CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE
II. Related Literature

In this chapter, the available literature related to the proposed study is presented under the following headings.

2.1 Types of Dresses
2.2 Importance of clothing
2.3 Importance of clothing budget
2.4 Consumer buying behaviour
2.5 Clothing consumption of three income families
2.6 Importance of colour, Design and value of colour in clothing
2.7 Factors influencing clothing selection
2.8 Individuality of Pre-school children
2.9 Personality pattern
2.10 Behavioural profile or temperament
2.11 Personality
2.12 Self - concept
2.13 Role of clothing in the personality development of children
2.14 Selection of materials for children's dresses
2.15 Evaluation of the Literature and the position of the present study.
2.16 The present study - A Resume
Each section is in turn divided into two aspects, relating to sex and income of the children.

2.1. Types of dresses

At the end of each section the presented literature is evaluated and the position of the present study is indicated.

A well dressed is one with dressy clothes, unusual workmanship (frills and trimming) elaborately decorated with highly flowing material, which may emphasize the silhouette of the wearer, with startling colours.

According to Rathbone et al (1962), dressy dresses are those dresses made of clothes chosen for its decorative quality, not for its long wear, decorated with elaborate trimmings and decorations.

Feeling right in your dress depends upon their similarity to what others are wearing, their suitability for the occasion, time and day, their fashion rightness and their becomingness to you. (Erwin and Kinchen 1969).

Being well dressed means, clothes that suit you and your life-the thing you do, the places you go (Sherry 1972).

Dressy dresses had a fitted line with a smooth and shiny texture, trimmed with frills and laces to give a dressy, dramatic effect, says Wingate (1976).

According to Thomas (1993), when you select dresses suitable for you, you do not feel self-conscious or timid and feel 'at home', if you avoid being over dressed and under dressed.

Well dressed, according to Walvekar (1993) is one who dressed in a dressy clothes; fabrics used for dressy clothes are sheer delicate or heavy in texture decorated with sequences, pearls, frills, ruffles, accessories like jewellery should match with the garment.

Thomas (1994) suggests that, dressy dresses are those with highly flowing, light weight and shiny materials with lot of trimmings and decorations.
Well dressed means looking attractive for the occasion by getting admiration of everybody gathered or becoming centre-point of attraction (Thomas 1994).

Ordinarily dressed means, dress that meet the basic or standard requirements. (Tarpley and Rathbone 1962)

Ordinary dresses are, that simple clothes, that are good-looking day in and day out with a minimum of care (Rathbone and Tarpley 1972).

The dresses that used for ordinary purpose should be simple neat and business-like in appearance, should also be capable of being laundered easily and often. (Pandit and Tarpley 1975)

If clothes are chosen so that you feel that you are appropriately dressed for the occasion, that is neither under-dressed nor over-dressed, it is then that you gain confidence so that you can forget your appearance and put your mind on other things, says (Pandit 1975).

According to Wingate (1976) casual clothes are garments with easy, fluid-flowing lines that present an unclustered, fresh, relaxed appearance.

Ordinarily dressed means, the apparel is being designed with the stress on the design for any and all day time activities (Wingate 1976).

A carelessly selected dress, suggests to others a careless disorganized person; such disregard of personal daintiness discourages and exerts an undesirable influence on the child, says Pollard (1961).

Ill dressed is, one dressed in unfit and unattractive apparel (Tate 1961).

Children whose dresses are worse than of other children feel inferiority complex, says Chaube (1986).

Thomas (1994) states that, ill dressed or carelessly dressed are those children whose parents are not at all paying attention or interest in buying their children's dresses. In result the dress becomes poorly fitted or improper, the child looks out of place in the group.
Young children are well aware of the sex appropriateness of dresses and want to be sure that their dresses conform to the approved styles for their sex. Little girls, prefer skirts and blouses and they like to be better dressed up than boys. Boys on the other hand, regard being dressed up as a sign of a “sissy”. (Pandit 1967).

All the studies regarding dresses were conducted in early fifties. These studies dealt with adults. The present study is aimed at pre-school children, because, the stones of personality is laid during early childhood i.e. from three to five years.

According to Pandit (1967) the following points should be remembered while making children’s clothes.

**Comfort:** If child’s clothing is uncomfortable he will become cross and irritable. Scratchy materials, rough seams, tight bands are some of the causes for discomfort. It is important not to have the garment too large, sleeves too long and neck opening too big. Elastic at the waist band should be firm enough to hold the garment in place; at the same time not so tight that it rubs against the waist and leaves red mark.

**Decoration:** This should never attract attention to the garment rather than to the child.

**Laundering:** Children’s clothes must be laundered frequently as they get solid easily. Hence the material chosen should be washable and of fast colour.

Dress has an important role in getting acceptance in peer group says Patil (1990) Locke (1967) stressed the principles of a “sound mind in a sound body” and pointed out that in order to obtain a sound body, clothing should be the first consideration.

Rousseau (1967) expressed his views concerning the type of clothing best suited to childhood as follows, “The limbs of the growing child should be free to move easier; there should be nothing tight, nothing fitting closely to the body.

As scientific research has made available more information concerning the way children grow and the part clothing plays in its growth, definite attention has been focussed on children’s clothing: Pandit (1967). The relationship between a child’s behaviour and
his clothing is evident in a group, while playing and his social growth and behaviour are influenced by clothing. The clothing that a child wears affects his emotional developments. His happiness and social adjustments are determined in part by his environment of which clothing is an important feature, says Pandit (1967). Clothes make childhood a delightful period. They contribute to the developing character of the child and to his self-confidence, stated Thomas (1994).

A carelessly selected dress may create a poor impression on others says Walvekar (1993)

Thomas (1994) reveals that, the child who 'dresses well' feels self esteem. The child feels, he is smart and will develop self-concept, among his peers, he becomes popular.

When a child dresses well, his behaviour will noticeably be different than when he is ordinarily dressed. When he is well dressed he feels very proud which shows in his activities: Thomas (1994)

Clothing may convey moods and feelings contributing to the person a self-concept or self regard. Clothes may give a joyous source of motion, vivacity and freedom akin to riding through the air. Being less anxious and more at ease they are able to act in friendlier and more spontaneous ways. Those who are poorly dressed often feel awkward and out of place in the company of others. They are actually embarrassed about their appearance and impression they make on others. They tend to be self conscious and withdrawing.

According to Gibbens (1991) the main purpose of clothing is to keep the child warm. Clothes should be light, warm air lies imprisoned in the meshes of clothing. So several light layers are better than heavy one. Thick and heavy clothes stifle the skin and make a child feels stuffy.

Good taste implies knowledge says, Chambers (1961). This knowledge includes proper use of materials, design and colour.

According to Pollard (1961) the style of a costume depends on good taste; as sense of beauty and appropriateness which makes it right for the wearer, whereas
fashion is the prevailing mode which should be adopted. Fads are extremes of fashion which are promoted by groups which is current for a day, a week or a month.

2.2. Importance of Clothing

Clothing is the second in the triumvirate of fundamental necessities. Basically, clothing satisfies need for physical protection and more importantly provides a means of individual identity and social status through personal adornment. The desire to decorate appears to be the most compelling motive for wearing clothes, says Jimsey (1973).

According to Erwin (1965), clothes give a feeling of self confidence and a sense of well-being, freeing our mind for the enjoyment of friends and intellectual pursuits. Lyle and Brikley (1984) state that, the primary reason for wearing clothes is protection, the second reason is self-adornment, in addition, clothing has been used to show status, sex, self-expression and cultural difference.

Hurlock (1974) states that, at an early age, the child discovers that his clothing attracts the attention of other children as well as adults. Favourable comments by adults and admiration or envy from other children contribute to the child’s sense of self-importance.

A well dressed child will be confident (Dutta 1990); Grihalakshmi (1991) reports that, a well dressed child makes a good impression on other children. According to Hurlock (1976) the "best dressed" are friendlier, more vivacious and more talkative; they have a more active social life; they are more popular and more likely to be selected as leaders.

According to Thomas (1994), early childhood is the "pregangage", the child is learning the foundation of social behaviour, the major development is that of control over the environment. In this age, children like attractive clothes and are proud of any new garment, they are more concerned about their clothes appearance and well groomed.

Most of the studies covered under importance of clothing have been dealt with grown up children only. Hunt (1959) studied factors related to children's clothing preferences. The present study is very important because, so far no study has been conducted in this aspect.
2.3. Importance of Clothing Budget

Budget is a financial plan that helps people make the best possible use of their money (Gross and Crandall, 1980).

Erwin and Kinchen (1969) define, budget as a proposed estimate or plan for spending over a given period of time. Family economic review (1971) reports that, family budget provides a basis for assessing the economic status of the family and counsels families on money management.

According to Nickell and Dorsey (1960) the objective of clothing management is to further the physical, social and psychological well being of each member of the family in each state of the family’s life. Clark (1978) states that one must plan what he wants to buy in order to avoid waste and get the best value. Clothing is one of the family expenditures which must be budgeted carefully (Pollard, 1961).

