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Eileen Gay F. Espina



Dr. H. G. Ginott (1956) remarked in his book, "Between Parent and Child" that no parent deliberately tries to make his child fearful, shy, inconsiderate, or obnoxious. All parents want their children to be secure and happy. Yet in the process of tackling their parenting tasks, many parents unintentionally treat their child in ways which hamper his/her personality development and cause him/her to acquire undesirable characteristics. The findings of many psychological studies (e.g., Levy 1966, Gildea, Glidewell, and Kantor 1961) attribute this specifically to mothers and their relationship with their children. Such studies discovered that the interactions of mother and child in the earliest years determine the basic patterns of a child's personality. Their findings are in consonance with the theoretical claim that personality is the function of an individual's significant relationships and that the earliest of these relationships serve as the foundation of all other future relationships (Hilgard, Atkinson, and Atkinson 1971).

The mother-child relationship, considering its primacy and its pervasive nature, is then viewed to be at the bottom of the entire personality formation process (Margallo 1978). While it is recognized and admitted that fathers, siblings, peers, teachers, among others, play a part in determining personality, the degree to which they influence personality development remains dependent on the more basic mother-child relationship (Klatskin, Jackson, and Wilkin 1956). Accumulating evidence still points to the fact that mothers play the most significant or influential role.

The phrase "mother-child relationship" actually refers to the quality of emotional interactions between mothers and their children. In the earliest mother-child relationship, it is quite obvious that the mother sets the nature and depth of the emotional bond. She is the focus of her child's initial emotional attachments (Harper 1990). The child is psychologically and emotionally involved with the mother who satisfies his needs, gives him affection and love, as well as

varied stimuli and experiences (Woodward 1966). The child possesses physical and mental traits and innate temperament as results of genetic transmission (Kimble, Garnezy, and Zigler 1974), but most of these can be modified, enhanced, or stunted by the environmental conditions in which the mother frequently mediates and over which the mother has direct control (Margallo 1978). Often, because of the child's close relationship with the mother, he forms patterns of behavior on the way the mother feels and behaves (Woodward 1966).

The manner in which a mother relates to her child, albeit under the influence of her attitudes, was found to be highly significant in predicting the personality attributes of her child, in determining the general way in which her child's personality develops (Hutt, Isaacson, and Blum 1966). As Levy (1966) has pointed out:

If a mother maintains toward the child a consistent attitude of, let us say, indifference and hostility, the assumption is made that the child's personality is greatly affected thereby. His outlook in life, his attitude towards people, his entire psychic well-being, his very destiny is presumed to be altered by the maternal attitude. Indeed, two children of the same parents, whose mother exhibits a different attitude towards each, manifest on that basis alone profound differences in personality (pp. 3-4).

The child can also learn that Mother cares, responds to his/her call, and provides him/her with good food and protection from the enemies. Some children unfortunately, learn that Mother is inconsistent, unpredictable, and not always to be trusted. This can have a serious influence on their development.

In view of all these findings and in consideration of the cultural and theoretical importance ascribed to her role, the mother remains an important focus of inquiry in child development studies. If personality is influenced so markedly by maternal attitudes then surely the most important study of man as a social being is a study of his mother's influence on his early life as a child (Levy 1966).

The literature on interactions between the generations has concentrated almost exclusively on the parent's influence on their children, and largely on the part of one parent, the mother. The reverse flow of influences, the effects of children on their parents, has received relatively little attention. There are a number of studies showing that parents tend to react differently to boys and girls, but there is little on the question of temperamental or personality attributes in children as an influence on parental behavior (Nash 1978).

The climate of opinion in psychology tends to the view that it is the parents alone who set the initial pattern of interaction. But one can note that within the same family the same parents interact differently with their various children, which leads one to ask what part children play in the reactions they elicit (Nash 1978). Hence, while it is of course valid to study the results of particular patterns of parent-child interactions on the personality of the child, the role of the temperamental factors in the child in eliciting parent responses also has to be taken into account.

In other words, the child is not a mere recipient of the actions of the mother, but he also provides the stimulus to which the mother reacts. For example, it has been suggested that the mother's hostility to the child may have been a reaction or response to the child's aggressive behavior rather than a cause (Kagan and Moss 1962). It is then indicated that the nature of mother-child interaction is two-way and that right from the beginning, there is an active reciprocation of stimuli and responses between the mother and the child.

