, environment, and culture--inter-related?	A child is the outgrowth of his environment, heredity and culture. Therefore, each person is an individual in his own right. We should accept the differences that cannot be changed.	Explain how heredity determines the potential and environment helps or hinders the potential for growth and achievement.	
Why is it important for the parents and teachers to understand about the forces which go to make up the individual?	Through knowing the factors which affect the growth and development of children, adults can open the way to optimal development for children by providing satisfactory environment and guidance.	Read the story "Identical Twins Treated Differently." Discuss the behavior of Ardis and Alice. Explain how the attitude of the mother and grandmother affected the personality growth of Alice.	Blanche C. Weill: Through Children's Eyes. (Story III)

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcome and Problem	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Is it important for the parents to treat each child in a different way, or are there some general principles of guidance?	All children are different and therefore must be studied and observed by parents, to understand their individual needs. Children however are very similar in their growth toward maturity (physical and emotional) and have some needs which are common in all individuals, and should be met to achieve a healthy balanced personality. For the reason of these similarities in children's needs and developmental goals, some of the same guidance principles are applicable in all child rearing.	Use a short case with multiple choice responses as a class exercise to 1. bring out the needs of the child in each case, and 2. note the developmental goal he is trying to achieve, and 3. select the guidance suggestion that would help the situation.	Almy: Child Development, pp. 66-80. Hurlock: Development Psychology, pp. 1-23.

Culminating experience: Students write a self-portrait discussing their feelings of likeness to and difference with their siblings and other children. How were these differences regarded and treated by parents and others in their immediate environment; and how did this handling affect their present feelings about themselves.

OBJECTIVE: To Achieve an Understanding of the Developmental Goals and Their Relation to Healthy Personality.

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Increased understanding of developmental goals and their relation to healthy personality.	The physical and psychological development of the individual is predetermined by a biological ground plan. The development, though a continuous process, has clear-cut stages--"the stages of growth". Each stage has a developmental goal, which the individual has to achieve in order to grow into a healthy, well-balanced personality.	Participating lecture using a chart on the growth spiral with its related developmental stages and goals. Ask the students to read about the theory of personality profounded by Erikson.	Almy: Child Development, pp. 73-80. Martin and Stendler: Readings in Child Development, pp. 213-220.
What are the means of achieving the developmental goal?		In order to achieve the developmental goals, the individual has to accomplish certain tasks, termed as the developmental tasks.	
What is meant by developmental task concept?	One general framework based on the developmental task summarizes the concept of how to adjust the child's inner physical and emotional drives and needs to the necessity of learning how to live successfully and happily in the	Students are assigned outside reading on developmental task concept--one group reporting the history of the origin of developmental tasks, the other defining the developmental tasks concept, and naming the	Havighurst: Developmental Task and Education. Duvall: Family Development, pp. 95-113.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	society in which he finds himself.	developmental task of different stages.	
What is the basis of the developmental tasks?	The developmental tasks originate from the vital needs of the individual; are inevitable, insistent and urgent for growth; and can be accomplished only by the individual himself; but cultural forces in the forms of peer, parents, teachers, and all significant persons determine the way these tasks should be achieved.	Panel: The different expectations of two different cultures (family society and the peer group) have with regard to the adolescent girl and her achievement of marital intimacy.	Duvall: Family Development, Chapter V, "Family Developmental Tasks".
Are there many developmental tasks?	The developmental tasks are a series of inter-related tasks, pertaining to each stage of growth, and successful accomplishment of a developmental task paves the way for the emergence and effective achievement of future developmental tasks.	Ask the students to indicate at which stage of development they are. What is the developmental goal at this stage? Which goal should they have achieved to reach the present goal?	Chart of the Growth Spiral and Related Developmental Goal.
Do developmental tasks differ from culture to culture?	The developmental tasks with slight cultural variations are basically	Students find books and magazines depicting pattern of life in	

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
If so, how? For what reason? What are the developmental tasks applicable to my culture?	the same for every individual in every culture because they arise from the needs or urges common to all human organisms.	different cultures. Comparison of young people in different culture. In what needs are they similar? What are the things that all people strive for? 1. Independence. 2. Achievement. 3. Social competence. 4. Affectional relation- ship. 5. Mental and physical health. 6. Working philosophy of life.	
Knowing these things about the child's development, what implications does the developmental tasks and goal concept have for parenting?	The parents should under- stand that to the extent to which they assist the children to accomplish their developmental tasks by encouragement and free opportunities, they promote the grwwth fulfillment of the children	Illustrate with a drawing of a table showing the basic needs and related goals. Class Discussion: Question: Knowing these facts about child's development, what impli- cations does the develop- mental tasks and goal concept have for parenting? Students check sheet on "Basic Beliefs about Parenthood."	Check sheet on "Basic Beliefs About Parenthood" developed by the author. Duvall: Family Develop- ment, "Concepts of Parenthood, pp. 48-49.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problemss	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
What are the developmental tasks of each stage of development?	Every stage of growth has some vital needs to be satisfied, these needs serve the basis for the developmental task of that stage.	Explain the table and discuss its implications. Summarize the growth spiral and its developmental stages.	

An open-book evaluation: Teacher constructs some situations involving children and their needs and developmental tasks. Have students point out the differing needs of these children, the like needs. Then instruct them to find the pertinent developmental tasks and corresponding tasks for parents that apply to each situation.

OBJECTIVE: To Examine the Developmental Goals and Tasks of the First Stage of Growth and the Corresponding
Guidance to Help the Child Achieve a Sense of Basic Trust.

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Some understanding of the developmental goal of the first stage of growth, and growing ability to provide situation for the accomplishment of this goal.			
What is the developmental goal of the first stage of growth?	The first developmental goal that the child has to achieve is the sense of "basic trust".	Participating lecture on the meaning and return of sense basic trust.	
What are the most important needs of the infant that should be satisfied to develop the sense of basic trust?	The sense of basic trust is the first component of a healthy personality. It emerges as a result of the satisfaction of the physical and emotional needs of the infant, and the warm affectionate contact with the mother.	Students develop from outside reading how basic trust is acquired by babies.	Stone and Church: Childhood and Adolescence, Chapter III, "The Infant." Hutt and Gibby: The Child, pp. 84-87. Almy: Child Development, pp. 139-145.
Some appreciation of the role of loving care and consistent attention in the development of basic trust in children.			
What are the physical	An affectionate mother	Observe mother and babies	Film: "Baby Meets His

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
needs and emotional needs of the infant and how should they be met?	can foster a sense of "basic trust" in infants by accepting each infant as a unique individual, by interpreting his unique needs and satisfying them.	describe the mothers' behavior toward baby. Was the mother's handling appropriate to make the child secure? Show film: "Meeting the Emotional Needs of Children; Children Growing up with Other People." Discuss the emotional need of infant which a mother can satisfy; which other adults can satisfy.	Parents." Opaque projector of pictures of mothers in other cultures. Stone and Church: Childhood and Adolescence, pp. 58-66. James Hymes, Jr.: "Enjoy Your Child Ages 1, 2, and 3."
What attitudes and characteristics must a mother develop in order to contribute to a child's sense of basic trust?	How the mother reacts to the new born depends on her development as a' woman; on her unconscious attitude toward the child; on the way she has lived through pregnancy and delivery; on her and her community's attitude toward child rearing.	Observe through pictures different ways of carrying babies in different cultures. Discuss close contact or its lack.	Picture or demonstration of holding a baby in different cultures. Mussen and Conger: Child Development and Personality, pp. 136-170.
How can we understand that the infant is developing a sense of basic trust?	The sense of basic trust can be easily observed in the behavior of infants. A secure child is a	Observe babies, see how they react if they are not held properly; see the change in respiration	

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
What happens if the sense of basic trust is not developed in the infant?	healthy infant - the first demonstration of the sense of basic trust in the baby is the ease of his feeding, the depth of his sleep, the relaxation of his bowels.	when there is sudden noise. Assign students to hold and fondle a baby and report to the class some of the tension or relaxation they felt in the child as they held and fed them. What might account for differences. Discuss what they learned and summarize: The satisfaction of affectional needs is a necessity for affective physical growth also, and if not satisfied may affect the physical development and health of the infant. Teachers lecture on research regarding effects of basic trust or its lack in the development of children.	

Summary of learning.