Pollard adds that, the amount spends for clothing, depends on the family situation, number of members, and their needs. Khadi Gramodyog Research (1965) indicates that, there is an important relationship between income and wardrobe content.

According to Nickell and Dorsey (1960) clothing management is primarily a psychological problem because the choice of clothing markedly affects the development and happiness of people, the clothing one wears plays an important part in one’s adjustment to the social group. Latzke (1968) stated that, with wise planning one can acquire the type of wardrobe needed. As the income increases, the amount spent on clothing increases. The wife’s clothing usually costs more than the husband’s. The cost of upkeep is greater for the man’s clothing than for women’s or the children (Nickel and Dorsey 1960).

Erwin and Kinchen (1970) suggest that clothing budget or wardrobe plans, help to buy the most essential items first and then the necessaries. One must consider quality rather than number, while purchasing clothes.

Craig and Rush (1954) state that, a two or three year clothing plan will save time, energy and money. It will tell one, the clothing on hand provide a more satisfactory wardrobe in future.
Wardrobe collection should not only be beautiful, fashionable and suitable for the body, but it should also be comfortable, says Sreedhar (1991). But people give more importance to fashion than comfort, report Mahila Ratnam (1991).

Latzke (1963) lists the factors affecting clothing budget as follows:

a) Family Income

b) Clothing Wants

c) Activities of Family Members

d) Size of Family

e) Where One Lives

Lewis (1960) says that, the extent of a woman's wardrobe depends on her husband's income, their social activities and her ability to sew for herself.

Thomas (1994) notices that, now a days most of the parents are conscious of their children's dresses, so they spent maximum on children's clothing. Parents are interested in dressing the children in good dresses whatever the amount they may have to spend.

2.4 Consumer buying behaviour

The consumer market consists of all the individuals and households who buy or require goods and services for personnel consumption. They vary tremendously in their age, income, educational level, mobility patterns and tastes (Kotler, 1983).

The social and cultural environment is the largest frame work within which consumer functions. The socio-cultural environment provides reference point that impart meaning to our behaviour and cognition (Mashal Sahlin cited by Tom, 1984).

The kind of variety of clothing available today, seem unlimitless as a result of the new technology and its accompanying mass production.

According to Tate and Glisson (1972), Customs and habits are no longer adequate criteria for clothing consumption. Purchasing power of the people is the most important factor in the consumption of clothing which is expressed by income received Tate and
Glisson (1972) Hess (1978) points out that when the income increased the percentage of expenditure will also increase accordingly, as no choice is ever made without reference to the income.

We can hardly exaggerate the significance of good buying habits as far as clothing purchases are concerned. Good technique of buying will expand our real income says Gorden (1961) Reins (1964) explains that, an intelligent shopper will be knowing fabrics and current prices. He reads and understands labels.

Clothing should not be purchased on the spur of the moment; Following a carefully planned wardrobe and shopping eliminates the possibilities of buying something, just because of its fashion, expresses (Ryan and Philip, 1947).

If consumers have to obtain maximum satisfaction from their resources, they must be able to estimate reasonably the future performance of their purchase (Polyson 1977).

Sybere and Roach (1962) states that clothing throughout the history serves as a status symbol, Mc Jimsey (1973) says that, upper and middle status families tend to place more emphasis on variety in wardrobe but lower status family tends to think of wardrobe in a fundamental way.

According to Hurlock (1976), a person can symbolize socioeconomic success by wearing clothes made of superior material, designed by prestigious manufacturers, having a large number of garments of each kind, and by wearing only the latest styles.

Thomas (1994) opined that, while selecting dresses for children their opinion should be considered. By giving a chance for the selection of their own dresses, their self-concept is developing. Through this they are becoming more confident.

2.5. Clothing consumption of three income families

The expenditure on clothing and quantity of cloth purchased by families in different socioeconomic groups could be considered either on per family basis or on per capita basis. As income increases, the money spent on clothing increases, but the percentage spent on clothing will decrease (Nickel and Dorsey, 1990)

Thomas (1992) is of the opinion that, among families in the higher income the
percentage of income spent for clothing is often less. Quality and quantity of clothing worn often indicate the degree of financial success attained. Latzke, et al (1968) opine that, in middle income families, money spent on wife's clothing is much higher than man's and children's clothing.

According to Alexander (1977) in families at the lower income group, any increase in income usually brings a use in the husband's clothing than wife's. Bhatji et al (1966) indicate, the clothing consumption pattern of lower income groups are influenced by income rather than any other factors.

Jimsey (1973) says that, upper and middle class families tend to give more emphasis for variety in wardrobe but low income group are influenced by income rather than any other factors.

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A person can symbolize socioeconomic success by wearing clothes made of superior material and designed by prestigious manufacturers, by having a large number of garments of each kind, by wearing only the latest styles, which indirectly communicates the wearer's ability to discard old cloths and buy new ones as soon as the fashion changes. Individuals choose these according to their socioeconomic status, says Hurlock (1976)

According Vatsala (1992) recent trend among weaker sections seems to be cottons, blends and pure synthetics.

Weaker section of the society are not in a position to bear the higher priced range of synthetics and blends. Hence they continue to use mostly cotton fabrics.

A study conducted by Vatsala (1992) in Andra Pradesh showed that among the fabrics, synthetics like polyester are moving faster which are closely followed by blends. Cotton is the next fast moving fabric, while rayons are the least moving.

Hand book of Statistics on Man-made Fibre (1990-91) reveals, consumption of
textile are steadily going up, it rose from a level of 13.84 linear metre in 1984 to 16.35 linear metres in 1987. The pattern of consumption underwent a significant change. In 1984, the consumption of cotton cloth was around 72 per cent but it fell to 60 per cent in 1987. The non-cotton cloth went up, marginally from 13 per cent to 15 per cent in the same period. Blends on the other hand, showed the largest increase from around 15 per cent in 1984 to nearly 20 per cent in 1987.

A study conducted by Jacob (1990) shows that, there is no significant relationship between socioeconomic variables such as education, occupational status, age and income and their involvement in clothing selection. Homemakers irrespective of their varying socioeconomic status showed more or less the same purchasing behaviour of clothing.

John (1982) revealed that, slum families spent nine per cent on clothing. The factors that influence their clothing purchases included necessity, availability of money, functions and festivals. Fabric consumption by slum families was found to agree with per capita consumption for males. It was found to be higher for families in comparison to estimate made by this Textiles Committee (Government of India, 1971) In urban area, the wardrobe of women was found to be larger than the wardrobe of men.

Joseph (1980) revealed that, money spent on clothing for children and women was higher when compared to man. Income, family status and price occupied the first place among the factors which influenced in clothing selection, father, mother and children together had a major role in clothing selection. Most of the families purchased clothing items whenever the need arose. Regarding the consumption of controlled cloth, a study was conducted by Raji and Chandra (1981)

A study conducted by the Textile Committee (1968) in Rajastan to find out the consumption of textiles in the rural and urban area showed that cotton was the most commonly consumed material. Only 23 per cent in the urban areas and 36 per cent in the rural areas purchased readymade garments for children because tailoring was not good.
The Bureau of Labour Statistics (1975) conducted a study on the expenditure on teenagers' clothing and revealed that more money was spent on teenagers' clothing than for any other. All families gave much importance for the purchase of clothing for teenagers than anybody in the family.

Vijayalakshmi et al. (1970) on consumer preferences revealed that, the families in the lower income groups were influenced by price and income in the purchase of their clothing requirements whereas designs, colour, suitability and quality were the factors influencing the choice of the upper income group.

Lyle (1976) quoted that, the consumers are showing an increased interest in prices. Research surveys and actual buying trends indicate that beauty and fashion are considered more and more to be of 'value' by consumer.

Previous studies conducted proved that more importance was given to mother's clothing. But Thomas (1994) revealed that current trend irrespective of income parents are caring for children's clothing than any other in the family. Along with cloth parents are eager to buy all necessary accessories for children to bring their children equal to other children.

2.6. Importance of colour, value and design in clothing

2.6. a. Colour

Reaction to colour is both physiological and psychological. Colours affects your emotions, often so subtly that you do not realize what has made you feel cheerful, subdued, or melancholy Pollard (1961). According to Moorjani (1993), most of us are not aware and have not tried to understand and make better use of the powerful influence that colours and our colour preferences have on our daily lives. He further explains that colours shape our personalities and the way we look at life and respond to a variety of situations and problems. Each one of us has his own favourite colour which involuntarily gets reflected in our colour choices and preferences.

Thomas (1993) started that, the colour preferences can be noticed from early childhood, whenever toys and other things are bought for the child, though he can't mention
the name of the colour of his preference, he will point out his favourite colour and demand for that. He further explains that, if the parents are leaving the child for his own selection of colour, while purchasing his articles, we could clearly make out, this colour preference from the child's collection of articles. The child who prefer yellow always prefer to buy articles which are yellow in colour.

Moorjani (1993) stated that the colour you love or prefer tells the intelligent observer what you are like to a large extent. These always shade our personality and moods which vary with time, place and circumstances.