Hence, in an effort to understand the way a mother's attitudes influence the personality development of the child, one must take into account the factor of interaction between maternal attitude and the personality traits of the child. Important as maternal acceptance is, for example, it does not operate on a one-way current, so to speak, in influencing a child's personality. The child's own characteristics as well as those of the mother determine what the actual relationship will be (Baller and Charles 1961).

The Case Study

The case study aimed to explore the patterns of mother-child relationships by identifying the attitudes of the mothers toward their children and by relating these attitudes to the developing personality characteristics of their children.

The child subjects were given the Children's Personality Questionnaire (CPQ) that yielded a general assessment of their personality. The mother subjects were given the Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation (MCRE), a test which tapped their attitudes toward their children. The results of the two tests were tabulated and statistically analyzed.

The participants in this study were 226 mother-child pairs. The child subjects were boys and girls who were enrolled in grade school,

between eleven and twelve years of age. They were drawn from the grade 6 population of St. Mary's Academy in Pasay City. The subjects did not differ significantly in respect to such variables as age, social background, intelligence level, and grade level. Hence, child participants in this study were selected from one grade level in the same school. The mother subjects were the mothers of the child subjects who were sampled for the study.

Results of the Case Study

Table 1 shows the frequency and percentage scores of mothers on the five maternal attitudes using the MCRE. The data reveal the prevalence of overprotection (39.4 percent) and rejection (21.2 percent). However, the 18.2 percent difference in the scores between overprotection and the rejection seems to show that overprotection is the most prevalent attitude exhibited by mothers.

Table 1. Distribution of Mothers According to Maternal Attitudes

Attitudes	Frequency	%
Acceptance	0	0
Overprotection	89	39.4
Overindulgence	31	13.7
Rejection	48	21.2
Confusion/Ambivalence	23	10.2

Using the CPQ, 65.04 percent of children scored in the low-score side of factor D (phlegmatic versus excitable), thus placing this as their most dominant personality factor. It was closely followed by factor Q4 (relaxed versus tensed) with 63.27 percent scoring in the low-score side. Factor F (sober versus happy-go-lucky) was placed as the third most dominant personality factor, with 62.39 percent of children scoring in the low-score side. These data are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Distribution of Children According to Personality Factors

Personality Factors	Frequency	%
D	147	65.04
Q4	143	63.27
F	141	62.39

The attitude of confusion/ambivalence was significantly related to factor N (shrewdness versus artlessness). The relationship between these variables was in the positive direction.

Overindulgence was significantly related to factor Q4 (relaxed versus tensed). The direction of relationship was seen as positive.

The father's occupation and children's gender were significantly related to factor A (reserved versus outgoing). Negative relationship exists between these two independent variables and the dependent variable of personality. The father's occupation and the children's gender were significantly related to factor D (phlegmatic versus excitable). Both of these predictor variables were related to factor D in a positive fashion. The father's level of education and the children's gender were significantly related to factor E (dominance versus submissiveness). Both independent variables bore a positive relationship to the E personality factor.

The children's gender was significantly related to factor F (sober versus happy-go-lucky). The children's gender was seen as positively related to the F factor. The father's occupation and the children's gender were significantly related to factor I (tough-minded versus tender-minded). An inverse relationship was indicated between these independent predictors and the dependent variable. The father's occupation and the children's gender were significantly related to factor Q3 (self-control). The children's gender was significantly related to overprotection. The independent and the dependent variables were found to be positively related.

The findings presented above are summarized in tabular form in Table 3. The entries represent the criteria which were significantly associated with the predictors. The directionality of the relationship has been taken into account and only the appropriate poles of the criterion dimensions are listed.