Students construct under guidance of teacher a list of learnings about children with corresponding suggestions for parents. Have these copied from the board into notebooks for future references.

UNIT IV

OBJECTIVE: To Understand The Significance of Adequate Parenting for the Development of Autonomy in Toddler and Pre-school Children.

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Some appreciation of the meaning and nature of the sense of autonomy		Participating Lecture by the teacher.	Stone and Church: Childhood and Adolescence, pp. 112-116.
How is basic trust related to autonomy?	Development of basic trust sets the stage for the achievement of autonomy–a sense of independence and eases the conflict between the tendency to be dependent and at the same time to be autonomous.	With the help of the student the teacher recapitulates the growth spiral, to recall the relationship between basic trust and autonomy. Review the meaning of autonomy as applied to the toddler and pre-school child.	Martin and Stendler: Readings in Child Development, pp. 213-217.
When and how does the baby grow toward autonomy?	A baby may show something like autonomy from the beginning, but under normal conditions it is not until the second year that he begins to experience the whole conflict between being an independent creature and being a dependent one.	Cite examples of children's experiences that show a child's experimenting with new experiences and new things only in a safe environment with adults whom he trusts close by. Get some similar illustrations from students' experiences with toddlers.	Almy: Child Development, p. 150.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Some understanding of the basic urges that force the toddler to be independent, and a growing ability to provide for the satisfaction of the child's needs. What are the basic urges that lead the child towards the goal of being independent?	The toddler has a tremendous urge to be always on the go, to manipulate, to reach, and to master. This need for activity is the result of the growing maturation of muscular systems. The consequent ability to coordinate a number of highly conflicting action patterns, such as "holding on" and "letting go", and the satisfaction he gets by his success contributes to his sense of independence (or autonomy).	Teacher demonstrates the urge of the children to reach, grasp, manipulate. She points out the differences between older and younger children in the maturation of the muscular system. Teacher describes and defines autonomy as it appears in people. Students observe the efforts of an infant to break away from his dependency on adults. Students observe a child two to three years old, and write an anecdote in which he tried to be independent.	Stone and Church: Childhood and Adolescence, pp. 105-112. Hymes Jr.: Enjoy Your Child, Ages One, Two, and Three, pp. 1-15.
Growing competence in providing opportunity for creative expression of the toddler.	Parents and adults who live with children can foster their growth of independence by providing a variety of opportunities for creative expression.	Discuss what is the relationship between being able to create and the desire to be independent.	
What is the significance of the active behavior of the toddler?	The toddler wants to try his own wings, and to become more and more of a person. Through consistent questions, actions.	Construct in the group a form for recording the questions children ask. Use this form for	Jersild: Child Psychology, 4th ed., "Resistant Behavior, pp. 199-216.

OBSERVATION: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	and explorations, he tries to gain power over himself, over people and over things.	recording the questions children ask. Use this form for observation of a toddler and prepare an oral report. Describe the significant pattern of toddler's behavior. Compare it with the behavior at infant level.	Film: "They Act Their Age."
What are some of the specific activities that increases the toddler's sense of power, and add to his growing sense of confidence in himself?	Making noises is a favorite activity of the toddler. Making noise seems to feed into the toddler's sense of power, hence one of the big adjustments as the parents of one, two, or three is to learn to take some noise, also to control the noise making of children by having special times and places where noise is encouraged.	Observe the noise producing toys in the nursery school and at home. Give a report on toys which you consider more suitable for children of these ages.	Hynes, Jr.: Enjoy Your Child, Ages One, Two, and Three.
How can parents keep the activities of a child within safe bounds yet allow freedom for self expression?	Curiosity also knows no bounds in the toddler and preschooler. Touching, pulling, throwing, please him, and add to his growing sense of	Show the film, "Terrible Two's and Trusting Threes." Lecture based on the picture. Play a skit depicting a curious child and restrictive mothers'	Film: "Terrible Two's and Trusting Three's."

OBJECTIVES: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	competence. Parents should realize that getting into everything is a sign that he is bright in mind and spirit; and should provide situations where the child can experience the rough and smooth, the firm and the liquid. These experiences contribute to their developing sense of knowing the world and mastering it, and steers them away from being afraid of the unknown.	behavior toward it. Then replay the skit depicting a mother who understands the child's urge to test his growing capacity. Students make a flip chart with "do's" and "don'ts" for encouraging autonomy in a toddler. Draw up a criteria for environmental helps that are conducive to growth of autonomy in children.	Spock: Baby and Child Care, pp. 260-283. Flip chart showing "do's" and "don'ts" for encouraging autonomy in toddlers.
Some recognition of the behavior and emotional problems emerging at the toddler stage, and growing ability to handle the problems in a constructive way.		Film: "Fears of Children" followed by discussion of ways to avoid and overcome fears.	Film: "Fears of Children."
What are some of the behavior and emotional problems at the toddler stage?	The most striking display of the toddler's autonomy is his intermittent negativism, either expressed vocally by "No", or physically by kicking, biting and scratching, and often by temper tantrums.	Each student cites an example of negativistic behavior in the toddler. Discussion follows regarding the ways the grownups should handle the particular negativistic behavior in the toddler.	Hymes, Jr.: Enjoy Your Child, Ages One, Two, and Three, pp. 11-15. Strang: An Introduction to Child Study, pp. 112-122.

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	Often the negativistic behavior springs up abruptly in the midst of cheerful conformity, and is little more than play acting designed to test his sense of power.		Children's Bureau Publication No. 30, 1956, "Your Child From One to Six," pp. 10-11.
	Parents should understand that negativism is a normal, healthy part of development. If the toddler has ample opportunity to practice things on his own, balanced by adult support when he needs it, and by a minimum of necessary prohibitions, he will emerge from toddlerhood with a sound sense of his own abilities and a readiness to face the problems in later life.	Students observe toddlers in the nursery school. Report back how the teacher handled the negativistic behavior of toddlers.	Observation in the nursery school. Spock: Baby and Child Care, pp. 309-314.
Growing ability to appreciate the toddler as an autonomous person, and to create a democratic atmosphere in the home.	Central to the development of autonomy is the toddler's growing self awareness. With increased perceptual ability the toddler is able to differentiate between himself and other people and from physical environ-	Students note the inci- dents in which a child makes references to self and others by symbols indicating "I", "me", "mine"; and how he refers to "mama," "papa" "ayah," and others.	Prescott: The Child in the Educative Process, pp. 379-406.

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	ment, and to view himself as a separate person who is often in conflict with outside pressures. The picture of the "self" that the child gets depends on how he is reviewed by the significant others in his life. Affection, tolerence and esteem on the part of his parents and other people increases his feeling of well being and adds to his self worth.	Students write a log on their ideal self and real self; also state how far their concepts of real and ideal selves have been influenced by the views of the parents.	McCandless: _Children and Adolescent_, Chapter VI, "The Self Concept."
What are some of the developmental principles that can be applied to guidance during toddlerhood?	Some limits are necessary in guiding the toddler. Wise parents can help the toddler to grow into an autonomous person.	Students present a bulletin board arrangement presenting through pictures some problem situation and stating a principle of guidance applicable in each situation.	Almy: _Child Development_, pp. 193-197. Bulletinboard arrangement.
	1. By expressing love and affection for the toddler when he needs it.		
	2. By accepting some of the behavior problems of the toddler as normal.		
	3. By making demands that are suitable for the age.		

OBJECTIVES: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	4. By giving opportunity to the toddler to test his growing capacities.		

Evaluation: Teacher gives case histories depicting some phase of toddler behavior. Students analyze the needs of the toddler in that situation, and state what facility they should provide to help the toddler in satisfying the given need.

OBJECTIVE: To Understand About the Responsibility of Parents in the Development of Initiative in Young Children.

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Some understanding of the growth pattern of the preschooler, his characteristic behavior and its relation to the sense of initiative.			
What are some of the characteristic behavior of children five to six years old which are related to the development of initiative in young children?	The child five to six years old is still very active, but without the restlessness of preschool child. His activities have a definite direction usually toward the mastering of certain skill, achievement of which gives great satisfaction to the child and serves as the basis for the feeling of initiative. Parents should therefore help their youngsters.	Lecture reviewing the meaning of initiative and its importance in healthy personality development.	Film: "Frustrating Fours and Fascinating Fives."
		Show film: "Frustrating Four and Fascinating Five." Students review the activity of five-year olds and how the adults in the film dealt with it.	Senn: The Healthy Personality, pp. 120-127.
			Stone and Church: Childhood and Adolescence, pp. 204-223.
			Almy: Child Development, pp. 199-209.
	1. By providing opportunity for directed activities.		
	2. By setting up simple tasks which the children can master.		