According Goldstein and Goldstein (1963) shown three aspects of colour invision; First, that colours can affect the mood of an individual; second, that colours have the property of seeming to advance or to recede; and third, that colours have very definite effects upon each other. The cool colours related to the blue and green have a quieting influence and as the colour become colder and darker it may become really depressing. On the other hand, the warm colours - those group around the red and orange hues - have a cheerful, comforting effect, which may increase to stimulation and excitement when the colours become very bright and near to red Pollard (1961)

Thomas (1994) stated that, colour like sound is subjective, its existing depends upon the sensory apparatus of human and animals. It is the name given to a sensation produced by existiation of the eye by visible radiant energy or light of a particular wave length.

According to Gerritsen (1975), the psychological value of colours is more applicable to applied and utilitarian arts than to creative arts. The heart beat and respiration were measured while different colours were presented via projections. The results were, red - faster; green - steady, regular; blue - calm but irregular floating. It was found that an yellow environment caused the least arithmatic mistakes, in a blue room the most mistakes occurred. It was also true that a blue room was most suitable for thought problems.

Lyle (1976) quoted that, taste - the ability to give colour its proper weight in a given application - comes into play once agreement is reached on the basic colour or colours. Sensitivity is important in the selection of an appropriate hue. Wave length from 400 to 700 millimicrons, which are perceived as colour from violet to red.
Anand (1994) stated that, the impact of colour is always felt on the head and heart. Colour stimulates mentally and emotionally.

2.6. b. Value

The lightness or darkness of a colour is called value. Wine and pink are red in hue, but wine is darker value of the red and pink is lighter value of red, (Pollard 1961).

There are many degrees of light and dark ranging all the way from white to black, but for the sake of convenience in use of typical steps are selected. Ross (1957) gave 9 steps names and symbols to aid in visualising them. White is the highest value and no hue can be as light as white. Black is the lowest value and so hue can be so dark. Half way between black and white comes middle value. A value that is lighter than the normal colour is called a tint and that is darker as shade.

Children of this age prefer bright and gaudy colours. Pastel shades are usually perceived as ugly by them. Moods of this age group children are associated with value preference (Thomas 1994).

According to Anand (1994), the value of colour has an impact on the temperament of the child.

2.6. c. Design

According to Meyer (1937) the ultimate source of all design is the response to obtain and the emotions of the designer to the needs and wishes of either himself or the person for whom he is designing.

Soundaraj (1974) define, design as any arrangement of line, form, colour, space value and texture.

Faulkner and Faulkner (1964), opine design is the selection and organization of form space, colour and texture to create beauty and individuality.

Patterned fabrics are colourful, refreshing and stimulating. The textile design of patterned fabrics may be natural and geometric (Craig and Rush 1954).

In clothing, the best structural design follows the natural body line. Decorative design gives emphasis to certain area, Pollard (1961).
Meyer (1937) has classified design into the three types: Conventional – In Conventional design, most parts are geometric design which is based upon the an actual form. Naturalistic design – is a realistic representation of nature with little or no change. Stylized design – fully three quarters of design are stylized.

There are two kinds of design - structural and decorative. Structural design is the design made by the size, form, colour, and texture of an object, whether it be the object itself. Decorative design is the surface enrichment of a structural design Goldestein and Goldstein (1963)

Natural designs are those designs which are seen in nature without any change. Flowers, leaves, climbers, birds, animals, etc. Geometric designs are circle, triangle, rectangle etc stripes and checks are also coming under this head and in stylized design modification or alteration are given on naturalistic design (Thomas 1994).

Requirements of a good decorative design

Decorative design is the surface enrichment of a structural design.

1. The decoration should be used in moderation
2. The decoration should be placed at structural points.
3. There should be enough background space to give an effect of simplicity and dignity to the design.
4. Surface pattern should cover the surface quality.
5. The background shapes should be as carefully studied and as beautiful as the pattern placed against them.

According to Pandit (1967) plain or small figured material with a design going both way is easier to work with the stripes, large figured materials or check that have to be matched at the seam. Garments look bent when checks and stripes meet at the seamlines.
The investigator made an attempt to study the relation between liking of the behaviour profile, expressive behaviour and self-concept of children and preference of the design. It is the 1st attempt a study of this kind. The purpose of the study is also to relate preference of the design and sex of the children.

2.7 Factors Influencing Clothing Selection

Clothing selection is influenced by aesthetic, psychological, sociological and economic factors opine Hollen et al., (1979). Selection of textile products is a personal decision based on fashion, life style, income, sex and age: opines Hollen and Saddler (1979). Nickel and Dorsey (1960) states that, an important resource in clothing the family is the attitude developed by members of the family toward clothing. Hess (1968) feels that, the mode of living, purchasing power, availability, price, fashion, age and sex are the main factors influencing the consumption of clothing.

Mildred (1961) opines that, increased personal and family income and the change of attitude affect the family clothing purchase. According to Mauck (1963), factors like colour, texture and design are the most important factors affecting clothing selection.

Wardrobe collection should not only be beautiful, fashionable and suitable for the body, but it should also be comfortable (Sreedhar, 1991)

Socioeconomic Factors Affecting Clothing

Increased Income

According to Tate (1961), increased personnel and family income and the attitude about its use affect the family clothing. Latzke et al., (1968) opine that, the average family income permits freedom of choice in clothing, for following fashion, for upgrading the quality of approval, and for purchasing luxury items.

Changing Status of Women

According to Jha (1985) women are responsible for social changes - which is an influencing factor in the family’s clothing purchase. Tate (1961) explains that the desire for higher incomes to meet mounting costs and increasing standards of consumption is undoubtedly an important factor in the rising employment of women. Employed women naturally may spend more money for clothing than unemployed women.
Family Location

According to Lewis et al. (1960) women, who live in large metropolitan districts are more fashion-conscious and they move out more frequently than rural population, so town people need to spend more on dressy clothes.

Psychological Needs

Norman et al. (1970) opines that, clothing interacts with the physiology of the body and that the functions of clothing are essential to man in all environments.

The main purpose of clothes is to keep a child warm. Clothes should be light, warm air lies imprisoned in the meshes of clothing. The skin must breath in winter, it must sweat in summer, so it need soft airy material next to it. Gibbens (1991).

Social Value

According to Alexander (1977) dress codes are related to concepts of decency appropriateness. Of all the status symbols that are of interest to children, clothing has a more important effect on personality. Though clothes seem to have superficial qualities they are important determinants of one person's reaction to another. Clothes tell indirectly, the socioeconomic status of the family and tell directly the status of children in the peer group.

Family Cycle

According to Alexander (1977) young adult tend to clothing changes more often than they may, when they reach the middle or older years at different stages of life, individuals have different needs in clothing. Children whose families are able to provide the clothes and material possessions that give them prestige in the peer group usually develop better self-concept and thus more wholesome personality than children whose parents cannot provide such provisions for them (Pandit 1967).

Values

Latzke (1968) opines that, clothing expresses the values that are important to a person, the values that the individuals hold important are the ruling forces in his life.

The pre-school period is the critical period in the development of the child. Not only
do physical defects manifest themselves but also faulty attitudes, anxieties, insecurity, instabilities and distortions of personality may be produced. Parents should understand the effect of clothing on developing personality of the child. By analysing the part that planning, selection and care of clothing play in developing good habits and character traits, those who care for children can aid them to become responsible members of the society (Pandit 1967).

Cast, Creed and Religion.

Vanitha (1991) reports that in India, especially in Kerala every religion, cast and creed have their own dresses and the way of wearing these dress also vary. According to Thomas (1992) children’s clothing are not much affected by religion. All try their best to dress their children better than others.

Good taste

Good taste implies knowledge, says chambers (1961). This knowledge include proper use of materials, design and colour. Giving a chance in the selection of their own dresses contributes to the development of the character of the child and to his self-confidence. They may influence mental health by encouraging him to accept responsibilities, to co-operate and to make personal contribution.

Style and Fashion

According to Pollard (1961), the style of a costume depends on good taste; a sense of beauty and appropriateness which makes it right for the wearer, whereas fashion is the prevailing mode which should be adopted. Fads are extremes of fashion which are promoted by groups which is current for a day, a week or a month.

The young children discovers that clothing attract attention to himself. New clothes have as special appeal for young children. He likes others to notice him. If they fail to do so, he calls their attention to his clothes say Thomas (1993).

Buy always easy care garments, even special party dresses should be easily washable. A party dress should be practical as well as pretty; make sure that the child feels comfortable in his dress.
2.8. Individuality of Pre-school children

Each infant at birth is unique, his interaction in his life experience moulding his character. Behaviour patterns in the childhood pave the way to behaviour pattern in adulthood. There are many factors which influence in the formation of behaviour of the children.

The period of early childhood starts at the age of three and lasts through the age of five; acquisition of self and social awareness and the broadening scope of peer relationships are the characteristics of this particular age, Watson (1965).

According to Weiner and Elkind (1972), the expressive behaviours acquired in infancy begin during the pre-school years to reflect individual personalities with specific attitudes, preferences and coping styles that will characterise a child throughout his life. He further explains that, the personality development in these years accordingly recover around the formation of child's basic capacities to deal effectively with interpersonal and achievement related situations.