Table 3. Summary of Significant Findings

Predictor			
	Overindulgent Mothers	Confused/ Ambivalent Mothers	Female Children
Criteria	Tensed Frustrated Children	Calculating Insecure Children	Overprotective Mothers
Predictor			
	Female Children	Lower-Occupation Fathers	Higher-Education Fathers
Criteria	Reserved Impatient Assertive Tough-minded Careless Impulsive Happy-go-lucky Children	Cool Demanding Tough-minded Careless Children	Assertive Independent Children

Discussion of Case Study

Attitude Profile of Mothers

Overprotection emerged as the most prevalent attitude that mothers exhibit towards their children. Eighty-nine (39.4 percent) of the mothers reported being overprotective toward their children, thereby confirming earlier conclusions by Margallo (1978) and Guthrie (1961) that it was a prevalent and an inherent attitude of the typical Filipino mother, that even before the child is born, he/she has been an object of the mother's concern.

Similar findings have been found by much earlier studies conducted in the 1960s. The 1960s witnessed the emergence of a number of descriptive studies of child rearing in particular communities in the Philippines. From these studies, the pattern of overprotection emerged and remains pervasive up to the present, as the findings of this study have shown.

The presence of overprotection in Philippine culture is a fact, according to Umali-Razon (1981). She added that this is the Filipino mother's expression of love. In Philippine culture, children are viewed as helpless and therefore have to be carefully nurtured and cared for (Lagmay 1983).

According to Church (1986), overprotection characterizes one of the most desirable maternal roles in Philippine culture. It is considered as the norm attitude for mothers.

Overprotection usually involves various forms of fears, anxieties, and worries which concentrate in one way or another on the handling of the child. Such areas as the child's health, safety, and education are the objects of the anxiety. Overprotective mothers tend to imagine their children falling ill or being improperly fed. As such, they may enforce a strict health and dietary schedule by insisting that children eat the exact quantity of food set before them, they set rigid hours for going to bed, or they submit the children to frequent medical check-ups.

Among Filipino mothers, the value of proper nutrition to safeguard the health of their children is generally recognized along with the importance of proper hygiene and sanitation (Licuanan 1979). The same data have been earlier produced by Guthrie and Jacobs (1967) in their study where a sizable group of mothers also expressed concern over the good health of the children and their being wellfed.

Overprotective mothers also tend to imagine their children meeting accidents. For this reason, mothers employ excessively strict rules to offset imagined hazards. They make sure they provide constant care and assistance to their children. They are thus driven to extend physical contact with their children quite excessively and well beyond the age at which such complete care is appropriate (Temporal 1968).

Excessive contact of mothers with their children reveals itself in many other ways. Overprotective mothers typically spend a relatively great amount of time in the company of their children, give them prolonged nursing care when they are ill, fondle them excessively, and permit or encourage their children to sleep with them long past infancy and toddlerhood (Martin & Stendler 1959).

In extreme cases, mothers deprive the children of the experiences provided by social contact with the children's own group, stemming from worries that their children might catch contagious diseases by playing with other children or that they might be involved in fights. This act of isolating children from other children and depriving them of normal play activities can be carried to such an extent that their social development is actually impeded.

Overprotection in mothers is also manifested by their overconcern whether their children are achieving what they are supposed to achieve, particularly in school. Hence, there are mothers of this kind who take full responsibility for the children's homework.

Rejection turned out to be the second most prevalent attitude of mothers. As shown earlier, forty-eight (21.2 percent) of the mothers revealed themselves as exhibiting rejection, which is hostility toward the child expressed in such forms as neglect, harshness, brutality, and strictness.

Neglect of child may be shown through a general indifference to the child's safety and a lack of real concern for personal and social development. In this sense, rejecting mothers are quite the opposite of overprotective mothers.

Rejecting mothers may also neglect their children physically. But the extent to which they do so varies, according to the particular economic and social circumstances of the mother. The wealthy mother, for example, may employ a caretaker to attend dutifully to her child while she pursues her own enjoyment.

Denial of child is also one of the expressions of hostility shown by mothers. A mother clearly shows her attitude of rejection when she denies the child pleasures, advantages, or privileges. Such denials are usually camouflaged by excuses of a desire to shield the child from being spoiled or of a need for economy.

Probably the most obvious expression of rejection is through punishment or physical maltreatment of the child. It goes without saying that a mother who strikes the child on the least provocation at any petty annoyance has hostile feelings towards the child. Many mothers justify such expression of hostility by saying it is necessary to use physical force in order to control the child and to exact obedience. In Symonds' (1949) study, a number of parents feel it necessary to inflict physical punishment on the child in order to establish discipline.