Expected Outcome and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
What developmental principles can be applied in guiding the preschooler.	3. By giving specific approval when the simple tasks are satisfactorily accomplished.	Plan an observation of children ages five and six to observe evidences of independence in children. Make notes about how adults encourage independent actions in children. Report the observations to the class for discussion and summary.	Visit to a kindergarten school.
Growing ability in creating situations in which the preschooler grow as a reasonably self-sufficient person.	The child at kindergarten school age is beginning to be quite independent and enjoy doing things for themselves. Mothers often become irritated by the youngsters' slowness and ineptness and try to do the things for him, but such help robs the children of one of his greatest sources of satisfaction of accomplishment. Parents should therefore let the youngsters do things for themselves so they could get the feeling of achievement that is most important for building self reliance and courage to meet with difficult tasks.	Students write episodes about the incidents when their young siblings or relatives try to show independence. Discuss how they can help them.

Teacher brings in some case record students discuss how they would guide the child in this situation. (See sample of teaching aids.) | Mussen and Conger: _Child Development and Personality_, pp. 233-256. |
| What kind of activities are suitable for children at kindergarten level? | In spite of an increase in the attention span, the children at this stage | Visit a kindergarten school. See how the activities of children are | Hefferman: _Guiding the Young Child_, pp. 21-36. |

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcome and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	cannot be expected to sit still for a long period of time. Hence activities planned for the child should be interesting and of short duration.	planned. Discuss why the schedule is as it is.	Stone and Church: Childhood and Adolescence, pp. 192-200.
	Often the irritability of child is a result of fatigue; hence a period of strenuous activity should be balanced with periods of lesser activity.	Report to the class some learnings gleaned from reading on the children's interest span. Also, have some students report on the balance of activity and rest that is suitable for children, and tell why.	
Increasing ability to create an effective communication system in the family and in the capacity to foster independence and initiative in the young child. How does sharing responsibility strengthen the sense of initiative of the preschooler?	The preschool child is old enough to assume some independence and real responsibilities. He wants to be treated like an important person and likes to show his independence by being trusted with errands and simple jobs. Participation in family errands not only helps the youngster to internalize his or her sex role, it also creates a	Students plan some household activities in which kindergarten-age children can participate. Students make a list of errands suitable and safe for children. Each student tries one of these suggestions with a sibling or a relative and report to the class the child's response.	Neisser, Edith G.: Your Child's Sense of Responsibility. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 254.

Expected Outcome and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	feeling of self worth. Parents should, therefore, encourage the efforts on the part of the small child "to help"; in order to give the child the desired satisfaction.		Walter and Edith Neisser: Making the Grade as Dad. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 157. Duvall: Family Development, pp. 260-266
What kind of parental attitude fosters the child's readiness to assume responsibility?	If discharging obligations brings recognition, pride in a task worth doing, or a pleasanter relationship with his fellows, a child will tend to show dependability more frequently. Hence it is the task of parents to give encouragement, love and recognition to the child when he does some task.	Students recall from childhood experiences; some of the responsibilities they assumed and how their accomplishments were recognized. Dramatize an incident of a parent and child showing encouragement and recognition. Parent uses specific praise.	
Some awareness of the emotional problems of preschoolers, and growing ability to redirect the emotions of young child in socially approved channels.	Emotions, conflicts, and frustration are the essence of life and cannot be avoided. Because of the child's lack of experience in handling upsetting situations, parents try to protect him from coming up against things that upset him. Letting him	From outside readings students prepare a list of emotional problems common at preschool age, and the cause of such emotional problem. Case history showing some emotional problems of preschooler, with multiple choice answers.	Children's Bureau of Publication: Your Child From One to Six, pp. 7-13. Hutt and Gibby: The Child Development and Adjustment, pp. 176-178. Almy: Child Development, pp. 237-262.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	solve simple problems, however, gives him a better chance to gain self confidence.	Students check the correct answer.	
In what way does play represent the expression of the child's emotions and feelings?	The child at kindergarten stage is a creature of imagination. He likes to play imaginery roles and often act out his problems in dramatic play. Play at this stage thus has a definite meaning. Parents can therefore help their children. 1. By providing opportunity for dramatic imaginative play. 2. By understanding the emotional needs underlying this play. 3. By letting the children steam out their emotions. and frustrations in play situations. 4. Planning learning experiences based on play activity for children.	Students report from outside reading their understanding about the meaning of play. Observation of play activity at kinder- garten school. Set up an observation outline or check sheet to record evidences of 1. Dramatic play. 2. Displays of emotion. 3. The playing out of frustrations for emotional release. 4. The learning taking place in music, nature or story periods.	Hymes: Understanding Your Children's Play. Hartley and Goldenson: The Complete Book of Children's Play, 1957, Chapter II. Oklahoma State University Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Mimeographed sheet, Dr. Senn – "Toys". Stone and Church: Childhood and Adolescence, pp. 108-112. Almy: Child Development, pp. 242-259.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
How can quarrels and squabbles of children be used by parents to guide the children toward greater ability to solve their differences?	At this stage, the child becomes greatly interested in group activity and likes to play with other children; however, since sense of belonging is also developing at this stage, fighting and quarreling are also frequent. Parents can help their children to grow socially by planning supervised play activity, yet giving the youngsters opportunity to learn better ways of getting along, and letting them increase their ability to handle situations themselves.	Role play: Children fighting and two mothers' attitude toward it. Discuss and get suggestions from class. Role play the suggested way to mediate the quarrel by separating feelings from actions.

In the film, "Sibling Rivalries and Parents," students analyze the techniques the parents use to separate feelings from actions in their guidance of the children. | Jones, Eve: Natural Child Rearing, pp. 134-145.

Film: "Sibling Rivalries and Parents," McGraw-Hill Book Company. |
| Increasing ability to guide the preschoolers in accordance with developmental principles. | | Students read: "The Hand that Rocks the Cradle," Woman's World Magazine, (Karachi) pp. 40-67. Discussion and evaluation of the views depicted in the article. | Jones, Eve: Natural Child Rearing, pp. 101-124.

Woman's World (Karachi) pp. 40-47. |
| How can undesired behavior be restricted at the preschool stage? | The age between (five and six) is the period of conformity and obedience. It is the | Lecture on how conscience is developed through internalization of paternal standards. | Baruch, Dorothy W.: "How to Discipline Your Children," Public Affairs Pamphlet, No. 154. |

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
How can parents help a child to develop a healthy conscience; or to internalize the ethical standards of the culture?	age when "conscience" is developing and children seem to understand the consequence of behavior. The children are willing to follow rules, and keep up to standards, yet a wise parent should always try to discipline the child by encouragement, reassurance and guidance, rather than by punishment and shaming.	Draw examples of the growth of conscience from the experiences of the class.	
What is the basis of development of conscience?	A child learns about right and wrong long before he can understand what the word means. In his effort to be like the mother and father he admires, the child imitates the parents' actions, attitudes and even feelings.	Have they copied any parental attitude?	Prescott, Daniel A.: The Child in Educative Process, "How Culture is Internalized," pp. 369-378.
	Identification with parents is thus characteristic of this age, hence parents should try to teach by serving as models of ethical behavior and observation of the moral code.	Use short case studies and cartoons for illustrating the growth of ethical standards.	

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
How is severe conscience related to initiative?	Too much restrictions and criticisms on the part of parents lead to the development of a severe "super-ego" in children. Children feel "afraid" that their activity will annoy the parents, and lose initiative in trying something new. Hence too much severe discipline is harmful to the development of the sense of initiative.	Lecture by teacher on: 1. The relation between inconsistent parental, guidance, and socio- pathology in the child; 2. Consistent and fair discipline and develop- ment of "conscience" that allows for creative achievement through initiative; and 3. Overly restrictive discipline and the development of a "super- ego" that thwarts initiative and creativity in the child.	

Evaluation exercise: Check the teaching aid called "Parents Set the Pace." Students check the answers that represent their attitudes toward the guidance of children. Students indicate by a star (*) those items about which their ideas have changesd.