According to Panda (1981) the pre-school period is considered very critical. Many important characteristics have their genesis during this period.

Devadas and Jaya (1984) stated that, the early childhood years are significant for both personality and intellectual growth by the age of 3 1/2 years, the pre-school child comes to grips with the development of a sense of initiative and imagination, rapid growth at this stage necessitates the provision of a suitable environment for optimum development.

The sense one gets of this pre-school period is that the child is making a slow but immensely important shift from dependent baby to independent child (Bee 1985).

According to Hurlock (1986), early childhood extends from three to six years, the age when dependency is being replaced by growing independence and ends at about the time the child enters first grade in school.

According to Papalia and Olds (1979), many changes take place during the childhood and studying that age is important because it is generally agreed that the first few years are of great significance for the later development of the child, physically, mentally and emotionally.
To Craig (1989) the personal styles of copying that children develop in these years are often the foundation for life long patterns of behaviour.

Pre-school years may also be called the pre-gang age. In this stage the child seeks to gain control over his environment say Kuppuswamy (1990).

The literature related to the importance of pre-school years has been reviewed. From the above view of literature it is evident that many studies have been conducted to determine importance of pre-school years or 'gang age'. The basics of the personality development during adolescents are laid down during pre-school years.

2.9 Personality pattern

Personality is a concise term for the total behaviour of a person. Since the personality of a pre-school child is in the developing stage, this may be called as personality pattern, which may include his behaviour profile or temperament, self-concept, expressive behaviour, and mood. (Thomas 1993).

Personality includes, the whole individual, his physique temperament, skills, interests, hopes, feeling, habits, intelligence and achievement (Kuppuswamy 1990).

According to Hurlock (1976) the personality pattern is composed of traits, or specific qualities of behaviour which characterise the individual’s unique adjustment to life as shown in his behaviour and thoughts.

The ‘core’ or centre of gravity of the personality pattern in the individual’s concept of himself as a person as related to the world in which he lives (Hurlock 1976).

Bee (1985) opines that, temperament is an important ingredient in the system of factors influencing the child’s pattern of growth.

Hurlock (1974) pointed three major factors in determining the development of the personality pattern:

- the individual’s hereditary environment; early experiences within the family;
- important events in later life outside the home environment; elements of the personality pattern.
The personality pattern is composed of a core or centre of gravity, called the "concepts of self" and an integrated system of learned responses, called "traits", these are interrelated.

2.10. Behavioural profile or temperament

Definitions

The Latin word temperate means "to regulate", "to restrain one's self" or "to soften" (Goodman 1978).

Temperament is similar to mood but it is even longer lived. These temperament can be summed up as those biological aspects of functioning that show little change with development (Hurlock 1974).

Temperament according to Gardner (1964) is the more or less characteristic, persistent emotional disposition of an individual probably having a constitutional basis.

Guilford (1958) has defined temperament as the functional aspect of his constitutional nature and consisting of the peculiar combination of behavioural and effective predispositions mediated by his structural make up.

Thomas et al (1963, 1968) define temperament as the characteristic tempo, energy expenditure, mood and rhythmicity, typifying the behaviour of the individual infant.

According to Hurlock (1974) temperament is that aspect of personality which is revealed in the tendency to experience moods or mood changes in characteristic ways.

According to Mc Connell (1977) one's temperament is the way that one regulate oneself—that is one's characteristic attitude or behaviour pattern.

Temperament according to Hjelle and Ziegler (1981) are the raw materials (intelligence and physique) of which personality is moulded.

Lansdown (1984) defines temperament as the child's persistent prevailing mood, that which determines that characteristic adjustment to, life.

Temperament according to Hall and Kindzey (1985) are those dispositions that are closely linked to biological or physiological determinants and that consequently show relatively little modification with development.
According to Hatherington and Parke (1986) temperament is the biologically based differences among individuals in reactions to stimuli, in the expression of emotions, in arousal and in self regulation.

Carlson (1987) defines temperament as a person's general disposition or typical pattern of affective reaction to various situations.

**Behaviour profile or temperament - Categories**

Some of the earlier observations of temperament or behaviour profile in children were made by Fries (Fries and Lewi 1938, Fries, 1944, and Fries and Wolf 1953) Studying infants from birth to ten days of age under controlled conditions, she differentiated three activity types of infants in terms of amount of activity, differences in characteristic muscle tones and crying within the normal range. She labelled these types the 'active' the 'moderately active' and the 'quiet'. Extremes beyond either end of the normal range were considered pathological.

A contemporary approach to the question of individual differences is found in the series of papers of various combinations of Thomas, Chess and Birch. Thomas, Chess, Birch and Hertzing 1960; Thomas, Birch, Chess and Robbins, 1961, Birch Thomas, Chess and Hertzing 1962, Thomas, Chess, Birch Hertzing and Korn 1964, Thomas, Chess and Birch 1971,1972.

These authors were involved in a longitudinal study of 110 middle class children who had been followed systematically from the age of 2 or 3 months with interview and observations. They were able to identify 9 categories of reactivity which persist through the first two years of life as activity level, rhythmicity of functioning, adaptability, approach withdrawal, intensity of reaction, threshold of responsiveness, quality of mood, distractibility and attention span and persistence.

Certain combinations of the temperamental traits identified by Thomas et al (1977) produced 3 distinctive personality.

Forty per cent of the children studied could be described as ‘easy’ children. They are happy most of the time, adjust early to new situations and sleep, eat and eliminates on a fairly predictable schedule.
About 10 percent are difficult. They cry easily, are irregular in body functions and take a long time to adjust to a routine.

And 15 percent are slow to warm up, mild in responses, with a need to take their time adjusting to new experiences and people. Since not all children fit neatly into these categories these percentages don’t add up to 100 percent.

Birch et al (1962) also reports similar results while conducting their longitudinal study, that primary reaction characteristics like activity level, rhythmicity, approach-withdrawal, intensity of reaction, adaptability and quality of mood being stable for first two years of life.

Cattell (1966) has formulated a 16 personality factor questionnaire. For a high scorer the factors are outgoing, more intelligent, stable, assertive, happy-go-lucky, conscientious, bold, tender minded, suspicious, imaginative shrewd, apprehensive, experimenting, self-sufficient, controlled and tense as contracted to reserved, less intelligent, emotional, humble, sober, expedient, shy, toughminded, trusting, practical, forthright, placid, traditional, group-tied, causal and relaxed factors of a low scorer.

Schmidt (1966) studied 125 infants with ratings on 31 characteristics and evaluation on sensorimotor and bodily movements. Factor analysis revealed the following compositions.

1. Primary factors - lively activity, tension versus relaxation, excitability and social orientation and

2. Secondary factors - extroversion and emotional liability.

Gerson (1969) studied 57 middle class infants at 1, 3 and 6 months of age using ratings and scaled tests. Factor analysis resulted in extraction of 2 factors, alterness and adjustment.

Kagan (1971) identified five behaviour patterns that differentiate infants during the first 6 months. They are vigour of activity, irritability, stimulus satisfiability, threshold of attention change, and social responsivity.
Mussen et al. (1974) put forward three behaviour characteristics which are obviously noticeable in infants. Those are motor activity, irritability and passivity.

Garside, Birch and Scott et al. (1975) in an attempt to define dimensions of temperament of infant school children identified four components. They are

1. Withdrawal, poor adaptation and dependence.
2. High activity, intensity and distractibility
3. Moodiness, sulkiness and
4. Irregularity.

Buss and Plomin (1975) have given 4 dimensions of temperament activity, emotionality, sociability and impulsivity. The extremes of the dimension according to them are Active-lethargic, Emotional-Impassive, Gregarious detached, Impulsive - deliberate.

Behavioural profile or Temperamental characteristics as predictors of behaviour.

A child's personality is the result of both hereditary and environmental components.

Travers (1974) says that it is necessary once again to emphasize the interaction of both because of the temptation to focus only on a child’s experience in analysing the development of his personality. A child’s temperament is an important element in the way other people especially parents will act toward him or her.

It is easier to be warm and loving to a baby who is usually cheerful and whose want can be anticipated and met relatively easier then it is with a baby who cries constantly; resists being cuddled and often seems impossible to please (Travers 1974).

Parents who get along best with difficult or slow to warm up children are the one's who have learned how to adapt their child rearing patterns to their children's individual needs (Thomas et al, 1977) When parents realize an infant behaviour is determined partly by the child's temperament rather than wholly by what the parents do, they can work more effectively toward a positive outcome for the child.
According to Thomas and Chess (1977) by responding to their difficult child calmly and in good humour parents can lower the risk of later behaviour problems.

Papalia and Olds (1979) reveal that indentifying a child's basic temperament parents can learn the importance of a "good of fit" between the child's characteristics and the parents functioning.

A study by Segal and Yahres (1978) showed that when experimenters encourage children to ask their parents for help, the children act more dependently, and their parent become bossier and restrictive and when the children are encouraged to be independent parents are less likely to interfere.

Freedom (1979) has found systematic differences in the responses of newborns from different, ethnic groups and since differences were visible in newborns they cannot be the result of systematic shaping by parents.

