CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The issues concerning working mothers and family system have added a new dimension to contemporary social reality, requiring researchers to focus on areas, such as, work and adjustment, job involvement, job satisfaction, the work-family interface, psychological well-being, family environment, the working mother's image, division of labor in dual earner families, and so on.

WORK STATUS: WORKING V/S NON-WORKING MOTHERS

Nye and Hoffman (1963) studied the relationships between wives employment and their feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with diverse aspects of their lives. The findings indicated that those who combined household and employee roles were more satisfied with their daily work, family income, homes and relationships with children, community and recreational life as compared to housewives. Heer (1971) found that working wife could exert more influence in decision making in the families than the non-working wife, and such families had fewer children.

Lopata (1973) however defended the status of non-working women. She noted that housewives were becoming increasingly competent and creative in their social roles. She rejected the view that only job or career gave women their intellectual identity. Kapur (1974) observed that educated working women were influenced by egalitarian ethos, while the traditional authoritarian and male dominated set of the Hindu social structure remained the same producing tensions and conflicts in the family. This could only be avoided if there was harmony between changes in the attitudes of women with other members of her role sets.

Women’s decision to work was investigated by Mandelbaum and Sheva (1976). They observed that, a) working women differed from non-working women with regard to age,
number of children, age of children, husbands income and religious affiliation; b) presence of children was the most powerful variable predicting 22% of the variance between working and non-working women; c) the time interval between leaving college and marriage was not related to work status; d) non-working women valued more affection related goals; e) working women perceived work as instrumental in self actualization goals, affectionate goals and material goals; f) instrumentality items differentiated between working and non-working women more successfully than the item valences or the product of valence instrumentality; g) cognitive variables accounted for 29% of variance between working and non-working women; h) women's perceptions of their role expectations by husbands were associated with a women's work status; i) no differences in life satisfaction were observed between working and non-working women; and j) the self esteem and personality measures did not differentiate significantly between working and non-working women.

According to Rani (1976), the ambiguity and uncertainty of the roles in the dual career family, together with the complexity of modern life and exaggerated emphasis on individuality created adjustment difficulties both for husband and wife. Remunerative employment seemed to contribute positively in the life of working women, as noted by Burke and Tamara (1978). They showed that working wives expressed more happiness with their marriage, were in greater agreement with their spouse, resolved disagreement usually by mutual give and take rather than by one person giving in. Housewives reported poorer mental and physical health. Husbands of working wives were more concerned and worried than husbands of housewives about problems of housing, money difficulties, in communicating with and showing affection for their wives. Husbands of housewives were in turn more worried and bothered about general world situation, inflation, war etc. Husbands of working wives were more concerned about health and they reported having a complete physical checkup by a qualified doctor more frequently than housewives, and described themselves as worrying type and their spirits as lower in general than husbands of housewives. Further, in such couples both husband and wife valued women's choice to work. They valued employment opportunities and made the necessary family arrangements to make work possible. Some men liked that their wives were feeling happy and fulfilled by working rather than being pent up and lonely at home. Some liked to share the financial burden and the higher level of income, others liked to work with their wives or at least to
interact with them over work issues. They enjoyed sharing their domestic, and intellectual or professional lives. Couples thus developed patterns of learned behavior to organize their time, energy, finances and other resources, that made it possible for each of them to enjoy involvement in different spheres.

Whenever there was any conflict between domestic and work responsibilities, home was always given importance, and work occupied the second position. Women preferred employment that were best adjudged to the possible action of combining their home duties with those of paid jobs (Rani, 1976).

A good deal of emphasis was placed in the literature on understanding the economic role of women in the occupational structure. It had been argued that occupational sex stereotyping resulted in higher concentration of women in jobs traditionally held by them, especially those with weak power bases in organizations (Kanter, 1977). It was presumed that individuals in such powerless positions developed attitudes, behaviors and congruent with their organizational role, further perpetuating the notion that women were incapable of performing effectively in male dominant occupations (Kanter, 1977; Bartol, 1978; Brass, 1985). Women in turn recognized the lack of opportunity and adjusted their aspiration levels downward to match the jobs and career paths available to them. This led to the stereotyping of women and work, which once acquired, served over lifetime as a road map to understand and accept the role of men and women in the work place (Hastie, 1981).

Equality of opportunities for women was pursued through a shift in domestic functions, such as child care from private to the public domain, but less attention was paid to the issue of the reallocation of male and female family roles (Clason, 1977). Earlier studies on working women were devoted primarily to the documentation of inequalities in the work force, and differences in work roles. One of the most consistent findings was that married women whether working or not, were generally viewed more favorably than women who were unmarried. This was particularly true for personality traits, but not for job performance characteristics (Etahugh and Kasley, 1981). Thoits (1983) reported that regardless of gender, occupancy of up to seven roles was positively associated with better mental health. He argued that more the roles one had, more were the potential sources of self-esteem, stimulation, privilege, social status, and social identity. Higher levels of self-esteem...
been found among women who occupied the three roles of wife, mother and employee than among women with fewer roles (Barnett and Baruch, 1985). Studies that considered the families and employment roles, often assumed that women had family roles and focussed attention on the impact of added employee role (Barnett and Marshall, 1991). Other studies indicated that working and non-working women differed on mental and physical health, the difference being in favor of working women (Verbrugge, 1982; Waldron and Herold, 1984; Merikangas, 1985). The research with respect to job commitment, has been quite inconclusive and to some extent contradictory. Recent evidences suggested that any differences in commitment between men and women could be explained by other demographic and affective variables, such as job satisfaction rather than commitment per se (Aranya, Kushnir and Valency, 1986).

Ramu (1987) observed that among Indian dual earner couples women still took the responsibility for household management and childcare. A man did not participate in household work at all, and did not assist with child care. However availability of a hired help and assistance from other family members (relatives) mitigated the burden of employed women. The wife although generally conforming to the subdued and compliant behavior prescribed by the culture, nonetheless exerted considerable influence on household decision making, such as how money was spent, which school the children would attend, and what activities they would engage in. The wife's demonstration of power and the acceptance of her influence by the husband were now more openly acknowledged (Ramu, 1987). It was further indicated that wives often reported that their husbands were incompetent and inept at house work and that no amount of coaxing could improve matters. They resolved the problem of workload by engaging full time or part time helpers, negotiating with in-laws and cutting down on social obligations.

A review of the recent studies on women and work indicated that a large number of women entered into the job market (Powell 1988), but continued to gain very little out of it. The stereotype perception of women as homemaker was strictly maintained. A better understanding of the role of women now was required who simultaneously carried out roles of wife, mother, worker etc, and found it more difficult than men to advance in their careers, particularly into the most senior positions (Adler and Izraeli 1988). Despite women
participating in the work force, they continued to bear the brunt of family responsibilities, such as, house work and child care (Stein, 1984; Pleck, 1985; Hochschild, 1989; Gray, Lovejoy, Piotrkowski and Bond, 1990).

Einhorn (1991) looked back at the gaps between rhetoric and reality in state socialism's concept of emancipation, which engaged women in the labor force. He viewed these contradictions as providing one explanation for women's apparent collusion with current trends to make them redundant and relegate them to the family as their prime sphere of responsibility. On the other hand, it highlighted the social (welfare) rights which women tended to lose in the transition to a market economy. Current attacks on the right to abortion appeared to symbolize the return to an ideology of the family with a mythological mother figure at its center.

The study by Barling and Macawan (1991) tested a process model by examining the effects of inter-role conflict, satisfaction and commitment on the role of employed mother. They used a self-report measure of cognitive difficulties and a behavioral measure relevant to work performance (proof reading). Fifty-three full time employed mothers with at least one child living at home participated in the study. They observed that inter role exerted an indirect effect on proof reading performance, mediated by self-reported attention and concentration difficulties. Satisfaction with and commitment to the role of employed mother were not related to either proof reading performance, and self-reported cognitive difficulties.

Sekaran (1992) indicated that women found ways of coping with work and family, by involving help from outside sources, either by putting children in creches and/or transferring domestic responsibilities to hired help or female relatives, rather than expecting men to be more involved in family work. Hired domestic help provided significant assistance particularly to the middle-class working women. However, the growth in demand for domestic workers, the increasing cost of such help, and the difficulty in relying upon maids to appear before the couple leave for work in the morning, made this source of support more problematic over the years.

Men and women have separate positive valuations of their own spheres of activity, commented Oakley (1974). As a consequence, women believed that their own labour and
resources (both productive and reproductive) had high social value, whereas male resources and labour (for example masculine ceremonial rituals) were relatively unimportant. Men believed the opposite though.