    This teachin aid is adapted from Professor Hazel Ingersoll's "Mom and Dad Set the Pace" which is an exercise to help students determine their positive or negative attitudes toward developmental guidance of children.

OBJECTIVE: To Recognize the Need of Industry of School-Age Children and the Importance of Providing
Opportunity for the Development of These Needs.

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Some understanding of the meaning and nature of the child's "sense of industry."	Industry is the goal of the fourth stage of the child's life; and is marked by the feeling of "I am what I learn and master." It is one of the components of healthy personality, and should be achieved before the child enters the adolescent stage.	Students draw on the board the growth spiral.	Teacher shows examples of children's activities and accomplishments that represent feeling of mastery.
What is the sense of industry and how is it related to healthy personality?		Review the growth spiral to examine the relationship between the feeling of industry, and the developmental goals of other stages.	Martin and Stendler: Readings in Child Development, pp. 213-224.
		Lecture by teacher on the meaning and nature of sense of industry.	Stone and Church: Childhood and Adolescence, "The Middle Years of Childhood," Chapters VIII and IX.
		Assign students to cite examples or bring examples to class to illustrate a child's learning or mastery.	Film: "From Sociable Sixes to Noisy Nines."
How is the sense of industry manifested in the child's behavior?	The sense of industry is revealed in the child's attempt to learn about new things; and the right way to do things and to gain approval by doing what is correct.	Students prepare a report about the needs and behavior of child at this stage.	
		Film: "From Sociable Sixes to Noisy Nines," Discussion on the film, dealing with the child-	

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
		ren's behavior shown in this film.	
Some appreciation for the youngster's need for physical activity and mastery of skills; and the relation of such mastery to the child's growing sense of industry. What kind of parental guidance is conducive to the achievement of mastery?	Every activity of the child and even play is the manifestation of his need for mastery over space, and achievement of power, which is thus to be demonstrated. Many anxieties in the child's life can be avoided if parents: 1. Appreciate the youngster's need for mastery of skill. 2. Give help as needed. 3. Avoid giving unwelcome help when the child attempts mastery in play and resists the parents interference. 4. Let him initiate his own activities, in-so far as possible, rather than forcing preconceived activities on him.	Students read about the developmental tasks of school-age children, and developmental tasks of parents of school-age children. Group work: Divide the class into groups, each group to illustrate by role play a different way of encouraging initiative in a child. Discuss each example of role playing with regard to its contribution, or lack of contribution to the child's initiative.	Duvall: Family Development, "Families with School Children," Chapter X, pp. 261-285. Almy: Child Development, pp. 384-385. Martin and Stendler: Child Development and Personality, pp. 215-216. Ralph H: "The School-Age Family," mimeograph sheet, Oklahoma State University.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Increased sensitivity to the child's emotional needs; and some ability to direct the child's feelings and emotions into a socially approved pattern.	Security is still a basic need for the school-age child. A secure child is one who is ready to take initiative, and to test and retest his abilities.	Teacher presents the case of Jane Warner and Pat Plummer[1] or similar case. Students discuss what kind of home experience and parental attitude had led to the described behavior of Jane and Pat.	Walter and Edith Neisser: Making the Grade as Dad, pp. 12-21. Almy: Child Development, pp. 382-385.
How is the feeling of security related to the development of industry?	Approval still is a great factor for giving security to the school child. Parents should realize that:		
What parental attitudes will foster a sense of security?	1. General approval by giving sanction, assurance, or appreciation, encourages any activity which the child may be engaged at the time.		Duvall: Family Development, pp. 48-49.
	2. Approval makes the child feel grown up and leads him to take more responsibilities provided the approval is for _specific_ achievement.	Prepare a list of do's and don'ts for parents based upon what the student knows about developmental parenthood. This can be put on the bulletin board.	Mussen and Conger: Child Development and Personality, pp. 330-343. Bulletin board arrangement showing some of the do's and don'ts for parents.
	3. Provision for the release of emotion, and accepting the	[1]Almy: Child Development pp. 382--385.	

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	child's feeling as natural leads to clear understanding and feeling of security.		
How will developing a sense of industry and self-esteem contribute to the child's sense of security?	Acknowledging one's mistakes to the child raises the child's self esteem, clears his confusion, and may bring forth greater effort. Acknowledging the child's industry, thus contributing to his sense of security in his relation to parents.	Discuss how to admit to the child that adults make mistakes. Role play an incident and evaluate in terms of increased self esteem for the child and security in the relationship between parent and child.	
What are some of the opportunities parents can provide for the development of industry?	Home atmosphere being the most influential factor in the development of industry, the parents have to provide opportunity for the development of this sense. They can help the child by: 1. Asking him to share some of the responsibilities at home. 2. Providing an atmosphere of co-	Students read about the help pattern in American culture, and compare it with the help pattern in Pakistani homes. Discussion regarding the difference in pattern of help and its applicability to Pakistani culture. Students supply illustrations of how children can continue and take responsibilities at home	.... .. 3. Sussman: "The Help Pattern in the Middle-Class Family," American Sociological Review, Vol. 18, No. 1, pp. 22-28.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	..operation at home where the child gains more through joint efforts with parents and siblings.	to increase their sense of industry. Cite instances from memory in which children were deprived of the opportunity to help in the home.	
	4. Supply an enriching environment to challenge the child's incentive to try and to master new things.		Teacher shows some games that would challenge children's thinking and skills.
Increased recognition of the child's need for grow- ing physical independence from the family and affiliation with his own peer group.	The school age is essen- tially a gang age, because during this period affil- iation with one's age mates – the gang becomes of cardinal importance. Beyond the family centered home based life of earlier years, the child joins a school-based society of his peers, where he learns firsthand about formal social structure, whether democratic or authoritarian, about being a leader with followers, about justice and in- justice, and through competition with the peer group he learns to establish his status in	Students write log about their important exper- iences at school with the peer group. How they felt about it? Did that experience add to their feeling of initiative? What significance did peer group attachments have in relation to gaining independence from parents? Case his- tory showing a boy's lack of adjustment to peer group.

Students discuss:

1. Causes that led to lack of adjustment. | Stone and Church: Child- hood and Adolescence, pp. 209-223.

Log: Important experience with peer group.

Case history: Showing lack of adjustment of a boy to peer group. |
| Why is the "school age" called the "gang age?"

What is the importance of peer groups in the development of industry in the child. | | | |

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	that group. Experience in the group thus influences his sense of achievement.	2. What developmental task of the boy has not been met?	Duvall: Family Development, p. 267. Ibid: p. 267-272.
		3. How his experience with gang will affect future development?	
What is the implication of "gang age" to parenting?	Parents can facilitate the child's adjustment to peer group by:	Students discuss case of Billy. (Duvall, p. 267)	
	1. Knowing what is going on in the school and play groups, as well as keeping in touch with the child's reaction to them, and by answering the child's questions wisely.	Whether the attitude of Billy's mother was appropriate. How her attitude affected her relationship with Billy.	
	2. By sharing the experience of children and by seeing life through child's eyes.	Teacher explains the developmental approach to this situation.	
	3. By explaining to the child that accepting rules of the group is necessary, for group living.		
	4. "By letting the child go and grow."		

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
The school experience being the potent source in the development of children, how can the expectations of parents and teachers with regard to children by reconciled?	The child at this stage of growth meets new ideas and faces new standards of behavior when he gets into school, which might be conflicting with the behavior code at home. Hence it is the parents' task to reconcile the standards at home and school by: 1. Keeping in sympathetic touch with the child, and the child's extra family activities. 2. Respect for what the child can do and what he may be capable of learning to do, with due respect for what he cannot do.	Teacher presents case history depicting conflict in parents and teachers attitude and values. Students evaluate ways in which the parents and teachers' attitude should be reconciled.	Stone and Church: Childhood and Adolescence, pp. 248-266. Sears: "Level of Aspiration in Academically Successful and Unsuccessful Children," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1940, pp. 35, 498-536. McCandless, Children and Adolescent, 1961, pp. 179-200.

Culminating Experience: Class members work in small groups to present separate skits each one of which is to illustrate an aspect of good or poor parenting for the development of a sense of industry.

OBJECTIVE: To Gain Some Understanding and Competence in Guidance for Parenting During the Adolescent Stage.