According to Sostek and Wyatt (1981) newborns with lower levels of the enzyme monamine oxidase are more active, more excitable and crankier than those with higher MAO levels.

Hurlock (1981) states that the faster and the better infant adjust to postnatal environment, the more favourable the parents attitudes will be

Reid et al (1982) says that one of the major trends in recent research is exploration of the degree to which children affect their parents as well as the other way round. Some children are more likely to suffer abuse - premature and low birth weight babies and retarded children and youngsters who make other special demands on their parents.

According to Mussen et al (1984) the reciprocal influence of parental behaviour and infant temperament forms the basis for the very important principle of bidirectionality.

To principle states that parent - child relationship goes both ways. Parents influences children and children influence parent behaviour.

According to Bee (1985) a skilled parent avoid some of the pit falls and guide the temperamentally difficult child into a more and adaptive pathway. Bee further states that
temperament is an important ingredient in the system of factors influencing the child's pattern of growth.

Papalia and Olds (1987) bring to the notice that some children in fact seem to change their behavioural style over the years, apparently, reacting to the kind of parental handling they get.

Thus although genetically based temperamental predispositions in personality exist, the results of longitudinal studies indicate that the role of environmental factors in their expression cannot be ignored. The responsiveness of parents to the temperamental variations in their infants and to their stimulus preferences plays an important role in modifying the phenotypical expression of these traits. Depending on the responses of parents, the same temperamental genotype may be manifested in very different personality characteristics in children.

2.11. Personality
Definitions

Personality is not individuality. It embraces the total organised aggregate of psychological process and states pertaining to individual (Das 1993).

"She has a good personality"

"He has no personality"

"Well, she has a good personality"

"She has Personality"

"He has personality Plus"

"He has too much personality"

"She is a personality"

"He was a personality now he's on Hollywood square's"

"He's got personality, plus a brand new car"

"It's just her personality"

"She has mothers personality"
He and I have a personality conflict personality has no simple or single meaning (Peterson 1988).

Personality may be hard to define, but we know it, when we see it. A major part of coming to understand ourselves is developing a sense of what our personality characteristics are (Das 1993).

The term ‘personality’ is derived from the Greek word ‘Prosopon’ or latin word ‘persona’. (Kuppuswamy 1990)

In common conversation, then personality is what one has or lacks as a person, what one is or is not, what one can or cannot give out with.

The dictionary meaning of personality is all traits that characterize an individual over a relatively long period (Sutherland, 1989).

Psychologists interested in discovering how personality is formed, identified certain characteristics of temperament that are apparent at birth. Each child brings this individual temperament into interaction with the environment. The long term consequences of temperamental differences for the child’s later behaviour depend however, on the experiences that the child encounters. Thus these characteristics are evident so early in life, and they form the basis of the individual’s mature personality in later life or it seems that children have been given the raw material of their personalities at birth.

According to Eysenck (1953) personality is the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person’s character, temperament, intellect and physique that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.

Kuppuswamy (1974) defines personality as what one is. It includes the whole individual, his physique, temperament skills, interests, hopes, his feelings, habits, intelligence and achievement.

Thomas and Chess (1977) have defined personality in terms of temperament which reflects the constitutional characteristics of the child as it interacts with the environment.
Prince (1924) refers to personality as the sum total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, appetites and instincts of the individual and the acquired dispositions and tendencies.

According to Allport (1937) personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.

To Cattell (1950) personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation.

Guilford (1959) defines personality as a person's unique pattern of traits.

Anderson (1960) has defined personality broadly as the skills and abilities of an individual, his effect on other people and his conception of himself.

Coleman (1960) defines personality as the individual's unique pattern of traits - the pattern that distinguishes him as an individual and accounts for his unique and relatively consistent ways of interacting with his environment.

Allport (1962) has defined personality as a broad and comprehensive concept covering the organization of an individual's pre-disposition to behaviour and his unique adjustments to his environment.

To Mc Clelland as quoted by Bourne and Ekstrand (1973) personsality is the most adequate conceptualization of a person's behaviour in all its detail.

According to Kolb personality is each individual's characteristically recurring patterns of behaviour. (Bourne and Ekstrand (1973)

Stott (1974) refers to personality as the quality or the fact of being person. One's personality, to him is that total quality or that complex combination of qualities that makes one unique and gives one his individual identity.

Lindgren and Byrne (1975) define personality as the relatively enduring and consistent ways of behaving that characterizes each individual.
Mischel (1976) opined that, personality consists of the distinctive patterns of behaviour that characterize each individual's adaptation to the situation of his as her life.

According to Sherman (1979) personality is the characteristic pattern of behaviour, cognition and emotion which may be experienced by the individual and or manifest to other, it includes behaviour (action) cognition (thought) and emotion (feeling) as the basic content of the personality.

Kale (1980) defines personality as the most characteristic integration of an individual's modes of behaviour, interests, abilities, attitudes, habits and aptitudes.

Personality is the ability to get along in adult situation, it is the person's type of action, reaction, opinion and mood, a set of physical and social traits (Fehr 1983).

Bee and Mitchell (1984) define personality as that unique individualised pattern of thinking and reacting to the world around us that is characteristic of each of us.

Bee (1985) describes personality as a broader range of individual characteristics, mostly having to do with the typical ways each of us interact with the people and the world around us.

Hall and Lindzey (1985) refers to personality as that part of the individual that is most representative of the person, not only in that it differentiates the individual from others, more important because it is what he or she actually is.

Berger and Federico (1985) define personality as the integrating psychological structure that develops to help the individual function in the environment.

Chaube (1986) says that personality of a person is a mirror of his whole organized behaviour patterns which is not found in the same form in any other person.

Personality is dynamic, always changing personality is organised, its components are coherently related to each other (Brace 1988).

Feldman (1989) defines personality as the characteristics that differentiate people from one another and also the stability on people's behaviour that may lead them to act uniformly both in different situations and over extended periods of time.
Attribute of Personality

The main attributes of personality according to Murray (1938) may be summarized as follows:

1) An individual's personality is an abstraction formulated by the theorist and not merely a description of the individual's behaviour.

2) An individual's personality refers to a series of events that ideally span the person's lifetime. The history of the personality is the personality.

3) A definition of personality should reflect the enduring and recurring elements of behaviour as well as the novel and unique.

4) Personality is the organizing or governing agent of the individual. Its functions are to integrate the conflicts and constraints to which the individual is exposed, to satisfy the individual's needs and to make plans for the attainment of future goals.

5) Personality is located in the brain. "No brain, no personality".

Bhatia (1969) states the following attributes of personality.

The chief character of personality is self consciousness.

Personality is judged as a social character. It is only in relation to others that we are usually judged and our consciousness of ourselves arises only in our interactions with other members of the society.

A personality is continually making adjustments to environment and to inner life, like lack of adjustment means strain and tension and the individual is for ever acquiring new patterns of adjustment to meet the challenges of new situation.

Personality is always striving for goals. Our life and behaviour is purposive and we are for ever seeking new ends and goals to meet our needs. Our needs defines our goals, our interest and desires produce their basis and our behaviour is directed towards their attainment. Personality functions as a whole. Different experience and mental activities are joined together in unity.
The attributes of personality according to Chaube (1986) are the following.

1) All pervasiveness - It includes all physical, mental social and emotional traits.

2) An organised unit of pattern - In it various attributes and reactions are so inter-woven that a specific personality of the individual comes up and it can at once be recognised.

3) Permanence: The personality of a person takes a permanent form and on its basis the future modes of behaviour and reaction of the person may be presumed.

4) Possibility of change: ie, the capacity of change in the personality according to changes in physical or environmental conditions is always possible.

Traits of personality

One’s behaviour is controlled not by the type of person one is, but mainly by personality traits (Bourne 1980). Personality trait is one particular characteristic of a person. It can be broad characteristic such as the persons attitude about locus of control, a medium range characteristic such as social distress or normally focussed character such as stage fright (Watson 1970). Personality trait is a generalised and dependable way of thinking, feeling and otherwise reacting. Example of personality traits are extraversion and permissiveness (Sartin and North 1967). An important distinction among traits are surface traits and source traits. Surface traits are expressive of behaviour, source traits on the other hand, express an association among behaviour (Perwin 1972).

When talking about traits, Hogan and Sloans (1977) view that cluster traits are cardinal traits that dominate one’s life and central traits are major characteristics of a person. Secondly traits as tendencies that are of limited importance in behaviour.

Traits like Stinginess, Curiosity, assertiveness or laziness are virtually perfect examples of personality and traits of psychological properties are sociability, loyalty, humour, musical ability and respects for his parents (Peterson 1988). Need for achievement and manifest anxiety can also be considered as traits (Dullehas 1978). Intelligence, interest and aptitude are regarded as traits (Munn 1973)
Smith (1982) observes that personality traits exist in clusters and are not directly observable as they are not active all times. Some traits are clearly motivational such as interest, ambitions, complex and sentiments.

Latane and Darley (1970) view that since individuals differ in conscience development it is often assumed that honesty is a trait. Hogan (1977) points out that individual differences can be said to every along as utmost unlimited number of dimension that are called traits.