As cited earlier, Guthrie and Jacobs (1967) found that Filipino mothers are strict, demand obedience, and are not reluctant to use punishment when they reject their children's behavior. Seventy percent of mothers reported some occasion for punishment and more than 22 percent reported having to punish their children frequently and severely. These findings were later confirmed by Licuanan (1979) and by Robles in her own study in 1981. Child psychologists have maintained, however, that punishment, by its very nature is "anything but good" for the child and offers serious and long-lasting consequences (Armstrong 1963, 27).

Humiliation of child, another expression of rejection, is usually expressed by comparing the child unfavorably with other children, for example, a sibling, by criticism or petty slights, by ridicule, or by blame. Although these manifestations may be subtle or indirect, the real message of humiliation remains implied and can clearly be regarded by children as rejection. Humiliation was seen as readily dispensed by Filipino mothers (Decaesstecker 1978) as a form of rejection towards their children.

Personality Profile of Children

The most dominant personality characteristic of children was the low-score side of factor D. Children who display this characteristic are described as emotionally placid, undemonstrative, complacent, and self-effacing.

The picture that these characteristics presents is that of children who have a phlegmatic temperament. They remain unperturbed by the things that are happening around them. They display a greater attention span in that unlike in their younger years, they can maintain their focus on given tasks without being distracted. They tend to be somewhat shy and undemonstrative. As such, they cannot be expected to reveal much of themselves or express much of their thoughts and feelings. They can be unduly deliberate in their actions, thus giving the impression of sluggishness.

Dominance of the low-score side of factor Q4 was also revealed by the data, thus presenting the children to be relaxed and unfrustrated. These children reflect a kind of composure that makes for easy adjustment. As they gradually learn how to cope with delayed gratification, they no longer get as easily upset as the younger children when their needs and desires are not always or immediately met (Williams & Stith 1980).

In some situations, however, their oversatisfaction can lead to laziness or sluggishness, as they are described earlier. It can also result in low performance, in the sense that low motivation produces little trial and error in their efforts (Porter & Cattell 1968). This finding found support in Sevilla's study (1982) where children were depicted as leaning towards procrastination and laziness.

The low-score side of factor F emerged as the third most dominant personality factor in children. This characteristic describes the children as sober, prudent, and taciturn. These children are seen as serious and self-deprecating. They seem to take life seriously and

they tend to saddle themselves with cares. This contradicts the findings of Villasor (1985) that children at the period of middle to late childhood tend to show decline in overt anxieties. Armed with these concerns, they proceed in life with caution. They are extra careful in their actions so that other people consider them to be primly correct. This apparently stems from their strong desire to be accepted by others. Hence, they can be expected to conform to group more. According to Abasolo-Domingo (1961), Filipino children's obedience is characterized by a desire to please and to protect self-image.

These children are also rated as silent and introspective, quite apart from how Hurlock (1972) described children of this age, that is, extroverted or outgoing. On the contrary, these children tend to be secretive and undemonstrative. They would rather keep their feelings and opinions to themselves. They are also prone to daydreaming, their means of reflecting about themselves, as well as about the things and situations they encounter.

In summing up the dominant characteristics of children, one comes up with a profile of passivity and docility. The same profile was presented in the studies of Sevilla (1982) and Guthrie and Jacobs (1967). The profile largely contrasts the profile of American children presented by Hurlock (1972) where extroversion and aggressiveness prevail.

Sevilla (1982) reported passivity and submissiveness as exhibited by Filipino children. In the same vein, Guthrie and Jacobs (1967) observed among Filipino children the qualities of docility and subordination.

Patterns of Mother-Child Relationships

Two maternal attitudes were identified as making significant independent contributions to two dimensions of children's personality. These are overindulgence and confusion/ambivalence. The data revealed that overindulgence bore a positive relationship to factor Q4, which suggests that the more indulgent the mother, the more tense, frustrated, and irritable the child.

An overindulgent mother is one who is oversolicitous in her ways, who constantly yields to the demands and requests of the child and who spends an excessive amount of time with the child, usually overdoing many activities with and for the child such as reading to the child, playing games, or taking the child on trips.