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Some understanding of the principal developmental goal of the adolescent stage, (identity) and of the developmental tasks that are conducive to the accomplishment of this goal.	The developmental goal at the adolescent stage is the development of the feeling of ego identity, which can be accomplished and strengthened only from whole-hearted and consistent recognition of real achievement that has meaning in one's culture.	The bulletin board has been set up to illustrate adolescence and the drive toward ego-identity. (The teacher gave a good deal of help to the group responsible for this.) These bulletin board members now serve as resource persons to help the rest of the class understand their bulletin board and the concept of ego-identity. The teacher asks students to contribute ideas as she conducts her participating lecture on "the adolescent's drive to achieve his ego-identity as a step toward adulthood." What are teenagers like? What are they wanting to become? From outside reading, students prepare a list of developmental tasks for this stage.	Bulletin board arrangement. J. E. Senn: Healthy Personality, pp. 134-144. Duvall: Family Development, pp. 290-298. Havighurst: Developmental Tasks and Education, pp. 33-72.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
Gaining some appreciation of the physical and psychological changes occurring in the adolescent and being able to provide facilities for the accomplishment of adolescent needs.	Adolescence is a period of disturbed physical equilibrium, resulting from rapid physiological growth and glandular changes occurring inside the body.	Outside reading by students on the development during adolescence and report it in the class.	Mussen and Conger: Childhood and Personality, pp. 453-483.
What are the changes occurring in the adolescent?	The mental and physical phenomena characteristic of puberty are the attempts to establish the disturbed equilibrium.	Film: "The Story of Menstruation."	Cole: "Everyone is Staring at Me," Family Circle, January, 1962.
How do these changes affect the development of sense of identity?	Faced with the internal physiological and psychological revolution the growing youth is primarily concerned with how she appears in the eyes of others, as compared with what she feels she is; and with the problem of how to connect the earlier roles with the demands of the day.	Talk by a nurse or doctor on: physical changes in adolescent girls, and corresponding feelings. Class constructs a question box and formulates questions to ask the nurse. Nurse discusses questions.	Hutt and Gibby: The Child, Chapter IX, "The Crisis of Puberty." Film: "The Story of Menstruation." Modess and Company: Growing Up and Liking It.
What are the variation in ages at which young people reach puberty?	All adolescents do not reach puberty at the same age, nor develop at the same rate, hence parents should consider individual differences in	Students construct a check sheet for evaluating their own food habits, elimination, skin care, dental cleanliness, grooming of hair, nails, etc.	Chart showing a well-balanced diet for teenagers.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	growth and maturity, and avoid pressing the adolescent with too many demands.	Discuss the part their own family played in helping them improve their appearance.	
What are some of the characteristic behavior at adolescent stage?	During this stage, the adolescent becomes much concerned about his appearance, and what others think of them. Parents should therefore help them by providing nutrient foods, opportunity for developing good posture and grace ease.	Have a physical education teacher show charts of good posture and give demonstration of exercises for improving posture. Construct a bulletin board to show teenage posture aids.	Physical education chart demonstrating good posture.
	Too much criticism of adolescent behavior produces embarrassment and confusion in the adolescent, and hinders the development of the sense of identity.	Students write a log on one striking incident during adolescence. What was the attitude of parents about it? How did they feel about it? What do they think would have been the appropriate attitude of parents with regard to that incident?	Duvall: Family Development, pp. 298-331.
What type of parental guidance is conducive to the development of the sense of identity in adolescence?	Many of the anxieties of the adolescent stage can be avoided if parents: 1. Try to understand the changes occurring in	Lecture by teacher on the proper guidance during	Oklahoma State University bulletin, "Parents and

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	the adolescent.	adolescence. Students prepare a bulletin board arrangement showing some positive guidance principle, for parenting at the adolescent age.	Teenagers Grow Together."
	2. Appreciate the awkward behavior of adolescent as normal.		Bulletin board arrangement showing positive guidance principles.
	3. Prepare the adolescent for them. Help when the adolescent needs it.		
	4. Give approval for his achievement.		
	5. Empathize and give firm guidance when needed.		
	6. Form the habit of planning with the adolescent and reaching decisions together.		
Gaining some understanding of the socially accepted masculine or feminine role and the ability to provide good patterns for the role of the growing adult woman, wife and mother.	Because boys are different from girls in their biological functioning, they have been assigned to masculine roles with accompanying behavior expectations, while girls are assigned to feminine roles with somewhat different expectations of behavior. Parents and	Discuss the advantages of being a girl.	

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	teachers can save the adolescent from lots of conflict if they give clearcut expectations of the roles to the young adults.		
What are the roles assigned to girls in a Pakistani culture? What is the conception of a good woman, wife and mother in the Pakistani culture?		Discuss the division of labor between the sexes as it exists in many homes. What are the expected roles of girls in Pakistani culture? Has there been some change in the roles of women during recent years? What part does a mother play in teaching her son at adolescence the masculine role?	
		Show film: "Who's Boss?" followed with discussion based on the points presented in the film.	Film: "Who's Boss?"
		Students present a report in the class, after consulting their parents and older siblings as to what is "a good husband," "a good wife," "a good father," and a "good mother." Tabulate these ideas and	Burgess and Locke: The Family From Institution to Companionship, selected chapters.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	summarize. Which are traditional? Which are "modern?"		
Gaining ability in foster-ing democratic atmosphere in the family, where adolescents can share the responsibilities of family living. How is assuming reponsibility at home related to the sense of identity?	Assuming responsible role in the family is a developmental task of the adolescent; sharing responsibility helps the individual to clarify his role as a family member, and creates the sense of identity and self reliance in him.	Students list heir own responsibilities in the family; list responsi-bilities of other family members. Discussion: How assuming responsibil-ities fosters the feeling of self reliance. Give illustrations from life.	Duvall: Family Development. pp. 313-316. Ibid: pp. 316-320.
What parental attitude fosters self reliance in the adolescent?	Parents can help young adolescents in making some progress toward self reliance, 1. By accepting him as an individual in his own right. 2. By keeping communica-tion systems open in his own right. 3. By respecting the adolescent's ability to make decisions.	Role play: Show communi-cation pattern in the different families; and how can communication in the family help in solving problems.	Lehner and Cube: The Dynamics of Personal Adjustment, pp. 266-268; 321-322.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
How are emotional problems of adolescence related to lack of communication in the family?	The search for identity is the primary developmental goal of adolescence. To determine the question "Who am I?" the adolescent wants to assert himself in a variety of ways. Lack of sympathy and intolerant family members disturbs the adolescent's sense of self worth and feeling of security.	Students list some emotional problem that created a sense of insecurity in them. How did they deal with these problems. Teachers lecture on personality dynamics and defense mechanisms.	Lehner and Cube: The Dynamics of Personal Adjustment, Chapter IV, "Personal Needs."
	Many day dreams and fears of the adolescent are the result of insecurity and confusion with regard to his worth in the home and society. They bolster the adolescent's sense of worth through defining and recognizing his potentialities and by accepting his limitations.	Role play: Students are divided into groups to present illustrations of fears and daydreams. Discussion: What factors might have led to the development of the particular fear or day dream. How can parents help teenagers discover real potentialities and overcome fears?	Ibid: Chapter V: Adjustment and Defense Mechanisms. Gunner: "Family Life in a Changing World", Children's Magazine, January-February, 1959.
Some appreciation of the growing emotional maturity of the adolescent, and growing ability to facilitate the adolescent's capacity for emotional independence	Gaining status is a strong urge during adolescence. The peer group serves as the best source of self assertion and recognition and facilitates the adoles-	The positive and negative effect of peer group on the adolescent. What are some of the positive group experiences for teenagers?	Duvall: Family Living, pp. 116-137. Martin and Stendler: Child Development and Personality, pp. 486-545.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
from parents and other adults.	cent's transition from childhood to adulthood.		
	Confirming with friends and classmates, though a natural desire of the adolescent, is often a source of conflict between parents and adolescents.	Role Play: Showing some conflict between parent and adolescent due to the teenager's insistence on doing what her friends do. Discussion on how can this conflict be solved.	Ibid: pp. 207-233. Jones, Eve: Natural Child Rearing, pp. 237-273.
	Parents can resolve this conflict by being sensitive to the emotional need of adolescents by developing empathy with him, and by accepting the emotional maturity of the adolescent.	Students compare the independence pattern of adolescents in different culture and discuss whether these patterns are applicable to Pakistani culture. Find a balance between adolescent rebellion and conforming behavior.	
Recognition of responsibilities involved in marriage and the factors that lead to marital adjustment and a growing ability to prepare the adolescents for marriage and family living.	Adjustment in married life depends on the recognition of responsibilities involved in marriage and on the wise choice of the mate. Wide differences between marriage partners create a hazard in relationship.	Students write a log on "The Kind of Marriage I Need and Why." Panel discussion: The Pakistani custom of mate selection, its uses and abuses.	Landis, Judson and Mary: Personal Adjustment Marriage and Family Living, p. 192. Foster: Marriage and Family Relations, pp. 94-104.
	Parents can help the adolescent in adjustment		

