Review of literature is a wide, comprehensive, systematic identification and summary of material that contains information on the related problem. It is an important constituent of a research project that enhances the depth of knowledge into the problem. The review of literature throws light on the problem and the findings related to it (Basavanthappa, 1998). A review of previous studies is the backbone of a research programme. Thus, the present chapter is devoted to the review of literature relevant to the present study. Here an attempt has been made to present pertinent literature, which is likely to have direct and indirect bearing on this study. Keeping in view the objectives of the study, the review has been presented under following headings:

2.1 Status of Working Mothers
2.2 Impact of Mother’s Work on Child Development
2.3 Personality of Pre-School Children
2.4 Maternal Work and Academic Achievement of Children
2.5 Problems faced and Coping Strategies used by Working Mothers

2.1 Status of Working Mothers
Since the past times of human development, women have played a vital role in the history making. The higher status for women employment and work performed by them in a society is an important indicator of a nation’s progress. Without the active participation of women in national interests, the social, economic or political progress of a nation will deteriorate. But unfortunately, female employees are not taken seriously by their seniors, colleagues and society at large. Being career oriented, woman faces challenges due to family responsibilities. While a majority of the women still face discrimination and gender bias, in the last few decades the number of women successful in politics, technology and business etc. is definitely on the rise.
Society has started seeing women in a different perspective. They work as lawyers, nurses, doctors, social workers, teachers, secretaries, managers, officers etc. There is no field today where women are not working. However, working women have to face various problems by virtue of their sex. For centuries together women have been subjected to exploitation and torture, physically, sexually and mentally. There are uncountable challenges and problems faced by them both at home and at workplace. India’s society treats women as homemakers and sexual objects and are subjected to exploitation and torture (Dube et al., 2001). Women in the work places who earn money are a part of the modern system that developed at the same time as the growth of paid employment for men; yet women have been treated unequally in the work field.

Kaur and Punia (2005) observed that in district Hissar of Haryana, majority of the women folk opted for job due to the gross economic necessity (50 percent), followed by the need to increase economic status (23 percent), make use of their education (11 percent) to have income independently (9 percent) and the remaining due to miscellaneous reasons. On a similar note, Myrdal and Klein (2006) conducted an international survey on behalf of the international labour office about the motivational forces. According to it, women work due to monetary needs on one hand and due to national necessity for raised production on the other hand. They further continue to state that a sense of vocation influences the willingness of women to continue their work after marriage and some are inspired by the feeling of social responsibility and so they continue to be in labour force. The need for more income for family along with the need for labour from industry is the greatest incentive for female employees (Laliltha, 2006). The availability of gadgets make household work easy and less time consuming and enable women to sustain work successfully.

Sharan and Sagar (2006) observed that the working conditions of the women employees were unsatisfactory and they seldom participated in trade union activities. However, bulk of the women adopted middle life style and values. The working women show more modernized outlook as compared to non-working women except towards family structure. In this case the non-working women had shown their preference for nuclear living. Various independent variables like age, caste, income, family structure, level of education had also influenced the modernizing values to a certain extent. A comparative study of values among literate and illiterate working
and non-working women was carried out by Shukla (1996) which revealed that there was no difference in religious, social, political, health and aesthetic values but a significant difference was marked in intellectual, hedonic and economic values of working and non-working women as well as in literate and illiterate women. Findings also suggest that employed parents can have high self-esteem because they feel that they are contributing to the household in a significant way.

Patani (1998) observed that decisions, in case of educated housewives are taken by the consent of husband and wife both, while in case of uneducated housewives the husband played an important role. Educated families give importance to their children in group decision and educated wives have more decision taking power than uneducated ones. Dua (1993) studied the adjustment, role expectations and modernization of working and non-working women. The study revealed that there is a variation between working and non-working women on different areas of adjustment, but they were found almost similar in respect of overall adjustment.

Joank (2011) reported that it does not require mothers to focus so deeply on their children as they give up crucial parts of their own identities in doing so. Indeed, not even children are benefitted by such sacrifice. If women stop participating economically, socially and politically, they risk their sense of self contentment and therefore, their effectiveness as mothers. Although both members of dual-career families are exposed to role conflict, overload and spillover, investigations have revealed, in many contexts, that employed women are more susceptible to role overload than their male counterparts (Eliot, 1994). The demands that women face on a daily basis can leave them exhausted and can be detrimental to their health. The extent of role overload will depend on the level of demands imposed upon a person and other factors in the person’s environment (Repetti, 1989).

Multiple roles cause mothers to juggle roles at certain times. Mothers who had to juggle roles frequently in a day had greater negative feelings and less task enjoyment as well as increased stress due to task interruption. Demands and minor stresses that women are exposed to include: demands from family, aging parents and impositions on relaxation. In addition, women with partners who do not help them in contributing significantly to household management are also exposed to higher levels of stress. Along with stress, it was cited that working women had concerns at home due to which their work performance suffered. Employed mothers work a great deal and
hours of work each week which adds to overload and stress (Dilworth, 2004). A heavy workload is often associated with high levels of stress among working mothers. Often mothers feel that their hours are too rigid and demands from work cause them to experience stress. Inflexible schedules also create overload for parents as they attempt to balance work and family in limited frame of time. Studies also revealed that employed mothers with young children are exposed to high levels of role strain and overload from the demands of parenting and work (Scharlach, 2001).

While comparing employed and stay-at-home mothers with young children, employed mothers often felt more conflict and sadness about working than mothers who did not have to work. The working mothers with inflexible schedules often felt that they had difficulty with childcare when they were required to work overtime. A study investigating the conflict between maternal and professional roles determined that there were more rewards but stress as well from managing these roles. The commitment for career was positively associated with role strain. That is as the level of career commitment goes higher, role strain increases. The career mothers, who supposedly had more career commitment, had increased levels of conflict as compared to non-working mothers. On the other hand, career engagement has been shown to have mitigating effects on role overload as women derive satisfaction from all of the roles they occupy. Work commitment minimizes role strain and conflict in working mothers. In addition, women with increased dual-commitments, that are commitment to both the professional and maternal role, also experience minimal role strain. Maternal employment increases layers of complexity to the general portrait of mothers' well-being and parental satisfaction. Overall, employment is conducive to mothers' mental health and parenting satisfaction but employment is not found to be an unmitigated blessing for mothers. Many mothers experience role overload and difficulties in managing the two activities all together, which remain structured and defined as distinctive spheres (Moen, 1992).

Mothers experience a time bind and have to pay a personal price trying to balance work and family needs. The currency extorted is in the forms of insomnia and the feeling of being overloaded and stressed. Mothers who are employed perform the same range of child care activities as do full-time mothers, with the exception that they watch less television with their children especially, less educational television. Additionally, majority of mothers compensate for their absence from their children
during work hours by increasing the amount of time they spend in interaction with their children during non working hours. Further, the employed mothers with increased levels of education spend more time with their children than women with lower levels. Social attitudes remain critical of women's regular absence from their children, although majority of mothers are employed. The roots of the debates about working mothers are deep and long in the history of every culture. Thus, mothers who do not follow the ideology of intensive mothering by being engaged in paid work must be contended with both the judgments of others and their own feelings of guilt about leaving their children alone (Garey, 1999). The evidence showed that among full-time mothers, depression was much more common than in employed mothers. In a recent research it was reported that children with working mothers had higher reading scores than children with non working mothers and children in good quality child care centre had better language and cognitive development than children at home. It was further argued that children in a good day care had greater confidence and social skills than children of non working mothers. The benefit of employment for mother includes increased level of general well-being and lesser levels of depression and anxiety. However, employed mothers who are able to locate and afford high-quality child care, experience low distress; who are supported by their partners, and who can provide themselves flexible workplace options and, thus, have a control over their work lives (Duxbury et al., 1994). Also, in addition to increased levels of job autonomy, having supervisor support and a general support at workplace culture outcome in decreased levels of work and family conflict (Jacobs and Gerson, 1997). The physical and psychological benefits accompanied with employment are meant for women in situations having lesser support (Benin & Keith, 1995). More precisely, low paid employed mothers, with little control over their work conditions, experience more stress, greater work-family conflicts and decreased satisfaction with their family lives than other employed mothers (Hughes and Galinsky, 1989).

2.2 Impact of Mothers Work on Child Development

Researchers have always discussed about everything from emotional to academic impacts of working mothers on children. Many researchers also have started conducting studies on impact of working mothers stress on their children. A study carried out by National Longitudinal Survey of Youth reported that more the mothers
working hours, lower is the child’s language development and academic achievement. Though the language difference in these children diminish as the children get older but it never completely disappear (Associated Press, 1999). Some studies suggested that while the mother’s absence can impact children negatively but this impact is not as much as what occurs if the mothers do not work. Such factors include poverty, education of parents and quality of childcare (Booth, 2000).

Sometimes without the income of mother, the family may have to suffer economically. In a household, many women are more able to make choices for the nutrition and education of their families. The improvement in the standards of living due to working mothers offset any negatives. Mothers work and education is a positive factor of a child’s success. It has been shown that children of non-working parents fail to get proper education. However children of dual working parents usually have higher grades in high school, but at the same time are less pressurized about doing so (Essortment, 2002). Also these children had higher intelligence test scores.

Children who went to childcare centers showed positive results. When the children are placed in a quality childcare centre a positive effect on their social and cognitive development is noticed. A study revealed that trained childcare workers are able to stimulate the children with a wide range of educational toys and games compared to that of non-working mother (Figes, 2001). Working mothers have more social and professional contacts in contrast to the nonworking mother who is at times isolated in their immediate surroundings. Less interaction and monotony of daily interactions can be disheartening for a nonworking mother. Such women undergo breaking down of their supportive family and social contacts. This absence of support can cause depression and the feeling of being alone. While children of non-working mothers can perform better academically and emotionally because of mothers all time supervision but the quality time is not always as enough as that of a working mother. The time spent at home by a non-working mother usually includes completing household chores which further effects the development of children.

According to a survey by pediatricians, it was found that during child’s infancy to early pre-school age, mothers should not go out for work (American Academy of Pediatrics, 1985). The association of children with their mothers at this young age allows a close attachment which further makes the communication between them easier in middle and high school years. Children are guided in a positive manner
when they receive proper attention from their mothers. In today’s world, the number of working mothers having young children has increased than before. However, the timing of working mothers to resume back to paid work after child birth has always been an issue for discussion. Children may be deprived of proper care, time and attention because of early maternal employment and it can impede the development of secure bonding as well as the possibility of extended breastfeeding, all of which are linked with a number of cognitive, emotional and health benefits. Mothers employment, on the other hand brings more family income which has positive effects on child development, especially among children of poorer families. Therefore, mother’s timing of return to work after childbirth is not straightforward because it requires balancing different and potentially opposing effects (Gregg and Voldfogel, 2005). The effect of child’s early participation in care center depends on the type and quality of care offered there and on the situation of family. Social interactions with other children as well as learning how to socialize and co-operate with others can also be facilitated by early child care, but it involves the risk of being the victim of stressful interactions with peers when children are too young to deal with it. Also, children who attend formal childcare are more likely to catch infectious diseases. Studies on the relationship between mother’s employment and cognitive and behavioural development of children have found mixed results. Factors that affect the variation in results include the time of return to work, characteristics of child and family and the arrangement of childcare. A positive association was found between maternal employment after the first year and children’s behavioural outcomes. It was further revealed that a positive and stronger association with early maternal employment was found for boys than for girls (Leigh and Yamauchi, 2009).

The empirical results of the studies on the impact of mothers’ work on child cognitive outcomes are quite mixed. Mother’s work effects child development in a negative way. On the contrary, a positive and significant impact was seen while others do not find any significant effect. In part, this reflects two potential effects: on the one hand, less time was spend between working mothers and their children, which has a potentially negative effect on the children’s well-being (both in socio-emotional and in cognitive terms); on the other hand, the income earned through their work can bring greater opportunities for spending on goods and services for the child. The different results may also depend on the different variables considered.
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Some studies consider only mother’s employment, while others consider mothers actual time with the children. Mancini and Pasqua (2012) have shown that working mothers are likely to reduce the time they spend on domestic activities and their own leisure before reducing the time they spend with their children. Other differences may depend on the inclusion of different mother’s characteristics. Positive effects of the time spend by the mother and the child was found on children’s language development, but this was only true for mothers who had outstanding verbal skills. More recently other researchers have focused also on the role of formal childcare as a substitute for the working mother’s time. Only in the last few years there are growing number of researches examining the impact of the use of formal childcare during the first years of life on later schooling outcomes. Brooks-Gunn et al., (2002) found that children with working mothers, who worked till their children turned nine months old, scored low on cognitive development scores than children with stay at home mothers, but good quality childcare centers helped in counterbalancing such effects. The cognitive outcomes of children had strong and positive impact due to childcare, though in less educated parents such impact was much stronger (Havnes and Mogstad, 2011). Childcare coverage had a significant and positive effect on educational factors such as years of education and attendance in college. The reason was that individual capabilities are highly malleable in early years of life and because early investment has a cumulative impact over time. Most of the studies also show that children from disadvantaged families and with less educated parents benefit more, in terms of cognitive outcomes, from attending early childcare (Felfe and Lalive, 2012).

Main factors which influence the effect of maternal employment are as follows:

- **Timing of Non-Maternal Care**

Research differentiates by timing of mother’s employment – an important point when the child is one year old. Distinct patterns on child’s development due to cognitive but to some extent also non-cognitive consequences can be observed by the age of child when mother starts employment. Research findings have shown that if the child is below one year, negative impacts are found to be more pronounced. For example Nomaguchi (2006) shows that mother’s work has a wide range of positive impacts on their children when they are 4 years old, which includes lower levels of aggression and anxiety and also increased pro-social behaviour. It seems to have no doubt that
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the first year of life is increasingly critical and it is quite clear that age of child must be taken into account at the time when mother starts working. By assessing the impact on behavioural adjustment of children between the age of 4 and 6 years due to the timing of maternal work, any significant difference between the negative effects of resuming employment before the age of 1 and between 1 and 25 years could not be detected. Significant effect on behaviour and frustration levels between the age of 8-9 year old children with the maternal employment was found by Youngblade (2003). Less cognitive activities, as well as increased levels of harsher and withdrawn interactions in children were associated with the number of hour’s mother with low-income worked at night time. The parenting responsiveness and sensitivity towards children may also get affected by the stress and fatigue caused by working nonstandard hours.

• Nature and quality of non-parental day-care

Quality of daycare has been a crucial factor that substitutes mother’s care with child outcomes. Non-parental child care can be classified into formal and informal types – formal ones are institution like (although in varying degree) away from home of the child, while informal institutions are typically placed by a relative or possibly by a friend or a baby-sitter in the home of the child. Typically, specially trained adults provide formal child-care, so it is believed to promote better cognitive development. While as, informal childcare, especially if it is provided by a relative can provide better child - care-giver relationship and hence more secure attachment. Naturally, quality of child-care in the various institutional forms may also vary (Belsky, 1990). Child care institutions provide better intellectual stimulation which proves beneficial for children’s cognitive development.

• Mother’s Employment Experiences

Mother’s experience at work is an important factor which relates maternal employment to childhood. Working women vary not only objectively, such as time of work, conditions at work, job autonomy levels etc, but also in how subjectively they perceive their situation. It has been argued that such circumstances are related to the children through their well-being, mood or cognitive state or through the attitude of mother as per her employment experience. In many studies the time mothers spend away from their young children has been identified as a major factor influencing children’s wellbeing. The basic assumption has been that when the mother works for
longer hours the child spends more time in non-parental care and thus the mother-child interaction is less which further increases the risks for the child.

- **Occupational Stress**

The effect of stress on an individual’s psychological and physiological functioning will ultimately influence the behaviour at home and so will have an impact on the family and all its members (Jenkins et. al. 2000). Other sources of stress in working women have been identified other than inter role conflict. These include high demand and low decision latitude, depersonalization, noxious conditions of job, poor earnings with fewer opportunities for refinement, time pressure, poor relations with job co-workers, dissatisfaction with job and increased work-family conflict.

- **Work Complexity**

The mother’s nature of work might influence her child’s health and behaviour through the cognitive stimulus of her job. It is argued that a child’s individual and intellectual abilities, problem solving capacities and a flexible environment might get enhanced by substantive complexity and opportunities for self-direction in mother’s job. In a study, Menaghan and Parcel (1994) studied the relationship between changes in the employment conditions and home environment. Although no association was found between changes in mothers work complexity and home environment, it was clear that in a low complexity job negative effects were imposed on the home environment.

- **Social Standing of the Family**

Mother’s employment is effected by the low income of the family due to which mothers have to return back to work soon after child birth. The pressure on mothers increase when there is no provision of paid parental leave. The literature suggests that mothers in low income families experience greater financial strain which causes stress and negative functioning in them. Moreover, working mothers experience more stress as opposed to non-working ones. The counter-argument reveals that children from affluent families loose more when care of a mother is substituted with non-parental one. The reason being that their better educated mother could not look after in a more skilled and nurturing way (Han et. al. 2001).

- **Maternal Care**

Maternal employment is closely related to the time spent with children. Several studies have focused on the time spent with children of working and non-working
mothers. Findings from these studies have shown that a great deal can be done to compensate the time with their children (Booth, 2002). Many factors contribute to the outcome of child development, out of which special importance is given to the quality of the relationship between caregiver and the child. Recent research has identified sensitivity and responsiveness as important aspects that determine the caregiver’s ability in providing effective care for the child. Sensitivity is the awareness to the vocal signals in indicating the needs and wants of the infant whereas responsiveness is the capacity of responding appropriately to the infant’s signals. The key feature for the healthy psychosocial development of a child is sensitive and responsive caregiving. The attachment theory is the most influential theory in caregiver-child relationship. The relation between sensitivity and responsiveness and attachment has been found in both stressful and normal conditions and in various cultural settings (WHO, 2004). Cross-culturally various studies have been carried out assessing the attachment between caregiver and child, but much attention has not been paid to such interactions in early life. Some researchers argue that sensitive and responsive child-rearing dimensions and attachment formation affect children from developed and developing countries in similar ways (Bradley and Corwyn, 2005).

It is believed that in most cases, children whose mothers work full or part-time outside the home may grow better. It generally occurs because working mothers are satisfied with their lives; they nurture their children more and provide love and care to them. Children whose parents are loving, sensitive to their children’s needs and provide appropriate substitute care, develop no differently from children in families in which one of the parents does not work. In addition to that, work may provide a high level of satisfaction. Mothers working outside the home may be more psychologically supportive to their children. So, it is unreasonable to say that housewife mother can help children to grow normally on physical, psychological and social levels more than the working mothers. The underlying base of children’s normal development is the type of care and love a mother provides. It is not so much a question of whether a mother chooses to work full-time, to stay at home, or to arrange some combination of the two. What matters is how satisfied she is with the choices she has made. In regard to the time spent with children at home, it is not always that a housewife mother spends longer time with her children than the time the working mother does; a housewife mother may find means to spend some time far away from house and
children. In that concern although it might be expected that children whose both parents work would spend comparatively less time with their parents than children with one parent at home full-time. Research suggests that children with full-time working parents spend almost the same time with family, class, friends and alone as children in families where only one parent is working. Working mother’s children may return after school to empty houses and to take care of themselves, it is argued that those children suffer loneliness and inadequate care. However research has not identified many differences between self care children and children who are looked up by stay at home mothers. Steinberg (1986) commented that if self care children stay at home by themselves rather than unsupervised with friends, they may avoid involvement in activities that can lead to difficulties. Besides, they may develop a sense of independence and responsibility. The consequences of being a self-care child are not necessarily harmful. In fact, children may develop an enhanced sense of independence and competence. Furthermore, the time spent alone provides an opportunity to work uninterrupted on homework or school projects.

Marshall and Barnett, et al., (1997) found that married, employed and women who were mothers of young children; face difficulty in locating and affording child care; and who rear their children alone are the most stressed of all mothers. The depression levels were twice as compared to those mothers having sufficient resources. Fathers experience less work-family strains than mothers. For easing the overall situations, mothers have fewer options due to their primary responsibility for child care. For instance, as the situation for women, it appears that men do not perceive a conflict between responsibility for child care arrangements and chances for workplace advancement. The parent most commonly interrupted at work both by children seeking contact or child care or school personnel reporting children’s illnesses or injuries are usually mothers. Even when at work, one is still a parent and time is spent thinking, worrying and planning for children, this is particularly true for female parent due to which women with small children spend less amount of time in paid work.

Mothers who breast feed make various adjustments to the workplace, including earlier cessation of nursing although the adjustments made to meet family needs are useful during the years of early child raising, women’s long-term economic well-being is adversely affected by it (Waldfogel, 1997). Some scholars argue that African-American employed mothers may experience, increased psychological satisfaction
and decreased stress in combining parenting and paid work as compared to Anglo women. Although they must feel contended with the role conflicts between role of mother and working for pay, African-American mother’s employment rates have been found to be increased for a longer period of time and recognized within the community as important for family survival. Segura (1994) found that being economically beneficial for children is more commonly understood among some minority groups to be an intrinsic aspect of role of mother by women in a racial and class structured society. As compared to men, employed women are more negatively affected by parenting obligations, but some research suggests that gender differences among dual earner couples are found to be lesser. Barnett et al., (1994) found that positive job and post marital experiences are associated with decreased levels of distress and negative job and marital experiences with increased levels of distress for both parents. In a study by Albanawi (2000), the effect of working mother on the relation with her children was assessed. The outcome of the study referred that there was no significant difference between the employed and the unemployed mother on the level of her relation to her children. In that, mother’s employment was not affecting children negatively. Moreover the relation between house workers and their children was also positive.

Nomaguchi (2006) examined the relationship between maternal employment, non-parental care, mother-child interactions and preschooler’s outcome in a sample of 13,439 households in a longitudinal survey of Canadian children aged 0 – 11 years in 1994 – 1995. The results indicated that, the daily lives of young children are significantly affected by their mother’s status of employment and its intensity. Mother’s employment status may be related to the timing when the young children begin to interact with members of family and when they begin to attend early education and other activities such as dancing, sports and music classes. Aughinbaugh and Gittleman (2002) investigated the impact of maternal employment for the first three years of the child and during the child’s adolescence in a sample of children aged between 3-15 years, for which data was collected from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, 1979 (NLSY 79). The results bore little evidence that employment of mother’s in the child’s early life has lasting consequences on participation in risky behaviours. A study was aimed to establish the relationship between working women’s role conflict and psychological adjustment of mothers and
children (Khalifa, 2002). The result indicated a negative relationship between
the scores obtained by the working women, on role conflict scale. There was a significant
statistical difference between the average degrees of the children of employed women
and unemployed women on psychological adjustment scale and role conflict scale.
Robert (2002) investigated how maternal employment, employment transitions and
periods of unemployment are related to children’s behavioural development. The data
was collected from the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth
(NLSCY). The results indicated increased levels of behavioural problems in children,
particularly for indirect aggression behaviour. The stable family composition is
associated with relatively better behaviour grades. Family composition which changes
over time is associated with worse behaviour grades for children. Mistry (2003)
examined the processes by which employment of mothers, in the context of low-
income work, influences development of young children using longitudinal data
which was collected as a part of an experimental evaluation of the Comprehensive
Child Development Program (CCDP) during the early 90s. The outcomes showed a
positive impact of work for cognitive and linguistic outcomes of children, but no
association with problematic behavioural adjustment. An analysis of mediation
suggests parenting practices as one potential pathway through which employment
dynamics influenced the cognitive development of children. Working mothers were
rated by interviewers as having more positive, stimulating and sensitive parenting
behaviours and instead their children displayed increased level of cognitive
functioning at age three compared to children of mothers who worked few hours or
less frequently during that period.
Hashmi et al., (2006) explored the relationship between marital adjustment, stress and
depression. Results showed high significance in relationship between marital
adjustment, stress and depression. The findings of the outcome also show that
working married women have to face more problems in their married life as compared
to their non-working counterparts. The results showed that educated working and non-
working married women can perform well in their married life and they don’t suffer
from depression. Zarrabil (2009) examined short and medium term effects of
maternity leave on child outcomes in a sample of children aged 0-5 years. The
outcomes revealed that maternity leave for more than six months does not have any
contemporaneous effect on children but some positive and a few negative effects
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appeared in their later lives. Asthana and Ojha (2009) found that in spite of the public opinion there is little evidence that working mothers harm child’s mental development or adversely affects its behavior during infancy. The outcomes showed that the public opinion about motherhood is too skewed to the issue of whether women are employed or not, according to academics.

Chatterji et al., (2011) examined the effects of maternal employment on family well-being, by maternal mental health and overall health, parenting stress and parenting quality. The outcomes found lesser evidence that maternal working hours are associated with maternal health and no evidence was found about maternal employment being associated with parenting quality and stress. The effect of maternal employment in the first year of life is separately examined as a typically ‘sensitive period’. Outcomes revealed that there was no evidence of ill effects of maternal employment in the early years on subsequent socio-emotional behaviour of the child.

There were well defined, gender differences in the effects of parental employment on behavioral outcomes and relationships between parental working arrangements and socio-emotional outcomes of the child. There are evidences to show that children of mothers who work part-time tend to have increased achievement outcomes as compared to children whose mothers worked full-time. Buehler and O’ Brein, (2011) found few differences in children’s achievement in non-employed as compared to part-time employed mothers; however, maternal full-time employment had increased ill effects on children than maternal part-time employment. An increasing number of employed mothers have raised an interesting and significant question regarding its impact on child development in all life aspects in terms of emotional, social and cognitive development.

A study on the participation of women with young children demonstrated that there was a high increase in the number of working women as compared to previous decades. The percentage of women who had 8-11 months of paid-work after childbirth increased from 24% in 1979 to 67% in 1996 (Dench et al., 2002). It is generally believed that the overall growth and development of children is effected by employment of their mother (Almani, et al., 2012). The cognitive, affective and psychomotor development of children is very crucial for the first five years. Usually children who get an early and proper attention of their mothers have better teenage period. They are free and feel easy to share everything with their parents.
2.3 Personality of Pre-School Children

Preschool can mean a wide range of different learning environments, ranging from an exploration type environment to an academic driven environment. The term ‘preschool’ is defined as variety of programs in centers for young children (Schwartz, 1996). The age group 3-6 years is commonly referred to as “early learning period” or “pre-school period”. This is the time when the child enters school for formal learning. Along-with cognitive development, socialization with peers and caregivers also broadens (Khan, 2004). ECE inculcates self-esteem and confidence, and this plays crucial role in mental development. Preschoolers are very imaginative. They love pretending to be animals and acting out creative fantasies about these characters. Music and motor skills also add fun. However, gymnastics should be an important part of the curriculum of physical education offered in kindergarten. The values derived from the participation in gymnastics are numerous including higher self-discipline, coordination, courage, self-confidence, social awareness and perseverance. Repeated studies have revealed that brain development is very much vulnerable to environmental influences (health, nutrition, sensory stimulation and care) and their effects are long-lasting. Essentially, most experts agree that every facet of a child’s development is the result of some complex interaction between nature and nurture. The central processes of early childhood development (e.g. physical maturation, attachment, symbol use) are influenced by external factors. The key elements of child development- physical, mental and socio-emotional are not distinct, and cannot be compartmentalized in to health, nutrition, sensory stimulation and care. It is entirely an integrated approach and deficiency in any of these factors or its determinants could cause immeasurable disparities. Health, nutrition, stimulation and care interact for better growth and development.

Goldman et al., (1998) argued that preschoolers must master and utilize their ability in order to manage their emotions amongst peers and meet social expectations of society at large. In order to regulate their emotions preschoolers usually need additional support. During the preschool years children learn social competence which includes learning to master separation anxiety and engaging with peers in shared play activities. It is very important that children feel included, if children participate actively, it plays a positive part in ensuring that children feel secure and accepted by others, and have a sense of belonging. Children learn social skills by interacting with
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others. Play experiences which children find enjoyable provide different aspects for them to learn social skills and concepts. Play for young children provide an important and unique context that allows children to interact when social skills may be acquired. It has been stated by Young (2009) that child’s early years are extremely important as they provide the foundation for rest of the individual’s life, both as an adolescent and as an adult. Pre-school age is a unique opportunity period for every individual where they undergo significant social, intellectual, emotional and physical development. The preschool years are crucial in the development of cognition and social behaviour.

Children are born in this world with different needs to grow properly, many child educational leaders accept that the goal of elementary education must be to stimulate and guide the development of behaviour in children so that they will function in life activities. Caregivers, parents and other adults, who deal with young children, must explore the developmental processes as they relate to the education of children (Humphrey, 2003). Positive stimulation during this period not only promotes optimal development but also enables the child to thrive and survive in adulthood. This knowledge is supported with increasing research and evidence from natural and social sciences, historical studies, genetics, epidemiology and neurosciences. Physical activities can have a positive and severe effect on social skills. Such effect is different in areas of child development such as cognitive and social development. Young children have natural curiosity and are active and experienced learners with a natural curiosity. They are unique and eager to develop relationships and to extend their social skills (Zachopoulou et al., 2004). Children in their preschool years have a background of learning experiences, such experiences are developed within their family and friends. They learn from the interaction between the motor, cognitive, social and emotional domains.

Laying stress on childhood experiences, Essa (2007) stated that children must get numerous movement opportunities and experiences, because learning takes place through social skills. Preschoolers form friendships and enjoy short group activities. The socio-emotional development is important for the growth and development of a child, thus the correlation between positive parenting and appropriate social emotional development. The importance of socio-emotional development is most of the times overlooked because of the stress placed on academic achievement in young children. Research suggests that there is a strong relation between socio-emotional competence
In the review of literature, it is described that socio-emotional knowledge plays a significant role in improving academic performance and lifelong learning in children. Healthy development of children can be achieved by supportive and positive learning experiences which only mothers can provide. This may be due to the fact that mothers often have an important influence on how young children learn to interpret situations and use appropriate strategies to regulate their emotions.

Working women among pre-school children have raised an important question regarding its effect on child development. The separation of mother away from their child for long period of time especially during early childhood affects the child development. Development is “the process of human growth during the life span, initiated from conception to death” (Cherry, 2011). Emotional development is the feeling that individuals possess about themselves and others, as well as their capabilities to function well. Socially and emotionally healthy children are able to start their schools, participate in learning experience, and also make a good relationship with their caregivers. Actually, the early development of cognitive skills, emotional well-being, social competence and good physical and mental health helps children to build a strong foundation for success in future specially during adult stage.

The children of non-working mothers have more knowledge in variety of fields of self-concept such as intelligence and school, anxiety and stress, happiness and contentment as well as in general self-concept as compared to the children of working mothers. Also, children of homemakers have significantly higher emotional instability, regression and personality disorganization than children of working mothers (Hangal and Aminabhavi, 2007). However, children of working mothers have higher self-concept and emotional maturity in comparison to their counterparts.

Maternal employment causes separation of mothers from their children that may affect development of children. For instance, the child may become isolated and alone, aggressive, anxious and may have negative feelings towards others (Berk et al., 2012).

The tasks of motherhood are the most honorable occupation that needs skills in this world. Mother’s role is not only giving birth and providing physical care in early childhood but they also play a lively role even after their babies are grown up regardless of their age. Mothers are the creator and destroyer of society. They can make a family, thus they can make the society a heaven by removing the wrongs.
relationship between the mother and child and the mother's parental behaviour is a complex phenomena that can be looked upon from different range of aspects. Mother-child attachment relationship provides security and stability for their children. School age children are socially mal-adapted with peers because of the attachment problems with the mother in infancy. Insecurity of attachment during the preschool years is linked with absence of social competence and maladaptive peer relationships. Mothers should show affection, recognize their children’s accomplishments, help their children to develop a sense of responsibility, encourage them to respect others and to help people in need. A good mother helps her children to set their own achievable goals, and to be clear about good and bad behaviour. Moreover, a good mother helps her children to learn patience and to think of possible consequences of any action before acting. She plays games, reads and goes to events in the community. She gets involved with her child’s school; meets the teachers and staff to understand the learning goals and how she and the school can work together to help her child to do well. Adding to that, she supports her child in taking on new challenges. She encourages them to solve problems on their own. The result of balanced mother’s attachment and care helps children to build balanced self esteem. Cathryn et al., (1994) stated that the connection between the attachment and bonding in mother-child relationship and the child’s social development has been conceptualized in terms of the child developing through the primary attachment relationship.

Since emotional regulation is known to be a key milestone for social and emotional development in early-life, mother-infant interactions may be the primary context in which emotion regulation emerges, and the quality of these formative relationships may be crucial in the development of children’s autonomy and mastery, as well as the onset of emotion-related behaviour problems. Mothers support and guidance are even more crucial when children display difficult or disruptive behaviour. This is because vulnerable children are at greater risk of having their physical, mental and lifelong learning ability undermined without this protective support.

Attempts were made to study the effect of mother’s early employment on cognitive outcome of children. Some adverse effects were found on cognitive development of children due to mother’s employment in first year while as positive effects from second and third year of mother’s employment. Isacc (1993) conducted a study on the role of sex stereotype and parental love in the development of moral adjustment in
children of Ernakulam. Findings of the study revealed that perceived parental love was found to be the product of resultant feelings of love and hate that children had towards their parents. Both parental love and the child’s age had a significant bearing upon moral judgment of the child. The highly accepted children were found to be obedient, modest, generous, responsible and docile while the children who felt rejected, found themselves uncared grow irresponsible, disorderly lazy, selfish and stubborn. On their moral judgment scores the girls were consistently found superior to boys. Cawley and Liu (2007) claimed that mothers work is associated with bad performance of children on cognitive tests. It was explored that working women spend less time with their children in reading, homework and in educational activities in general. The findings offered plausible mechanism for the association of maternal employment with children’s cognitive development. Also the effect on the self-concept, emotional maturity and achievement motivation of adolescents of working mothers was assessed. 75 adolescents of employed mothers and homemakers respectively, studying in 8th and 9th standards was taken as sample from Hubli-Dharwar cities of North Karnataka. The results showed that adolescents of homemakers had significantly higher self concept. It was also noted that children of employed mothers scored high on emotional maturity and female children belonging to mothers who worked were highly achievement oriented.

Elghusin (2008) in her study aimed to know the level of psychosocial development and social problem solving skills in the preparatory schools in Gaza. 150 male and female students of 9th class from some government schools were studied. The results showed that the relationship between the low and high degree students in social problem solving skills and their psychosocial development are equal. The degrees of social problem solving skill among male and female students are medium. Before children begin formal schooling, a large portion of their time is spent in the home environment created by their caregivers (Bornstein and Lansford, 2010). A study of value patterns of B.Ed. pupil teachers was carried out in which no significant difference was found in the value patterns of graduate and post-graduate B.Ed. pupil teachers in seven value areas viz. knowledge, economic, social, aesthetic, political, creative and humanistic but differed significantly on the basis of their religion (Kaur, 2003). It was also noted that there was no significant difference in the value patterns of pupil teachers of science and arts streams. There was no significant difference in
the value patterns of B.Ed. pupil teachers belonging to business and non business families in five value areas but, differed in aesthetic, humanistic and knowledge values. There was no significant difference in the value patterns of male and female B.Ed. pupil-teachers in eight value areas i.e. knowledge, economic, aesthetic, social, political, religious, creative and humanistic. In a similar and repeated study by Kaur (2004) an attempt to study the value patterns of adolescents in relation to their family climate was made. A significant relationship between value patterns and family climate was found. However, no significant difference was there between govt. and public school male and female adolescents in respect of their value patterns. Thapar (2004) conducted a study on value profiles of parents and their offspring and generation gap of the Indian urban, middle class parents and their offspring. Results indicated that parents and the offspring’s had maximum concern for family, security, freedom, self respect, ambition, honesty, self control and helpfulness and least concern for values like salvation, mature love and pleasure, world of beauty, being imaginative and cheerful. While the value structures of the fathers and the mothers fitted well in their respective gender stereotypes, the children had imbibed an androgynous value profile, reflecting the respective role of both the parents in child rearing. Highly positive correlation amongst the three profiles substantiated the fact, that there existed no generation gap, and that the acquisition of values was basically a mutual two- way process between parents and their offspring.

Harden and Whittaker (2011) found that, for young children, the level of cognitive stimulation and level of emotional support present in the home was significantly related to later development, with especially strong correlations to cognitive and language functioning in preschool. High correlations have also been documented between academic and language stimulation opportunities available in young children’s homes and their performance on intelligence tests. Essentially, the more opportunities there are within the home that expose children to cognitive stimulation, the more likely it is that children will achieve higher cognitive and language scores, as well as exhibit fewer behavioural problems. Not only does a stimulating home environment contribute to a child’s cognitive advancement, but it also makes them more confident of their abilities. A relationship has been found between numbers of literacy opportunities available in homes and how children rate their own cognitive skill and interest in learning. One possible explanation for this might be that children
who have been more exposed to academic environments feel more at ease and competent in cognitively challenging situations. Although it is clear that the availability of mentally stimulating opportunities in home environments are crucial to children’s cognitive development, interactions between parents, particularly mothers and children are also strongly related to later cognitive outcomes. However, Huerta et al., (2011) investigated the negative effects of mother’s employment on the development of children. It was suggested that mothers who returned to their work within six months after childbirth may have negative effects on child development, especially on cognitive development although the effects are small and not universally observed. Other factors including income of the family, education of parents and quality of interaction with children had more effect on child development than mother’s early employment.

In a study by Almamory and Almamory (2011) the psychological and social development and its relation with psychological compatibility of adolescence was explored. The participants selected were (100) students from middle schools and chosen randomly. The psychological adjustment and psychosocial development was measured. The results revealed that the psychosocial development and psychological adjustment are significantly correlated. In another study, Elkahlout (2011) aimed to unveil the degree of psychological and social adjustment that the children of working mothers have in comparison to those children of non-working mothers. The results concluded that there were no discrepancies in the physiological and social adjustment between children of working and non working mothers. The adolescent children of working mothers are usually better than the adolescent children of non-working mothers in the problem areas of finances, living conditions and employment (Sarita, 2006). While studying the adjustment and achievement of the children of working and non-working mothers it was revealed that children of mothers working since their children’s birth showed better adjustment patterns as compared to the children of non-working mothers (Ansari and Bella, 1999). The children of the mothers working since some time after their birth have better adjustment pattern than those of non-working mothers. Gyanani and Kapoor (2004) carried out an investigation to see the effect of child rearing practices on child’s personality. Boys who were enjoying good child-rearing practices were found to be emotionally less stable, active, aggressive, socially bold, precise, less relaxed in comparison with the girls who were getting good child
rearing practices. A comparative study of value patterns of science and arts students in relation to their socio-economic status showed that a significant difference exists in the theoretical, economic, aesthetic and religious values of science and arts students, but there exists no difference on social and political values (Kaur, 2005). On a similar note, it was found, Indian males showed their preferences for values like social, power, self direction and stimulation whereas the Indian females showed their values for social security, spiritualism, leisure and comforts of life and aesthetic values (Laxmi, 2000). The involvement of adolescent daughters in household activities of employed homemakers is more than corresponding non-employed homemakers. A majority of the adolescent daughters of non-employed mothers devoted more time to their studies in comparison to the corresponding group. A comparatively higher percentage of the adolescent daughters of employed mothers were not participating in co-curricular activities (Arya and Kistwaria, 2002).

Children’s development has two basic aspects i.e cognitive and socio-emotional. During the first 5 years, cognitive development undergoes various periods of reorganization. Cognitive growth involves sensory learning, perceptual-motor integration and attention in the first year. In the second year attention system matures and infants start using symbols, cognitive skills and goal-directed behaviour. During the preschool age the cognitive development expands and starts involving the rapid growth of language (Feldman and Eidelman, 2008). In the last decade, understanding and regulation of emotional displays and their associations with children’s social competence has received a great deal of attention. Emotional competence is a form of children’s successful management and display of emotions. It has been clearly shown that the difference between the constructs of emotional and social competence exists.

Emotional competence involves using emotions to exchange messages that are important to social interactions; in contrast, social competence refers to child’s ability to function properly in social interactions, usually with other children. Although it is often thought that some overlap between emotional competence and social competence usually occurs, the latter is usually one’s social skills and peer status, whereas the former refers to intrapersonal qualities, such as the ability to understand or produce appropriate emotion signals (Halberstadt et al; 2001). An affective parent child relationship is related to positive feelings of children about themselves. The development of competencies and socio-emotional skills during the preschool years is
mostly influenced by quality of parent-child relationships. The socio-emotional skills are important in a young child’s life because it sets the foundation of one’s concept of self. According to the University of Wisconsin-Extension, a strong self concept helps children to believe and have trust upon themselves due to which they find the world friendly, rather than threatening.

Kuruvilla (2002) conducted a study on supporting system and certain behavioural problems in preschool children in Malappuram district in Kerala. It was conducted on a sample of 100 pre-school children of the age group of above four years, i.e. UKG students belonging to the different types of preschools. Comparison of behaviour problems of boys and girls revealed no significant difference between the two groups. The results favour the children of high socio-economic status with less behaviour problems whereas the children of low socio-economic status were found to have the highest extent of behaviour problems. Preschool children of non-working mothers were found to have more behaviour problems than their counterpart. Ora et al., (2006) studied the relationship between pre-schooler’s separation anxiety and adjustment to kindergarten and their mother’s separation anxiety and levels of differentiation. The findings revealed that a significant relationship between mother’s and children’s separation anxiety exists. Also lower the mother’s level of differentiation, more the children exhibited fears and neurotic behaviours (such as nail biting). Syed et al., (2009) studied the prevalence of emotional and behavioural problems among 1488 primary school children aged 5 to 11 years in Karachi, Pakistan. The results show that 34.4% parents rated children as falling under the “abnormal category” on strength and difficulties questionnaire, 35.8% were reported by the teacher. The study concluded that there is a gender difference in prevalence. Boys had higher estimates of behavior/externalizing problems; whereas emotional problems were more common amongst females. The study concluded that if parents are employed, the prevalence of behaviour problems was more in boys and girls. A study to analyze the effect of mother’s employment on cognitive outcomes of her children was carried out (Mukherjee and Sibnath, 2009). Children aged between 4 to 15 years were analyzed to explore the effects of mothers work on child’s mental health. Using ordinary least squares and fixed effects estimates, it was summarized that children whose mothers spent more time at home had fewer emotional problems and scored lower on behavioral problems index. They were also less unhappy or depressed. While as,
In the United States, parents who participate in work-to-family conflict are at high risk of obesity and weight gain (Allen et al., 2000). In contrast, children whose mothers spent more time at home were less likely to hurt someone, steal something or skip school.

Anitha, (2010) studied the behavioral problems among preschool children and revealed the level of behavioral problems among 50 preschool children of employed mothers, 33 (66%) of them had moderate behavioral problems and 17 (34%) of them had mild behavioral problems. Whereas among 50 preschool children of unemployed mothers, 11 (22%) of them had moderate behavioral problems and 39 (78%) of them had mild behavioral problems. The study findings show that behavioral problems are found high among preschool children of employed mothers than the preschool children of unemployed mothers. Li et al., (2012) found that nonstandard work is associated with poorer mental health, increased behavioral problems, poorer cognitive development and increased chances of obesity in children. Increased work-to-family conflict can increase role strains for some mothers, spilling over into their parenting and subsequently into child outcomes. The employed mothers may experience little effect on mother’s role when work-to-family conflict is not there. In spite of abundance of research done on maternal employment and various child outcomes and the prevalence of work-to family conflict among the United States labour force, no research which links work-to family conflict and child achievements could be found. Scholars have found that work-to-family conflict is associated with negative outcome among parents (Allen et al., 2000). Consistent to Bronfenbrenner’s ecological theory (1979), it is plausible that the ill effects of work-to-family conflict go beyond mothers themselves to their children. Employment of mother and its effects on growth and shape of personality of children was examined by Mathur and Berndt (2002) in which a sample of 200 children and their mothers was taken from the middle and the upper middle class of socio-economic background from Bhopal city. 120 employed mothers and 80 housewives and their children participated in the study. Mothers sample involved clerks, housewives, nurses and teachers belonging to nuclear families and having children from 7 to 11+ years. Lal’s Early School Personality Questionnaire (ESPQ) was used to access the personality of children. Children of employed mothers went out more regularly as compared to children of unemployed mothers. The female children of employed mothers were comparatively more outgoing than male ones. Children of unemployed mothers had high ego strength, were socially and mentally mature, stable and calm minded. Decreased score of children of employed mothers
suggested that the children were brought up with emotions, were immature and had undeveloped mind. Unemployed mother’s children were found to be intelligent, hardworking and thoughtful. Social and other values are well developed in thinking and behavior of their children. The employed mother’s children were found to evade rules, feel few obligations and had low ego strength.

A study by Roy and Simpson (2001) was related to the bad effects of the employment of mothers on their adolescent children’s behavior. The mother’s employment did not generally decrease the academic performance of her children. The fear that delinquency would increase due to mother’s employment was not borne out. The children of mothers who were employed were seen to do more household chores than the children of mothers who were not employed. The mother’s employment did not seem to have any negative effect on the social activities of her children. It was not the amount of time spent together that counted but the nature of relationship that exists between the two (mother son/mother daughter). The families who have trustworthy, lovable and encouraging atmosphere keep the adolescents in self discipline.

Mathur (1994) studied the influence of maternal employment on children’s personality. A sample of 200 children and their mother were drawn from middle and upper middle class socio-economic background from Bhopal city. 120 employed mothers and 80 housewives and their children participated in the study. Children of employed mothers showed greater outgoing in comparison to the children of unemployed mothers. Children of unemployed mothers were full of ego strength, mentally and socially mature, clam and stable minded. Low scores of children of employed mothers suggest that such children are governed by emotions, are immature and usually have unstable mind. Children of unemployed mothers are usually intelligent, thoughtful, hardworking and dependable. Social and adult values are quite developed in the thinking and behavior of such children. The children of employed mothers were ‘expedient’ meaning they evade rules, feel few obligations and have weaker super ego strength.

Bohman (1996) examined cross sectional and longitudinal relationships between parents’ work hours and the quality of parent child interaction, which was defined by proportions of positive synchrony, negative synchrony, non synchrony, positive non-synchrony and neutral synchrony. He concluded that there is no cross-sectional direct effect of mothers' work hours on parent-child interaction. Morris (1996) investigated
the impact of maternal employment and mother/child involvement on children's adaptive functioning in school and found that mother's level of employment had no impact on the level of involvement in daily activities between mother and child. A comparative study of personality of working and non-working women was made by Singh (1989) to compare the personality factors, adjustment of mothers with the education of their children. Catell’s 16 PF questionnaires and Mittal’s adjustment inventory for measuring achievement of children, high school marks was used as tool for the study. The results revealed a significant difference between working and non-working women with regard to certain personality factors while as no significant difference was found among children of working and non-working women regarding their scholastic achievement.

Rodriguez (1996) sought to determine whether there were differences between employed and unemployed mothers of young children in terms of their parenting behaviours, perceptions of child behaviour problems, and maternal self-descriptions. The study found that employed and unemployed mothers present a similar profile in parenting their young children. In fact, non-employed mother's self-descriptions were rated as more anxious than employed mothers. However, employed mothers and unemployed mothers did not differ in marital satisfaction, satisfaction with employment status, or quality of mother-child interaction.

Hamilton (1981) studied perceived parental care-giving behaviours of elementary school children from working and non-working mother families. The purpose of the study was to determine whether or not children’s perceptions of their parent’s care-giving behaviours, defined as loving, controlling, or punishing, were affected by the employment status of the mother, the sex of the child and the sex of the parent. The study found no evidence to indicate that children's perception of loving and punishing parental care-giving behaviours were significantly affected by the family work status, the sex of the child, and the sex of the parent. The data suggested that children from satisfied middle-class families might not perceive mother's working absence as deprivation by either parent. Amen (1996) examined the relationship of three domains indexing employed women's personal functioning (i.e., objective employment experiences, attitudes toward work and parenting, and emotional functioning) to two domains indexing their child rearing attitudes (i.e., parenting beliefs/style of control, and maternal affect toward the child). According to the study, women's employment
commitment showed no systematic relationship to indices of emotional functioning or to child rearing attitudes, either by itself or in interaction with parenting commitment. However, the findings suggest that women's emotional functioning during their child's toddler years is more likely to be related to their attitudes regarding the parental role than to their attitudes regarding the intrinsic importance of the employment role. Gupta (2008) carried out a study to examine the impact of Big Five personality characteristics on knowledge sharing and knowledge acquisition behavior in children. The Big Five factors are extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and neuroticism. The results of analysis of variance indicated that individuals high on agreeableness and conscientiousness were more involved in knowledge sharing activities than individuals low on agreeableness and conscientiousness. Individuals high on conscientiousness were more involved in knowledge acquisition activities than individuals low on conscientiousness. There was no significant difference in knowledge sharing and acquisition activities between individuals who were high and low in extraversion, openness and neuroticism. Vijai (1990) carried out a study on personality, educational achievement and level of aspiration among the children of working and non-working mothers by using socio-economic status scale of P. Srivastava, 16 P.F. questionnaires (Hindi version) and LOA test. Major findings suggested that significant difference was found in the personality of the M/F children of working and non-working mothers.

2.4 Mothers Work and Academic Achievement of Children

Academic performance of children is the combination of communal interface. Academic performance means educational learning and achievement in schools, colleges and universities to get certain scores, grades, ranks and promotion to next class and to get a job. In determining child’s future, academic achievement has always been an index. The type of performance is very important for personal progress as the world is more competitive now. More and more pressure has started building on students, teachers, schools and the education system in general for acquiring high level of achievement. The fact is that the whole education system is revolving around the academic achievement of students. Academic achievement is based upon inherent talent as well as environmental feature of an individual. According to Craig (2006) the mothers who are highly educated and working are more sensitive to their children.
The study focused on the point that “parents should provide attentive hands-on care to their children. It is the responsibility of mother to educate her children according to the requirement of contemporary economic and social needs. Mother’s employment status is also related with child’s results, it is through the family that these effects take place. Outcomes of children are related with mother’s sense of well being and parenting style. The children of woman who worked in the child’s early years of life had significantly lower academic achievement than those children whose mothers did not work during that period. Bianchi et al., (2006) stated that employed mothers creatively found new ways to compensate the time of interaction with children. They usually spent less time for other involvements like housework, leisure, personal time, sleeping and relaxing. It is a common hypothesis that working mothers are more active and fast when it comes to child development. These qualities and traits can be transmitted to the children of working mothers, especially girl child. The daughters of working woman have higher academic achievement than daughters of non working mothers, although the opposite effect has been observed for boys. This gender difference was related to variety of effects of maternal aspirations and role modeling on girls and boys.

Srivastava (1993) made an attempt to study the impact of mother’s employment and family climate on academic achievement, creativity and sociability of students at the higher secondary stage in Lucknow city. A significantly high academic achievement was found in favour of non-working mother group than the working mother group. The effect of maternal employment on adolescent academic achievement, marital conflict and marital satisfaction was studied (Rogers, 1996). It was found that the more the children in the family, the more were marital conflicts when mothers were employed. No significant difference was found between the daughters of working and non-working mothers with respect to overall academic achievement (Panda and Samel, 1995). Daughters of non-working mothers were superior in mathematics and science but underachievers in english in comparison with those of working mothers. As reported by Saxena and Rani (1996), non-working women experienced greater life satisfaction as compared to working women and attributed their happiness to the home environment. Academic achievement is negatively related to academic authoritarianism but positively with authoritarianism in Hong Kong and among U.S. and Australian children whose parents did not attend college. Johnson (1999)
emphasized that a weak relationship exists between teachers praise, statements and children behavior, especially compliance. In addition from being teacher centeredness, attention has shifted to children. It indicates that children whose cognitive behaviour and stimulation is more their academic performance is also high. Ahuja (2006) carried out a study to find the impact of involvement of parents and socio-economic status of the family on academic achievement of class IX students. It was indicated that socio-economic status of the family and academic achievement of students were independent of each other and a relation was found between the effect of socio-economic status and parental involvement on academic achievement of students. Working mothers children receiving high cognitive stimulation are found to have better academic performance as compared to those receiving low cognitive stimulation (Dhall and Sahani, 2008). A low relationship exists between intelligence and academic achievement in different categories of schools. Also there is no glaring relationship between intelligence and academic achievement of students involved in the study. Bajwa (2006) found that academic achievement and family environment are significantly related. An attempt made to predict child behaviour on the basis of their personal values, career aspiration, socio-economic status and academic achievement found that the academic achievement correlated positively and significantly with socio-economic status, knowledge value and occupational aspiration and negatively with power value (Mahmood, 1998). In the case of arts and science groups, academic achievements correlated with socio-economic status but in the case of commerce group these variables were found to be uncorrelated. Further the daughters of non-working mothers were relatively higher on achievement and confidence, but they suffered from greater inferiority feelings as compared to the daughters of working mothers. Ayishabi and Kuruvilla (1998) made an attempt to explore the effects of maternal employment on achievement motivation of school children. Major finding of the study was that motivation for achievement which was strong determinant of academic performance was found to be unaffected by maternal employment in Kerala. Jain and Jandu (1998) studied the school adjustment of adolescent girls and boys belonging to employed and un-employed mothers. Major findings of the study revealed that there was no difference in the total adjustment between boys and girls of employed mothers; however, there was significant difference in the total adjustment between boys and girls of non-employed mothers. Girls were also more adjustable.
than boys.

Academic achievement is considered as a key criterion to judge one’s total potentialities and capacities. It is the most important detriment of a person’s adult status in his career. Mother’s education affects her children’s academic performance irrespective of status, social background, gender gap and other stereotype cast, image and pigeonhole effects. Education eradicates poverty, darkness, deficiency and dearth. This speaks a lot about the significance of studying academic achievement. Brilli (2012) analyzed both the impact of mothers’ time and childcare use. It was summarized that while a reduction in mothers time with the child induces a negative effect on reading test scores but it is compensated by the use of an equal amount of external childcare. Datta and Simonsen (2010) evaluated the impact of childcare exposure on 3 year old children’s cognitive outcomes in Denmark. They found that having attended high-quality pre-school had a positive impact on language and problem solving test scores and it also decreases the probability of grade retention. Felfe et al., (2012) evaluated the effects of a policy, implemented in Spain during late 90s, introducing universal childcare for 3 years old children, on their cognitive outcomes at age 15, using PISA data. They estimated a sizable increase in reading and math test scores following the reform. While investigating the effect of parent related, school related, child related variable’s, SES and facilities provided at home on achievement of children in primary schools, it was found that almost all home variables-maternal behaviour, attitude as well as facilities have a significant relationship with child’s achievement in school. In contrast, school variables did not prove to have much effect on child’s achievement. The socio-economic status variables, as expected, proved to be constantly having a significant impact. Among all child related variables, the child’s independence was found to affect his achievement. Bhatnagar and Sharma (1992) carried out an investigation to study the relationship between parental education and academic achievement of students. Results indicate that the children whose parents had attended school performed at a significantly higher academic level than others. Parent’s education appeared to be related to academic achievement of students. An attempt to find out a link was made between child rearing practices, adjustment and academic achievement of children of working and non-working mothers. Children of working mothers perceived their mothers child rearing practices to be significantly better than the children of non-working mothers in...
the areas of academic fields and demonstration of love. Children of working mothers showed significantly better emotional adjustment as compared to children of non-working mothers.

Baya and Roby (1993) showed that mother’s employment had no significant effect on the children’s school performance, conduct and stress. But mothers with high educational level and high social class had surprisingly a significant positive effect on their children’s school performance. Mathew and Rosenthal (1993) concluded that almost all the families with working parents gave high proportion of time to employment which included less time for family interaction, child care, home-maintenance and leisure activities. Sherry (1993) conducted a study of child rearing practices of employed and household mothers in relation to the academic attainment of their children. It was found that child rearing practice scores between employed and household mothers did not differ significantly and similarly the child rearing practice scores of university educated employed mothers and child rearing practice scores of uneducated household mothers did not differ significantly.

Thakkar (2003) studied academic achievement, adjustment and study habits of rural and urban students. Major findings of the study revealed that no significant relationship in academic achievements and study habits for rural and urban students exists. With regard to adjustment in the areas of home and family, personal, emotional and total adjustment, there was positive significant difference between rural and urban students. However in the areas of social and educational adjustment, this difference was not significant. Gaur (2005) found the impact of home environment on the academic achievement of senior secondary school students. It was found that students are significantly affected by the environment. Students who had rich family background had higher academic achievement as compared to the students who were living in poor home environment. Saini (2005) conducted a study on family environment and academic achievement of adolescent children of working and non-working mothers. Children of working mothers were found to be more independent than children of non-working mothers. As compared to the families and adolescents of working mothers, the families and adolescent children of non-working mothers had higher score in the area of moral and religious emphasis. The impact of adjustments, frustration and level of aspiration on children of working and non-working mothers was carried out by Jain (1990). The sample of the study consisted of 200 children of
working and 200 children of non-working mothers. The purposive stratified random sampling procedure was followed. A significant difference in academic achievement was found in the case of the children of working uneducated, working educated, non working uneducated, non-working educated mothers.

2.5 Problems Faced and Coping Strategies used by Working Mothers

Increased labour force participation of women can be considered as economic indicator since it helps to reduce the unemployment rate, poverty which increases the overall standard of living. Although women labour force participation has an important impact on the overall economic development of the nation, they are facing various problems in fulfilling their commitment to family as well as job responsibility. In most of traditional societies, women perform all the duties and responsibilities of the family. Thus, it is always challenging for working mother to fulfill the family desires as well as job responsibilities. A mother wants to spend longer time with her children. But they may not be able to do it properly as they perform dual roles. Previous studies in the developing countries including Malaysia observed that women perform dual roles as an income generator and primary caregiver to their children in family (Glick, 2002). By performing dual roles, in most of the cases it is hard for working mother to fulfill the commitments towards family as well as profession. However, it is commonly believed that working mother faces the biggest challenges when their children fall sick. During children’s sickness, mothers are stressful as they are unable to take care of their sick children as well as job responsibility properly. In some cases, they depend on relatives or childcare for taking care of their children. These informal arrangements may not be potential for children’s health. Therese and Jenny (2009) noted that in UK working mothers remained the main careers of their children, they frequently depended on unpaid help from relatives. These informal arrangements were sometimes complicated and potentially vulnerable. The study argued that husband’s home-oriented working attitudes would assist women to maintain a balance between home and paid work. But due to traditional gender ideology, husbands would not share household responsibilities which increase working mother’s challenges in their family. The traditional gender division in respect of housework and childcare are viewed in many societies. Gender divisions of household work are based on the frequency of those
tasks that should be typically done by women (Shelton, 1992). Traditionally, women are entitled for meal preparation and clean up, doing the laundry, tidying the house and most importantly child care tasks need to be done throughout the day. Thus, all the aforementioned factors and studies aim at providing the information regarding the working conditions of women and their impact on personality development of children. While more has been researched upon working women in India, much attention has not been paid to the working conditions of women in India with specific attention to Kashmir. Further, the literature on the relation between working conditions of mother and the academic achievement of pre-school children was also not available in abundance. Problems faced by working mother’s in Kashmir and the coping mechanism used by them also need specific attention.

The present study is an effort in this direction. Keeping in view the importance of feasible working conditions for the harmony of children and family, the researcher has evinced special interest in this study. With a view to add to the existing body of knowledge in the area of working women and their children, against the backdrop of problems and coping strategies used by them, the present study is an attempt taken up in the valley of Kashmir. In this connection the chapter that follows has been devoted to illustrate the methodological tools and procedures used for the present study.