Mischel (1981) has grouped people into extroverts and introverts. Introverts tend to withdraw be alone, feel shy and avoid people and extroverts respond to stress by trying himself to be active, tend to be an occupation and deal with many people. He further categorised people as Choleic (irritable) maloncholic (depressed) sanguine (optimistic) and phlegmatic (Calm).

Sheldon (1949) classified people according to body built, endomorphy or viscertonia, soft and rounded appearance, Mesomorphy or somatonia, muscular and strong anatomy and cerebrotonia or ectomorphy, person with thin flat clustered and delicate structure.

Determinants of personality

Allport (1960) Cattell (1957) and Guilford (1958) has grouped the variables which constitute individuality under 4 headings.

1) Morphological and physical features.

2) Abilities that determine the level of effectiveness in personal functioning.

3) Incidentally learned patterns of social and personal behaviour including attitudes, beliefs and prejudices.

4) Generalized behaviour dispositions.

Mussen (1969) has given four broad types of influences which play a role in determining a child’s character and behaviour.

Biological properties like genetic endowment, temperament, physical appearance and rate of maturation.
Cultural group membership

Individuals personal history of experiences with others

Situation the stimuli immediately present in the environment and the moment.

Hurlock (1974) has given the following determinants of personality.

1) Physical determinants
2) Emotional determinants
3) Intellectual determinants
4) Social determinants
5) Aspirations and achievements
6) Sex determinants
7) Educational determinants and
8) Family determinants.

Kale (1978) has identified 9 determinants of pre-school personality

1) Family
2) Attachment to mother
3) Parent-Child relationship
4) General atmosphere of the family
5) Order of birth
6) Joint or nuclear family set up
7) Loneliness of the child
8) Sex
9) Peer relations
Srivastava (1985) has given 8 factors that determine personality.

1) Endocrine glands
2) Physique and health
3) Body chemistry
4) Maturation and Personality
5) Genetic and Somatic factors
6) Parental factors which include
   a) Importance of mother
   b) Importance of father
   c) Family relationship
   d) Size of the family
   e) Economic status of the family
7) School and peers and
8) Cultural factors.

Chaube (1986) has identified 17 factors effecting the development of personality.

1) Self concept
2) Physique
3) Health
4) Endocrine glands
5) Dresses
6) The Child's name
7) Culture
8) Interests
Factors influencing Personality

Personality development may be viewed as a continuous process involving the interaction of biological organism with its physical, psychological, social, and cultural environment. (Gallerman 1970).

Personality development is a series of experiences involving reinforcement on the basis of these experiences, individuals, will advice different levels of satisfaction and will learn to perform different types of behaviour which are grouped under the heading of personality. These reinforce experiences occurring mainly during pre-social years. Of these reinforcing factors, clothing is one of the major factor. So, the study on clothing is very essential.

a. Age.

According to Hurlock (1974) the early adolescents are in the period of instability, state of ambiguous critical stage and changing period where as attitude and pattern of behaviour found in the late adolescence are different such as increased stability, increased emotional calmness, changes in method of meeting problem. Rama (1986) says early adolescents are more shrewd, experimental and self-sufficient than late adolescents.
Sharma (1980) administered 16 PF to early and late adolescents and found that late adolescents were more intelligent, warm-hearted, and tender-minded whereas early adolescents were reserved, tough-minded, and less intelligent.

b. Sex.

Rama (1983) conducted a study to find out the personality of male and female adolescents. There were marked differences in total and personal adjustment score. Female adolescents were found to have well-adjusted personalities whereas male adolescents were found to have good adjustment with others.

c. Birth Order.

Looy (1980) found that first born have better high school and scored high grade average. Most first borns became National Merit scholars, medical students, and graduate students.

Number of children in the family, their sex, age difference, and age of parents, can modify the personality effects. (Belmond and Marolla 1973).

d. Intelligence

Sukumaran (1983) has said that cognitive factors are responsible for and development of a person and it is considered to be the primary factor in turning the wheel of personality.

Ram (1980) found out that high intelligent adolescents were enthusiastic, happy, go lucky, talkative, frank, expressive, quick, socially alert, unsightful, ambitious and expedient in comparison to low intelligent adolescents.

Chayya (1974) compared the attitude and emotional stability of effective students with respect to personality adjustments. Effective students had significantly better personality adjustments, emotionally stable. More authoritarian and extrovert than ineffective students.

e. Family size

Pants (1978) viewed more family members in the family leads to frustration, emotional stability, avoiding from others and one of the leading cause of unwhole some personality traits in variation in the abilities of the sibling.
Mc Cal and Johnson (1972) conducted that there was no significant relationship between birth order and family size and the correlation was practically zero.

Tessor (1980) conducted a study and revealed that children from small family performed better in their activities than those of large family

f. Cultural Demands.

Sharma (1980) states that cultural uniqueness in personality is to be a great extent obtained through the cultural pattern Cultural standards of approved behaviour which differ according to age and sex, and become internalised by the child as a yard stick for self approval are seen.

g. Dresses.

Dresses directly affect the personality developments of the child because he is always eager to know how people feel about his dress or what they are saying about him. The child always tries to wear dress like other children. He wants that his dress is similar or may be better but not worse. When other children praise his dresses, he feels delighted. The children whose dresses are worse than those of other children suffer from inferiority complex (Chaube 1986).

2.12. Self - concept

The self-concept is a composite but imperfect, representation of the self. The self-concept contains all kinds of description of the objective 'me' not only the portraits rendered by the individual but also his impressions of his portraits done by either himself or some one else. Yamamato (1972)

Definitions

Yamamoto (1972) quoted that man perceives and defines himself as he believes others perceive and define him, thus "the reflected or looking - glass self".

Michener (1986) states that, the self is the individual viewed as both the source and the object of reflective behaviour. The self is both active (the source that initiates reflective behaviour ) and passive (the object toward which reflective behaviour is directed ).
Fuster (1969) opines that, the self-concept begins to take shape in early childhood, it does not remain static, rather it keeps adapting itself to the changing experience in a changing environment.

Pre-school years from three to six years of age, personality theorist believed, this stage to be the most significant in the life cycle in determining later development. Biguer (1983)

According to Candless (1988) children's self-concept which is the sum total of personal awareness, evaluations and expectations, comes from how one has been dealt with by others, how one has dealt with others and how well one has coped with life.

Johnson (1974) opines that the self concept is the individuals attitude towards his physical self and his own behaviour.

Berger (1980) states that, the child's self-concept is her idea of what kind of person she is.

McKeachie (1967) the years between infancy and school age are marked by continued improvement in muscular control, language facility and thinking skills, by increase in self assurance and guilt, and by a growing identification with adults.

Rathur (1986) quoting Ragus, the self as an organized, consistent, conceptional gestalt composed of perception of the characteristics of the 'I' or 'me' and the perception of the relationships of the 'I' or 'me' to others and to various aspects of life, together with the values attached to these perceptions.

Hurlock (1976) opines that the self-concept is the core of the personality pattern and as such, determines the kind of adjustment the person will make, a change in the self-concept will bring about a change in the entire personality pattern.

Mussen etal; (1984) suggests that, self-concepts are usually measured by asking people to describe themselves or to tell how they are different from others.

Hurlock (1986) opines that, early peer attitudes like attitudes on the part of significant family members are important because, once the foundation for the self-concept are laid, they are far less likely to change than to remain stable.
According to Rebok (1987), self concept is "the sum total of the ideas and perceptions a person has about himself."

Bhatia (1977), has defined self-concept as the individual’s perception of his abilities and his status and roles in the outer world.

Helms and Turner says (1981) that, self-concept is the manner in which individuals perceives themselves.

Components of the self-concept.

According to Kuppuswamy (1990) various components of self are

1. Self- awareness:- Social awareness, the awareness of other persons and self-awareness, the awareness of one’s self both develop during infancy and childhood. During early childhood, that is from third to sixth year, there is a great improvement in memory which is helped by language development during the period. Memory as well as language help in promoting the sense of continuity and formation of the self-concept.

2. Self acceptance:- Right from early childhood, that is from the third year on, children probably have a greater capacity to take a realistic view of themselves and their inner life, their feeling of pleasure and frustration, than what parents and teachers generally believe, self acceptance promotes self-evaluation.

3. Self-esteem:- Is a personal judgement of one’s worth which is expressed in the attitudes, the individual holds toward himself.

4. Self-control:- Discipline in society arises from obedience and self-control

5. Self direction:- Implies that the child desires to do something worth while productive.

6. Self actualization:- Realizing one’s potential as a unique human being is considered a positive constructive and realistic process.

Hurlock (1985) components of the personality pattern are the self-concept. The real Self-concept is the concept people have of who and what they are. It is a mirror image, determined largely by their roles, their relationship with others and what they
believe the reaction of others to them are the ideal self concept is the picture people hold of what they would like to be.

Each kind of self-concept has a physical and a psychological aspect. The physical aspect is composed of concepts individuals have their appearance, their sex appropriateness the importance of their bodies in relation to their behaviour and the prestige of their bodies give them in the eyes of others. The psychological aspect is composed of concept individuals have of their abilities and disabilities, their worth, and their relationships with others.