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	to marriage by:		
	1. Considering the likes and dislikes of the marriage partners.	Bulletin board arrangement showing the qualities of: 1. A good husband.	Landis, Judson and Mary: Building a Successful Marriage, pp. 354-357.
	2. By giving some opportunity for the decision to the young people.	2. A good wife. Case study showing some concepts of married life	Duvall, Evelyn and Hill, Rambeau: When You Marry, Chapter XII, "Common Conflicts in Marriage.
	3. By discussing the responsibilities of married life with the adolescent.	with multiple choice answers. Students check the correct answer.	Pakistani Magazines and short stories.
	4. By setting a good example of married life.		
Growing awareness of the importance of adolescent decision in selecting a career, and some ability to encourage the adolescent in making their own decision.	Getting ready for future career is an important problem of the adolescent stage. Selecting an appropriate career, and getting adjusted to it increases the adolescent's sense of identity. Conflict between parent and students on the choice of career may lead to wrong decisions and maladjustment. Parents can	Students prepare a skit, depicting a conflict between parent and adolescents on the choice of educational field, and discuss: 1. Why parents force their decision on their children. 2. What developmental tasks the parents have not achieved?	Pakistani Magazines and short stories in preparing the skit.

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	increase the sense of identity of the adolescent by:	3. How can such conflict effect the sense of identity of the adolescent?	
	1. Recognizing the interest and capacity of the adolescent.		
	2. Giving him some opportunity for decision making.		
	3. Encouraging the adolescent on his achievement.		
	4. Helping him to get the necessary training for the vocation.		
Growing ability to help the adolescent in developing a workable philosophy of life, and in adjusting to community and society.	The adolescent's participation in community activity not only prepares him for future responsibilities, it also adds to the individual's sense of identity.	Students discuss the ways in which an adolescent can participate in community activities.	Pakistani newspaper clipping, dealing with various community projects.
	An individual or family cannot isolate itself from the community and society, each individual has some contribution to make to	Students visit community projects. Each students writes a paper that will show	

OBJECTIVE: (Continued)

Expected Outcomes and Problems	Generalizations	Learning Experiences	Teaching Aids
	the community.	what community resources have been used by her family and for what purpose. How can the participation of adolescents to such activities add to the sense of identity?	

Culminating Experience: Draw up a "code for living in the family" that lists pointers for teens to remind themselves of routine and small family responsibilities and courtesies. Make a similar list for parents, such as "observe and respect the privacy of a teenager." Follow this with a panel of adolescents and parents to discuss and react to the code.

SAMPLES OF TEACHING AIDS

Parenthood for a Purpose

This is an exercise in distinguishing between developmental
practices in child rearing and traditional practices. The case is
stated first and is followed by possible courses of action.

DIRECTIONS: Those statements that are developmental in their
approach indicate with a "d"; those that are traditional with a "t";
those that are laissez faire mark "o". Decide which combination of
answers would help the child to accomplish the parental purpose for him.

CASE A. Taran, aged four, brought home from play school a pocket
full of marbles you know are not his.

Purpose: To help the child learn respect for property rights.

1. Make him take them back and apologize for stealing them.

2. Call his grandmother and tell her how cute he was when you caught
   him with the marbles.

3. Explain to him about property rights and what is his and what
   belongs to other children.

4. Punish him and tell him never to take anything that doesn't belong
   to him again.

5. Help him save enough from his allowance to buy himself some marbles.

6. Say to him "Where are your manners" Haven't I taught you better
   than that?"

7. Shame him by telling him good little boys don't take things from
   other children.

8. Let him take his toy cars tomorrow to show the children at play
   school.

9. Accuse him of stealing the marbles, and if he lies punish him.

167

10. Encourage him to let the boy whose marbles he used, play with his toy cars.

11. Impress on him that he is a disappointment to you. You expect him to know better.

12. Call the other child's mother and explain that Tara will bring the marbles back tomorrow. That he knows now they aren't his.

13. Go buy him two dozen marbles on the promise that he will give the others back.

CASE B: Mina, aged fifteen, stayed out too late at a friend's house last evening.

Purpose: To help Mina gain a sense of responsibility in regard to time limits.

1. Give her a good bawling out. She should know better.

2. Ignore it.

3. Make her stay in every night this month as punishment.

4. Buy her a watch and have it understood that she use it.

5. Find out whom she was out with and forbid her seeing her (or them) again.

6. Try to find out why she was so late. Be reasonable if she tries to explain.

7. See what suggestions she has for getting in on time next time.

8. Tell her she can't go out again in the evening until she is big enough to get back on time.

9. Thrash her! You can't let girls roam the streets all hours of the night.

10. Say nothing. All teen-agers disobey their parents. She wouldn't pay attention anyway.

11. Tell her how anxious and worried you are about her and how she hurts you when she disobeys.

12. Discuss the incident with her and let her help set the hour for next time with the understanding that the agreement be kept.

13. Say to her, "We are ashamed of you! What will the people say?"

14. Do not tolerate any back talk from her.

15. Remind her that you <u>are</u> her parent and as such she owes you respect and obedience without question.

Adapted from exercises on parenthood by Professor Hazel L. Ingersoll, Oklahoma State University, 1954.

Open-end Responses to a Case

Directions: Read the following short case; then complete the last
sentence expressing the child's feelings and needs that she was wishing
to communicate. Write in a paragraph form as though you were the girl.

The heroine of this story was a little eight-year-old girl in a
Dacca orphanage, so painfully shy and unattractive, and with such
annoying mannerisms that she was avoided by the other children and
shunned by the teachers. Two other orphanages had managed to have her
transferred, and now, once again, the director and her assistants were
seeking only some pretext for getting rid of her themselves.

One afternoon it appeared that an opportunity had arrived. One of
the orphanage rules was that any communication from a child in the
institution had to be approved by the director or a house mistress
before it could be mailed. Now, the little girl had been observed
stealing down to the main gate and carefully secreting a letter in the
branches of a tree that overhung the wall of the orphanage. The
director and her assistant could scarcely conceal their elation.

They hurried down to the brick wall. Sure enough, the note was
visible through the branches of the tree.

The director pounded on it and tore open the envelope. Then she
hung her head and passed the note in silence to her assistant. It
read: "To anybody who finds this:"

Adapted from Cerf, Bennett: "Cerfboard", This Week Magazine,
December 25, 1960.

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<u>Understand</u> <u>Your</u> <u>Child</u> <u>From</u> <u>Six</u> <u>to</u> <u>Twelve</u>.

<u>Enjoy</u> <u>your</u> <u>Child</u>, <u>Ages</u> <u>One</u>, <u>Two</u>, <u>and</u> <u>Three</u>, No. 161.

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CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR USE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to use the developmental goals of

children as a basis for a teaching guide in a parent-child relationship

course.

The developmental goal used in this study were those propounded by

Erikson in his description of "eight stages of man". The components of

healthy personality according to Erikson are eight in number. They are

described as sense of basic trust, sense of autonomy, sense of initiative,

sense of industry, sense of identity, sense of intimacy, sense of

generativity, and sense of integrity, respectively, corresponding to

eight stages of human development from birth to death.

Erikson's theory was selected by the author because of its wide

acceptance by other psychologists and professional people in the field

of education. The author also investigated research done in the field

of child development, and found that Erikson's theory of personality

can be supported by many experimental findings.

For each of the developmental goals being selected the author tried

to find out the tasks which a child should fulfill to accomplish the

developmental goal of each stage of life. She analyzed the developmental

tasks described by Havighurst and Duvall, and found that the develop-

mental tasks described by these authors could be integrated with

Erikson's developmental goals; i.e., these developmental tasks could

serve as a means of achieving the developmental goals of life. A

174

tentative list of developmental tasks corresponding to the goal of each developmental stage was made. This list was paralleled by the developmental tasks of parents; viz., the attitudes and guidance of the parents which might facilitate the achievement of developmental goals of children.