The overindulged children, as the findings of this study suggested, are those who tend to be tense, frustrated, and have irritable temper. Such children are frequently referred to in Philippine society as spoiled.

According to Symonds (1949), the children who have been over-indulged do not learn frustration tolerance because they are not used to being denied pleasure or satisfaction. Evidently, there is lacking in them the capacity to meet the demands of reality. They fail to grow up emotionally because they have been prevented from doing so. And because they have not learned to cope with frustration, they become helpless in the face of dissatisfactions, exhibiting tensed and nervous habits and behaviors or temper tantrums.

Temper display is one method by which the overindulged children enforce their demands. Not learning self-control, they cannot be denied their wants and wishes. They make excessive demands for what they want or wish for. And they must have them lest they throw tantrum spells.

The overindulged children also find it hard to tolerate monotony. They are frequently tense and restless. They cannot play by themselves and they must be constantly amused. They are unable to settle down to monotonous tasks and must find something exciting and stimulating. When they fail to find these, they may choose not to finish the tasks altogether and they do so without any qualms. As such, they may also be characterized as lacking in a sense of responsibility.

Confusion/ambivalence was seen as positively related to factor N. This can be interpreted to mean that the child tends to be more shrewd, calculating, and insecure as the mother's attitude gears towards greater confusion/ambivalence. Ambivalence on the part of the mothers in their relation with their children produces a high degree of emotional insecurity in children. The insecurity that is created in the children arises because they cannot draw conclusions as to where they stand in their mother's regard.

Anxiety also applies to the state of children who have been subjected to inconsistent maternal attitude. The ambivalent mothers create the condition in children where confusion and anxiety run high.

When mothers' attitudes vacillate in an ambivalent manner, children respond to them with similar confusion and instability. The children seem at a loss as to how to respond to their mothers. They are upset by their inability to get clear guides for their behavioral and personality responses (Stagner 1974).

Ambivalence is almost certain to arouse feelings of inferiority in children, since children do not know just where they stand with their mothers. As such, they must be continually on their guard. Otherwise, punishment will fall on them for behavior, which only a moment ago, was condoned or encouraged. These inconsistencies do not

only leave the children confused but also severely threaten their ego. They then develop a basic distrust for people who seem to always give them false clues. This leads to their being always on their guard. Children also learn to adopt such a calculating stance in most social interactions other than with their own mothers.

Other Factors

It was also revealed by the data that children's gender was negatively related to factor A, meaning female children tend to be more reserved and cool than male children. Female children tend to be more detached. They tend to favor things instead of people. They seem more comfortable working alone than with groups. Inclined to be aloof, they strike other people as hard to approach and difficult to get to know.

Further described as demanding and impatient, female children attempt to get what they want by displaying attention-getting behavior. They are also prone to jealousy, they seem to like every attention to be focused on them. They easily get excited over things and situations that occur before them. Although socially aloof, they can be demonstrative to a few about their reactions and feelings regarding things and situations. They verbally report their feelings and reactions as these occur.

Assertiveness and independence likewise characterize female children. They are not afraid to communicate themselves, their needs and wants, even when others interpret this as being demanding.

They further reveal themselves to be independent-minded. They tend to deviate from the conventional as they formulate norms of their own. This may be taken as a rebellious act by some, but these children just want to prove that they can do well on their own and they strive to be admired for it. Female children's sense of independence may also have stemmed from the kind of training they received in their homes. As Licuanan (1979) has found, in the typical Filipino home, these children are trained early on to take active helping roles in the family, whether in caretaking or in doing household chores.

These children are also pictured as enthusiastic, optimistic, and self-confident. They present a happy-go-lucky and cheerful stance, possibly stemming from their confidence in themselves. As previously mentioned, they are quite demonstrative of their thoughts and emotions. They can be quite straightforward in their expression. They are

also quick to react to the happenings around them. Their talkativeness leads them to be verbal in their approach to most situations.

Female children are also depicted as tough-minded and sentimental. This contradicts research evidence that girls tend to be more tender-minded and dependent (Porter & Cattell 1968). On the contrary, female children are described in this study as self-reliant. They take responsibility when required and they hardly solicit help from other people. While they expect attention and admiration, this is usually for the result of their efforts in their undertakings and not while they are in the process of handling these as a form of emotional support. Evidently, they want to be left alone in their pursuits.

Differential treatment of boys and girls may account for this finding. In a study by Kagan and Moss (1962), it was found that mothers tend to be less restrictive and more permissive of their sons than their daughters, a finding that is likewise held true among Filipino mothers (Sevilla 1982; Licuanan 1979). This then contributes to the boys' better social adjustment, more friendliness and cooperativeness in social situations (Watson 1957). While the girls, being restricted and overprotected, are thus inclined to be somewhat shy and seclusive (Watson 1965; Symonds 1949) in their interactions, in terms of initiating social contacts and making friends.

Hetherington and Parke (1986) and Cicirelli (1982) offered a sex-role stereotype explanation. According to them, girls are more likely than boys to be encouraged to take active caretaking and helping roles in the family. In our society as well, as previously mentioned, girls are tasked to take on household responsibilities early in life. According to Licuanan (1979), they are seen as a source of assistance in carrying out household tasks in Filipino homes. Some are even made to assume childcare functions in the absence of the mother. Consequently, they are able to develop a sense of responsibility and independence.

Female children are apt to be more casual about rules. Because they have a mind of their own, they reveal disinclination for social control. Instead, they set their own norms and follow these as they go about their activities. However, it was not suggested whether these norms are within the context of approved standards. They seem to be unconcerned about their self-image. They see nothing wrong about following their own urges if circumstances call for it.

It was revealed by the data that the father's level of education was positively related to factor E. This indicates that higher educated fathers tend to have more assertive and independent-minded children.

The general assertiveness of children may be attributed to their age group. According to Hurlock (1972), children at this period of middle to late childhood tend to be more outgoing and assertive. It is at this stage that they strive for independence.

This finding is further revealed in the light of the conclusions of Walters and Stinnett (1971) that more educated fathers and mothers tend to be less restrictive and more permissive. A parent's level of education has consistently been found by investigators as positively related to restriction-permissiveness. Since this finding was not ascertained by this study, speculations only can be made.

Permissive fathers allow their children more freedom and encourage them to work on their responsibility. Consequently, they foster independence and confidence in their children, which also tends to contribute to their assertiveness (Watson 1957; Mummery 1954) since they come to realize that they can stand up for themselves. Such an attitude is conducive to the development of constructive expression of their children's thoughts and feelings. This gives the children the opportunity to assert themselves, their rights and opinions.

Furthermore, greater confidence can also lead these children toward becoming more ascendant. Since they have more to contribute in terms of ideas and skills, they are likely to be more directing and suggesting toward other people (Mummery 1954), sometimes to the extreme of becoming stubborn and dominant.

Children of higher educated fathers feel free about expressing themselves. Their self-confidence further prods them to dominate others, to take leadership roles, and to be successful in them. They have individualistic and unconventional views. They may appear rebellious as they refuse to adhere closely to customary values.

Like their higher educated fathers, these children display a competitive spirit. Allowed their own way, they make a reasonable effort to achieve what they want. Self-willed, they persist in their quest for achievement despite problems or difficulties encountered along the way.

In discussing the relation of father's occupation to children's personality traits, three occupational characteristics can be gleaned: the nature of the occupation, the earnings, and the work involvement and the consequent availability or non-availability. The data showed that father's occupation was negatively related to factor A, thereby suggesting that the lower the father's occupational position, the more cool and aloof the child.

One variable that can explain father's occupation is the father's level of education. Presumably, fathers who belong to lower occupational strata are also lower educated, meaning they completed less years of formal education. From their level of education, their attitudes can thus be deduced. Given these, however, possible trends instead of generalizations can be pointed out.

As previously suggested, these fathers tend to be more restrictive and less permissive in their attitudes toward their children. The pattern of authority and restriction was seen as the pervasive pattern of the father-child relationship in the typical Filipino family (Robles 1981; Tritz 1960). According to Licuanan (1979), fathers carry a lot of authority at home and this view was supported by Tan (1989) who conceived the main role of fathers as that of a disciplinarian. These attitudes are found to interfere with adequate socialization of the child.