Conditions shaping the self concept in Early childhood (Hurlock 1986)

1. Homes and family members are responsible for shaping the self concept during the early childhood years.

2. Parental attitudes - how parents feel about their childrens appearances, their abilities and their achievements have marked influence on how the children feel about themselves.

3. The child training method used in home is important in shaping the young child's developing concept of self.

4. The aspiration parents gave for their children play an important role in their developing self concept

5. The ordinal position of children in a family has an effect

6. Environmental insecurity whether due to death, divorce, separation or social mobility, affects young children's self-concept unfavourably.

Factors influencing self-concept

Hurlock (1985) has pointed out the following factors influencing self-concept.

Physique

Carter and Chess (1951) found out that the image a person has of himself is largely a reflection of how others react to him or at least, of how he thinks they react.
MC Candles (1970) has also supported the view that the reactions from others that one receives concerning physical appearance in general, influence self-concept.

**Socio-economic status**

Kuppuswami (1974) has observed that there was a significant relation between socio-economic status and self-concept. It looks as if economic security has a positive effect and leads to a better self-concept.

**Race and Nationality**

Study done by white and Richmond (1970) found no consistent differences in self-concept of economically deprived black and economically advantaged white children, indicating that socio-economic status may be a more important factor than race.

**Parental factors**

Ansubel et al (1954) reported that, children's self-concept develop according to the pattern of parents reward and punishment but that when this pattern stresses objective success rather than need of the developing child, unfortunate characteristics may develop.

**Age and maturity**

According to Jerslid, Telford and Sawney (1975), a child's self-concept has been reported to change with age.

O Conner (1976) on the basis of a four year longitudinal study, mentions that self-concept become more organised and mature with age.

**Intelligence**

The mental ability to meet the demands of the environment enhances the self-concept. (Strag 1957).

**Gender**

Bledsoe (1964) found that girl's had a higher self-concept than boys of the same age group.
Names and Nick names

Hurlock (1972) in a study found out that if the name of a child elicit pleasant associations in the minds of others, they will treat him well, and this will have a good effect on his self-concept. On the other hand if elicits unfavourable first impression, the treatment child receives from others will be less pleasant and as a result, he will develop an unfavourable self-concept.

Level of aspirations

Failures damages the self-concept. A study done by Hurlock (1972) show that success leads to favourable self-concept.

Inter-personal and social adjustments

Those with poor self-concepts are often rejected by other people. Acceptance of others, acceptance by others and acceptance by best friends are related to self-concept scores with highest acceptance in a group with moderate self-concept scores and lowest in a group with low self-concept scores (Rice 1984) Acceptance of self is positively and significantly correlated acceptance of and by others. Thus there is a close relationship between self-acceptance and social adjustment (Badiman and Johnson 1979).

Children having low self esteem are likely to have high anxiety, do poorly in school, be unpopular and take a passive role in group discussion (Bussen et al 1974).

Mental Health.

Self-esteem have been called the survival of soul. It is the ingredient that gives dignity to human existence. It grows out of human interaction which the self is considered important source to one. The ego grows through small accomplishments, praise and success (Rice, 1984)

A definite correlation has been established between mental health and identify achievement (Coshman and Manosevit 1974).

Parental interest, concern and discipline

The more parental care and interest there is, the more likely the adolescent is to have high self-esteem (Hamachek, 1976)
Mood

A mood is a temporary emotional reaction. Mood and temperament may reflect similar emotions but temperament, colours persons characteristic method of adjusting to life while mood colour only the present pattern of adjustment.

Fontana (1988) define mood as state of feeling of varying duration. There may be an innate factor in the temperament (that body chemistry may play a part) but mood seems to be under environment influence. At each point the child’s mood is in part a response to the behaviour of people around him, can only be understood if it is viewed within the context of this behaviour.

Meyer (1988) say that negative mood can often be all eviated by positive behaviour, a positive mood is sustained by positive behaviour. A positive mood is conducive to positive thoughts which helps pre dispose one to positive behaviour.

2.13. Role of clothing in the personality development of pre-school children

Craig and Rush (1954) states that, Youngster from three to five years of age are gradually learning to dress themselves. A child will be pride in having drawers and shelves for his own clothes.

Tate (1961) states that, clothing is important as a means towards acceptance by the group. There is a relationship between clothing and social status.

Clothes are important in determining the impression a person makes on others and in giving him a feeling of security Thomas (1993)

According to Lewis (1960) it is better to have as small, well,chosen wardrobe of good quality rather than a largely motley assortment of cheap items that never do look presentable.

Clothing is an important factor in making an attractive appearance Pollard (1961).

Being well dressed is more than dressing express your personality. You will feel self-confident when you know that you are attractive to other people, say Rathbone and Tarpley (1962).
It has been said that clothes make the man. Simple and beautiful clothes can enhance the changes of any child. The child is considered not as an isolated individual but as a part of the family, say Pandit (1967).

Pandit (1967) says, child's happiness and social adjustment are determined in part by his environment of which clothing is an important feature.

Wingate (1976) opines that approval of one's dress by his associates helps to develop feeling of belongingness.

As with everything else, children vary enormously in the age at which they accomplish different tasks, at this age they will try to wear dress of their own say Good man (1978)

According to Hurlock (1978), rebellion against wearing hand-me-down clothes from an older sibling and interest in ornamentation and newness as attention getters show how important children regard clothes as symbols of their individuality.

According Hurlock (1981) for an young child, appropriate clothes are clothes that fit his needs and interests, instead of taking child's needs and interest, parents judge the appropriateness of the child's dress by the standards they use in judging the appropriates of their own clothes. He pointed out six characteristic in selection of appropriate clothing for young children. They are,

1. It must give freedom for action, because the young child's life is filled with activity, he should not be hampered by clothing that is too large or too small for him. This is important in the case of trousers, pants, sleeves and shoes.

2. It must be sturdy:- The child's active life and his lack of knowledge about care make sturdy clothes of serviceable materials absolutely imperative. As they will need constant washing, the material should be pre-shrunken and require little or no ironing.

3. It must allow for self-dressing:- Appropriate clothes for young children should have a minimum of fasteners, located in areas of the garment that the child can easily reach.
4. It should be suited to the weather:— Children’s clothes should be selected to meet changes in temperature in our climate, absorbency is also very important.

5. It must be of suitable weight:— Because young children are active they should not be weighed down with heavy clothing.

6. It should promote good posture:— Garments for children should be large enough to permit the child to sit and stand correctly. Clothing that is too tight or too short for the child encourages him to slump forward.

Agarwal (1986) states that, dresses directly effect the personality development of the child because he is always eager to know how people feel about his dress or what they are saying about him.

According to Thomas (1994) the relationship between child’s behaviour and his clothing is evident in any group while playing and his social development.

Thomas (1992) opines that the most important thing a child learns is how to get on with other children, for which clothes have an important role to play.

While selecting garments for children consider the type of garment and styles occasion, colour design and fabrics.

Clothing has been as much a part of our daily lives. Flugel states clothes, in fact, though seemingly extraneous appendages, have entered into the very core of our existence as social beings. No study has been conducted in this field, i.e. effect of dresses on the temperament of the children. For a pre-school child, he has no personality, his personality is only shaping. So, it is said a temperament.

Vanitha (1994) reports that, a well dressed person gets a better position in the peer group which enhances his/her self esteem.

2.14. Selection of Materials for children’s dresses

The fabric of which a garment is made can effect its appearance, comfort, cost, servicability durability and care. The appearance and performance of a fabric depends upon the fibres of which it is made, the type of yarn used in its construction, the type
closeness of the weave and the way the fabric is finished (Pandit and Tarpley (1972).

Clothes must give the body the right kind of protection. They must be attractive, suitable for the person and for the occasion, and the right style for the season say (Laitens and Miller 1960).

Since from the past few years great important has been attached to the comfort, convenience and durability of children’s clothing. (Pandit1967).

Clothing which is both attractive and functional is being produced at all price levels. While buying clothes we should primarily consider the need of the kind of work we do and spend more on the type of clothes most suited to the work,. (Mandana 1977).

Pandit (1967) suggests to buy a good quality of a cheaper material such as cotton than to buy a poor quality of an expensive material eg. silk, While selecting fabrics for children’s clothing wearability and washability are to be given great consideration.

According to Thomas (1994), cotton fabrics wrinkled easily but absorbancy is good, polyester is crease resistant but absorbancy is very poor. So it is wise to select cotton/polyester blended materials for which these two qualities (absorbency and wrinkle recovery) be there.

Hess (1957) states that, the three qualities demanded of clothing fabrics are attractiveness, suitability and serviceability.

A final decision on buying fabric should be made only after a thorough examination of the cloth. The customer should look for loose threads, miss-weaves, over accumulated slubs, uneven selvages, and poor dyeing. For example, friction in wear will makes slubs weaker and often unsightly. Wingate (1986)

Young children wants apparel that is comfortable-soft and light weight and will confirm to body lines yet not constrain bodily movement. The garment should neither irritate the skin nor cling to the body. (Thomas 1994).

According to Hollen (1979), blending of the fibres enables the technician to combine fibres so that the good qualities are emphasised and the poor qualities minimised.
For tropical countries like India, it is best to buy 67/33 cotton/polyester blended material. Thomas (1993)

According to Wingate (1986) to determine wearing quality, one must recognize the inherent characteristics of a fabric, such as the kind of raw material (fibres) used, the strength and evenness of the yarns, the construction of weave, and the permanancy of the dye or the finish. When we buy materials we must see the suitability, versatility, convenience, durability, comfort, care, safety, appearance, price, becomingness etc.

Pandit (1967) pointed out the following points to remember while making children's clothes.

1. Use one general style with the opening always in the same place till the children get fairly established into the habit of dressing by themselves. They get confused if each day a new style of dress is given to them to wear, e.g. one day buttons in the front, next day buttons at the back and so on.

2. Same type of fasteners should be used until the child becomes familiar with it. Most children can manage buttons from the size of a 1cm diameter to a 2cm diameter more easily than any other fasteners. The button hole should be large enough to be easily found. A round flat button that is grooved is less slippery, and, therefore, easier for the children to grasp.

3. Garments must be simple and easily manageable.

4. It is better to make garments of one piece which are much easier to get into than two-piece ones.

5. The fasteners may be as few as possible.

6. Sashes look dainty on children but they are at the back of the dress and cannot be tied by the small hands. Separate belts are difficult for a child learning to dress by himself or by herself. Hence a belt may be fastened at the sides to keep it in the place.

7. Frills, laces and ribbons are confusing to a child when dressing as well as come in the way while at play. Keep simple decoration on clothing.
8. The garment may be designed with no buttons if possible. When elastic is used in any garment, see that it is not so tight as to cause red marks on the skin.

9. Garments may be designed in such a way that the back is easily distinguishable from the front.

Children can behave queerly or become self-conscious when the clothes they wear are noticeably different from those of their playmates. They stay apart from a group in such situations. Group play develops a sense of sociability that should not be hampered by an unfortunate choice of clothing.

Hurlock (1981) state that, with the new fabrics that dry quickly and require little or no ironing; a child can have clothes of any colour or style that appeal to him. Such clothes will do much to build up his confidence in himself.

Pre-school years are very important because, during this time the basics of personality, is moulding. That is, the temperament or the behaviour profile is moulding, which helps in the personality development. A careful observer can quickly realise the effect of clothing upon the moods and behaviour of children so, selecting materials for this age, present study is very important. Children are easily embarrassed and an inferiority complex can develop by something as seemingly insignificant as a garment which looks a little odd when compared to those of his playmates. Hence, it is important to study the effect of clothing on the developing personality of the pre-school children.

2.15. Evaluation of the Literature and the position of the present study.

The available literature on dresses cited above have shown that dress is an influencing factor in the overall development of children. Studies have indicated that well dressed means dresses with highly decorated silhouette (Rathbone et al 1962; Erwin and Kinchen 1969; Sherley 1972; Wingate 1976; Thomas 1993, 1994) Ordinarily dressed means dresses that meet the minimum requirements (Tarpiey and Rathbone 1962, 1972; Pandit and Tarpiey 1975; Pandit 1975; Wingate 1976) Carelessly selected dresses are unattractive and looks out of place the wearer feels inferiority. (Pollard 1961; Tate 1961; Chaube 1986; Thomas 1994) According to Pandit (1967) yound children are well aware of the sex appropriateness of dress. To the present investigator's knowledge it appears
that a study on dresses for pre-school children are very important because no study has
done on effect of dresses on pre-school children so far. All studies conducted earlier
were for adult. Since the basic traits of temperaments and self-concept are showing in
pre-school years, the investigator felt that study of this age group is very important.
Some other aspects that affects temperaments and self concept has studied. Patil
(1990); Locke (1967); Rousseary (1967), and Pandit (1967) Thomas (1994) stress on this
Brikley (1984); Hurlock (1976) Thomas (1994); Hunt (1959) pointed out the importance
of clothing most of the studies covered the importance of clothing have been dealt with
grown up children. Hunt (1959) studied factors related to children's clothing. Till now
no study is conducted, importance of dress on this age group.

Erwin and Kinchen (1969); Family economic review (1971); Nickell and Dorsey
Sreedhar (1991) Latzhe (1963) Lewis (1960); Thomas (1994) studied the importance of
clothing budget for housewives. Tate and Glisson (1972); Hess (1978); Reins (1964);
Garden (1961); Ryan and Phillip (1947); Polson (1977); Sybere and Roach (1962); MC
Jimsey (1973); Hurlock (1976); Thomas (1994) pointed out the importance points to
remember while purchasing dresses. According to them though clothing is to express
one's socio-economic status, for pre-school children's clothing pay importance to quality
and launderability. Thomas (1994) pointed out the importance in taking opinion of the
child before purchasing his dresses. By giving a chance in the selection of dresses his
confidence in himself is developing and he will feel great and he will feel how important
he is to the adult. So also all were interested in buying polyester fabrics due to the
durability.

Clothing consumption of three income level families Nickel Dorsey (1990); Thomas
(1980); Chandra (1981); Textile committee (1968) The Bureau of labour statistics (1975);
Vijayalakshmi etal (1970); studied that as the income increases money spend on wife's
clothing will increase. These studies reveal that upper and middle class families give
more emphasis for variety wardrobe. Thomas (1994) reveals irrespective of income now
parents are giving importance to pre-schooler's clothing because due to small family norm: parents are interested in decorating their children out of which whatever they are getting. These studies were conducted on housewives and adolescents. No attempt was made to study on children's clothing and appearance. Since absorbency is important in children's clothing, blended and cotton fabrics are more comfortable.

Pollard (1961); Moorjani (1993); Thomas (1993); Goldslein and Gold Stien (1963); Anand 1994; showed the importance of colour on personality or moods of people. No attempt was made to study the preference of colour of pre-school children and their temperament and self-concept. No study is conducted on value preference of colour. Thomas (1994) and Anand 1994; noticed the preference of value by pre-school children.

Mayer (1937); Soundaraj (1974); Faulkner and Faulkner (1964) Craing and Rush (1954); Pollard (1954) Goldstien and Golstien (1963) were classified the design into Natural, Decorative, and Geomatrical. Pandit (1967) pointed out the importance of size of design on children's dresses.

An attempt was made to study the preference of colour, value and design and pre-school children.

About factors influencing clothing selection, Hollen et al 1979; Nickel and Darsey 1960; Hess 1968; Mildred 1961; Mauck 1963; Sreedhar 1991; Tate 1961; Latzke et al 1968; Jha 1985, Tate 1961; Lewis 1960, Norman et al 1970; Gibbens 1991; Alexander 1977, Pandit 1967, Vanitha 1991; Thomas 1992, Chambers 1961, Pollard 1961; Thomas 1993, has pointed many factors. Most of the above cited studies were mainly concentrates on adult garments. Among these factors increased income, changing status of women, family location, physiological needs, social value. Family cycle cast, creed and religion values given are important ones. Many of these factors are directly affecting the adult clothing selection. The investigator felt the need for studying about the children's clothing. All of us are neglecting the feeling of the children specially regarding clothing. They are young and they can't think reasonably like adults.

Behaviour patterns in the childhood pave the way to behaviour pattern in adulthood. Many important characteristics have their genesis during this period. Watson 1965;


Studies has been conducted on self-concept by Yamamoto 1972; Michner 1986; Fister 1969; Candless 1988; Johnson 1974; Berger 1980, McKealine 1967; Rather 1986, Hurlock 1976, Mussen et al 1984 and Hurlock 1986. Components of the self-concept were


Most of the studies has been conducted for grown up children and adults. Many studies has been conducted by psychologist in the field of eating and sleeping as a part of our daily lives. Though clothing has been as much a part of our daily lives, psychologist have paid scant attention on to their clothing habits, so the present study is very important.

Earlier studies were conducted on importance of clothing budget. This is the first study conducted for pre-school children. Never plan to buy very expensive dresses for children, because children became more conscious of their dresses while playing will hinder their movements.

2.16 The Present Study - A Resume

The present investigation attempts to study the effect of dressing on the development of the personality pattern of pre-school children. The feeling that occur in early childhood become the care of the formation of personality and self-concept in later years. Since the children are conscious of their dress, as an asset, if he wears clothing that he likes, he will feels proud of himself. Since colours can affect the mood of a person,
the investigator interested to study the effect of preference of colours on temperament and self-concept of the children.

To study the effect of income and gender on the pattern of 'positive' and 'negative' (Reaction pattern) and intense and mild reactions (Intensity of reaction) of pre-school children.

The study also aims to determine relationships exist among factors generally assumed to influence children's clothing preferences.

The pre-school years are important because it is a pre-gang age. This period characterised by many emerging abilities, traits and competencies leading to an increasing self-awareness and integration of the individual into the family. Social development in early childhood years on an evolving self-awareness of the individual, developing a sense of initiative and participation in early socialization experiences.

To find out the effect of welldress and illdress in the expressive behaviour of pre-school children.