Since the study guide is prepared for the Pakistani students the author was confronted with two problems; viz., (1) to find out the applicability of the above mentioned developmental goals and corresponding developmental tasks to Pakistani child-rearing practices, and (2) to find out the readiness of young men and women of Pakistan to accept the developmental principles of child guidance.

To solve the first problem the literature on child-rearing practices in Pakistan was reviewed. It was found that child-rearing practices in Pakistan differ from family to family, and fron one social strata to another. Method of disciplining ranged from extreme permissiveness to authoritarian strict guidance. Little importance is given to parent education per se as a means of fostering personality development in children.

The device selected to measure the readiness of Pakistani parents for accepting the developmental principles of guidance was a parental Belief Questionnaire prepared by the author. This questionnaire was used with thirty-two Pakistani men and ten Pakistani women students studying at Oklahoma State University. The analysis of the data revealed that the students were more developmental in their attitude towards child rearing than the author assumes most Pakistani parents to be. Women students showed more permissive attitudes than the men students. It was indicated by the data however that these subjects in spite of having developmental attitudes toward child rearing, were

not much aware of the child guidance principles, and the importance of unconditioned love in the development of the personality of children.

On the basis of review of literature and findings of the questionnaire, it was decided that there are some universal human needs which have to be satisfied for physical and emotional health of the individual. Each stage of life has a specific need to be satisfied. Satisfaction of these needs constitute developmental goals of human life. These goals can be achieved by fulfilling certain tasks, called the developmental tasks of life. Fulfillment of these tasks is not only conducive to health, it also brings approval from the society and is a source of happiness for the individual.

The author concluded that the developmental goals and most of the developmental tasks are applicable to Pakistani culture, and can be used as a basis for teaching a parenthood unit.

The study guide was prepared on the basis of the knowledge about the developmental goal and developmental tasks. Before preparing the study guide, the goals for learning were defined, next the parenthood objectives of the student were developed. The objectives were related to an introductory unit and also to five stages of child development; viz., from infancy to adolescence. The objectives were paralleled by the developmental goal and developmental tasks of the child. Objectives for students and developmental tasks precede the study guide.

The study guide was developed by incorporating the objectives for students, developmental tasks of children and related guidance principles, and was prepared in seven sections; viz., two introductory units and one unit for each stage of development.

Implications for Use of the Study

The author believes that this study guide will help her in many ways.

The extensive coverage in the reviewing of the literature can serve as a resource material for the author as well as for the students. Relating of research to Erikson's theory has not been done in this context before and proved to be an integrating framework for child guidance.

The parental belief questionnaire can serve as an instrument for detecting the attitude of parents for child rearing. This questionnaire can as well serve as a means of evaluation for the students. Applied in the end of the teaching unit it can measure the students attitude towards parenthood, and some of the guidance principles she has incorporated.

A study guide developed on the scientific knowledge of child development will help the students to understand the behavior of the children, and underlying causes. This will contribute to the family adjustment of the students and better relationship at home. It will also prepare the students for democratic parenthood which is so essential for the development of healthy personality.

The author thinks that this study can serve as a basis for further research in the area of parent-child relationship, specifically to test the applicability of developmental guidance principles to Pakistani culture, and the effect of developmental attitude in the personality development of Pakistani children.

The research quoted in this study can serve as a pattern for observation and for samples of research done by students. They can observe children in similar situations and try to find out if the findings described in the United States research are valid in Pakistani culture as well.

The parent belief questionnaire can be used to determine the

differences and likeness in attitudes as expressed in the younger generation compared to the older one.

Finally the learning experiences as described in this study can be applied in community work experiences. The Commission on Education (29) suggests such work experiences in order to develop a respect for work among the educated people.

Finally the study guide developed for the particular students, relevant to the needs of others in the same situation will be useful for other students and other teachers in the similar situation.

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"APPENDIX A"

SAMPLE OF WORK SHEET:

DEVELOPMENTAL GOALS AND DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS
OF SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN WITH CORRESPONDING
DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF PARENTS

184

LATE CHILDHOOD (SCHOOL AGE)

Age Six Years - Twelve Years

Basic Developmental Goal of the Child: Sense of Industry

STUDENT'S OBJECTIVE: To Recognize the Need of Industry of School-Age Child::ə: and the Importance of Providing
Opportunity for the Development of These Needs.

Developmental Goals (Child)	Developmental Tasks (Child)	Parental Developmental Tasks
Mastering the physical skill appropriate to the age and stage of his development	Mastering the physical skill appropriate to his development.	Learning to understand the child's need for physical activity.
	Developing muscular ability needed in the personal and family living.	Providing the opportunity for ways in which the child can meet his demand for activity and achievement.
	Learning the physical skill necessary for ordinary games.	Appreciating the importance of giving the child facilities for games and plays with his own age group.
Learning to be physically independent from the family.	Developing habits for healthy living.	Guiding the child in habits of healthy living.
	Achieving physical independence from the family.	Accepting the child's need for growing physical independence and helping him to achieve a healthy dependence-independence relation with other family members; letting a child go and grow.
Developing a feeling of security.	Achieving and maintaining security.	Being sensitive to and providing for child's growth needs.

(Continued)

Developmental Goals (Child)	Developmental Tasks (Child)	Parental Developmental Tasks
Learning an increased ability to handle feeling and emotions in a socially approved pattern.	Growing in ability to work through simple frustrations.	Providing facility for expression and redirection of emotions.
	Exploring socially acceptable ways of releasing negative emotions effectively.	Being able to accept child's changing mode of emotionality.
	Becoming more mature in channeling feelings into the ways and time and places appropriate within his culture.	Enjoying life through child's eyes.
Developing a sense of achievement and status in family and peer group.	Growing in self confidence, self respect, self control, self realization.	Accepting individual differences in the child and helping him to achieve a feeling of self worth.
Extending his abilities to relate effectively to others both peer group and adults.	Learning effective ways of communication with peer groups and adults.	Effectively utilizing communication system within the expanding family taking in.
	Making progress in his ability to readjust to others.	Child's activities outside the home, and typing in life outside the family.
	Learning to stand up for his right.	Learning to establish a democratic interaction and orderly ways of doing things in the family.
Gaining increased ability to relate to parents, siblings, and relatives in a cooperative and meaningful way.	Learning genuinely cooperative roles with others in many situations.	Developing cooperative ability to get things done.

(Continued)

Developmental Goals (Child)	Developmental Tasks (Child)	Parental Developmental Tasks
	Mastering expectancies in simple conventions, rules, customs, courtesies, and standards of his family and group.	Setting up expectancies with regard to the child's responsibilities and putting up firm limits to behavior.
Continuing to find himself as a worthy person.	Discovering many ways of becoming acceptable as a person gaining status.	Reconciling the difference in home and school situation by helping the child see the many appropriate ways of doing things.
	Extending the process of establishing his own individuality.	Studying the growth needs and developmental readiness of the youngster, and accepting the individual difference.
Developing meaningful understanding of the use of money.	Finding socially acceptable ways of getting money for what he wants to buy.	Establishing religious practices at home that may help the youngster to stabilize religious values.
	Discovering satisfaction in music, art, drama, nature, and the literature of his culture.	Sharing experiences with children and helping them to appreciate the literature and culture.
	Laying foundations for patriotism, for pride in men's achievements through history, and for a sense of belongingness to the human race.	Providing leadership opportunities for the child by forming groups in adult guidance.
	Gaining experience in essential morality in action at home and with others.	Setting up examples of social and moral behavior before the child.

187

"APPENDIX B"

SAMPLE OF THE PARENTAL BELIEFS QUESTIONNAIRE

PARENTAL BELIEF QUESTIONNAIRE

Read the statements given below carefully. Place a circle around "A" if you agree or around "SA" if you feel very definite about the statement. Mark a circle around "D" if you disagree with the statement, and around "SD" if you disagree with the statement very strongly.

This is not a test. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Your opinion is what is needed. Give your frank belief on the subject as nearly as you can.

SA - A - D - SD 1. When the children are babies, the care of them should be left entirely to the wife.