Being restrictive, these fathers combine over-control with lack of warm affection. Control may be obtained through moral precepts with little or no physical punishment or in a punitive way where physical punishment is employed. Convinced of the value of obedience, orderliness, and control, they seek to imbue their children with similar virtues. Hence, through moral precepts, they adopt a philosophy of strict upbringing involving mandatory routines and unquestioning obedience. All these seem to suppress children's spontaneity and the growth of social skills, leaving the children timid and somewhat withdrawn.

As the data suggested, children of less professional fathers tend to appear detached and hard to approach. Bound by rules and a concern for conformity, children are apt to imbibe these same traits. These children become strict themselves, straitlaced with exacting standards. They are seen as critical and are more penetrating in their evaluations of people. They seem uncompromising, rigidly stand by their own ideas. Thus, they prefer to be alone and to work alone.

In inferring the attitudes of the fathers from their occupation, the nature of their occupation should be taken into consideration. For example, some of the lower educated fathers are into protective and service type of work, like that of a policeman (8.3 percent). Exposed to the cruel realities of life, they are driven to impose limitations on their children and to regulate their children's activities even if it may hinder the development of more adjusted social skills. In the face of problems or difficult situations, these children are prone to sulk and they cannot seem to make more positive and appropriate adjustments.

Some investigators (e.g., Hurlock 1972) attest that these traits are inherent in children at this stage. The period of middle to late childhood is also known as preadolescence. This period is accompanied by the expectations children have to meet and the adjustments they have to hurdle. All these tend to produce a kind of emotional turmoil in children which contributes to their unstable tendencies.

However, since these traits are common in children of lower-occupation fathers, the father's availability may be a factor. The type of work the fathers do, particularly those in the protective-oriented type and more so those who do overseas work, may require them to be out of their homes for extended periods of time. Consequently, these fathers become less involved with their children and this can be communicated to the children as neglect and to some extent paternal deprivation. This leads to emotional and behavioral instability in children.

On the other hand, the children's precise and rigid approach to things makes them dependable in undertakings that require exactness, for example, manual work, quite similar to the nature of their father's occupation which is more skilled.

Data also revealed that the father's occupation was positively related to factor D, meaning, the lower the occupational status of fathers, the more impatient, overactive, and demanding the children. The low occupations of fathers are suggestive of low income. Thus, the children's impatient and demanding characteristics can be explained along this line. Living on a low income, material deprivations may be common. Instead of splurging on luxuries, the focus is shifted to the more basic needs of the children. The children's wants and wishes may not always be gratified, leading to their impatience. They become demanding as they crave for things they are denied.

However, while the issue of material deprivation may be true for the children of manual and factory workers, the same cannot be said about the children of overseas-worker fathers who earn higher incomes and who as such, are able to provide better economic conditions for the children.

These data further reveal that these children tend to exhibit distress on slight provocation. They tend to be hurt or angry when restrained or punished. Earlier, these children were projected in this study as submissive and restrained. Now they are pictured as exactly the opposite. This inconsistency in their personality can be understood in terms of the following: the extent to which they exhibit

restraint depends on the situation they are in or the people they are with. For instance, at home with their authoritarian fathers, they should be submissive and subdued. But in school, which relatively has a more benign and permissive climate, they find avenues for releasing their impulses (Gabriel 1964).

Since they are the care of their restrictive and authoritarian fathers, observers may also interpret these actions as rebellion. However, this cannot be taken as a general rule. As previous studies have found, it is typical of these children to repress these impulses and to become amenable to discipline. Hence, it is implied that rather than be demonstrative about these, children tend to keep such impulses to themselves, especially in the presence of an authoritarian figure.

The father's occupation was found to be negatively related to factor I, which means that the lower the occupational positions of fathers, the more tough-minded and independent the children.

These findings run contrary to the popular finding that restricted children tend to be tender-minded and dependent. In reference to the explanation given earlier, these children may have enjoyed greater freedom in another environment and it shows itself in their independence. Moreover, it is in this type of permissive environment that children satisfy their strivings for independence, which may explain the finding.

This finding can also be explained in view of the nature of the father's occupation, which is more manual or skilled. These children may have been trained by their own tough-minded fathers to develop the same traits or they may have imbibed their fathers' toughness, physically and in temperament. In Minoza's study (1984), children were permitted a high level of independence in locomotion activities to allow the development of toughness.

Viewed from the angle of punitiveness typical in these fathers, the fathers may have employed physical punishment to which the children respond with physical and temperamental toughness.

The father's occupation was also found to be inversely related to factor Q3. This implies that the lower the father's occupational position, the more uncontrolled and careless the children.

These children do not seem to be bothered by will power nor the regard for social demands. These children might find themselves in trouble with school regulations, for example, not with a delinquent intent, but through carelessness and neglect. The rejection of cultural or societal demands usually arise from anxious insecurity. Factor Q3

represents children's self-concept, "the degree to which children direct their behavior by reference to the concept of their selves which they want others to have of them and which they believe represent their real potential" (Porter & Cattell 1968, 34).

Whereas a positive self-concept can be stimulated by direct and constructive education in socio-moral values, the use of restriction and punitiveness can produce the opposite. Feelings of inadequacy and inferiority concerning the self are typical outcomes of authoritarian parent-child relationship. These feelings lead to greater confusion and anxiety on the part of the children as they become more unsure of themselves. Hence, while driven to conform to social norms, carelessness which grows out of their anxiety and insecurity leads them to do otherwise.

As the data revealed, the children's gender was positively related to overprotection. This can be interpreted to mean that mothers tend to be more overprotective of their daughters than of their sons.

In a study on the Asian family (Taiwan, Korea, and Philippines), Quiambao (1965) found the existence of the practice of favoritism of certain children and discrimination against others. Whereas boys are found to be more favored in many families and are thus allowed more freedom, girls are often kept more closely in the home and their play is more restricted. According to Quiambao (1965), this is partly due to sex preference in the average Asian home and the freedom or restriction upon these children is an outcome of such attitude. Girls, by virtue of their sex, require more care in their upbringing than boys. Comparable findings were reported by Jocano in 1975.

Overprotective mothers are generally apprehensive, as if the world were a dangerous place. Understandably, with the recent advent and rise of various crimes against women, like abduction and rape, mothers become more anxious of and overly concerned about their daughters' welfare and safety.

Employing considerable limitation on their daughters' freedom, overprotective mothers believe they are able to furnish their children an environment which is free from exposure to the cruel situations that have been considered to be the harsh realities of life.

In consideration of the girls' innate and inherent vulnerability, the mothers are thus driven to overprotect their daughters by a variety of safeguards, even to the extent of impeding their social development, just to ensure that they do not take unwanted risks or hazards.

Conclusion

The findings of the study yield a wealth of information that leads to a broader understanding of the mother-child relationship.

Overprotection and rejection emerge as the descriptive patterns of the mothers' attitudes toward their children. These patterns tend to characterize the kind of relationship they provide their children. Hence, among the various aspects related to the mothers their attitudes appear to play the most significant role in children's personality.

The mothers' attitudes bear varied relations to the personality characteristics of children. The kind of attitude they present to their children determines the extent to which their children's personality tends towards being relaxed or tensed and towards being socially shrewd or artless.

Overindulgent attitude was found to be significantly related to tensed personality characteristics in children. Whereas confused/ambivalent attitude was associated with children's shrewd and calculating traits. Overindulgent mothers tend to have tense children whereas confused/ambivalent mothers tend to have children with calculating personality characteristics.

The mothers' attitudes tend to vary according to the gender of their children. As this study has found, mothers display more overprotection toward their daughters than their sons. Being more anxious about their daughters' welfare and safety, they tend to employ more restrictions on them.

However, maternal attitudes are not the sole factors that render significant contributions to the personality of children. The children's gender as well as father's occupation and level of education, all have differing contributions to children's personality dimensions.

Female children reveal such personality traits as aloofness, impatience, and self-reliance. Similar dimensions are yielded by children of lower-occupation fathers. Among the children of higher educated fathers, assertiveness and independence were gleaned.

In summary then, it can be said that mother-child relationships are complex in nature. The main variables of mother and child, complex as they are, are rendered more complicated as other factors relevant to both come into play and affect individual roles.

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