There were ideological and social-psychological mechanisms contributing to the persistence of unequal divisions of household labor between spouses (Laura, 1992). When the wife did the bulk of the household labor, i) a traditional gender ideology was stronger than in a home making or in part time employed status, in suppressing a wife's feeling of being demanded upon by her husband, and ii) home making or part-time employed behavior was just as important as traditional ideology in preventing a wife's dissatisfaction with the unequal housework contributions from her husband. These findings implied that change to equality in labour relations between spouses was slowed more by a traditional gender ideology than by a home making or part-time employed status. Women and men's occupations were differentiated in terms of control over economic resources and control over the labour process and that this worsened over time felt Anne and Victoria (1997).

The major reason for women's roles and expectations developing differently than men were that women continued to be expected socially to take major responsibility for child care and rearing. Accordingly, many of the recent approaches dealt with how women might accommodate these responsibilities within a pattern of career involvement. The efforts and degree of involvement in work by the women folk had often been ignored. Freund (1997) observed that, as the capitalist bench prized female seclusion, the working class household operated as a complex economic unit, in which women played a highly significant role.

Daga (1997) examined the influence of social family role stress and social support on the quality of life among working women belonging to three occupational groups of clerks, doctors, and teachers, and found that the quality of life correlated negatively and significantly with social family role stress among the three work categories. Quality of life was also found to be positively associated with social support among clerks and teachers.
WORK STATUS AND FAMILY

Differences in opinions were noted on how mother’s work affected the family. Some believed that mothers’ work had a positive impact; while others saw it having negative consequences. Kapur (1972) felt that a wife’s employment made marital interaction more complicated and created more problems in the family, as husbands and wife both were required to make adjustments to achieve marital harmony. With multiplicity of roles, her behavior became complex in terms of 'expected' and 'actual' conduct, and she faced the major confusion with regard to her status and role.

A study conducted by National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development (1978) revealed that, mothers employed as professional were married to men who had handsome salaries and in many cases children had support of other members of the family and had effective mother substitute during working hours. They also had help of domestic servants. Women employed in clerical and industrial jobs – unskilled and semi skilled in urban and rural areas enjoyed comparatively less facilities. These supported the expectations of a positive relationship between the existence of relevant service institutions in the area and the women’s awareness of the institutional help for childcare.

Working mothers were not always perceived favorably, particularly if they had children. Some studies though indicated that having a child was expected to adversely affect the job performance of an employed mother (Etaugh and Kasley, 1981; Russell and Rush, 1987). Employed married mothers were perceived as experiencing more guilt and conflicting demands than non-employed married mothers (Bridges 1987). A recent study found that employed mothers were viewed as less dedicated to their families, less sensitive to others' needs, less affectionate and more selfish than mothers who had chosen not to work (Etaugh and Study, 1989).

There were ample evidences to show that mothers’ experiences of employment were predicted children’s behavior better than mothers’ employment status. A four-stage model of how inter-role conflict and satisfaction with the role of employed mothers affected children’s behavior was developed and tested by Karyl and Julian (1991) using path analysis. The relationship between maternal employment, role experiences (inter-role conflict and
satisfaction with maternal employment), and children's behavior (attention/immaturity, conduct disorder and anxiety/withdrawal) was found mediated by personal strain (cognitive difficulties and negative mood), and parenting behavior (punishment and rejection).

Foster and Mammen (1992) examined the relationship between mother's employment and spending on services that were expected to be sensitive to the value of time. Analysis indicated that wife's employment status was influential in explaining expenditure on food away from home, childcare and total services only. Other independent variables, such as income, education and age, were more influential in explaining expenditure than the employment status. Sullivan (1992) found that gender attitudes regarding women's timing of career and children, and women's ability to balance work and family demands were significantly related.

Walker (1990) observed that work and motherhood were important paths to the development of individual identity for both working class and professional women. Differences in jobs, however, led to differences in the actualization of values in their lives. Professional women were pulled in two directions, and faced continuous dilemmas in balancing careers that extracted strong commitments from them and the demands of motherhood. Working class women's jobs did not require the same intensity of commitment and they found it easier to meet their families' demands. Conceptualizing their work as meaningful became more difficult than the professional women. Dual career family had resulted in the father's greater participation in domestic life, and thus in an increase in the children's exposure to their father than usual in conventional families.

Some studies on women and work indicated that a growing number of mothers of young children were employed, but the ideal of the stay-at-home mother persisted (Brannen and Moss, 1996). As women and men's behaviors changed the cultural elements, including socially acceptable and defined attitudes were expected to also change.

WORK STATUS OF MOTHER AND ADOLESCENTS

Mothers and adolescents symbolized an intimate relationship. The foundation of this relationship was deep rooted in a number of family traits that kept on changing with the
passage of time. Some of the parameters that affected this relationship were employment, education, income and consequent family environment. Etaugh (1974) studied the effects of maternal employment on children. According to them, the quality of mother-child interaction and of care taking arrangements were quite significant determinants of adjustment. The results of a study conducted by Miller (1975) on children of working and non-working mothers supported the conclusion that parental roles were less traditional in families, where the mother was employed outside the home, leading to less traditional sex role stereotypes on the part of the daughter. Ferdinand (1975) made a study of the examination marks of children of working mothers (working full time) and compared the school grades for good behavior, diligence, attention, speaking, essay writing, spelling and arithmetic. All grades decreased regularly as mother working time increased. It was interesting to note that when adolescents were asked from whom they would seek help, advice, and nurturance, they cited their mothers first, followed by friends, and then fathers (Kandel and Lesser, 1972; Kon and Losenkov, 1978). A study on the eighth grade adolescents reported that their emotional expressivity caused a reciprocal emotional response more in mothers and best friends than in fathers (Youniss and Smoller, 1985).

Researches indicated that children and adolescents interacted more and spent more time with their mothers and best friends, than with their fathers (Collins, 1990; Kon and Losenkov, 1978; Montemayor, 1983); mother-child interactions were characterized by more conflict than were father-child relations (Hill, Holmbeck, Marlow, Green and Lynch, 1985a, 1985b; Steinberg, 1988), and there was a stronger need for adolescents to individuate from their mothers than from their fathers (Kaplan, 1984). In fact children had more opportunities to learn and to violate norms regarding anger expressions with their mothers and best friends than with their fathers. (Kon and Losenkov, 1978; Montemayor, 1983; Hill, Holmbeck, Marlow, Green and Lynch, 1985b Kaplan, 1984; Steinberg, 1988; and Collins, 1990)

It was noted that interactions between parents and their children underwent significant changes during the adolescent period. It had been found that conversations between adolescents and parents, particularly with the mothers, consisted now of fewer explanatory, supportive and positive statements than those that occurred prior to adolescence (Alexander 1973; Gjerde 1986; Papini,Datan and McCluskey-Fawcett, 1988). Adolescents reported that
and communication with parents was often difficult (Barnes and Olson, 1985; Smith and Forehand, 1986). They spent less time now interacting with their parents as compared to when they were younger (Montemayor and Brownlee, 1987). They disclosed less information to their parents (Buhrmester and Furman, 1987).

A mature performance of the adolescent age group gave satisfaction to the parents. Decision of the adolescent girls to carry out some of the household chores was really satisfaction to the mother. Researchers have devoted considerable attention to both parent-adolescent relationships and adolescent friendships. Research has indicated that with the onset of puberty, parent-adolescent relations were characterized by decreased parental involvement (Collins, 1990; Collins and Russell, 1991), increased negative affect (Montemayor, Eberly and Flannery, 1993), and more frequent and intense conflict. It was observed that children who understood labels used for boys and girls displayed more knowledge of gender stereotypes than children who did not. Mothers whose children had mastered labels for boys and girls endorsed more traditional attitudes towards women and toward sex roles within the family. The same mothers also initiated and reinforced more sex-types toy play with their children and thus contributed to gender stereotypes (Montemayor, 1983; Collins and Russell, 1991).

The maternal employment related research had so far focused primarily on children, even though mothers of adolescents were more likely to be employed. The adolescents experienced developmental changes because of mothers employment that promoted participation in adult behaviors in advance of their abilities. Hillman and Sawilousky, 1991 investigated the effects of maternal employment on the use of alcohol, cigarettes, marijuana and other substances by early adolescents. A sample of ninth-grade students responded to a 48-item survey about their substance use behavior. A comparison of maternal employment patterns (full-time vs. part-time/not employed outside the home) indicated no significant differences in substance use behavior. These results confirmed and extended the growing literature regarding the non-harmful effects of maternal employment on adolescent adjustment and behavior.

Adolescence was characterized as a period of change and transition that brought varying degrees of stress into the lives of adolescents (Compass, 1987). Many became particularly
vulnerable during this period to a wide range of behavioral and emotional difficulties, when their personal and social resources were not sufficiently developed for coping with their developmental tasks. Challenged by personal or environmental demands and lacking appropriate coping skills, many youngsters developed maladaptive patterns of behavior to mediate or alleviate the effect of stress (Elliot, Huizinga and Ageton, 1985; Silbereisen and Noack, 1988; Allison, Leone and Sepro, 1990).

It was common for the adolescent to make normative progress towards autonomy, while remaining at least moderately conforming to parents. (Baumrind, 1991; Peterson and Leigh, 1990; Steinberg, 1990) Declining parental influences, separation, and conflict levied more stress on development of the adolescent autonomy need and conformity to parental wishes simultaneously. There were contradictory but coexisting expectations of adolescent's conventional roles, like, sense of responsibility, connectedness and cooperation (i.e. conformity) on one hand, and, boldness, initiative and individuality (i.e. autonomy) on the other hand (Baumrind, 1991; Peterson and Leigh, 1990; Youniss and Smollar, 1985).

Saarni (1989) noted that the youngest child in the family (adolescent) preferred to express emotions to adults rather than to peers. Research in peer relations demonstrated an increase in intimacy (Berndt, 1982), emotional support (Hortacsu, 1989), and reciprocity (Youniss and Haynie, 1992), during early adolescence. Research on peer relations indicated that children who frequently expressed anger, and behaved in an aggressive manner were rejected by their peers (Coie, Dodge and Kupersmith, 1990). In another study (Parke, Cassidy, Bruks, Carson and Boyum, 1992; Youniss and Haynie, 1992), three audience figures (i.e. mother, father, best friend) were included to investigate the impact of key socializing agent on children's management of emotional expressiveness. Research demonstrated that both parents and friends played a critical role in children's socio-emotional development. Children managed emotions differently depending on which audience figure present (Gavin and Furman, 1996; Papini, Farmer, Clark, Micka and Barnett, 1990), and the relations with each of these audience figures changed from middle childhood to adolescence (Montemayor and Flannery, 1989; Collins and Russell, 1991). Interestingly adolescents indicated that in response to emotional displays, they expected greater belittling...
or higher levels of negative interchanges by best friends than from either parent. (Youniss and Smollar, 1985; Laursen and Collins, 1994).

Early adolescence not only encompassed the biological and physiological changes associated with puberty but, also for many children, included changes in the social and learning environment changes that characterized the transition from elementary to middle level schools. According to Eccles and Midgley (1989), these changes could create a mismatch between the new school environment and the developmental needs of early adolescents. As a result, many youth experienced a decline in school performance and adjustment during this transition (Eccles and Midgley, 1989; Eccles, Midgley, Buchanan, Flanagan, Mac, Reuman and Wigfield, 1993). For example, Simmons and Blyth (1987) found that students not only experienced a significant decline in school grades during the middle school transition, but also that the magnitude of this decline was predictive of subsequent school failure and dropout. It was found that children between the ages of 12 and 14 had similar beliefs about themselves regardless of how they were schooled. All age groups in both research populations had self-concept scores higher than the national average as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. The results further indicated that children from both school environments participating in this study achieved scores on the Children's Assertive Behavior Scale that revealed slightly passive understanding of social situations. It was concluded that appropriate social skills could develop apart from the formal contact with children other than siblings.

A wide range of personal and environmental factors were found related to adolescent problem areas, in a risk and protective factor paradigm (Compas, Hinden and Gerhardt, 1995). These factors included demographic (e.g. gender, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status), educational (e.g. academic performance and school attendance), family (e.g. family conflict, parent child relationship and family support), personal (e.g. other problems or emotional difficulties, self efficacy, coping skills and social competence), and other contextual factors, such as peer influence and stressful life events (Shedler, 1990; Elias, Gara, Schuyler, Branden-Muller and Sayette, 1991; Kandel and Lesser; 1972 Farrell, Dannish and Howard, 1992; Hawkins, Catalano and Miller, 1992; Newcomb and Felix-Ortiz, 1992; Windle, 1992; Zimmerman and Maton, 1992; Jessor, 1993; Allen, Hauser, Bell
and O'Connorl, 1994). These studies had shown consistently that psychosocial risk and protective factors played an important role in the etiology and the developmental process of adolescent problems. The period of early adolescence (ages 10 to 14) can be particularly difficult for many children (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1995).

Gavin and Furman (1996) examined factors associated with harmony in adolescent girl's relationship with their mothers and best friends. Harmonious mother-daughter partners (vs. disharmonious ones) had more similar needs, felt their needs were better met, perceived their partners as more socially skilled, and had more similar interests. Harmonious friends (vs. disharmonious ones) had more similar needs, and target adolescents perceived partners to be more socially skilled and better at meeting their needs. Observational ratings of attunements, positive affect, and power negotiations were greater in harmonious relationships with both mothers and friends.

**FAMILY CHARACTERISTICS**

Researches during 1970s revealed that the household division of labor was still gender based even when women's participation in the labor force was on the increase. Coleman (1973) pointed out that the family carried the responsibility for the welfare of its members from cradle to grave. A sociological study by Oakley (1974) revealed that the nature of housework remained boring, repetitious and monotonous, and women as housekeepers still performed majority of this drudgery. This was further confirmed by the observations of Rapoport and Rapoport (1976) on dual career families. They found that men did some housework chores, but only to 'help' their wives. They still seemed to regard it as 'her job'. Ideology of gender roles played an important part in the performance of household tasks. The potential for conflict between work and family roles was expected to increase as the work role became more salient for women (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985).

Beckert (1975) found that family high in cohesion and expressiveness and low in conflict showed less dependency and fewer psychological illnesses. These variables showed a stronger relationship for non-working mothers. Berne (1979) observed a relationship between family environment and career decision making. More were the cohesion,
expressiveness, independence and achievement orientation, more advanced were the
decision making.

A number of studies investigated the issues of satisfaction in dual career families (Sekaran,
1986; Staines, Pottick, Fudge, 1986), the relationship between various family characteristics
and work characteristics (Anderson-Kuman and Puladi, 1986; Voydanoff, 1984, 1987;
Weinberg and Tittle, 1987), and interrole conflict. An important conclusion from literature
was that the domains of work and family life could no longer be considered independently.
Identifying the important interrelationships among work and family variables was a critical
issue for both women and men. Research in this area would also be increasingly necessary as
organizations developed programme and policies to address issues brought about by the
increasing number of women in the workforce. Currently, issues such as parental leave (for
both parents), quality day care, and alternative work schedules were receiving considerable
media attention (Garland, 1987).

A reasonable extent of social support could reduce role conflict, as reported by women
involved in dual roles. Greenglass, Panotry, and Burke (1988), found that the higher the
support received from supervisor, family and friends, the lower was the role conflict. Thus
when employed women with families were able to share with their roles with other family
members, the role conflict automatically reduced. Some men in dual-earner families were
participating more equally in family work, especially childcare (Sandqvist, Yuen and Lim,
1988), and reallocation of gender roles within some families was giving rise to the
possibility of a new generation who might be less closely attached to stereotypical gender
roles. Where women's work was highly valued, the gender gap in income level could be
narrowed down, despite occupational segregation. Dual earner families were changing the
structures of families, organizations and wider societies, but the process was slow and
uneven.

Parenting was an important responsibility in developing life competencies among their
children. A primary goal of parenting was helping the adolescent develop social competence,
or ability to function effectively within home or outside (Peterson and Leigh 1990; Small and
Eastman, 1991). When parents saw their children behaving the way they had taught them or
perceived to be socially acceptable gave them a greater satisfaction with parenting. Such
positive feelings contributed significantly to the overall life satisfaction (Campbell, Converse and Rogers, 1976) and satisfaction with family life (Medley, 1980). Some studies on satisfaction of parents and adolescents explored how psychological characteristics of parents (e.g. maternal depression, life stresses; Koski and Steinberg, 1990) or qualities of the parent/youth relationship (e.g. Warmth and closeness, Paulson, Hill and Holmbeck, 1991) related to satisfaction. Hoffman and Manis (1978) found that parents derived satisfaction when adolescents could provide an adult like companionship to their parents. The home environment that children experienced assumed importance in several longitudinal studies (Baumrind, 1975).

A family’s cohesiveness, the quality or closeness of relationships in networks, affected psychological and behavioral consequences in the offspring (Rossi and Rossi, 1990). Nonetheless, the wife’s preferences primarily influenced both size and cohesion of the network (Reiss and Oliveri, 1983). Researchers had found that the extended family interactions favoured maternal relations and that women served as the connecting links or gatekeepers” to family relations (Bahr, 1976; Reiss and Oliveri, 1983; Rossi and Rossi, 1990). The degree to which the new couple became involved in the husband’s family was thus perceived to depend on the quality of the wife’s relationship with her own family.

A number of studies had suggested that family cohesion was related to several psychological outcomes including depressive symptomatology. Anderson, McNeilly and Myers (1991) reported that, although adolescents reported decreasing parental attachment as they matured, there was a persistent association of perceived parental attachment and family cohesion with depression and social anxiety.

In societies where women were expected to play a part in the labour force, her decisions, level of commitment or involvement in a career and the priority assigned to family work were constrained by prevailing social and organizational values, by the level of their partner’s involvement in family work, and by the availability of occupational opportunities. Where women’s responsibilities were accommodated by the workplace and the men were protected against the intrusion of family into work, women’s labour force participation failed to expand women’s choices or to contribute to gender equality. Similarly, public provisions
enabling women to combine family and employment reduced women's burden, but also reduced their occupational opportunities (Israeli, 1992 and Clason, 1992).

Men and women in many cultures and subcultures subscribe to the view that men were inept or incapable of domestic work and this was used to excuse men's non-participation in family work, and to avoid confrontation (Chabot, 1992 and Shekaran, 1992). Although men were now increasingly involved in child care and family work, women continue to perform most of the domestic work and made more modifications in their work schedules for family reasons.

**FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND ADOLESCENTS**

A number of studies had been carried out using different measures of family climate, e.g. parent-child relationship, child-rearing practices, negligence of parents, restrictiveness, broken homes in relation to home adjustment both in India and abroad (Nagpal, 1972; Sharma, 1975; Agarwal and Saxena, 1977; Teja, Verma and Shah, 1970; Oliver, 1974; Syida, 1978).

Highly competent adolescents, regardless of whether they were socio-economically advantaged or disadvantaged, shared a common set of characteristics, including an emotionally healthy family climate (Sahoo and Sia, 1988; Choudhary 1991; Hariharan 1991; Padhi and Dash, 1994). Parents of adolescents in these families tended to have a positive attitude towards themselves, and towards their adolescents, as well as have high expectations of their adolescents with regard to behavior, education, and achievement. They were highly nurturant and consistently involved in their children's schools and extra-curricular activities. Despite differences in living conditions, more competent youth tended to have strong family and community support (Chowdhury, Muni, Rath and Pati 1996).

Children and adolescents occupied a distinct place within the family system, and interdependency among the family members tended to last much longer in many developing than in developed nations (Simhadri, 1989; Madan, 1990). Parents remained the primary socializers of children and youth in ways unparalleled in many regions of the world (Gupta, 1987; Shukla, 1994). Thus, a healthy and supportive family environment was likely to be
critical to the development of adolescent competence. Adolescents in India today face many of the same problems as their peers in other countries (Sarkar, 1988; Agarwal, 1989; Parikh and Krishna, 1992).

A positive relationship was observed between authoritarian and coercive parenting and adolescent distress and problem behaviors (Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn and Dornbush 1991). Interest in the relationship between family interaction, and adolescent development and competence had increased steadily (Harter, 1990; Baumrind, 1991; Silverberg, Tannenbaum and Jacob, 1992). Parental influence played a dominant role in creating and maintaining the family environment, but the role of parental authority relatively diminished with the beginning of adolescence.

Studies found that i) parent-child relationships undergo many changes during adolescence, that were best described by a curvilinear function (Collins and Russell, 1991; Hill, Holmbeck, Marlow, Green and Lynch, 1985a, 1985b), ii) child-peer relationships showed an increase in reciprocity and emotional support from middle childhood through adolescence (Berndt, 1982; Hortacsu, 1989; Youniss and Haynie, 1992). With respect to child’s gender, research on sex roles (Broody and Hall, 1993; Zeeman and Garber, 1996), and emotional disclosure (Belle, 1989; Belle, Burr, and Cooney, 1987) provided evidence that boys and girls not only expressed emotions differently, but also their expressivity varied as a function of the type of emotion experienced. Further, boys and girls maintained different expectations regarding the consequences of emotional displays.

The relationships adolescent had with family and peers predicted their adjustment in later life (Vernberg, 1990). Parental pressure on children to do well in studies influenced children's time distribution on the school work (Verma and Gupta, 1990). Further the time spent was also related to the system of competition to cope with which, they enrolled themselves in various other coaching institutions (Russell, 1997). Motivated adolescents devoted more time to studies (Russell, 1997; Verma and Gupta, 1990), even the students who were not inclined for higher studies but wanted to do something (Rosenbaum, Kariya, Settersten and Maier, 1990).
Even though the bond remained reasonably strong and stable, according to some studies there was usually a relative deterioration in relationships in the early and middle phases of adolescence (Furman and Buhrmester, 1992; Paulson and Sputa, 1996; Steinberg, 1987, 1988, 1990). Some other studies however, reported an improvement in relations in late adolescence and early adulthood (Feldman and Gehr, 1990; Thornton, Orbuch and Axinn., 1995).

There was a strong association between adolescent competence and parenting and family variables (Choudhury and Choudhury, 1993). It was noted that learning environments constructed by parents varied as a function of a family's ethnic background and differed between daughters and sons (Keith and Benson, 1992; Fejgin, 1995; Muller, 1995; Scott-Jones, 1995).

Adolescents who communicated in non-reciprocal languages interacted less often with their parents than adolescents who shared a common language with them. Among adolescents and parents who mutually communicated in the same language, the struggle to adapt and acculturate led them to place greater emphasis on family closeness and mutual obligations (Suarez-Orozco and Suarez-Orozco, 1995).

Some researchers found that the parental bond were undifferentiated (Steinberg and Silverberg, 1986; Armsden and Greenberger, 1987; Kenny, 1987; Lamborn and Steinberg, 1993), whereas others emphasized that children-as a rule had a closer relationship with their mother than with father (LeCroy, 1988; Thornton, Orbuch and Axinn, 1995). The Influence of the mother was known to be may be more important than father (Field, Lang, Yando and Bendell, 1995), and vice versa (Allen, Hauser, Bell and O'Conner, 1994), but the effects of the bond with the mother and the father on the well-being and performance of adolescents usually pointed in the same direction (Barnes and Farrell, 1992; Paterson, Field and Pryor, 1994; Wenk, Hardesty, Morgan and Blair, 1994).

Girls and boys could have different parental bonds. It was reported by Ryan and Lynch (1989) that adolescent girls did not have such a good parental bond as did boys. Other studies, though, revealed that the reverse was also true (Kenny, 1994), while some found little or no difference between the parental bonds of both sexes (Nada Raja, McGee and
Changes in the relationships with parents and peers in adolescence could be different for girls and boys. Research on social relations during adolescence had frequently revealed that girls generally reported receiving more social support than boys (Furman and Buhrmester, 1992; Armsden and Greenberger, 1987). In addition, it was found that girls tended to have fewer but more intensive contacts, whereas boys had more extensive network, but largely consisting of more superficial relationships (Bryant, 1994; Vondra and Garbarino, 1988). However, other studies found no sex differences in relations. (Oliveri and Reiss, 1987; Coates, 1987; Belle, 1989).

McKeown, Garrison, Jackson, Cuffe, Addy and Waller, (1997) assessed whether the presence of both natural parents in the home and the level of perceived emotional bonding in the family, as measured by the cohesion component of the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales, were independent predictors of depressive symptoms in a diverse community sample of adolescents. Cohesion was significantly associated with depressive symptoms after controlling the family structure and parent education, but there were significant interactions of cohesion with race and gender. Depressive symptoms in young adolescents were more strongly affected by the perception of emotional bonding in the family, than by the particular family structure. Apparent effects of family structure were likely to be confounded, and were a reflection of the level of perceived emotional bonding or cohesion. The strength of these associations varied across race and gender, perhaps reflecting differences in external events, extended events, extended family structures and stress.

Chowdhury (1999) indicated that families of more socially competent adolescents tended to be verbally and emotionally expressive, democratic with regard to discipline, input and decision making; closed but not enmeshed; higher in their level of parent-adolescent communication and family ideals; and lower in external locus of control. Consequently, families of more antisocial adolescents had more conflict and enmeshment, were more external-locus-control oriented, and were either permissive or authoritarian. Finally, several personal and family demographic traits were positively associated with social competence, and negatively with antisocial behavior, including gender, age and grade, education level of mothers and fathers and birth order.
PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL BEING

Different professionals experienced stress differently in view of work type and other demands. Surti (1982) in a study of professionals found self-role distance experienced mostly by bankers and least by university and college teachers. Doctors experienced maximum inter role distance while it was minimum among gazetted officers, researchers, university and college teachers. This could be because the doctor's role was a very specialized one. While playing multiple roles, the doctor experienced stress due to various expectations from different role senders, which he/she might find difficult to fulfil. University and college teachers experienced least role stress as these jobs were considered socially prestigious, working hours were short, vacations were frequent and pay scales were reasonable. Thus, women in these professions were able to fulfil the demands of various roles and consequently did not experience conflict because of the multiple roles they played in society.

Sejwal and Ram (1983) found no sex differences in the perceived stress (readjustment) related to the events threatening personal attachment, with the only exception of broken heart. In another study, Shejwal (1984b) observed that though it was generally accepted that life events were stressful, yet in reality they were not equally stressful to everyone.

Jick and Mitz (1985) in a review of the research showed that women reported higher rates of psychological distress and minor illness than men, whereas men were more prone to severe physical illness. It was indicated in another research that professional and managerial women potentially suffered a number of work-related stressors, such as discrimination, stereotyping, the marriage/work interface and social isolation, that either did not occur or were less severe for their male colleagues. Davidson and Cooper (1983) also found women managers having additional stressors both at work and at home compared to their male counterparts.

Several studies had identified a variety of positive psychological attributes of employment for women (Barnett and Baruch, 1985; Baruch and Barnett, 1986), and even greater advantages for those in occupations with high status (Baruch, Biener and Barnett, 1987). These studies suggested that work could provide women with greater satisfaction, self-esteem, and less conflict (Baruch, Biener and Barnett, 1987), than roles that did not include
work outside the home. Thus, even if women frequently occupied potentially stressful jobs with little autonomy and high demands, the benefits of work per se outweighed the potential psychological liabilities. Discussions of the possible unique sources of stress for working women as well as possible sex differences in responses to work-related stress received considerable attention in the literature over the last few years (Barnet and Marshall 1991). Shenoy (1987) found that role stress was associated with psychological stress, and marital stress was higher among housewives as compared to the working women. He concluded that married working women were significantly less distressed than housewives inspite of experiencing occupational stress.

Sobel (1991) distinguished between "mothering" and "fathering". The experiences of women who reported less stress as a parent, less satisfaction with the support they received from their spouse, and more satisfaction with their relationships with children supported the notion, that women were responding both to their internal psyche and to external socio-cultural pressures to bear the responsibility for child care, regardless of whether or not they work.

Pillai (1992) analyzed the role of family myth in the lives of adolescent girls, who were living away from home in a residential institution. Based on the semi-structured interviews, the researcher explored the different myths that developed in the families. The results showed that there were a large number of problems prevalent in the form of scapegoat, salvation, and redemption myths. The implications for practice revealed that it was necessary to understand family myths in order to comprehend family relationships. In order to work with myths, a therapist had to be an impartial arbiter and investigator, and create an atmosphere for various family members involvements with each other. Analysis of the total scores revealed that a course requiring adaptive behaviors was perceived as more stressful than a course requiring innovative behaviors. Similarly, an analysis of the Rule/Group conformity scores revealed that the greater the conformity required the greater was the stress. Also the less originality demanded in the course, the greater was the perceived stress. For the KAI total scores and Rule/Group conformity scores, the two measures of fit (incongruity and magnitude of the incongruity) were not related to stress. However, analyses of the Originality and Efficiency subscales supported the importance of the P-E fit position. For
both subscales, stress was associated with the magnitude of the difference between what was required in the course and what students exhibited in the course.

To investigate what types of occupational and role-conflict stresses were associated with physical and depressive symptoms, and whether social support could protect individuals from the negative health effects of stress, Reifman et al (1993) surveyed two hundred married professional women with small children. Six stress indices predicted physical and depressive symptoms, both concurrently and one year later. These stresses reflected perceptions of lack of authority and influence on the job, sex discrimination, a heavy workload, and work imposing on relaxation, family imposing on relaxation, and overall suffering from role conflict. Social support yielded no stress-buffering effects. In a similar study, Lee (1992) focused on the factors of physical health, psychological well-being, role satisfaction and social support, and found that the symptomatic women were less satisfied with various aspects of their social lives and reported less social support. A balanced social role orientation on the job was associated with higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of job stress. Higher levels of instrumentality on the job, and off the job and higher levels of expressivities on the job and off the job were associated with higher levels of personal accomplishment and lower levels of depersonalization. Carol (1992), Durkheim (1893), Hastie (1981), and Houston (1992) explored the ways in which women's social roles influenced their attitudes and beliefs about personal nutrition care. In-depth interviews were conducted with 36 married mothers, both employed and housewives. 10 food and nutrition related roles were identified. Data suggested that social roles influenced women's attitudes about personal nutrition care in both positive and negative ways; this influence was modified by women's changing interpretation of their family roles at different life stages. Houston and Gray (1986) while analyzing relationships between job related stress and various indices of psycho-social strain found that for working and not working women, quantitative overload was associated with more self-reported tension and health problems; quantitative overload was associated with marital dissatisfaction or homemakers.

Linda (1991) found that somatizing tend to embrace the more traditional roles and suffering from its consequences. All of the ten women who were evaluated as somatizers were found to be oppressed. Only two of the non-somatizers were found being oppressed. The subjects
reported a high incidence of both sexual and physical abuse. The somatizing women overwhelmingly reported being closer to their fathers in childhood, while the non-somatizing women noted closeness to their mothers in childhood.

Research had shown that the socio economic status influenced the emotional atmosphere of the home and the patterns of family interactions. The kind of environment at home and the relationships established between the child and his parents were significant for the child's future social and emotional development. Kevin (1996) revealed that (a) ethnicity was related to young adolescent's cognitive performance and to measures of their proximal family environment, (b) proximal family environment measures mediated the relations between ethnicity and cognitive performance, and (c) there were gender related differences in the associations of ethnicity, proximal family environment, and young adolescent's cognitive performance.

Ellen and Margaret (1997) explored the contribution of role stressors and personal resources, in predicting strain symptoms experienced by 117 professional women employed full-time in academia. Results revealed that, while role stressors alone accounted for only a moderate amount of the variance in reported strain symptoms, 51 percent of the variance was explained when both stressors and personal resources were combined. Women, who experienced higher levels of personal control and social support as well as a greater number of occupied roles, reported lower levels of strain symptoms.

Pattanayak and Mishra (1997) found significant differences between executives and assistants on occupational stress dimensions of role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, responsibility for persons, intrinsic impoverishment, and low status.

Pareek and Mehta (1997) compared three groups of working women, i.e., gazetted officers, bank employees and school teachers, on the types of role stress experienced by them. Gazetted officers scored significantly higher on all the dimensions of role stress as compared to school teachers. Significant differences were observed between gazetted officers and bank employees on the dimensions of inter-role distance, role stagnation, role ambiguity and role overload. Bank employees also scored significantly higher on all role stress dimensions as
compared to school teachers. School teachers were found to be lower on all kinds of role stresses in comparison to both gazetted officers and bank employees.

Ram (1998) revealed that though families differed from each other in several aspects, among urban working mothers with dependent children, the number of hassles experienced and the intensity of stress arising from the hassles by working mothers were quite similar across the country of working mothers. This supported an earlier study of Shejwal (1984).

ADOLESCENTS AND THEIR PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

Block (1985) reporting on childhood predictors of adolescent adjustment noted that parents of boys who were well adjusted in adolescence were warm, supportive, accepting, structuring and not overly deferent or capitulating to their children. The boys' homes were characterized as active, busy, having sophisticated and complex environments, where the mother emphasized an intellectual orientation and encouraged independence. Baumrind (1986) also noted that the parental strategies used with preschool children made a dramatic difference in adolescent's social competence. Both these researchers found a positive home environment to be a particularly strong force among adolescent boys, but less salient among the girls. Nezu (1986) found that among (adolescent) students, those identified as effective problem solvers had significantly fewer depressive symptoms, when compared to ineffective problem solvers who were experiencing the same levels of life stress. A study by Zaslow and Hayes (1986) indicated that particularly young boys, tended to be more vulnerable than girls to family stress.

Adolescence was characterized by increased demands for coping with multiple social, biological, and psychological changes and the emergence of the cognitive precursors of adulthood (Patterson and McCubbin, 1987; Peterson, 1988). While coping ability developed, in part, as a result of experience, shifts in cognitive organization across development affected coping strategies (e.g., emerging anticipatory skills foster differentiated appraisals of the situation, awareness of potential outcomes, and generation of alternative responses to confront or avoid the stressor.)
It had been found that students who were not intrinsically motivated, exhibited less motivation, autonomy, and satisfaction in doing schoolwork and those conditions negatively affected feelings of academic competence and enjoyment of learning, finally hampering in their academic performance (Dweck and Elliot, 1983; Ministry of Human Resource Development, 1993). Studies of middle class children in India showed that the pressure they felt to do well in studies was associated with anxiety, negative effects on learning and dropping out of school (Verma, 1984). This state of psychological well being together with many hours of school work possibly had negative impact on the well being of students (Larson and Verma, 1999).

Theories of stress and coping suggested that children could cope rather well with single stressors, but the risks to development increased considerably when they faced several changes simultaneously (Rutter 1979; Simmons and Blyth 1987; Coleman 1988). Simmons and Blyth (1987) had shown that the early adolescents’ adjustment during the transition from junior to higher grades was most problematic for children experiencing other stressful changes at the same time. Adaptation to senior grades posed problems for students due to the multiple changes occurring during this developmental period, and that junior grades were very different from the senior grades (Eccles, Midgley and Adler 1984, Simmons and Blyth 1987). Significant declines in student and teacher satisfaction, achievement and efficacy, and in the student-teacher relationship occurred during the transition from junior to higher levels (Eccles and Midgley 1989; Yee 1990; Eccles, Midgley, Buchanan, Flanagan, Mac Iver, Reuman and Wigfield 1993).

In another study Flanagan (1989) found that for early adolescent boys, but not for early adolescent girls, financial hardship was significantly related to lower self-esteem and higher parent-child conflict. And hardship was negatively related to tenth grade girls self esteem. In addition, there was no relationship between hardship and anti-social behavior for either age or gender group. Finally, regardless of sex, hardship increased, for both sixth and tenth grade adolescents pessimism about the future and their concerns for their family financial situation. Several studies showed that financial pressures restricted the educational plans of daughters but had no effect on son’s plans. In addition girls think about career issues at an early age than boys, since balancing career and family was more central to the identity process for
adolescent girls than boys. Boys reacted to stress by acting out, whereas girls internalized their reactions (Rosen and Aneshensel 1978).

Studies had shown that more authoritative (democratic) parenting styles were positively associated with adolescent academic competence, school performance (Steinberg, Elmen and Mounts, 1989; Dornbush, Ritter, and Mont-Reynard, 1990), autonomy and self-esteem (Baumrind 1975; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbush, 1991), psychosocial maturity, (Steinberg, Elmen and Mounts, 1989) and moral development (Hoffman 1975).

In general, adolescents had a good relationship with their parents. This had been confirmed by studies from various countries over the years (Steinberg, 1990). After adolescence, adults usually remained on good terms with their parents (Thornton, Orbuch and Axinn, 1995). A strong and secure parental bond did not have to be an obstacle for adolescents who strive to become independent (Grotevant and Cooper, 1985, 1986).

Theorists have suggested that student's motivation to achieve in school depended on their expectancies for success and the value they attached to success. Covariance structure analyses showed that student's expectancies were more strongly related to their achievement than values. Nevertheless, both expectancies and values made significant, independent contributions to achievement. In addition, the constructs for expectancies and values were positively correlated. Boys and girls had similar expectancies, but boys appeared to value academic success less than did girls. Coldberg and Chandler (1991) explored selected roles as criteria for social status among high school females with particular reference to participation in inter scholastic athletics. Six hundred and twenty seven female high school students completed the School Climate Questionnaire and, using a five-point Likert scale, rated different role/activity choices. There were significant differences between participants and non-participants with respect to roles selected for future status; however, no significant relationship was found between groups, and their identification of the criteria for peer approval. Overall, high school females exhibited multidimensional self-identities that differed in relation to their involvement in sports, and the social groups used as their point of reference.
Mary (1991) examined adolescent depression from a developmental perspective. The findings revealed that the depressed adolescents differed significantly from the non-depressed and mildly depressed adolescents, in terms of levels of egocentrism; perceived quality of parental attachment, and perceived quality of peer attachment. The depressed adolescents were found to be more preoccupied with thoughts of how others viewed them, as well as with thoughts about their known personal uniqueness than were the other two groups. The findings suggested that depressed adolescents might be developmentally different from non-depressed adolescents. The association between depression, and parental and peer attachment as well as the relationship between parental attachment and egocentrism suggested that: depression was associated with early childhood experiences, such as loss or threat of loss; significant depression experienced in adolescence may impede cognitive development; heightened egocentrism might play a role in the maintenance of depressive symptomatology; and the inability to develop strong ties with peers in depressed adolescents could be a function of two compounding variables: insecure attachment and high levels of egocentrism.

In a study by Wallbotm and Scheren (1991) experimentally manipulated several factors considered to be relevant in mediating stress arousal. Subjects selected on the coping styles anxiety denying, low anxiety and high anxiety were confronted with both low and high-arousal inducing situations, using two different types of stressors (cognitive versus emotional) in each case. Arousal reactions were measured in three response modalities: verbal report of subjective experience; non-verbal, non-vocal behaviour; and physiological reactions. The results revealed complex interactions between type and degree of stress, coping styles and gender of SS confirming the findings on vocal parameters of stress. Chu (1992) identified four broad coping styles. Avoidance/Blaming was consistently found to be a significant and moderately strong predictor of psychological distress in four different problems areas: (i) academic difficulties, (ii) conflict with elders, (iii) conflicts with friends, and (iv) future concerns. Although males and females used similar coping styles when confronted with difficulties, they differed in the frequency with which they might use a particular coping style to deal with particular problems.
Magee (1992) indicated that depression and suicidal behaviors, but not hopelessness, were related to gender. Depression, hopelessness, and suicidal behaviors were not related to place of residence. Results further indicated that boys and girls differed significantly on the number of suicidal threats and thoughts, but not on attempts. Nearly twice as many girls as boys reported thinking about suicide. Although differences between boys and girls on reported suicide attempts, did not achieve statistical significance, girls reported attempting suicide half again as often as boys.

Other researches pointed to a connection between certain family variables and adjustment difficulties of adolescent boys and girls, including problems in family decision-making (Dornbusch, Ritter, Mont-Reynard and Chen 1990), and economic hardship and stress (Conger, Conger and Elder 1993, Conger, Conger, Elder Lorenz, Simons and Whitebeck 1992; Conger, Ge, Elder, Lorenz and Simons 1994).

Traditional schools provided for regular classroom contacts with children of the same age, and it was assumed that this regular contact with other children aided appropriate social adjustment. By their very nature, home schools did not provide for regular formal classroom contact with children other than siblings. Because of this obvious difference, parents, educators, legislators, and courts have questioned whether children schooled at home were socially as well adjusted as their age mates in traditional programmes (Edina 1994).

In another study Biswas, Kapur and Kaliaperumal, (1995) investigated the adjustment patterns, stressful life events and their relationship to psychological disturbances during the middle childhood period among psychologically disturbed and non-disturbed children. They found that psychological disturbances, adjustment problems and stressful life events had a significant relationship with each other. It was also found that in comparison to the non-disturbed group, the disturbed children experienced more adjustment problems in the areas of health, school, self and home with higher number of stressful life events during the past years. Megabyte (1995) conducted a study to understand adolescent's social behavior, using measures of affiliation need and interpersonal closeness. In support of Erickson's theory, the need for social comparison declined with age for both sexes. However, in support of Gilligen's study not only were females more attached to their parents, but gender differences
were most pronounced for late adolescents. Adolescents need for simulation peaked around late adolescents, and then declined.

Nanda and Dash (1996), while acknowledging the multi-directionality of influences in family systems, emphasized that there was a direct and discernible relation between parenting and family variables (e.g. style, attitude, beliefs, personality traits, socioeconomic status) and child behavior, competence and personality development.

Older children reported expecting a more negative interpersonal response to emotional displays than younger children and indicated a greater tendency to control displays of negative emotions. Girls reported expressing sadness and pain more than boys, and expected a more positive parental reaction to such displays (Fuchs and Thelan, 1988; Zeman and Shipman, 1996).

A study by Zeman and Shipman (1997) indicated that the 8th grade adolescents reported regulating emotions most, and expected the least interpersonal support from mothers. Children expressed greater self-efficacy and regulation of sadness than anger. Boys reported dissembling emotions and expecting a negative interpersonal response to emotional behavior more than girls, were more concerned with protecting feelings of friends than with protecting feelings of fathers. Further research indicated that different socialization histories existed for the expression of anger and sadness as a function of gender (Brody and Hall, 1993).

The results revealed that low self-esteem was associated with adolescents' use of maladaptive achievement strategies which, in turn, was associated with their maladjustment at school, and internalizing and externalizing problem behaviors. Moreover, the association between adolescents' maladaptive strategies and their externalizing problem behavior was partly mediated via their school adjustment. The results suggested that the achievement strategies deployed by adolescents were reflected not only in their school adjustment, but also in their overall problem behaviors (Aunola, Stattin and Nurmi, 2000).
ROLE PERCEPTIONS

Chatterjee and Shah (1981) found a positive association between the emotional and social adjustment scores of young students, and their perceptions of their mothers and fathers as nurturant and affectionate. Baruch and Barnett (1981) found that both fathers and mothers' sex role attitudes influenced fathers' involvement in the child care. The more non-traditional the parents' attitudes, the more involved the fathers were in child care. On the contrary McHale and Huston (1984) found that father's sex role attitudes were not related to the extent of their participation in child care or leisure with their children. Their study further indicated that more the fathers considered themselves to be skilled in family care, more they were involved in care giving.

Dual earner women were often involved in too many responsibilities, and thus experienced the 'time crunch'. This could be reduced, if fathers/husbands took off some of the work load (Zur-Szpiro and Longfellow, 1982). Husbands'/fathers' involvement in the family depended a lot on the husband-wife relationship and parent-child relationship (Russell and Radin, 1983; Hoffman, 1983). Studies had indicated that more heavily burdened the fathers were with work, the more they would stay away from the family involvement (Walker and Woods, 1976; McHale and Huston, 1984). It had also been found that the perception of controllability over emotion was an important determinant in children's emotion management decisions (Saarni, 1989; Zeman and Shipman, 1996).

Arditti, Deborah, Godwin and Scanzoni, (1991) substantiated the hypothesis that perceptions of earlier parenting behaviour exerted a substantial influence on gender role development of children, particularly regarding mothers' influence on gender role development of children and mothers' influence on the instrumentality and expressiveness of their daughters. Mothers parenting measured along the dimensions of encouragement and control was generally more strongly related to their daughters' gender role traits than fathers'. Little influence of parenting behavior on daughters' gender role preferences was found.

Children perceived their fathers to be less active in the emotion socialization process than mothers and friends and thus likely to provide feedback (i.e. negative consequences) for inappropriate emotional behavior (Steinberg, 1988; Kaplan, 1984; Collins, 1990). A study by
Fuchs and Thelan (1988) found that children perceived mothers as more understanding of sadness expression than fathers, whereas other studies have found no difference (Zeman and Garber, 1996; Zeman, Shipman and Young, 1997).

In another study children reported that they anticipated more instrumental consequences (e.g. lose privileges) for anger expression from mothers and friends than from fathers. It might be deduced, that more often than not, the mothers and the best friends played an important role in the socialization of children’s emotional and social behaviors. Research on peer relations indicated that children who expressed anger quite frequently and behaved in an aggressive manner were rejected by their peers (Coie, Dodge and Kupersmith, 1990).

Coltrane and Allan (1994) found that there had been little change on the issue of whether men and women were depicted as nurturant and supportive. Regarding conduct, studies had shown that with the increase in the number of dual-earner families, more fathers were spending large blocks of “quality time” with their children, although men still lagged behind women in this regard (Peck, 1997).

**TIME DISTRIBUTION**


Students were heterogeneous with varying abilities, and viewed the roles as well as activities surrounding them differently. Those who had strong personal abilities considered it important to devote their time in life to study than those who placed more emphasis on their social self. Cronbach (1951) found that such students supplemented their relatively low personal investment in studies through group activities. Vasantha Kumar (1964) had found that strains of work at home and office coupled with lack of household amenities and
vanishing domestic help, had contributed to the experience of role conflict among working women.

Goode (1960) had maintained that while meeting different expectations and obligations attached to different roles, women experienced conflict due to time, place or resources. This type of conflict was termed conflict of allocation. Time of working women was related to the type of household and job responsibilities, the distribution of household tasks among the members of family, number of paid assistance, availability of equipments, the services available, and the other use of work saving devices (Hoffman, 1963; Dahlstrom, 1967).

Most married working women had to manage time, in terms of household responsibilities as well as job responsibilities. Different activities attached to different roles required different time allocations. The limitation of time always produced role conflicts among working women (Hoffman, 1963; Dahlstrom, 1967; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969; Bhattay and Bhatty, 1971; Kala Rani, 1976; Chakraborty, 1977). Rapoport and Rapoport (1969) used the term workload for time limitation. According to them, workload was related to role conflicts. They assumed that overload experiences were a function of at least four factors: a) the degree of having children and family life; b) the degree to which the couple aspired to a high standard of domestic living; c) the degree of physical overload of task; and d) the degree of social and psychological overload. The results showed that role conflict were related to degree of high overload. Singh (1972) confirmed that the amount of time spent outside home was an important factor that was associated to role conflict.

Bhatty and Bhatty (1971) had pointed out that household work load had become the problem for working women as the joint family was dying out and servants were not easily available. This posed a problem of time limitation on the part of working women to meet both the work, house and job.

Cultures shaped children’s and adolescents’ use of time through the inculcation of values and goals (Schneider, 1972), through positive or negative sanctions attached to different activities and companions and through the structure they give to the day, the week, and the year (Durkheim, 1893; Sorokin and Merton, 1937). Often, these cultural norms applied differentially according to a child’s gender, age, or other social markers.
There were differences in characteristic ways of expression and utilization of time among individuals in a way that these differences were meaningfully related to personality characteristics (Wessman, 1973). He found correlations between the factors of temporal expression (immediate time pressure, long term personal direction, time utilization and personal inconsistency), and a variety of personality attributes. Long term personal direction factors were positively correlated with happiness and elevated mood levels, and with self-esteem and identity. Time utilization correlated positively with precision and orderliness, and with confidence and initiative. Hepworth (1980) found that the unemployed individuals mental health was best predicted by their time management behaviour. Ineffective time management led to depression and low self-esteem. Feather and Bond (1983) found a set of factors, such as; engagement, direction, structure and routine, which resembled the long term personal direction and time utilization factors described by Wessman (1973), as these were defined by items concerned with purpose and organization.

Kapur (1974) indicated that the women who chose to combine marriage with career faced a situation of normlessness and they hardly knew how to apportion time and resources between these two major responsibilities. This made them face and experience great conflict, tension and strains.

Chakraborty (1977) found that the role conflict was related to time in term of non-availability or high cost of various labour and time saving devices, transport problem which took much of the time of the working women, and scarcity of day care centers for young children. It had been found that despite the higher frequency of women reporting engaging in conventional time management behaviors such as making lists, planning and scheduling, women were not able to control time leading to frequent role conflicts (Pleck, Staines and Long, 1980).

Hanel (1981) while testing the effectiveness of self-instruction time management found that the subjects reported more time management behaviors after instructions, even though daily time slogs revealed little change in the behaviors.

It had been observed that women's pace speed were positively related with ability to manage time, where as men's pace speed were positively associated with items that emphasized
maintaining the control of time. This was not to underscore the role of other factors, such as work type that could account for the difference between men and women.

Feather and Bond (1983) in their study found correlations between time structure scores and personal variables. While Scores on time structure questions were negatively correlated with depression, they were positively correlated with self-esteem. The results also indicated that employment inputs acted as an intervening variable. In a study of Black and White Urban residents in England (17 yrs. old), Warr, Banks and Ullah (1985) found that the ability to fill the time of the past month of gland was negatively correlated with psychological distress, depression and anxiety.

In schooled Western populations, boys had been found to spend more time than girls on outdoor errands and yard tasks (Cogle, Tasker and Morton, 1983). Scholars attributed these gender differences in total time, and type of household tasks to parental attitudes and their differential preparation of girls and boys for the adult work roles of women and men (Goodnow, 1988; Whiting and Edwards, 1988). Differences also occurred in amount of time spent on schoolwork outside of class. Some elementary students and many adolescents from affluent families attended supplementary “cram schools” (Russell, 1997) or hired private tutors (Badhwar and Pratap, 1987). In addition, the amount of time devoted to homework varied markedly.

Bost (1984) did not find differences in grade point averages (GPA) among the four time management treatment groups, and there was little work undertaken on student’s time management behavior. Chowdhury, Muni, Rath and Pati (1996), in an attempt to study the socio-economic background of disciplined and in disciplined teens, found lack of discipline as an expression of anger against parents, teachers and the whole society. The results indicated that economic status was a significant factor in determining the level of discipline within the teenager. However, social status, neighborhood relations and relations with classmates did not contribute at all. The two groups were significantly different in their relationship with teachers. Teachers had good rapport with disciplined students, and quite bad with the indisciplined lot. It was observed that this lot involved themselves in excess of amusement facilities. Also the two groups were significantly different in their leisure time spending.
In a study of working wives, Winett and Lovett (1986) found that those who participated in
time management training received both immediate and long-term benefits in terms of
greater increase in their knowledge of time and stress management factors. Consequently
they spent more time in a self-determined, stress reducing, enjoyable activity and reported a
greater amount of self-efficacy for time and stress management related behaviors. Feather
and Bond (1983) observed positive relation between perceived use of time and a sense of
purpose in life, self esteem, reported health, optimism about the future and more efficient
study habits. In consonance with these findings there were negative relationships between
perceived use of time and depression, psychological distress, anxiety, neuroticism, physical
symptoms, hopeless and anomie.

Mackenzie (1972) recognized various reasons for poor and ineffective time management
Poor academic performance was sought to be explained through poor time management
behaviour such as not allocating time properly or last minute cramming for exams (Walter
and Siebert, 1981; Gall, 1988, Longman and Atkinson, 1988). In trying to meet paper
deadlines, reading the books, participating in extra curricular activities, socializing with
friends and relatives, doing personal work, college students were bound to become
overwhelmed with feelings that there was not enough time to complete all their work

Macan, Shahani, Dipboye and Phillips (1990) attempted a systematic analysis to measure the
traditional time management behaviour. Unlike earlier attempts, they developed a research
design to assess the behaviours critical to the construct of time management as defined in the
popular literature. The study had two objectives, first to examine the dimensionality of
conventional time management behaviors; and second, to examine the correlates of time
management behaviors. One hundred and sixty five students were given a questionnaire for
assessing their time management behaviors, attitude stress and self-perceptions of
performance and grade point average. Findings were: the time management behavior scale
consisted of four relatively independent factors; the most predictive was the perceived
control of time. Students who perceived having control over their time reported significantly
greater evaluation of their performance, greater work and life satisfaction, less role
ambiguity, less role over load, and fewer job induced and somatic tensions. Findings were
consistent with theory and advice on time management. A study by Macan, Shahani, Dipboye and Phillips (1990) revealed that the dynamics of time management were more complex than previously thought. Women in their sample, scored significantly high on the overall time management behavior than men. Macan, Shahani, Dipboye, and Phillips (1990) also examined the relationship of the Type 'A- B' personal dimension to time management. Type 'A-B' behavior pattern was significantly correlated with only one time management factor that is setting goals and priorities. Those indicating that they set goals and priorities, tended to show the Type 'A' behavior pattern. This Type had been characterized as showing time presumed behavior.

Importance of time as a resource comes out evidently in studies. This was an illustration of an effective time management in various activities and life satisfaction. Centrality of effective time utilization or experiencing higher self esteem, life satisfaction, reducing role ambiguity, perceived stress was found by the previous researchers this making the concept worth studying. Economists viewed children's time as a capital resource. The quantity of hours and years that a population of children spent in school provided an approximate measure of human capital production. Time devoted to schoolwork was transformed into marketable knowledge and skills. Acquisition of abilities to read, do math, and deploy diverse literacy, problem solving, and technical skills increased these youths capacity to produce goods and services. Research showed that this investment of time in education raised individuals’ lifetime earnings and, at the aggregate level, was related to growth in the society’s economy (Sweetland, 1996; World Bank, 1991).

It had been observed that the patterns of time management and time distribution were different in rural and urban, public and private sector. It also revealed that inefficient time utilization was an inbuilt structural constraint, apart from it being a personal factor (Singhal 1994). For example the emphasis placed by the parents in urban and rural areas, public and private school teachers, high achievers and low achievers in effective time management were different (MacKenzie 1972). It was also observed by the researchers that characteristics, like personal orientation of the managers made some difference in the relationship of the time management with the clarity of role perception etc. (Singhal 1994).
Children and adolescents who spent most of their time in routine household chores encountered a different set of socialization experiences than those who spent more of their time at play or in school settings. Some activities and social contexts might have little bearing on learning or well-being and represented "wasted" time from a developmental perspective (Verma, 1995). Others represented distinct opportunities for psychosocial growth (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Silbereisen, Noack, and Eyferth, 1986).

The average amount of time spent on sleeping was in the range of 8 to 9 hr per night across most populations, with younger children sleeping more than adolescents (Alsaker and Flammer, 1999; Evenson, Popkin, and Quizon, 1980; Zuzanek, 1980; Timmer, Eccles and O'Brien, 1985; Verma and Saraswathi, 1992; Robinson and Bianchi, 1997; Hofferth and Sandberg, 1998). Time in personal care activities also did not vary greatly across cultures. Alsaker and Flammer (1999) found a range of 0.5 to 0.8 hr per day across adolescents in 12 European nations. Similar estimates had been found for U.S., Korean, and Japanese adolescents (Lee, 1994; Nishino, 1997).

Larson and Verma (1999) in one of their studies observed that Asian adolescents spent more time on school work than adolescents in U.S. Korean adolescents spent twice the time spent by U.S. adolescents, whereas European adolescents spent almost same time in class as that of the U.S. adolescents, but spent more time in doing home work, thus their total hour on school work was more than the U.S.

A study by Wartella and Mazzarella (1990) indicated that over the period reading had substantially declined, probably related to the introduction of TV. Time spent on play as a leisure time activity differed from region to region (Whiting and Edwards, 1988), socioeconomic status of the family and between boys and girls, where boys got more time to play than girls (Larson and Verma, 1999). Leisure activities gradually became more unstructured over the child's developmental stages. Across the regions, play disappeared as a category of activity in adolescence (Timmer, Eccles, O'Brien, 1985). It's more of talking instead of play that goes on between adolescents. A study by Alsaker and Flammer (1999) indicated that time spent on social interaction was more prevalent among adolescents across the regions under study.
Larson and Verma (1999) indicated that boys enjoyed more free time than girls. And that boys spent more time on (their own) discretionary activities than girls. Boys spent less time on household activities than girls. The time adolescents reported for watching TV as their primary activity was consistent over the regions studied (Larson and Verma 1999; Alsaker and Flammer, 1999). Boys watched more TV than girls (Bianchi and Robinson, 1997; Carpenter, Huston and Spera, 1989; Flammer and Alasker, 1995; Frederick, 1995; Larson, Richards, Sims, Dworkin, 1998). Reading as a part of leisure time spending unlike watching TV, depended more on literacy, access to library, having resources to purchase books, magazines, or newspapers. Children of the regions included in the study, all indicated spending roughly an hour on reading (Larson and Verma, 1999).

AN OVERVIEW

Studies indicated that women's employment was associated with numerous outcomes of interest. Studies noted that because of working women's continuing role of child rearing and family involvement, her entry into job had indeed affected home front. This had brought changes in family structure and family environment. It had been noted that family environment was an outcome of effort of mothers, fathers and children, but the contribution of the mother was most significant. Mother had been seen as a prime factor in the development of the child, as she spent most of her time satisfying the physical, mental and moral needs of the child.

Studies revealed that the mothers working had been stressful, but often the accompanied adjustments had made the family function smoothly. This was particularly true in relation to adolescents who had displayed a more adjusted behavior pattern. Interestingly studies had considered working women as a homogeneous category thus ignoring the varied impact of different work categories. The fact that the mother was going to work, was more important than what work she did. It had been noted that when the mother was out of the home for major part of the day, children felt more distressful. In this situation the home duties got neglected or postponed. Similarly there were fewer opportunities for social life and recreation with the family. Children of such families, had to share the household activities more as compared to children of non-working mothers. Studies indicated that children of
working mothers and non-working mothers had different stress patterns—children of working mothers being more stressed. Children of working mothers were found less "well adjusted than children of non-working mothers. These children tend to be nervous and irregular in their work habits which affected their school adjustment. Young children were more affected by the mother’s employment than older children, the girls were more affected than boys within the family.

It was observed that the non-working mothers particularly in relation to family environment and psychological well being had not attracted the attention of the researchers. Similarly work categories of mothers had been neglected. While family environment and psychological well being had been studied separately, their inter-relationship across working and non-working mothers, and their children had remained conspicuous by their absence in research.

Similarly there were no studies focusing on non-working mothers and adolescent children. Another lacuna of the studies had been the absence of sex differentiation among children. The time distribution in working and non-working mothers and their children was another area which remained neglected.

It was thus obvious that the study of inter relationships between family environment, stress and adjustment among working and non-working mothers and their adolescents should be undertaken and its nuances analyzed scientifically.