SA - A - D - SD 2. Even though they may make mistakes, children, as they mature, should be allowed to make many of their own decisions.

SA - A - D - SD 3. In order that the husband not be disturbed when he returns home from work, the wife should quiet the children and see that the home is calm.

SA - A - D - SD 4. It irritates me to have children ask questions.

SA - A - D - SD 5. Children who are held to strict rules grow up to be better adults.

SA - A - D - SD 6. Parents shouldn't tolerate the kind of behavior from their children that would embarrass them in public.

SA - A - D - SD 7. Disciplining should be done by both of the parents.

SA - A - D - SD 8. Children need the attention of both the parents hence, fathers should spend some time in looking after the children.

SA - A - D - SD 9. The use of the living room by the children should take precedence over the saving of the furnishings.

SA - A - D - SD 10. It is normal for children to be lively and curious.

SA - A - D - SD 11. It is important that both the husband and the wife together concern themselves with the social and emotional development of their children.

SA - A - D - SD 12. I believe that physical punishment (such as slapping, spanking or beating) is not necessary in disciplining the child.

SA - A - D - SD 13. Children should be encouraged to ask questions, and their questions should be answered frankly even if it is on such topics which are not spoken publicly.

SA – A – D – SD 14. Because the child is an important person too, a father should expect to be inconvenienced in order to meet their needs.

SA – A – D – SD 15. I believe in the maxim: "Spare the rod and spoil the child."

SA – A – D – SD 16. Children should be allowed to voice their opinions, even though they may disagree with their parents'.

SA – A – D – SD 17. Parents should provide opportunities for activity of their children because "active children are intelligent children".

SA – A – D – SD 18. A child should be treated as a small adult.

SA – A – D – SD 19. A child's tendency to say "no" to the parents' demands should be crushed from the beginning.

SA – A – D – SD 20. The money, time, work, and worry that go into being a parent are worth the cost.

SA – A – D – SD 21. All children in the family should be treated alike, and trained in the same manner.

SA – A – D – SD 22. Children should be expected to repay some of the sacrifices their parents have made for them.

SA – A – D – SD 23. Parents should not allow their children to express their feelings.

SA – A – D – SD 24. The husband's major role in family life is to be the family head, make a living, and provide a home for the family.

SA – A – D – SD 25. Children should be taught to "behave themselves" from an early age.

SA – A – D – SD 26. The wife's main job is to care for the children and manage the home.

SA – A – D – SD 27. Parents should always expect their children to be neat and orderly.

SA – A – D – SD 28. Regarding the children's discipline and welfare, the parent should make the major decisions and lay down the law when needed.

SA – A – D – SD 29. Physical expression of affection on the part of the parents may spoil the child.

SA – A – D – SD 30. Children should be given opportunity to share in decision making with regards to family affairs.

SA – A – D – SD 31. A good child is one who does the things his parents want him to do without asking questions.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 32. It is the mother's duty to look after the children, while father is responsible for educational guidance.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 33. Since parents have more knowledge they can make their decisions about the future of adolescents.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 34. Each child is different from others hence should be treated as an individual according to his or her need.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 35. As the drawing room is meant to be used by all members of the family, wear and tear on the furnishings can be expected.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 36. Father should be the leader in decision making as his word is law.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 37. Children should keep their playthings out of the drawing room so that their parents will not be embarrassed if guests drop in.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 38. The children, according to their ages and abilities, should be permitted to share in making family decisions.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 39. Adolescent boys should be given freedom to make decisions about their own future.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 40. When they are home together, the husband and wife should feel equally responsible for the care of the children.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 41. Because children thrive on love and affection, the satisfaction of the need for love is as important as satisfaction of hunger.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 42. Things parents think are too fine for their children to touch or handle should be put out of their sight and reach.

SA _ A _ D _ SD 43. By the time they are adolescents, girls should be given freedom to make decisions about their own future.

PART II

This is a definition (criteria) for a healthy personality: Do you agree with it?

A ‒ DA 1. A person who can actively master his environment.

A ‒ DA 2. One who has a unified (integrated) personality.

A ‒ DA 3. A person who sees himself in his strengths and weakness
       realistically and perceives the world about him correctly.

What kind of parenthood do you think would help a child to become
this kind of person? (Note: You may get some ideas from the beliefs
stated in the opinionnaire.)

PART III

I think the most important purpose for having children is . . .

KEY TO PARENTAL BELIEF QUESTIONNAIRE

Question No.   Key

    1. - Traditional

    2. - Developmental

    3. - Traditional

    4. - Traditional

    5. - Traditional

    6. - Traditional

    7. - Developmental

    8. - Developmental

    9. - Developmental

  10. - Developmental

  11. - Developmental

  12. - Developmental

  13. - Developmental

  14. - Developmental

  15. - Traditional

  16. - Developmental

  17. - Developmental

  18. - Traditional

  19. - Traditional

  20. - Developmental

  21. - Traditional

  22. - Traditional

Question No.　Key

23. - Traditional

24. - Traditional

25. - Traditional

26. - Traditional

27. - Traditional

28. - Traditional

29. - Traditional

30. - Developmental

31. - Traditional

32. - Traditional

33. - Traditional

34. - Developmental

35. - Developmental

36. - Traditional

37. - Traditional

38. - Developmental

39. - Developmental

40. - Developmental

41. - Developmental

42. - Developmental

43. - Developmental

"APPENDIX C"

TRADITIONAL AND DEVELOPMENTAL
CONCEPT OF PARENTHOOD

TRADITIONAL AND DEVELOPMENTAL
CONCEPTS OF PARENTHOOD

A Good Mother-- Traditional Conception	A Good Mother-- Developmental Conception
1. "Keeps house." (Washes, cooks, cleans, mends, sews, manages the household.)	1. "Trains for self-reliance and citizenship." (Trains for self-help, encourages independence, teaches how to be a good citizen, how to adjust to life, teaches concentration.)
2. "Takes care of child physically." (Keeps child healthy, guards child's safety, that child rests.)	2. "Sees to emotional well being." (Keeps child happy and contented, makes a happy home, makes child welcome, helps child feel secure, helps child overcome fears.)
3. "Trains child to regularity." (Establishes regular habits, provides schedule, sees to regular hours for important functions.)	3. "Helps child develop socially." (Provides toys, companions, plays with child, supervises child's play.
4. "Disciplines." (Corrects child demands obedience, rewards good behavior, is firm, is consistent, keeps promises.)	4. "Provides for child's mental growth." (Gives educational opportunities, provides stimulation to read, reads to child, tells stories, guides reading, sends child to school.)
5. "Makes the child good." (Teaches obedience, instructs in morals, builds character, prays for, sees to religious instruction.)	5. "Guides with understanding." (Sees child's point of view, gears life to child's level, answers questions freely and frankly, gives child freedom to grow, interprets, offers positive suggestions.)
	6. "Relates self lovingly to child." (Show love and affection, enjoys child, spends time with child, shares with child, is interested in what child does and tells, listens.)
	7. "Is a calm, cheerful, growing person oneself." (Has more outside interests, is calm and gentle, has a sense of humor, laughs, smiles, gets enough recreation.)

1. From Duvall, Evelyn and Rachel Elder, presented in Family Development, pp. 49-54.

CONSTRUCTED FATHER TYPES

Traditional Father	Developmental Father
1. Father is a strong individual, always right, and the child is his ward.	1. Father and child are both individuals
	(therefore)
2. Father "knows" what child "should" be so does not seek to understand child as an individual.	2. Father seeks to understand the child and himself.
3. Father is interested only in activities which he determines are his responsibility for the child's "good."	3. Father concerns himself with all activities and needs of the child.
4. Father places emphasis on giving things to and doing things for the child.	4. Father places emphasis on the growth of child and on himself.
5. Father is interested in child's accepting and attaining goals set by father.	5. Father is interested in child's determining and attaining child's own goals.
6. Father finds satisfaction in child's owing father a debt which can be repaid by the child's obedience and by bringing honor to the father, by achieving goals established by the father.	6. Father finds satisfaction in child's becoming a mature individual and in the child's contribution to father's growth as an individual.
7. Father feels that parenthood is a duty which the church, the family, and/or society expect him to discharge, or which is forced on him as a biological function.	7. Father feels that parenthood is a privilege which he has chosen to assume.

VITA

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Date of Final Examination: